

**INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION
PAPERS
21**

**The evaluation of
anti-discrimination training
activities in the United Kingdom**

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Foreword

This is a paper of the ILO's Migration Branch. The objectives of the Branch are to contribute to (i) the formulation, application and evaluation of international migration policies suited to the economic and social aims of governments, employers' and workers' organizations, (ii) the increase of equality of opportunity and treatment of migrants and the protection of their rights and dignity. Its means of action are research, technical advisory services and co-operation, meetings and work concerned with international labour standards. The Branch also collects, analyses and disseminates relevant information and acts as the information source for ILO constituents, ILO units and other interested parties.

The ILO has a constitutional obligation to protect the 'interests of workers when employed in countries other than their own'. This has traditionally been effected through the elaboration, adoption and supervision on international labour standards, in particular the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97); the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111); the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143); and the non-binding Recommendations supplementing them. International legal instruments of this kind are designed to influence national legislation and regulations in each country which has ratified these Conventions; and in this way they aim at changing not only legislation but actual practices as well.

The key concern of ILO standards for migrant workers is non-discrimination or equality of opportunity and treatment. Many countries broadly adhere to this objective in the economic and social spheres. Some countries ratify ILO Conventions¹ and to their level best to fulfil the obligations deriving from them. One might expect, therefore, that discrimination would no longer be part of the legislation or practices of these countries. Unfortunately, a great deal of circumstantial evidence exists that this assumption does not hold in certain respects and especially not at the workplace in private or public enterprises; and such evidence also exists for countries not having ratified ILO Conventions.

Therefore, the ILO has launched a global programme to combat discrimination against migrant workers and ethnic minorities in the world of work. This programme, which focuses on industrialized migrant receiving countries, aims at tackling discrimination by informing policy makers, employers, workers and trainers engaged in anti-discrimination training on how legislative measures and training activities can be rendered more effective, based on an international comparison of the efficacy of such measures and activities. The programme covers four main components: (i) empirical documentation of the occurrence of discrimination; (ii) research to assess the scope and efficacy of legislative measures designed to combat discrimination; (iii) research to document and to evaluate training and education in anti-discrimination or equal treatment; (iv) seminars to disseminate and draw conclusions from the research findings.

¹Forty-one in the case of Convention No. 97, one hundred and twenty in the case of Convention No. 111, and eighteen in the case of Convention No. 143.

This paper reports on the documentation and evaluation of anti-discrimination training activities in the United Kingdom. Although over 150 training providers were approached in the first stage of the documentation phase, a number of them turned out to be either unwilling to participate or providing training which was not specifically aimed at labour market gate keepers. In the end, this reports provides detailed information on 87 different training courses provided by 57 trainers. Most of these were independent training consultants drawing their clients mainly from personnel and management backgrounds, both in the public and private sector. Relatively little training activity was found to be directed at trade unions, and virtually none at public or private Job Centres. The majority of training courses consisted of a standardized package which was slightly adapted to meet the specific needs of different client organisations.

It appeared that a large part of the training activities mainly aimed at achieving behavioural change, as opposed to a change of attitude, among trainees - focussing notably on fair recruitment and selection processes. According to the anti-discrimination training typology these activities were classified as Equalities Training. An encouraging finding of the evaluation phase of this research was that notably training activities of the Equalities type were found to be most successful in achieving the aimed for changes in behaviour and working practices. The weak spot in virtually all training courses on offer, however, was found to be the absence of systematic evaluation of the outcomes of the training process. The report contains suggestions on how to improve this.

I should like to highlight that the effectiveness of anti-discrimination training depends not only on the quality of the training itself, although appropriate high quality training is more likely to have a positive effect on the organization. It also depends upon both how closely the training providers' aims match those of the training purchaser, and how committed the client organization is to achieving equality of treatment and eradicating discrimination. The wide range of different training activities currently provided in the United Kingdom means that care must be taken by purchasers about the type of training and trainer selected. This report shows that current methods for selecting anti-discrimination training may not acknowledge the wide range available, thus reducing the likelihood of adopting training appropriate to the organisation's specific circumstances.

It is hoped that both training providers and client organizations will take note of the findings of this research and its recommendations as to training selection, approach, methodology and, last but not least, the wider institutional context required for training to effectively contribute eradicating discrimination in the world of work.

The financial support of the Department for Education and Employment, the Home Office and the Commission for Racial Equality towards the carrying out of this study is gratefully acknowledged.

December 1997

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1. Introduction

1.1. The project

This report provides information on the United Kingdom-based research on the evaluation of anti-discrimination training activities. This research project forms part of an initiative by the Migration Branch of the International Labour Office (ILO) a project which covers countries of western Europe, plus the USA and Canada, in three separate stages of research.

The first stage is the empirical verification of discrimination: to address the problem of the lack of specific information on discrimination, the ILO initiated a programme of "situation testing", using mock applications for jobs by matched pairs of applicants. The first national study was carried out in the Netherlands (Bovenkerk, Gras and Ramsoedh 1995), with others following in Belgium, Germany, Spain and the United States. Initial findings show that net discrimination rates of around 35 per cent are not uncommon (see Goldberg et al., 1995; Colectivo IOE, 1996, Bendick, 1996).

The second stage is a comparative analysis of national legislative measures against discrimination in employment. This was first carried out with regard to the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Sweden (Zegers de Beijl, 1991), with studies in Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Spain and the United States to follow (see Ventura, 1995; Goldberg et al., 1995; Vuori, 1996; Colectivo IOE, 1996; Rutherglen, 1993). However, it was concluded that although national measures, such as anti-discrimination legislation, are necessary, they are not a sufficient means of reducing racial discrimination in employment. The effect of such legislation is often that racism becomes more subtle, and that indirect, institutional or unintentional discrimination becomes more significant. Therefore, as well as laws against discrimination, there is also a need for a range of social policy initiatives against racism and discrimination at an organisational level, including equal opportunities programmes. One very important component of equal opportunities and anti-discrimination provision in employment is the training for recruiters and selectors on avoiding and countering racial discrimination. Hence the need for the third stage of the project, which is the examination of the extent, content and impact of anti-discrimination training and education activities in major migrant-receiving countries.

Specifically, the aim of this part of the programme is to document and evaluate in different countries the effectiveness of anti-discrimination training and education activities where such training is imparted to people who have a part to play in access to the labour market. In the same way that the previous "situation testing" stage of the ILO's project focused on exposing discrimination at the entry level of jobs, so this stage is concerned with training directed at those who hire personnel or have some role in the allocation of individuals to opportunities within the labour market. In this sense it is training directed at many of those same types of individuals who would have been involved in the discriminatory practices revealed in previous situation testing, such as personnel and line managers in both the private and public sector who are involved in the recruitment process. The research also aimed to cover civil servants and officials in labour exchanges and other agencies which play a placement role for individuals seeking employment, and trade union full-time officials and shop stewards whose activities can also influence whether individuals gain particular jobs. In other words, it is primarily concerned with training directed

at "gatekeepers" who have a role to play in the access of minorities to employment, and who may also have an influence on employment careers within an organisation. The methodology for the research is set out in the ILO Research Manual (Wrench and Taylor, 1993). This report describes the United Kingdom study for the third stage of the project. Other national studies either completed or currently in operation cover Belgium, Finland, the Netherlands, Spain and the United States (see Abell et al., 1997; Colectivo IOE, 1996; Vuori, 1997).

1.2. Social context

In many of the major migrant-receiving countries, what were once seen as migrant populations are increasingly becoming seen as settled ethnic minorities. For example, there is now an increasing cohort of "second generation" migrants, born and educated in Europe, and speaking a European language as a native. Evidence has emerged from a number of European countries that migrants and ethnic minorities are disproportionately concentrated amongst the unemployed and those with only a tenuous hold on regular employment. A conventional "human capital" approach is inadequate by itself in explaining this labour market exclusion. For example, it is not necessarily the case that greater unemployment levels reflect simply and directly the lack of human capital skills achieved through education. It also works the other way round - a perception of poor opportunities and a lack of fairness in the labour market for ethnic minorities reduces educational motivation and performance and the desire for vocational training after school. Young people from these groups lose faith in the advantages of further education for themselves and simply opt out. In a context of recession, the social consequences of this can be enormous:

Disadvantaged groups ... have, and perceive there to be, little hope of improvement, which results in their severe alienation from dominant norms. This leads to both physical consequences, such as unemployment, and emotional and psychological consequences, such as delinquency, crime and the longer-term crystallisation of inequality by closing down opportunities for advancement." (MacEwen, 1995: 23)

Although discrimination is only one factor in social exclusion, its importance is often underestimated. Whilst factors such as educational and language problems, regional disparities in employment, and structural decline in old industries are recognised and accepted as playing their part in social exclusion for migrants and their descendants, there is still a tendency to underplay the importance of the routine processes of exclusion of migrants and ethnic minorities through acts of discrimination in daily life. In many European countries there is still a reluctance to acknowledge that racial discrimination operates (Wrench and Solomos, 1993).

In general, in societies with egalitarian ideologies and where racism and discrimination are viewed as objectionable, there is a tendency to deny that this problem exists (van Dijk, 1993b). It is noticeable that in different European countries there are often different arguments as to why racism is not part of their society. For example, where a country has no history of major colonial oppression of non-white people, this is seen to be the reason for an 'absence of racism' in society. Alternatively, in countries which have only recently changed from a country of emigration to one of immigration it is often stated that people are sympathetic to the experiences of migrants and therefore would not be inclined to discriminate against them. Yet research has shown that racial or ethnic discrimination operates routinely in the labour market in different European countries, and does not have to be carried out by "racists" (Lee and Wrench, 1983; Cross et al., 1990; Wrench, 1996). This sort of exclusion is difficult to recognise - it operates through acts of

discrimination at an individual level which collectively build up to ensure that the opportunities of whole groups of people are severely undermined. Sometimes there are open acts of racism which are recognised by those who experience it, but which may be difficult to demonstrate to others. More commonly, it operates quietly and is not even recognised by the victims.

One recent international research initiative, restricted to countries of Europe, was initiated by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (EFILWC), entitled "Preventing racism at the workplace in the European Union". The Foundation commissioned a report from each of the 15 European Union member states (plus Norway) on measures against racism and discrimination in employment in each country. These reports described the circumstances of ethnic minorities and migrants in the labour market, provided summaries of national, company and trade union policies on ethnic minority and migrant workers, and listed obstacles and facilitators to present any future integration and anti-discrimination policies. A number of problem areas were revealed by this initiative. Amongst other things, these included:

- A general ignorance and lack of awareness of the problems of racism and discrimination in employment on the part of many employers, trade unionists, labour inspectors etc.
- Practices at work of both direct discrimination and indirect or institutional discrimination. The latter include the use of family connections, and informal and subjective criteria in recruitment.
- Misunderstandings and misconceptions of employers and unions about equal opportunity and equal treatment policies, anti-discrimination practices etc., as well as about the concepts of racism and discrimination, suggesting the need for more information provision, training, and 'good practice' education.

It was clear that in some countries there exist very few examples of equal treatment measures at the level of individual organisations, or none at all. Yet at the same time there was evidence in the national reports of positive policies by some private sector employers and local municipalities which did seem to be, for example, breaking down the barriers to the employment of young people of migrant descent. Clearly there is a tremendous variety, both within and between countries, in the attitudes and practices of employers on this issue (Wrench, 1996). The initiative also confirmed that there has been relatively little research work carried out at an international comparative level on the issues of migrants, discrimination and the labour market. The ILO project "Combatting discrimination against (im)migrant workers and ethnic minorities in the world of work", of which this report is part, aims to fill part of this gap.

1.3. A history of anti-discrimination training in the United Kingdom

This section provides a brief history of the recent anti-discrimination training experience within the United Kingdom. This draws on the original history of anti-discrimination training in the United Kingdom by Wrench and Taylor (1993: 10-13). Material from other literature is incorporated into discussions of the findings from the research itself throughout this report. A consideration of the historical development of training in the United Kingdom illustrates the development of three of the main approaches to training, namely:

training primarily to provide information,
training to change attitudes and

training to change behaviour.

Until the mid-1960s, the initial social policy assumption had been that post-war immigrants to the United Kingdom had a responsibility to "assimilate" themselves into the host society. Therefore the onus was on immigrants themselves to learn about British society, and the corresponding implication was that training should "teach them about us" (Luthra and Oakley, 1991: 9).

Pluralistic integration

In the mid-1960s a new philosophy came to be expounded in some official quarters, that of "pluralistic" integration, with the assumption that immigrant cultures would to some degree persist in British society, and should be accorded respect. This had implications for the training of professionals, such as social workers and teachers:

... (it) encouraged and legitimated a new policy response in service-providing agencies, which focused upon the need for service providers to be properly informed about 'immigrant cultures', and to be aware that immigrants themselves might have 'special needs' deriving from their cultural difference. Thus from the late 1960s onwards, "learning about them" began to be identified as a training need for service professionals and agencies ... (Luthra and Oakley, 1991: 10).

It was similarly felt that managers could benefit from learning about the cultural background of their ethnic minority employees. This remained throughout most of the 1970s the dominant training assumption in the United Kingdom. Then, from the late 1970s onwards, training which mainly consisted of the provision of cultural information about ethnic minorities became increasingly questioned. Many of the underlying assumptions of multi-culturalism and pluralistic integration came under attack as masking the reality of racism and discrimination, and doing little to address issues of justice and equality (Luthra and Oakley, 1991: 10).

Addressing discrimination

The 1976 Race Relations Act considerably strengthened measures to address discrimination, and marked the beginning of a new stage in that it placed the goal of racial equality more squarely on the policy agenda at the institutional level (Luthra and Oakley, 1991: 11). Thus training aimed at preventing racism and discrimination increased, and was further stimulated after the 1980 and 1981 urban disturbances in cities such as London and Liverpool, which brought to public attention the disaffection of a large segment of black urban youth. This training generally occurred at the local authority level rather than national level.

As the number of local authorities with policy commitments to tackling racism grew, so the demand for training and trainers grew. "In the absence of a centrally led strategy to promote and staff race-training initiatives, there emerged a variety of ad hoc and often individual responses by a rising cadre of entrepreneurial trainers" (Luthra and Oakley, 1991: 13). These were often using different training approaches based on different premises, with different aims and emphases. In a few local authorities and service providers an initially prominent emphasis was the type of Racism Awareness Training which emphasised confronting and attempting to change individual racist attitudes of white staff. This confrontational approach received much criticism as inducing resistance and resentment amongst trainees, or at best as leading to feelings of guilt and self-blame. Another criticism was that the individual-centred approach diverted attention away from organisational, institutional and structural issues (see Sivanandan, 1985).

Other types of equal opportunity training sought instead to produce changes in the behaviour and actions of staff dealing with ethnic minority clients or applicants, training people in, for example, procedures for the avoidance of discrimination in line with the Commission for Racial Equality's Code of Practice for employers (1984). A later development was training to include both of these strands, aiming to both produce attitude change towards a commitment to anti-racist goals, and produce behavioural change towards non-discriminatory procedures.

Thus, with some simplification, the historical trend of training in the United Kingdom can be summed up as follows:

The literature reveals a general historical trend in the race training field which begins with an emphasis on cultural and legal information, moves through a period of interest in changing employees' attitudes, and then to a period where there is more emphasis on procedures and the duties of employees and managers. To some extent this trend has been the result of a gradual learning process among people working in the field, but it has also been accompanied by passionate debates over short-term aims and over methods (Brown and Lawton, 1991: 20).

The choice of one training approach or another may not only reflect the particular training needs of a client or organisation but might also depend on where the client or trainer stands in a number of debates on the nature of racism and the role of training in combatting it. These issues are explored later in the consideration of the research findings about the effectiveness of different forms of anti-discrimination training in different organisational contexts.

1.4. Methodological issues

As part of the third stage of the ILO project a Research Manual was produced which provided a common methodological framework for comparing case studies of training practice in different countries (Wrench and Taylor, 1993). Because of the difficulties in achieving precise and objective indicators of training effects, the manual draws heavily on qualitative methods, mainly semi-structured interviews, and gives guidance on who to interview, what questions to ask, and how to write up the findings. It also gives guidance to researchers on how to collect and present the (limited) objective information which is available. Rather than furnishing statistical 'proof' of outcomes, the common methodology enables researchers in different countries to come to reasoned judgements about the efficacy of particular practices, whilst being flexible enough to allow for the very different national contexts in which the case studies are located. The Research Manual set out 9 stages within the research project (Wrench and Taylor, 1993: 20-1). These are summarised below.

The introductory stages

Stage 1: Initial Contact with Key Informants

Using key informants the researcher identifies training providers and consumers who could be approached as potential participants in the research. A directory of up to 100 names and addresses is compiled.

Stage 2: Literature Survey

Existing publications and documents on anti-discrimination training are collected and summarised.

The documentation process

Stage 3: Questionnaire Interviews with Training Providers

A sample of 60 trainers is selected from the Stage 1 directory, roughly equally balanced between those providing training for the three main target groups of "gatekeepers": Personnel/Management, Trade Union and Job Centre. A questionnaire interview of these 60 trainers provides information on the training providers, the clients, and the training courses.

Stage 4: Constructing Profiles of Training Activity

The information from the 60 questionnaires is transferred in summary form onto five Profile Sheets, providing a factual picture of anti-discrimination training provision.

Stage 5: Overview of Training Provision

Discussion and interpretation of the Stage 4 information is combined with other general and contextual information gathered during Stages 1 and 2.

The evaluation process

Stage 6: Selecting a Sample of Courses for Evaluation

A sample of 21 training courses is selected, to be case studies for the evaluation process. These case studies are spread equally between the three main target groups of "gatekeepers".

Stage 7: The Evaluation Interviews with Trainers, Clients and Trainees

Semi-structured interviews of trainers and clients, and up to 5 trainees per course, are carried out. These provide qualitative detail on the 21 case studies with regard to the realisation of the aims of training, evidence of the effects of the training, and identification of problems and barriers to effectiveness.

Stage 8: The Evaluation Analysis: (i) case studies, and (ii) generalised overview

Using the factual information from Stage 3 and the qualitative material from Stage 7, 21 individual case studies are produced, giving a description of each training course in terms of its successes and failures.

Then a Generalised Overview draws together the evidence of the 21 case studies, making overall observations about what factors and conditions are associated with the most successful (and unsuccessful) experiences of training.

The concluding stage

Stage 9: Summary and conclusions of the research

The researcher brings together the evidence and findings from all the different stages of the research, and the overall conclusions on factors which are associated with effective anti-discrimination training.

The reserve strategy

In countries where there is insufficient experience of anti-discrimination training to allow the target samples to be reached, the Reserve Strategy is adopted. The researcher seeks opinions from key informants on the main arguments against and/or barriers to the broader adoption of anti-discrimination training.

Typology of training approaches

The Research Manual used two dimensions by which to arrive at an Anti-Discrimination Training Typology (Wrench and Taylor, 1993: 14-19). The following explanation of the two dimensions and the typology have been extracted directly from the research manual.

The first dimension is that of **strategy**. Firstly, the training strategy might be one of straightforward **information provision**, with the underlying assumption that the problem to be tackled is largely one of ignorance, and that the provision of new information will itself produce changes in attitudes and behaviour. Secondly, it might be a more active and direct strategy of specific mechanisms to produce **attitude change** in the trainees. Thirdly, the main emphasis might be on training to produce **behavioural change** in the trainees, perhaps with the assumption that attitude change may follow. Or, finally, the emphasis might be a broader one of producing **organisational change** rather than simply restricting the focus to the attitude and behavioural change of those trainees who attended the course.

The second dimension is that of the **content** of training. Firstly, the main emphasis of training content could be **multi-cultural** - focusing on the characteristics of migrants and ethnic minorities themselves. Secondly, the emphasis might be on **racism and discrimination**, with attention focused on the actions of the majority population and the structures of society. Or, finally, the emphasis might be on **broader issues** which may include a multi-cultural and anti-racist content but locate these in a much broader social context.

The two dimensions are then arranged to provide a cross classification (Figure 1.1) which produces twelve theoretical types of training. The four categories of the 'strategy' dimension are labelled as A, B, C and D and the three 'content' dimensions as 1, 2 and 3, providing a short-hand way for identifying possible types: A1, B2, C3, D3 etc. The main types of training approaches relevant to the research are:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| (1) Information Training | (A1 or A1.A2) |
| (2) Cultural Awareness Training | (B1 or B1.A1) |
| (3) Racism Awareness Training | (B2 or B2.A2 or B2.A2.B1) |
| (4) Equalities Training | (C2 or C2.C3) |
| (5) Anti-Racism Training | (D2 including elements of C2.B2.A2) |
| (6) Diversity Training | (D3 including elements of most other types) |

Figure 1.1. Anti-discrimination training typology

Content	Multi-cultural	Anti-discrimination/ Anti-racist	Broader issues
Strategy	1	2	3
Information provision A	A1 Information Training	A2 Information Training	A3

Attitude change B	B1 Cultural Awareness Training	B2 Racism Awareness Training	B3
Behaviour change C	C1	C2 Equalities Training	C3 Equalities Training
Organisational change D	D1	D2 Anti-Racism Training	D3 Diversity Training

1.5 Observations on the original research design

The following sections provide a brief summary of some of the main methodological issues encountered during the completion of some of the above stages of the research, and sets out the modifications to the original research design which were found to be necessary. A number of these observations may be found commonly in the research when carried out in other countries, others may be specific to the United Kingdom experience and the social context within which anti-discrimination training occurs. Modifications were found to be necessary for Stages 1, 3, 7 and 8.

Research stage 1: Initial contact with key informants

The first stage of the research was to identify key informants consisting of 'training providers and consumers who could be approached as potential participants in the research' (Wrench and Taylor, 1993: 20). The purpose of this was to compile a directory of up to 100 contact names from which a sample of training activities could be selected for inclusion in the research. Initially it was possible to compile a directory of about 100 names using existing contacts and listings of anti-discrimination trainers. However, as later stages of the research progressed, details of additional potential informants were obtained and added to the database. The final database contains details of about 150 trainers (see Appendix 1). During the course of the research it was realised that the market for anti-discrimination training is one subject to fluctuations like any other market. In some ways it may be more volatile due to the relatively high proportion of individual consultants operating within this particular market. Therefore it is likely that this register will rather quickly begin to go out of date and the database may contain details of trainers who no longer provide any form of anti-discrimination training.

The Research Manual specified that a directory of up to 100 names would be sufficient to provide a sample of around 60 trainers for Stage 3 of the research, the questionnaire interviews. In reality the database exceeds the suggested total. It was necessary to seek more contact names and addresses because a number of those originally contacted either proved not to carry out relevant training or gave no reply at all. As described below, some trainers advertised that they could provide equality or anti-discrimination training, but turned out to focus on gender or disability issues rather than those of ethnic minority groups. The strategy adopted was therefore to obtain as many potential contacts as possible so as to provide a greater likelihood of obtaining the necessary balance of different training types.

It should also be noted that the process of obtaining the sample for questionnaire interviews may have introduced an element of bias. It proved difficult to obtain contact details of trainers operating internally within organisations where they are employed by the organisation as its main training provider across a number of areas. Other large management or training consultants were also initially contacted but again it proved difficult to maintain contact with the appropriate individuals concerned with the provision of anti-discrimination training. There may also be other networks of anti-discrimination training providers which this research was unable to access.

It was originally envisaged that the research would cover equally the three target groups; Personnel/Management, Trade Unions and Job Centres. However, it has proved far easier to obtain details of those who provide training for Personnel/ Management than those providing training for labour market gatekeepers in the other two target groups of Trade Unions and Job Centres. This suggests that perhaps the greatest market for training is Personnel/ Management. Certainly the marketing literature of training providers is largely aimed at this type of client rather than the other types of 'gatekeepers'. Therefore it has been necessary to revise the balance of questionnaire interviews between the three target groups with the majority of questionnaire interviews based on training targeted at Personnel/ Management and only a small number covering the other two groups. It is possible that other countries will face similar difficulties with the Trade Unions and Job Centre target groups.

Research stage 3: Questionnaire interviews with training providers

The third stage of the research was to select a sample of 60 trainers and carry out a questionnaire interview providing information on the training providers, the clients and the training courses (Wrench and Taylor, 1993: 20). The purpose of this was not to seek 'an exact and quantifiable picture based on a random precise sample, but a broad picture of training simply based on "reasonable" assumptions' (Wrench and Taylor, 1993: 23). During Stage 3 of the research it became clear that it was necessary to base the sample on the training activities covered rather than the number of trainers. In several cases the trainers contacted provided a range of different training activities, and in some instances the interviews covered more than one training type provided by that particular trainer. Therefore the Profile Sheets (see Appendix 2) include details of 57 trainers who were interviewed and who provided information on 68 different training activities. This stage of the work followed a phased approach. This was the result of practical considerations in order, firstly, to test the case study methodology set out in the Research Manual, and secondly, to make the best use of the appointment of an additional research team member. Initially a small number of questionnaire interviews were carried out covering a range of training activities, and from these specific examples of different training types were selected for case studies. This allowed work to begin on some case study examples whilst other training activities were selected for questionnaire interviews. The remainder of the case studies were then selected in order to reflect the range of training activities covered by the questionnaire interviews.

Another practical consideration was the decision to carry out the majority of the questionnaire interviews over the telephone, as opposed to conducting face-to-face interviews. It was found that training providers were able and willing to provide detailed information over the telephone. This had the additional advantage of keeping down the costs of this stage of the research.

A number of difficulties were encountered during this stage of the research. Some of these resulted in amendments being made to the original Stage 3 questionnaire included in the Research Manual. Some of the amendments required may be very specific to the training experience and context within the United Kingdom, others may be necessary in other countries in order to ensure

the questionnaire interviews are able to elicit the most appropriate and accurate information possible. A revised questionnaire has been therefore circulated with the Research Manual to research teams in other countries. The reasons for the amendments to the questionnaire are briefly described below.

A number of the questions originally devised were too specific for trainers to answer easily. This was especially true of questions asking about the trainer's client group because many trainers tend to have a fairly broad client base, albeit within a particular employment sector, (for example the public sector). It was therefore necessary to revise the questions to ask trainers about the main areas and types of clients to which they provide training.

The questionnaire devised in the Research Manual envisaged that it could be used for a specific training course provided for one individual client. However, trainers were found to repeat the same type of course with minor adaptations for a number of different clients. Training providers therefore found it problematic to answer questions as originally devised. They tended to base their responses on descriptions of a certain *type* of training course they provided rather than a *specific* training course provided for one individual client organisation. Hence it was necessary to adapt questions asking about the precise status of trainees attending training activities, because training providers were mostly discussing training types rather than specific examples. The questions were altered in order to ask trainers what their preferences were for the training groups and the usual types of groups they worked with.

Similarly questions about the particular training course, as originally devised, were too specific for trainers to answer easily. Many trainers stated that they did not generally provide 'off-the-shelf courses'. They tend to adapt a 'package' of training to suit each individual client. Therefore questions were amended in order to provide some historical information about how long and how much a particular type of training activity had been provided. It was also found that for some questions it was better to ask trainers to provide a summary definition or explanation of their training approach or the training content. Additional prompts were then used to check on the clarity and exact meaning of the original description. This also allowed other categories to be identified: for example, the aim or content of training was sometimes described by trainers differently to those categories given in the original questionnaire.

A major problem encountered during this stage of the project was that of identifying training activities for the three main target groups. The majority of trainers appear to provide training for the first target group, Personnel/Management, in both the public and private sectors. A large number of these trainers advertise in a specialist directory of trainers providing anti-discrimination, equality or diversity training which is regularly updated and published. This directory covers trainers providing training to counter all forms of discrimination and is not limited to issues surrounding migrant workers or ethnic minorities. This *Diversity Directory* has developed from a simple listing of training providers to include papers addressing issues of relevance to training providers and client organisations.

As already noted it has proved difficult to obtain details of trainers that provide training activities for Trade Unions or Job Centre staff, although on a number of occasions trainers have been contacted who advertise that they do broad equality or anti-discrimination training and have not specified a particular client group. The work of some other trainers contacted was found not to have fitted within the boundaries of the project although they have advertised themselves as providing broad-based equality training covering a range of issues. It is felt that this is the result

of trainers being prepared to take on work for which they may not be ideally suited and therefore advertising to attract as broad a range of clients as possible. These trainers have stated that they might take on work outside their direct areas of specialism and then use a network of colleagues who they 'buy in' to help deliver the training. (On a number of occasions the other trainers used via such networks have already been known to the research team and their details already held on the database of training providers.) This suggests that the competition between trainers does not prevent them co-operating and benefiting from each others expertise.

Research stage 7: evaluation interviews with trainers, clients and trainees

In general it was found throughout the research that the majority of individuals were extremely willing to be involved. Many identified with the objectives of the research and the need for the evaluation of different training activities. Stage 3 of the research found that training providers were very keen to provide as much information as possible for documentation of different activities. There were no recorded examples of training providers refusing to be interviewed at this stage of the research. Similarly, during Stage 7 the majority of clients and trainees were willing to be interviewed. Clients were frequently keen to have an external evaluation of the training's effectiveness, as often no systematic evaluation had been carried out within the organisation. Similarly trainees were often happy to provide detailed feedback about the training activity because, apart from immediate post-course evaluation sheets, they had not been asked for any evaluative information.

As a result of testing the methodology for the evaluation of different training activities some amendments were made to the Stage 7 interview schedules originally provided in the Research Manual. These amendments were also made available for researchers undertaking the project in other countries. The Research Manual originally provided only basic guidelines for the interviews with Trainers and Client Organisations. It was found, through the pilot test of the case study methodology, that it was better to produce a more detailed questionnaire schedule, following the original guidance, which could be followed during these interviews. The question and possible answer formats were intended to provide a disciplined structure for interviews, ensuring that the complex information being sought was consistently covered. This approach was also designed to enable comparability between varied and distinctive approaches to training and different interviewers. It also avoided the use of audio equipment and the subsequent need to transcribe material. The modified schedules were intended to be used as a means of consistently recording information with additional notes being made by the interviewer.

The guidelines for interviews with Trainees were converted into a questionnaire after it became clear that personally interviewing a significant number of trainees was very difficult to arrange and a time-consuming, costly process to undertake. The questionnaire included open as well as closed questions, so that additional information about specific experiences of and outcomes from training activities could be incorporated. The questionnaires were designed so that they could be distributed to trainees for completion in their own time. An effective method of distribution was found to be through relevant managers within the client organisation. Questionnaires were then returned to the researchers either through appropriate managers or directly by individual trainees in postage paid envelopes.

Research stage 8: Evaluation analysis, case studies and generalised overview

The original Research Manual did not provide a structure for the organisation and content of each case study. Therefore a structure was developed for evaluating, organising and writing up the data from the interviews carried out during Stage 7 of the research. (This again was made

available to other researchers.) The structure included four key elements: background to the training, course content and methodology, responses to the training activity and evaluation of the effectiveness of the training. The use of this structure enabled consistency and comparability to be achieved.

A decision was taken to include an additional section in each case study giving a brief outline of certain factors affecting the training client. This included: the type of area from which the organisation draws its labour force and/or to which it provides its products/services; whether it is a large or small, public or private or charitable organisation; its business function or its role in the community. This decision was related to our view that the ethnic profile of the client's labour or sales markets, their size and function(s) and their wider image and role in the public arena, all play important parts in the decision to address discrimination issues. In addition in the United Kingdom there are specific statutory requirements on public bodies to provide employment and public services without unfairly discriminating against ethnic minorities, women or disabled people.

In a number of cases contacting relevant informants proved problematic. Some training providers who were interviewed during Stage 3 of the research were difficult to interview again. Some were difficult to contact despite a number of letters being sent and telephone messages being left. It is expected that this is the result of these providers being extremely busy people and having little time to give to research from which they might not see any direct benefit. Another trainer refused to be interviewed again unless payment was received for the time involved. This was not costed into the original budget and it was therefore not possible to pursue this contact further. Whilst the focus of the research was on 'gatekeepers' within organisations, these people also acted as 'gatekeepers' to the progress of the research. In one organisation a senior manager insisted on seeing the questionnaires to be used before allowing the research to progress. In another organisation a key manager retired and other managers felt unable to identify alternative managers who could give the client's view of the effectiveness of the training. In one organisation, confirmed to have received anti-discrimination training by a training provider, the key contact proved elusive and a colleague insisted that the staff had not received any anti-discrimination training. The problems created by these gatekeepers meant that some case study selections had to be abandoned. It therefore became necessary to have reserve options of alternative client organisations receiving training from the same training provider or, in some cases, selecting other training activities of a similar type for Stage 8 case study evaluation.

2. Documentation of the training activity

This chapter of the report draws on the activities carried out during Stages 3, 4 and 5 of the research, the Documentation Process, as well as information obtained in Stages 1 and 2. The purposes of these stages were to carry out questionnaire interviews with training providers, construct profile sheets of training activity and to provide an overview of training provision. The completed Profile Sheets contain totals of the factual information on training activity, and are contained in Appendix 2 of this report. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a discussion and interpretation of the material contained in the Profile Sheets. The Profile Sheets provide a clear statistical summary of the information acquired through the use of the standard questionnaire, however the questionnaire informants often provided far more detail than could be recorded on

the Profile Sheets. Therefore this chapter also aims to include some of the additional, more qualitative, detail provided by trainers on the different types of training activity.

2.1. The trainers

Profile Sheet 1 provides summary information on the training providers and their organisational type. A total of 57 training providers were interviewed who provided information on a total of 68 training activities. Many trainers provided apparently different forms of training activity; however not all of these were covered by questionnaire interviews. Only in cases where one training provider was providing two very different training activities were two different questionnaires completed. This approach was adopted in order to obtain as broad a coverage of different training types and training providers as possible.

The vast majority of training providers interviewed describe themselves as independent training consultants (95 per cent). Of these, most (91 per cent) were operating on a commercial basis, leaving only 9 per cent operating on a non-profit making basis. Among the non-profit making consultants one organisation operated on a charitable basis and another provided free consultancy to member organisations. Two training providers described themselves as a publicly funded service, both within educational institutions. One other described their organisation as a professional or employers' association. (This reflects the distribution of training providers identified in the directory of trainers mentioned in Section 1.4.) The search also revealed none that were a labour movement organisation or an internal training section of an organisation.

Within this overall distribution of training providers there are a variety of different sizes of training organisation. A high proportion of trainers operate individually within their own consultancy. Others work within small partnerships of around two to four partners, and often the partnership provides a broader range of management training than that just relating to anti-discrimination and equality. A smaller number of training providers interviewed were part of a much larger company employing a relatively large number of consultants. One described themselves as being part of an international training organisation. In these cases it appeared that anti-discrimination training formed only one part of the training portfolio offered by the organisation. Other training providers described themselves as operating on more of a network basis. Within this structure individuals may have their own consultancy but also carry out work for the network (or umbrella) organisation.

Methodological note

The construction of Profile Sheet 1 was unproblematic. Training providers were able to give a clear definition of their organisational type and their responses fitted into the categories provided.

2.2. The target group of the training

Profile Sheet 2 provides summary information on the target group of training activities. It often proved difficult to pin down the exact target group of training activities because most trainers had difficulty specifying a clear target group. Some admitted to offering courses to 'anyone that will purchase them'. This was particularly the case for one organisation which specialises in the production of training videos designed to assist trainers, and so the respondent was unable to accurately specify who the receiving target group was. Many trainers therefore provided more

than one response; hence there is an element of multiple counting in this profile sheet. Therefore the total figure (87) is that of responses and the percentages represent the number of responses as a percentage of the number of training activities covered (68).

As already mentioned, the majority of trainers provide training activities for personnel/management across a wide range of employment areas: 74 of the 87 responses identified this as a target group of the training (36 for private sector personnel/management and 38 for public sector personnel/management). The target group in the majority of cases is not restricted to either private or public sector employers, but trainers tend to specialise more in one sector than the other. Therefore, taking account of this double-counting, the number of courses targeted at personnel/management as a whole, either private and/or public sector, was 56 (the total shown in Profile Sheet 3). Those providing training in the private sector tend to cover a wider range of employment areas. Their training is directed generally at management and personnel practitioners and provides 'transferable skills' in anti-discrimination which are thought by trainers to be suitable in most types of employment. However some trainers did specify a limited industrial area from which clients came, such as the financial and retail sectors.

Training in the public sector appears to be more specialised. Trainers often stated that the majority of their work was in specific areas: for example, education, social welfare and health. One respondent felt that most of their clients came from the Health Service due to its large size; another had developed a specialism in anti-discrimination training for higher education institutions. It appeared from some of the responses that target group specialities had developed for particular trainers, due to them achieving a reputation for delivering training in certain areas. A network of employing organisations seemed to operate and attract clients to particular training providers. This gives a further indication of how the anti-discrimination training market operates. One area of work mentioned by two trainers which was not indicated on the interview schedule is that of 'voluntary sector'. These trainers mentioned specific charities with which they had worked: for example, those charities assisting the elderly and the homeless.

Twelve of the training providers (18 per cent) identified Trade Unions as one of their target groups, although not in isolation from other areas of work. The majority of clients were usually individual unions rather than federations or confederations. The unions that trainers had worked with were usually either general or white collar unions; none were craft or industry specific. Only one trainer identified Job Centre staff as a target group; this was staff in a vocational advisory service mainly for school leavers. Clearly this imbalance in the sample creates a major departure from the original intention set out in the Research Manual to obtain a rough balance of training activities between the three target groups of Personnel/Management, Trade Unions and Job Centre staff.

Status of trainees

The status of trainee groups is usually specified by the clients and therefore training providers, although they may have a preference, are not able to specify a particular training group. The majority of trainers dealt with groups consisting of senior and middle managers. A number of trainers expressed a preference to adopt a 'top down' approach to change within organisations. There were also two types of view expressed about working with mixed groups of staff from different levels or work areas. Some trainers preferred to work with 'work teams' that would need to operationalize the process of change together. One trainer liked to work with mixed groups of trainees in order that support networks could be developed by the group across an

organisation. Other trainers had a preference for training groups that were of a similar management level because they found mixed groups 'less willing to open up'.

Methodological note

Additional categories have been included in the Profile Sheets to cover other target groups mentioned by training providers. Profile Sheet 2, Page i: additional categories of 'Types of private sector employer' added are 'Any private sector' and 'Not Known'. Profile Sheet 2, Page ii: additional categories of 'Personnel, line managers' added are 'Charities', 'Any public sector' and 'Not Known'. These categories were added because they were mentioned by a significant minority of training providers.

Profile Sheet 2, Page iii: additional category added to 'Status of trainees' of 'Not Known'. This was felt necessary to cover those activities which are pre-packaged materials for use by other trainers (e.g. self-training packs and video training) where the training activity developer may not be in control of the target group for the training. In these cases the purchaser of the training is more likely to determine who receives the training.

2.3. The training course

Profile Sheet 3 provides summary information on: Part 1 general information about the particular training activity; Part 2 information about the particular training approach(es) adopted. The Research Manual specified that three separate profile sheets should be utilised for each of the three target groups of Personnel/Management, Trade Unions and Job Centre staff. The two main profile sheets are discussed here, those for Personnel/Management and Trade Unions. There is no general discussion of training for the third target group - Job Centres - as there was only one example of this kind (see Appendix 2).

Part 1: General information - personnel/management

As already mentioned Profile Sheet 3 includes personnel/management in both the private and public sectors, a total of 56 responses. The percentages shown are therefore of this total figure. Very few of the training courses had been delivered to less than six organisations, and only five courses had been provided for between 5 and 10 organisations. The vast majority (71 per cent) of courses had been provided to over 11 organisations. This reflects the fact that many training providers develop a particular package of training which is then slightly adapted for each specific client. The relatively high proportion of training activities for which training providers were unable to specify how many organisations had received the training is caused by a number of factors. In the case of 'open training activities' such as special seminars and training videos, providers were often unable to recount how many organisations received the training. This is because these 'open training activities' are provided to wider range of participants and therefore attended by a range of different individuals from different organisations. Typically, an open seminar will be widely advertised through professional journals and specific mailing lists in order to encourage individuals to attend. Some of these 'open training activities' may be restricted to certain types of individuals, for example those working within the public sector or trade unions. In a small number of cases training providers had insufficient records which would enable them to specify how many organisations had received the training

The number of times training activities had been delivered reflects responses to the question about the number of client organisations receiving the training. A small proportion of training activities (11 per cent) had only been delivered once, the majority of these being one-off 'open training

activities' which were widely advertised and attracted a range of client organisations. Over half of all activities (55 per cent) had been delivered over 11 times, only 14 per cent of activities had been delivered between 5 and 10 times. As previously, a sizeable proportion of training providers (20 per cent) were unable to specify how many times activities had been delivered, mainly due to the lack of insufficient records being kept. The responses to these questions indicate the extent of work undertaken by some of those training providers contacted, a number of them being long established in the business with a heavy workload.

The length of time trainers had been operating is indicated by the number of years for which the training activity had been provided. Most training courses had been provided for a relatively small number of years, most frequently five or less (66 per cent of activities). Particularly noticeable developments among these newer training activities were those in the areas of diversity management and 'equality means business'. Several activities (18 per cent) had only been introduced within the preceding year. One of the newest forms of training was that of 'self-training' videos. A quarter of activities had been provided for between 6 and 10 years whilst some (five responses) had been provided for over ten years. These longer established training activities had been modified over the years but essentially adopted a similar position and style to that when originally devised.

Training activities were most frequently (88 per cent) restricted to staff from a single organisation. The general feeling among respondents was that trainees needed to share a similar work environment in order that training could be made applicable to their situation. The training of staff from a single organisation reflects the nature of contracted training where one client organisation purchases training from a training provider. This also suits the practical concern of trainers that courses need to be related to the organisation and/or industrial sector within which trainees work. Many trainers during interviews expressed a strong feeling that ideally they would spend time prior to training 'getting to know the organisation'. Some training providers preferred this to include some kind of 'equality audit' which would identify the position of the organisation in relation to particular areas of equality. However, they also reported that clients were often unwilling to pay for this type of activity. The small proportion of training activities (12 per cent) open to a range of organisations indicates those 'open training activities' previously mentioned. These courses were usually those provided for the public sector where trainers thought that trainees shared a degree of common experience.

The respondents were split on the issue of whether attendance at training activities should be voluntary or compulsory. Trainers usually made recommendations to client organisations but recognised that employers were ultimately responsible for specifying the terms of attendance to trainees. Trainers felt there to be problems with both forms of participation. Where participants attend voluntarily, they are the people already with some knowledge and a concern for equality. Hence those gatekeepers who are likely to offer the most resistance to change, are able to avoid being involved in the training. Where training is compulsory trainers feel they often face strong resistance 'in the classroom' from certain individuals who are unhappy about being made to attend the training. About 60 per cent of trainers said that attendance at training activities was usually made voluntary by client organisations. Over a third said that anti-discrimination training was made compulsory within organisations, often as part of organisational or staff development.

The majority of trainers worked individually and therefore in 77 per cent of training activities only one trainer was involved in the delivery of each activity. This reflects a certain level of economic use of resources by training providers and the frequently adopted discursive style of training, with

high levels of student participation. However, just below a quarter of respondents said that they sometimes used two or three trainers, depending upon the exact nature of the training activity and the client's requirements. In some cases the use of additional trainers was to bring in particular areas of expertise.

A number of trainers are themselves from ethnic minority backgrounds. Therefore the response that "50 per cent of trainers always used a trainer from an ethnic minority" reflects the fact that they worked individually and were themselves from an ethnic minority background. A minority of other trainers (5 per cent), were recorded as never using trainers from ethnic minority backgrounds because they also worked individually and they themselves were white. A large proportion (43 per cent) of trainers said they sometimes used trainers from an ethnic minority background. Those trainers who reported that they sometimes used two trainers often used this to bring in a trainer from an ethnic minority background when they felt this was necessary for the particular client group.

The majority of trainee groups (85 per cent) were in the range of 11-20 people, with a strong usage of between 11 and 15 (64 per cent). Most trainers preferred to work with groups of either 12 or 15. The preference for these two particular group sizes reflects the frequent practice of splitting participants into smaller groups during training sessions. Trainers said that they often like to split a trainee group into 3, 4 or even 5 smaller groups in order to carry out a range of 'student led' activities. Some training activities had far higher numbers of participants, and among these were the activities open to a range of different organisations.

Forty-three per cent of trainers described their courses as a self-contained anti-discrimination or equal opportunities course on ethnic minorities. A significant proportion (39 per cent) described the training as fitting within a broader programme of training which included either gender and/or disability. Only a very small percentage (4 per cent) stated that their training took place within a broad general training programme, within either staff development or induction courses. A significant proportion described their activities as part of a broader 'Diversity Management' programme. This was thought to be a growing trend among trainers. A number of respondents were re-packaging some of their previous activities in order to develop programmes of training in the area of diversity management. There is a growing trend for courses on anti-discrimination or equal opportunities to become labelled 'diversity management' or 'managing diversity'.

Many of the current developments in the area of Diversity Training have been influenced by the growing emphasis placed on the significance of cultural diversity in management literature. The importance attached to Diversity Management practices in both the US and the United Kingdom is based on demographic data revealing the proportion of minority groups in the population and trend analysis showing that the majority of entrants to the workforce will come from minority and currently under-represented groups (for example see Copeland, 1988a and Kennedy and Everest, 1991). The majority of the literature on Diversity Management is based on experiences in the US where it has been strongly identified that, in order to succeed, organisations must value cultural differences amongst their employees (Copeland, 1988b; MacDonald, 1993; Thomas, 1990). Diversity Management is seen as a way of changing organisational culture in order to remove previous practices which were restrictive thereby making *'productivity gains from understanding, valuing and using the differences between groups in a way that allows all individuals to do what they do best'* (Chen, 1992: 36).

The concept of Diversity Management is that it should embrace all aspects of cultural difference; race, gender and disability being the three main but not the only bases on which diversity is considered. However, it is clear from many of the examples described in the management literature that efforts have primarily focused on women and minorities as the basis for understanding the increasingly pluralistic work force (see for example Hall and Parker, 1993; Jackson et al., 1992; and Copeland, 1988a and 1988b). Although having many new characteristics Diversity Training could be viewed as an alternative approach which allows a complex combination of previous forms of training. Some approaches to Diversity Training include awareness raising exercises very similar to those used in Race Awareness Training and exercises which have for many years been used successfully in training concentrating on sex equality. Whilst being wholeheartedly adopted in certain areas of anti-discrimination training, critics of Diversity Training are already concerned about its actual effectiveness (MacDonald, 1993).

Training courses varied in length from half a day to three days. The vast majority, about three quarters, lasted for one day, although in reality some of these courses were taking place between 10.00 a.m. and 4.00 p.m., thereby restricting the training contact time. Trainers commented that the length of courses had reduced over recent years. This was thought by them to be the result of cutbacks in expenditure by organisations and a lack of priority accorded to anti-discrimination. Hence, the other common length (18 per cent) for courses was half a day, usually within a broader training programme. Longer training courses were usually aimed at senior managers where the training was meant to be forming the basis for more substantial organisational change.

Very few trainers said they provided repeat courses for client organisations (26 per cent), and of these 9 training activities (16 per cent) were only repeated once within a year. The majority (73 per cent) of trainers said courses were never repeated. However, trainers felt that ideally they would prefer to revisit clients to provide either 'refresher' courses or checks on progress achieved. The reluctance of organisations to contract such repeat training was put down to organisational priorities and budget constraints. Of those that had provided repeat courses 11 trainers said this was part of primary competence training for different individuals whilst 4 said it was in the form of 'refresher' courses for previous trainees.

A high proportion of trainers (68 per cent) said training activities took place in the workplace. This includes those that used premises of the organisation which were not necessarily at the workplace of all trainees, for example corporate headquarters or training facilities at the organisational site. A number of trainers indicated problems associated with using workplace premises because trainees found it difficult to 'disconnect' from work, or there might be interruptions or calls on the trainees time. Training providers stated that clients often preferred to use their own facilities, in order to avoid the additional costs associated with using external premises. Slightly less than a quarter of trainers (21 per cent) said that training took place in separate training centres, either local or corporate facilities. Other locations included local education institutions and hotel/conference venues. One training provider also used its own premises in the case of open training events.

Almost all training activities (96 per cent) do not lead to any formal qualification. Only two trainers said their courses carried a formal certificate or diploma. It appears that these two examples were part of a broader programme of training which led to a formal qualification. Trainers did however express great interest in the idea of certification of their training activities,

in order to give participants a recognised credit for their development and to provide a form of quality assurance for the training.

Part 1: General information - trade unions

As with the training provided to Personnel/Management, the majority of training targeted at Trade Unions had been delivered to over 11 client organisations (67 per cent). Again this reflects the fact that trainers develop a particular area of expertise and benefit from client networks operating to recommend them to other similar clients. A third of these training activities had only been delivered to one Trade Union client. This was usually where providers generally provided training for other target groups such as Personnel/Management.

The number of times courses had been delivered reflected the number of clients to which training had been delivered. Poor trainer records meant that for a third of these activities it was not known how many times they had been delivered.

The majority of activities had been delivered for over five years (92 per cent). This reflects the experience of providers, 17 per cent of which had been providing courses for over 11 years. Only one provider had been providing courses for one year, and 75 per cent had been providing courses for between five and ten years.

Almost all training activities in this area were restricted to a single organisation (92 per cent). 'Organisation' in this sense refers to both trade union members within a single employing organisation as well as activities targeted at members of one trade union across a range of employers. Only one activity was found that was open to a range of participants, and this was run as an open workshop/seminar for trade union officials. In three quarters of the cases participation in the training activity was voluntary. Similar reasons for this were expressed to those in relation to training targeted at Personnel/Management, the main issue being to reduce potential resistance during the training activity.

The proportion of trainers working individually (83 per cent) was very similar to that for the other main target group (Personnel/Management being 77 per cent). Only one activity for this target group involved more than one trainer, and in this case the training was of a broader nature including race, ethnicity, gender and disability. The use of two trainers was generally thought necessary to ensure that appropriate expertise was available. In the one case of self-teaching anti-discrimination training information packs the number of trainers involved was considered not to be a relevant question.

The relatively high levels of employment of those from ethnic minority groups within the area of anti-discrimination training, and the high proportion of training undertaken by individual trainers, is reflected in the fact that 67 per cent of trainers always used a trainer from an ethnic minority background. A quarter of training activities for this target group sometimes used trainers from an ethnic minority background, and this was usually where particular expertise was sought from another trainer. There were no examples within this sample of training activities that never used a trainer from an ethnic minority background.

The average size of the trainee groups for Trade Unions was slightly smaller than that for Personnel/Management. All activities typically took place with groups of between 11 and 15 persons. This size of group was thought by trainers to be the most effective for allowing learning

to take place through discussion, exercises and group work. The smaller average size of groups also reflects the tendency for most of these courses to be restricted to persons from a single organisation where there may be few trade union officials.

The majority of training activities (75 per cent) were considered to be self-contained anti-discrimination or equal opportunities courses on ethnic minority issues. This was thought by training providers to be a particular concern of many trade unions, many of which were attempting to address falling membership figures. The other activities (17 per cent) were considered to be part of a broader equal opportunities training including mainly gender issues but also addressing some disability issues. There was very little discussion of 'diversity management' type approaches to training within this target group. This suggests that the issues of concern for Trade Unions are different to those for Personnel/Management who may be far more concerned with some of the management aspects of diversity training. The potential organisational benefits usually attributed to Managing Diversity of greater flexibility and increased productivity (Jackson et al., 1992) may be of less interest to trade unions than the apparently more direct effects of some types of Equalities Training. Diversity Training is usually marketed in terms of its organisational benefits whereas Equalities Training retains a more obvious, and often more immediate, benefit for disadvantaged groups.

All but one (92 per cent) of the activities were one day in length, unlike those for Personnel/Management which ranged from half a day up to three days. Many providers indicated that clients often desired activities that were no more than one day in length, with even day long courses having to be justified in preference to those only lasting half a day. Activities for this target group were rarely repeated within the year - 83 per cent of activities were not repeated. The only activity that was repeated took the form of a 'refresher course' rather than training for a group of different individuals.

The proportion of activities taking place in the workplace (67 per cent) was virtually the same as for training targeted at Personnel/Management. The reasons given for the choice of location were also very similar, mainly being due to client preferences on the basis of cost minimisation. Interestingly, other activities had been located in a separate training facility, a local education institution and a hotel/conference facility. However, training providers stated that activities based in these locations were becoming increasingly uncommon.

None of the activities led to a formal qualification.

Part 2: Training approach - personnel/management

Training activities have progressed beyond simple information training about the culture of different ethnic minority groups, and it is significant that none of the activities were involved in this sort of training. Although there was no training found which could be categorised as the simple "information provision" type, the provision of basic factual information was common for two main areas: the legal context of discrimination (61 per cent) and the problems of racism and discrimination (64 per cent). Both were seen as essential background information for many forms of training. Most commonly, activities were concerned with the introduction of fair recruitment and selection processes (67 per cent). Course content was also frequently stated as covering broader strategies of equal opportunities (52 per cent) and diversity management (25 per cent). Interestingly, of those stating that the content covered diversity management, a number also said

their courses covered equal opportunities strategies. In a number of these cases trainers appeared to make no distinction between these two different strategies.

Reflecting the course content, a high proportion of trainers (73 per cent) said the strategy of their training was to provide information to those who would otherwise be unaware of the issues. A high proportion (61 per cent) said the strategy was to produce behavioural change in individual trainees, a smaller proportion stated the strategy was to produce organisational change (46 per cent). The emphasis of training activities was clearly on altering behaviour and practices rather than attitudes of individuals; only 18 per cent of activities had a strategy of changing attitudes.

In terms of the specific classroom methods adopted by trainers there was a heavy reliance upon the more participative styles of training. The majority of trainers preferred to use group exercises (82 per cent), role play (68 per cent) and case studies (82 per cent). In many cases these three approaches seemed to be used in combination by trainers during the length of the training activity. Just over one half (55 per cent) of trainers stated that they used traditional lecturing methods. The length of such lecturing presentations did however vary tremendously from a few minutes to almost one hour. A number of trainers said they avoided using this type of method or preferred to avoid it if possible by using detailed handouts to provide the information. However, some also said that it was often an efficient way of relating a large amount of detailed information in a short space of time, especially that relating to the legal context and problems of racism and discrimination.

The vast majority of trainers used written information packs (82 per cent) and training videos (82 per cent) for their training. None used computer-based learning packages. Some trainers used video cameras to record and play back role play exercises. Also some issued pre-course packs which provided background information and some exercises to help prepare trainees.

Part 2: Training approach - trade unions

As with training targeted at Personnel/Management, the content of training for Trade Unions did not include basic forms of anti-discrimination training such as the provision of cultural information. Two forms of information provision were however quite commonly found in the content of these activities. Fifty-eight per cent of activities included the provision of information on the legal context of discrimination and almost all (92 per cent) included information on problems of racism and discrimination. These two particular activities are clearly very commonly viewed as essential background content for almost all forms of training. A further essential part of many forms of training is the inclusion of procedures of fair recruitment and selection. For activities targeted at Trade Unions all contained elements dealing with this aspect of discrimination. In other respects training for this target group appeared to be less advanced than that for Personnel/Management. Less than half of the activities (42 per cent) dealt with a broader range of equal opportunities strategies, such as positive action. (As previously mentioned only 17 per cent included issues other than race and ethnicity). A further indication that these activities are focusing on different issues to those for Personnel/Management is the lack of activities including broader strategies such as 'diversity management'. Only one activity was found to be dealing with diversity issues although originally described by the training provider as an equalities type training.

The most common strategy was to train specifically in certain actions and skills so as to produce behavioural change (100 per cent), with only one activity also ostensibly aiming to produce

"attitude change" in trainees. As discussed above, activities frequently provided information on either the legal context or problems of racism. Therefore, another main strategy was the provision of information to those that would otherwise not be aware of certain issues (67 per cent of activities). As trade union activists were perceived as having some influence within their organisations, a further strategy of 42 per cent of activities was said to be to produce organisational change over and above the individual trainees.

The style of classroom method adopted in these activities was consistent with the pattern found for Personnel/Management. The three typical methods adopted were group exercises, role play and case studies, each used by 92 per cent of the activities. Clearly these methods are viewed as the most effective way to achieve the aims of the training, especially when used in combination. Traditional lecturing methods were only used by 17 per cent of activities, and these were used in cases where large amounts of information needed to be put across to participants. However, the overwhelming preference was for more interactive methods of training, and didactic methods were avoided through the production of written information packs (used by 92 per cent of activities). Training videos were used by all training activities, most often to help introduce group, role play or self-discovery exercises.

Categorisation of the training approach - personnel/management

The six main training types set out in the Research Manual were initially used to categorise the training activities covered by the documentation process. The majority of training activities (59 per cent) were initially classified as type (4) Equalities Training. This basic category was consequently subdivided into three types of equalities training. Equalities Broader Issues Training (C2.C3 in the Typology, Wrench and Taylor, 1993: 15) covered 11 of the training activities. This is a broader form of training covering issues other than simply avoiding discrimination in recruitment, looking also at positive action and/or broader discrimination issues such as gender and disability. Equalities Anti-Racism Training (C2.D2 in the Typology) covered six of the training activities. This is a form of training aiming to tackle discrimination not just at the point of entry but throughout the organisation, and sees racism as the main problem and the reason for the training programme. Equalities Diversity Training (C3.D3) covered 8 of the training activities. The emphasis of this training remains focused on instructing trainees how to avoid discrimination and bias, but includes elements of diversity training through discussion of appropriate treatment of individuals, including broader issues, such as gender, disability and cultural issues. The remaining 8 activities classified as Equalities Training were either basic forms of this type or were minor subcategories such as a combination of Equalities Training and Awareness Training (B2.C2).

No examples were found of basic type (1) Information Training or type (3) Racism Awareness Training. However, elements of these training approaches were contained in some subdivisions of the Equalities Training category. Only 2 activities (4 per cent) were classified as Cultural Awareness Training. Slightly more common were the basic types Anti-Racism Training (12 per cent) and Diversity Training (9 per cent).

Four other categorisations were utilised for types of training which did not readily fit into one of the six basic types of training. Three of the training activities had a specific focus on tackling racial harassment within the workplace and contained mainly equalities type training with a focus on behaviour change through anti-discrimination training content. In addition they included aspects of broader issues (diversity) and organisational change. These activities were therefore classified as C2.C3.D3. Three of the activities concentrated mainly on behavioural change in

terms of a multi-cultural and anti-racist content but included elements of Racism Awareness Training (challenging attitudes). These activities were therefore categorised as C1.C2.B2. Two activities consisted of an unusual mixture of anti-racism content aimed at both attitude change (racism awareness) and organisational change (anti-racism), these activities were categorised as B2.D2.

One form of training did not appear to fit at all within the typology set out in the Research Manual. This activity aimed at developing black managers' personal and professional coping strategies to combat the effects of structural and interpersonal racism. The activity, whilst concentrating on individuals, aims to achieve organisational change through the actions of the trainees and the implementation of their coping strategies. The activity included elements of information training, racism awareness training and equalities training therefore combining A2.B2.C2, although this is an inadequate categorisation.

The main reason for this training type not fitting within the Research Manual Training Typology was the assumption that forms of anti-discrimination training would, by definition, almost exclusively focus on gatekeepers coming from the societal majority. However, the "Anti-Racism for Black Managers" training (taken as Case study 15) focused on junior managers from minority ethnic groups in order that they could play a more prominent role in challenging discrimination in their own workplace. Specifically the training aimed to develop *'black manager's personal and professional coping strategies to combat the effects of structural and interpersonal racism on their professional careers'*. This training activity has similarities with training targeted at women managers which shares some of the aims indicated and is often referred to as 'capacity building'. Such training aims to develop skills which will enable individuals to progress within their workplace and cope with any discrimination encountered. The training in this case went beyond 'capacity building' for the individual trainees because it also aimed to enable the trainees to become effective role models for other ethnic minority employees and for them to demonstrate the gains to be made from achieving cultural diversity at all levels of the workforce. The training also stressed the responsibility employers must take for the progress of managers from minority ethnic groups and the need to implement organisational anti-discrimination policies. The training, although not fitting into the Typology and not aimed at gatekeepers, is therefore included as it is considered to be an important new development in anti-discrimination training in the United Kingdom.

Categorisation of the training approach - trade unions

The majority of training activities for this target group were also classified as Equalities Training (75 per cent). Using the same three sub-categories of this type of training, 3 were classified as Equalities Broader Issues Training (C2.C3), which including issues such as positive action, gender and disability. Two activities were classified as Equalities Anti-Racism Training (C2.D2) which consider organisational aspects of equality beyond the point of entry. As previously stated, none of these activities were initially classified as either Equalities Diversity Training (C3.D3) or the main category of Diversity Training. However, as is clear from the case studies it was later found that although originally described by the trainer as an Equalities Broader Issues Training this example covered diversity management issues and it was necessary to re-categorise it as Diversity Training (D3). The different distribution of categorisations for Trade Union training types emphasises the finding that training for this target group tends to address a slightly different set of issues and is following an alternative developmental path to that of training provided for Personnel/Management. In particular, Trade Union training appears far less concerned with the

issues of managing cultural difference covered in Diversity Training and remain concentrated on equality issues.

The two remaining activities were classified as Anti-Racism Training (17 per cent). These provided information on the ways in which racism and discrimination, at both an individual and organisational level, affect ethnic minorities. The training emphasised the importance of behavioural change by introducing new procedures on dealing with contentious situations, but also aimed to generate individual attitude change amongst trainees.

Methodological note

In general Profile Sheet 3 was less problematic to compile than Profile Sheet 2. Trainers were able to give clearer answers to the majority of questions. The main exceptions are questions (1) and (2). Training providers often found it difficult to give precise answers to these questions about the number of clients receiving training and the number of times courses had been delivered. This may be a result of a general lack of record keeping by many of the independent consultants.

It is noticeable that for many questions the majority of replies fall within a very limited range of responses, for example questions (6), (8), (10) and (13).

Again it was necessary to include some additional categories in the following questions:

- (5)-(8) 'Not Applicable' or 'Not known' in order to cover the type of pre-packaged training mentioned earlier.
- (10) '1/2 day' due to the significant minority of trainers identifying the demand for 1/2 day courses.
- (11) '0' to include those trainers that said they rarely repeated courses for clients.
- (12) 'Not applicable/not known' to include '0' responses to question (11) and pre-packaged training materials.
- (13) 'Not known' again to include pre-packaged training materials.

As expected, categorising the training types according to the typology proved to be one of the more complicated procedures during the construction of the Profile Sheets. The information provided by the questionnaire interviews provides a wealth of information which can be used to allocate a training type to the particular training in question. The specific answers to the questionnaire needed to be considered alongside some of the more detailed information obtained during the interview and recorded on the questionnaire. For example a number of training activities were initially allocated to 'Equalities Training' which needed to be further subdivided in order to provide information on particular types of training that appeared to be common within this broad type. Two particular types that are common are C2.C3 - equalities training with an anti-discrimination/anti-racism emphasis within the context of broader equal opportunities issues and C2.D2 - equalities training aimed at mainly behavioural change but with consideration of the organisational change developing from a commitment to anti-racism. These two particular types are discussed in the case studies provided and illustrate the variation that occurs within the broad category of 'Equalities Training'.

2.4. Chapter summary: Documentation of training activity

The trainers

- A total of 57 training providers were interviewed, the majority (95 per cent) describing themselves as independent training consultants.
- A high proportion of trainers operate individually within their own consultancy; a smaller number were operating within a larger company employing a relatively large number of consultants. The majority (77 per cent) worked individually when providing training; 50 per cent always using a trainer from an ethnic minority background (most frequently this was the trainer him/herself).

The target group of the training

- It proved difficult to pin down the exact target group of training activities, although the majority of provision was for personnel/management (74 out of 87 responses).
- Training provided for the public sector labour market gatekeepers tended to be further specialised in particular areas for example, education, social welfare or health.
- Twelve of the training providers (18 per cent) identified Trade Unions as one of their target groups; only one trainer identified Job Centre staff as a target group.
- Two distinct views (equally for and against) were expressed about working with mixed groups of staff from different levels or work areas.

The training course

Personnel/Management

- The majority (71 per cent) of training courses had been provided to over 11 organisations, reflecting the fact that many trainers develop a package of training which is slightly adapted for different clients.
- Most courses had been provided for five years or less (66 per cent).
- Courses were most frequently (88 per cent) restricted to staff from a single organisation. Trainers held differing views on the advantages and disadvantages of training being compulsory.
- Thirty-nine per cent of trainers described their training as fitting within a broader programme of training including either gender or disability.
- About three-quarters of the training courses lasted for one day, with the length of courses tending to have fallen in recent years.
- The majority of trainers (73 per cent) said they never repeated activities for the same client.
- Almost all (96 per cent) training activities do not lead to a formal qualification.
- Training courses have progressed beyond simple information provision. Two main types of basic factual information were still provided within training: the legal context (61 per cent) and problems of racism and discrimination (64 per cent).
- Most commonly activities were concerned with the introduction of fair recruitment and selection processes (67 per cent).
- The majority of trainers preferred to use group exercises (82 per cent), role play (68 per cent) and case studies (55 per cent). They also use written information packs (82 per cent) and training videos (82 per cent). One of the newest methods was that of self-teaching videos.
- The majority of activities were classified as Equalities Training (59 per cent) A noticeable development was training in Diversity Management.
- One new form of training was found: 'Anti-Racism for Black Managers'.

Trade Unions

- The majority of training for Trade Unions had been delivered to over 11 clients (67 per cent), almost all were restricted to staff from a single organisation (92 per cent).

- Trainers tended to work individually (83 per cent), and use a trainer from an ethnic minority background (67 per cent).
- The majority of activities focused on ethnic minority issues (75 per cent), thought by trainers to be a particular concern of Trade Unions.
- There was very little discussion of diversity management issues.
- All activities for this target group were either half a day or one day in length.
- Training no longer simply provides information although activities still cover the legal context and problems of racism (92 per cent).
- Less than half of the activities dealt with a broader range of equal opportunities strategies (42 per cent). All courses aimed at producing behavioural change, and only one was also directly concerned with changing attitudes.
- Typically trainers used group exercises, role play and case studies (92 per cent). Training videos were used by all trainers during activities.
- The majority of activities for this group were classified as Equalities Training (75 per cent); only one was found which was classified as Diversity Training.

Chapter 3. Evaluation of training activity

3.1. Introduction to the case studies

This chapter of the report draws on the activities carried out during Stages 6, 7 and 8 of the research, the Evaluation Process. The purposes of these stages was to obtain detailed qualitative information on the selected training activities. As described in Chapter 1, interview questionnaires were designed, an adaptation of the original methodology, in order to elicit comparable qualitative information on very varied training approaches. The purpose of the questionnaires was to obtain information on the motivations for undertaking anti-discrimination training and expectations of the training process. The evaluation process also sought information on the effects of the training and aimed to identify any areas of consensus and dissent which had an impact on the training's effectiveness. Stage 6 of the research specified that a sample of 21 training courses should be selected to participate in the evaluation process. Eventually 15 training activities were included in the process. A number of difficulties were encountered obtaining the agreement of those involved in the training process to carry out the evaluation which are discussed at the end of this chapter (Methodological Note). The main difficulty was the time consuming nature of the research methods suggested in the Research Manual (Wrench and Taylor, 1993: 55). When writing the Research Manual it was not recognised how long the tri-partite evaluation process required for each of the case studies would take. There was also resistance to the completion of the evaluation process for particular training activities by key organisational managers which resulted in some case studies having to be abandoned due to incomplete information. It became clear that after the first round of case studies had been carried out, a very similar set of issues were occurring in each new case. Additional case studies confirmed the findings from the first round and were adding very little in terms of new findings. Therefore, it was felt that 15 case studies provided an acceptable number for the purposes of this study.

The selection of the case studies was intended to reflect two main characteristics of the training activities covered in the documentation stages. Firstly the sample needed to reflect the balance

of training activities between the three target groups Personnel/Management, Trade Unions and Job Centre. As already discussed, the documentation process revealed that the majority of training activities were targeted at Personnel/Management (64 per cent) compared to 14 per cent targeted at Trade Unions and only one activity for Job Centres. The balance of evaluation case studies attempted to reflect this distribution. However, it proved most difficult to obtain examples from the Trade Union target group, and therefore there is an under-representation of this group. The resulting distribution of the case studies is Personnel/Management 13 cases, Trade Unions 1 case and Job Centre 1 case.

The second characteristic taken into account for the evaluation process was the distribution of the training activities covered in the documentation process according to the categorisations of the anti-discrimination training typology. As shown in the Profile Sheets (see Appendix 2) 59 per cent of Personnel/Management training activities were within the Equalities Training type. By this figure, although many of the case studies were selected from this particular type, there is a slight under-representation of Equalities Training amongst the final case studies, and an over-representation of Diversity Training. The more detailed information obtained in the evaluation process allowed a more specific type to be allocated to some activities. One example was found of a training type that did not readily fit within the typology, although it has been allocated the type A2.B2.C2. This activity was chosen as one of the case studies. The distribution of case studies by training type is set out in the following table.

Table 3.1.

Type of Training	Description	Case study no.	No. of case studies
	<i>Equalities</i>		
C2.C1.B2	Racism/Cultural Awareness	(1,2)	2
C2.B2	Awareness	(3)	1
C2	Anti-discrimination	(4)	1
C3	Broader Issues	(5,6)	2
	<i>Anti-Racism</i>		
D2.B2	Awareness	(7)	1
D2.C3	Equalities	(8)	1
D2	Anti-Racism	(9)	1
	<i>Diversity</i>		
D3.C3.C2	Challenging Harassment	(10,11)	2
D3.C3	Equalities	(12,13)	2
D3	Diversity	(14)	1
	<i>New Type</i>		
A2.B2.C2	Anti-Racism for Black Managers	(15)	1

Case study details

Case study 1

A Local Authority serving a multi-ethnic population in the Midlands. Training was adopted to communicate the existing commitment to anti-discrimination, to promote skills' development, and to increase the recruitment of ethnic minority staff.

Department X has extensive contact with the general public through the provision of public housing and related environmental services.

Case study 2

Within the same Local Authority as Case study 1, Department Y is responsible for the financial business of the Council and its staff has limited direct contact with the general public.

Case study 3

A Midlands regional office of the National Association of Citizens' Advice Bureaux, which provides advice and information on a wide range of issues free of charge to any enquirer. Training was adopted as part of the sophisticated framework of training for all members of the Bureaux in order to establish a commitment to anti-discrimination in recruitment of staff and to ensure all users of the service are dealt with in a professional manner.

Case study 4

Open training activity in the East Midlands involving a group of eight universities providing higher education qualifications, research and consultancy services. The group was formed in order to undertake staff development activities on a range of issues. The support for training arose from the group for a number of different reasons: for some institutions it was a concern about recruitment of ethnic minority groups and for others training was seen as important to enable existing equal opportunities policies to be implemented effectively.

Case study 5

A university employing a wide range of occupational groups and providing a range of academic and vocational education to an international market, based in the Midlands. Training was adopted in response to monitoring data revealing the slow progress being made towards the target of employing ethnic minority staff as least in proportion to the surrounding population.

Case study 6

A further education college providing academic and vocational training, based in the North of England. Training was adopted as part of an ongoing review of equal opportunities and in response to senior managers' criticisms of progress on ethnic minority recruitment being far slower than had been hoped.

Case study 7

An agency providing careers and employment advice within local government based in the Midlands. Training was adopted in order to ensure non-discrimination, partially as a response to

national reports which implicate careers and employment services in colluding with racist employers.

Case study 8

A regional site of a national/international private sector manufacturing company in the engineering sector based in the South of England. Training was used alongside the introduction of a new form of extended assessment in order help recruit more employees from minority ethnic groups.

Case study 9

A Probation and After-Care Service in the West of England covering several important towns and a large rural hinterland. Training was adopted to communicate equal opportunities aims and expectations to new staff and to improve the ethnic minority profile of the workforce.

Case study 10

A national commercial company which has recently taken over 12 smaller concerns with sites all over the United Kingdom. Training was introduced to impart fair recruitment skills, to make managers more aware of the nature and impact of racial and sexual harassment and to learn specific management skills for dealing with such complaints appropriately.

Case study 11

A county Police Force in the South of England which has introduced a comprehensive programme of equal opportunities policy development. Training was adopted in order encourage the recruitment of more ethnic minorities and to persuade staff to voluntarily become committed to change and to open up discussion about equality issues.

Case study 12

A national banking institution wishing to develop the implementation of its broad equal opportunities policies which cover gender, race and disability. Training was adopted partially in response to the slow progress on improving the recruitment of ethnic minority staff and external pressures from national equal opportunities organisations promoting more effective policies.

Case study 13

A regional site in the North West of England of a national company working in the media sector. Training was introduced to help broaden equal opportunities practices to encompass a greater diversity of disadvantaged groups. It was also a reaction to a growing awareness of competitor organisations introducing 'managing diversity' style practices.

Case study 14

Open training activity offered to trade union officials from across the United Kingdom, although the majority came from the Greater London area. The training aimed to introduce the concept of 'diversity management' and the possible implications for union officials within their own organisations.

Case study 15

Open training activity offered to ethnic minority managers in public and voluntary sector organisations. The training aimed to develop the managers' personal and professional coping strategies to combat the effects of structural and interpersonal racism on their professional careers. The training took place in London but was offered to a national audience.

The other factor considered in the selection of the case studies was employer type. Four of the case studies were from the private sector, each being one part of a large national organisation, in some cases international. These examples include organisations from the banking, transport and manufacturing sectors. Six of the case studies were from the public sector, including a careers office, probation service and police force. Three case studies were from the education sector, all providing post compulsory (i.e. post age 16) qualifications. One of these activities was an 'open event' for a range of individuals from higher education institutions which are members of a joint staff development programme. Two activities were open to a range of individuals and therefore it is not possible to specify a particular employer type. However, one of these events was specifically for trade union representatives and officials.

The evaluation of case studies utilised a tri-partite process which sought information from the client organisation, the training provider and training participants. The first part of each case study obtained background information on the training activity, consisting of two parts, one concentrating on the client organisation and the other on the training provider. For the client organisation, information was sought on the purchaser's anti-discrimination policies, their reasons for adopting a training strategy and their expectations from the specific training activity being evaluated. For the training provider, information was sought on their professional background, their overall ethos in anti-discrimination work and their expectations of the specific activity. The second part of each evaluation study obtained information on the training activity's content and methodology. The third part of the studies obtained (where possible) evaluations of the activity from the three groups: client, trainer and participant. The fourth and final part of each study evaluated the effectiveness of the training activity by considering areas of dissent, consensus and any evidence about the progress made towards anti-discrimination in employment practice.

3.2. Background to the training

Purchaser's anti-discrimination policies

All the organisations covered in the case studies had some previous commitment to the provision of equality of opportunity in employment. The starting point of expressing commitment to equality of opportunity is the adoption of a formal equal opportunities policy. Most commonly the formal policies of the organisations covered were 'broad equal opportunities policies which cover gender, race and disability' (Case study 12). In some of the organisations the initial emphasis of equality policies was on a particular area of anti-discrimination. For example in Case studies 1 and 2 equal opportunities policies had developed over a number of years *'starting with policies to tackle racial discrimination and now paying particular attention to equality of opportunity for women and people with disabilities'*. The organisation in Case study 12 *'pioneered several initiatives to meet the needs of women'*. The emphasis within a number of the case study organisations was currently on issues surrounding the recruitment and employment of people with disabilities in response to the recent United Kingdom legislation.

Formal commitment to broad equal opportunities policies was, in some organisations, accompanied by the introduction of other policies and procedures. A typical example of this is Case study 7, which produces internal booklets on *'a number of policies, procedures and codes of practice concerned with a wide range of equal opportunities and anti-discrimination matters'*. Other examples of this multiple anti-discrimination policy approach include Case studies 5, 6 and 8.

The anti-discrimination policies of some of the organisations concerned were developed at both local and national levels. This was evident in those case study organisations that were either local sites of a national/international organisation (Case studies 8, 12 and 13), or part of a nationally provided service (Case studies 3, 9 and 11). In these examples the national level policies provided a corporate commitment to equal opportunities whilst implementation and more detailed and specific policies were the responsibility of the local level. This pattern of policy development and implementation was also reflected at the micro level within some organisations, where, depending upon the size of the organisation, it is possible to devolve the level of responsibility for anti-discrimination to individual departments (Case study 7). Alternatively the strategy adopted may be that of centralising responsibility for equality policies and procedures to help ensure some co-ordination and overall view of progress achieved. For example, in Case study 5 *'a named personnel officer is given as a key contact for all equal opportunities enquiries and concerns'*.

In a number of the organisations equal opportunities issues had been given a very high profile and were frequently being addressed through a range of procedures and mechanisms. In Case study 3 a comprehensive equal opportunities policy had been in existence for almost ten years and the current thrust was to incorporate *'marginalised groups into every Bureau, as managers, as workers and as users'*. In Case study 13 the organisation gave a very high profile to equality issues with large budgets allocated to this work. The organisation has publicly expressed its commitment by joining several national equality and anti-discrimination initiatives which involve the setting of targets and objectives within specified deadlines. Other case study organisations had also joined national equality initiatives and campaigns. One example of such initiatives is Race for Opportunity which was launched in 1995 with the aim of increasing employment opportunities for ethnic minority groups. This campaign is using local employer networks of member organisations in order to identify and share good practices in the four key areas: employment, marketing, purchasing and community involvement.

Among the 'Open Training activities' (Case studies 4, 14, 15) it was more difficult to explore the extent of participants' organisations' commitment to anti-discrimination. 'Open Training Activities' are defined as those activities that are typically attended by a range of individuals from more than one organisation. These activities are usually publicised or advertised widely in order to attract trainees. On appropriate occasions 'open training activities' may be restricted to a particular trainee group such as those working within trade unions as in Case study 14. Among the open training activities included in the case studies it was clear that, as with the other case studies, many of the participants' organisations had some formal policy statement on equality issues. In Case study 4 all of the participants' organisations were said to have a formal written equal opportunities policy, and some also had adopted action plans for the implementation of anti-discrimination and equal opportunities procedures. In addition some had also introduced anti-harassment policies. This may reflect the importance attached to the removal of discrimination within the education sector. The majority of participants in Case study 14 (70 per cent) and Case study 15 (60 per cent) stated that their organisations had a formal commitment to equal opportunities. For the open training activities, participants are defined as the individuals attending, rather than the organisations from which participants have come (referred to as the participants' organisations). However, in Case study 15 a quarter of the participants stated that *'they do not know how their employers implement their policies'*. This indicates that for many individuals within an organisation, a simple awareness of a policy's existence may be the extent of their knowledge about it. This knowledge may also reflect reality, where organisations have introduced a formal policy statement that has received limited attention and induced little action since its original introduction.

Reasons for adopting training

Numerous forms of training or staff development have well established roles in the culture of many British organisations including in communication (dissemination of new ideas and initiatives), skills development (technical, managerial, organisational), and organisational development (the introduction of new organisational procedures). Training programmes are usually integrated into a wider package of structural and procedural measures to tackle specific organisational needs, such as the adoption of different administrative systems or of new technologies, and there often develops an automatic expectation that training will have a part to play in achieving the changes required.

Brown and Lawton (1991:40) found that 'organisations with little or no training in management and personnel matters are unlikely to develop any equal opportunities training', hence if there is no organisational experience of training this will remain the case for anti-discrimination training. We postulated that, conversely, anti-discrimination training is less likely to face initial resistance or suspicion where the purchasing organisation and/or individual participants have a history of in-service training experience. We were also aware that the early anti-discrimination training programmes in the United Kingdom were generally expected to function as a stand alone strategy to effect a major shift in organisational practice, by providing awareness training to individuals at many different levels of responsibility (Powell, 1988; Luthra and Oakley, 1991). This 'across the board' concept is also different from most other kinds of in-service training, which are rarely expected to address the same subject at all levels of an organisation. These factors play an important part in the history of anti-discrimination training in some organisations and in their reasons for adopting particular training programmes in more recent years.

The specific reasons for organisations choosing to adopt the programmes covered in this study were, as might be expected, unique to each situation. It is however apparent that for each of the case study organisations the decision was reached due to a combination of factors rather than one single event or a singular aim or objective. In most cases the adoption of anti-discrimination training was both a reaction to particular events or findings and intended to be proactive in assisting the organisation to reach a particular objective.

Reactive reasons

Events or findings to which training was a reaction were both internal and external to the organisation. Two main types of internal events were mentioned as the reason for adopting training:

- slow progress towards change;
- conflict or passive resistance to organisational equality policies.

The most common of these was the recognition that progress towards change had been slower than anticipated. The ethnic monitoring of recruitment patterns is often one of the first procedures implemented within an equal opportunities policy and many organisations use such data to measure their progress towards their recruitment targets (which may set very specific targets or rely on rather vague ideas about matching the ethnic make-up of their surrounding population.) The evaluation phase found examples of purchasers turning to training when their monitoring revealed disappointing results in this respect. In Case study 5 recent analysis of data collected through monitoring the ethnic profile of the labour force revealed that progress towards a notional set of employment targets was very limited. Whilst no-one believed that recruiters intentionally avoided offering jobs to people from minority ethnic groups, it was thought that some factors during the recruitment process might inhibit progress towards targets. Similarly in

Case study 12, the purchaser felt that good policies were already in place but *'unconscious prejudices of line-managers may interfere with the successful implementation of these policies'*.

The other internal stimulus to the adoption of training was outright conflict over (or passive resistance to) organisational equality policies and objectives. Internal conflict was explicitly stated in Case study 7 as a prime reason for adopting training. In this case of a careers and employment advice service, conflict had arisen about the handling of complaints. Included among the complaints was the allegation that the careers service colluded with racist employers and excluded ethnic minority school leavers from certain employment opportunities. In a number of the other case studies resistance was not explicitly mentioned but the desire to persuade or coerce managers and employees to accept equality and anti-discrimination objectives suggests that resistance was thought to exist, which needed to be overcome in order to make progress.

Three external causes of pressure were mentioned in the case studies which resulted in the decision to implement a training activity:

- concerns about public image;
- market forces arising from national equality campaigns;
- peer pressure from other similar organisations pursuing equality and diversity objectives.

In one example (Case study 7) the external cause was complaints about the functioning of the careers and employment service. In this case there had been national reports outlining allegations of collusion mentioned above. The other causes of pressure were more positive in nature and were cited by the higher profile organisations operating in the private sector. For example the banking institution in Case study 6 reported that *'influential national equal opportunities organisations which, with major institutions, are promoting a number of joint initiatives to open up employment opportunities'* acted as a source of pressure for greater and more rapid change to occur. Race for Opportunity has already been mentioned as one of these campaigns; other similar campaigns exist for women (Opportunity 2000) and people with disabilities (Positive about Disabled People and Employers Forum on Disability). This suggests that public support for these campaigns by an increasing number of high profile organisations places pressure on others to join. Belonging to such campaigns is an important statement of an ethical commitment but it also significantly adds to the profile of the organisation in terms of its marketing image. By sponsoring these campaigns, organisations are allowed to use certain symbols in their publicity and recruitment material thus sending anti-discrimination messages to potential recruits. Related to this is the third type identified: the desire to retain a competitive position in relation to other similar organisations. This was explained by the media organisation in Case study 13: their reason for adopting Managing Diversity training was a growing awareness that *'competitor organisations and other high profile organisations operating in other industrial sectors are introducing diversity practices and policies'* and that it was important to be seen as a similarly progressive body.

Proactive reasons

It was also possible to identify organisations which adopted training as a pro-active strategy to advance their equal opportunities goals. Four commonly recurring proactive reasons were given, which can be categorised as:

- the promotion of new values within the organisation;
- communicating organisational policy aims;
- persuading employees to co-operate with the new policies;
- the acquisition of new skills in the workforce.

Whilst attaining an increase in the recruitment of ethnic minorities could be seen as the main reason for adopting anti-discrimination training, this was often not made explicit by the purchasing organisations. Frequently, training was actually adopted in order to achieve multiple aims, for example, to make managers or employees aware of the existing policies whilst also equipping them with new approaches and skills which would, it was hoped, result in changing the workforce profile. A clear example of this form of combination is seen in Case studies 1 and 2 where the Local Authority adopted anti-discrimination training within two departments, for reasons which combine communication, persuasion and some skills development:

Training is regarded as an appropriate way of communicating to all its staff the Council's commitment to tackling racial discrimination. It is seen as a strategy which can deal with a deeply emotive issue in a controlled way and help to develop consensus about the need for all staff to make changes to the ways they carry out their duties. Persuasion is strongly felt to be a better tactic for encouraging equality than are sanctions.

Communication was given as a reason for a number of organisations adopting training, but it was communication for a range of purposes. In Case study 9, training continues to be seen as '*an appropriate way for the [Probation] Service to communicate its Equal Opportunities aims and objectives to new staff*'. In Case study 6 communication was of a new policy approach to existing employees rather than the communication of existing policies to new staff. Here there is clearly a difference in scale and cost, because the objective was for all staff to receive the training, whereas training only new staff would involve a small fraction of the total workforce. It is also evident that, as organisations move through the process of developing their equal opportunities position, they tend to become increasingly selective in their application of specific training courses to sections of the workforce, including the communication of equality policies during the induction of new staff.

A combination of factors was also revealed in Case study 8 where the manufacturing company was introducing a new recruitment and selection process for more senior posts which involved extended assessment of short listed candidates during one intensive day. Previously recruitment had followed fairly standard procedures of short panel interviews. The concern was that these were not efficient in selecting the best candidate and the under-representation of those from ethnic minority groups among selected candidates was persistent. The extended assessment process relied upon skills assessment based upon a set of tasks scored on certain criteria. Training was adopted in order to communicate the new form of selection to managers, to persuade them of its validity and to equip them with the necessary skills to carry out the fair assessment of candidates. The style of the training integrated anti-discrimination issues into the whole process, constituting both a reason for adopting the extended assessment process and a key aspect of establishing fair procedures.

Due to the perceived threatening nature of many equality policies and practices, persuasion played a key part in the decision of many organisations to adopt training. Anti-discrimination training was seen as a relatively comfortable way of beginning to introduce new practices so that they would not be seen as threatening but as worthwhile adopting. This was perhaps most clearly stated by the police force in Case study 11, where:

Racial and sexual harassment can now be dealt with under disciplinary procedures, but there is a reluctance to introduce further sanctions in case these generate counter-productive reactions in the rank and file. Training is seen, therefore, as a persuasive strategy which will encourage people to become voluntarily committed to change; voluntary change, in turn, is seen as much more effective and permanent.

Other clear statements of the preference for persuasive training to ensure commitment were found. The careers service in Case study 7, acting in reaction to internal conflict and external complaints, adopted training because *'the director wishes to promote measures to ensure non-discrimination through persuasion and consensus, rather than through compulsion and possible conflict'*. In this case it was a clear managerial choice not to tackle existing conflict through enforcing different procedures which might heighten levels of conflict. Similarly within the commercial company in Case study 10, anti-discrimination training was seen as *'the only viable approach to this kind of change in a private company, which must persuade rather than coerce staff into new patterns of behaviour'*. It should be noted that this *persuasive* training remains conceptually distinct from types of training which state that they are attempting to produce *attitude change*. Whilst the former is attempting to change behaviour through agreement and consensus, the latter attempt to produce genuine change in an individual's deep seated attitudes of racism or prejudice.

The acquisition of new skills is often a pre-requisite to achieving changes to organisational anti-discrimination practices. The acquisition of new skills was a clear reason for the adoption of training in Citizen's Advice Bureaux in Case study 3 and was strongly tied in with professional development. In this example *'a sophisticated framework of national and local training programmes'* exists to allow workers to acquire and maintain their professional knowledge and skills and:

Anti-discrimination training as a strategy for change in organisations meshed with this existing ethos perfectly and is perceived as a natural extension of the training which ensures that all users are dealt with in a professional manner.

With respect to new developments in the field of anti-discrimination training, the acquisition of new skills was one of the main reasons for adopting types of Managing Diversity training. In Case study 13, the adoption of the specific type of Managing Diversity training was not only a reaction to factors such as the actions of competitor or equivalent organisations, but was also perceived as giving a new impetus and possible change of emphasis to the existing support for equality practices and procedures. In order to achieve this, it was vital that the training was able to raise managers' awareness and understanding of the new policy approach. In particular, the form of Managing Diversity being delivered required managers to move away from thinking about the ensuring of equality for particular disadvantaged groups towards the consideration of procedures which would enable all individuals to fulfil their potential. Similarly the acquisition of new skills was one of the main reasons for many of the individuals attending the open training activity for trade union officials discussed in Case study 14. These participants were attending the training in order to *'better understand the principles of diversity management and its implications for the union's role within their own organisations'*.

Increasing awareness of the issues involved and obtaining knowledge about appropriate practices to prevent discrimination were main reasons for participants attending the two other Open

Training activities. Those responsible for recruitment in higher education who attended the training discussed in Case study 4 anticipated gaining an opportunity to network with colleagues working in similar institutions and facing similar difficulties. The new type of training in Case study 15 aimed at developing black junior managers' personal and professional coping strategies and opening up networking opportunities, although participants themselves also mentioned more concrete reasons, such as *'to get to grips with how racial prejudice affects people like me'* and *'I thought it would be chance to hear some ways of surviving'*. The course could be seen to be relevant to recruitment issues in that one of its aims is to reduce the 'fall-out' rate of black managers from organisations, after they have been recruited.

Anti-discrimination policies were adopted by some of the client organisations with the explicit purpose of achieving a specific kind of change, most often to the ethnic and/or gender profile of their workforce. Although this was often a reactive measure after discovering that they had failed to meet their own targets for increasing recruitment from ethnic minority groups and women, some employers saw training as a more proactive strategy, signalling a positive determination towards setting and achieving new recruitment targets. The police force in Case study 11 adopted training to tackle recruitment, to speed up the pace of change, because *'the internal culture of the Service is changing far too slowly'*; the further education college, Case study 6, whilst struggling to improve its image in the new competitive marketplace of the British education system, brought in training to improve *'the profile of the workforce [which] does not reflect the local population or the student body'*; similarly in the probation service in Case study 9, the training programme was adopted because:

There has been slow progress in achieving change to the ethnic profile of the workforce and the number of staff of minority ethnic origin remains stubbornly low.

Expectations of the training programme

The purchaser's expectations of the training programme arise out of the reasons for adopting training as a strategy and therefore included a broad range of issues. At a most basic level the expectations held by all parties were that participants would improve their knowledge about particular issues. This is clearest in the Open Training activities, whose format may be the most suited to the imparting of information. These training activities attracted a wide range of individuals from different organisational settings, which made it virtually impossible to achieve aims associated with generating change within particular organisations and workplaces. The Open Course for black junior managers (Case study 15) mainly recruited participants from civil service organisations, but was designed to meet individual rather than organisational needs. Nearly everyone attending this open training activity expected to gain more knowledge about the issues underlying discrimination and inequality and 35 per cent expected information about relevant legislation.

However, some occupational groups are in a position to exercise a wider influence, as in Case study 14 where trade union officials expected to obtain knowledge which would *'enable them to deal appropriately with discussions about managing diversity'* in a number of settings.

The majority of trainers introduce information about the relevant anti-discrimination legislation early on, to establish the parameters of the organisations' statutory duties and obligations and as a basis for establishing the need to develop new policies and codes of practice. It is clear from the case studies that gaining knowledge about the legislation is a widely held purchaser and

participant expectation of anti-discrimination training and thus a crucial component. It is also generally agreed that information about social inequalities and the processes which cause and sustain them are important components of training programmes, providing further validity to and justification for equality initiatives.

Raising participants' awareness of relevant issues is a frequently mentioned purchaser expectation of training, and although many of the training programmes discussed in the case studies have moved away from the simple provision of Cultural Awareness Training (Type B1) and Racism Awareness Training (Type B2), raising awareness is nevertheless still regarded as a key component in the change process. Anti-discrimination training is frequently expected to provide a pool of knowledge that will enable participants to become more aware of the issues, with the result that they will then be able (and willing) to reflect on their own practices, leading to significant attitude and behaviour change. Although not always explicitly stated in these terms it does appear that a number of the purchasers expect all forms of anti-discrimination training to produce some measure of change in staff attitudes as well as in their practices. The local authority (Case studies 1 and 2) had implicit expectations of a profound knock-on effect:

The aim was to raise awareness, throughout the organisation, of the need to ensure people from ethnic minority groups are fairly treated in all aspects of the organisations dealings with them.

The purchaser in Case study 3 expected training to *'raise the trainees' awareness about their own attitudes'* and *'encourage workers to reflect on their personal behaviour'* and similarly, the idea that gaining new knowledge would lead to organisational change clearly underpinned the expectations of the careers service in Case study 7:

.....there is concern that individual attitudes, organisational traditions and/or ignorance about the external social factors which restrict access to jobs might unintentionally bias their approach to clients.

However, while knowledge leading to greater awareness was also expected of the training in Case study 13, Managing Diversity training was also adopted to widen the targets of existing equalities policies and to extend concern beyond race and gender to disability discrimination, due to recent legislation. The knowledge and awareness imparted to managers by the training was hoped to give a new impetus to promote equality and diversity within the organisation and to *'challenge managers' thinking in order for them to arrive at imaginative solutions to diversity problems'*.

In other case studies it was expected that training could increase peoples' commitment to organisational equality objectives and in this way generate a new impetus. For example, in Case study 3 the training programme was expected to emphasise the policies to all constituent bodies and *'establish NACABx's commitment to anti-discrimination'*, while in the banking institution, Case study 12:

The equality training was expected to communicate to staff the organisation's commitment to equal opportunities and diversity and to motivate managers to co-operate with practical initiatives to screen out unfair bias.

These examples also demonstrate the importance attached by many organisations to the need to develop "grass roots" support for the new values and the case studies do suggest that such support is crucial to the successful implementation of new procedures and codes of practice.

Purchasers also expected training programmes to assist in the articulation of what constitutes "good practice" and in practical skills development for their staff. This applied to several types of training programme but was a key expectation of Equalities Training, where "good practice" is viewed as an essential feature of anti-discrimination. For example the Awareness/Equalities Training in Case study 3 was expected to *'outline the tenets of good Citizens' Advice Bureaux practice in the context of anti-discrimination'*. In Case study 5 the establishment of good practice through the Equalities/Fair Selection Training was seen as the basis for far-reaching change:

The plan was to establish a 'bank' of people skilled in fair selection procedures and to encourage them to transfer their knowledge and skills on to colleagues. Thus it is hoped to provide examples of good practice as widely as possible across the organisation and to achieve a real improvement in the ethnic profile, at all levels of the labour force.

It appears from the case studies that forms of anti-discrimination training which included Anti-Racism (Type D2) or Diversity Management (Type D3) were the most likely to be expected by purchasers to achieve organisational change (rather than individual change). The Challenging Harassment Training (Type C2.C3.D3) for police officers in Case study 11 was expected to start the process of dealing with complex, sensitive and difficult issues about harassment, by opening up discussion at all levels of the organisation, building up staff supervisors' knowledge about and commitment to dealing with such behaviour: *'ultimately the programme aims to expunge sexual and racial harassment from the so called canteen culture of the Police Service'*, a feature of British policing which has long been the subject of profound public concern. Similarly the need to put their own house in order was clearly expressed by the banking institution in Case study 12 (Type C3.D3):

The need to ensure that line-managers do not act in discriminatory ways which could lead to legal action, with the ensuing damaging publicity, is emphasised as a very important reason for requiring them to participate in equal opportunities training. The organisation also emphasises its self-interest, in terms of ensuring that it recruits, retains and promotes the most capable and committed people

This apparent self-interest, the need to improve their internal culture in order to project a different external image, fits very well with the "business case" reasons for adopting Equalities/Diversity Management advanced by the exponents of these approaches to anti-discrimination training. The "business case" is predicated on the view that all organisations benefit from recruiting and retaining the most talented people in society regardless of irrelevant personal characteristics and that such policies will ensure that they will also perform better in the modern market place, including the global market place.

Selecting training agencies

The training providers covered in the case studies include a range of different agencies, from individual consultants specialising in equality training through to large international management consultants for whom equality is only one area of work. The selection of specific training providers should ideally be based on an assessment of the ability to effectively deliver the specific type of training appropriate to the organisation's aims and objectives. However this 'ideal' process appears to have occurred in only two of the case studies, 6 and 13. In these examples a restricted tendering process was held after the organisation had assessed the type of training it required and devised a clear set of criteria which the training provider would be expected to fulfil. In each case a small number of training providers were contacted and invited to tender for the training contract. For the media organisation in Case study 13, one of the determining factors in the selection of the successful tendering agency was the fact that the chosen provider had worked with other similar organisations, including some competitors. This is understandable because one of the reasons for adopting training in this case was an awareness that competitors were beginning to develop managing diversity approaches to their practice and the particular training provider could bring this experience to the purchaser's own situation.

A crucial factor in the selection of training providers is their actual or perceived credibility. This is significant because it gives the purchaser confidence that the training will be appropriate to the particular organisational context and situation. It is also important that the training agency has credibility for the participants to accept the validity of the trainer's experience and knowledge. For purchasers the credibility of training agencies seems to rely upon two major factors: relevant knowledge and recommendation.

The relevant knowledge which helps to establish the credibility of trainers and their training is itself composed of two areas of specific knowledge: geographical and sectional. In Case studies 1, 2, 3 and 7 the training agencies had specific regional knowledge which was seen as important to their selection. Such regional knowledge ensures that training providers are well informed about the ethnic composition of the local population and labour market from which the organisation recruits. The importance of this specific knowledge is summed up in Case study 7, where the training providers *'mainly work in one geographical region and regard their extensive local knowledge as a crucial component in their work'*. Specific knowledge about certain market sectors, or occupations is also an important attribute, as in Case study 13 and in the Open Training activity for trade union members (Case study 14), which was selected because of the trainer's previous work with trade unions on equality issues. Similarly in Case studies 4 and 5 the training providers were selected because they had experience of working with other institutions in the education sector.

The provider in Case study 5 was selected after enquiries were made of other higher education institutions and the trainer's name was one of several which were recommended. Such recommendations by comparable purchaser organisations appear to carry great weight for purchasers, acting as a proxy for evidence of the quality and professionalism of training providers and indicating the appropriateness of the training style for the type of organisation concerned. Thus gaining experience of delivering training programmes in a particular organisational sector can become a valuable asset and result in recommendations to others in the sector. This reflects the finding in the documentation process that the work of many training providers is concentrated into particular employment sectors. In Case studies 10, 11 and 12 the training providers were selected because of their national profile as well as recommendations. Clearly 'recommendation'

in these examples was taken as a form of commendation of the quality of the training agency's work and the relevance of their style and approach. For example in Case study 7, persuasion and consensus were viewed as more appropriate than compulsion for achieving equality objectives and the 'training programme was chosen because it was recommended as taking *'a non-threatening and action-oriented approach'*. The providers in Case studies 10 and 11 were selected due to their involvement in major national equal opportunities initiatives and campaigns and the provider in Case study 12 was selected after winning a national award for equality training. At a more personal level, the training agency in Case study 10 was *'already known to the Training Manager, particularly for its legal expertise and its experience of dealing effectively with traditional white male-dominated companies'*. This example again underlines the importance to equal opportunities development of key entrepreneurial individuals in organisations.

3.3. Content of the training

Aims and structure of the training activity

The aims of training activities tend to share a common core of essential elements:

- coverage of legal requirements;
- information about levels of discrimination and disadvantage;
- teaching skills for and offering guidance on anti-discriminatory procedures and practices.

Because the existing legal framework is the basis for the majority of anti-discrimination training programmes, understanding the legislation plays a key part of many forms of training. This formed an important component of the various forms of Equalities Training. In Case study 5 participants were *'made aware of the legal framework regulating fair practice in employment'* and one of the aims of the training in Case study 6 was to cover *'the workings of the legislation and discuss appropriate equal opportunities terminology'*. Another fundamental component is that of raising the awareness of participants to particular issues, such as in the Equalities Training (Cultural/Racism Awareness) in Case studies 1 and 2 which aimed to *'raise awareness about white racism and its impact on Black and Asian Britons'*.

Interestingly however, within those training activities which included elements of Diversity Training (Type D3), coverage of the legislation was not given as one of the main aims of the activity. This is probably because Diversity Training moves beyond a consideration of basic legal obligations, to focus on how to treat all individuals in order to maximise their potential. However, the Diversity (Challenging Harassment) Training in Case study 10 aimed to *'improve the participants' awareness of the nature and impact of sexual and racial harassment, [and] to explain the legislation'*.

The development of skills for "good practice" for participants was an aim of a third of the training activities evaluated. This was almost by definition an essential part of Equalities Training (types C2, C3), reflecting its concentration upon establishing alternative ways of behaving which reduce discrimination. Some of the aims mention general good recruitment practices while others are placed within a specific context. In Case study 4 one of the aims of this Open Training activity was to *'help participants to develop good practice within their own organisation'*. Although not

mentioning good practice as such, the training in Case study 5 aimed to make participants *'understand the nature of both unfair and fair selection procedures'*.

More specific was the aim of the Equalities (Awareness) Training in Case study 3 where the intention was for participants to *'become familiar with [the National Association of Citizen's Advice Bureaux] policies and expectations of good practice'*. This is similar to developments in certain professional sectors in the United Kingdom, such as social work, which has introduced criteria about the overarching requirements of skills for anti-discriminatory practice as integral to "good social work" professional practice into all recognised qualifications. In addition to covering general principles for fair procedures, training may also stress the need for the behaviour of others within organisations to be altered. For example in Diversity Training Case study 11, (Challenging Harassment) the *'programme focuses on the benefits of good practice for everyone in the enterprise and seeks to enable participants to challenge unacceptable behaviour'* by other members of staff.

Training programmes often aim to develop particular staff skills: In Equalities Training Case study 5 the *'techniques for ensuring fair recruitment, especially through developing Person Specifications for posts'*; in Anti-Racism Training Case study 8, skills for good practice were firmly placed in the context of newly extended assessment techniques required by selectors. The Diversity Training (Challenging Harassment) in Case study 10 sought:

to provide opportunities for participants to develop their managerial skills for dealing with harassment and to generate support networks and organisational initiatives within the company.

In order to achieve some of the aims set, in particular the overall objective of achieving personal and organisational change, a number of the training activities also included the setting of action plans or certain targets for participants. For example the Anti-Racism (Equalities) Training in Case study 7 aimed to enable participants to *'collaborate with colleagues on action plans to improve their service to black and minority ethnic groups'* and Equalities Training Case studies 1 and 2 encouraged participants to *'adopt collective initiatives to eliminate racial discrimination from their practice'*. In the Anti-Racism Training in Case study 9 there was a similar wider institutional aim of developing *'a set of objectives that includes changing peoples' language and exploring practice-change as part of organisational change'*.

A related strategy for changing participants' behaviour, found particularly in Anti-Racism Training, was to encourage self reflection. For example, in Case study 7 participants were *'encouraged to reflect on their own attitudes and behaviour in relation to such prejudice and discrimination'* and in Case study 8 participants *'explored discriminatory attitudes in order to develop the skills for fair selection in assessment procedures'*.

The structure of training activities covered in the case studies of the Evaluation Process ranged from short half-day events through to two-day activities which were part of a review, feedback and updating package of training. Confirming the documentation process findings, the Open Training programmes tended to be the shortest and in both Case studies 4 and 14 the training events lasted only half a day. This was said by trainers to be because of the more general aims of these activities, which cannot be specifically aimed at particular organisational issues and thus focus less on the development of specific workplace skills. However, the new form of training evaluated in Case study 15 - Anti-Racism for Black Managers - covered two days and was also an Open Training activity. The qualitatively different nature of this activity and its aim of helping

participants to develop coping strategies made it necessary to give more time (two days) for this process to mature.

The majority of the case study training courses lasted one day, as found by the documentation process, and this length was usually said to be preferred by purchasers. One third of courses lasted two days and covered substantial issues, including the development of particular skills designed to overcome discriminatory behaviour. The longer courses were most often those which incorporated elements of Equalities Training. This study did not evaluate any courses lasting less than a whole day, apart from the Open Training programmes. However, trainers reported a growth in demand for shorter courses, lasting no longer than half a day, and this development causes concern because it suggests that some organisations are looking for what trainers characterise as a "quick fix" training response to organisational problems. Unless very short courses are devised as part of a larger organisational package, several trainers expressed the fear that no matter what model is adopted, training will inevitably become less effective. It was a matter of deep concern to many trainers that organisations are pressurising them to provide ever shorter courses. Trainers stated that it was becoming increasingly common for clients to request one half-day workshop for each training group, giving little scope for detailed or in depth work to be undertaken.

Half the programmes covered in the research's Evaluation Process also included follow-up activities, but the pattern of follow-up does not appear to alter significantly from one training type to another. Follow-up is regarded by trainers as a matter of good training practice, enabling them to suggest ways of tackling post training problems and to follow through their own contribution to achieving meaningful social change. They also regard follow-up as a reflection of the purchaser's commitment to change because it involves additional expenditure and provides some indication of progress (or lack of it) towards equal opportunities objectives. The Equalities (Broader Issues) Training in Case study 5 was programmed to have a half-day follow-up session to *'deal with questions and work on interviewing skills'* but, probably due to the resentment caused by the original event, there was no take up of this opportunity.

The purpose of follow-up sessions is usually to act as either a refresher for participants or to deal with problems arising from the training process and subsequent workplace activities. For example, the follow-up session in Anti-Racism Training Case study 7 focused on "problem-solving and trouble-shooting". As one of the defining features of Diversity Training is its concern with organisational change, then within this type, follow-up activities tend to concentrate on supporting change at this level. In Diversity Training Case study 11 *'the team reports on the course to the purchaser'* and *'consultation is sustained with the purchaser throughout the programme's [rolling] cycle'*. In Diversity Training Case study 10 *'follow-up questionnaires are sent to participants'*, reports are made back to the purchaser and *"one-day follow-up workshops are provided for participants every 6-9 months, to update their knowledge and to enable participants to share their 'learning from the experience'"*. The Diversity Training in Case study 12 took the format of *"a day's workshop for each identified group of managers [and] consultancy service to support the development of organisational change arising from the programme"*. This may include an 'Equality Audit'.

Teaching and learning methods

The various training activities tended to use a very similar range of teaching and learning methods, and these were found not to be reliant upon the type of training. The common core of methods include:

- presentations with discussion or question and answer sessions;
- small group work;
- case-studies;
- videos to generate discussion.

The use of lectures is not favoured by most training providers, unless they are used to put across detailed information on issues such as legislation and new procedures, (for example the new assessment procedures in Anti-Racism Training Case study 8). Even where this particular method is adopted it is usually linked with lengthy discussion or question and answer sessions. The use of more interactive teaching/learning methods was preferred by all the training providers covered in the evaluation process. These are generally thought to be more effective in allowing participants to reflect on their own attitudes, behaviour and practice. They are also considered to be effective at enabling participants to move towards implementing a new set of values. Facilitating positive interaction is seen as a key element of effective training and to be most valuable it must relate to the participants' workplace. This approach means that trainers must be able to "think on their feet" and be experienced at dealing with the kinds of emotive issues and interpersonal conflicts that can quickly undermine the training process.

However, trainers are also aware of the need to use a combination of different techniques and approaches. For example, in Equalities Training Case studies 1 and 2 *'wherever possible the trainers introduce case materials and set tasks which are relevant to the occupational interests of the course members'*. In Diversity Training Case study 12 the training provider was aware that *'individual learning styles can vary so much, different methods are selected to meet the needs of various groups in the same organisation'* and in Diversity Training Case study 10 the trainers *'adopt an interactive relationship-building style, responding flexibly to different groups, whose reactions vary widely'*. Flexibility in the design of training is thus another component of effective training, important at both the planning and delivery stages to maximise the impact of the training programme.

The Case studies reveal a number of other teaching/learning methods in use. In Diversity Training Case study 12 the training provider issues *'participants with 'homework' in the form of a pre-course booklet, which clarifies the issues and concepts and identifies relevant legislative frameworks'*. Equalities Training Case Study 6 utilised a quiz to act both as an ice-breaker and as a mechanism for introducing a range of equal opportunities issues. Perhaps the most innovative method was encountered in Diversity Training Case Study 11 where drama sessions were used to illustrate the nature and impact of harassment:

the dramatic performance is a unique feature of this agency's training; they find it a particularly effective way of involving participants in the issues and of facilitating a critical debate.

The study revealed a trend towards purchasers expecting all forms of discrimination and disadvantage to be tackled simultaneously in one programme of training, rather than specific inequalities to be addressed in different training activities. However, the time span and cost of training is not expected to increase; trainers think this is based on an unreal expectation of what anti-discrimination objectives can be achieved in a short course - perhaps because other forms of training, which tackle less complicated and challenging issues, such as presentation skills, can more easily achieve their aims within a short time span. Trainers fear that these pressures are undermining the quality of anti-discrimination training and arise because many clients neither

grasp the complex nature of social inequalities nor are prepared to prioritise equality goals in their annual budget. However, it must also be said that some managers are not convinced of the efficacy of training as a major part in their change strategy and are looking to other measures to improve organisational culture and structures, including stronger complaints, anti-harassment and discipline policies and procedures.

Evaluation procedures

Overall the Case studies show that there is a lack of systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of anti-discrimination training programmes by those who are involved. Most evaluation procedures were implemented by the training providers rather than by the client organisations and their main purpose was to benefit the training providers, not to assess the impact of the training on individual client organisations. All but one of the Case study training providers use end-of-course evaluation sheets to get feed back on participants' reactions to each course. These evaluation sheets are used to review their delivery in terms of the training model selected, the course content, and the trainers' style and skill. These usually take the form of short questionnaires (on which participants either provide open-ended comments or tick appropriate boxes) covering participants' views about the best and worst aspects of the training, what participants had hoped to gain, what they actually gained and relating training needs and practical matters such as the venue and the structure of the course. Some of the training providers referred to these as 'happy sheets', suggesting that participants tend to respond in a fairly positive mode immediately at the end of each course. However, other trainers felt this to be an inappropriate term because they were aware of the number of very critical, although often constructive, comments that were elicited from participants by the end of course evaluation sheets.

The importance of evaluation sheets to trainers for reviewing and adjusting training inputs, is indicated by a number of trainers, but in Anti-Racism Training Case study 9, the trainer said that his *'main feed-back comes from the spontaneous reactions of the participants during the course itself'*. The trainer in this example believes that evaluation sheets produce only superficial responses of limited value, and he does not use them any more. He also pointed out that if he undertook any serious evaluation of the effectiveness of his input, it would add significantly to the cost of the programme.

However, in the Anti-Racism for Black Managers Case study 15:

the agency has an evaluation programme which is used after each of its management training programmes, involving participant evaluation, visits to clients and staff debriefing. This information is used to determine the need for changes in a programme and/or to underpin new training products.

Some trainers also used evaluation procedures which were designed to give participants feedback on the training and to help further some of the aims engaged with during the delivery of the training. For example in Equalities Training Case studies 1 and 2 flip-chart records made during the course are written up by the trainers and circulated to participants and in Anti-Racism Training Case study 7 the trainers provide every course member with an account of agreements reached during the course about aims and objectives for anti-discrimination practice and the action plans.

Evaluation seemed to be more likely to take place in Diversity Training, although this may reflect the professionalism of the particular individuals involved rather than having anything intrinsically to do with the character of Diversity Training itself. Formal feedback was provided to the client

organisation by some trainers, including Diversity Training (Type D3). In Diversity Training Case study 11 both the participants' and the trainers' evaluation of the training activity are incorporated into a report for the purchasing organisation, participants views being obtained through a postal questionnaire three weeks after the course. The evaluation used in Diversity Case study 12 was even more comprehensive:

Evaluation sheets are completed by each trainee at the end of a workshop and handed in to trainers. This is followed up by individual postal questionnaires, the first two months after the workshop and another a year later. This feedback is produced as a report to the purchasers.

In one third of the Case studies, purchasing organisations also undertook their own review of training activities. However, even together with those who received feedback from training providers this still means that only half of the purchaser organisations received any formal assessment of the training. The evaluations undertaken by purchasers themselves were more likely to focus on general issues and organisational progress towards a range of objectives rather than on the training activity per se. The two parties clearly have different reasons for undertaking evaluation: the purchasers want to assess the impact of training on solving their organisational problems, while the trainers want to know whether their inputs and performance have been appreciated. For example in Equalities Training Case study 6 the evaluation of the training was incorporated into a general review of the organisation's progress towards equal opportunities objectives and as an assessment of the need for follow-up or additional training. Similarly in Anti-Racism Training (Equalities) Case study 8 the evaluation was seen as integral to the review of the functioning of the new assessment and selection procedures.

It became clear from this research that monitoring the effectiveness of anti-discrimination training is increasingly of concern to client organisations. Although in the past there has been a surprising lack of effort in this direction, the case studies found that some employers do now undertake their own evaluation of training programmes. In Diversity Training Case study 11, internal evaluation questionnaires were seen as a form of consultation and were distributed at every training session, so that each participant completed several questionnaires. Administering questionnaires after each training session does indicate the importance attached to the feedback they contained suggesting that there was a high level of organisational commitment towards the anti-discrimination training initiative. However, despite the laudable intention of the employer in Case study 11 to monitor and assess their training strategy, these evaluations could not be said to provide objective information about the effectiveness of the training as an anti-discrimination strategy. Firstly, there was a lot of pressure on these particular participants to give positive comments about equality training. This is because public concern about the attitudes of police officers has led to this particular police force to identify positive attitudes to equality issues as important to career advancement. Secondly, the responses are usually hand-written, which means that the employer could easily identify most of the respondents. Although the manager concerned regards these responses as confidential to the Equal Opportunities team, participants still may feel that they would be wise to play safe in their responses; so although using evaluation sheets in this way might be seen as good training practice, it cannot be taken seriously as an objective evaluation of the effectiveness of the training, even from the point of view of simply identifying participant satisfaction with training.

Focus groups have also become more common as a mechanism for consulting with staff members (particularly those who belong to minority groups) and we have examples of both trainers and

employers setting these up. Focus groups allow a wider group of staff to be consulted and enable a set of agreed points to emerge, they may also reveal the major points of conflict that exist within work groups which are acting as barriers to progress. Different mechanisms are used for such focus groups: some operate with work groups, others are formed of separate focus groups for white employees and those from minority ethnic groups. The most important aspect of some groups, as in Diversity Training Case study 11, was the ability to report to the organisation's central policy-making body, thus ensuring that matters of concern at the grass roots could be fed up the hierarchy for review and action.

Many employers have introduced monitoring schemes which often focus on their recruitment and selection, as a result of concerns about the workforce profile. In many cases managing monitoring is the responsibility of the personnel or human resources department but its findings do not necessarily inform wider strategic decision making. However, as a result of training, in Diversity Training Case studies 10 and 11 the purchasers set up equality monitoring and consultancy groups which are formally integrated into the policy-making structures of the organisation. Their remit was much broader than simply to monitor recruitment and their constituency went far beyond the personnel/human resources departments. In this way, the bodies concerned hoped to "mainstream" equality matters at all levels and in all aspects of their activity.

Some purchasers rely on tangible outcomes as a way of evaluating the effectiveness of the training strategy. In Diversity Training Case study 11 the client who purchased the training for the police service was impressed by the development of equal opportunities groups within the organisation and in Diversity Training Case study 10 the purchaser:

judges the effectiveness of the training programme by the willingness of people to become 'Contact Officers', the increase in equal opportunities activity across the company and the way managers have dealt with complaints received since the programme began.

Unfortunately, although evaluation is, in principle, acknowledged as a very important process neither the mechanisms adopted nor the individuals concerned are always appropriately prepared. This is a problem encapsulated in Case study 3 where:

Participants are asked to complete a short evaluation sheet at the end of basic training, but the main evaluation of learning is done in the local Bureaux, where managers assess each individual's competence in interviewing. Theoretically this includes their cross-cultural and anti-discriminatory competence, but there is no guarantee that every manager is competent to assess such skills.

Language is a major factor in shaping peoples' responses to equality matters and this research encountered a growing debate in training circles about the British pattern of adopting a series of euphemisms in the national discourse on ethnic relations. Many trainers who had previously provided courses on "anti-racism" have modified their approach and now offer "equal opportunities" training. This label was thought to be preferable and more attractive to client organisations due to its less challenging and more positive suggestion. Some trainers argued that "managing diversity" training is yet another example of this. Many felt that this had become a very marketable type of training activity but were concerned about its appropriateness to the United Kingdom situation. This style and approach to anti-discrimination training has largely been adopted from the United States (Thomas, 1990; MacDonald, 1993). It has been argued that

diversity management is the logical next step after measures such as equal opportunities and positive/affirmative action programmes have broken down barriers to the employment of minority groups. Many trainers felt that this had not yet been achieved in many organisations that decided to purchase managing diversity training. There remained a strong concern that the general approach adopted in this type of training avoided many of the important specific points relevant to particular minority groups, especially those which help to create an understanding of discrimination and disadvantage and advise on the often challenging change required to overcome racial inequalities in the workplace.

The evaluation process also came across examples of participants and managers responding to the interviews and questionnaires in ways which suggested they had "learnt the language of equality" but remained basically hostile to the implementation of equality measures in the workplace, as for example, one participant in Diversity Training Case study 11. The very strongly worded response, which claimed a good knowledge of and commitment to, equality principles, was deeply and almost uniquely critical of the trainers and the course content. This person's level of antipathy to the course content and the trainers' skills was so strongly worded and so severely out of step with everyone else, we questioned whether the writer had, as it were, learnt the language of equal opportunities, yet could not confront the issues, so fell back on scapegoating the trainers. The need to couch her/his hostility to the training process as an attack on the trainers is not uncommon, and is thought to be the result of both organisational and societal pressure to conform to "politically correct" attitudes. A similar response was received from one of the local authority managers (Equalities Training Case studies 4 and 5). The evaluation process, due to the collection of multiple sources of information, was able to reveal where commitment was genuine and those examples where verbal commitment masked a lack of action towards change.

Despite some of the individual examples of good evaluation practice most agencies participating in this research did not have systematic mechanisms for monitoring or reviewing the outcomes of training. This was also true for individual client organisations where evaluation forms were usually read through by the trainers rather than analysed and written up into an overall evaluation. Similarly, the majority of training providers did not compare the responses of different groups or client organisations to particular forms of anti-discrimination training. In a few cases focus groups and management groups were said to provide a measure of verbal feedback about the training programme, but only two organisations systematically monitored the feedback from these. Overall this provides further evidence of the lack of effective and strategic evaluation of anti-discrimination training activities.

3.4. Participant responses

Equalities training

The equalities style training that occurred in Case studies 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 was generally quite well received by training participants. There was widespread support among participants for training as a strategy to help promote racial equality. For example in Case studies 1 and 2 around 60 per cent of participants thought training was a useful strategy for tackling racial discrimination. This may be a result of the usual strategy adopted within such training of avoiding the confrontational approaches which were utilised in early forms of racism awareness training (Katz, 1978).

Whilst responses to training may be very positive it is uncertain, from the example of Case study 3, how long lasting the impact of anti-discrimination might be. In this organisation several

trainees made very positive responses such as '*awareness training should be compulsory for everyone*' and '*it was the most amazing experience for me. I feel there should be more of this kind of training for everyone*'. In this same organisation anti-discrimination training had been a required component of basic worker training for over four years. However, just over 50 per cent of respondents claimed at the outset that they had not received any anti-discrimination training. Clearly, as a part of their initial training they would have received some training but this had been forgotten, raising concerns about the lasting impact of the original training. Similarly in Case study 5 there was a discrepancy between those employees identified by the organisation as having attended training and the individual's own perception of the training they had attended. The training had been conceptualised by a number of respondents as not identifying racial equality as a major issue. Therefore nearly half of the employees identified by the organisation said they had not attended racial equality training, it being conceptualised as a much broader style of training.

Acknowledgement was given by respondents to much of the success that has already been achieved by existing forms of anti-discrimination training and the commitment of many white managers. However, many respondents, especially those from ethnic minority groups, indicated that they felt this progress had largely been piecemeal and the opportunities opened up were concentrated into certain areas of work from which less challenge could be directed at organisational cultures. This results in two particular extreme reactions; the first where participants remain unconvinced about the efficacy of anti-discrimination training, the second where participants feel that additional training is necessary to explore other issues or similar issues in greater detail. The first of these is illustrated in Case study 2 where one trainee commented that:

I sometimes feel that the organisation feels equal opportunities should only be aimed at ethnic minorities within the organisation/city and forget that it should work both ways and all staff should have equal opportunities.

The second is indicated in Case study 6 where a series of workshops was aiming to provide training to all staff. Here there was initially some resentment about having to give up time for the workshops from many employees. However, at the end of workshops there was usually a high proportion of trainees (typically between a third and a half) who expressed an interest in further equal opportunities training.

A particular problem often encountered by anti-discrimination training is that of delivering training to staff from a range of organisational positions at different points of the hierarchy. Staff in the lower echelons of organisations are rarely offered opportunities for vocational training to enhance their career prospects but when they do have access to training activities these are usually aimed at the acquisition of particular technical skills to improve practical efficiency. It is uncommon for such staff to be involved in training which engages with difficult issues that may present a challenge to personal value systems. It would not be surprising therefore, if anti-discrimination training was perceived as an alienating or irrelevant experience for such sectors of the workforce. The participant feed back in Case studies 1 and 2 exemplifies this problem, with the manual staff and other lower echelons of staff expressing the greatest dissatisfaction with the training: '*There is also evidence that while managerial and professional staff think training is a valuable activity, clerical and manual workers do not*'.

Anti-racism training

Responses to forms of anti-racism training in Case studies 7, 8 and 9 appeared to be less favourable than those to the Equalities Training in earlier case studies. This may in part be a

result of the more challenging nature of these forms of training. For example, in Case study 7 there was resentment from about 20 per cent of trainees towards both the trainers and the training process which largely arose from a feeling that implications were made about participants being unprofessional in their work. In Case study 9 almost half of the trainees were unsure about the training's impact and its ability to promote greater racial equality. One response suggested that this uncertainty arose from the training not providing sufficient alternative practices. This respondent thought there was a need for:

more training focusing on dealing with racism, not just being aware of it. When I am faced with recognising racism then I find it difficult to know what to say or do for the best result.

Despite the relatively high levels of resentment caused by these types of training many trainees still felt positive towards the training. In Case study 7, whilst a minority (20 per cent) were strongly resistant to the training, 60 per cent of trainees stated that they had tried to change their approach to work as a direct result of the training. Indeed in this example there was considerable post-course activity which aimed to emphasise the organisation's equal opportunities policy, particularly when dealing with employers using the service. In Case study 8 trainees were very positive about the training's outcomes in terms of equipping them to undertake the new extended assessment procedures being implemented. However, almost a third of the respondents thought that there was far too much content dealing with race issues, given the lack of ethnic minority applicants their recruitment usually attracts. Clearly, here there was a misconception about the relevance of anti-discrimination training in situations where the vast majority of applicants are not from ethnic minority groups. The immediate impact of this training also seemed to make participants overly sensitive to being 'politically correct' in their use of language, indicating if nothing else, that the training had made them think about the power of language.

There were significant proportions of trainees who were non-committal or unsure about the impact of the training on organisational racial equality and their own working practices. In Case study 7, 20 per cent of trainees were non-committal, in Case study 9, 48 per cent were unsure of the training's impact. Within those expressing uncertainty a greater proportion came from the lower echelons of organisation's hierarchies, in particular clerical and administrative staff. These staff, due to their lack of power and contact with external agencies working with the organisation, felt that the training was less relevant to their own work.

Diversity training

The trainees responses to forms of Diversity Training in Case studies 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 reflect some of the different emphasis given to diversity issues within these various training types. The form of Diversity Training where a greater proportion of the training dealt with managing diversity issues appeared to be perceived as having less direct impact on working practices. This may be because this approach is relatively new and its distinctiveness from previous approaches to anti-discrimination and equality was not made clear in the training activities. In Case studies 14, and in the 'less pure' Case study 13, around 60 per cent of trainees were uncertain how the training might affect their working practices, despite it having greatly raised their awareness of diversity management. In Case study 13 one respondent expressed their concern that *'I feel far more needs to be done on equality and race issues before the organisation starts to even talk about managing diversity'*. This indicates the perceived developmental nature of managing diversity, which many trainees thought needed to build on equality rather than replace anti-discrimination activities. One trainee attending the Open Training activity in Case study 14

expressed the view that *'managing diversity sounds like a way of increasing exploitation rather than achieving greater equality'*.

The less 'pure' forms of Diversity Training appeared to lead to greater changes in working practices. In both Case studies 11 and 12 over 60 per cent of trainees said that the training activity had led to them altering their working practices. In Case study 11 the changes to working practices were attributed to the deeper awareness of harassment issues and the increased commitment to tackling harassment in the workplace. In Case study 12 one of the most useful components of the course was thought to be the information about the relevant legislation (48 per cent of trainees). However, the high proportion of those altering working practices is attributable to the awareness raising aspects of the activity summed up by one trainee:

I always thought I was very fair minded and I did not really see the need to do this but it turned out to be a shock to realise that I have got my little prejudices too. I still think it will be difficult to ever get everyone treated equally, but I do really believe everyone should be treated fairly.

Despite the apparent success of this training activity 24 per cent of trainees in Case study 12 thought that training was not a good way to promote equality. Among those expressing this view some felt that more positive action was required in order to achieve significant change. One critic in Case study 11 remarked that the training *'was far too nice - it did not deal with some serious emotive issues but seemed to be designed with a feel good factor'*. Others were not convinced of the need for organisational policies believing that *'the danger is people going overboard the other way'*. However, it is quite possible that such resistance to anti-discrimination training was already deeply rooted and was not a reaction to the particular type of training received.

The training in Case study 10 did not attract heavy criticism, possibly because the trainers were overwhelmingly well regarded for their professionalism. Trainees commented on the skills they had acquired which would be useful in their work practices. The majority of these were based on communication skills and the ability to effectively deal with situations and issues involving complaints of harassment. It is interesting to note that in this case study managers perceived career advantages to attending the training activity. This is because the company has strongly expressed its commitment to anti-discrimination practices which have become incorporated into 'good management practice'.

New type: Anti-racism for black managers

This new type of anti-discrimination training (Case study 15) is an Open Course for black junior managers and seeks to facilitate their personal/professional skills for effectively challenging racism in the workplace. The course has been allocated the type A2.B2.C2, although this does not fully describe its content and approach. Similar work is also undertaken with women, including specific courses for black women. The approach is based on the view that disadvantaged groups cannot afford to wait for the white male majority in organisations to slowly work through successive liberal agendas for equality, often interspersed by periods of reaction and retrenchment. It also recognises that continuous experiences of denigration and discrimination can have a corrosive effect on people's self-esteem which undermines their development and performance at work.

The training appeared to have an extremely positive reception by those black managers attending the activity. The most positive gains were in terms of personal skills (64 per cent of participants),

organisational skills (50 per cent) and having a better overview of the relevant legislation (54 per cent). In addition many of the trainees (45 per cent) felt more able to assess the effectiveness of their own employer's equal opportunity policy.

Many of the trainees indicated the strengths gained from sharing experiences with other black managers as one of the training's major benefits. One trainee commented that one of the most important outcomes of the course was *'to find that I am not alone, not imagining things, that I am Black first'*. Another trainee gave an indication of how the training might have a very positive impact:

It was a cathartic experience for me. Even just bringing out into the open how racist the service is was a relief. I did not fully realise how restraining my usual professional life is or how much I have come to accept my ethnic origin as a limitation in my career.

As with many of the other forms of training many of the trainees (77 per cent) were encouraged by their training experience and were supportive to the idea of attending further anti-discrimination training activities. The remainder were either unsure or definitely opposed to the possibility of further training. This may be because the individualised, personal and long term aims of this particular type of training make it difficult to assess the likely organisational impact and evaluate the training's effectiveness.

3.5. Client responses

Equalities training

The client responses to the equalities style training occurring in Case studies 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 were generally quite positive. A number of client managers were able to point to particular actions which they believed were attributable to the impact of the training. For example, the Departmental Manager in Case study 2 thought the training was essential to raising awareness about the scale of racism across the organisation. It has played a successful role in helping many staff to identify the more subtle manifestations of racism, motivating a lot of people to examine and amend their workplace behaviour.

Similarly a manager of the Citizen's Advice Bureau in Case study 3 was generally satisfied with the basic training module containing the Equalities/Awareness style training. The management also believed that *'worker attitudes and behaviour in the Bureau had progressed'* as a result of the training. Although the responses of the participants had suggested uncertainty as to how long-lasting these changes might be, a tangible impact had been seen on publicity materials, recruitment processes and organisational style. The programme of Equalities Training introduced in the Further Education college for all staff in Case study 6 was considered by managers to be a very important 'statement of intent' and an illustration of the commitment of the college to equality issues. The managers in the college recognised the difficulties of introducing such a large scale training activity but felt that many staff had now been convinced or persuaded to value equal opportunities initiatives.

It is interesting to note that reactions to similar training activities may vary, due to their very personalised nature. The two Departments in Case studies 1 and 2 received very similar training. Whilst the response of Department Y's manager was positive, the other departmental manager was very scathing about the entire training programme. This manager insisted that his criticisms were

specific to the trainers involved rather than about equalities and awareness training in principle. He felt the training was 'counter-productive' and had alienated many of his staff from racial equality goals. He further criticised the training as an expensive waste of time. These criticisms, however, were not substantiated by the responses of the majority of participants.

Some reservations were expressed by clients about the anticipated impact of the training activities concerned. Within Case study 4, an Open Activity within higher education, it was not possible to make a separate analysis of each of the participants own organisations. It was, however, clear from a number of the participants' responses that they felt they would achieve the greatest change within their own departments, because organisational commitment was insufficient to support major changes across the institution. A similar limitation was identified by the Bureau manager in Case study 3 where the training was not expected to generate widespread change at a local level. Generating change was viewed by this manager as the collective responsibility of the national organisations covering all bureaux.

A personnel manager in Case study 5 was uncertain about the impact of the training on recruitment patterns but was aware that, despite the intended broad nature of the training, there were some claims being made that senior managers were more concerned to develop fair practice in relation to ethnic minorities than in relation to women. This manager also complained about the inadequate time and resources to do the training effectively:

It is difficult to develop complex knowledge and skills for anti-discrimination in a short one-day course and equally difficult to secure the resources to fund longer and/or more frequent programmes of equal opportunities training.

Anti-racism training

Client responses to the forms of Anti-Racism Training in Case studies 7, 8 and 9 suggested that these training activities had a more limited impact on anti-discrimination practices. The training activities themselves were well received in each of the examples. As with some of the examples of Equalities Training, the compulsory training in Case study 7 was considered to be of value as a statement of intent. The agency manager said that the post-course initiatives undertaken by participants were generally approved of, although he was keen not to alienate local employers by allowing strong anti-racist statements to be uttered. This agency was located within a local authority, and there was some cynicism expressed by the client that elected policy makers are not required to attend anti-discrimination training. These external factors do not provide a sympathetic context for the types of action often suggested by anti-racism training.

The limitations of context were also recognised by the line manager in Case study 9, who thought that the probation service should be making a much bigger effort to influence other parts of the criminal justice system, such as magistrates. Anti-Racism Training may therefore make participants aware of the wider factors contributing to racial discrimination which in turn leads them to feel that the training was not sufficient in itself to make a dramatic change. Whilst being critical of the wider context in which they operated, this manager recognised the local impact of the training and believed it to be essential for the continued health of the probation service. The manager also acknowledged that future training needed to focus on '*ways of implementing racial equality in organisational and individual practice*'.

The training in Case study 8 was considered highly important to the effective introduction of the new recruitment assessment process. The personnel manager did, however, recognise that the

equality implications of the new process may not yet be fully understood. Adaptations to the process may therefore be required after carefully monitoring the first few assessment processes. This manager maintained some reservations about the effectiveness of the training because *'some staff are yet to be convinced about the additional time the assessments will take compared to the old interview procedures'*. This suggests that the importance of anti-racist/equalities selection procedures may not have been fully understood by some participants.

Diversity training

The client responses to the forms of Diversity Training in Case studies 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 were far more consistent than those of the participants. Clients appeared to find these forms of training extremely satisfactory in terms of some of the developments they had led to. The Diversity Training dealing with forms of harassment resulted in the most noticeable changes to work place practices. For example, in Case study 11 the training had resulted in the establishment of 'Fairness and Equality Groups' to look at workplace issues. In this example the equalities monitoring system also showed that complaints about racism were decreasing. In Case study 10, some staff had started to develop materials in video form to support the anti-harassment training that took place. In this organisation there was also a growing number of individuals wishing to become Contact Officers, who act as the first point of contact in harassment complaints. The particular style and content of the 'Dealing with Harassment' training in this case study resulted in the client manager viewing it as one of the hardest training activities he had been involved in. This manager also thought that *'there are still a significant number of managers who have learnt the language but remain unconvinced about the need to tackle the problem'* [of harassment].

Managers in the organisations receiving Equalities/Diversity Training in Case studies 12 and 13 were less able to indicate obvious improvements in the workplace resulting from the training. In Case study 12, the Police Force had some informal evidence from their employment monitoring system showing that progress was being made on recruitment and career development for women and ethnic minorities. The Force was also continuing to develop a partnership with the training agency which provided the original training. In particular they are wishing to develop more effective measures to deal with complaints of racial and sexual harassment, *'which is a big issue on which the trades unions are pressing for more action'*.

In Case study 13 a client manager reported that the feedback about the training had been very positive, including a demand for follow-up training activities. This manager felt, unlike some of the trainee participants, that *'we already have a good basis of equal opportunities practices, and progression to diversity should not be too difficult'*. This manager did, however, think that the emphasis of actions would remain focused on issues of race, gender and disability and the complexity of diversity issues would not be tackled immediately. Similar feelings were expressed by those attending the Open Activity in Case study 14, for trade unions. Here it was not possible to obtain details from each of the participants' organisations, but the views of many were summed up by one respondent who said that *'far more work has to be done on equality issues within our workplace'*.

New type: Anti-racism for black managers

As the new type of training in Case study 15 was an Open Course, there was little evidence to indicate its impact on change within the participants' organisations. Although 65 per cent of the participants said that their own organisations were paying their fees for attending the training, they were not certain about the level of organisational commitment to achieving equality and anti-racism. The participants did feel that they had gained sufficient skills as a direct result of the

training to help them to tackle racism within their own working environment and, if their organisation allowed, more widely across the workplace.

Methodological note

The methodology adopted for these case-studies proved more time-consuming than anticipated. Persuading trainers and/or their clients to co-operate with the project was often a slow process. It was often necessary to have a series of discussions and meetings in order to explain the nature and purpose of the research before agreement was given for a case study to be carried out. This problem was exacerbated when, even where we had already collected a considerable amount of excellent data from trainers, several studies had to be abandoned when clients declined to co-operate. In addition it often proved difficult to arrange interviews with training participants. This was most frequently due to the heavy workload of many of the trainees concerned, particularly when they were from the management level. On some occasions delays were added because it was difficult to obtain contact details for those that had attended training, usually as a result of insufficient records being held of who actually attended the training activity.

In two cases, information was allegedly unavailable because key managers had moved on; in another case the researcher met with obstructive behaviour from an organisational gatekeeper and finally had to abandon that study. These experiences give weight to the theory that anti-discrimination measures are often driven by or obstructed by particular individuals in positions of influence, including, in our experience, people who are not in the most senior positions. In other cases, organisations had undergone recent structural change (including re-location, amalgamation and/or the loss of jobs) making it impossible to follow up sufficient course participants. In another case, the research team disseminated questionnaires to the participants of an Open Course, but despite providing stamped addressed envelopes to return them in, not a single completed questionnaire was returned.

However, in the majority of the organisations contacted for the evaluation process there was a great deal of co-operation, especially from key committed individuals. Trainers revealed that course evaluation questionnaires were more likely to be returned if they were distributed by organisational managers and we also had a higher return rate of questionnaires returned when purchaser managers distributed them. We made provision for complete confidentiality for respondents by providing sealed envelopes for completed questionnaires. It is possible that the lack of formal evaluation of the training programmes by so many of the Case study organisations means that many participants are never adequately de-briefed about their experiences, so that our questionnaires became a way for them to express the often strong feelings and reactions aroused by anti-discrimination training.

However, despite the operational problems, the methodology adopted to produce this study has been extremely worthwhile, enabling the research to go into considerable detail and depth about the role of anti-discrimination training as a strategy for producing change at an individual or organisational level. It also engendered far more information than can possibly be presented in this report. It is clear that the objective evaluation of individual training programmes and their outcomes can play a crucial role in the effective promotion of greater equality of opportunity in the workplace and that including a formal evaluation process should become an essential criterion of good anti-discrimination training practice.

3.6. Chapter summary: Evaluation of the training activity

The case studies

- Fifteen training activities were included as case studies, 13 Personnel/Management, 1 Trade Union and 1 Job Centre, the majority being Equalities Training.
- Four were from the private sector, six public sector, and three were in areas of post compulsory education (including one that was an open training activity). There were two other open training activities, one for managers in the public and voluntary sectors and the other for trade union officials.

Background to the training

- Internal pressures for training were the recognition of slow progress towards change, and conflict or resistance to organisational equality policies.
- External sources of pressure to introduce training were complaints about the organisation, the influence of national equal opportunities organisations and competition with similar organisations.
- Proactive reasons for training were promotion of new values, communication of organisational objectives, persuading co-operation with new policies and the acquisition of new skills.
- Training was often seen as a non-threatening method of introducing new practices and obtaining support for equality objectives.
- The 'business case' for equal opportunities was frequently mentioned, allowing the organisation to benefit from greater equality/diversity and the positive external image that comes from good internal practices.

Evaluation of the training

- In general there was a lack of systematic evaluation undertaken within the training programmes studied. The most typical form of evaluation was a post-course questionnaire to assist training providers review and develop their training approach.
- Despite some individual examples of good practice most training agencies did not have systematic mechanisms for monitoring or reviewing training outcomes.
- One third of purchasers undertook their own review of the training. The case studies revealed that the need for evaluation is a growing concern among employers.
- The use of focus groups and the monitoring of recruitment were increasingly common methods of organisational evaluation of training outcomes.
- It is apparent that few of those within client organisations who are involved in their organisation's evaluations of training are appropriately prepared.

Participant and client responses to the training

Equalities Training

- The Equalities Training occurring in Case studies 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 was generally well received by training participants.
- There was widespread support for training as a strategy to help promote racial equality.
- Despite positive responses to training it is uncertain how long-lasting the impact of training might be. A high proportion of trainees forgot they had received forms of basic training.
- Respondents reported that as a result of the training, positive changes in their own behaviour and working practices had been achieved.
- Despite the successes of anti-discrimination training, some respondents felt that progress at the level of the organisation had largely been piecemeal.
- A particular problem encountered is that of delivering training to staff from different organisational levels, where staff from the lower echelons find training more challenging than other groups.

- Client responses to Equalities Training were generally positive, and several managers were able to point to activities resulting from the training.

Anti-Racism Training

- Participant responses to forms of Anti-Racism Training seemed to be less consistently favourable than those to Equalities Training, possibly due to the more personally challenging nature of the former.
- Some trainees resented these forms of training because they felt it implied they were unprofessional in their work.
- Despite some relatively high levels of resentment many trainees still felt positive towards these styles of training.
- In some of the case studies over 60 per cent of participants claimed to have altered their working practices as a result of the training.
- Anti-Racism Training was generally well received by clients, but their responses suggest that the training had less of an impact on anti-discrimination practice than Equalities Training.
- There was evidence of a concern that the more open 'anti-racist' element in this type of training might alienate some employers.
- There was also a feeling that the broader approach of Anti-Racism Training could make participants aware of the wider factors contributing to racial discrimination, whilst the training itself was not able to tackle this.

Diversity Training

- Participant responses to Diversity Training were far more mixed than for the above two types.
- The 'purer' form of Diversity Training were perceived by trainees as having less direct impact on working practices. Correspondingly, those forms of Diversity Training which incorporated elements of Equalities and Anti-Racism Training appeared to lead to greater changes in working practices.
- Diversity management was often seen by trainees as something that should follow on from, rather than replace, the effective development of anti-discrimination and equal opportunities practices.
- Client responses to Diversity Training were far more consistently positive than those of the participants.
- Diversity Training dealing with harassment resulted in the most noticeable changes to workplace practices.

New Type: Anti-Racism for Black Managers

- This training had an extremely positive reception from those black managers attending the activity.
- One of the training's major benefits indicated by the trainees were the strengths gained from sharing experiences with other black managers.
- As with many of the other forms of training many of the trainees (77 per cent) were encouraged by the training experience and supportive of the idea of attending further training.

4. Conclusions

The Conclusion falls into two parts. The first part summarises the main findings of the project with regard to each main type of anti-discrimination training. The second part sets out broader observations on the operationalisation of anti-discrimination training which hold as general principles, regardless of the particular training type employed.

4.1. Summary of the findings on Anti-Discrimination Training approaches

The first stage of the project documented 57 training providers, the majority being independent training consultants. Most of the training provision was directed at people in the 'Personnel/Management' category. Usually trainers work with a core package of training, which is then modified slightly for different clients. Most frequently, courses were restricted to staff from one single organisation at a time, and most trainers never repeated visits to the same client.

It was clear that over the years, there had been a number of developments with regard to the content and strategy of anti-discrimination training. In terms of method, courses have progressed beyond simple 'information provision', although factual information was normally still provided on the legal context, and on problems of racism and discrimination. The majority of trainers used a mixture of methods, including case studies, role play, group exercises, information packs and training videos. Around 40 per cent of the training provided to the Personnel/Management target group formed part of a broader training package which included issues of gender and/or disability. During the period of this research, disability discrimination acquired a particularly high profile, due to the Disability Discrimination Act 1995.

Most of the training activity could be classified according to the anti-discrimination training typology as "Equalities Training". The defining characteristic of Equalities Training is that its primary aim is to change behaviour. Rather than trying to produce attitude change within the trainees, it emphasises the instruction of trainees in the legally or professionally appropriate behaviour, and aims to impart the skills necessary for this. By far the most common activities covered here were procedures for fair recruitment and selection.

A relatively new development was the increasing use of training related to "Diversity Management". This approach emphasises the benefits of a diverse workforce, linking, for example, productivity gains to identifying, valuing, and drawing upon cultural differences within a workforce. However, there was also some indication that some training providers might simply attach the label "diversity" to their existing approaches so as to be able to take advantage of current trends. For this reason we were careful to classify training types according to the content and strategy of the training itself, and not necessarily according to the title of the course or training package. There was little apparent interest in Diversity Training by those providing training for trade unions.

Most of the fifteen case studies operated in the "Personnel Management" target group. There were a number of reasons why anti-discrimination training was introduced in these organisations in the first place. Sometimes it was in response to external pressure, such as from national equal opportunities organisations, or in response to external complaints. At other times there was an internal dynamic, such as the desire to overcome resistance to existing equal opportunity policies. Not all reasons were negative or reactive - some organisations saw the training as a way of enhancing cooperation with newly introduced policies and organisational objectives, and encouraging the acquisition of new skills, particularly in the case of the most common type of training, "Equalities Training". The 'business case' for equal opportunities practice was frequently

mentioned, with a recognition of the positive advantages of greater diversity, and the benefits of a positive external image that comes from good equality practices.

There was very little evidence from this project of the continued use of formerly common types of training, such as simple Information Training, or Cultural Awareness Training or Racism Awareness Training, which are aimed primarily at producing attitude change in the trainees. The most common type of training - Equalities Training - came out best in this study. In the six case studies which operated Equalities Training for the Personnel/Management target group, the participants were generally very positive about their experiences. Many were able to relate how change in behaviour and in working practices were positively achieved. Responses to Anti-Racism Training were less consistently favourable than for Equalities Training. Although Anti-Racism Training does try to produce changes in behavioural practice, it also addresses individual attitudes, and it emphasises combatting racism as a primary goal. Some trainees resented this aspect of the training because they felt that there was an implicit criticism of their own professionalism, and this was true in the one case study from the Job Centre target group. Nevertheless, despite these elements of resentment, which were not encountered in the Equalities Training case studies, many trainees did feel positive about their experiences, and in some case studies over 60 per cent of the participants claimed that the training had produced identifiable change in their working practices. This was also true for the case from the Job Centre target group, where the training resulted in considerable internal activity, including changes when dealing with employers using the service.

Of course, 'feeling bad', forms of resistance and conflict revealed during the training process are not necessarily signs of failure, or lack of effectiveness in training, and 'feeling good' about training experiences does not guarantee that people actually engage with meaningful individual or organisational change. Managers, participants and even trainers can and do collude in training programmes as a cosmetic exercise and thus alternative sources of evidence become important in evaluating how real or illusory an organisation's anti-discrimination activity is.

The responses to Diversity Training were quite mixed. The relatively pure and narrow form of 'valuing diversity' approach aroused little positive reaction. Often trainees felt that Diversity Management was something which needed to follow on from, rather than replace, effective anti-discrimination and equal opportunities policies. Indeed, in its original formulation, Diversity Management works on the assumption that barriers to the employment of minorities have already largely been broken down, resulting in a diverse workforce. Trainees felt that as this stage had not been reached, Diversity Training was a little premature. However, in those cases where Diversity Training included elements of Anti-Racism Training and Equalities Training, then trainees were far more positive about its impact. In the one case study where trade unionists were exposed to Diversity Training, the best we can say is that the training raised their awareness of diversity management as an issue in the workplace, in one case even producing the cynical response that it was just a new way of masking exploitation. Trade unionist trainees seemed to be more ideologically suited to Equalities Training, and this type was shown in the documentation stage of the research to be by far the most common type of training directed at the Trade Union target group.

Feedback at the evaluation stage, from all parties to the training process, suggests that many people expect real change to be effected only when there are significant numbers of people from minorities in positions of power in organisations. This issue is relevant to an approach to anti-discrimination training which was not covered in the original typology. This was an Open Course -

"Anti-Racism for Black Managers" - which seeks to facilitate black managers' personal and professional skills for effectively challenging racism in the workplace. It works from the assumption that progress will be encouraged by black people working effectively in management positions, and that those who have succeeded in entering the corridors of power from the ranks of the disadvantaged are also likely to have a particularly strong commitment to extending that access. Therefore, it is to these individuals that some anti-discrimination trainers are now turning their attention, as a way of extending anti-discrimination practice in organisations. This new type of anti-discrimination training produced a very positive response from those black managers who participated. This case was included as a case study because it is a relatively new and innovative approach to anti-discrimination training, although, unlike the others in this project, it is not primarily addressed to organisational gatekeepers.

The 'weak spot' revealed by the case studies is that of training evaluation. There was an absence of systematic evaluation of the outcomes of the training process, and, despite the few individual examples of good practice here, it is clear that most training agencies do not have systematic mechanisms for monitoring or reviewing training outcomes. Most typically, evaluation took the form of a post-course questionnaire handed out to trainees. In the case of the organisations which purchased the training, about one third undertook their own review. Focus groups were increasingly common, as was the monitoring of recruitment to provide an objective indicator of change. Generally, however, few of those involved in the organisation's evaluations of training were adequately prepared.

4.2. The context for Anti-Discrimination Training

The effectiveness of anti-discrimination training needs to be seen in the context of the *Anti-Discrimination Training Process* which may occur within organisations. The *Anti-Discrimination Training Process* is a new concept, developed directly from this research, for the analysis of anti-discrimination training in the United Kingdom. The effectiveness of anti-discrimination training is reliant upon the appropriateness of the type of training utilised relative to the organisation's commitment to and position on equality and anti-discrimination. Appropriate high quality training is more likely to have a positive effect on the organisation. The wide range of different training activities currently provided in the United Kingdom means that care must be taken by purchasers about the type of training selected. The cases show that methods for selecting anti-discrimination training activities may not acknowledge the wide range available, thus reducing the likelihood of adopting training appropriate to the organisation's circumstances.

The Anti-Discrimination Training Process as identified by this research contains five different phases which are outlined below. (These five phases may, in reality, overlap and be difficult to distinguish.) The whole process should ideally become circular, with anti-discrimination training being recognised as an often-required strategy. In circumstances where some phases of the Anti-Discrimination Training Process do not occur, its circularity is broken, increasing the possibility that progress towards equality objectives will be problematic.

Diagnosis phase

The case studies revealed that a number of training providers use an Equality Audit in order to assess the position of the organisation and its employees in relation to equal opportunities and anti-discrimination issues. However, the Diagnosis Phase may not be as formalised as this in many organisations. The main outcome of this phase is that within the organisation there is a realisation that some action needs to be taken. The outcomes may be expressed in terms of

certain objectives, such as setting a target for employment levels for discriminated groups. The case studies showed that organisations often move through three stages of development where anti-discrimination training may be used to communicate the organisation's policies, to centralise and standardise the implementation of anti-discrimination policies and to establish permanent monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

The diagnosis phase may be triggered by a number of factors, both reactive and proactive, as already discussed. The trigger may be internal or external to the organisation - for example, it may be the result of a tribunal case, new legislation, (such as the recent Disability Discrimination Act 1995 in the United Kingdom), the introduction of new managers, recruitment difficulties or an altered competitive position.

Contracting phase

This stage involves the negotiation with training providers on the type of training which is to be delivered. A key part of the Contracting Phase will be to explore the reasons for the decision to utilise anti-discrimination training. This should include discussion about the triggers for considering training, the results of any organisational diagnosis, and the aims and expectations of the training. During this phase some training providers may attempt to negotiate the need for an independent Equality Audit.

Equality Audits are now used quite widely by trainers in the contractual process, to assess the nature and sites of the organisation's pre-training equality problems and needs. They may also be used to assess the potential participants of the training in order to tailor the course appropriately, and to clarify the training aims. The large commercial company in Case study 10 has adopted this technique, to monitor and measure the development of its anti-harassment measures.

The outcome of this phase will be the establishment of the style and type of training that is to be undertaken. This could include the content of the course, the delivery mechanisms, and the purpose and the aims of the training activity. In addition, post-course activities may be negotiated; for example, methods of evaluation, follow-up workshops and feedback to organisational managers.

The contracting phase is crucial to the selection of appropriate anti-discrimination training. It is vital to the effectiveness of any training activity that there exists a clear understanding of the organisation's position on equality. This ensures that the training takes account of the existing context for equality and that it can deliver the appropriate objectives. A key aim of this phase is that there should be consensus reached between the training purchaser and the training provider over their expectations of the training, and what it realistically will be able to achieve. Within the case studies some client organisations recognised the need to purchase different types of anti-discrimination training from different training providers, according to their abilities to meet specific objectives. Furthermore, some training providers held clear principles about the types of training they were prepared to provide and the organisational context they felt necessary to exist. In certain circumstances training providers were therefore prepared to cease negotiations with potential purchasers because they felt unable to work with them.

Training phase

This phase of the Anti-Discrimination Training Process consists of the actual delivery of the training activity which may range from one half-day session to several sessions drawn out over a much longer period. The Training Phase may also involve pre-course work which participants

are expected to have completed before entering the 'training classroom'. With some anti-discrimination training there may also be activities which form part of participants' action plans following the actual delivery of the training activity, and these should be considered as a part of the training phase.

The effectiveness of the training activity is reliant upon a range of factors including the content, style and approach as well as the classroom practices and professionalism of the trainer(s). The training activity selected should be capable of suiting the organisational and individual needs identified in the diagnosis phase. For example, if the diagnosis phase found that individuals lacked knowledge of the organisation's equality policies and the necessary 'good practice' recruitment skills to ensure the policies' effective implementation, then the training should be able to deliver the appropriate knowledge and skills.

At the same time the classroom practices of the trainer(s) must be able to deal with a whole range of different 'classroom' scenarios. For example, techniques may have to be used to deal with disruption, challenges and conflict among the participants. If these difficulties are not appropriately dealt with at the time they are likely to present barriers to the learning gained from the training at a later stage. Some trainers reported that early on in the Training Phase they liked to establish a set of agreed ground rules which remained effective throughout the this phase to help minimize the negative effects of some of the conflict encountered.

As in the contracting phase, it is important that the training provider(s) and participants share a clear understanding on what to expect from the training. If there is a lack of consensus between providers and participants levels of disruption and conflict are likely to rise. The client organisation must make it clear to participants why training has been adopted as a strategy, and which objectives are desired. Another key factor is therefore the degree of consensus reached between the client organisation, training providers and participants about the purpose and expectations of the training. Without this tripartite consensus it will be impossible for different expectations to be met, resulting in disappointment at best and rejection or disruption at worst.

Embedding/Integration phase

Following the Training Phase there needs to be a process by which the knowledge and skills acquired during the training activity are embedded into organisational practice and integrated into individual workplace behaviours. The Embedding/Integration Phase needs to have been considered within the earlier phases of the training process to ensure that immediately following the delivery of training, individuals are encouraged to implement new skills and commitments. Two main factors will enable the embedding and integration phase to be effective.

Firstly, the training activity needs to have occurred within an atmosphere of support and commitment at an organisational level. A range of supportive policies and practices should include equal opportunities policies, anti-harassment policies and grievance procedures. In addition managers should share the ownership for these commitments and have a responsibility for the achievement of equality objectives.

Secondly, at an individual level, training participants need to be aware of the importance of anti-discrimination procedures within the organisation and understand the responsibility they have within their own work practices for the achievement of equality objectives. In order that individuals are able to integrate new practices and knowledge into their work practices the training must have delivered appropriate and relevant skills which are supported by the

organisation. This indicates the importance of the contracting phase in ensuring that training providers understand the work environment of participants.

In the absence of these two factors, the Embedding/Integration Phase will probably see a reduction in the effects of the training. Without continuing organisational support, individuals will begin to see the training phase as a largely cosmetic exercise which is unlikely to result in any real changes to organisational practices and outcomes. Similarly if the content of the training was inappropriate to individuals' working environments the aims and objectives of the training will be rejected as largely irrelevant and unnecessary.

Review phase

The intended outcomes from the review phase are essentially the same as those from the diagnosis phase. The review phase, whilst assessing progress towards established aims and objectives, should also review practices and procedures, as in the diagnosis phase. This might take the form of an Equality Audit which may result in adapting or amending previously established aims and generating new targets. In order for this to be achieved it is essential to have 'baseline' data from the diagnosis phase against which progress can be measured. This therefore brings the training process full circle by revealing any new and current training needs of the organisation.

The five phases of the Anti-Discrimination Training Process provide a valuable tool for analysing the effectiveness of anti-discrimination training activities, enabling anti-discrimination training to be evaluated within the relevant context in which it was delivered. Only if each of the five phases (diagnosis, contracting, training, embedding/integration and review) works effectively can the adoption of training as a strategy for change be said to have been effective. The relative balance between the five phases may vary tremendously. In particular the Diagnosis and Review phases may be relatively minor, whilst still being effective. Similarly, as has been shown from this research, the duration of the Training Phase may vary tremendously.

It may, of course, be the case that within a particular organisation and training situation certain phases of the Anti-Discrimination Training Process are more effective than others. In such circumstance the process as a whole is not operating effectively, and training is likely to be less effective as a strategy for change. Therefore, within some organisations it may be possible to identify areas of 'good practice' in particular phases of the Training Process despite its overall lack effectiveness.

As revealed in several of the case studies, the training activity, or Training Phase, itself is frequently blamed for being ineffective. In some circumstances previous 'bad experiences' of anti-discrimination training may result in a resistance to future similar activities. Using the Anti-Discrimination Process to assist the evaluation of training might reveal that the Training Phase was actually effective, and that the fault may lie within another phase of the process, such as Contracting or Embedding/Integration. Analysis of this nature would assist organisations to identify what needed to be improved in order for future anti-discrimination training activities to have a greater possibility of success.

4.3. Broader Observations on Anti-Discrimination Training

It is clear that equal opportunities legislation enabling individuals to seek legal redress for discrimination, harassment and bullying at work, and the ensuing publicity such cases attract, has been a powerful incentive for change. In organisations that are responding to pressures of this

kind, training is adopted in a much more specific context, to address the clearly defined needs of particular occupational sectors such as employment gatekeepers and human resource managers. Where the aims of such training are supported by the purchaser's willingness to explore new organisational values and standards of behaviour, the training is more likely to be deemed to be effective by all parties and this is enhanced by the fact that there usually is concrete evidence of equality initiatives being established after this type of training input.

Nevertheless, despite the (at least short term) changes in the work behaviour of trainees produced by the training experience, much frustration was expressed during this research about the slowness of the change process more broadly in the organisation, and the evaluation process suggests that this is often directly connected to the purchaser's level of commitment to implementing equality policies and codes of practice. Anti-discrimination training can draw attention to the mechanisms which sustain racial disadvantage and motivate some participants to try to tackle issues in their own work setting, but without other internal initiatives to regulate organisational patterns and social relations, its influence is likely to be uneven and short-lived. Other evidence also suggests that it is essential for training to be supported by organisational policies for change in order to be effective (CRE, 1987 and 1991). Brown and Lawton (1991: 31) also found many trainers stating that 'race relations training only makes sense as part of an overall equal opportunities or anti-discrimination programme'. Even the most successful types of anti-discrimination training will achieve relatively little in isolation from other initiatives.

It is encouraging to see that a number of organisations which adopted training strategies to support the change process are now entering a much more action-oriented phase and have a clearly defined corporate position in relation to equality and anti-discrimination issues, which has started to become embedded within the corporate culture. The evaluation stage of our research reveals that in organisations which have not yet reached a point of embedding such policies, much of the driving force for the development of anti-discrimination initiatives rests with committed key individuals, who may not always be at the most senior levels. In a number of cases it was these individuals who were the managers contracting training for their organisation. Whilst training activities help to share the responsibility for anti-discrimination strategies, if key committed individuals leave the organisation it is possible that the motivation behind such strategies will depart with them.

In-service trainers and internal Equal Opportunities Officers encounter different pressures to those of external equality consultants and trainers, facing pressure to ensure, often single-handedly, progress towards their employer's equality objectives. Some of these officers are also expected to deliver most of the equality training themselves. The role of the in-service equal opportunities and/or training specialist has not been specifically analysed in this research, but such people were often our purchaser contacts and we have been struck by the significant entrepreneurial role many of them play in deploying anti-discrimination training as a significant change strategy. They are often seen as the main managers of the organisation's overall training policy and have considerable influence over contracting out specialist work. In Case studies 4 and 10 for example, senior training and equal opportunities managers seemed to be in very strong positions to persuade other managers to co-operate with training programmes and equal opportunities initiatives.

It appears from this study that British anti-discrimination training has changed rapidly in the past decade. The single-programme approach, often used as the 'quick fix' is now disappearing, but some trainers fear that the growth in demand for very short half-day training programmes signifies renewed pressure for inputs which are so limited that they cannot hope to have any serious impact

on discrimination and inequality. However, many organisations are purchasing "training packages" made up of many half day sessions aimed at different groups of staff, making up a substantial input overall.

There is growing case for adopting a 'business advantage' argument to promote anti-discrimination initiatives. In particular, the national 'Race for Opportunity' campaign stresses the importance of racial equality within employment and marketing for the maintenance of a competitive business position. This campaign reached its first anniversary in 1996 and has obtained support from a number of very high profile leading companies in the United Kingdom, including some with a long history of developing a range of equality initiatives.

The increase in the number of trainers offering a Managing Diversity approach is reflected in the *Directory of Equality Opportunities Consultants*, which was re-named *The Diversity Directory* in 1995. Over three years the total number of organisations providing training covered in this listing has more than doubled, and those mentioning 'diversity' as an area of training has risen from only 20 per cent to almost 70 per cent over the same period. As has already been mentioned, the current marketability of Diversity Training has persuaded many trainers to develop this type of course in spite of their reservations about its efficacy for all situations. For many trainers, emphasising the need for consultation and even Equality Auditing prior to agreeing a training contract is a helpful way of negotiating to deliver the type of training which they believe will be most effective, rather than one which is favoured simply because it is currently fashionable. Some trainers claimed, at both the documentary and evaluation stages, that they had turned down a contract, despite its commercial value, because they were not willing to compromise their ethical position by giving a training package which was fashionable rather than appropriate.

The documentation process and the evaluation process both suggest that there is a strengthening professionalism among anti-discrimination training providers. This is evidenced by the increased levels of co-operation between trainers and openness to external evaluation compared to ten years ago (cf. Powell, 1988). Both trainers and purchasing managers were able to offer critical insights into the role and boundaries of training as a strategy for change. Many trainers mentioned that they expect conflict to arise and have developed strategies to manage this and make it productive; conflict may be an important indication that existing attitudes have been effectively challenged. Hence it becomes especially important for the training to be followed up and change allowed to develop.

Finally, although there are several equality forums, networks and publications in the United Kingdom which provide opportunities for some interaction between activists, there is no national agency capable of representing training practitioners or regulating anti-discrimination and equality training standards. Throughout this research, training providers noted that they had limited opportunities to develop continuing good practice through interaction with other providers. A number also expressed concern about the varying quality of training that was currently available, some of which was thought to be harmful to the contracting organisation and to the anti-discrimination market as a whole. A National Association for Equality Training and Research is now being developed as a direct result of this research project.

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Appendix 2: Profile Sheets

Profile sheet 1

The trainers

Training organisation

		<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
(1) a publicly funded service		2	4
educational institution	100		%
government body			%
"equalities" organisation			%
other			%
TOTAL public funded	100		%
 (2) an independent training consultant		54	95
commercial	91		%
non-profit making	9		%
TOTAL independent	100		%
 (3) an anti-racist voluntary organisation			
 (4) a professional or employers' association		1	2
 (5) a labour movement organisation			
individual trade union			%
union federation			%
union confederation			%
other			%
TOTAL labour movement	100		%
 (6) the internal training section or department of an organisation, providing in-house training			
 (7) other			
TOTAL (1)+(2)+(3)+(4)+(5)+(6)+(7)		57	100

Profile sheet 2

Target group of the training

Personnel/Management:

No. %
Act.

(a) Personnel, line managers, private sector

36	53
----	----

Size of employer:

Up to 99 employees		%
100-499 employees	2	%
500-999 employees	2	%
1000-4999 employees	7	%
5000+ employees		%
Not Known	89	%
TOTAL private sector	100	%

Type of private sector employer:

Agriculture		%
Construction		%
Energy	2	%
Engineering		%
Finance	7	%
Hotel/Catering	5	%
Manufacturing		%
Minerals	2	%
Transport/Communication	10	%
Wholesale/Retail	7	%
Any private sector	3	%
Other		%
Not Known	64	%
TOTAL private sector	100	%

(Profile sheet 2 page ii)

No.	%
38	56

(b) Personnel, line managers, public sector

Type of public sector organisation:

Education	20	%
Housing	12	%
Social Welfare	15	%
Health	17	%
Engineering/Construction		%
Environmental Services		%
Leisure		%
Transport		%
Administration	9	%
Charities	10	%
Any public sector	6	%
Other	5	%
Not Known	6	%
TOTAL public sector	100	%

Trade Union:

(c) Trade union officials and/or shop stewards

12	18
----	----

State type of union

General	50	%
Craft		%
White Collar	50	%
Industry Specific		%
Other		%
TOTAL	100	%

State whether the union is:

an individual union	92	%
a federation		%
a confederation	8	%
other		%
TOTAL	100	%

(Profile sheet 2 page iii)

No. **%**
 Act.

Job Centre:

(d) Public servants in labour exchanges	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
(e) Staff in private sector employment agencies	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
(f) Staff in vocational advisory services for school leavers	1	1
TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)+(e)+(f)	87	100

Status of trainees

(a) Senior Managers/Officials	39	45
(b) Middle Managers/Officials	27	31
(c) Ordinary Workers/Junior Staff	3	3
(d) Mixed groups	17	20
(e) Not Known	1	1
TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)+(e)	87	100

Profile sheet 3: The training courses

Target group of the training	
A Personnel/Management	XX
B Trade Unions	
C Job Centre staff	

PART 1

No. %

- (1) Number of client organisations the training courses have been delivered to

1		
2		
3		
4		
5	2	4
6-10	3	5
11+	40	71
Not Known	11	20
TOTAL	56	100

- (2) Number of times the courses have been delivered

1	6	11
2		
3		
4		
5	3	5
6-10	5	9
11+	31	55
Not Known	11	20
TOTAL	56	100

- (3) Number of years the courses have been provided

1	10	18
2	2	4
3	3	5
4	12	21
5	10	18
6-10	14	25
11+	5	9
Not Known		
TOTAL	56	100

		<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
(4)	The training courses are:		
	(a) restricted to single organisation	49	88
	(b) open to others	7	12
	TOTAL (a)+(b)	56	100
(5)	Participation for the trainees		
	(a) voluntary	34	61
	(b) compulsory	21	37
	(c) Not Known	1	2
	TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)	56	100
(6)	Number of trainers normally involved in teaching		
	1	43	77
	2	10	18
	3	2	4
	4		
	5		
	6+		
	Not Applicable	1	2
	TOTAL	56	100
(7)	Use of trainers from ethnic minority/migrant backgrounds		
	(a) always	28	50
	(b) sometimes	24	43
	(c) never	3	5
	(d) Not Applicable	1	2
	TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)	56	100
(8)	Average number of trainees participating in each course		
	1-5		
	6-10		
	11-15	36	64
	16-20	12	21
	21-29	5	9
	30+	2	4
	Not Known	1	2
	TOTAL	56	100

(Profile sheet 3 page iii)

	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
(9) The training programmes are:		
(a) self-contained anti-discrimination/ equal opportunities courses on migrants/ ethnic minorities	24	43
(b) part of a broader equal opportunities training programme including gender issues, disabilities etc.	22	39
(c) part of a broader "Diversity Management" programme	8	14
(d) part of a programme of broader general training within the organisation	2	4
TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)	56	100

(10) Length of the courses (in days)

1/2	10	18
1	43	78
2	2	4
3	1	2
4		
5		
6-10		
11+		
Not Known		
TOTAL	56	100

(11) Number of times the courses are repeated in one year
for each client organisation

0	41	73
1	9	16
2	2	4
3	2	4
4	1	2
5		
6-10		
11+		
Not Known	1	2
TOTAL	56	100

	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
(12) If the courses are repeated regularly they are:		
(a) part of primary competence training for different individuals	11	20
(b) updating "refresher" courses for people who have attended before	4	7
(c) Not Applicable/Not Known	41	73
TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)	56	100
(13) Location of training courses		
(a) In the workplace	38	68
(b) In a separate training centre	12	21
(c) In a local educational institution	1	2
(d) Hotel/conference facility	2	4
(e) By distance learning		
(f) Other	2	4
(g) Not Known	1	2
TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)+(e)+(f)+(g)	56	100
(14) Whether the courses lead to a formal qualification, certificate or diploma		
(a) Yes	2	4
(b) No	54	96
TOTAL (a)+(b)	56	100

PART 2**The Training Approach**

Course Content	<u>No.</u>
(a) Cultural information on migrants and ethnic minorities , themselves, the history of the migration process, etc.	<input type="text"/>
(b) Language training in the tongue of an ethnic minority/ migrant community.	<input type="text"/>
(c) Information on the legal context of migration, citizenship, laws against discrimination, etc.	<input type="text" value="34"/>
(d) Information on problems of racism and discrimination and how these affect ethnic minority and migrant communities.	<input type="text" value="36"/>
(e) Procedures of fair recruitment and selection and related practices (e.g. ethnic monitoring principles and procedures).	<input type="text" value="38"/>
(f) Broader equal opportunities strategies, such as how to write and implement a positive action/affirmative action policy.	<input type="text" value="29"/>
(g) Broader strategies such as "Diversity Management".	<input type="text" value="14"/>
(h) Other.	<input type="text"/>
 Training Strategy	
(a) To provide information to people who would not otherwise be aware of these issues.	<input type="text" value="41"/>
(b) To engage actively in specific exercises to produce attitude change in individual trainees.	<input type="text" value="10"/>
(c) To train specifically in certain actions so as to produce behavioural change in individual trainees.	<input type="text" value="34"/>
(d) To train in procedures to produce organisational change over and above the individual trainees who have attended the course.	<input type="text" value="26"/>
(e) Other	<input type="text" value="12"/>

"Classroom" Method**No.**

- | | |
|--|----|
| (a) Traditional lecturing methods with trainees taking notes and learning from reference material. | 31 |
| (b) Group exercises and discussions. | 46 |
| (c) Role play and self-discovery exercises. | 38 |
| (d) Case studies. | 46 |
| (e) Learning from inter-ethnic contact. | 1 |
| (f) Other. | 1 |
| (g) Not Applicable. | 1 |

Training materials:

- | | |
|---|----|
| (a) written information packs, handouts etc | 46 |
| (b) training videos | 46 |
| (c) computer-based learning packages | |
| (d) other | |

(Profile sheet 3 page vii)

Categorisation of the Training Approach according to the Anti-Discrimination Training Typology

		<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
Training Type			
(1)	Information Training		
(2)	Cultural Awareness Training	2	4
(3)	Racism Awareness Training		
(4)	Equalities Training	33	59
	Equalities Broader Issues Training	C2.C3	11
	Equalities Anti-Racism Training	C2.D2	6
	Equalities Diversity Training	C3.D3	8
	other Equalities		8
(5)	Anti-Racism Training	7	12
(6)	Diversity Training	5	9
(7)	Other (give appropriate Typology Box Numbers)	9	16
		<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
	<u>C2.C3.D3</u>	3	33
	<u>C1.B2.C2</u>	3	33
	<u>B2.D2</u>	2	22
	<u>A2.B2.C2</u>	1	11
	TOTAL	9	100
(8)	Not classifiable		
TOTAL (1)+(2)+(3)+(4)+(5)+(6)+(7)+(8)		56	100

Profile sheet 3: The training courses

Target group of the training	
A Personnel/Management	
B Trade Unions	XX
C Job Centre staff	

PART 1

No. %

- (1) Number of client organisations the training courses have been delivered to

1	4	33
2		
3		
4		
5		
6-10		
11+	6	67
Not Known	2	17
TOTAL	12	100

- (2) Number of times the courses have been delivered

1	4	33
2		
3		
4		
5		
6-10		
11+	4	33
Not Known	4	33
TOTAL	12	100

- (3) Number of years the courses have been provided

1	1	8
2		
3		
4		
5	4	33
6-10	5	42
11+	2	17
Not Known		
TOTAL	12	100

		<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
(4)	The training courses are:		
	(a) restricted to single organisation	11	92
	(b) open to others	1	8
	TOTAL (a)+(b)	12	100
(5)	Participation for the trainees		
	(a) voluntary	9	75
	(b) compulsory	2	17
	(c) Not Known	1	8
	TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)	12	100
(6)	Number of trainers normally involved in teaching		
	1	10	83
	2	1	8
	3		
	4		
	5		
	6+		
	Not Applicable	1	8
	TOTAL	12	100
(7)	Use of trainers from ethnic minority/migrant backgrounds		
	(a) always	8	67
	(b) sometimes	3	25
	(c) never		
	(d) Not Applicable	1	8
	TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)	12	100
(8)	Average number of trainees participating in each course		
	1-5		
	6-10		
	11-15	10	83
	16-20		
	21-29		
	30+		
	Not Known	2	16
	TOTAL	12	100

(Profile sheet 3 page iii)

	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
(9) The training programmes are:		
(a) self-contained anti-discrimination/ equal opportunities courses on migrants/ ethnic minorities	9	75
(b) part of a broader equal opportunities training programme including gender issues, disabilities etc.	2	17
(c) part of a broader "Diversity Management" programme	1	8
(d) part of a programme of broader general training within the organisation		
TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)	12	100

(10) Length of the courses (in days)

1/2	1	8
1	11	92
2		
3		
4		
5		
6-10		
11+		
Not Known		
TOTAL	12	100

(11) Number of times the courses are repeated in one year
for each client organisation

0	10	83
1	1	8
2		
3		
4		
5		
6-10		
11+		
Not Known	1	8
TOTAL	12	100

(Profile sheet 3 page iv)

	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
(12) If the courses are repeated regularly they are:		
(a) part of primary competence training for different individuals		
(b) updating "refresher" courses for people who have attended before	1	8
(c) Not Applicable/Not Known	11	92
TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)	12	100

(13) Location of training courses		
(a) In the workplace	8	67
(b) In a separate training centre	1	8
(c) In a local educational institution	1	8
(d) Hotel/conference facility	1	8
(e) By distance learning		
(f) Other		
(g) Not Known	1	8
TOTAL (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)+(e)+(f)+(g)	12	100

(14) Whether the courses lead to a formal qualification, certificate or diploma		
(a) Yes		
(b) No	12	100
TOTAL (a)+(b)	12	100

PART 2**The Training Approach**

Course Content	No.
(a) Cultural information on migrants and ethnic minorities , themselves, the history of the migration process, etc.	<input type="text"/>
(b) Language training in the tongue of an ethnic minority/ migrant community.	<input type="text"/>
(c) Information on the legal context of migration, citizenship, laws against discrimination, etc.	<input type="text" value="7"/>
(d) Information on problems of racism and discrimination and how these affect ethnic minority and migrant communities.	<input type="text" value="11"/>
(e) Procedures of fair recruitment and selection and related practices (e.g. ethnic monitoring principles and procedures).	<input type="text" value="12"/>
(f) Broader equal opportunities strategies, such as how to write and implement a positive action/affirmative action policy.	<input type="text" value="5"/>
(g) Broader strategies such as "Diversity Management".	<input type="text" value="1"/>
(h) Other.	<input type="text"/>
Training Strategy	
(a) To provide information to people who would not otherwise be aware of these issues.	<input type="text" value="8"/>
(b) To engage actively in specific exercises to produce attitude change in individual trainees.	<input type="text" value="1"/>
(c) To train specifically in certain actions so as to produce behavioural change in individual trainees.	<input type="text" value="12"/>
(d) To train in procedures to produce organisational change over and above the individual trainees who have attended the course.	<input type="text" value="5"/>
(e) Other	<input type="text"/>

(Profile sheet 3 page vi)

"Classroom" Method**No.**

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| (a) Traditional lecturing methods with trainees taking notes and learning from reference material. | <input type="text" value="2"/> |
| (b) Group exercises and discussions. | <input type="text" value="11"/> |
| (c) Role play and self-discovery exercises. | <input type="text" value="11"/> |
| (d) Case studies. | <input type="text" value="11"/> |
| (e) Learning from inter-ethnic contact. | <input type="text"/> |
| (f) Other. | <input type="text"/> |
| (g) Not Applicable. | <input type="text" value="1"/> |

Training materials:

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| (a) written information packs, handouts etc | <input type="text" value="11"/> |
| (b) training videos | <input type="text" value="12"/> |
| (c) computer-based learning packages | <input type="text"/> |
| (d) other | <input type="text"/> |

Categorisation of the Training Approach according to the Anti-Discrimination Training Typology

		<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
Training Type			
(1)	Information Training		
(2)	Cultural Awareness Training		
(3)	Racism Awareness Training		
(4)	Equalities Training	9	75
	Equalities Broader Issues Training	C2.C3 3	
	Equalities Anti-Racism Training	C2.D2 2	
	Other Equalities	4	
(5)	Anti-Racism Training	2	17
(6)	Diversity Training	1	8
(7)	Other (give appropriate Typology Box Numbers)		
		<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>

	TOTAL	100	
(8)	Not classifiable		
TOTAL (1)+(2)+(3)+(4)+(5)+(6)+(7)+(8)		12	100