Discrimination Against Immigrants at Employment:

Relations Between Managers’ Level of Moral Development, Supervisor Advice, and Codes of Conduct

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June, 6th 2008

Master Thesis

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The work is the responsibility of the author, in no way does it engage the responsibility of the University, nor of the supervising Professor
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Abstract

Discrimination against foreign applicants was studied using an in-basket exercise with 210 Swiss managers. Participants had to evaluate and select Swiss (in-group) or Kosovo-Albanian (out-group) candidates. Results showed that supervisor advice to prefer in-group members reduced out-group member’s chances to be selected for an interview. However, codes of conduct stressing the importance of equal opportunities, codes enforcement, and the level of cognitive moral development of participants had no impact on such decisions. Implications for both research and organizations are presented.

Keywords: personnel selection, employment discrimination, codes of conduct, moral development, Defining Issue Test

Le problème de la discrimination de postulants étrangers a été étudié grâce à un jeu de rôle incluant 210 managers suisses. Les participants devaient évaluer des candidats suisses (in-group) ou albannais du Kosovo (out-group), puis choisir les postulants adéquats. Les résultats ont révélé qu’un superviseur conseillant de préférer les candidats suisses réduisait les chances des étrangers d’être sélectionnés pour un entretien. Par contre, les codes de conduite mettant en évidence l’importance de l’égalité des chances, le renforcement de ces codes ainsi que le niveau de développement moral des participants n’ont eu aucun impact sur de telles décisions. Les implications pour la recherche et les organisations sont présentées.

Mots-clés: sélection du personnel, discrimination à l’emploi, codes de conduite, développement moral, Test de Définition des Problématiques

JEL Classification: J7, J15, M12
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1 Preface

This research could not have been completed by the author alone. It has been a long work that needed the help and the participation of several persons to be accomplished. Therefore, the author first wants to acknowledge Professor Franciska Krings for her supervision and her advices during this thesis. Acknowledgments are also due to Professor Jean-Claude Usunier and to the Institute of Research in Management for their financial support. The author also wants to thank Lars-Eric Petersen (University of Halle-Wittenberg, Germany) for his advices regarding the in-basket exercise, as well as Muriel J. Bebeau, Stephen J. Thoma, and Chu-Ting Chung (Center for the Study of Ethical Development, University of Minnesota, USA) for their precious help with the DIT. He also thanks Olivier Charpateau (Institut d'Administration des Entreprises, Université Paris 1, France) and Anne Fortin (Université du Québec à Montréal, Canada) for their help to obtain the French version of the DIT, Santa Proietto for helping with the in-basket exercise translation from German to French, and Dr. Bruno Kocher and Professor John Antonakis for their precious help with statistical analyses. In addition the author is especially grateful to Mrs. Graziella Schaller and the Association des Gradués HEC for their help to contact a large sample of participants, which was essential for the data collection. Finally, this work cannot have been successful without the contribution of all the participants who gave their time for this research.

Nicolas Roulin
2 Introduction

By 1995 in Europe, resident foreign populations ranged from 3.6% in the United Kingdom to 18.9% in Switzerland (Pettigrew, 1998). Ten years later, 20% of Switzerland inhabitants were foreigners, representing more than 1.5 million individuals (OECD, 2006). This large rate, the second in Europe after Luxembourg, could be considered as the logical result of the Swiss policy regarding immigrants. The main explanation comes from the utilization of the “guest worker” system that started decades ago with the Italian workforce, a system that would be later copied in other countries, such as Germany. Later on, Spanish, Portuguese, and Turks followed. At the beginning, the aim was for the “recruits” to rotate before planting family roots. This plan involved mostly service workers, but, as skilled work required training, companies were unwilling to rotate their “guests” and lose their human capital investment. In addition, Switzerland welcomed a large number of refugees following the Yugoslav wars in the 90’s. Therefore, foreign workers represent a great part of today’s Swiss workplaces. Nevertheless, if countries such as France or the UK tried to facilitate foreigners’ naturalization in the past decades, Switzerland is still considered as one of the most restrictive European countries concerning naturalization. In addition, even second-generation immigrants are not automatically granted citizenship (Pettigrew, 1998).

Furthermore even if they are representing a greater part of the population, foreigners in Europe are often facing more difficulties than local people to find a job, especially during the time the country unemployment rate is high. Thus, in 2005, these unemployment rates were all significantly higher for immigrants or members of minorities than for the majority population in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Latvia, and Finland (EUMC, 2006). The same conclusion is true for Switzerland (OECD, 2006). One of the reasons for this situation is a widely demonstrated problem: discrimination.

For instance, a series of discrimination tests has been performed in the Netherlands in September 2005 (EUMC, 2006). 150 CVs, adapted to published job vacancies, were sent to a number of companies in the country. Half carried of them a traditional Dutch name and the other half an Islamic sounding name. Of the 75 “Dutch” CVs, 69 persons were invited for a job interview. Of the 75 “foreign” CVs, 33 persons were invited. After the job interviews were attended, 51 of the Dutch respondents but only two of the ethnic minority respondents were hired. The same kinds of results have been found in Sweden (Carlsson & Rooth, 2007)
or the UK (Blackby, Leslie, Murphy, & O’Leary, 2004) showing that discrimination against minorities was quite a global reality.

Moreover, Krings and Olivares (2007) developed an experiment to evaluate discrimination in Switzerland. They studied two different ethnic groups of second-generation immigrants. On one hand, Spanish, who represents a traditional and well accepted group and, in the other hand, Kosovo Albanian, who immigrated only recently and are less well accepted by the indigenous population. They found that raters were less willing to invite Kosovo Albanian applicants to a job interview than Swiss or Spanish applicants, but only for a job requiring high interpersonal skills and not when technical skills where required. Therefore this study showed that discrimination exists in Switzerland, but could be considered as highly specific. Thus, the present research was built to go deeper in analyzing discrimination against minorities in the Swiss situation.

Moreover the research on discrimination already found several dimensions that partially explain this kind of unethical behavior. So far, factors such as prejudice against minorities, unethical advices by authority figures, and codes of conduct have already been studied. Thus, the first part of this research will briefly review the body of literature on discrimination and these causes. Consequently this study’s first objective will be to replicate previous findings concerning these factors within the Swiss context, by measuring participants’ reactions to supervisor’s advice or codes of conducts.

In addition, this study’s first purpose is to bring the research on discrimination at employment a step further, and to better understand the reasons leading people to favor local applicant. Apart for prejudice, only few individual sources were deeply examined so far. Therefore, another topic, which is at the center of ethics research, will be considered as a possible explanation: the level of cognitive moral development of evaluators. This area of research is quite large and has been the basis for hundreds of papers in the last decades. Some authors already tried to link the level of morality to some unethical behaviors (e.g. in accounting), but no research considered its implications for employees selection yet. Thus the present study will try to fill this gap. The main theories and findings of moral development will be reviewed in the second part of this research. Then the second objective of this study will be to assess the difference between people on higher and lower levels of moral development regarding their behaviors in the different selection conditions. The results will be followed by a discussion, as well as by their practical implications for companies and future research.
3 Literature Review

3.1 Factors Affecting Discrimination

At the end of the 19th century, several US studies and meta-analysis on racial group differences in employment interview evaluations found only small differences between ratings of Black or Hispanic and White candidates. These results suggested that overall, minority and majority candidates were evaluated similarly during interviews. However, various field experiments and experimental studies showed that majority candidates have generally higher chances to access and go on the hiring procedure than minority candidates.

Thus researchers tried to better understand the causes of employees’ discriminative behavior. As a result, literature suggests that discrimination at employment could depend on several factors. As presented on the Figure 3.1 below, employee behavior has been shown to be mainly affected by the supervisor’s behavior or discourse. Then additional organizational or personal factors can also have important consequences. Therefore the following sections will illustrate the findings provided the literature about these factors up to now.

![Figure 3.1 General model](image-url)
3.1.1 Advice from an Authority Figure

Since Stanley Milgram’s experiments on obedience to authority in the 1960s (e.g. Migram, 1963), it has been shown that in the presence of authority, amoral decisions become a more likely possibility (Sheppard & Young, 2007). Several studies showed that discrimination was one of the possible outcomes of boss’ pressure to act immorally. For instance, a study by Brief, Dietz, Cohen, Pugh, & Vaslow (2000) in the U.S. showed that a business justification to discriminate provided by a superior led to less Black applicants selected. Similarly, Petersen and Dietz (2000) found that West German participants who were instructed to discriminate against out-group members (East Germans) selected, on average, fewer out-group members than did participants who did not receive such instruction. In addition, Wimbush (1999) stated that supervisors, through their own behavior towards ethical issues, showed their subordinates what were the values to embrace and the resolution process to use when dealing with ethical dilemmas. Employees often take their bosses as models and indicated them as having the most influence on their ethical behavior. Thus, supervisor’s behavior is an important factor to explain followers’ actions. However, despite this external caused being proved for years, research on discrimination started to focus more on personal factors to explain unethical behaviors.

3.1.2 Personal Factors: Racism and Prejudice

One of the most studied factors in discrimination is simply racism or prejudice against minorities. For decades minorities have been disadvantaged by the majority on power. In the United States, Black people were facing important discrimination problems until some individuals, such as Martin Luther King or Malcolm X, made change happen. Nevertheless, analyzing the US labor market at the end of the last century, Brief and Hayes (1997) found that racism was still present, but in a new form, called “modern racism”. Nowadays “modern racists” do not openly attack people from minorities anymore. However, they speak against Blacks when having an excuse (i.e. non-racial factors) which protects them from the charge of racism. Therefore White people can describe their discriminatory behavior as a rational managerial decision. For instance, when having to hire new employee for a marketing position, prejudiced people, measured by a modern racism score, preferred an unqualified White over qualified Black people, but only when provided with an excuse to do so (e.g. the
company’s clients were mainly White people). Thus prejudiced people only discriminate when a business justification exists (Brief & Hayes, 1997).

The notion of modern racism or prejudice has been extensively studied by Meertens and Pettigrew (1997). Using a sample containing more than 3800 respondents from France, the Netherlands, Great Britain, and then-West Germany, the authors divided this notion in blatant and subtle prejudice. Thus people who are not egalitarians (i.e. who have no intolerance concerning foreigners) can be either “bigots” (high in both blatant and subtle prejudice) or “subtles” (high only on the subtle scale). Moreover the traditional form of prejudice, blatant prejudice, is characterized as hot, close, and direct. In contrast, the new form of prejudice, subtle prejudice, is seen as more cool, distant, and indirect. Thus blatant prejudice remains, but a conceptual distinction between the blatant and the subtle version has been proven. Accordingly the distinction between blatant and subtle prejudice can be seen as the difference between overt expression of norm-breaking views against minorities and the covert expression of socially acceptable anti-minority views. Overall, subtle prejudiced people reject crude expressions of prejudice. Nevertheless, they see the members of the minority groups as unsympathetic people who violate traditional values. For instance, when asked if immigrants should be send back to their home country, people labeled as “bigots” agreed but no “subtles” did. However, when a non-prejudicial reason was provided (e.g. these immigrants were criminals), a majority of “subtles” joined the “bigots” wanting to send them back home.

Overall, individual factors can be part of the reason someone discriminates against foreigners. Thus prejudiced people can be seen as generally more willing to act in such a way, but most of them being “subtles” needed a non-racial reason to act. As presented in the next section, in organizational contexts this kind of excuse often comes from an authority figure.

3.1.3 The Joint Effect of Authority Figure and Prejudice

Within organizations, the business justification to discriminate can often be provided by an authority figure, such as a direct supervisor. Brief et al. (2000) developed two experiments to demonstrate that modern racism and obedience to authority were good predictors of employment discrimination. In a first in-basket exercise, participants were provided either with instructions from their superiors to discriminate against Black applicants or with no justification. In the business justification condition the participants with a high modern racism score selected significantly fewer Black applicants than in the no-justification
condition. However, there was no significant difference between low and high modern racism scored people when no justification was provided.

In a second study by the same authors (Brief et al., 2000), participants were randomly assigned to one of three authority justification condition: (1) a legitimate authority figure providing a business justification to discriminate, (2) an illegitimate authority figure providing a business justification, and (3) no instruction. The results showed that people high on modern racism evaluated Black applicants less favorably only when a business justification was provided by a legitimate authority (i.e. a memo from the company’s President). Moreover, when the authority figure was illegitimate, people low on modern racism acted against the justification provided. They evaluated Black applicants significantly more favorably than people high on modern racism. Even more, people low on modern racism evaluated Black applicants more favorably in the illegitimate-source condition than in the no-justification condition.

The results of Brief et al. (2000) with White and Afro-Americans were also replicated in Europe by Petersen and Dietz (2000) who examined the effect of authority on discrimination with West and East Germans. In addition, Right Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) attitudes were examined as a potential moderating source for obedience. RWA attitudes are associated with a high degree of submission to the authorities perceived to be established and legitimate, a general aggressiveness towards people that are perceived to be sanctioned by established authorities, and a high degree of adherence to social conventions. Therefore people high on the RWA scale easily submit to their boss and become aggressive towards the boss’ target. As presented earlier, Petersen and Dietz (2000) found a main effect of supervisor’s instruction to discriminate on the number of out-group members (East Germans) selected by the participants (West Germans). No significant main effect for RWA alone was observed. However as expected participants who scored high on RWA selected fewer East Germans when they were instructed by a superior to discriminate than they did in the control condition. Thus the main result observed was an Instruction x RWA interaction that caused the unethical behavior.

Furthermore Ziegert and Hanges (2005) described Brief et al.’s (2000) memos from the President as a “social-norm” manipulation, creating an organizational climate for racial bias or equality. Indeed the organizational climate is a function of what is rewarded, supported, and expected in the organization. It also sends strong signals to employees about what
behavior is socially acceptable. Thus it can be considered that modern racists act on their beliefs but only when social norms appear to legitimize this discrimination. Thus the authors tried to replicate Brief et al.’s (2000) findings by randomly assigning participants to either what they called the “climate for equality” or the “climate for racial bias” condition, which can be considered as similar to Brief et al.’s “no instruction” and “business justification to discriminate”. As expected, participants in the “climate for racial bias” condition exhibited greater discrimination than participants in the “climate for equality” condition.

In addition, Ziegert and Hanges (2005) tried to extend these findings by differentiating explicit and implicit racist attitudes. On one hand, explicit attitudes measures, such as modern racism scales, have been present in numerous previous studies. These measures simply ask directly what people think about persons from diverse origins. For instance, US White participants can be asked if they would dislike living near Black people or if they feel that Black and White people are equal. Being self-reported measures, they have proven to be quite practical, but can suffer from self-presentation bias, because respondents can manipulate their answers to regulate their impression to others. On the other hand, implicit attitudes measures minimize this bias by assessing indirectly the construct. For example, people can be asked to label words as being prototypical of White or Black. Later on they will be asked to classify these words as being pleasant or unpleasant and thus determine attitudes towards Blacks. Hence, the authors were unable to replicate the interaction between explicit racist attitudes and the climate for racial bias manipulation showed by Brief at al. (2000). However they confirmed that implicit racism interacted with a climate for racial bias to predict discrimination. When individuals were given a business justification for racial discrimination their implicit racist attitudes were positively related to their discriminatory behavior. Therefore, implicit attitudes have been proved to be important components to understand employment discrimination.

In the same way, Petersen and Dietz (2005) further brought the research on the authority-discrimination topic to the next level using subtle and blatant prejudice scales instead of the Modern Racism Scale only. By means of German versions of Pettigrew and Meertens’ (1997) scales, the authors were able to demonstrate that, when advised about workforce homogeneity, subtly prejudiced participants selected fewer foreign applicants that did those who had not received such advice. However this advice did not significantly affect the discriminatory behavior of blatantly prejudiced participants or the non-prejudiced participants. Blatantly prejudiced people always selected fewer minority applicants than non-
prejudiced people. In addition, a self-monitoring scale was used as a control variable, as high self-monitoring individuals look for outside cues, such as the matching advice by the president of the company, when responding to a situation. Indeed when the participants’ levels of self-monitoring were added in the analyses, the pattern of findings did not change, meaning that subtly prejudiced individuals act authentically, rather than on self-monitored versions of them.

Overall, research as shown that individual factors, such as modern racism or subtle prejudice, associated with an authority figure advising to discriminate were good predictors of employee final behavior. However, considering these causes only as representative of an actual organizational context is unrealistic. In reality, workers are affected by numerous other aspects in their company. One example, relevant in this context is the effect of codes of conduct.

3.1.4 Organizational Factors: Corporate Codes of Conduct

During the last decade, codes of conduct have been implemented in numerous companies, mainly in the US and Europe. Employees have been trained to use and respect them, and some organizations even created “Ethic Officer” positions. These codes, considered to be a “written, distinct, and formal document which consists of moral standards used to guide employee or corporate behavior” (Schwartz, 2001), were expected to reduce unethical actions of employees within the firm. Nevertheless, until now, only a few studies looked at the real effects that these codes had on employees’ behavior.

For instance, collecting results from 19 studies, Schwartz (2001) showed that more than half of them found weak (2) or no (8) significant relationship between codes of conduct and behavior. In the same way, looking for the causes of ethical problems in financial statements, Brief, Dukerich, Brown, and Brett (1996) developed several experiments to analyze the effect of code of conduct and personal values on managerial actions. In a first study, the decision to misinterpret the financial statements was made by the vast majority of the managerial respondents (87% made at least one fraudulent behavior). In two other experiments, Top Executives and Controllers played a realistic in-basket exercise, with the opportunity to engage in fraudulent statement reporting. By behaving fraudulently, company profits would artificially go up and the participant could be rewarded with a promotion. All the participants were confronted to the same accounting situation, but they were randomly provided with
three types of code of conduct: (1) no code of conduct, (2) an abstract code, (3) a specific code. The results were quite alarming; a large percentage of participants chose to engage in fraudulent statement reporting in all situations. Moreover there was no significant effect of the code of conduct on the decision to behave fraudulently. The authors proposed that the solution to this problem could be the creation of an ethical climate in the organization, with communication, training or reward systems based on the respect of the ethical rules of the company.

Furthermore, non-discrimination in personnel recruitment, and development and promotion of equal opportunities based on race, gender, age, religion, etc., are stressed in most ethical documents in Europe today (Vuontisjärvi, 2006). Thus, the effects of codes of conduct were integrated by Petersen and Krings (in press) to the authority-discrimination paradigm. Using an in-basket exercise, German managers were asked to evaluate and select candidates from a group of candidates belonging to participants’ in-group (Germans) and out-group (foreigners). In a first condition, participants were not exposed to any supervisor advice or codes of conduct. In the second condition, participants were advised by their boss to prefer in-group and to exclude out-group candidates, explaining that out-group members would not “fit” within the organization. In the third and fourth conditions, in addition to the supervisor advice, raters received detailed codes of conduct, which stated that all employees should have equal opportunities to be hired. Furthermore, in condition 4, it was outlined that the organization took the codes of conduct as well as employee compliance very seriously and that violations could be severely punished.

The results presented by Petersen and Krings (in press) were somehow surprising. As expected, people from the second condition selected less out-group candidates than participants in the control group (condition 1), thus confirming results of previous studies about the effects of authority figures. In addition, when ethical codes were provided, managers evaluated candidates independently of social group membership and independently of supervisor advice. Thus codes have some impact on how people regard applicants. However, participants in condition 3 did not select more out-group applicants than those in condition 2. A significant difference was only perceived in the fourth condition. Therefore, codes of conduct have the power to decrease in-group bias for suitability ratings, but they have no real impact on selection decisions. The effect of the authority figure advice was stronger that the effect of the codes. Discrimination only disappeared when codes of conduct
were presented together with clear explanations that violations would be made public and that violators would be disciplined.

3.1.5 Other Potential Moderation Effects

Wrapping up, discrimination has been proved to be influenced by modern racism or subtle prejudice, supervisor’s advice to select in-group candidates, and actively enforced ethical codes of conduct. Therefore, the first objective of the present research was to replicate Petersen and Krings’ (in press) findings in a similar environment and with the same type of subjects but on a slightly different context (i.e. Swiss managers).

In addition, it seems to be a lot more to learn about how people behave in such selection settings. In fact, previous studies showed under which conditions participants discriminate, but there is still room for new studies and experiments to better understand why people chose to act as they do in such conditions (e.g. follow the authority advice instead of the codes of conduct). As these discriminative actions are prejudicial to both companies and applicants, it seems important to develop extra research in this direction. Furthermore, more research is necessary in order to look at other factors that could affect the relation between the causes cited above and discrimination and thus better explain these unethical behaviors?

For instance, Schwartz (2001) proposed to explain the “black box” between codes of conduct and employee behavior in general. He stated that non-compliance with codes could be explained by self interest (e.g. financial distress or greed), dissatisfaction (with one’s job or compensation), environment (supervisor or peer pressure), company’s interest or simply ignorance of the company’s ethics program whereas reasons for compliance could be personal values, fear of discipline and loyalty to the organization. Nevertheless, as the author stated himself, it is possible that this list could not be exhaustive. For example, Petersen and Krings’ (in press) findings demonstrated that the decision maker’s environment (i.e. his/her supervisor’s actions) could lead to non-compliance. Therefore other organizational factors or, more probably, individual differences could better explain the effectiveness of codes of conduct (Kaptein & Schwartz, 2008), thus explaining also the reason why people discriminate even if the codes instruct not to do so.

Furthermore, Petersen and Dietz (in press) demonstrated the impact of another important individual variable on discrimination and obedience to authority: affective commitment
towards the organization. Therefore they stressed the importance of studying discrimination as an organizational phenomenon. Using the Allen and Meyer (1990) scale to measure the level of affective commitment and East- and West-German applicants, they showed that highly committed participants evaluated the out-group members (East-German) less favorably than the in-group members (West-German) when advised by a supervisor to do so than when no advice was provided. However, no difference was observed for the low commitment participants. Additionally, highly committed people recommended fewer out-group members for an interview than their counterpart did. In a second study, Petersen and Dietz also showed that the effect of affective organizational commitment to compliance was mediated by submissiveness to authority. Thus they stressed that the more employees are committed to their organization, the more they will generally obey to their boss, and the more they will follow his advice to discriminate. However, their two studies did not include the “codes of conducts” variable. It would be interesting to see whether highly committed people would have followed their superior advice or the company codes of ethics.

In addition, research in business ethics showed that even if some unethical practices could be unique to the business world (e.g. violation of employees’ rights), individuals’ reaction to it depends upon the psychological and interpersonal processes that determine judgments of any morally evaluable action (Forsyth, 1992). Therefore one of the individual causes to unethical behavior, and thus explaining the ineffectiveness of codes of conduct, could be related to morality. Thus, this study’s second purpose was to examine one possible factor that could explain the efficacy of codes of conduct on employee behavior: people’s level of cognitive moral development. Thus the model of the causes explaining discrimination is the following

![Figure 3.2 Discrimination Model](image-url)
3.2 Morality Development and Discrimination

Ethics theorists generally consider the field of morality to be mainly composed of two complementary facets. On one hand, “macromorality” is looking at the formal structure of society as defined by institutions, rules, and roles. On the other hand, “micromorality” is more concerned by the particular face-to-face relations that people have in everyday life (Rest, Navaez, Bebeau, & Thoma, 1999b). When looking at discrimination in selection procedure, one can see the importance of roles (i.e. rater, applicant, and supervisor). In addition, the game is played within institutions (i.e. organizations), and rules are clearly present (i.e. codes of conduct). Thus the first facet appears to be clearly the one to consider in the present research. Hence two main theories are symbolizing the last decades of the “macromorality” research: Kohlberg’s stages of Cognitive Moral Development and Rest’s Defining Issues Test and Neo-Kohlbergian Theories.

3.2.1 Kohlberg’s Theory of Moral Development

Since the 60’s, Lawrence Kohlberg’s theory of stages of moral development has been one of the most influential theories in ethics. Based on Jean Piaget’s famous theories on children developmental stages and John Rawls’ theories of moral philosophy, Kohlberg (1969) studied the process by which people create their own moral judgment (Coulombe & Pauchant, 2005). He found that moral development can be understood as the passage through six successive stages grouped in three global levels (see Table 3.1 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Self-Perception</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 : Pre-conventional</td>
<td>Outside Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Punishment or Obedience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Instrumental Relativist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 : Conventional</td>
<td>Inside Group</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>“Good Boy – Nice Girl”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Law and Order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 : Post-conventional</td>
<td>Above Group</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Social – Contract Legalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Universal Ethical Principle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thus, according to Kohlberg, moral development meant moving up a staircase one step at a time, without skipping any steps and without reversals, each step been regarded as a stage of development (Rest et al., 1999b). Therefore, the higher stage a person is in, the more she or he is morally developed.

Kohlberg tried to understand the moral development of individuals from childhood to adulthood by periodically evaluating the highest stage of moral reasoning expressed by the subjects. He was convinced that people’s moral level should logically follow age and education. Therefore, he found each level to correspond to an orientation towards moral decisions. In the pre-conventional level, people understand the notions of right and wrong in terms of reward or punishment by authorities (stage 1) and then in terms of the satisfaction of one’s own needs (stage 2). In the conventional level, people look for conformity and approval from others (stage 3), followed by the perspective of being a member of the society, thus adhering to the law and to religion procedures (stage 4). Finally, the post-conventional level represents moral maturity. In the fifth stage, there is a possibility to modify the law, if based upon rational considerations of social unity. Lastly, in the sixth stage, the right decision to make is based on the decision maker’s conscience and his/her own ethical principles (Elm & Weber, 1994). In Kohlberg’s classification, stage 1 to 3 typically developed during childhood, while schemas of stage 4 to 6 usually developed in adolescence and adulthood (Rest et al., 1999b). Therefore these developmental stages were also found to be proper for adults’ evaluation of morality.

Using short cases, Kohlberg developed in-depth interviews (called Moral Judgment Interviews – MJI) where he asked participants to explain openly their decision to specific moral dilemmas. Thus he created methods to score people response to the moral dilemmas, based on their answers and their full reasoning to make their choice. One of the most important and representative case was the Heinz case, where the participant had to judge if it was right for a husband to rob a drug store, in order to get a very expensive drug to save his dying wife. In each dilemma, what was important was not the final choice the participant made, such as stealing or not the drug, but the structure of the reasoning leading to this choice. By analyzing these reasons, Kohlberg was able to classify the respondent in one of the six moral stages (Coulombe & Pauchant, 2005). These principles have been further applied in psychology and business ethics research, in order to understand the level of moral reasoning of employees and managers and the reasons they were making their choices.
3.2.2 Neo-Kohlbergian Theories and the Defining Issues Test

Kohlberg’s findings were the main source of inspiration for the development of the theories and tools of James Rest and his colleagues of the Minnesota Group. Previously, in order to assign a person to a developmental stage, Kohlberg had the subject talk during interviews and proposed scoring guides, which was not the easiest or the most precise measurement method. Thus the authors created a more quantitative measure that was less time consuming, more structured, that did not needed any trained scorer, and that minimized scorer bias: the Defining Issues Test (DIT) (Rest, Cooper, Coder, Masanz, & Anderson, 1974). In addition, the hierarchical form and step-by-step approach of Kohlberg’s model has often been criticized (Rest et al., 1974; Snell, 2000). Thus, the DIT authors stated that each of Kohlberg’s moral judgment stage could be considered as “a conceptual framework for interpreting social interrelationships and mutual responsibilities” (Rest et al, 1974, p.492). Therefore each stage has distinctive ways of defining a given social-moral dilemma and of evaluating the critical issue of a given problem.

This idea leaded to a “Neo-Kohlbergian approach” (Rest, Navarez, Thoma, & Bebeau, 2000), where the six hard stages became three more concrete moral schemas after analyzing item clusters from large samples of data (Rest et al., 2000; Thoma, 2006): personal interest (related to Kohlberg’s stages 2-3), maintaining norms (stage 4), and post-conventional thinking (stages 5-6). Contrary to Kohlberg’s original vision, this approach of morality was less philosophically pure, but was based on empirical research and findings. In addition, Kohlberg’s presented only one global aspect of morality, what he called “moral judgment”. This simplicity was often criticized and considered as untenable in the face of the complexity of moral functioning (Walker, 2002). Thus Rest and his colleagues’ ambition were to synthesize moral psychology as a whole. Their new approach proposed a more specific four-component model, including “moral sensitivity” (interpreting the situation, imagining cause and effect chains of events, and being aware that there is a moral problem), “moral judgment” (judging which action would be more justifiable in a moral sense), “moral motivation” (the degree of commitment to taking the moral course of action), and “moral character” (persisting in a moral task, having courage, and overcoming temptations) (Cabot, 2005).

When one component or several of the four components are weak or absent, moral development is less advanced and moral functional outcomes may fail to occur (Derryberry & Thoma, 2005).
The Defining Issues Test then became the tool to use in order to measure moral development. By means of the DIT, the participant is asked to read six moral dilemmas (or three for the short version), each with 12 issues or considerations bearing upon the situation presented. The subject has then to pick the issues that make the most difference in deciding what action one ought to take in response to each dilemma. The issues chosen are then linked to the different developmental stages or schemas, in order to compute a P-index, representing the level of moral development or, more precisely, the percentage of post-conventional reasoning favored by the participant (Rest, Navarez, Thoma, & Bebeau, 1999a).

In addition, when someone reads one of the DIT moral dilemmas, moral schemas are activated. The actual schemas activated are, obviously, limited to the extent the person has developed them. Therefore, when an item is both ranked and rated highly, it can be assumed that this item has been understood by the person and that it actually represents the preferred schema. Thus, taken together, the DIT stories and items can be considered as an effective method to measure moral development (Thoma, 2006).

For its computation, DIT’s P-index only considers post-conventional stages of moral development (Kohlberg’s stages 5-6), because they are those which really represent ethical judgments. Four main elements are representative of these superior stages (Rest et al., 1999b). First, one realizes that laws, roles, codes, and contracts are all social arrangements that can be reorganized. Second, there is an idealized way where humans can interrelate or some ideals for organizing society. Third, this ideal must be sharable, thus not based on an idiosyncratic preference, personal intuition, private revelation, or God’s Will. Finally, one realizes that the law itself may be biased, and that the social norms themselves have not to be biased in favor of some at the expense of others. Moreover the DIT authors chose the P-index to focus on higher stages, as an upward movement in moral judgment means that the person increases his or her comprehension of higher stages concepts. In addition, it has been showed that a subject cannot fake upward, as the score only represents the subject’s best notions of moral judgment (Schaefli, Rest, & Thoma, 1985).

In order to be regarded as a reliable way to measure cognitive moral development as presented by Kohlberg, the DIT P-index and Kohlberg’s score had to be related. The correlation between the two was generally considered to be .68 (Schlaefli et al., 1985). A result that was too low to consider the two measures as equivalent, but that can be explained by the methodological differences between the two measures (Elm & Weber, 1994; Rest et al,
1974). Nevertheless, it represented the most adapted tool to apply Kohlberg’s theory the research had found so far (Rest et al., 1974). In addition, during the years following its creation, DIT test has been examined with samples of students of various ages and educational levels, in order to demonstrate that moral development followed education and that DIT scores increase with ethics education (Schlaefli et al., 1985). As predicted by Kohlberg, cross-sectional and longitudinal studies results showed that with each increase in level of education, the average DIT score increased about 10 points (Rest, Davison, & Robbins, 1978). In addition, data has also been collected with adults, confirming that the more educated respondents were the higher was their P score. However, no clear relation was found with age, but it seems that the number of years since birth was somehow related to the way people assessed DIT’s moral issues.

In addition to saying that the moral stages followed age and education, Kohlberg also affirmed that his cognitive moral development theory was universal. Further studies provided support to these statement, confirming that DIT and Kohlberg’s theory were valid across cultures (Trevino, 1992) and was not gender biased (Kracher, Chatterjee, & Lunquist, 2002). Moreover Peterson, Rhoads, and Vaught (2001) showed that business professionals over 30 years old exhibited a higher degree of ethical standard and had their ethical standard less influenced by external factors compared to younger professionals. Even so, Forte (2004) tried to go beyond this logical postulate by studying possible antecedents of moral reasoning. Thus, using the DIT, she looked at several variables in order to find if some of them increased cognitive moral development. Unfortunately, and contrary to precedent findings, no significant relations were found. There was no significant relationship between locus of control, age, work tenure, education, gender, management level, or ethical work climate, and moral reasoning. The stronger predictors of the P-score were industry type and gender, but explaining 4.6% of variance only. In sum, age and education have often been described as the best antecedent of moral development, but, thus far, no factor has been totally able to explain why people were more or less morally developed.

Since DIT creation, several authors tried to create new indexes to better measure moral development. Yet the P index continued to be the most utilized one. A presented above, this index was originally based on participant’s ranking of prototypic items based on Kohlbergian Stages 5 and 6 (Rest, Thoma, Narvaez, & Bebeau, 1997). Nevertheless, over the years, two main criticisms have been made against the P index. First, the term “development” for Rest et al. (1997) meant that people over time came to use higher stages more and lower stages less,
but not that people moved from one stage to another, as proposed by Kohlberg. Thus, as this movement was gradual, more quantitative dimensions of stage use had to be considered than the P index actually did. In addition, this index only exploited information about the last two stages from Kohlberg and not the full range of data available. In order to fill these gaps, the authors created the N2 index. One of the main differences with P was that N2 used rating data in addition to ranking data, and that the two kinds of information interacted which each other. Even though multiple essays were taken by researchers previously to N2, this new index was the only one able to really outperform the traditional P-index.

In addition, after 25 years of been frozen, the first version of the DIT (now called DIT-1) needed some refreshments. Thus Rest and colleagues (1999a) developed a second version of the test, simply called DIT-2, with 5 new dilemmas comparable to those of DIT-1, updated items, and the use of the N2 index\(^1\). Furthermore this new version offered several other improvements, such as being shorter (5 cases instead of 6), purging fewer participants during the unreliability checks, and providing better validity characteristics.

In sum, after three decades of existence, one could conclude that there is actually no other construct than the DIT (1 or 2) that accounts as well for moral judgment and that has been used in hundreds of published studies (Rest et al., 1999b).

### 3.2.3 Moral Development and Ethical Behavior

Up to know, the DIT and Kohlberg’s stages of cognitive moral development have been present in hundreds of studies about ethics, psychology, or moral philosophy. Despite been developed more than 30 years ago, they are still often used in today’s research. For instance, Ambrose, Arnaud, and Schminke (2008) used the DIT and Kohlberg’s levels to evaluate the fit between individual and organizational ethical levels and its influence on employee job attitudes (i.e. satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions), Sheppard and Young (2007) considered the limited effect on moral development of showing a video about Milgram’s experiment to students., and Cabot (2005) recently introduced DIT and moral reasoning in public relations ethics.

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\(^1\) Since its creation, the N2 index was systematically used to score results from DIT-2 researches, but it can also be used to score (or re-score) studies using the DIT-1.
Besides, two decades ago, Trevino (1986) already stated that Kohlberg’s stage of cognitive moral development determined how one thinks about ethical dilemmas and the process of deciding what is right or wrong in a situation. However, Trevino affirmed that right or wrong was not enough. Thus, she proposed a model were individual variables (e.g. ego strength, field dependence, locus of control) and situational variables (e.g. organization’s normative structure, referent others, obedience to authority, responsibility for consequences, reinforcement contingencies) also interacted with the level of cognitive moral development to determine how an individual was likely to behave in response to an ethical dilemma. In addition, she acknowledged that characteristics of the job itself and the moral content of the organizational culture had an impact on the individual’s moral development. Furthermore, the Neo-Kohlbergian approach and several studies showed that moral reasoning was only one factor determining whether or not moral behavior occurs in a given situation. Beyond moral reasoning, ethical actions were shown to be contingent upon moral sensitivity (the ability to recognize moral issues), motivation (the desire to do what is right), and execution (the implementation of the moral decision). Thus, while higher P-scores on the DIT are desirable, they do not always lead to better ethical decision making (Cappel & Windsor, 1999).

Furthermore, a quarter of century ago, Blasi (1980) already reviewed dozens of studies in order to clarify the relation between moral reasoning and moral actions. He provided support for a statistical relation between the two concepts. Moreover, he demonstrated that a clear but weak relation existed between moral stages of development and honesty or altruism. Additionally he only found little support for his expectation that individuals of the post-conventional level were more resistant than others to the social pressure to conform in their moral action. Therefore, if moral development and ethical behavior are clearly linked, moral development cannot be considered as the only reason why people behave in all situations (White, 2002).

Moreover, several researchers affirmed that the path to moral behavior was not to be regarded as a simple cause-and-effect problem, but could involve several steps (Jones, 1991; Jones & Ryan, 1997; 1998; Thoma, Rest, & Davison, 1991). For instance, Thoma et al. (1991) found that the relationship between P-scores and moral decision making was moderated by an additional variable, that they called the U-score, which represents the degree of consistency between moral reasoning and action choices. Thus they stated that more morally developed people (i.e. with high P-scores) were not always making more ethical decisions, but that those
who were morally developed and consistent (i.e. with high P-scores and U-scores) acted in a better way.

Furthermore, Jones and Ryan (1997) stated that there was no direct relation between moral development and moral behavior, but that people passed through an intermediate step; moral approbation. Thus they stressed that people first need to have their moral decision approved by themselves and/or others before actually making it. In addition, Jones and Ryan (1998) presented a version of a sequential model developed by Rest where people pass through four steps. Following this model, individuals first have to recognize they are facing a moral issue, then they engage in some form of moral reasoning to arrive at a moral judgment, next they establish moral intent by placing moral concerns ahead of other concerns and decide to take moral action, and finally they translate intent into moral behavior. Thus moral judgment can be considered as only one step, but an important one, in the path that ultimately leads to ethical behavior. However they also affirmed that the link between moral judgment and moral behavior was not so strong, because of the organizational forces that affected people choices. Organizations are influent by imposing consequences to people’s behavior (e.g. through the reward and punishment systems). They manipulate the creation and the content of referent groups that could be seen as models for people or to which their behavior could be then compared. They make moral decision more or less certain (e.g. by providing more or less information or implementing codes of conduct) or complex (e.g. by creating more or less complex structure for responsibility). Finally organizations can also be a source of pressure to comply with ethically questionable decisions (e.g. by reminding the standards of performance or by threatening to deny a promotion or to transfer the person). Therefore Jones and Ryan (1998) described the effect of moral judgment on decisions as indirect and particularly influenced (in a positive or negative way) by organizations.

Therefore, in the 90’s, the proofs of a direct relationship between moral development and moral behaviour was often seen as limited. In 1994 cognitive moral development was still not fully considered as the most appropriate construct to study ethical decision making (Freadrich, Thorne, & Ferrell, 1994). Similarly, Ford and Richardson’s (1994) review of the causes of ethical decision making presented several individual or situational factors, but did not include moral development. However, the weak relationship found between moral development and behavior could be explained by a misuse of measurement tools, such as the DIT’s P-scores, which could have been avoided if authors had better chose their indices (Mudrack, 2003). In addition, most of the previous statements about indirect effects of moral
development were only based on theoretical models (e.g. those of Trevino or Jones and Ryan), few of which were actually empirically tested.

Moreover, a few years later, various studies clearly showed moral development as a valid predictor of ethical decision making (Ishada, 2006). Using structural equation modeling, Derryberry and Thoma (2005) were able to demonstrate that Rest’s four moral developmental constructs contributed to moral actions. Greenberg (2002) used another tool than the DIT, the Social Reflection Measure (SRM) scale, which evaluated moral values of participants in a similar way. He measured the level of cognitive moral development of 270 employees of a large U.S. company and offered them an opportunity to steal some money from the organization. Greenberg was able to show that the level of development (pre-conventional vs. conventional) had an impact on deviant behaviors of workers, such as stealing. Furthermore, Brady and Hart (2007) stated that, in Rest’s maintaining norms stage, the person was clearly a conformist. Consequently, he or she followed what everybody else values, was prone to stereotyping, especially regarding gender roles, was hostile toward perceived enemies, and was dismissive of other peoples and countries. However they claimed that post-conventional thinking avoided idiosyncrasy, ethnocentrism, nationalism, or opportunism. Trevino and Youngblood (1990) further developed Trevino’s (1986) first model to create the ”bad apples” and “bad barrels” perspectives to represent the effect of individual and organizational characteristics on ethical behavior. They found that cognitive moral development exhibited a direct effect on ethical decision making. Moreover, subjects with internal locus of control and at the post-conventional stages of cognitive moral development behaved more ethically.

In addition, Trevino (1986) stated that moral development had the power to limit obedience to authority. For instance, she quoted a Milgram-like obedience situation built by Kohlberg, where the experimenter ordered the subject to give increasingly severe electric shocks to a learning experiment confederate. In this case, 75 percent of Kohlberg’s stage six subjects stopped the experiment while only 13 percent of lower stage subjects did. Therefore, people on lower stages could be seen as generally more prone to unethical actions (e.g. discrimination) when advised to do so, whereas people at higher levels could be seen as more fair in the same situation. Trevino and Youngblood (1990) also confirmed that higher moral development was associated with more ethical decisions and behavior, as an individual needs consistency between his thoughts and actions. At the other extreme, less morally developed managers had an “obedience to authority” orientation that was highly susceptible to the effects of reward systems (Ashkanasy, Windsor, & Trevino, 2006). In addition, Ashkanasy et
al. (2006) showed that low-cognitive moral development managers who expected their organization to ignore unethical behavior made less ethical decisions, whereas high cognitive moral development managers became more ethical in this kind of environment. Moreover, Wimbush (1999) stated that subordinates at levels one and two of cognitive moral development were more disposed to engage in unethical behavior when perceiving that supervisors desire or condone this behavior. Conversely, Wimbush showed that level three subordinates had a clear understanding of what they considered as being right and wrong. Thus they were not expected to violate these principles by accomplishing or being part of unethical action.

Overall, the level of cognitive moral development of people seems to be an aspect of great interest for the research on discrimination in selection procedures. Thus, even if other personal or situational factors may have an important influence, Kohlberg and Rest theories could be very helpful to improve the comprehension of people’s behavior during applicant evaluation. For instance, moral development can help to better understand why people prefer to follow advices from authority figures, even if they are obviously leading to unethical behaviors and are clearly against the organization’s will. Following these theories and the findings presented above, morally developed managers should base their decisions more on their own moral and ethical values than on a superior’s recommendation or any codes of conduct. However previous theories and models showed that situational factors were also noteworthy. Therefore, the relationship between moral development and the selection of applicants will probably be more complex and will also depend on the situation the decision maker will be facing (e.g. superior’s behavior or codes of conduct).

Therefore the second part of the experimental design was built to verify the effect of moral development theories in different selection situations and thus bringing the research on discrimination against minorities on the next step, following the last development by Petersen and Krings’ (in press) with codes of conduct.
4 Hypotheses

The first goal of this research was to replicate previous results about the effect of the organizational context variables on employment discrimination (e.g. Brief et al, 2000; Petersen & Dietz, 2000; Petersen & Krings, in press). These studies showed the effect of the advice from a legitimate authority figure (i.e. participants’ superior) to prefer in-group candidates on the participant’s choice regarding the evaluation and the selection of local and foreign applicants.

The in-basket paradigm and the four experimental conditions used by Petersen and Krings (in press) in Germany were adapted to the Swiss (or more specifically “Suisse Romande”) situation with a six conditions model (see Table 4.1 below). Conditions 4 (codes only) and 5 (codes + enforcement) have been added in order to fill the methodological gaps that were present in Petersen and Krings’ model. Germany and Switzerland are countries similar on several points. They are both Western European, economically developed, and highly educated countries, and are similar in the four Hofstede’s dimensions\(^2\) (Hofstede, 2001). Thus no large cultural difference should alter the results. Therefore, in all conditions, participants evaluated and selected candidates from a group of candidates belonging to participants’ in-group (Swiss) and out-group (foreigners).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Codes of Conduct</th>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor’s advice to discriminate</td>
<td>Absence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Presence</td>
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In the first (control) condition, participants made their decisions being provided neither with supervisor advice nor with organizational codes of conduct. In condition 2, a supervisor advised participants to prefer in-group and to exclude out-group candidates, based on “fit” motives. Thus it was expected to replicate the prior findings:

\(^2\) 35 vs. 34 in power distance, 65 vs. 58 in uncertainty avoidance, 67 vs. 68 in individuality, and 66 vs. 70 in masculinity for Germany and Switzerland respectively.
Hypothesis 1: Swiss participants who are advised by their supervisors to prefer Swiss applicants (condition 2) will evaluate Swiss candidates more positively than foreign candidates and will select fewer foreign applicants for an interview than will participants who do not receive this advice (condition 1).

In conditions 5 and 6, participants were also advised by their supervisor to prefer in-group candidates. In addition, participants were provided with detailed information on the organization’s codes of conduct. More precisely, one of the codes referred to equal opportunities for members of minority groups. It stated that all employees and candidates have equal opportunities at employment and promotion. Therefore they should be treated independently of gender, age, sexual orientation physical handicaps and, more importantly, national or ethnic origin. The objective of this manipulation was to assess if the presence of ethical codes of conduct leads to more ethical behavior (i.e., less discrimination against minority candidates) even if a supervisor states that he considers the unethical behavior as the best option. As presented earlier, Petersen and Krings’ (in press) showed that a more ethical behavior only occurred when it was expressly stated that the organization took the codes of conduct as well as employee compliance seriously (condition 6). Thus it was expected to replicate these findings with the second and third hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: Even when they receive information on the organization’s ethical codes of conduct referring to equal opportunities, but without being threatened by sanctions (condition 5), participants will still follow supervisor advises to prefer in-group members. Thus they will still evaluate Swiss candidates positively relatively to foreign candidates, and will not select more foreign applicants for an interview than will participants who were not presented with the codes. (condition 2).

Hypothesis 3: When participants receive information on the organization’s ethical codes of conduct referring to equal opportunities and additionally receive information that code compliance is enforced and integrated in organizational everyday practice (condition 6), they will – even if a supervisor advises them to prefer in-group members – evaluate foreign candidates as positively as Swiss candidates and will select more foreign candidates than participants who receive the same supervisor advice but are not exposed to ethical codes of conduct (condition 2).

Furthermore, the second part of this study was built to assess the impact of the level of cognitive moral development of participants on their discriminatory behavior. Previous
studies already showed the link between moral development and ethical behaviors. For instance, Ambrose et al. (2008) stated that individuals at the pre-conventional level of moral reasoning were only motivated by self-interest and seek to behave ethically primarily by complying with rules and avoiding punishments. Therefore, these employees may not perceive ethical values as especially relevant, important, or advantageous. Alternatively, Kohlberg’s fifth and sixth stages are based on shared ideals and reciprocity (Rest et al., 2000). Moreover, when attaining the stages that use post-conventional schemas, the decisions are based on one’s own conscience and ethical principles (Rest et al. 2000), thus the person should act more ethically (Ashkanasy et al., 2006; Trevino and Youngblood, 1990). Greenberg (2002) also showed that people at the conventional level were less prone to deviant behavior (i.e. stealing) than people at the pre-conventional level. Thus the positive effect of moral development on deviant behavior was expected to be applicable to other ethical actions or decisions, such as discrimination against minority applicants. Therefore respondents with higher P-results (indicating a more post-conventional level of moral development) should in general act more ethically and treat local and foreign applicants equally. Consequently, the following was expected:

Hypothesis 4: Overall, participants with a higher level of cognitive moral development will evaluate foreign candidates more positively and will select more foreign candidates than participants with a lower level of moral development.

Additionally, ethical behavior has also been shown to be influenced by an individual-situational interaction (Greenberg, 2002; Trevino, 1986; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990). Thus individual factors, such as the level of cognitive moral development, are theoretically expected to interact with situational factors, such as advices from an authority figure or codes of conduct. Furthermore, in Kohlberg’s fourth level (“Law and Order” level), corresponding to the maintaining norms schema for Rest and colleagues, the establishment of hierarchical role structures, of chains of command, of authority and duty is central (Rest et al. 2000). Thus people at this level of development (or below) should be more willing to follow advices from a superior. In the case of personnel selection, discrimination against minorities would therefore appear as the best choice for the participant if advised by his/her boss to do so. In addition, Trevino’s (1986) example with the Milgram experiment confirmed that authority effect should be lower on someone who is in the upper stages of moral development. Past researches also showed that people at the highest level of cognitive moral development were least susceptible to management influence to be unethical (Ashkanasy et al., 2006; Wimbush,
1999). Consequently respondents with higher P-results should choose applicants without taking the boss’ advice into account, but following their own ideal of justice. Accordingly, the following was expected:

**Hypothesis 5**: In Condition 2, the higher the participant’s level of cognitive moral development will be, the less likely he will follow the supervisor’s unethical advice. Thus, even when advised to select more in-group candidates, highly morally developed people will evaluate foreign candidates more positively and will select more foreign candidates than less morally developed participants.

Furthermore, respecting codes of conduct should be more important for people at higher stages of cognitive moral development, as codes that emphasize equal opportunities are likely to match people’s higher moral reasoning. For instance, Herron and Gilbertson (2004) studied auditors’ behaviours and showed that when the form of a code matched the moral development of participants, they acted more ethically (i.e. they did not accept a questionable engagement). However, when there was not a match between the code and the level of moral development (i.e. a highly ethical codes with people low on cognitive moral development), the code seemed to have no influence over participants’ intended behavior. In addition, Greenberg (2002) demonstrated that an ethics program had a stronger prevention effect on employee’s deviant behavior among those at the conventional level than those at the pre-conventional level. Thus respondents with higher P-results should comply more with ethical codes. As a result, the following was expected:

**Hypothesis 6a**: In Condition 3, participants with a higher level of cognitive moral development will be more likely to comply with the organization’s codes of conduct than participants with a lower level of moral development. Therefore, in this condition, they will evaluate foreign candidates more positively and will select more foreign candidates than less morally developed participants.

**Hypothesis 6b**: In the same way, in condition 5, participants with a higher the level of cognitive moral development will be more likely to comply with the organization’s codes of conduct and ignore the supervisor’s unethical advice than participants with a lower level of moral development. Therefore, in this condition, they will evaluate foreign candidates more positively and will select more foreign candidates than less morally developed participants.
Moreover, Askanasy et al. (2006) stressed that highly moral individuals made ethical choices that were very consistent with their own beliefs about what they consider to be right. On the other hand, those at the lowest level of cognitive moral development were more susceptible to reward system pressures because of their orientation toward obedience and punishment avoidance to protect their own self-interest. They showed that managers lower in cognitive moral development were more reactive to punishment or reward system pressures, that these pressures influenced outcome expectancies, and that these outcome expectancies finally influenced ethical decision and behavior. Thus, low level managers made the most unethical decisions when they had high expectations that the organization would excuse their unethical behavior. For mid-level cognitive moral development managers, outcome expectancies made little difference. On the contrary, highly moral managers made even more ethical decision in the same situation. Therefore, lower stages people should act unethically unless explicit punishments (e.g. dismissal) is expected to sanction violations of the codes of conduct. On the other hand, higher stages people should act even more ethically when no sanction threat is provided. Thus, the following differences in conditions 6 vs. 5 were expected:

**Hypothesis 7**: Participants with lower level of cognitive moral development will act more ethically (i.e. evaluate foreign candidates as positively as Swiss, and select more foreign candidates) when codes of conducts demonstrate clear indication about sanctions than when no clear information was provided about it. However, such a difference will not exist for participants with a higher the level of cognitive moral development.

The seven hypotheses are summarized in the Figure 4.1 below:
5 Methodology

5.1 Sample

As pointed out by Cappel and Windsor (1999), students have repeatedly and inappropriately used as surrogates for professionals for ethical decision making tasks in studies. Since there appear to be important differences in the way students and professionals approach ethical issues, Cappel and Windsor advised researchers to exercise caution in generalizing their findings for ethical decision making studies from student samples to professionals. Therefore, as the present is particularly interested in the practical implications for business, a sample of professionals has been chosen to avoid such problems.

With the help of an association of graduates, 4345 managers who graduated from the Faculty of Business and Economics of the University of Lausanne have been contacted by email. Each of them received a short text that introduced them to the present research and were then invited to log on a Website\(^3\) to participate to a business simulation study (see Appendix I for this introduction letter). In addition, following Cook, Heath, and Thompson’s (2000) advice to pre-contact the participants, the study was also presented in the association’s newsletter to encourage people to participate.

People were randomly assigned to one of the six conditions of the in-basket exercise. As the sample size was important and the questionnaire length could discourage some people to quit the experiment before the end, the possibility that the response rate could be very different for one group to the other was probable. Therefore, the emails were not sent to everyone in one time, but in several waves during three weeks, thus having the chance to re-sample to fill up missing subjects in each wave if needed. A first wave of emails was sent to 2400 managers assigned to the 6 groups. The response rates of the different groups were closely monitored, in order to check that there was no big difference between the conditions. After one week, emails were then sent to another 1200 managers. Finally emails were sent to the remaining people another week later. In addition, reminders were sent to all participants quite quickly (five to seven days after the first invitation) as advised by Deutskens and colleagues (Deutskens, De Ruyter, Wetzel, & Oosterveld, 2004). After all the number of response was quite similar between the groups and re-sampling was not needed.

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\(^3\) On the Website of the online survey software “Survey Monkey” (www.surveymonkey.com).
Overall, around 400 email addresses were not valid. Finally 344 participants went on the survey’s Website. However, certainly because of the length of the survey (35 to 40 minutes), several people left the experience before the end. More precisely 285 people participated in the first part (business simulation) only and 250 completed the whole survey (business simulation and DIT), representing a final response rate of approximately 6.25%. This number can give the impression of being small, but it can be seen as reasonably high, considering the time it required from the participants, the fact that it was online, the possibility that an important number of email addresses could be unexploited, and the fact that the only incentive that was provided was the promise to receive a general feedback regarding the main findings (see Appendix II). Lastly, as the present experiment was built for Swiss managers, all non-Swiss respondents (16%, mainly French and Italian) were removed from the sample, leading to a final number of 210 Swiss managers.

The sample of managers was mainly composed of men (77.6%), which is quite representative of the full graduates population from this faculty (77.3% of men). Age of the respondents was well distributed, going from 23 to 78 years old, with an average of 40.96 years old (SD = 11.12), also very close to the complete graduates population’s age (avg. = 40.26 years old⁴). Therefore, even though the small response rate could have led to sampling bias, these demographic data gave support to considering the sample as being well representative of the population.

In addition, the participants had 8.73 years of experience within their company on average (SD = 8.26) and 62.8% of participants had employees under their supervision. People were well educated with all people holding at least a Bachelor or a Master (see Figure 5.1)

![Figure 5.1 Sample’s Highest Education](image)

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⁴ These statistics on the Faculty were provided by the association of graduates.
Moreover participants worked for various industries (see Figure 5.2), with “Banking and Finance” (25.2%) and “Account, Control, Audit, and Taxes” (11.6%) being the most represented domains.

![Figure 5.2 Sample's Activity Domain](image)

**5.2 Measures: French In-basket exercise and DIT**

*In-basket exercise*

The in-basket exercise used by Petersen and Krings (in press) was utilized to simulate the selection situation and to verify hypotheses one to three. Furthermore, as the sample was composed of French speaking Swiss managers, the exercise was translated from German to French. The content was translated by a bilingual student and then checked by the author (French native language) and his supervisor (German native language and co-author of the mentioned article). In addition, name of the characters have been changed to fit the local situation. For instance, all German names and cities have been transformed into Swiss ones and Turkish applicants became Kosovo Albanian applicants. Kosovo Albanians have been shown to be the most discriminated against, at employment in Switzerland (Fibbi, Kaya, & Piguets, 2003). Therefore they have been chosen as the out-group members for this study. This translated version (with the full conditions) can be found in Appendix III.

All participants completed the exercise. They were asked to adopt the role of Pascal Chapuis, the manager of a fast-food chain in Switzerland. The company and the responsibilities of
Pascal Chapuis were specified as part of the written instructions. One of his responsibilities was personnel decisions. In this role, subjects had to make several decisions, such as organizing training programs within the organization, decide to fire or not an employee, etc. The main decision for the present study was to screen and select job candidates for an interview. Furthermore, participants were specifically instructed to respect two criteria when selecting candidates: the selected applicants should have experience in (1) the food industry and (2) Human Ressources. Then, they reviewed the dossiers of eight candidates: Four of them were Swiss (in-group members) and four were foreigners (out-group members). All applicants were both living and educated in Switzerland. Group membership was clearly visible because the applicants had obviously a foreign name (e.g. Lorik Beqaj, Debatik Toski) or a local name (e.g. Pierre Feldman, Jean Robert). Moreover, two in-group and two out-group candidates fulfilled the selection criteria and therefore were qualified for the specified job. The other two in-group and two out-group applicants met only one of the two criteria, thus were not qualified.

Participants evaluated the suitability of the eight candidates on a scale from 1 (very suitable) to 7 (very unsuitable). They were then asked to select the three best candidates for an interview. Thus the following two measures were used as the dependent variables: (1) the difference between the suitability ratings of the in-group and the out-group candidates; (2) the number of selected out-group applicants.

Furthermore, participants were randomly assigned to one of six experimental conditions:

**Condition 1** (control): The procedure in this condition simply followed the general procedure described above. Thus participants based their decisions only on the two selection criteria referring to the qualifications of the candidates. These criteria were summarized in a memo by Pascal Chapuis' supervisor.

**Condition 2** (supervisor advice to prefer in-group applicants): After outlining the two qualification criteria mentioned above, Pascal Chapuis' supervisor added the following comment, advising participants to prefer in-group (Swiss) candidates "I had a look at all the applications myself and I realized that some foreigners have applied for the job. While making your decision, keep in mind that this department only employs Swiss people today. Therefore, it is important for the company to maintain this good chemistry".

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5 These scores were then inversed (e.g. 1 became 7, 2-6, ...) for the statistical analyses
**Condition 3** (codes of conduct): In this condition, participants received no advice to exclude foreign candidates by their supervisor. However, they were presented the company’s codes of conducts. These codes contained detailed guidelines concerning expected employee behavior toward clients, colleagues and the environment. One paragraph entitled "Codes of conduct concerning behavior toward employees" stated the following: "Our organization guarantees equal opportunities for all employees and job candidates. All people have equal opportunities at employment and promotion and are treated independently of their gender, national/ethnic origin, age, sexual orientation and physical handicap." After receiving additional detailed instructions on how to behave in several situations, it was expressed that the organization expected employees to apply the codes of conduct in all situations, including those for which no explicit behavioral guidelines were provided. Employees were encouraged to ask themselves the following four questions before making any decision: Is the decision (or action) legal? Can I personally account for the decision? Would clients, colleagues, friends and family support my decision? Will I feel good about my decision tomorrow?

**Condition 4** (codes of conduct and codes enforcement): As in the third condition, participants were provided with the detailed guidelines. In addition, in this situation, it was stressed that the ethical codes were a significant part of the organization’s culture. Therefore, any violation of the codes could be made public and people who violated codes would face negative sanctions. Participants received an additional memo from the company's CEO, reading as follows: "Dear colleagues, in our last newsletter we reported that in one of our stores, a shift supervisor sexually harassed a female employee. After the case had been investigated and clarified, we decided to terminate the shift supervisor's contract. For this reason, I'd like to call your attention to our codes of conduct that are binding for every single employee. I'd also like to point out that a person breaching a code of conduct will face negative consequences that can lead up to an instant dismissal."

**Condition 5** (supervisor advice to prefer in-group applicants and codes of conduct): As in the second condition, participants were advised to exclude foreign candidates by their supervisor. Additionally, at the beginning of the in-basket exercise, they received the information sheet describing the organization's codes of conduct presented in condition 3.

**Condition 6** (supervisor advice to prefer in-group applicants, codes of conduct, and codes enforcement). In this “full” condition, participants were again advised to exclude foreign candidates by their supervisor. Moreover, they received the same information sheet on the
organization's codes of conduct as participants in the third and fifth conditions. Additionally, they also received the CEO’s memo that stressed that any violation of the codes would be severely punished.

**Defining Issues Test**

In order to measure the level of cognitive moral development of participants, the short French version of the Defining Issues Test (DIT) has been chosen (Rest et al, 1974). With this tool, each participant was presented with three moral dilemmas, and each dilemma was followed by a set of 12 statements, each representing a particular stage of moral development. The subject was then asked to rate each statement for its importance in making his or her ethical judgment. After rating these 12 statements, the participant was also asked to choose the four most important statements and rank-order them from one to four. Therefore a P-score, which ranges from 0 to 95, was computed for each participant by assigning points to these four most important statements. As presented above, points were given only for statements corresponding to post-conventional schema (stages 5 and 6). Four points were given to the most important statement corresponding to either Stage 5 or 6, three to the second most important statement, and so forth (Rest, 1990). Subjects were told that this additional questionnaire (the DIT) was unrelated to the in-basket exercise and were advised to respond as themselves and not as Pascal Chapuis.

Other measurement tools, such as Kohlberg’s traditional Moral Judgment Interviews (MJI) or Lind’s Moral Judgment Test (MJT), have previously been utilized to study moral development (Ishada, 2006). Nevertheless, as presented above, Kohlberg’s MJI necessitated trained interviewers, which was not the case of the author. In addition, it was a time consuming method that would have limited the sample size and the power of the results accordingly. Moreover Lind’s MJT, another test based on Kohlberg’s stages, measures the extent to which one consistently follows a particular moral value. This instrument has been previously used in European studies and was also a multiple choice format. However, DIT was shown to be well related to deontological norms in making decisions (Ishada, 2006), was used in hundreds of studies (Rest et al., 1999b), and had the advantage of being available in French.
Because the sample was composed of French speaking Swiss professionals, the author chose to use a French version of the DIT to be easily answerable by the respondents. The selected version was originally translated in Canada, during a master’s thesis in the Department of Psychology of the University of Montréal (Blanchette, 1995). The translation procedure used was the following: First, a preliminary version has been realized with a group of students and teachers using the backward translation method on the DIT-1. Then this version has been analyzed, discussed, and modified by the thesis author, her director, two students, and a copy editor. James Rest himself also helped with some specific points. Finally, this translated version was validated with the help of 41 bilingual psychologists and 38 bilingual students in human sciences in Montréal, Canada. Every participant had to fill the DIT in French and English, with half of them starting with the French version and the other half with the English version. Analysis of the P-scores showed that results were situated within Rest’s usual score interval. In addition, results demonstrated that neither the order nor the language had a significant influence on the scores, $F < .48$ for order, $F < .21$ for language, and $F < .52$ for the interaction between the two. Therefore, this French version of the DIT can be considered as a valid instrument, which is equivalent to the original English version.

In addition, this first version had sentences written with some Québec-French expressions and terms that were not totally adapted to a European usage of the test. Therefore the version used in the present research is one that was slightly modified to fit an experiment in France (Charpateau, 2007). However, as the changes were absolutely minimal, its validity can be considered as equivalent to the one of the French-Canadian version. This version can be found in Appendix IV.

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6 Note: This translated version of the DIT was called “Test de Définition des Problématiques” or “T.D.P.”

7 Only two words were modified: “vignette” was replaced by “histoire” and “secondaire V” by “baccalauréat” (O. Charpateau, personal communication, October 10th, 2007).
5.3 Pre-Test

As the in-basket exercise was a newly French-translated version, there was a necessary to make sure that it contains no mistakes or unclear parts. In addition, as this study was the first to combine an in-basket exercise and the DIT, it was essential to estimate the time it would take for the managers to deal with the whole questionnaire. Therefore a pre-test has been performed with thirteen French-speaking master’s students, who kindly participated. The only incentive that was given was to opportunity to receive their individual DIT P-score as a feedback. They were asked to log on the survey Webpage and to complete the full conditions questionnaire. Therefore they were faced with the selection decision having received the superior advice, having red the codes of conduct and the enforcement. They had to measure the total time they spent and were given the chance to write down comments at the end of the survey or could speak with the author when they were finished. Overall they spent between 40 and 55 minutes on the whole questionnaire, including the time to write comments. The remarks were generally quite positive and eleven of the students asked for an individual feedback, which shows at least some interest in this study. The pre-test comments also showed that one of the in-basket decisions, regarding the choice to appoint a handicapped manager responsible for a show, was seen as too much sensitive. Therefore this scenario was eliminated, even if it was not one that was central to the actual study. Overall the simulation included a total number of seven scenarios were the participant had a decision to make, less than twelve of the original design by Petersen and Krings (in press). The aim of this shortening, together with the use of the short DIT version, was to make the online experiment less time-consuming for busy managers.

The manipulation check items showed that all students understood the superior advice correctly. Moreover, their results showed no tendency towards discriminative behavior, which was the expected outcome because of the presented condition (advice + codes + enforcement), as well as by the fact that discrimination problems were presented to the students during the class just before participating to this pre-test. Thus, the qualified Kosovo-Albanian applicants were rated equally to the Swiss. For instance, the score of the suitability for the job (going from 1 = Very bad to 7 = very good) were 6.08 and 5.08 for foreigners.

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8. The students were attending one of the supervisor’s classes at the University of Lausanne. They were kindly asked to participate to a short online simulation in a computer room. Only two students, those who didn’t speak French, did not participate.
compared to 5.92 and 5.72 for the locals. Only one of the four differences was significant ($t(12) = 4.714$, $p = .01$) whereas the three others were not ($t(12) = 1.535$, $p = .151$; $t(12) = 1.074$, $p = .304$; $t(12) = .632$, $p = .539$). Furthermore, the two fully qualified people from the minority group were as often selected for an interview as the two from the majority group (11 and 6 times vs. 11 and 8 times). In addition, as expected the fully qualified Swiss applicants were significantly better rated than the less qualified ones (5.92 and 5.72 vs. 4.33 and 4.05; all $p < .01$). The same was more or less true for the Kosovo-Albanians, except that one non-fully qualified applicant was evaluated too positively (6.08 and 5.08 vs. 5.28 and 4.46; two $p < .05$, one $p < .1$ and one non-significant). Therefore, these manipulation checks provided relative support for the fine-tuning of the experimental conditions. However, the general high evaluations of all the Kosovo-Albanian applicants could be explained by the fact that the students were confronted to similar discrimination problems in class right before participating to this pre-test.

In addition, the four names of the foreign applicants were showed to several colleagues, including professors specialized in intercultural management, in order to be sure that these Kosovo Albanian names will be clearly categorized as non-Swiss when evaluated by managers.
6 Results

6.1 Manipulation Checks

In order to verify that participants really understood the advice from their supervisor, three manipulation check questions were added at the end of the simulation. First, a question unrelated to the situation asked them if the supervisor was looking for a married or a single manager. Then they were asked if he was looking for Swiss or foreigner applicants, or if he did not specify his preferences. Thus people in conditions 1, 3, and 4 should have responded “no preference”, whereas people in conditions 2, 5, and 6 should have responded “Swiss“. Nine participants failed this first manipulation check. In the same way, the qualifications required were controlled by asking them if the candidate should have experience in HR and the food industry or in sales. Here, only one participant failed. A Pearson’s Chi-Square test on the “nationality” manipulation check was significant ($\chi^2(10, N = 210) = 190.15, p = .00$), revealing that 96% of the participants understood the supervisor advice correctly. Thus all the 210 Swiss people were kept for the first analyses. In addition, paired samples t-tests were performed to test for significant differences in the evaluation of unqualified versus qualified applicants. Differences were significant for both Kosovo-Albanians, $t(210) = 10.76, p = .00$, and Swiss, $t(210) = 16.80, p = .00$, proving that qualifications were well recognized.

Moreover, checks were performed on the DIT data, following Rest’s (1990) advices. First, M-scores were computed. This score measures the reliability of each subject’s answers by introducing some items that sounded lofty, but did not mean anything for the cases. Therefore, when ranking the most important items to take into account to make a decision, Rest proposed that people giving more than four points on these items (M-score > 4) should be eliminated from the sample. The test was performed and 16 people had to be eliminated. In addition, manual consistency checks were executed. This procedure involves comparing people’s rankings (the most important items) with their rating (the score given to each item). For instance, if item number 7 of the Heinz dilemma was ranked as being the most important one at the end of the case, then no other item should have been rated higher beforehand. Rest offered to remove people that showed more than 8 inconsistencies overall, or that have three cases with any inconsistencies at all. Therefore, 46 people failed this test.
Overall, non-Swiss respondents and people failing the M-score or the consistency check were removed from the original sample. Thus analyses related to the DIT effect and hypotheses 4 to 7 were performed on a n = 158 sample.

6.2 Main Effect Results

The evaluation of each applicant was composed of three items: “Qualification”, “Expertise”, and “Ability”. In order to have one score to assess the candidates, reliability analysis have been performed on the eight applicants. All the eight Cronbach’s Alphas were sufficiently high (.767; .867; .778; .906; .898; .869; .923; .863). Therefore the three evaluations of each candidate were grouped into one variable called “Suitability Rating”. Then the means for the Swiss and for the Kosovo Albanian, as well as the difference between the two groups (positive scores indicating more positive suitability ratings for in-group than for out-group candidates), have been computed (see Figure 6.1).

![Differences in Suitability Ratings per Condition](image)

*Note: A negative result means that evaluations of out-group applicants were higher than those of in-group applicants, whereas a positive result means that the evaluations of in-group applicants were higher.*

**Figure 6.1 Differences in Suitability Ratings per Condition**

In addition, in order to evaluate the level of discrimination when choosing which candidate to invite for interviews, the total number of Kosovo Albanian selected were measured (see Figures 6.2).
Furthermore, in order to measure the factors impacting managers’ decisions, general analyses were performed to measure the main effect of the supervisor advice to discriminate, the effect of codes of conduct, and the interaction effect between the two.

First, I performed an ANOVA with the following three factors: Supervisor Advice (between-subject), codes of conduct (between-subject), suitability rating Swiss candidate – foreign candidate (within-subject). Results revealed no significant difference between ratings of Swiss and ratings of foreign candidates, $F(1, 204) = 3.75, p = .06$, indicating that overall foreign candidates ($M = 4.85, SD = .66$) were not evaluated differently than Swiss candidates ($M = 4.77, SD = .68$). However, differences appeared when looking at the main effect of supervisor advice on suitability ratings, $F(1, 204) = 3.93, p = .05$, indicating that the boss’ advice to discriminate was effective. In addition, codes of conduct had no significant effect on suitability ratings, $Fs < .28$. Further, there were no interactions between the two variables, all $Fs < .59$.

Then I performed an ANOVA with the following two factors: Supervisor Advice (between-subject), codes of conduct (between-subject). Dependent variable was the number of selected foreign candidates. Results of the ANOVA revealed no significant effect of supervisor advice, $F < 3.44$, or codes of conduct, $F < .44$. Moreover, there were no interactions between the variables, $F < 1.53$. 

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Nicolas Roulin
Discrimination Against Immigrants at Employment
The results presented above showed that only the advice from a supervisor had a main effect on people’s decision towards applicant. However codes of conducts had no significant impact on managers’ behavior. Moreover, in order to test the three first hypotheses more precisely, planned contrasts were performed (Page, Braver, & MacKinnon, 2003).

Hypothesis 1 claimed that managers should evaluate foreigners less positively compared to Swiss and should select fewer of them for interviews when advised by an authority figure to do so. Planned contrasts comparing the differences in suitability ratings of the first condition (control) to the second (supervisor advice) showed that the ingroup-outgroup difference in condition 2 was favorable to Swiss applicants ($M = .05, SD = .57$), whereas in condition 1 it was the opposite ($M = -.21, SD = .54$), $F(1, 204) = 4.22, p = .04$. Moreover the number of Kosovo Albanian selected were lower in condition 2 ($M = 1.27, SD = .69$) than in condition 1 ($M = 1.63, SD = .75$), $F(1, 204) = 6.15, p = .01$. Therefore Hypothesis 1 was fully supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that providing information about the codes of conduct referring to equal opportunities would not override the advice of the superior to prefer in-group applicants. Comparison between condition 2 (advice) and 3 (advice + codes) showed that codes had a small but insignificant effect on differences in suitability ratings ($M = .05, SD = .57$ vs. $M = -.04, SD = .60$), $t(204) = .83, p = .41$. Similarly, the number of foreigners selected was not significantly higher when codes were provided ($M = 1.44, SD = .66$ vs. $M = 1.26, SD = .69$), $t(204) = -1.33, p = .18$. Thus Hypothesis 2 was also fully supported.

Furthermore, Hypothesis 3 anticipated that codes of conduct should become effective when enforced. Thus the effect of supervisor advice was expected to be overruled by the CEO’s memo about the importance of the codes. Planned contrast between condition 2 (advice) and 5 (advice + codes) versus condition 6 (advice + codes + enforcement) were performed. Results showed that codes enforcement did not improve the way people evaluate foreigners compared to Swiss. Difference in suitability ratings were even more favorable to Swiss when codes were enforced ($M = -.01, SD = .52$) than when they were not ($M = -.03, SD = .60$), but differences were insignificant, $t(204) = -.33, p = .74$. In the same way, the number of foreigners selected was not significantly higher when codes were enforced ($M = 1.46, SD = .70$) than when they were not ($M = 1.44, SD = .66$), $t(204) = .85, p = .39$. Thus Hypothesis 3 was not supported. In addition, difference between condition 2 and 6 were insignificant for both suitability ratings ($t(204) = .70, p = .49$) and the number of out-group applicants selected ($t(204) = -1.41, p = .16$).
6.3 The impact of Cognitive Moral Development

Furthermore, the second part of the study was build to evaluate the effect of cognitive moral development on the relations presented above. Therefore, P-scores of the 155 participants remaining after the manipulation checks were computed and used as a moderator. As presented in Figure 6.3 below, the score were well distributed, going from 0 to 77 (Mean = 29.18, SD = 15.13).

Thus, linear regression modeling (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) was used to evaluate the effect of DIT P-scores on discrimination. First differences in suitability ratings were entered as the dependant variable of the model. Supervisor advice, Codes of conduct (with two dummy variables), and DIT P-score were introduced as first level independent variables. Then the two factors interactions were used in the second level and the 3-way interaction in the third level. The final model was shown to be insignificant, $F_s < .53, p > .81$. Furthermore, results revealed that supervisor advice, codes of conduct, the level of cognitive moral development, and the interaction between these variables had no significant effect on the differences in suitability ratings ($B_s$ between -.45 and .15, $Betas$ between -.28 and .36, all $p > .16$). Then the same procedure was applied with the number of Kosovo Albanian selected for interviews as the dependant variable. The results were similar. The model was insignificant,
Fs < .70, p > .69. Further, no effect was observed (Bs between -.33 and .23, Betas between -.26 and .17, all p > .19). Therefore, the DIT seems to have no impact on people’s behavior during selection (see also figures in Appendix V, showing the relation between DIT P-scores and the two dependant variables).

Hypotheses 4 to 7 anticipated that the level of cognitive moral development, measured by the DIT, should have an effect on the authority advice-employee behavior relation. More precisely, they stated that people having a higher level of moral development should overall be less discriminative than “low” people (Hyp. 4), should be less likely to follow an unethical advice from an authority figure (Hyp. 5), should comply more easily with codes of conduct (Hyp. 6a and 6b), and should be less affected by the threat of sanctions (Hyp. 7). Planned contrasts were attempted by dividing people into “high DIT” and “low DIT” using the median split method, as well as by means of the cutoffs proposed by Rest (1990). All results were completely insignificant. In addition, regression results and graphical representations of DIT P-scores also provided no support for the existence of any differences. Thus all these hypotheses have been considered as rejected and no further comparison has been executed.
7 Discussion

The present study had two main objectives. The first aim was to replicate Petersen and Krings’ (in press) results. These authors found that an advice from an authority figure to prefer local applicants had an impact on German managers’ decision to select in-group or out-group candidates. Moreover, they demonstrated that codes of conduct stressing the importance of equal opportunities only became efficient when enforced. However the main weakness of Petersen and Krings’ (in press) study was their design, which was not a fully crossed experimental design. Therefore, they could only perform planned comparisons (t-tests) to show the differences between their conditions.

Therefore, the present study filled that gap by adding the two missing conditions (codes only and enforced codes only) to the design presented to Swiss managers. Thus, in addition to using planned comparisons to test hypotheses, general linear models and planned contrasts could then be applied to confirm the main effect of these factors. The findings presented above first showed something quite surprising: on average participants found Kosovo Albanian applicants more suitable for the job than the Swiss in five of the six conditions. Maybe participants being highly educated managers or their determination to look entirely moral in their behavior could explain these results. However, they select more Swiss in four out of six conditions.

In addition, it was showed that if participants evaluated in-group and out-group applicants quite similarly when no specific information was provided (foreigners being even slightly preferred), this situation changed when an instruction was provided by an authority figure. Results showed that the superior’s advice to discriminate was effective. It led to Swiss applicants being better evaluated compared to Kosovo Albanian and to less foreigners selected for interviews. These findings once again stressed the huge importance of supervisors’ behavior in organizations and replicate the effect showed several times in research on discrimination (e.g. Brief et al., 2000; Petersen & Dietz, 2000; Petersen & Krings, in press).

In addition, codes of conducts have also been found to be ineffective to overrule the boss’ unethical advice. If the effect of codes was on the right direction (differences in suitability ratings less favorable to Swiss applicants and more Kosovo Albanian selected for interviews), it was not large enough to be considered as being significant. In addition, results of the analyses showed no significant effect of codes enforcement. The CEO’s memo stressing the
importance of codes application and indicating heavy sanctions for those who do not respect them did not have a strong impact on people’s evaluations and selection choices. Thus, the results did only partially replicate Petersen and Krings’ (in press) findings. These authors used the interesting metaphor of a “toothless tiger” (p.21) to describe codes of conduct. The present findings do not only strengthen this idea, but also illustrate the difficulty for codes to “re-gain their teeth and become a powerful tool” (Petersen & Krings, in press; p.21). In addition, these results are in line with previous findings presenting supervisor behavior as one of the main reason why codes could become ineffective (e.g. Schwartz, 2001). Moreover, supervisor influence can also have been stronger that codes of conduct in the present simulation, because of “moral disengagement” processes (Bandura, 1999; Trevino, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006). Participants may have felt disengaged by displacing the responsibility of the decision on the boss, who clearly stated that he wanted Swiss applicants to be preferred. In addition, the supervisor (Mr. Montandon) was actually close to retirement and was occupying the position the manager (Mr. Chappuis) was hoping to obtain in the near future. Thus this situation could have made the boss an even more legitimate authority figure.

Nevertheless, the differences between the present study’s findings and those of Petersen and Krings (in press) regarding codes of conduct have to be clarified. One possible explanation is that, when looking at the results, it seems that overall Swiss managers discriminated less than German managers did. Swiss participants showed out-group favoritism, evaluating out-group people more favorably compared to in-group candidates (except under the codes enforcement condition, see Figure 7.1, with negative results meaning that out-group people were better evaluated that in-group) and they always selected more out-group applicants (see Figure 7.2).

Figure 7.1 Comparison of the Differences in Suitability Ratings with Petersen and Krings (in press)
Therefore, Swiss managers participating to the present study could have considered the advice to prefer in-group applicants as a stronger pressure than the possible threat represented by codes violation. Moreover, this supervisor’s pressure could be more important in Switzerland than in Germany. Often Swiss managerial culture is still considered to be filled with military-style management in which notions of hierarchy and order are still predominant, and where confrontation is not sought. On the other hand, German managers habitually based their decisions on an “industrial democracy” model (Tixier, 1994). Similarly, Swiss managers will not take the risk to disrespect their direct boss, whereas German managers will attach more importance to the rules (Jackson, 2001; Tixier, 1994), which could explain the difference in codes effectiveness. Therefore the “toothless tiger” codes in Germany became simply a “big but non-frightening cat” in Switzerland.

Furthermore, other differences between the two experiments could explain these results. First, the targets were different. Kosovo Albanian for French-speaking Swiss and Turks for East-Germans were both considered as the best targets for discrimination, but the differences between these two origins could be one of the reasons the responses from participants were so divergent. Additionally, Petersen and Krings’ (in press) research was conducted with East-German managers, who are still considered to be very prejudiced against immigrants, and especially people from Turkey (Wagner, van Dick, Pettigrew, & Christ, 2003). Moreover, Petersen and Krings (in press) contacted managers personally and met with them for the experiment. In contrast managers for this study were contacted by email and completed the experiment online. In addition, these online participants were maybe expecting a short or quick survey, which could have influence their responses. Finally, the present sample was

Figure 7.2 Comparison of the Number of Out-group Applicants Selected with Petersen and Krings (in press)
more educated, with nearly all participants holding a University degree versus only 61% of the Germans. Therefore, higher education could also be an explanation for the overall more ethical behavior of the Swiss, as well as for the weaker reaction to the threat of sanctions.

In addition, the second objective of the research was to evaluate cognitive moral development as a possible mediator between supervisor advice and discrimination. Results showed no relation between DIT P-scores and discriminative behavior. Therefore moral development is not to be considered as a possible cause for people’s discrimination against minorities. Contrary to previous results in the business ethics field (e.g. Ashkanasy et al., 2006; Derryberry & Thoma, 2005; Greenberg, 2002), highly morally developed people did not act more ethically when it comes to selection of applicants. Moreover, these findings provided limitations to the idea that cognitive moral development could limit obedience to authority.

The explanation to this ineffectiveness could be found in the sequential models of moral development, claiming that there are several steps between a high DIT score and real ethical behaviour. More precisely, Jones and Ryan (1997) argued that people had to pass through a “moral approbation” step before acting. Following this model, before making the decision, the manager will evaluate the level of moral responsibility that he/she will be attributed by his/her reference group. Then he/she compares this level to the anticipated behaviour to see how much approbation or disapprobation he/she will get from the group. Additionally, he/she will compare this expected moral approbation with an individual psychological threshold composed of his/her own level of moral development, religious beliefs, or biological predispositions. If the approbation meets this threshold, the manager will have the required “moral approbation” and will go on with the decision. Otherwise he/she will rethink the anticipated behaviour. Furthermore, Jones and Ryan stated that the level of moral responsibility was mainly composed of organizational pressures (e.g. supervisor pressure to behave unethically). Therefore, it is possible that morally developed people first thought of acting more ethically, but that the supervisor’s pressure to discriminate modified their level of moral responsibility. Thus, when comparing this level with their anticipated behaviour (act ethically) they did not receive the moral approbation required to act this way and had to change their action into a less moral one.
8 Limitations

The present study was composed of an experimental situation. Participants were asked to play the role of a manager who had to make difficult decisions in ambiguous situations. Anonymity offered them the opportunity to answer as honestly as possible. Nevertheless it is never certain that people will act in the same way in real circumstances, when dealing with real candidates, real supervisor, and real codes of conducts or sanctions. For instance, it is certainly easier to go against the boss’ advice in a simulation than in reality. Thus similar problems in organization could lead to even more discrimination. On the other hand, the enforcement presented in this study stated that people could be fired if they were not following the codes. This threat was showed to be inefficient, but could have been taken more seriously in a real business situation. Therefore, a field experiment could have shown more realistic results, but is always much more complicated to implement or to control and deals with much more ethical problems (e.g. deal with real participants and applicants’ reactions to the decisions).

In addition, the method to recruit participants applied in the present study was convenience sampling, because only managers graduated from the faculty of business and economics of the University of Lausanne were contacted. Thus the sample size was limited and the results are only to be considered as representative of these managers and most likely of managers from the French part of Switzerland. However, it is not sure that the findings could be generalized neither to the German part of the country, nor more globally. Still demographic data showed that respondents were generally experimented and came from various industries, which make the present data at least well representative of the average French-speaking Swiss manager.

Lastly, the use of a long online questionnaire could be considered as a limitation. 35 to 40 minutes are often too much time-consuming for busy managers. Moreover, several participants’ comments showed that they enjoyed participating to the first part (simulation) but were less enthusiastic about the second (DIT). Thus a shorter experiment or the utilization of a more interesting tool for the second part (e.g. the more up-to-date DIT-2) could have led to a higher response rate and eventually to less people being eliminated by the DIT manipulation checks.
9 Practical Implications and Recommendations

Unethical behaviors, such as discrimination, are clearly problems that companies do not want to appear or spread inside their walls. Goldman, Gutek, Stein, and Lewis (2006) showed that discrimination had numerous negative effects on both individuals and organizations. At the individual level, it affects the psychological and mental health of its targets, as well as their self-esteem. Moreover, at the organizational level, discrimination can have legal consequences (especially in the US but also more and more in Europe) that can lead to expensive costs for a company. In addition, inequity during selection procedures has been related to monetary loses due to decreased job performance, low morale, absenteeism, or job dissatisfaction. Additionally, the way employees behave inside and outside the organization has an impact on the company’s overall reputation. Thus, the corporate image can also be affected by discrimination, particularly when it becomes public.

Therefore, by implementing codes of conduct, organizations tried to make a first step to reduce these undesirable behaviors. Nevertheless, this study replicates previous findings, demonstrating that codes alone were not sufficient. Petersen and Krings (in press) showed that codes were more efficient when enforced. However, the present study was not able to replicate these findings with a sample of Swiss managers. Since even clear rules showing that an action in unacceptable will be less influent that a boss’ demand or advice, organizations better have to think twice before implementing codes of conduct and should put more emphasis on supervisor’s behavior. Supervisors acting according to the companies’ rules are the best way to make followers do the same thing. Thus as every employee look at his/her boss as an example companies wanting to introduce ethical codes should start by the top of the hierarchy and make sure high-level managers act according to the codes.

Additionally, the results presented here showed that the level of cognitive moral development has absolutely no effect on discriminative behavior. In all conditions, people were acting the same, independently of their morality level. Despite these clear findings, past researches proposed that companies should include cognitive moral development formations in their training programs (Trevino, 1992). Moreover, Schlaefli and colleagues (1985) stressed that treatment effect of ethics education has been proven to improve moral behavior. They claimed that formations, especially those involving moral dilemmas discussion or personality development have a modest but significant effect on moral development. Exposure to Kohlberg theory also showed interesting effects. Following Schlaefli and al.’s (1985) idea,
companies would have been interested in having “morally developed” managers within their organization, for instance in recruiting positions. Nevertheless, the findings presented above demonstrate that there are important limitations to the effectiveness of investing in programs to develop the level of cognitive moral development of employees.

However, these findings do not mean that morality is not important within companies. For instance, in the in-basket exercise employed in this experiment, the superior’s advice to discriminate against minority applicants can be seen as a good example of unethical behavior that is not in the interest of the organization. In addition, the presence of such behavior, particularly from an authority figure, can be interpreted by subordinates as the right way to behave, leading them to act unethically, even if codes or rules tell them to do otherwise. Thus, the level of cognitive moral development could be more important for supervisor than for subordinates. Following Snell’s (2000) model, leadership using pre-conventional moral reasoning should lead to an increase of ethical dysfunctions within an organization whereas leadership using post-conventional moral reasoning should lead to a its reduction. However, more research is needed to bring evidence of this model’s accuracy.

Furthermore, the findings presented earlier showed that the supervisor advice had more influence on employee’s behavior than any codes of ethics. Brief et al. (2000) already showed than discrimination could only occur when the authority figure was considered to be legitimate. Even if it was not specifically measured in the present experiment, the actual supervisor was certainly seen as legitimate, especially as he occupied the job the participant was hoping to get. Moreover, it is likely that following the boss’ unethical advice could be related to “moral disengagement” processes (Bandura, 1999). On the other hand people could be committed and take personal responsibility for their action, following the “moral motivation” theories (Rest et al., 1999b). Therefore more research could be performed to better understand if managers considered themselves as accountable for their decision or if they believed that it was in fact their supervisor’s responsibility.

In addition, using Jones and Ryan’s (1997) model of moral approbation could be an interesting way to explain people’s action and to see if morally developed people first wanted to act more ethically but changed their mind because of the pressure of the supervisor. For instance, Thoma et al.’s (1991) U-score representing the degree of consistency between moral reasoning and action choices could be measured.
Finally, it is likely that the DIT is finally not the best measure to evaluate moral development for business purposes. Lovisky, Trevino and Jacobs (2007, p.2) stated that they “know of no organizations that have used the DIT as a selection or managerial development/training tool”. Lovisky and colleagues (2007) estimated that the main reason was that the DIT was considered as a measure of general moral judgment and not business judgment specifically. Moreover they affirmed that managers call upon lower stages of cognitive moral judgment when making decisions in the managerial domain than when making decisions in a more general life domain. The present findings could then be, at least partially, explained by this phenomenon. Thus, using a student sample, Lovisky et al. (2007) developed their own instrument based on the DIT and the 6-stages model, but with a more business orientation: the Managerial Moral Judgment Test (MMJT). This test has several interesting advantages. First, it clearly follows Kohlberg and Rest’s theories of level of moral development and uses the same kind of checking procedures than the DIT. Second, it includes six scenarios representing the content of realistic moral situations faced by managers. Finally initial analysis by the Lovisky and colleagues provided primary evidence of internal consistency and correlated well with DIT scores, thus showing early signs of reliability. Nevertheless, this instrument was considered to be still too young (i.e. less than one year of existence) to be used for the present study. Further studies (e.g. with professional samples) using this instrument and multiple evidences are needed to ensure the validity and reliability of the MMJT, before it can be considered as a legitimate alternative to the DIT. However future research regarding business ethics, and more precisely discrimination against minority applicants, could use the MMJT instead of the DIT and get different results.
References


EUMC - European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (2006). *The annual report on the situation regarding racism and xenophobia in the member states of the EU*, Budapest: Elanders Hungary Kft..


Appendix I: Introduction Letter

Bonjour,

Vous avez été informé dans la dernière newsletter de l’Association des Gradués HEC du projet de recherche s’intéressant aux problèmes que rencontrent les gens en entreprise lorsqu’ils doivent prendre des décisions managériales.

Dans le cadre de cette étude, nous sollicitons la participation des anciens d’HEC Lausanne ayant une expérience professionnelle. C’est pourquoi nous vous proposons de participer à une simulation en ligne où il sera question de jouer le rôle d’un manager et prendre un certain nombre de décisions. Cette simulation sera ensuite suivie de quelques questions sur votre façon de prendre ces décisions.

Votre collaboration serait d’une aide précieuse pour la réussite de cette recherche et ne requiert que 35 minutes environ. Bien entendu, les réponses sont anonymes et toutes les informations que vous pourriez donner ne seront utilisées que dans le cadre de cette étude. Votre participation est précieuse, nous vous invitons donc à cliquer sur le lien si dessous :

(Link to the survey Website)

Si vous avez des questions sur cette étude, n’hésitez pas à me contacter.

En vous remerciant d’avance de votre participation, nous vous envoyons, Madame, Monsieur, nos meilleures salutations.

Nicolas Roulin
Master student and Research Assistant

et

Dr. Franciska Krings
Assistant Professor of Organizational Behavior

University of Lausanne
Faculty of Business and Economics (HEC)
Internef Building
CH-1015 Lausanne-Dorigny
Switzerland
Appendix II: Feedback for participants

Participants à l’étude

L’invitation à participer à cette étude a été envoyée à l’ensemble des anciens diplômés d’HEC Lausanne, avec l’aimable participation de Graziella Schaller et de l’Association des Gradués HEC, que nous remercions. 4345 emails d’invitations ont donc été envoyés. Finalement 345 personnes se sont rendues sur le site Web de l’étude. 250 personnes, âgées de 23 à 78 ans, ont remplis le questionnaire au complet. Les tableaux ci-dessous présentent l’échantillon ayant participé.
**Principaux résultats**

L’étude à laquelle vous avez participé, était composée de trois parties.

1. La première consistait en une simulation de la situation d’un manager en entreprise qui devait prendre plusieurs décisions, dont certaines avaient une connotation éthique. Par exemple, il était question de sélectionner trois candidats pour un entretien de sélection, parmi lesquels figuraient des personnes qualifiées et d’autres moins qualifiée ainsi que des postulants suisses et d’autres d’origine étrangère.

   Cette partie du questionnaire comprenait plusieurs conditions. Ainsi, certains participants ont été confrontés à un supérieur direct leur conseillant de ne choisir que des candidats suisses, alors que d’autres ne recevait pas cette information. De même, certains participants se sont vus présenter le code d’éthique de l’entreprise mettant en évidence que tous les postulants devaient avoir les mêmes chances d’être engagé, alors que d’autre ne le connaissaient pas.

   L’objectif était de voir comment des professionnels réagiraient au conseil de préférer certains candidats par rapport à d’autres de la part de leur supérieur direct. De plus, nous voulions voir de quelle manière ils prenaient en compte le code d’éthique qui leur était présenté lorsqu’ils devaient prendre des décisions. En effet, certaines études précédentes ont démontré que les codes d’éthique d’entreprises n’étaient généralement pas efficaces lorsqu’il s’agit d’influencer le comportement des employés. Les analyses approfondies des données obtenues lors de la présente étude sont en cours.

2. La seconde partie de l’étude était composée d’un outil appelé le DIT (Defining Issues Test) qui permet de mesurer le raisonnement moral qu’une personne utilise lorsqu’elle doit prendre une décision qui peut être considéré comme un dilemme. Ainsi, selon ce test, les personnes peuvent réfléchir en se basant sur (1) leurs propres intérêts tout en se soumettant à l’autorité, (2) en respectant les lois et les règlements de la société tout en cherchant à bien paraître face aux autres et finalement (3) en se basant uniquement sur sa propre conscience morale, même si elle implique de passer outre la loi. Toute personne peut utiliser un ou plusieurs types de raisonnement lorsqu’elle dots prendre des décisions. Globalement 43.2% des participants de cette étude ont plutôt utilisé le type 1, 18.4% le type 2 et 38.4% le type 3.
De plus, un score de raisonnement moral peut être calculé sur une échelle allant de 0 à 95 (mais ne dépassant que très rarement 70 en pratique) en regardant la propension du répondant à utiliser le raisonnement de type 3. La moyenne de tous les participants a été de 28.19 (écart-type de 15.47). La distribution des résultats se trouve ci-dessous.

3. Lors de la troisième partie, nous avons mesuré le niveau d’attachement d’une personne envers son entreprise. Avec une moyenne de 4.69 sur 7 (écart-type de 1.11), les résultats montrent que globalement les répondants sont plutôt attachés à leur organisation (le niveau d’attachement allant de 1-pas du tout attaché à 7-très attaché).

Nous vous remercions encore une fois de votre participation, sans laquelle nous n’aurions pas pu réaliser cette étude.
Appendix III: In basket Exercise

Instructions

Dans cet exercice vous serez amené/e à jouer le rôle d'un chef de département d'une entreprise et à prendre différentes décisions. Ce genre d'exercice est un instrument courant pour étudier et évaluer les comportements décisionnels, il sera nommé « courrier du matin ». Lors de vos décisions, vous aurez différentes alternatives parmi lesquelles nous vous prions de choisir. Parfois vous aurez l'impression qu'aucune de ces alternatives ne convienne. Il est toutefois important que vous en choisissiez une afin de garantir la comparabilité entre tous les participants de l'exercice.

Cet exercice est composé de quatre parties à lire dans l'ordre préétabli. Lisez-les s'il vous plaît minutieusement.

- La première partie décrit l'entreprise, LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE.
- La deuxième partie décrit le rôle que vous jouerez, à savoir celui de Pascal Chapuis, chef du département gestion et finances dans l'entreprise LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE.
- La troisième partie décrit la situation actuelle dans laquelle se trouve Pascal Chapuis.
- La quatrième partie c'est le courrier du matin, dans lequel vous serez amené/e à prendre différentes décisions à la place de Pascal Chapuis.

Observez toutes les indications qui vous seront fournies et répondez s'il vous plaît à toutes les questions.

Merci de lire à présent les pages qui suivent.

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9 - This appendix contains the full version of the in-basket exercise, representing condition 6 of the experimental design. Conditions 1 to 5 represent versions in which some parts of the exercise have been erased. More precisely, the “directive pour les collaborateurs” page is not part of conditions 1, 2, and 5. The CEO’s mail about consequences of codes violation is not part of conditions 1, 2, 3, and 5. Finally, the advice from the supervisor to discriminate (his third selection condition) was not part of conditions 1, 3, and 4.
L’entreprise : LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE

En 1974, Jean-Louis Lavanchy réunit chaque centime afin de pouvoir acheter le restaurant LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE à Lausanne. Sous son management, le restaurant atteint en peu de temps un succès fou. Lavanchy ouvre rapidement deux autres filiales à Lausanne, les investisseurs allèchent. L’entreprise a jusqu’alors plus de 135 filiales en Suisse et planifie l’ouverture de dix nouvelles filiales par année pour en tout cas les neuf années suivantes. En 1987 l’entreprise s’engage dans le marché des produits surgelés à petite échelle et va rapidement gagner en importance.

En 1986 Jean-Louis Lavanchy décède, son épouse Anne Lavanchy prend en charge les affaires du PDG. Dans le comité directeur se trouve également le meilleur ami et collègue de Jean-Louis Lavanchy, Daniel Montandon âgé de 65 ans. Montandon est le supérieur de trois chefs de départements entrés en service pendant les années septante.

Pascal Chapuis : Il est diplômé en gestion et est passé d’un simple poste de révision interne à celui de chef du département gestion et finances. Sa fonction principale est la garantie de l’expansion des finances de la chaîne de restaurants LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE. En outre jusqu’à ce jour toutes les décisions liées au personnel incombent à sa responsabilité.

Richard Lehmann : Il a commencé sa carrière dans le niveau hiérarchique le plus bas et est à présent le responsable des opérations d’entreprise. Supérieur de cinq fondés de pouvoir régionaux, Richard Lehmann a la tâche d’ordonner et de superviser les affaires des filiales de LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE.

Marie Sommer : Madame Sommer commença, comme Monsieur Lehmann en bas de l’échelle et est à présent la cheffe du département des distributions. Ses principales fonctions sont la publicité et la diffusion ainsi que le développement de nouveaux commerces comprenant la ligne des produits surgelés.


Organigramme des cadres supérieurs :
Votre rôle en tant que Pascal Chapuis

Vous jouez le rôle du chef du département de la gestion et des finances, Pascal Chapuis. L'obtention des capitaux pour l'expansion prévue de LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE est votre responsabilité primaire. Mais ce n'est de loin pas votre unique responsabilité. Les chefs de services suivants sont également sous vos ordres :

**Julie Lavanchy-Steiner** : C'est la fille de Jean-Louis et Anne Lavanchy et travaille dans l'entreprise depuis l'obtention de son diplôme en sciences de la communication en 1981. Elle est la responsable des ressources humaines, elle va cependant prochainement quitter l'entreprise pour se dédier complètement à sa famille et à ses intérêts sociaux. Puisqu'elle quittera bientôt l'entreprise, c'est le moment en tant que supérieur de Madame Lavanchy-Steiner d'affronter d'importantes décisions dans le domaine du personnel.

**Mathieu Wyss** : Il est juriste et diplômé en gestion et occupe, depuis qu'il est entré dans l'entreprise il y a trois ans, un poste de responsable de la gestion des propriétés foncières. Ses fonctions principales sont l'achat de terrains pour les filiales de LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE ainsi que l'encadrement et l'édification des restaurants sur ces terrains.

**Robert Meyer** : Il est avocat et est depuis 15 ans le conseiller juridique de LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE.

**Jean Bonnard** : Il est diplômé en gestion et s'est élevé au poste de contrôleur après 6 ans de dur travail.

Ces derniers temps vous avez rarement travaillé moins de 60 heures par semaine. Bien que vous disposez de moins de temps que vous ne désirez pour votre femme et vos trois filles, vous espérez que votre engagement sera récompensé avec la promotion au poste de successeur de Montandon. En effet vous pensez avoir de meilleures chances que Lehmann et Sommer. Mais vous avez tout de même peur que quelque chose puisse compromettre votre tentative de devenir directeur.

La personne à laquelle vous vous fiez le plus dans l'entreprise est votre secrétaire Lise Burki. Madame Burki est devenue votre secrétaire peu après son entrée dans l'entreprise. Elle vous a suivi lorsque vous avez gravi les échelons et connaît votre style de travail. Elle est très loyale envers vous, assidue et efficace.

Responsabilités de Pascal Chapuis :
La Bouchée Rapide : Directives pour tous les collaborateurs – Standards de conduite

Depuis sa fondation en 1974, agir de manière responsable et éthique envers les clients, les collaborateurs et l'environnement est une priorité pour la chaîne de restaurant La Bouchée Rapide. Tous les collaborateurs – du personnel de cuisine jusqu'au président du comité de direction – se doivent de suivre cette philosophie d'entreprise et ainsi d'examiner chacune de leurs actions en fonction des normes élevées de La Bouchée Rapide.

Directives envers les clients

Propreté et Sécurité - Nos clients doivent pouvoir considérer que nos restaurants sont à tout moment et partout parfaitement propres. De plus, ils ne doivent trouver chez nous que des produits alimentaires toujours frais, parfaits et traités de manière soigneuse et hygiénique.

Orientation Client - Le client est roi lors de ses visites à La Bouchée Rapide et doit toujours recevoir un service prévoyant et amical. Nous essayons de réaliser tous les souhaits des clients et réagissons immédiatement à leurs critiques et à leurs demandes.

Directives envers les collaborateurs

Justice et Dignité - Tous nos collaborateurs doivent être traités avec justice et dignité sur leur lieu de travail. En particulier, nous garantissons à nos collaborateurs un lieu de travail sans intimidation ni abus (sexuels ou autres).

Égalité des Chances - La Bouchée Rapide garantit les mêmes chances à tous les collaborateurs et candidats ayant des qualifications équivalentes. Au sein de l'entreprise, toute personne a les mêmes chances lors du recrutement ou dans le cadre de promotions, indépendamment de son sexe, de son origine, de son âge, de son orientation sexuelle ou de son handicap physique.

Directives envers l'environnement

Responsabilité - La Bouchée Rapide fait preuve d'une complète responsabilité par rapport aux personnes et à l'environnement pour tous les lieux où elle est implantée. En outre, La Bouchée Rapide encourage des initiatives visant à la promotion de la culture et à la protection de l'environnement partout où elle est implantée.

Ce texte n'est pas un règlement exhaustif. Ainsi, dans la vie professionnelle, des situations pour lesquelles aucune directive concrète n'a été préparée peuvent apparaître. Chaque collaborateur devrait ainsi conserver l'intention des directives existantes en l’appliquant aux situations réelles. Ainsi, dans ces conditions, quatre questions peuvent aider à prendre la bonne décision:

1. Mon action est-elle légalement acceptable ?
2. Puis-je répondre d'elle personnellement?
3. Les clients, les collaborateurs, les amis et la famille soutiendraient-ils ma décision ?
4. Me sentirais-je encore bien le lendemain après avoir pris cette décision?

Lorsque votre réponse à ces quatre questions est "oui", vous êtes sur la bonne voie !
La situation actuelle

Aujourd'hui mardi 20 avril 2008 à 7h30, vous, Pascal Chapuis, avez moins de 30 minutes de temps pour traiter votre courrier du matin avant votre rencontre avec Montandon à 8h00, rencontre qui va probablement durer tout a matinée. Hier soir vous êtes rentré tard d'un voyage à Zürich durant lequel vous avez rencontré divers conseillers au sujet de plans d'expansion pour LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE. Cet après-midi vous allez partir avec votre femme pour un voyage de dix jours à Tokyo où vous allez rencontrer des conseillers japonais au sujet de cette même affaire. Ce voyage vous rend nerveux. Beaucoup pourrait en dépendre. De plus vous n'êtes jamais allé au Japon.

Votre angoisse par rapport au voyage est également liée à vos espoirs d'être nommé directeur. En effet, pour cela vous devez impressionner le monde des finances en proposant un solide bilan de votre entreprise LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE et posséder l'habilité de présenter un tel bilan également à l'avenir.

Comme d'habitude Madame Burki a déposé dans votre courrier du matin seulement les dossiers qui demandent votre immédiate attention. Vous avez discuté de quelques points avec elle au téléphone pendant que vous étiez à Zürich. Vous devez à présent traiter le courrier du matin le plus rapidement possible. Utilisez les alternatives de décision que Madame Burki a préparées pour vous. Celle-ci doit pouvoir suivre précisément vos instructions. Il est possible que pour certaines des décisions aucune des alternatives ne vous paraisse compatible, mais il est néanmoins très important que vous en choisissiez une. Lorsque vous avez effectué votre décision, vous pourrez faire des commentaires supplémentaires si vous le désirez.

Veuillez maintenant traiter le courrier du matin aux pages suivantes
Note interne

Monsieur Pascal Chapuis
Chef du département gestion
et finances

Mathieu Wyss
Responsable du service de
la gestion des propriétés foncières

18 avril 2008

Fourniture INTERNORGA – Foire de Bâle

Comme vous le savez, je vous écris parce que l'année prochaine nous serons représentés à L'INTERNORGA. L'INTERNORGA est la principale foire spécialisée dans le secteur gastronomique en Suisse. C'est pourquoi je considère notre participation indispensable au vu de nos buts marketing. Malheureusement la direction de la foire ne nous a proposé aucune place de stand qui corresponde à nos attentes. En effet, il y a encore deux places de libre dans les salles en position centrale où sera installée une grande partie de nos concurrents et du coup aussi le public le plus important. Mais malheureusement ces places sont relativement grandes et par conséquent vraiment chères. Toutes les places libres et bon marché se trouvent dans des salles portant sur d'autres thématiques ou à des endroits plutôt cachés.

Comment dois-je procéder dans ce cas?

_Monsieur Chapuis, comment dois-je me comporter par rapport à INTERNORGA? Veuillez souligner la réponse qui convient._

1. Nous allons renoncer à cette participation et nous ne prendrons part à une autre foire.

2. Choisissez l'une des places bon marché. Celui qui est intéressé par notre société nous trouvera également là-bas.

Note interne

Monsieur Pascal Chapuis                         Robert Meyer
Chef du département gestion                    Conseiller juridique
et finances                                    17 avril 2008

Notre collègue Geneviève Jacquier

   Comme vous le savez, puisqu’ils ne sont plus amis, Matthias Walter veut virer sa
   collègue Geneviève Jacquier. Personnellement je crois que Madame Jacquier est une très
   bonne trésorière pour les propriétés foncières et excellente négociatrice pour notre société. Je
   sais qu’elle nous a épargné des frais considérables lors de l’achat de notre dernier terrain à
   Genève. En outre, et plus important encore, si nous la virons elle risque aussitôt de nous
   intenter une action judiciaire pour motifs de licenciement injustifiés.

   J’ai réussi à persuader Monsieur Wyss à attendre jusqu’à la fin de la semaine prochaine
   avant d’effectuer le licenciement. Que dois-je lui transmettre de votre part ?

   Monsieur Chapuis, que dois-je transmettre à Monsieur Meyer ? Veuillez souligner votre
   réponse.

   1. Madame Jacquier est la collègue de Monsieur Wyss; la décision en revient donc à
      ce dernier.

   2. Madame Jacquier ne sera en aucun cas renvoyée.

   3. Je trouverai une solution après les vacances d’été. Dites à Monsieur Wyss de
      patienter d’ici là.
Note interne

A tous les collaborateurs

Anne Lavanchy
Président-Directeur Général

15 avril 2008

Rappel: Codes de conduite

Chers collègues,

Dans notre dernier courrier interne, nous avions rapporté que dans l’un de nos magasins, une employée avait été victime de harcèlement de la part de son superviseur. Après avoir étudié et clarifié cette affaire, il a été décidé de rompre le contrat du superviseur avec effet immédiat. Pour cette raison, j’aimerais rappeler à votre intention que nos directives et codes de conduite concernent chaque employé. Je tiens aussi à préciser que toute personne ne respectant pas un de ces codes devra faire face à des conséquences négatives, pouvant mené jusqu’au licenciement immédiat.
Note interne

Monsieur Pascal Chapuis                Marie Sommer
Chef du département gestion         Cheffe du département
et finances                        Distribution

19 avril 2008

Budget de voyage pour le département Distribution

Je viens d'être informée que notre budget de voyage et de frais de 50'000 Frs pour 2008 est déjà complètement épuisé suite à des réservations effectuées à l'avance. Néanmoins, j'aimerais bien envoyer quatre de mes plus importants employés marketing à la conférence de l'Union Européenne de marketing aux Grandes Canaries la semaine prochaine. Ils ont déjà effectué les réservations et attendent à présent une autorisation. J'ai parlé avec Madame Lavanchy et elle semble penser que nous ne devrions pas prendre l'histoire du budget à la lettre et que nous pouvons tout simplement le dépasser. En définitive il ne s'agit que d'une somme de 5'000 Francs.

_Monsieur Chapuis, que dois-je communiquer à Monsieur Bonnard ? Veuillez souligner votre réponse._

1. Envoyez les quatre employés de marketing à la Conférence aux Grandes Canaries.

2. Cette année nous devons renoncer à la participation à la conférence aux Grandes Canaries. Annulez les réservations.
Note interne

Monsieur Pascal Chapuis  
Jean Bonnard
Chef du département gestion  
Contrôleur
et finances

19 avril 2008

Achat de la Filiale 91 (restaurant et terrain)

Je voudrais vous informer au sujet de ma rencontre avec Monsieur Montandon il y a quelques semaines en raison de l'achat du restaurant et du terrain au nord de Lucerne (Filiale 91). Comme vous le savez, les négociations pour l'achat de cette filiale ont duré presque six mois. Et ceci bien que SensPourSens SA nous ait fait une offre qui était trop bonne pour être refusée. C'est presque incroyable que ce terrain tellement important pour SensPourSens SA soit proposé dans les négociations pour un tel montant. En effet celui-ci accroîtra considérablement nos profits à travers les gains que nous pourrions comptabiliser à l'achat. Il semblerait que notre terrain soit l'un des derniers dont SensPourSens SA aurait besoin, pour pouvoir construire un grand centre commercial.

Le problème est que l'achat n'a pas encore été conclu ; Monsieur Montandon s'est beaucoup empressé afin que nous puissions encore comptabiliser ces bénéfices pour ce trimestre. Cependant SensPourSens SA n'est pas satisfait à cause de quelques petits points du contrat qui, à mon avis, ne pourront pas être éclaircis d'ici à fin mai.

Monsieur Montandon est d'avis que la comptabilisation des négociations pour ce trimestre-ci nous permettrait d'obtenir un bénéfice fiscal d'environ 150'000 Francs. D'après moi – et je l'ai également dit à Monsieur Montandon – comptabiliser l'argent sur notre premier trimestre serait illégal et contre nos pratiques des affaires. Mais comme vous le savez, ce n'est pas facile de parler avec Monsieur Montandon.

_Monsieur Chapuis, que dois-je transmettre à Monsieur Bonnard ? Veuillez souligner votre réponse._

1. Concluez l'affaire le plus vite possible et comptabilisez les bénéfices pour ce trimestre.

2. Efforcez-vous de conclure rapidement l'affaire, mais comptabilisez les bénéfices pour le prochain trimestre.
Note interne

Monsieur Pascal Chapuis                      Anne Lavanchy
Chef du département gestion                 Président-Directeur Général
et finances                                 

14 avril 2008

Monsieur Richard Lehmann
Chef du département Opérations d’entreprise

Madame Marie Sommer
Cheffe du département distribution

Successseur de Monsieur Montandon

Comme vous le savez, Monsieur Montandon va bientôt quitter l'entreprise et l'un d'entre vous va probablement être désigné/e pour lui succéder. J'ai pensé qu'il serait plus loyal de vous communiquer le type de personne que nous voulons pour le remplacement de Monsieur Montandon.

Nous voulons une personne avec d'énormes compétences sociales qui démontre un talent de directeur capable de rassembler une bonne équipe et de la motiver à obtenir d'excellentes performances.

Bien entendu il est important que le/a nouveau/elle directeur/directrice maîtrise le côté financier des affaires et sache évaluer l'importance de chaque département de l'entreprise.

Si vous avez des question ou des remarques, veuillez en parler avec Monsieur Montandon ou avec moi-même. Soyez conscients que nous, tout comme vous, voulons le meilleur absolu, un directeur/directrice avec des compétences sociales qui connaisse méticuleusement notre entreprise LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE.
Réoccupation du poste de responsable de référence des ressources humaines

J'ai prié mes collègues d'effectuer une présélection à l'arrivée des candidatures. Il en résulte à présent une liste qui à notre avis peut entrer en ligne de compte.

Montandon vous a chargé de sélectionner les trois candidats les plus appropriés pour un entretien.

Tenez-moi s'il vous plaît au courant de votre décision, afin que je puisse arranger le nécessaire.

Veuillez tenir compte du fait que je quitte l'entreprise dans moins de quatre semaines.

Je vous remercie d'avance !

Monsieur Chapuis, avant d'effectuer votre décision, observez le courrier de Monsieur Montandon.

Madame Burki
Note interne

Monsieur Pascal Chapuis
Chef du département gestion et finances

Daniel Montandon
Directeur

15 avril 2008

Sélection d'un nouveau responsable de référence des ressources humaines

Cela me rassure de savoir que la nouvelle affectation au poste de Madame Lavanchy-Steiner incombe à votre responsabilité. S'il vous plaît veuillez toutefois tenir compte de trois critères qui me tiennent à cœur.

1) Nous avons besoin d'une personne avec de l'expérience dans le secteur gastronomique. Je n'aimerais personne qui soit nouveau dans ce business.

2) Nous avons besoin de quelqu'un avec de l'expérience dans les ressources humaines. Il est temps qu'une personne avec l'expérience correspondante nécessaire gère les problèmes liés au personnel.

3) J'ai déjà rapidement jeté un coup d'œil aux candidatures et j'ai remarqué qu'il y a également quelques étrangers parmi les candidats. En prenant votre décision, gardez à l'esprit que ce département n'emploie actuellement que des employés suisses. Ainsi, il est important pour l'entreprise de conserver cette bonne alchimie.

Je pense que dans cette affaire nous devrions nous conduire comme d'habitude. Choisissez trois personnes de la liste des candidats pour un entretien d'embauche.

_Monsieur Chapuis – voici ici la liste des candidats._

_Madame Burki_
Candidat n°1 – Jean-Daniel Dupuis

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 8 ans: cadre supérieur collaborateur dans le département du personnel chez Leiser

Formation
- Études en économie politique à Neuchâtel

Score-Test-Manager
- 63

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme - Âge: 38
- Etat civil: marié, vit avec sa femme et ses deux enfants à Yverdon-les-Bains

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e
Veuillez marquer le numéro qui à votre avis correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e.

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<th>Très bien</th>
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<td>1. Conditions préalables pour le job</td>
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<td>2. Expérience professionnelle pour le job</td>
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<td>3. Aptitudes pour le job dans son ensemble</td>
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Candidat n°2 – Ansor Dallku

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 4 ans: cadre supérieur collaborateur dans la gestion chez Spar (coordination du personnel)
- 6 ans: directeur dans une filiale de Burger King à Genève

Formation
- Études en économie politique à Genève

Score-Test-Manager
- 72

Informations supplémentaires
- Connaissances parfaites de l’allemand et très bonnes connaissances de l’anglais
- Sexe: homme - Âge: 38
- Etat civil: marié, vit avec sa femme et son enfant à Nyon

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e
Veuillez marquer le numéro qui à votre avis correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e.

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**Candidat n°3 – Lorik Beqaj**

**Expérience professionnelle pertinente**
- 12 ans: chef du département ressources humaines chez Boss (Central)

**Formation**
- Études en gestion d'entreprise à Lucerne

**Score - Test - Manager**
- 68

**Maîtrise des langues**:
- très bonnes connaissances de l'allemand et de l'anglais

**Informations supplémentaires**
- Sexe: homme
- Âge: 44
- Etat civil: célibataire, vit à Fribourg mit avec sa compagne

**Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e**
Veuillez marquer le numéro qui à votre avis correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e.

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**Candidat n°4 – Jean-Marc Müller**

**Expérience professionnelle pertinente**
- 3 ans: Collaborateur de service dans un restaurant « Le Grand Lac » à Montreux
- 2 ans: Cadre supérieur collaborateur dans la planification d'offres chez « Le Grand Lac » et 5 ans :
  activité de responsable du personnel (gestion centrale)

**Formation**
- Études en alternance en gestion d'entreprise à Lausanne

**Score - Test - Manager**
- 73

**Maîtrise des langues**:
- très bonnes connaissances d'anglais

**Informations supplémentaires**
- Sexe: homme
- Âge: 36
- Etat civil: célibataire

**Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e**
Veuillez marquer le numéro qui à votre avis correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e.

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<td>3. Aptitudes pour le job dans son ensemble</td>
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</table>
Candidat n°5 – Jean Robert

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 3 ans: Activité de cadre supérieur chez un grand Pizza-Service régional avec une entreprise de restauration
- 4 ans: Responsable du personnel, surtout dans les mesures du développement du personnel

Formation
- Études en économie politique à Neuchâtel

Score–Test–Manager
- 74

Maitrise des langues :
- très bonnes connaissances d'anglais

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme - Âge: 39
- Etat civil: marié, vit avec sa femme et ses deux enfants à Lausanne

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e
Veuillez marquer le numéro qui à votre avis correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e.

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<td>3. Aptitudes pour le job dans son ensemble</td>
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Candidat n°6 – Pierre Feldman

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 6 ans: Activité de coordinateur du personnel chez Palmolive (expérience en tant que coach de vente)

Formation
- Études en gestion d'entreprise à Genève

Score–Test–Manager
- 65

Maitrise des langues :
- très bonnes connaissances d'anglais

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme - Âge: 39
- Etat civil: célibataire, vit avec sa compagne à Morges

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e
Veuillez marquer le numéro qui à votre avis correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e.

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Candidat n°7 – Debatik Toski

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 6 ans: Activité dans une entreprise de restauration (service)
- 4 ans: Collaborateur lors de l'introduction de groupes de travail autonomes chez Pizza-hut, dont 2 ans en tant que responsable de projet dans un domaine régional

Formation
- Études en alternance en gestion d'entreprise à Fribourg

Score–Test–Manager
- 75

Maîtrise des langues :
- connaissances parfaites de l’allemand et très bonnes connaissances de l’anglais

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme
- Âge: 45
- Etat civil: marié, vit avec sa femme et son enfant à Fribourg

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e
Veuillez marquer le numéro qui à votre avis correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e.

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Candidat n°8 – Blerim Berisha

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 8 ans: cadre supérieur collaborateur d'une société de consultation pour entreprises (planification du personnel)

Formation
- Études en gestion d'entreprise à Lausanne

Score–Test–Manager
- 63

Maîtrise des langues :
- très bonnes connaissances d'allemand et d'anglais

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme
- Âge: 35
- Etat civil: célibataire, vit avec sa compagne à Vevey

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e
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Note interne

Réoccupation du poste de responsable de référence des ressources humaines

*Monsieur Chapuis, veuillez me transmettre les noms des trois candidats/es qu'il faut inviter pour un entretien d'embauche. Reportez s'il vous plaît les trois noms correspondants à votre choix dans un ordre précis (donc le/la candidat/e le/la plus approprié/e d'abord, le deuxième choix ensuite, etc.)*

Candidat/e N° ____,
Nom : ______________________________

Candidat/e N° ____,
Nom : ______________________________

Candidat/e N° ____,
Nom : ______________________________

*Merci beaucoup*

*Madame Burki*
Note interne

Monsieur Pascal Chapuis  
Jean Bonnard  
Chef du département gestion  
Contrôleur  
et finances  
14 avril 2008

Demande de congé

Lorsque j’aurai bouclé le bilan du trimestre, j’aimerais bien prendre deux jours de congé. Que pensez-vous de la semaine suivant votre retour du Japon ?

Bonne chance pour votre voyage d’affaires !

Monsieur Chapuis, que dois-je répondre à Monsieur Bonnard ? Veuillez souligner la réponse qui convient.

1. Je vous accorde le congé.
2. Je déciderai du congé à mon retour.

Merci beaucoup

Madame Burki
Note interne

Monsieur Pascal Chapuis
Chef du département gestion et finances

Julie Lavanchy-Bonnard
Responsable de référence des ressources humaines

16 avril 2008

Le programme « Service Culture » du Professeur Marchand

Comme vous vous le souvenez probablement, je suis une défenseuse du programme « Service et Culture » du Professeur Marchand. Je crois qu’il sait réellement de quoi il parle. Il a également écrit un livre au sujet de la qualité dans le secteur du service. Je pense donc qu’une renonciation à son programme compromettrait considérablement notre compétitivité.

Malheureusement je n’ai pas réussi à convaincre Monsieur Lehmann du programme du Professeur Marchand. J’aimerais que Monsieur Lehmann parle au moins une fois avec ce dernier. Je suis persuadée que s’il trouvait du temps pour le rencontrer, il finirait par accepter d’introduire le programme chez LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE.


Monsieur Chapuis, voulez-vous que j’écrive une annotation dans cette affaire? Veuillez souligner la réponse qui convient.

1. Adresser une annotation à Monsieur Lehmann en le priant de rencontrer le Professeur Marchand.

2. Adresser une annotation à Monsieur Montandon dans laquelle vous l’informez de la recommandation de Madame Lavanchy-Steiner.


Merci beaucoup

Madame Burki
Questions sur l'exercice courrier du matin

Dans cette dernière partie nous désirons vous poser encore quelques questions sur l'exercice courrier du matin. S'il vous plaît, répondez à ces questions d'après vos souvenirs et ne regardez désormais plus en arrière.

Vous vous rappelez que dans votre rôle de Pascal Chapuis vous aviez à effectuer deux décisions liées au personnel.

A partir de huit candidats pour le poste de responsable de référence des ressources humaines vous deviez en sélectionner trois pour un entretien d'embauche. Le directeur Daniel Montandon vous a donné à ce propos quelques instructions sur les exigences relatives aux caractéristiques des personnes à choisir. Ce qui nous intéresse à présent c'est de voir jusqu'à quel point vous vous rappelez des qualités exigées.

Veuillez choisir parmi les options relatives aux critères de choix suivantes celle qui correspond le mieux aux objectifs de Daniel Montandon.

1. État civil
   - Monsieur Montandon préférait une personne célibataire.
   - Monsieur Montandon préférait une personne mariée.
   - Monsieur Montandon n'a exprimé aucune préférence quant à l'état civil des candidats.

2. Origine
   - Monsieur Montandon préférait un candidat suisse.
   - Monsieur Montandon préférait un candidat étranger.
   - Monsieur Montandon n'a exprimé aucune préférence quant à l'origine des candidats.

3. Expérience professionnelle
   - Monsieur Montandon préférait une personne avec de l'expérience professionnelle dans le secteur gastronomique et dans le domaine du personnel.
   - Monsieur Montandon préférait une personne avec de l'expérience dans le domaine de la vente.
   - Monsieur Montandon n'a exprimé aucune préférence quant à une expérience professionnelle particulière.
Appendix IV: DIT Cases

Cas 1 : Heinz et le Médicament

En Europe, une femme souffrait d’un type particulier de cancer et se trouvait proche de la mort. D’après les médecins, il existait un médicament qui pouvait la sauver. C’était une sorte de radium qu’un pharmacien de la même ville avait découvert tout récemment. La production du médicament était coûteuse mais le pharmacien le vendait dix fois plus cher. Il payait $200 pour le radium et vendait $2 000 une petite dose du médicament. Heinz, le mari de cette femme atteinte du cancer est allé voir tous les gens qu’il connaissait pour emprunter cette somme, mais il ne réussit qu’à amasser environ $1 000, ce qui n’était que la moitié du coût. Il dit au pharmacien que sa femme était mourante et lui demanda de lui vendre à moindre coût le produit ou de lui permettre de le payer plus tard. Mais le pharmacien lui répondit : «Non, j’ai découvert ce médicament et je vais faire de l’argent avec ». Alors, Heinz en désespoir de cause commença à songer à entrer par effraction dans la pharmacie et à voler le médicament pour sa femme.

Heinz devrait-il voler ce médicament ?

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1. Si les lois de la société vont être respectées.
2. N’est-il pas naturel qu’un mari aimant se soucie de sa femme au point de vouloir voler ?
3. Heinz est-il prêt à courir le risque d’essuyer des coups de feu ou d’être emprisonné pour vol dans l’espoir que le médicament puisse aider sa femme ?
4. Si Heinz est un lutteur professionnel ou exerce une influence considérable auprès de lutteurs professionnels.
5. Si Heinz volé pour lui-même ou dans le seul but d’aider quelqu’un d’autre.
6. Si les droits du pharmacien sur son invention doivent être respectés.
7. Si, d’un point de vue social et individuel, la réalité intrinsèque de la vie est plus englobante que le processus de la mort.
8. Quelles sont les valeurs fondamentales régissant la conduite des gens les uns envers les autres ?
9. Si on permet au pharmacien de se cacher derrière une loi sans valeur qui de toute manière protège uniquement les riches.
10. Si, dans ce cas, la loi va à l’encontre du droit le plus fondamental de n’importe quel membre de la société.
11. Si un pharmacien aussi cupid et cruel mérite d’être volé.
12. Voler dans un tel cas serait-il finalement plus bénéfique pour l’ensemble de la société ?

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Nicolas Roulin Discrimination Against Immigrants at Employment
Cas 2 : Un Prisonnier Evadé

Un homme avait été condamné à dix ans de prison. Après un an, cependant, il s'évada de la prison, s'installa dans une nouvelle région du pays et pris le nom de Thompson. Il travailla durement pendant huit ans et épargna suffisamment d'argent pour acheter sa propre entreprise. Il était juste avec ses clients, payait bien ses employés et donnait la plupart de ses profits à des œuvres de charité. Puis un jour, Madame Jones, une ancienne voisine, reconnut en lui l'homme qui s'était évadé de prison huit ans auparavant et qui était recherché par la police.

Madame Jones devrait-elle signaler Monsieur Thompson à la police et le faire retourner en prison ?

- [ ] Devrait le dénoncer
- [ ] Indécis/e
- [ ] Ne devrait pas le dénoncer

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1. M. Thompson n’a-t-il pas été assez bon pendant tout ce temps pour prouver qu’il n’est pas une mauvaise personne ?

2. N’encourage-t-on pas le crime chaque fois qu’une personne échappe à la punition pour son crime ?

3. Ne serait-on pas mieux sans les prisons et l’oppression de notre système légal ?

4. M. Thompson a-t-il vraiment payé sa dette envers la société ?

5. La société ne négligerait-elle pas ce à quoi M. Thompson devrait s’attendre en toute justice ?

6. Indépendamment de la société, quels bénéfices représentent les prisons particulièrement pour un homme charitable ?

7. Comment quelqu’un pourrait être assez cruel et sans cœur pour envoyer M. Thompson en prison ?

8. Serait-ce juste pour tous les autres prisonniers qui auraient à purger totalement leur peine si M. Thompson devait s’en tirer ?

9. Mme Jones était-elle une bonne amie de M. Thompson ?

10. Ne serait-il pas du devoir d’un citoyen que de dénoncer un criminel évadé, indépendamment des circonstances ?

11. De quelle manière sert-on le mieux la volonté du peuple et l’intérêt du public ?

12. L’emprisonnement de M. Thompson lui serait-il bénéfique ou protégerait-il quelqu’un ?

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Nicolas Roulin Discrimination Against Immigrants at Employment
**Cas 3 : Le Journal**

Fred, élève de terminale, voulait publier un journal étudiant où il pourrait exprimer plusieurs de ses opinions. Il voulait dénoncer l’usage de l’armée dans les conflits internationaux et critiquer certains règlements scolaires, comme celui interdisant aux garçons d’avoir les cheveux longs.

Avant de commencer son projet, il demanda la permission au directeur de son école. Le directeur accepta à condition que Fred lui montre tous les articles avant leur parution pour qu’il donne son accord. Fred accepta et lui soumit plusieurs articles pour son approbation. Le directeur lui donna son accord pour tous les articles et Fred publia deux numéros du journal au cours des deux semaines suivantes.

Cependant, le directeur n’avait pas prévu que le journal de Fred attirerait autant l’attention. Les élèves furent si emballés par le journal qu’ils commencèrent à organiser des protestations contre le règlement concernant les cheveux et d’autres règlements de l’école. Des parents en colère s’opposèrent aux opinions de Fred, et téléphonèrent au directeur pour lui dire que les propos tenus dans le journal étaient antipatriotiques et ne devraient pas être publiés. Face à ces réactions, le directeur ordonna à Fred d’arrêter la publication en lui expliquant que ses activités nuisaient au bon fonctionnement de l’école.

Le directeur devrait-il faire cesser la publication du journal ?

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1. Le directeur a-t-il plus de responsabilités envers les élèves ou les parents ?
2. Le directeur s’est-il engagé à ce que le journal soit publié pour une longue période ou a-t-il promis d’approuver un numéro du journal à la fois ?
3. Les protestations étudiantes s’intensifieraient-elles si le directeur arrêtait la publication du journal ?
4. Le directeur a-t-il le droit de donner des ordres aux étudiants lorsque le bien-être de l’école est menacé ?
5. Le directeur a-t-il la liberté de dire « non » dans ce cas ?
6. Le directeur empêcherait-il la tenue d’un débat en profondeur sur des questions importantes s’il mettait un terme à la publication du journal ?
7. Si l’ordre du directeur amènerait Fred à ne plus lui faire encore confiance.
8. Si Fred fait vraiment preuve de loyauté envers son école et de patriotisme envers son pays.
9. Quel effet aurait la fin du journal sur le développement du jugement et de la pensée critique de l’élève ?
10. Si Fred violait d’une façon quelconque les droits des autres en publant ses opinions.
11. Si le directeur devrait être influencé par quelques parents en colère alors qu’il est le mieux placé pour savoir ce qui se passe dans son école.
12. Si Fred utilise le journal pour susciter le mécontentement et la haine.

**ENONCE LE PLUS IMPORTANT**

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**2ème ENONCE LE PLUS IMPORTANT**

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**3ème ENONCE LE PLUS IMPORTANT**

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**4ème ENONCE LE PLUS IMPORTANT**

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Appendix V: Relation Between DIT P-Scores and Discrimination

Relation between P-scores and differences in suitability ratings:

Relation between P-scores and the number of out-group applicant selected: