The Impact of Supervisor’s Advice, Codes of Conduct, Accountability and Moral Attentiveness of Individuals on Discriminatory Behaviour Against Immigrants

Kleinlogel Emmanuelle

Master ès Sciences in Management
Organizational Behaviour Major

Faculty of Business and Economics (HEC)
Of Lausanne, Switzerland

Master Thesis
June, 5th 2009

Supervisor: Krings Franziska
Expert: Binggeli Steve
Abstract

Past studies on the personnel selection demonstrated that a supervisor’s advice to discriminate can lead to compliant behaviours. This study had the aim to extend past findings by examining what can overcome the powerful influence of the hierarchy. 50 Swiss managers participated to an in-basket exercise. The main task was to evaluate Swiss candidates (in-group) and foreigners (out-groups: Spanish and Kosovo Albanians) and to select two applicants for a job interview. Main results were the effect of codes of conduct to prevent discrimination against out-group applicants in the presence of a supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members. But, when participants were accountable to an audience, this beneficial effect disappears because participants followed the supervisor's advice. The second aim was to assess if the difference in responses between participants was related to their difference in moral attentiveness. Results showed some significant relationships but not always in the direction expected.

Keywords: personnel selection, discriminatory behaviours, obedience to a supervisor, codes of conduct, accountability, moral attentiveness

Les recherches antérieures sur la sélection du personnel ont démontré qu'un supérieur pouvait influencer ses subordonnés à agir de manière discriminatoire. Cette présente étude a pour but de compléter ces recherches en examinant ce qui pourrait empêcher cette obéissance. 50 managers suisses ont participé à un exercice de mise en situation. Ils devaient évaluer des candidats suisses (in-group) et étrangers (out-groups: espagnols et albanais du Kosovo), ainsi qu'en choisir deux pour un entretien d'embauche. Les résultats ont révélé que les participants ont préféré suivre les codes de conduite que le conseil du superviseur de défavoriser les étrangers. Toutefois, lorsqu’ils devaient justifier de leur décision, l'effet positif des codes de conduite s'est effacé pour laisser place à une discrimination envers les étrangers. Le second objectif fut d’examiner si les réponses des participants pouvaient être prédites par leur niveau d’attention à la morale. Des résultats controversés ont été trouvés.

Mots Clefs : sélection du personnel, comportements discriminatoires, obéissance face à un supérieur, codes de conduite, responsabilité de ses décisions, attentif à la morale

JEL Classification : J15, J71, M12
Table of Contents

Abstract .............................................................................................................................................. 2

Table of Contents ............................................................................................................................. 3

List of Figures .................................................................................................................................... 5

List of Tables ...................................................................................................................................... 6

1 Acknowledgements ....................................................................................................................... 7

2 Introduction ..................................................................................................................................... 8

3 Literature Review ............................................................................................................................ 11

3.1 Ethical Climate............................................................................................................................. 12

3.1.1 Codes of Conduct ................................................................................................................ 12

3.1.2 Role of Managers ................................................................................................................ 14

3.2 Discriminatory Behaviours ........................................................................................................ 15

3.2.1 The Power of the Hierarchy ................................................................................................. 16

3.2.2 Stereotypes on Immigrants ................................................................................................. 17

3.3 Application of Tools .................................................................................................................. 21

3.3.1 Codes Enforcement ............................................................................................................. 21

3.3.2 Accountability ..................................................................................................................... 22

3.4 Moral Attentiveness and Discrimination ..................................................................................... 25

3.4.1 Social Cognitive Theory ..................................................................................................... 25

3.4.2 Reynolds’ Construct of Moral Attentiveness ....................................................................... 27

4 Research Questions ........................................................................................................................ 29

4.1 Purpose 1: Organizational Context and Discrimination ............................................................. 29

4.2 Purpose 2: Linking Moral Attentiveness to Discriminatory behaviors ........................................ 33

5 Method .......................................................................................................................................... 36

5.1 Participants .................................................................................................................................. 36

5.2 Materials .................................................................................................................................... 38

5.2.1 Purpose 1: In-basket Exercise ............................................................................................ 38

5.2.2 Purpose 2: Moral Attentiveness Scale ................................................................................ 41

5.2.3 Pre-test .................................................................................................................................. 42

6 Results .......................................................................................................................................... 43

6.1 Manipulation Checks .................................................................................................................. 43

6.2 Suitability Ratings of Applicants .............................................................................................. 44

6.3 Number of Candidates Selected per Origin .............................................................................. 46

6.4 The Impact of Moral Attentiveness ......................................................................................... 49

7 Discussion ...................................................................................................................................... 64

8 Practical Implications .................................................................................................................... 76

9 Limitations and Future Research .................................................................................................. 77

References ......................................................................................................................................... 80
Appendix I: E-mail Sent to Managers........................................................................................................ 86
Appendix II: The In-basket Exercise........................................................................................................ 87
Appendix III: Moral Attentiveness Scale.................................................................................................. 110
List of Figures

Figure 3.1 Factors Affecting Ethical Climate ................................................................. 11

Figure 4.1 Hypotheses Model Related to Purpose 1 ......................................................... 33

Figure 4.2 Hypotheses Model Related to Purpose 2 ......................................................... 35

Figure 5.1 Highest Education of the Sample ................................................................. 36

Figure 5.2 Activities of the Sample ................................................................................. 37

Figure 6.1 Suitability Ratings Means per Origin ............................................................. 45

Figure 6.2 Means of Candidates Selected per Origin ...................................................... 48

Figure 6.3 Distribution of Perceptual Dimension Scores ................................................. 49

Figure 6.4 Distribution of Reflective Dimension Scores ................................................ 49

Figure 6.5 Difference in Suitability Ratings Difference between In-group and Out-group per Condition and per Level of Reflective Moral Attentiveness .......................................................... 53

Figure 6.6 Difference in Suitability Ratings Difference between the two Out-group per Condition and per Level of Perceptual Moral Attentiveness .......................................................... 56

Figure 6.7 Suitability Ratings of In-group Candidates per Condition and per Level of Reflective Moral Attentiveness .................................................................................. 58

Figure 6.8 Number of Kosovo Albanians Selected per Condition and per Level of Perceptual Moral Attentiveness .................................................................................. 61

Figure 6.9 Number of Spanish Selected per Condition and per Level of Perceptual Moral Attentiveness .................................................................................. 63

Figure 9.1 Hypotheses Model for Future Research ......................................................... 79
List of Tables

Table  4.1 Experimental Design: Between-Subject Design.......................................................... 30

Table  6.1 Correlations between Moral Attentiveness (MA) and Dependent Variables.............. 51
1 Acknowledgements

First of all, the author of this thesis would like to thank many people who participated and provided support to develop and achieve this research. Firstly, the author wants to acknowledge Professor Franziska Krings for giving her a chance to work under her supervision and also for her precious advice during this thesis. The author wants also to thank Nicolas Roulin (PhD Student, University of Neuchâtel, Switzerland) for his help. She is also grateful to many others people who have contributed to the success of this research, and especially the IEMS (Institut d’Economie et de Management de la Santé) in HEC of Lausanne (faculté des Hautes Etudes Commerciales) and HEG Neuchâtel (Hautes Ecoles de Gestion) for their help to contact managers to participate to the study. The author wants also to thank all participants for their contribution. Without their kindly participations, this thesis could not have been successful.
2 Introduction

In 1990, the proportion of foreigners in the Swiss population represented 18.1%. It is an important proportion that tends to increase over time; in 2004 they represented 21.8% and 22.1% in 2007. When compared to European countries, this proportion of foreigners living permanently in Switzerland is the highest after Luxembourg and Liechtenstein. In 2007, the working population was composed by 26.2% of foreigners. Among this melting pot of many nationalities, disparities in job occupation can be observed. In the second trimester of 2007, 25% of Swiss occupied a job which required high qualifications. This percentage is slightly smaller for foreigners (23%) but when data are analyzed in detail, foreigners are not allocated equally according to their nationality. North and West European workers represented 48% of managerial and scientific workers, whereas only 13% of people from South of Europe and 6.3% of people from the East of Balkans and Turkey were represented in this category. However, West Balkans and Turkish workers were highly represented in manual work (29%) with South European worker (25%), compared to Swiss workers who represented 14% in this category. It was also reported that foreigners are more likely to be unemployed than Swiss. In the second trimester of 2007, 7.1% are unemployed compared to a small proportion (2.7%) of Swiss unemployed (OFS, 2008).

These percentages demonstrate that Switzerland is composed by many nationalities, but this diverse population is allocated differently in term of occupation. This disparity can be the result of a difference in qualification. Thereby, it is interesting to know if at equal qualification, Swiss and foreigners have equal chances to be hired. Krings and Olivares (2007) found in their study a difference in treatment between minorities and Swiss applicants in the personnel selection. Swiss participants discriminated Kosovo Albanians candidates over Swiss and Spanish candidates for jobs requiring high interpersonal skills. Only few of them were chosen for a job interview in spite of the fact that they were equal to the others candidates (Swiss and Spanish) in languages and qualifications except their ethnicity.

Despite previous studies on this field, the personnel selection process is still not well-understood. The main cause is that it is a complex process and particularly because of the difficulty to collect full data about applicants and the situation (Petersen, Saporta & Seidel,
To make their decision, recruiters examine information about applicants and job requirement in order to know if there is a fit. If the comparison highlights a high suitability of an applicant, he or she has a higher chance to be hired than an applicant who does not fit with the job requirement (Krings & Olives, 2007). But, discrimination can appear at this stage and the difficulty is to find out this discrimination because recruiters may lie if they have to justify their choice: to hide discrimination, they may provide ambiguous information about why they chose this applicant and not the others. And as a lot of information have to be taken into account in the hiring process, it is easy to falsely justify their choice with non-discriminatory arguments (Petersen et al, 2005; Petersen & Togstad, 2006). Thereby, it is difficult to analyze mechanisms underlying the hiring process.

Discrimination can be defined as “unequal probabilities of getting hired” (Petersen et al., 2005, p. 420). To protect people against discrimination, diverse actions have been set up, as in the USA with the Civil Rights Act and the Americans with Disabilities Act (Lewis and Sherman, 2003). But, discrimination in organization is still a current problem and especially among minorities (Deitch, Barsky, Butz, Chan, et al., 2003; Petersen & Dietz, 2005; Petersen & Dietz, 2008; Umphress, Simmons, Boswell & Triana, 2008; Petersen & Krings, 2009). Past studies on discrimination in the personnel selection have showed mixed results. Some studies found little difference in treatment between in-group and out-group candidates while others studies revealed evidence on employment discrimination (Petersen & Krings, 2009). Thereby, it demonstrates that this phenomenon is context dependent and a lot of factors have to be taken into account to fully understand what enhance and what moderate discrimination in the workplace context.

This study had the first purpose to examine the effect of organizational context variables (supervisor’s advice, codes of conduct and accountability) on discrimination against minorities in the personnel selection. A replication of previous studies on compliant behaviours towards supervisor’s advice was made (e.g. Petersen & Dietz, 2000). The effect of codes of conduct was examined in order to support previous findings that supervisor’s advice is more influent than codes of conduct (e.g. Petersen & Krings, 2009). In addition, the effect of accountability was investigated in order to know if it can overcome the powerful effect of authority’s figure and so prevent discrimination when unethical advice are provided.
The second purpose of this study was to extend previous findings on discriminatory behaviors in the personnel selection. It was examined if regarding the different organizational context variables (supervisor’s advice, codes of conduct and accountability) the behavioral difference between participants is related to their difference in moral attentiveness. Reynolds (2008) developed the construct of moral attentiveness based on the social cognitive theory. This construct is defined by the author as “the extent to which an individual chronically perceives and considers morality and moral elements in his or her experiences” (p. 1027). He was the first to create such scale on chronic accessibility. Thus, to what the author of this thesis knew this study was the first to assess if the level of moral attentiveness of individuals is associated to discriminatory behaviors against minorities in the personnel selection.

The first part of this research briefly reviews literature about factors that can reduce and inversely factors that can enhance discrimination in organization. A review on the social cognitive theory and the moral attentiveness construct is also made. The literature review is followed by the methodology of this research and then by results. In a last part, a discussion and practical implications for organizations are set out. Finally, limitations of this study and some propositions for future research are made.
3 Literature Review

This literature review sets out factors that can enhance ethical climate and so reduce discrimination or inversely factors that can lead to discriminatory behaviours in organization. The different factors reviewed are summarized in the Figure 3.1. The main components to create ethical climate within organizations are codes of conduct and managers as models for employees. Threats refer to factors that may prevent ethical climate and so foster discrimination. They are mainly compliant behaviour towards unethical supervisor’s advice and stereotypes individuals have. Application of tools refers to factors that enhance compliance towards rules edited by companies to promote ethical climate. They are mainly codes enforcement and accountability. Hence, the presence or the absence of one of those factors in organization will affect behaviours of individuals and so will imply discrimination or inversely no discrimination.

![Figure 3.1 Factors Affecting Ethical Climate](image-url)
In the last part of this review, the moral attentiveness construct developed recently by Reynolds (2008) is set out. It is not represented in the Figure 3.1 because to what the author knew it has not been studied yet in the field of discrimination and therefore, the relationship between moral attentiveness and discrimination has not been yet demonstrated.

### 3.1 Ethical Climate

Ethical climate is a basis in organization to promote and enhance appropriate behaviours. In the following subsection, two situational variables contributing to ethical climate are mainly investigated: the formal system implemented in organization though codes of conduct and the informal system though the role of managers.

#### 3.1.1 Codes of Conduct

In organization, appropriate behaviours for employees are partially set out by formal systems. A formal system can be defined as “the written procedures and policies that direct behaviour so as to act to achieve the organization’s goal, and/or detect misconduct” (Falkenberg & Herremans, 1995, p. 134). Codes of conduct are part of the formal system in organization (Falkenberg & Herremans, 1995; Adam & Rachman-Moore, 2004). Codes of conduct are “written documents defining the ethical standards of an organization” (Petersen & Krings, 2009, p. 501). They set out the relationship between different actors, how they have to interact together and the rules of security for instance. They are “an explicit agreement” because when employees are hired they have to adhere to these formal rules (Coughlan, 2005, p. 45). Codes of conduct have different names as Kaptein and Schwartz (2008) noticed in their study. According to the body of literature on this topic, the authors highlighted some usual names as “code of ethics, code of conduct, business principles, corporate credo, corporate philosophy, corporate ethics statement, code of practice” (p. 112). In the present study, the name used is “codes of conduct”.
In the 1990s, organizational codes of conduct began to receive much more attention in spite of the fact it exists since many years; therefore many organizations began to adopt such codes (Adams, Tashchian & Shore, 2001; Adam & Rachman-Moore, 2004). The increasing amount of codes in organization was partially the result of diverse scandals as illegal payment exposed to the public in the 1970s. It had the effect to make public unethical behaviours made in organizations (White & Montgomery, 1980; Bowman, 1981). Thus, codes were a solution to change the image and to get back the confidence of people. Nowadays, they are used to promote appropriate behaviours and to clarify what is ethical and what is not ethical inside organizations (Petersen & Krings, 2009). Although nowadays codes are common, or at least in large companies (Petersen & Krings, 2009), the question of their effectiveness is still raised. Conflicting results on this topic do not allow claiming evidence about their effectiveness or inversely about their ineffectiveness (Cowton & Thompson, 2000; Adams, Tashchian & Shore, 2001; Lere & Gaumnitz, 2003; Kaptein & Schwartz, 2008). This discrepancy of findings can be explained by the fact that a lot of factors can influence individual’s behaviours. Moreover, individuals are all different and can react differently in a same situation. For example even in the presence of such formal systems, people can prefer to serve their own interest over the organization’s interest and rules. It refers to the common assumption that individuals are opportunistic (Falkenberg & Herremans, 1995). Additionally, the problem in organization is that all situations and therefore all appropriate behaviours cannot be written within codes of conduct. So the problem of formal systems is that it is a good guideline for appropriate behaviours but is a limited guideline.

However Adams, Tashchian and Shore (2001) found that codes of conduct have the main effect to create or improve an organizational ethical climate because it fosters “supportiveness for ethical behavior” (p. 199). Thereby, even if it is a limited guideline, codes have the effect to show that the organization matters about ethical behaviours. The authors demonstrated that participants working in a company which has adopted codes of conduct, perceived other organizational members and their organization as more ethical than participants working in a company which does not have adopted such codes. They also felt more encouraged to behave ethically and were more satisfy about their decisions concerning ethical dilemma. So, codes of conduct have the effect to make employees aware and more sensitive about ethical aspects in their organizational life. Codes act as an alert which signals that the company does not tolerate certain behaviours. The authors also highlighted that the presence of codes of conduct
is more important than the content. Even if individuals did not recall its content, they felt themselves encouraged to adopt ethical behaviour because work in an ethical climate. Therefore, the communication is more influent than the education of individuals about specific codes of conduct.

Overall even if some studies found no effect of codes of conduct, these codes have at least the main effect to make individuals aware and more conscious about this issue. So they have a different perception than people in organization without codes. But as individuals can endorse opportunistic behaviours, managers have also a crucial role in fostering ethical climate in addition to formal systems.

### 3.1.2 Role of Managers

Next to the formal system, an informal system plays also a role in guiding behaviours of employees. Informal systems can be defined as “common values, beliefs, and traditions that direct the behaviour of group members” (Falkenberg & Herremans, 1995, p. 134). They are “signals relayed by supervisors and co-workers” (Falkenberg & Herremans, 1995, p. 134) to guide employees’ behaviour. So as Adam and Rachman-Moore (2004) highlighted, in the informal system the “others” (p. 228) are crucial because are the mirror of their organization and organizational values. The “others” especially refers to managers, because before employees can diffuse values to other employees, managers have to propagate them. Therefore, managers have an important role regarding the organizational climate because are part of the informal system. Next to their role to organize tasks, guide their subordinates and assure the effectiveness and efficiency of their organization, they also have to transmit values and ethical standards. Morality is a component of management and so leaders and their values are a determinant for the development of an appropriate climate (Dickson, Smith, Grojean & Ehrhart, 2001). When they endorse values supporting ethical behaviours, they transmit them inevitably and contribute to develop an ethical climate. Thereby, they have the role to influence employees to act more ethically according to the ethical principles of their organization (Dickson, Smith, Grojean & Ehrhart, 2001). As Hyman, Skipper and Tansey (1990) highlighted is their studies, manager “is a showcase for the company” (p. 16).
Moreover contrary to formal systems, the informal system refers to tacit rules, so it is more likely to propagate the general willingness and philosophy of organizations. Thereby, informal systems can be seen as more complete and more useful than formal systems because with implicit rules, individuals can interpret general ethical principles to context specific situations (Falkenberg & Herremans, 1995). Falkenberg and Herremans (1995) found that employees perceived all systems as important and effective but they found in a higher proportion that the informal system is the most influent for ethical behaviours and help employees to guide their behaviours. So, the organizational environment is crucial to influence individuals because encourage ethical behaviours and discourage deviation. Adam and Rachman-Moore (2004) found similar results. The only problem with the informal system is that it is “the most fragile system for encouraged desired behaviours” (Falkenberg & Herremans, 1995, p. 136) because individuals can promote values that are incongruent with the formal system and so with the organizational goal. And as all situations cannot be predicted by the formal system, in some situations employees refer to the informal system as a guide (Falkenberg & Herremans, 1995). This problem is especially raised when managers do not endorse values in line with organizational values because can lead to discriminatory behaviours for instance.

Overall ethical climate can be created and developed with simple tools in organization, where codes of conduct and managers as models for employees play a crucial role. But, there are also threats to ethical climate. These threats can be organizational or personal.

### 3.2 Discriminatory Behaviours

In spite of ethical climate, discriminatory behaviours can be present in organization. It can be the result of an organizational situation which allows these behaviours, such as managers who endorse incongruent values and so encourage their subordinates to act unethically. Another threat to ethical climate refers to personal factors, in particular stereotypes of employees or of recruiters in the specific context of the personnel selection.
3.2.1 The Power of the Hierarchy

In organization, there is commonly a hierarchy. This hierarchy defines the authority relationship between organizational members. Thus, when employees receive an order from a higher hierarchical level, they have to comply. Past researches on compliant behaviours highlighted that employees are “role players whose roles include compliance with instruction from organizational authorities” (Petersen & Dietz, 2008, p. 1288). Hence, an authority figure can have a powerful influence on individuals according to his or her status, as Milgram (1963) demonstrated in his well-known electric shock experiment. In his experiment, in a learning context participants were instructed to ask questions to a learner (an accomplice) and to administer electric shock to punish him when he gave a wrong answer. The range of shock was from slight (15 volts) to severe (450 volts) and each time the learner gave a wrong answer, the shock administrated became higher. When participants indicated that they wanted to stop the experiment, the experimenter told them to continue. Results were surprising because the majority complied with the experimenter’s advice to continue and so they continued to administer shock until the highest shock level. As this experiment demonstrated, individuals can be led to act in a way that themselves alone would not do.

In organizational context, the major issue is that this hierarchical relationship “may have a potential dark side” (Brief et al., 2000, p. 177) because may foster unethical or illegal behaviours when directives from an authority figure are in conflict with organizational rules. As managers are models for employees, it implies that if a superior “steps out of line by one inch the employee will step out by a foot” (p. 141) as a participant highlighted in the study of Falkenberg and Herremans (1995). Petersen and Dietz (2000) demonstrated by using an in-basket exercise the powerful effect of authority figures’ advices in the personnel selection context. When participants in the role of recruiters were advised by their supervisor to discriminate out-group members (East German applicants), they effectively selected more in-group members (West German applicants) for a job interview than participants who did not receive the advice. Petersen and Dietz (2008) extended their previous findings and studied this phenomenon with individuals’ affective organizational commitment. They found that more employees were committed to their organization, more they followed the supervisor’s advice to prefer specific demographic group members, even if it involves discriminatory behaviours. Hence even in the presence of codes of conduct, authority figure have a powerful
influence. Petersen and Krings (2009) studied the impact of codes of conduct on employees’ behaviour and found that codes of conduct become “toothless tigers” (p. 510) when are in conflict with a supervisor’s advice to discriminate. So codes have a limited influence because become useless when authority figures encourage unethical behaviours. It is in accordance with findings of Falkenberg and Herremans (1995) which stated that informal systems are more influent than formal systems.

This extreme obedience to authority figures is the result of an interaction between an employee and a legitimate authority’s figure. This relationship is a necessary condition to foster individuals’ compliant behaviours (Brief et al., 2000). Petersen and Dietz (2008) highlighted the effect of a “displacement of responsibility” towards legitimate authority’s figure and the effect of the “role” of employees to comply with authority figures (p. 1288). Blass (1999) in his review of Milgram’s experiments also highlighted these two necessary conditions to imply compliant behaviours (the legitimate authority’s figure with the expertise and the transfer of responsibility). This compliance has the effect that people act according to orders received without taking care if the action or decision is unethical (Blass, 1999).

Next to the influence of supervisors’ unethical advices, individuals can be engaged in discriminatory behaviours because of stereotypes they have.

### 3.2.2 Stereotypes on Immigrants

In addition to compliant behaviours toward supervisor’s unethical advice, discriminatory behaviours can be the result of beliefs for instance. Ethnic minorities are often the target of discrimination (Petersen et al., 2005; Krings & Olivares, 2007); and it is often due to stereotypes. Stereotypes are: “beliefs about the characteristics, attributes, behaviours of members of certain groups” (Powell et al., 2002, p. 177).

The common stereotype towards immigrants is “incompetent and untrustworthy” (Lee & Fiske, 2006, p. 751). Studies conducted in different countries confirmed this general stereotype about immigrants. But, this perception by in-group members will change if
additional information is provided about immigrants. Particularly, past studies conducted in different countries revealed that the socioeconomic status of out-groups (immigrants) influences the in-group’s perception of them. For instance, rich people are perceived in general as accomplished but not nice. The origin or ethnicity of immigrants has also an influence on the in-group’s perception of them. For instance, Italians are perceived as warm and friendly but lax whereas Asians are perceived as shy but successful. This tendency to perceive in the same way people of similar origin across different countries comes from the fact that stereotypes are based on similar characteristics, such as religion of the country immigrants come from or based on economical factors of their country (Lee & Fiske, 2006). These stereotypes can have negative consequences in every day life of immigrants and especially in their working life.

For example in Western European countries, immigrants of the East of Europe are particularly negatively perceived (Krings & Olivares, 2007). Therefore, the personnel selection process is affected because decision-makers are influenced by stereotypes (Lewis & Sherman, 2003). It implies that the assessment of applicants is not based on objective criteria because is biased by a subjective evaluation through stereotypes. Krings and Olivares (2007) studied discrimination in the personnel selection with Swiss participants and found that even the young second generation of immigrants are treated differently despite the fact they master the same language and have the same qualification than Swiss applicants. They studied in particular the difference in treatment between Swiss, Spanish and Kosovo Albanians, and found that discrimination was especially towards Kosovo Albanians. They explained this phenomenon by the fact that Kosovo Albanians are part of the ethnic group that is the most dislike in Switzerland, whereas Spanish are well-accepted. They also found that Kosovo Albanians were particularly discriminated for jobs requiring high interpersonal skills, because this discrimination disappeared when they applied for jobs requiring high technical skills. Interpersonal skills are difficult to evaluate without meeting applicants because refer to communication skills; it can be evaluated for example during an interview. In spite of this fact, as Kosovo Albanians are perceived less favourably than Swiss and Spanish people, very few were selected for an interview in the case of a job referring to high interpersonal skills. This finding demonstrated that the decision-making is highly influenced by subjective evaluation because applicants were equal in all way, except their ethnicity.
This difference in treatment between Spanish and Kosovo Albanians applicants found by Krings and Olivares (2007) illustrates very well the fact that all immigrants are not perceived equally by in-group members according to their origin or ethnicity. The Stereotype Content Model tends to explain this phenomenon. This model states that stereotypes are based on the presence or not of intergroup competition and on difference in group status. The combination of both determines reactions in term of emotions and behaviours that in-group members will have towards out-group members. Therefore stereotypes, emotions and behaviours have a cause relationship (Caprariello, Cuddy & Fiske, 2009). This model states in particular that in-groups based their social perception of out-groups by answering two questions: "Is the outgroup's intention good or ill toward me and my group (friend or foe)? and Can the outgroup members enact their intentions (able or unable)?" (Lee & Fiske, 2006, p. 753). These two questions represent well the two dimensions focused by the Stereotype Content Model: warmth and competence. This model states that in-group perceives out-groups on these two dimensions though competition for warmth and though status of out-groups for competence and thus it will create specific stereotypes about out-groups. These relationships between competition and warmth and between status and competence have been upheld by several studies conducted in many countries and across culture. For instance, it has been supported that groups perceived as highly competitive are stereotyped with low warmth and inversely groups perceived as non competitive or cooperative are stereotyped as warm. Groups perceived with a high status are stereotyped as competent and inversely groups perceived with a low status are stereotyped as not competent (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007). So higher is the group's status of immigrants, higher is their competence perceived, and higher is the competition perceived between in-group and out-group members, less out-group members are perceived as warm by in-group members. It implies that if the status of an immigrant changes or the competition changes, the in-group’s perception of the immigrant will also change. For instance, applicants with a high status jobs as professional background are perceived as better in term of performance and careers achievement than a similar applicants with a low status jobs as professional background (Caprariello, Cuddy & Fiske, 2009). Difference in perception can also appear at the subgroup level. For instance women are perceived as competent or warm depending on their occupations (professionals or homemakers) (Lee & Fiske, 2006).
According to the perception of immigrants in term of status (competence) and competition (warmth), four kind of emotional responses of in-group members towards out-groups are set out by the Stereotype Content Model. If an out-group is perceived as highly warm and highly competent, it implies an emotion of admiration by in-group members and inversely if an out-group is perceived as low in warmth and not competent, it implies an emotion of content by in-group members. If an out-group is perceived as highly warm but not competent, it implies an emotion of pity. Inversely, if an out-group is perceived as low in warmth but highly competent, it implies an emotion of envy by in-group members (Caprariello, Cuddy & Fiske, 2009). Some studies on this topic found that groups perceived as warm and competent are in-groups, groups perceived as incompetent and cold are poor people, groups perceived as competent but not warm are Asians and Jews and finally groups perceived as warm but not competent are elderly (Cuddy, Fiske & Glick, 2007).

Binggeli and Krings (2009) studied how different groups of people (i.e. poor people, rich people and housewives) and different groups of immigrants (e.g. from Portugal, Italy, France) are perceived in Switzerland by Swiss people using dimensions of the Stereotype Content Model, warmth and competence. It was asked to participants how they perceive the different groups present in Switzerland by using the French version of the questionnaire developed by Belgian researchers of the cross cultural study of the Stereotype Content Model. They found that in-group members (Swiss) perceived themselves as highly warm and competent. Immigrants from Spain were perceived highly warm but slightly less competent than in-group members (Swiss) but still highly competent. Concerning immigrants from Balkans, they were perceived as the immigrants’ group the less warm and with very low competence. These results can explained why Kosovo Albanians were discriminated over Spanish candidates in the study of Krings and Olivares (2007). Immigrants from Balkans are very negatively perceived by Swiss people. The main plausible explanation is stereotypes towards this out-group because none information about out-group members were provided to participants in the study of Binggeli and Krings (2009).

Overall, situational factors as well as personal factors have to be taken into account to fully understand the mechanism of discrimination towards immigrants in the personnel selection.
Some foster ethical climate and others enhance discriminatory behaviours. Despite this complexity, past studies tempted to find solutions to overcome this phenomenon.

### 3.3 Application of Tools

In organization, to overcome discriminatory behaviours diverse tools can be used as codes of conduct. But it is often necessary to use “more than simple tools” to make apply these tools. Two means are mainly reviewed in the following section. Their common point is the threat of punishment.

#### 3.3.1 Codes Enforcement

Unethical behaviours are more likely to occur in certain situation than in others. For example Hegarty and Sims (1978) highlighted situations which foster such behaviours like those of strong competitiveness between employees, or when employees have difficulties to reach their goals. The problem is when employees are rewarded when they adopt these behaviours. In this case, they are more likely to repeat their unethical act in the future (Hegarty & Sims, 1978). Another problem is that even in the presence of codes of conduct, individuals behave unethically in certain situations. For example to paraphrase the term used by Petersen and Krings (2009), codes of conduct become “toothless tigers” (p. 510) when are in conflict with supervisors’ advices.

A solution to prevent unethical behaviours in organizations can be the “threat of punishment” (Hegarty & Sims, 1978, p. 456). This threat can be implemented through codes enforcement. If individuals know in advance that they will be punished if they act unethically, they will think twice about their behaviours before acting. Petersen and Krings (2009) demonstrated that codes of conduct become powerful when are enforced. In the condition of codes enforcement, they observed a preventing effect of discrimination even in the presence of contradictory supervisor’s advice. It can be explained by the fact that individuals are
discouraged to violate rules stated through codes of conduct because are threatened by sanctions.

But codes enforcement cannot solve all situations of discrimination. A major problem in decision-making is when there is ambiguity about how to make decisions. What can be done in this situation is to make decision-makers accountable to an audience.

### 3.3.2 Accountability

Hsee (1996) distinguished in his study two kinds of factors that are involved in the decision-making process. There are justifiable factors and unjustifiable factors, which reflect the opposition should/want. The former refers to factors that people should take into account in their decision-making, whereas the latter refers to factors that people want to take into account in their decisions but know they should not. This can also be explained by the opposition objectivity, where for example criteria to hire a person are skills and professional background and the subjectivity, where criteria can be the ethnicity or the better looking person. There is ambiguity when weights of different criteria in decision-making are not clear. In this case, ambiguity about certain factors may give an excuse to individuals to take into account unjustifiable factors to make decisions. Thus it allows duping and distorting the evaluation of candidates because decision-makers can interpret things as they want (but should not). Whereas, in situations where there is no ambiguity only justifiable factors can be taken into account because the decision-making process is transparent (Hsee, 1996).

To overcome the problem of ambiguity and so to not allow unjustifiable factors influenced decision-making, a solution can be to introduce a justification pressure. Normally, employees have to be prepared to justify their act or decision-making. The justification has to be appropriate and reasonable: so codes are important for employees because are supports for their justifications. It can be viewed as a guideline to base their justifications on good arguments or with “ethical justifications” (Coughlan, 2005, p. 45). Such requirement can play as a pressure on decision-makers. A situation of justification pressure is defined as a situation "where the decision maker knows in advance that he or she has to justify the choice (in
Justification pressure is called also accountability. Accountability is defined by Tetlock and Boettger (1989) as "pressure to justify one's views to others" (p. 388). Lerner and Tetlock (1999) defined it as “the implicit or explicit expectation that one may be called on to justify one’s beliefs, feelings and actions to others” (p. 255). Scott and Lyman (1968) made a distinction between accounts and explanations. They explained that the latter refers to actions that do not have critical implications and defined justifications as “accounts in which one accepts responsibility for the act in question” (p. 47).

Previous studies on this field found that when people are confronted to justification pressures, they take into account a large amount of information and a more elaborate and complex decision-making or choice process (Tetlock 1983; Tetlock 1985; Tetlock & Boettger, 1989; Huber & Seiser, 2001; Huber, Bär & Huber, 2009). This can be explained by the fact that with justification pressures, people know they are accountable directly to an audience and thereby have the entire responsibility to explain why they took this decision and not another. They have the responsibility to provide "good arguments" in order to defend their decisions or actions (Coughlan, 2005). They also feel themselves more responsible of their decisions because if the justification is not appropriate or non-satisfactory, it will have negative consequences (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). As Huber, Bär and Huber (2009) explained, this pressure plays as an alert “to the necessity of making a good decision because a bad decision may have additional negative consequences” (p. 18). Therefore to avoid these negative consequences, people are motivated to prepare their argumentation, try to get a large amount of information and a complete understanding of the situation to be able to answer possible questions of the audience about the issue involved (Tetlock & Boettger, 1989). Hence, people examine more carefully the situation and information to be sure that the decision they took was the best and to demonstrate that they did a rational choice. They consider more the pros and cons in a dilemma and anticipate counterarguments. Moreover, people who think their positions will not be the same as the position of the audience will increase their cognitive effort (Tetlock, 1983). They do not want to overlook important information and to bear the responsibility of a bad decision. Therefore, people are prepared to justify their choice but also to justify the alternatives not chose (Huber & Seiser, 2001).
Overall, accountability make individuals more vigilant and are engaged in a more complex cognitive effort because want to make the best decision and want to avoid embarrassment, to appear foolish and to avoid a loss of self-esteem in the case of a bad judgment (Tetlock, 1983; Huber, Bär & Huber, 2009). As a result, accountability may have the effect to reduce or eliminate judgmental biases because it forces people to be more vigilant, self-conscious, self-criticism in how they analyze the situation and the information, and it forces also people to overcome their beliefs (Tetlock 1983; Tetlock 1985). Therefore, accountability improves judgmental performance and quality of decision-making.

But accountability can involve the opposite situation. Many studies revealed evidence that human beings often tend to avoid mental efforts which require a consequent attention or concentration (Tetlock, 1983). In this case individuals try to make few efforts in decision-making and this "low effort attitude" may guide their behaviours. It can also involve that people may not take the position that are difficult to justify (Tetlock & Boettger, 1989). Or in situations where the person knows the position of the audience to whom he or she is accountable, this person will adopt this position and so will not make a cognitive effort and a careful judgment about the situation to defend his or her position. It is the strategy of low-effort by adopting the same view of the audience. The positive effect of accountability can also fail when it is a figure perceived as non-legitimate who require justifications (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999) or when special knowledge are required for the decision-making and decision-makers do not have the capabilities to solve the problem. In this case, accountability does not have the effect to reduce judgmental bias. It can even amplify the bias when decision-makers choose the situation which is the most easy to justify (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999; Huber, Bär & Huber, 2009).

To conclude, accountability can be very beneficial because can improve the quality of cognitive effort in general and imply that decision-makers become more vigilant to solve dilemma. By making people accountable to an audience and therefore personally responsible of their decisions, unethical behaviours can be prevented. But the effect of accountability is a complex phenomenon where a lot of parameters have to be taken into account (e.g. legitimacy of the audience, the capabilities of decision-makers) in order to fully beneficiate of its positive effects. Thereby to be powerful, it has to be used properly and carefully.
Despite all factors reviewed in previous section, such as ethical climate or threat of punishment, discriminatory behaviours can occur in organization. The inefficacy of tools investigated by organizations may be related to morality of employees and in particular to morality of recruiters in the context of personnel selection. Thus, the second purpose of this study was to examine if this inefficacy of tools such as codes of conduct on individuals’ behaviours can be explained by the level of moral attentiveness of these individuals.

### 3.4 Moral Attentiveness and Discrimination

Moral behaviour is a challenge nowadays in organizations. Thus diverse tools are used to promote and encourage such kind of behaviours, as codes of conduct. But next to the effort made by organizations to educate their employees about morality, the effectiveness of such interventions is not equal among individuals. Each individual is different from each other and so individuals do not react in the same way to rules implemented. A difference between individuals may be related to their morality and more precisely to the level of moral attentiveness they have. The main tenet of this study was that there is a relationship between the level of moral attentiveness of individuals and discriminatory behaviours. Some people care more about morality and moral aspect in everyday life than others, and therefore it may induce that more a person pays attention to moral aspects of everyday life experiences, more this person will act morally and less he or she will be engaged in discriminatory behaviours.

In the following section, a theoretical framework is set out before presenting the concept of moral attentiveness used in this study.

#### 3.4.1 Social Cognitive Theory

The way people perceive a situation or a dilemma is crucial for its resolution. The Social Cognitive Theory refers to individuals, how they perceive and understand everyday life (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). This theory states that individuals’ behaviours, their personal factors and environmental events are all linked and therefore each influences each others. It involves that a same factor can have a different effect according to the other factors. They all interact
together and this interaction determines the outcome (Bandura, 1986). Hence, this theory is a basis for understanding behavioural difference between individuals in a same situation.

Before acting or reflecting, individuals always need to represent in their mind what they see. This process is called "encoding" (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). It involves a small cognitive effort for individuals because is almost instantaneous. But all information perceived is not properly processed by individuals because some are ignored and some are misperceived. For example, in a same situation people can have different goals and this difference will affect how they perceive the situation and so these people will encode information differently. People also adjust their behaviour to new information perceived. It is called the "behavioural flexibility" (p. 511) by Fiske and Taylor (1991). Thus, individuals behave in a certain way according to the situation and what they think; but if an element of the situation changes, they will change their behaviours. It is a continuous three way interaction.

Among personal factors, the concept of chronic sources of accessibility is important because this concept explains why some individuals care more about certain stimuli than others and so explains why individuals' behaviours differ. A chronic source of accessibility refers to an automatic process which results in a difference of point of view between individuals. This process is influenced by individuals’ construct accessibility (Higgins, King & Mavin, 1982). Construct accessibility is the “readiness with which each construct is utilized in information processing” (p. 36). A construct can be available in the mind of all people in a situation, but their behaviours will differ according to the difference of accessibility to this construct. For example in a dilemma, some individuals base their decision-making on moral aspect, while others base their decision-making on the satisfaction of their own interest. Even if all individuals know about morality, they are all different in the way of processing information. In the example, they differ in their construct availability of morality, this means in the way of referring to moral aspects. Moreover, more a person activates a construct more this construct will be accessible (Higgins, King & Mavin, 1982). Thereby, chronic accessibility is when a construct is always accessible from memory. The accessibility to particular constructs tends to bias information processing of individuals because they are framed with specific aspects of situations (Shen, 2004). This can explain why people can act differently in a same situation.
Regarding this theoretical framework, Reynolds (2008) studied the effect of individuals’ moral attentiveness on their behaviours. So he developed a scale to measure this construct and then tested if it affects individuals’ behaviours and in which way. His research was a basis for the second purpose of this study. According to his findings, the effect of individuals’ moral attentiveness on discriminatory behaviours was investigated.

### 3.4.2 Reynolds’ Construct of Moral Attentiveness

Based on the Social Cognitive Theory, Reynolds (2008) developed the construct of *Moral Attentiveness* in order to demonstrate that when an individual pays attention and are more sensitive to moral aspects in everyday life, it affects his or her moral behaviour. First, he defined moral attentiveness as “the extent to which an individual chronically perceives and considers morality and moral elements in his or her experiences” (p. 1027). He used the Social Cognitive Theory to define this construct and also to examine the difference between individuals “in the amount of attention paid to morality and moral matters” (p. 1028). For the author, the moral attentiveness does not distinguish between what is moral and immoral but between what is moral to what is non-moral or amoral. He suggested that some individuals do not behave morally because are less morally attentive and so do not perceive and consider moral element in situations.

Reynolds (2008) suggested that morality is a construct chronically accessible and so influence individuals on two dimensions: their perception and their reflection in everyday experiences. The perception refers to an automatic process where individuals, without cognitive effort, perceive a situation from a particular point of view. It explains that dilemmas can be seen differently because individuals do not activate the same construct and so do not perceive the problem from the same perspective. In the previous example, the first person automatically perceives the issue in term of morality, whereas the second think in term of self-satisfaction and do not perceive moral elements. So this first dimension refers to the fact that individuals differ in their perception of moral aspects in everyday life. The second dimension, the reflective moral attentiveness, refers to an intentional cognitive effort in order to reflect on the situation. In this second dimension, individuals think about and examine the situation in term of morality, so individuals can also differ in their consideration of moral matters.
According to five empirical studies, Reynolds (2008) developed the moral attentiveness scale and tested its validity and its reliability. It was the first time such scale on chronic accessibility was created. The advantage of this scale is that it is not context or event dependent because was developed with the objective to use it in many fields. According to the scale built, he demonstrated that moral attentiveness of individuals influences their behaviours in three ways. First, it influences behaviour of individuals because affects the “recall and reporting of morality-related experiences” (p. 1029). People perceptually morally more attentive are able to recall and report more morality-related experiences than people weak on perceptual moral attentiveness. It is related to the fact that when individuals perceive more a moral dimension in their everyday life, they can recall more easily past experiences with moral issues. They are more able to detect those issues because they have the tendency to “overrepresent and exaggerate morale experiences” (p. 1029). But Reynolds (2008) also found that more an individual is morally attentive, more he or she reported immoral behaviours. It can be explained by the fact that as an individual is morally more attentive, he or she can recall more easily incidences he or she did. It refers to the perceptual moral attentiveness because is an automatic process. Secondly, it influences the behaviour of individuals because affects their moral awareness. The moral awareness is the ability for an individual to determine if a situation is a moral situation. As prior to determine if a situation is a moral situation, people have to reflect on the situation in term of morality, so moral attentiveness influences moral awareness via its reflective dimension. Thereby, higher is the level of reflective moral attentiveness of individuals, higher will be their moral awareness. And inversely, if a person does not examine a situation in term of morality, he or she cannot determine if it is a moral situation or not. Thirdly, it influences moral behaviours though moral awareness because individuals have to be morally aware to behave morally. So, moral attentiveness is associated to moral behaviour indirectly (through causal path). It refers to the reflective moral attentiveness dimension because involves a cognitive effort of individuals. This relationship can also be direct according to the concept of chronic sources of accessibility because even in the case of people who do not recognize a situation as a moral situation, the perceptual moral attentiveness of people can affect their behaviour through an automatic process.
Overall, the moral attentiveness construct is an important determinant of moral behaviour and therefore seems to be a pertinent factor that has to be taken into account when discriminatory behaviours are studied. Next to the others factors set out in the literature review, this construct may be a possible way to explain discrimination against immigrants in the personnel selection. For instance, it may help to explain why behaviours of individuals differ in a same situation and especially in a situation of ethical dilemma. In particular in this study, it was assessed if in situation of contradiction between codes of conduct and supervisor’s advice, it is the level of moral attentiveness of individuals which guides their choice. In this way, individuals with a high level of moral attentiveness would comply with codes of conduct while individuals with a low level of moral attentiveness would comply with supervisor’s advice to discriminate out-group members. Therefore, the second part of the experiment had the purpose to examine if moral attentiveness of individuals and their non-discriminatory or discriminatory behaviours are associated. The first part of this study had the main purpose to examine the effect of situational variables (supervisor’s advice, codes of conduct and accountability) on individuals’ behaviour. In the following parts of this study, research questions and the experimental design are set out before presenting results.

4 Research Questions

4.1 Purpose 1: Organizational Context and Discrimination

The first aim of this study was to replicate and extend previous findings about the effect of organizational context variables on discriminatory behaviours against minorities in the personnel selection. Previous studies demonstrated the powerful influence of authority figure on employment discrimination (e.g. Brief et al., 2000; Petersen & Dietz, 2000; Petersen & Krings, 2009). In these previous studies, participants were asked to evaluate and select candidates for a job interview, while receiving an advice by their supervisor to prefer in-group candidates. Results showed that supervisor's advice lead to discriminatory behaviours against out-group members. The present study extended past results by holding constant in all conditions the authority figure’s advice to prefer in-group applicants and by manipulating organizational context variables, mainly codes of conduct and accountability.
The replication of previous findings was based on the in-basket paradigm used by Petersen and Krings (2009). The paradigm was adapted from the German context into the Swiss context (“Suisse Romande” in particular). Two conditions from this previous study was replicated (condition 1 and 2) and one was added in order to extend previous findings (condition 3). The three conditions are summarized in the Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1 Experimental Design: Between-Subject Design**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Codes of conduct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of supervisor’ advice to discriminate</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all conditions, participants had to evaluate and select candidates for a job interview on the basis of six extract of Curriculum Vitae, two from in-group candidates (Swiss nationality) and four from out-group candidates. Petersen and Krings (2009) in their study used only one nationality for out-group candidates, but in the present study two different nationalities were used. The aim was to avoid that participants guess the true purpose of the study (i.e. discrimination against minorities in the personnel selection). If only one out-group nationality (Kosovo Albanians) was used, the purpose of the study was too visible because of the strong difference between Swiss names and Kosovo Albanian names. It refers to the problem of “demand characteristics of the experimental situation” (Orne, 1961, p. 779). Orne (1961) highlighted this problem by explaining that when volunteers participate to an experiment, it is for different reasons such as course requirement, need for money or in the hope to contribute to the research. In the latter situation, it implies that participants try to be a “good subject” (p. 778). This means they try to guess and validate the experimental hypothesis during the experiment by analyzing potential cues that may inform them about the true purpose of the study. Therefore more participants behave according to the demand characteristic and not to the experimental variables, less the generalization of results is possible. As this effect cannot be eliminated, cues related to hypotheses have to be the less visible as possible for participants. Therefore, an additional nationality was used in order to moderate the contrast between Swiss and Kosovo Albanian names: one third of participants belonged to participants’ in-group (Swiss) and the others belonged to out-groups, two were Kosovo.
Albanians and two were Spanish. In all conditions, before participants evaluated and selected candidates for a job interview, they were advised by their supervisor to discriminate against out-group candidates based on the business justification that all employees in the organization are exclusively Swiss and so foreigners do not fit with the personnel’s profile.

In condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), participants made their decisions without receiving the organizational codes of conduct and without being exposed to accountability. They only received the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. As demonstrated by previous studies (e.g. Petersen & Dietz, 2000), participants were expected to comply with the supervisor’s advice. In condition 2, in addition to the supervisor's advice participants were provided the organizational codes of conduct with detailed information on values supported by the organization. Particularly, a paragraph referred to equal opportunities and set out that all people should be treated equally within the organization, independently of gender, origin, age, sexual orientation or physical disabilities. Even in the presence of codes of conduct, compliant behaviours towards supervisor’s advice were expected as highlighted by previous studies. As presented earlier, Falkenberg and Herremans (1995) demonstrated that formal systems contribute as a guideline for employees’ behaviors, but informal systems and particularly managers are also important. Therefore, congruence is necessary between both systems. In the opposite situation, codes become “toothless tigers” (Petersen & Krings, 2009, p. 510) because authority figures have a powerful influence over codes of conduct. The objective of this manipulation was to assess if the presence of an organizational codes of conduct was still less powerful than a supervisor’s advice.

**Hypothesis 1a and 1b:** Participants will still follow the supervisor’ advice to prefer in-group candidates, even if they are provided the organizational codes of conduct (condition 2). When participants receive the organizational codes of conduct (condition 2), they will evaluate Swiss candidates more positively than foreign candidates (H1a) and will select more Swiss applicants for an interview (H1b), like participants who do not receive the organizational codes of conduct (condition 1).
The condition 3 is a replication of the condition 2 but in addition, participants were provided a memo from the CEO that set out they can be accountable to an audience at any time to provide justification about their decision-making. According to the behavioural flexibility of individuals highlighted by Fiske and Taylor (1991), participants were expected to adjust their behaviour to stimuli perceived. If they want to be well perceived by their supervisor, they follow the advice to discriminate out-group applicants. But in the condition 3, it was expected that participants comply with the organizational codes of conduct instead of the supervisor's advice because of the additional information referring to accountability. With this information, individuals know in advance that if they act unethically, it will have negative consequences for them. So it makes them personally responsible of their decision-making (Coughlan, 2005). It was expected to have the effect of a threat of punishment. Moreover, by engaging in a more complex cognitive effort, accountability may have the effect to force people to be more vigilant on their decision-making and also to overcome their beliefs (Tetlock, 1983; Tetlock 1985). The objective of this manipulation was to assess if the presence of accountability can overcome the powerful effect of supervisor’s advice on individuals.

**Hypothesis 2a and 2b:** Participants will follow the organizational codes of conduct when are accountable to an audience, even if they are advised by their supervisor to prefer in-group candidates (condition 3). They will evaluate foreign candidates more positively (H2a) and will select more foreign applicants for an interview (H2b) than participants who are not accountable to an audience (condition 1 and condition 2).

These two hypotheses of the first purpose of this study are summarized in the Figure 4.1.
4.2 Purpose 2: Linking Moral Attentiveness to Discriminatory behaviours

The second aim of this study was to assess if the level of moral attentiveness of participants can predict their non-discriminatory or discriminatory behaviours against minorities. Reynolds (2008) demonstrated the association between moral behaviours and moral attentiveness of individuals when he built the moral attentiveness scale. He also demonstrated that people with morality as a construct chronically accessible are more able to perceive moral aspect in situation and also make an intentional cognitive effort to reflect on the situation by taking into account moral aspect. Hence, it was expected that participants with a high level of moral attentiveness should behave more ethically than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness.

*Hypothesis 3a and 3b:* Overall, higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the less likely they will comply with the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. So in condition 1, participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively (H3a) and will select more out-group candidates for an interview (H3b) than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness.
As codes of conduct should be more important for people with a high level of moral attentiveness, they should be less sensible to the supervisor’s advice and so act in accordance with the organizational codes of conduct.

Hypothesis 4a and 4b: In condition 2, higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the more likely they will comply with the organizational codes of conduct and ignore supervisor’s unethical advice. Thereby, participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively (H4a) and will select more out-group applicants for an interview (H4b) than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness.

As participants with a low level of moral attentiveness are less likely to recognize moral aspect in situations, they are more likely to follow the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. But this compliant behaviour towards supervisor’s advice should stop when they become accountable to an audience. Accountability makes people more vigilant about their decision-making because know in advance they will have to explain their decisions. So they are engaged in a more complex cognitive effort in order to make the best decision and not to appear foolish in front of the audience (Tetlock, 1983; Huber, Bär & Huber, 2009). Thereby, it was expected that participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will comply with the organizational codes of conduct instead of the supervisor’ advice to discriminate out-group candidates in situation of accountability.

Hypothesis 5a and 5b: In condition 3, participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will comply with the organizational codes of conduct and ignore the supervisor’s advice to discriminate out-group members because are accountable to an audience. Thereby, participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively (H5a) and will select more out-group applicants for an interview (H5b) than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness who are not accountable to an audience. However, behaviours of participants with a high level of moral attentiveness do not change between the situation of accountability and without accountability.
These three hypotheses of the second purpose of this study are summarized in the Figure 4.2.

![Figure 4.2 Hypotheses Model Related to the Purpose 2](image-url)
5 Method

5.1 Participants

The sample was composed by 50 managers. The majority of them studied next to their job and attended to training course (e.g. Master of Advanced Studies, Certificate) mainly at HEG Neuchâtel (Hautes Ecoles de Gestion) and HEC Lausanne (faculté des Hautes Etudes Commerciales, in particular at the IEMS, Institut d’Economie et de Management de la Santé). The majority of their courses were given in the French language, thus it was assured that all were French speakers. Participants were between 19 and 55 years old ($M=31.52; SD=7.97$) and there were $36\%$ of women. On average, participants had $4.67$ years of experience ($SD=5$) in their company and $42\%$ had employees under their supervision. The majority of managers had at least a degree (See Figure 5.1).

![Figure 5.1 Highest Education of the Sample](image)

Participants worked in various industries and there was not a domain which is the most represented (See Figure 5.2). Some managers stopped their professional activities in order to only study ($15\%$), but the majority had both activities (study and work).
Participants have been contacted by e-mail. The message sent presented the author and the purpose of the study, which was presumably on decision-making of managers within organizations. It was also explained why they have been chosen to participate to the study and the length of the questionnaire (approximately 20 minutes). In order to randomize conditions to participants, haphazard assignments based on the alphabet were used. The haphazard method is not a formal procedure to assign randomly participants to conditions but it still allows an assignment of participants to conditions without obvious bias when random assignment are not possible (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002). Random assignment was not feasible because of confidentiality reasons (the author did not have access directly to e-mails of managers). So surveys were sent to participants via people who have access to this information (i.e. secretary of IEMS and HEG). Thus the haphazard assignment method was used to facilitate the transmission of surveys for people in charge of. As there were three conditions, the alphabet was divided by three. People having the first letter of their family name comprised between the letters A and H were invited to click on a first link, which corresponded to the first condition. Participants having the first letter of their family name comprised between the letters I and P were invited to click on a second link; and for the following letter until the end of the alphabet they had to click on the third link corresponding to the third condition. This e-mail sent to managers is presented in the Appendix I. The number of responses per condition was quite similar; so it was not necessary to equilibrate sample per condition.
Overall, 700 e-mail were send. But because of the length of the questionnaire, 10 managers began but did not fulfil the whole questionnaire. Only 59 persons (8.4% of respond rate) participated fully to the study. However, as participants had to belong to in-group (Swiss) within the in-basket exercise, only Swiss participants were included in the study. Overall, 50 managers were included in the study.

5.2 Materials

5.2.1 Purpose 1: In-basket Exercise

An in-basket exercise was presented to participants. It is the same in-basket exercise used by Petersen and Krings (2009) but only the condition 1 and 2 was a replication. As participants were all French speakers, the exercise has been translated from German into French. The content was translated by a bilingual student and then checked by a student during his master thesis (Roulin, 2008) who is a French native speaker. The French version was also checked by his supervisor (German native speaker and co-author of the mentioned article). Moreover, German names and cities in the exercise have also been adapted to the Swiss context of the study (into Swiss names and cities). Turkish names have been adapted to Kosovo Albanian names. In addition, a third nationality was added to avoid the problem of “demand characteristics of the experimental situation” (Orne, 1961, p. 779). If participants had the choice between only two nationalities for applicants (Swiss and Kosovo Albanian), they may guess that the true purpose of the study was about the discrimination against minorities in the personnel selection. Therefore, it could affect their behaviours by responding in a manner which supported the hypotheses tested (Orne, 1961). So a third nationality (Spanish) was used to reduce as much as possible the demand characteristics’ effect. Some others minors change was made to adapt the in-basket exercise to new characteristics (e.g. selection for a job of Human Resources Assistant instead of a Human Resources Managers). The full French version of the in-basket exercise is presented in the Appendix II.

---

1 Analyses were also performed on the full sample of 59 participants. Results did not differ from those obtained with the sample composed essentially by Swiss participants. The 9 participants who did not belong to in-group (Swiss) in the in-basket exercise were mainly French and Italian.
Participants were instructed to adopt the role of Pascal Chapuis, a Chief of the Finance Department in a fast-food chain in Switzerland. The in-basket exercise was composed by four parts. The first part was a brief presentation of the organization “La Bouchée Rapide” and its organizational chart composed by the main managers. The second part presented the role of Pascal Chapuis in the organization and his subordinates. The third part set up the current situation of Pascal Chapuis and the instructions. In the fourth part, six managerial dilemmas were presented where participants had to make decisions in the role of Pascal Chapuis. For the three first dilemmas and the two last, alternatives were presented to participants to guide them in their decision-making. The fourth dilemma was the task of interest of this study: participants had to evaluate and select candidates for a job interview. Six candidates were presented with an extract of their Curriculum Vitae. Among them, two were Swiss (in-group members), two were Kosovo Albanians (first out-group members) and two were Spanish (second out-group members). Participants could guess their nationality with their names which are typical from Switzerland (“Suisse Romande” in particular) (e.g. Jean-Daniel Dupuis), from Kosovo Albania (e.g. Blirim Islami) and from Spain (e.g. Pablo Escobar). All applicants were residents in Switzerland, and also had Swiss qualifications. It was also informed to participants that all candidates had already been pre-selected and so all had the necessary formal conditions for the job (e.g. working authorization). They all applied for a job of Human Resources Assistant and two selection criteria were required: experience (1) in the food industry and (2) in Human Resources. Among these six candidates, only three of them meet the job requirement: one in-group candidate and two out-group candidates (one from each out-group). In all conditions, participants were advised by their supervisor to discriminate against out-group candidates based on the business justification that all employees in the organization are Swiss and so foreigners do not fit with the personnel’s profile.

Within the task of interest, participants had to evaluate applicants by indicating the suitability of each candidate for the job on a scale from 1 (very unsuitable) to 7 (very suitable) on mainly three variables: “Qualification”, “Professional Background”, and “General Ability”. After having collected all data, tests were performed on these three variables in order to assess the reliability of this measure for each applicant. Therefore a new variable called “Suitability Rating” was created for each candidate. This new variable represented the mean of the three items cited above. The Cronbach’s Alphas calculated for each applicant’s suitability rating
showed acceptable internal consistency (α =0.88, α =0.87, α =0.90, α =0.81, α =0.91 and α =0.92). Next to the suitability ratings, participants had also to evaluate applicants in term of “Warmth” in order to assess if they perceived in-group candidates more likeable and warmly than out-group members.

In addition to evaluate applicants, participants were instructed to select two candidates for an interview. Thereby, the two dependent variables were: (1) the evaluation of applicants and (2) the number of candidates selected per origin for the job interview. Thus, if Swiss candidates (in-group) are rated more positively and are more selected for the interview than out-group candidates, it means participants complied with the supervisor’s advice and so discriminate out-group members. But it was expected a difference in participants’ responses according to the different conditions: none discrimination was expected in the condition 3.

**Condition 1 (supervisor’s advice):** This condition referred to the procedure described above. Participants were provided a memo by their supervisor where they were instructed to base their decisions on two selection criteria (: experience in the food industry and in Human Resources). They were also advised by their supervisor to discriminate against out-group candidates based on the business justification that all employees were Swiss and so foreigners do not fit with the personnel’s profile. The memo stated: “I had a brief look at all the applications and I was surprised to see that some foreigners have applied for the job. Because of our current personnel situation, please do not select any foreign candidates”.

**Condition 2 (supervisor’s advice and codes of conduct):** In addition to the two selection criteria and the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates, participants were also provided the organizational codes of conduct. It had the aim to guide employees’ behaviours regarding attitudes to adopt towards clients, colleagues and environment. One paragraph stated in particular about equal opportunities: “La Bouchée Rapide guarantees equal opportunities for all employees and candidates. Within the organization, all people have the equal opportunities in employment and promotion, independently of gender, origin, age, sexual orientation or physical disabilities”.

---

Kleinlogel Emmanuelle
Discriminatory Behaviours in the Personnel Selection
Condition 3 (supervisor’s advice, codes of conduct and accountability): As in condition 2, participants were provided the two selection criteria, the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members and the organizational codes of conduct. Additionally, they received a memo by the CEO to inform them that they can be accountable to an audience at any time, to provide a justification about their decision-making. The memo stated in particular that “Having noticed some disregard of the codes of conduct, a Committee for the Right of Workers was set up. Every person who makes decisions having consequences for the company is accountable to this Committee to express their decision-making and enumerate the reasons”.

5.2.2 Purpose 2: Moral Attentiveness Scale

Next to managerial dilemmas, in the second part of the questionnaire participants were asked to fill out the moral attentiveness scale. This scale was developed by Reynolds (2008) in order to measure the level of moral attentiveness of individuals and to analyze if this construct is related to individuals’ moral behaviour. It was a 7-point Likert-style scale of agreement (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Participants had to indicate to what extent they agree with each statement. The scale was composed by 12 items and measures the two dimensions of moral attentiveness, the perception and reflection. Seven items correspond to the perceptual moral attentiveness (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 9) and five items refer to the reflective moral attentiveness (items 6, 7, 10, 11 and 12). These two dimensions are positively correlated. A high value means a high level of moral attentiveness. To analyze the level of moral attentiveness of participants, a mean of the two dimensions, perceptual and reflective moral attentiveness, was computed. An overall mean of moral attentiveness was also computed.

Participants were told that this additional questionnaire was independent of the in-basket exercise. The introduction of this second part was: “This questionnaire has the purpose to better understand how individuals perceive decisions they have to make. In particular, the main interest is to know if a moral perspective is present in your everyday decision-making”. In fact, the true purpose of this second part was to measure the level of moral attentiveness of participants in order to know if it can explain their non-discriminatory or discriminatory behaviours against minorities. As participants were all French speakers, the scale developed
by Reynolds (2008) was translated from English into French with the back-to-translation method. First, it was translated in French by a French speaker and then two English speakers translated it from French into the English language. And last, the final version was validated by the author (French native speaker). The French-version used is presented in the Appendix III.

5.2.3 Pre-test

Names of out-group candidates used in the in-basket exercise have been tested. Spanish names have been provided and checked by Spanish persons. Kosovo Albanian’s names have been tested with a questionnaire because were more difficult to find. The sample consisted of 27 voluntary persons (17 workers, 9 students and 1 unemployed person). All were French speakers. Twelve (44%) of the participants were women, and the mean age was 29 ($SD = 8.99$). Twenty names have been tested; thirteen participants received a first list of ten names and the other participants received the second list of ten names. In a first part, participants were asked to guess spontaneously the nationality of names that were provided to them. In a second part, nine nationalities were provided (e.g. German, Turkish, Portuguese, Kosovo Albanian) and participants had to answer the question “From which nationality, do you think XX come from?” on a probability scale ($1=improbable$, $5=highly probable$). Results highlighted two names in particular that were commonly known as Kosovo Albanians’ names. These two names were used in the in-basket exercise.

As the moral attentiveness scale was translated from English into French, a pre-test has also been performed in order to check its reliability. It was tested in the second part of the questionnaire used to test Kosovo Albanians’ names. Participants were asked to rate their degree of agreement according to the different statements presented to them. Results showed an acceptable reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.86$ for the perceptual dimension and $\alpha = 0.88$ for the reflective dimension). It provided evidence of the French-translated version’ validity. Reliability of this scale was also check after having collected all data of the sample of managers. Results also showed internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.89$ for the perceptual dimension and $\alpha = 0.81$ for the reflective dimension).
6 Results

6.1 Manipulation Checks

Manipulation checks were performed to assess if participants fulfilled carefully the questionnaire. The first check had the objective to test if participants understood the supervisor's advice. So after the in-basket exercise, three questions were asked to participants. The first question asked if the supervisor was looking for a single person, a married person or if he did not provide any information on the family status of applicants. The second question asked if the supervisor was looking for a Swiss applicant, a foreign applicant or if he did not provide any preference on the origin of candidates. Lastly, it was asked if the supervisor was looking for a person with a professional background in the food industry and in the Human Resources, a professional background in the sale, or if not preference was provided. Participants in all conditions should have responded that the supervisor was looking for a Swiss applicant, with a professional background in the food industry and in the Human Resources but had no preference on family status was provided. Among the sample, 2 participants failed to respond in the proper way to the first question and 5 failed to respond correctly to the second question. None failed to respond to the first manipulation check on the family status. As the second question (on the origin of candidates) was the main interest in this study, t-tests were performed to analyze if participants who failed to respond in the proper way to this manipulation check did not differ in their responses on dependent variables from participants who responded correctly. All t-tests performed revealed no significant difference (p>.05), so none participants were removed from the sample.

A second manipulation check was performed on the suitability ratings of applicants. The objective was to assess if participants recognized that one Swiss, one Spanish and one Kosovo Albanian applicant were more qualified for the job that the other three applicants. As expected, results of the three paired sample t-tests performed showed a significant difference in rating between the two Swiss applicants $t(50)=8.83$, $p<.001$, the two Spanish applicants $t(50)=8.78$, $p<.001$ and the two Kosovo-Albanians applicants $t(50)=4.14$, $p<.001$. 
6.2 Suitability Ratings of Applicants

The suitability ratings of applicants refer to the scale where participants had to evaluate each applicant on their qualification, professional background and general ability for the job. To analyze it, the difference in suitability ratings between in-group and out-group applicants was calculated for each condition. A high score on this variable indicated a high difference in suitability rating between Swiss applicants (in-group) and foreign applicants (out-group). An ANOVA analysis was used to test if there was a difference between the condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct) and condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability). Results revealed no significant difference, \( F(2, 47)=0.86, p>.05 \), respectively \( M (SD)=0.264 \ (0.49), 0.039 \ (0.62) \) and \( 0.098 \ (0.44) \). It means that participants in the three conditions evaluated in the same way in-group and out-group candidates.

Hypothesis H1a predicted that even in the presence of codes of conduct (condition 2), participants will discriminate out-group candidates as advised by their supervisor. Hypothesis H2a predicted that the presence of accountability will overcome the powerful effect of supervisor’s advice and so no discrimination will be observed. According to the ANOVA analysis performed on the difference in suitability ratings between in-group and out-group, these two hypotheses were not supported since on average all applicants were evaluated in a similar way, independently of their origin.

Further analyses were performed on the suitability ratings variables. Especially, it was tested if there were differences in ratings between in-group and the two out-group members separately in the three conditions. First, an ANOVA analysis was performed to test if there was a difference between the three conditions on the suitability ratings of Swiss candidates and the ratings of Kosovo Albanians candidates. Results showed no significant difference, \( F(2, 47)=2.22, p>.05 \), \( M (SD)=0.38 \ (0.53), 0.044 \ (0.57) \) and \( 0.049 \ (0.50) \). Secondly, an ANOVA was used to test if there was a difference in suitability ratings between Swiss candidates and Spanish candidates. Results also revealed a non-significant difference, \( F(2, 47)=0.14, p>.05 \), \( M (SD)=0.15 \ (0.67), 0.03 \ (0.76) \) and \( 0.15 \ (0.59) \). A last ANOVA was performed to test if there was a difference in ratings between the two out-groups (Kosovo
Albanians and Spanish). Results was also non-significant, $F(2, 47)=1.11, p>.05, M (SD)=0.23 (0.73), 0.01 (0.56) and -0.09 (0.66). Consequently, all these tests demonstrated that participants were evaluated only on their qualification, professional background and overall ability, independently of their origin.

The Figure 6.1 below presents the suitability ratings means per origin of applicants and per condition. It can be observed that all candidates were positively rated by participants since the means per origin and per condition were above the mean of 4, meaning acceptable suitability for the job.

![Figure 6.1 Suitability Ratings Means per Origin](image-url)

Participants had also to evaluate each candidate in term of “Warmth”. Therefore, differences in ratings on this variable were computed between in-group and out-group applicants. Results revealed a non-significant difference between the three conditions, $F(2, 47)=1.33, p>.05$, respectively $M (SD)=0.138 (0.46), -0.06 (0.50)$ and 0.19 (0.44). As for the suitability ratings variable, further analyses were performed on this variable in order to test if there were differences in ratings between in-group and the two out-group members separately. Results showed no significant difference between Swiss and Kosovo Albanians candidates, $F(2, 47)=1.13, p>.05, M (SD)=0.28 (0.62), -0.03 (0.67)$ and 0.17 (0.49) and no significant
difference between Swiss and Spanish candidates, $F(2, 47)=2.15, p>.05, M (SD)=0.00 (0.42), -0.10 (0.43) and 0.20 (0.43). No difference in the three conditions was also found between the two out-groups (Kosovo Albanians and Spanish), $F(2, 47)=2.07, p>.05, M (SD)=0.28 (0.52), 0.06 (0.50) and -0.029 (0.33). Therefore as for the suitability ratings, participants did not evaluate applicants by taking into account their origin. So they did not comply with the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members.

6.3 Number of Candidates Selected per Origin

To assess compliant behaviors towards supervisor’s advice to discriminate out-group members, the average number of Swiss candidates selected for the job interview was calculated. The minimum value is 0 and means that none Swiss candidate was selected. The maximum value is 2 and means that participants chose only Swiss candidates for the interview. Then, an ANOVA analysis was performed to analyze if there was a difference between the conditions 1 (supervisor’s advice), condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct) and condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability). Results showed a significant difference between the three conditions, $F(2, 47)=4.30, p<.05$. So organizational context variables had an effect on the number of in-group candidates (Swiss) selected.

Hypothesis H1b predicted that in condition 1 and 2, participants should be engaged in compliant behaviors towards supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members because the authority figure is more powerful than codes of conduct. Therefore, it was expected that participants select a high number of Swiss applicants in these two conditions. To test this hypothesis, a planned contrast was performed to analyze if the same number of Swiss candidates (in-group) has been selected in condition 1 (supervisor’ advice) and condition 2 (supervisor’ advice + codes of conduct). Results showed no significant difference between the number of Swiss applicants selected in condition 1 ($M=0.89, SD=0.47$) and condition 2 ($M=0.67, SD=0.49$), $F(1, 47)= 2.14, p>.05$. Therefore, findings of this first contrast performed were in the hypothesized direction (H1b) because on average the same number of Swiss candidates was selected in condition 1 and in condition 2.
Hypothesis H2b claimed that accountability should have the effect to prevent discriminatory behaviors. Thus, it was expected that participants select an equal number of in-group and out-group candidates for the interview in the condition 3 (supervisor’ advice + codes of conduct + accountability). To test it, a planned contrast was performed to analyze if in-group candidates have been more selected in condition 1 (supervisor’ advice) and in condition 2 (supervisor’ advice + codes of conduct) than in condition 3 (supervisor’ advice + codes of conduct + accountability). Results revealed a significant difference between the condition 1 ($M=0.89, SD=0.47$) and condition 2 ($M=0.67, SD=0.49$) compared to the condition 3 ($M=1.12, SD=0.33$), $F(1, 47)= 6.84, p<.05$. As the Hypothesis H2b predicted, the number of Swiss candidates selected was different between the condition 3 and the condition 1 and 2. But when looking in detail at the means between conditions, it can be observed that a higher number of Swiss were selected in the condition 3 than in the others conditions. So the hypothesis H2b was not supported because there was effectively a difference but in the opposite direction expected.

The Figure 6.2 below represents the average number of candidates chosen per origin and per condition. Even if the first contrast revealed no significant difference between the condition 1 and the condition 2, the Figure 6.2 shows a slight difference: more Swiss were selected in the condition 1 than in the condition 2. In fact, in condition 2 no discrimination was observed because an equal number of Swiss, Spanish and Kosovo Albanians have been selected for the interview. As revealed by the second contrast performed, it can be observed that a higher number of Swiss candidates were selected in condition 3 than in condition 1 and 2. If participants selected applicants independently of their origin, the number of Swiss applicants, Spanish applicants and Kosovo Albanian applicants would be the same (means of 0.67 for each candidate per condition). It was only the case in the condition 2.
As suggested by the Figure 6.2, further analysis was performed on the number of Kosovo Albanians selected for the interview. An ANOVA analysis revealed a significant difference between the three conditions, $F(2, 47)= 2.48, p<.10$. The Tukey’s HSD procedure revealed that less Kosovo Albanians candidates were selected in the condition 3 ($M=0.29, SD=0.47$) than in the condition 2 ($M=0.67, SD=0.49$), $F(1, 47)= 4.67, p<.05$. This analysis also revealed no significant difference between the condition 1 ($M=0.39, SD=0.50$), and condition 3 ($M=0.29, SD=0.49$), $F(1, 47)=0.33, p>.05$. Therefore, the beneficial effect of codes of conduct observed in the condition 2, where not discrimination was observed, was effaced by accountability in the condition 3.

An ANOVA analysis was also performed on the number of Spanish candidates selected for the interview. Results showed no significant difference between the three conditions, $F(2, 47)=0.11, p>.05$, respectively $M (SD)=0.72 (0.46), 0.67 (0.49)$ and $0.65 (0.49)$. So, an equal number of Spanish applicants were selected in the three conditions. Moreover, on average the number of Spanish applicants selected was equal to the number expected in case of none discrimination (means of 0.67).
6.4 The Impact of Moral Attentiveness

To analyze if the level of moral attentiveness of participants could explain their responses, the mean of items related to the perceptual dimension of moral attentiveness and to the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness were computed. The Figure 6.3 showed that scores were well distributed for the perceptual dimension; scores were comprised between 1.57 and 6.14 ($M=3.66, SD=1.15$).

![Figure 6.3 Distribution of Perceptual Dimension Scores](image)

The Figure 6.4 also showed that scores were also well distributed for the reflective dimension with values comprised between 2.40 and 6.80 ($M=4.76, SD=1.03$).

![Figure 6.4 Distribution of Reflective Dimension Scores](image)
As a first analysis, correlations were computed between the two dimensions of the moral attentiveness of participants and the dependent variables of the in-basket exercise. Results are reported in the Table 6.1. The variable 4: "Ethical perspectives" refers to a question where it was asked to participants to what extent they perceive an ethical dimension in dilemma of the in-basket exercise. This variable was positively related to the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness of participants in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), $r=.58, p<.05$. It means that in condition 3 as the level of reflective moral attentiveness of individuals increases, more they perceive moral elements in situation. This result is in accordance with findings of Reynolds (2008). This variable was also positively related to the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness of participants and to the overall moral attentiveness of participants (mean of the two moral attentiveness dimensions) in condition 3, $r=.50, p<.05$.

Perceptual moral attentiveness of participants was positively related to the number of Spanish selected in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), negatively related to this variable in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), and also negatively related to the number of Kosovo Albanians selected in the condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), respectively $r=.48$, $r=.51$ and $r=.50$ (all $p<.05$). Perceptual moral attentiveness of participants appeared also to be positively related to the suitability ratings of Swiss and Spanish candidates in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct), respectively $r=.55$ and $r=.56$ (all $p<.05$).

Reflective moral attentiveness of participants was positively related to the suitability ratings of all candidates in condition 2, $r=.69$ for Swiss candidates, $r=.83$ for Spanish candidates and $r=.69$ for Kosovo Albanians candidates (all $p<.01$). Reflective moral attentiveness of participants also appeared to be positively related to the suitability ratings of Spanish candidates in condition 3, $r=.65$, $p<.01$. These positive correlations were also significant for the overall moral attentiveness of participants (mean of the two moral attentiveness dimensions), $r=.58$, $p<.05$ for the suitability ratings of Swiss candidates, $r=.71$, $p<.01$ for the suitability ratings of Spanish candidates and $r=.68$, $p<.01$ for the suitability ratings of Kosovo Albanians candidates and finally $r=.53$, $p<.05$ for the suitability ratings of Spanish candidates in condition 3.
Table 6.1 Correlations between Moral Attentiveness (MA) and Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Perceptual MA</th>
<th>Reflective MA</th>
<th>mean MA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Number Swiss selected</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.25</td>
<td>-.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Number Spanish selected</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Number Kosovo Albanians selected</td>
<td>-.50*</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ethical perspectives</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Suitability Ratings Swiss</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>.55*</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Suitability Ratings Spanish</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.56*</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Suitability Ratings Kosovo Albanians</td>
<td>-.33</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01
a: condition 1  b: condition 2  c: condition 3

Then, to analyze the impact of moral attentiveness of participants on dependent variables and also to test if the moral attentiveness of participants interact with organizational context variables (supervisor's advice, codes of conduct and accountability), the two dimensions of moral attentiveness was transformed in categorical variables. The perceptual moral attentiveness and the reflective moral attentiveness of participants were divided in two parts: “low” and “high” based on the median value (3.64 for perceptual moral attentiveness and 4.80 for reflective moral attentiveness). Then 3 (three conditions) by 2 (High vs. low moral attentiveness) factorial ANOVA were used to test hypotheses related to the second purpose of this study. Main effect of perceptual and reflective moral attentiveness were analyzed and also the interaction between these dimensions and organizational context variables (through the three conditions). Main effect of organizational context variables is not reported because were already tested in analyses related to the purpose 1 of this study.

Suitability Ratings Difference

First, analyses were made on the suitability ratings difference between in-group and out-group applicants. A first factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, perceptual moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the suitability ratings difference between in-group and out-group applicants. Results revealed no
significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the suitability rating difference between in-group and out-group applicants, $F(1, 44)=0.77, p>.05$. The interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the suitability rating difference between in-group and out-group applicants, $F(2, 44)=0.75, p>.05$.

A second factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, reflective moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the suitability ratings difference between in-group and out-group applicants. No significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness of participants was found on the suitability ratings difference between in-group and out-group applicants, $F(1, 44)=3.10, p>.05$. However, results showed that the interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was significantly related to the suitability rating difference between in-group and out-group applicants, $F(2, 44)=3.10, p≤.05$. The Figure 6.5 presents this relationship. ANOVA analyses were performed to check if differences observed on the Figure between individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness and individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness were significant. Results revealed that in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), the difference observed in suitability ratings difference in/out-groups between individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness ($M=0.60, SD=0.29$) and individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness ($M=0.04, SD=0.47$) was significant, $F(1, 16)=7.81, p≤.01$. Therefore, in condition 1 individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness rated more equally applicants than individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness. This result supported Hypothesis 3a which claimed that in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. However, this hypothesis was only supported with the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness.

This difference between individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness ($M=0.29, SD=0.40$) and individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness ($M=-0.12, SD=0.38$) was also significant in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), $F(1, 15)=4.85, p<.05$. However, responses did not differ in condition 2, $F(1, 13)=0.57, p>.05$ between individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness ($M=-0.11, SD=0.73$) and individuals...
high in reflective moral attentiveness ($M=0.13$, $SD=0.54$). Therefore, in condition 2 individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness as well as individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness rated equally applicants of different origin. This result supported partially the Hypothesis 4a which claimed that participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. However, this hypothesis was only supported with the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness.

Further analyses were performed to test others difference. Contrasts performed revealed that individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness rated more equally candidates of different origin in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct) than in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), $F(1, 21)=6.98$, $p<.01$. However, the others contrasts performed to test other difference between conditions were not significant. Therefore, this result did not support Hypothesis 5a which claimed that in condition 3 participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness who are not accountable to an audience (condition 1 and condition 2).

![Figure 6.5 Difference in Suitability Ratings between In-group and Out-group per Condition and per Level of Reflective Moral Attentiveness](image-url)

Figure 6.5 Difference in Suitability Ratings between In-group and Out-group per Condition and per Level of Reflective Moral Attentiveness
Factorial ANOVA were also performed on the suitability ratings difference between in-group and the two out-groups separately. First, the relationship between the perceptual moral attentiveness, organizational context variables and suitability ratings difference between Swiss and Kosovo Albanians was assessed. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Kosovo Albanians applicants, \( F(1, 44)=0.15, p>.05 \). The interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Kosovo Albanians applicants, \( F(2, 44)=0.74, p>.05 \).

In the same way, no significant results were found between the reflective moral attentiveness and the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Kosovo Albanians applicants, \( F(1, 44)=1.12, p>.05 \). The interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Kosovo Albanians applicants, \( F(2, 44)=2.12, p>.05 \).

Similar analyses were performed on the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Spanish applicants. First, the relationship with the perceptual moral attentiveness dimension was assessed. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Spanish applicants, \( F(1, 44)=1.12, p>.05 \). The interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Spanish applicants, \( F(2, 44)=2.59, p>.05 \).

However, significant results were found with the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness. Results revealed a significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness on the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Spanish applicants, \( F(1, 44)=4.90, p<.05 \). A higher suitability ratings difference was observed for individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=0.35, SD=0.70 \)) than for individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=-0.07, SD=0.58 \)). It means that individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness rated more positively in-group applicants than Spanish applicants contrary to individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness who rated equally in-group and Spanish members, independently of their origin. This result on the main effect of reflective moral
attentiveness supported the general statement of the Hypothesis 3 which claimed that overall, higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the less likely they will follow supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. However, this hypothesis was only supported with the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness.

But, the interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was found to be not significantly related to the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Spanish applicants, $F(2, 44)=2.57, p>.05$.

Finally, factorial ANOVA were performed on the suitability ratings difference between the two out-groups. First, the relationship with the perceptual moral attentiveness dimension was assessed. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the suitability ratings difference, $F(1, 44)=0.61, p>.05$. However, the interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was significantly related to the suitability ratings difference between the two out-groups, $F(2, 44)=4.94, p<.01$. The Figure 6.6 presents this relationship. ANOVA analyses were performed to check if differences observed on the Figure between individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness and individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness were significant. Results revealed that in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), the difference observed in suitability ratings difference Spanish/Kosovo Albanians between individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=-0.22, SD=0.42$) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=0.60, SD=0.73$) was significant, $F(1, 16)=7.99, p<.01$. However, responses did not differ in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct), $F(1, 13)=0.06, p>.05$ between individuals low in moral perceptual attentiveness ($M=-0.01, SD=0.65$) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=0.06, SD=0.38$). Responses did not differ also in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), $F(1, 15)=2.42, p>.05$ between individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=0.19, SD=0.70$) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=-0.30, SD=0.58$).

Further analyses were performed. Contrasts performed revealed that individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness rated less equally candidates of different origin in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice) than in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct +
accountability), \( F(1, 24) = 10.44, p < .01 \). However, other contrasts performed to test difference between conditions were not significant.

![Figure 6.6 Difference in Suitability Ratings between the two Out-groups per Condition and per Level of Perceptual Moral Attentiveness](image)

Results revealed no significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness on the suitability ratings difference between the two out-groups, \( F(1, 44) = 2.84, p > .05 \). The interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was also found to be not significantly related to the suitability ratings difference between the two out-groups, \( F(2, 44) = 0.84, p > .05 \).

**Suitability Ratings per Origin**

First, the suitability rating of in-group applicants (Swiss) was analyzed. A first factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, perceptual moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the suitability ratings of in-group applicants. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the suitability rating, \( F(1, 44) = 0.39, p > .05 \). The interaction between organizational context
variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was also not significantly related to the suitability rating, \( F(2, 44)=0.92, p>.05 \).

A second factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, reflective moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the suitability rating of in-group applicants. No significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness on the suitability rating on in-group applicants was found, \( F(1, 44)=6.19, p>.05 \). However, it appeared that the interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was significantly related to the suitability rating of Swiss candidates, \( F(2, 44)=3.13, p\leq.05 \). The Figure 6.7 presents this relationship. ANOVA analyses were performed to check if differences observed on the Figure between individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness and individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness were significant. Results revealed that in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct), the difference observed in suitability ratings of in-group applicants between individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=4.02, SD=0.53 \)) and individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=5.35, SD=0.69 \)) was significant, \( F(1, 13)=15.40, p<.01 \). However, responses did not differ in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), \( F(1, 16)=0.03, p>.05 \) between individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=4.83, SD=0.88 \)) and individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=4.75, SD=0.89 \)). Responses did not differ also in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), \( F(1, 15)=1.24, p>.05 \) between individuals low in reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=4.53, SD=0.90 \)) and individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=4.97, SD=0.69 \)). However, contrasts performed to test difference between conditions were not significant.
Secondly, the suitability rating of Kosovo Albanians applicants was analyzed. A first factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, perceptual moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the suitability rating of Kosovo Albanians applicants. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the suitability rating, \( F(1, 44)=0.79, p>.05 \). And the interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the suitability rating, \( F(2, 44)=2.25, p>.05 \).

However, analysis performed with the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness revealed a significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness on the suitability rating of Kosovo Albanians, \( F(1, 44)=7.40, p<.01 \). A higher suitability rating was observed for individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=4.88, SD=0.86 \)) than for individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness (\( M=4.28, SD=0.77 \)). This result on the main effect of reflective moral attentiveness supported the general statement of the Hypothesis 3 which claimed that overall, higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the less likely they will follow supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. However, this hypothesis was only supported with the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness. But, the interaction between...
organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the suitability rating of Kosovo Albanians applicants, $F(2, 44)=0.59, p>.05$.

Finally, the suitability rating of Spanish applicants was analyzed. A first factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, perceptual moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the suitability rating of Spanish applicants. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the suitability rating, $F(1, 44)=2.19, p>.05$. And the interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the suitability rating, $F(2, 44)=0.59, p>.05$.

However, results revealed a significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness on the suitability rating of Spanish candidates, $F(1, 44)=23.49, p<.001$. A higher suitability rating was observed for individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness ($M=5.08, SD=0.65$) than for individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness ($M=4.13, SD=0.77$). This result on the main effect of reflective moral attentiveness supported the general statement of the hypothesis 3 which claimed that overall, higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the less likely they will follow supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. However, as for the suitability ratings of Kosovo Albanians candidates this hypothesis was only supported for the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness. But, results showed that the interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the suitability rating of Spanish applicants, $F(2, 44)=0.99, p>.05$.

**Number of Candidates Selected per Origin**

First, a factorial ANOVA was made on the number of Swiss selected for the interview. A first factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, perceptual moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the number of Swiss selected. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the number of Swiss selected, $F(1, 44)=1.20, p>.05$. And the interaction between organizational context
variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the number of Swiss selected, $F(2, 44)=1.00, p>.05$.

A second factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, reflective moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the number of Swiss selected. Results revealed no significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness on the number of Swiss selected, $F(1, 44)=3.02, p>.05$. The interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was also found to be not significantly related to the number of Swiss selected, $F(2, 44)=0.99, p>.05$.

Secondly, a factorial ANOVA was made on the number of Kosovo Albanians selected for the interview. A first factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, perceptual moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the number of Kosovo Albanians selected. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the number of Kosovo Albanians selected, $F(1, 44)=0.68, p>.05$. But, the interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was significantly related to the number of Kosovo Albanians selected, $F(2, 44)=4.40, p<.01$. The Figure 6.8 presents this relationship. ANOVA analyses were performed to check if differences observed on the Figure between individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness and individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness were significant. Results revealed that in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct), the difference observed in the number of Kosovo Albanians selected between individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=-0.50, SD=0.52$) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=1.00, SD=0.00$) was significant, $F(1, 13)=4.33, p<.05$. This result supported the Hypothesis 4b which claimed that in condition 2 participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will select a higher number of out-group candidates than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. However, this hypothesis was only supported with the perceptual dimension of moral attentiveness.

But, responses did not differ in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), $F(1, 16)=3.69, p>.05$ between individuals low in moral perceptual attentiveness ($M=0.63, SD=0.51$) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=0.20, SD=0.42$). This result did not support the
Hypothesis 3b which claimed that in condition 1 participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will select more out-group candidates than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. Similar result was found for condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), \( F(1, 15)=1.25, p>.05 \). Responses of individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness \( (M=0.14, SD=0.37) \) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness \( (M=0.40, SD=0.51) \) were not significantly different.

Further analyses were performed. Contrasts performed revealed that individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness selected more Kosovo Albanians in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct) than in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), \( F(1, 24)=11.73, p<.01 \), and than in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), \( F(1, 24)=6.60, p \leq .01 \). However, the others contrasts performed to test other difference between conditions were not significant. This result did not support the Hypothesis 5b which claimed that in condition 3 participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness who are not accountable to an audience.

![Figure 6.8 Number of Kosovo Albanians Candidates Selected per Condition and per Level of Perceptual Moral Attentiveness](image-url)
However, no significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness on the number of Kosovo Albanians selected was found, $F(1, 44)=0.72, p>.05$. Results showed also that the interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the number of Kosovo Albanians selected, $F(2, 44)=0.56, p>.05$.

Finally, a factorial ANOVA was made on the number of Spanish selected for the interview. A first factorial ANOVA was performed to analyze if organizational context variables, perceptual moral attentiveness and the interaction of both were related to the number of Spanish selected. Results revealed no significant main effect of perceptual moral attentiveness on the number of Spanish selected, $F(1, 44)=0.60, p>.05$. But, the interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness was found to be significantly related to the number of Spanish selected, $F(2, 44)=5.47, p<.01$. The Figure 6.9 presents this relationship. ANOVA analyses were performed to check if differences observed on the Figure between individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness were significant. Results revealed that in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), the difference observed in the number of Spanish selected between individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=1.00, SD=0.00$) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=0.40, SD=0.51$) was significant, $F(1, 15)=9.26, p<.01$. However, responses did not differ in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), $F(1, 16)=3.92, p>.05$ between individuals low in moral perceptual attentiveness ($M=0.50, SD=0.53$) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=0.90, SD=0.31$). This result did not support the Hypothesis 3b which claimed that in condition 1, participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will select more out-group candidates than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. Similar results were in condition 2, $F(1, 13)=0.13, p>.05$. Responses between individuals low in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=0.70, SD=0.48$) and individuals high in perceptual moral attentiveness ($M=0.60, SD=0.54$) were not significantly different. So, this result did not support the Hypothesis 4b which claimed that in condition 2, participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will select a higher number of out-group candidates than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness.
Contrasts performed revealed that individuals with a low perceptual moral attentiveness selected more Spanish in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability) than in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice) than, $F(1, 24)=5.01, p<.05$. However, opposite results were found for individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness, $F(1, 24)=6.11, p<.05$. These results supported partially the Hypothesis 5b which claimed that in condition 3, participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness who are not accountable to an audience. However, behaviours of participants with a high level of moral attentiveness do not change between the situation of accountability and without accountability. However, this hypothesis was only partially supported with the perceptual dimension of moral attentiveness.

However, the others contrasts performed to test other difference between conditions were not significant.

![Figure 6.9 Number of Spanish Candidates Selected per Condition and per Level of Perceptual Moral Attentiveness](image)

However, no significant main effect of reflective moral attentiveness on the number of Spanish selected appeared, $F(1, 44)=0.15, p>.05$. Results showed also that the interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness was not significantly related to the number of Spanish selected, $F(2, 44)=1.37, p>.05$. 
7 Discussion

Discussion Related to the Purpose 1 of the Study

The first aim of this study was to analyze the effect of organizational context variables on discriminatory behaviours against minorities in the personnel selection. The design of this study was based on previous findings. Especially it was a partial replication of the study conducted by Petersen and Krings (2009). The basis of this study was the effect of supervisor’s advice to discriminate out-group members in the personnel selection. Many studies demonstrated the powerful effect of authority figure on individuals (e.g. Brief et al., 2000; Petersen & Dietz, 2000), therefore this variable was held constant in all conditions of the experiment. And then variables were introduced in order to analyze what can overcome this compliant behaviour towards supervisor’s unethical advice. The two variables manipulated were mainly codes of conduct and accountability. Past research on the impact of codes of conduct found contradicting results about their influence on individuals’ behaviours. Some studies found an impact on the ethical climate perceived by employees in organizations (e.g. Adams, Tashchian & Shore, 2001) and some found an influence on individuals’ behaviours but only under conditions (e.g. through codes enforcement: Petersen & Krings, 2009). In particular, previous findings (Falkenberg and Herremans, 1995; Adam & Rachman-Moore, 2004) highlighted that codes are powerful, but in case of incongruence between formal systems (e.g. codes) and informal systems (e.g. authority figure’s advice), the formal system becomes no more powerful because individual will follow the authority figure’s advice. Therefore, it was tested in the present study if codes of conduct were still not powerful when are in contradiction with a supervisor’s advice. It was also tested if the effect of accountability can overcome the powerful effect of supervisor’s advice. This last expectation was based on previous findings on the field of judgmental and choice processes (e.g. Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). Many studied demonstrated that when individuals are accountable to an audience and so have to provide justifications about their decision-making or judgment, they are engaged in a more complex and elaborate cognitive effort to be sure to make the best choice. It makes them more responsible because will have the entire responsibility to explain in front of the audience why they took this decision (Coughlan, 2005). Firstly, findings are discussed; then the second aim of this study and findings are outlined. Finally, practical implications, limitations and recommendation for future research are set out.
Petersen and Krings (2009) found that in presence of a supervisor’s advice to discriminate out-group candidates in the hiring process, participants evaluated more positively and selected for an interview a higher number of in-group applicants than out-group applicants. So they were engaged in a compliant behaviour towards supervisor’s advice. But in presence of codes of conduct, participants evaluated similarly in-group and out-group candidates without taking into account the supervisor’s advice. So they were engaged in compliant behaviours towards codes of conduct. However, participants still selected fewer out-group candidates for the job interview. The present study found no difference in suitability ratings between in-group and out-group candidates in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct) and condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability). Therefore, in all conditions candidates were evaluated on their qualification, professional background and overall ability independently of their origin. In the same way, similar results were found when analyzing the difference in suitability ratings between Swiss and Spanish applicants, Swiss and Kosovo Albanians applicants, and between Spanish and Kosovo Albanians applicants. So Hypothesis 1a which predicted that even in the presence of codes of conduct (condition 2), participants will evaluate less positively out-group candidates than in-group candidates was not supported. Hypothesis 2a which claimed that the presence of accountability (condition 3) will overcome the powerful effect of supervisor’s advice and so no discrimination will be observed was also not supported since on average all applicants were evaluated equally in the three conditions. Therefore, contrary to findings of Petersen and Krings (2009) even in absence of codes of conduct (condition 1), participants evaluated in-group and out-group applicants fairly. So their evaluation was made independently of their origin in spite of the presence of a supervisor’s advice to discriminate out-group members. It means the supervisor's advice did not have an effect on the suitability ratings of applicants since all were positively rated; therefore no discrimination appeared at this level. These results are in contraction with findings of Binggeli and Krings (2009). They found that Swiss people perceived immigrants from Balkans negatively: with very low competence and warmth. This difference in result can be due to additional information on immigrants provided to participants in the present study. It was provided in particular qualifications and professional background of immigrants whereas in the study of Binggeli and Krings (2009), it was only asked to participants how they perceive immigrants from different origin. Therefore, as highlighted by the Stereotype Content Model, the status of immigrants influence the perception in-group members have on them. And as in the in-basket exercise the two Kosovo Albanians applicants had a quite high status, they were consequently perceived by in-group
members (Swiss) as competent and so were perceived as suitable for the job. Also in contradiction with findings of Binggeli and Krings (2009), Kosovo Albanians applicants were positively perceived in term of warmth. In fact, all applicants were rated in the same way on this variable. This result can be explained by the fact that participants intentionally rated applicants as warm because did not know what to respond. This explanation is based on reactions of some participants. The author of this thesis received from participants several feedbacks on the in-basket exercise. Some of them highlighted the fact that it is not possible to evaluate applicants as warm or not warm based on their Curriculum Vitae. They wrote in their emails “Individuals’ warmth cannot be assessed without meet these people”. This result and reactions from participants supposed that Kosovo Albanians applicants were not stereotyped as “not warm” in the in-basket exercise.

Regarding the number of in-group applicants (Swiss) selected for an interview, differences were observed between the three conditions. First, as expected no difference were found between the condition 1 and 2: a high number of in-group applicants were selected. So Hypothesis 1b which predicted that in condition 1 and 2 participants will select a high number of in-group applicants was supported. In condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), the average number of Swiss applicants selected was higher than the number of Spanish and Kosovo Albanians selected. So candidates of different origin were not selected with equal proportion. Therefore in condition 1, participants complied with the supervisor's advice. This is in line with past findings on the powerful influence of authority figure on their subordinates: participants complied with the advice provided by their supervisor to prefer in-group candidates (e.g. Petersen & Dietz, 2000).

In condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct), even if the number of Swiss candidates selected was not significantly different from the number of Swiss candidates selected in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), it was observed that an equal number of Swiss, Spanish and Kosovo Albanians were selected in condition 2. Therefore, it can be said that codes of conduct had the effect to prevent discriminatory behaviours. This is in contraction with findings of Petersen and Krings (2009) because they found that codes have to be enforced to be effective. It is also in contraction with findings of Falkenberg and Herremans (1995) which highlighted that when there is incongruence between formal systems and
informal systems, the latter overcomes the former. It was not the case in this study since participants complied with codes of conduct and not with the supervisor’s advice.

In condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), unexpected results were found. Instead of selecting candidates independently of their origin as they did in the presence of codes of conduct (condition 2), participants were engaged in compliant behaviours towards supervisor’s advice. This result did not support the Hypothesis 2b which claimed that the presence of accountability (condition 3) will overcome the powerful effect of supervisor’s advice and so no discrimination will be observed. Accountability had an opposite effect: participants selected even more Swiss candidates in presence of supervisor’s advice, codes of conduct and accountability than in the two other conditions (condition 1: supervisor’s advice and condition 2: supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct). Thereby, participants followed the supervisor’s advice in spite of the fact that the memo they received stated that the Committee for the Right of Workers was set up to prevent disregard of codes of conduct. A possible explanation may be that participants had in mind to justify their decision-making with the pressure exercised over them by their supervisor to prefer in-group members. They may expect that their supervisor will be sanctioned by the Committee and not themselves because they are “only simple employees and so have to comply with authority figure”. In this case, the two conditions necessary to imply compliant behaviours towards authority figure are present. The first condition is the legitimacy of the authority who gives an advice: so the role of employees is to comply. The second condition is the transfer of responsibility: in front of the audience they do not feel themselves responsible of discrimination because they were engaged in a compliant behaviour towards their supervisor (Blass, 1999; Petersen & Dietz, 2008). Therefore, this hypothetical explanation implies the fact that because individuals have to justify their choice, it gives them an excuse to comply with the unethical advice and think their supervisor is responsible and so will be sanctioned.

Further analyses performed on the selection of candidates revealed some differences between the two out-groups members. Whereas on average the same number of Spanish applicants was selected for an interview in the three conditions, the number of Kosovo Albanians applicants selected was not the same. Less Kosovo Albanians applicants were selected in condition 1 and 3 than in condition 2. It supported first results found on the number of Swiss selected:
discrimination against out-group members was in condition 1 and 3 but not in condition 2. And as the number of Spanish candidates selected was the same in the three conditions, it can be said that in situations which foster discrimination (condition 1 and 3), discriminatory behaviour was especially towards Kosovo Albanians. This is in line with findings of Krings and Olivares (2007). They found discrimination especially towards Kosovo Albanians for jobs requiring high interpersonal skills. They explained it by the fact they are the population the most dislike in Switzerland, compared to Spanish who are well-accepted by the Swiss population.

To conclude on this first aim, it can be said that organizational context variables did not affect the evaluation of candidates. All were positively evaluated, according to objective factors (qualification, professional background and overall ability for the job). However, the supervisor’s advice in condition 1 and 3 implied discrimination. This discrimination was a moderate discrimination because a high number of Swiss applicants were selected but Spanish candidates were not discriminated. So, discriminatory behaviours were especially towards Kosovo Albanians applicants. And as in all conditions a supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members (Swiss) was present, it can be said that this discrimination exercised over Kosovo Albanians is due to this advice. A second major finding is the positive effect of codes of conduct, because none discrimination was observed in condition 2 despite the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members. Therefore, supervisor’s advice to discriminate out-group members had an effect on the number of Swiss and Kosovo Albanians applicants selected for a job interview but codes of conduct prevented the discriminatory behaviour against Kosovo Albanians applicants. Finally, the unexpected and surprising finding was the impact of accountability (condition 3): it overcame the powerful effect of codes of conduct by fostering discrimination against Kosovo Albanians instead of prevent it. This result may be explained with the effect of displacement of responsibility from individuals to supervisor.

Discussion Related to the Purpose 2 of the Study

The second aim of this study was to analyze if the level of moral attentiveness of individuals moderates the relationship between organizational context variables (i.e. conditions) and discriminatory behaviours. This assessment was based on findings of Reynolds (2008). He found that the level of moral attentiveness of individuals influences their moral behaviours.
He demonstrated that people high in moral attentiveness would behave more morally than people low in moral attentiveness because perceive more easily moral elements in situations (perceptual dimension of moral attentiveness) and also because reflect more on situations in term of morality (reflective dimension of moral attentiveness). Therefore, in this study it was tested if individuals’ moral attentiveness accounts in their decision making. It was also test if organizational context variables (supervisor’s advice, codes of conduct and accountability) interact with the level of moral attentiveness of individuals in their decisions.

First, according to analyses performed on the difference in suitability ratings between candidates, relationship were found with the perceptual and reflective moral attentiveness of participants. Firstly, the suitability ratings difference between in-group and out-group applicants was significantly related to the interaction between organizational context variables and reflective moral attentiveness. Individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness rated less positively out-group applicants than in-group applicants in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice) and in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability). These results did not support Hypothesis 5a which claimed that in condition 3, participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will follow the organizational codes of conduct and ignore supervisor’s advice because are accountable to an audience. Thereby, participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness who are not accountable to an audience. It was found that accountability did not have the effect to prevent discrimination on individuals with a low level of reflective moral. However in condition 2, they rated equally in-group and out-group applicants. So, codes seem to have an effect on individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness. Therefore, despite no difference between the suitability ratings in/out-groups were found with analyses related to the first purpose of this study, it seems that codes of conduct had an effect on individuals’ behaviors and especially on individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness. They rated equally in-group and out-group applicants in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct), so they did not comply with the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members.

Concerning individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness, no difference was found between the three conditions. So, they rated equally in-group and out-group members
independently of organizational context variables (supervisor’s advice, codes of conduct and accountability). This result supported the second part of the Hypothesis 5 which stated that behaviours of participants with a high level of moral attentiveness do not change between the situation of accountability and without accountability. Individuals with a high level of reflective moral attentiveness behaved morally in presence of accountability and codes of conduct, in presence of only codes of conduct and also in absence of accountability and codes of conduct.

Consequently, differences were found between individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness and individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness. In condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), a high suitability ratings difference in/out-groups were observed for individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness while individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness rated equally applicants of different origin. This result supported Hypothesis H3a which claimed that in condition 1, participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. However, this hypothesis was supported only with the reflective dimension of moral attentiveness. Similar results were found for the condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability). So accountability did not have the effect expected on individuals low in moral attentiveness because discrimination was observed in condition 3. However, in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct) no difference appeared between individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness and individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness on the suitability ratings difference in/out-groups. This result supported partially Hypothesis 4a which claimed that in condition 2, higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the more likely they will follow the organizational codes of conduct and ignore supervisor’s unethical advice. Thereby, participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. It was found that individuals with a high level of reflective moral attentiveness rated equally in-group and out-group applicants in condition 2. But it was also found that people with a low reflective moral attentiveness rated equally applicants and in condition 2. So contrary to what the Hypothesis 4a claimed, individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness, as well as individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness rated equally in-group and out-group applicants in the presence of codes of conduct. This unexpected result may be explained by the fact that codes of
conduct had the effect to increase awareness of the moral dimension of dilemma among individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness. But discrimination observed in condition 3 among individuals low in moral attentiveness may by the result of a transfer of responsibility as highlighted in the discussion of the first purpose of this study.

Secondly, other analyses revealed that the suitability ratings difference between the two out-groups was significantly related to the interaction between organizational context variables and perceptual moral attentiveness. Individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness rated more positively Kosovo Albanians candidates compared to Spanish applicants in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability) than in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice). Therefore, codes of conduct and accountability in condition 3 had an effect on these individuals. It may be explained by the fact that codes of conduct and accountability implied a decrease of stereotypes individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness have on Kosovo Albanians. However, the supervisor’s advice in condition 1 may have implied the effect to enhance stereotypes on Kosovo Albanians individuals have: individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness may think that it is morally fairer to evaluate more positively Spanish candidates than Kosovo Albanians because they seem to fit better with the job. The basis of this reasoning may be explain by the fact that Spanish are a population well-accepted in Switzerland compared to Kosovo Albanians who are the population the most dislike (Krings & Olivares, 2007). So this discrimination against Kosovo Albanians may be the result of stereotypes fostered by the supervisor’s advice in condition 1.

Thirdly, a main effect of reflective moral attentiveness was found on the suitability ratings difference between in-group and Spanish candidates. Individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness rated more positively in-group applicants than Spanish applicants. However, individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness rated equally in-group and Spanish applicants. So less individuals reflect on a situation in term of morality, more they discriminate out-group members, and in particular Spanish applicants. Inversely, more individuals reflect on a situation in term of morality, less they discriminate out-group members, and in particular Spanish applicants. This result supported Hypothesis 3 which claimed that overall, higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the less likely they will follow supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. So more individuals reflect
on situations in term of morality, less they will discriminate out-group members. However, this result cannot be generalized since this main effect was not found with the other suitability ratings differences (in vs. out-group; in vs. Kosovo Albanians; Spanish vs. Kosovo Albanians).

Analyses performed on the suitability ratings of candidates revealed that Spanish and Kosovo Albanians applicants were more positively rated by individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness than by individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness. It supports the first part of the Hypothesis 3 which states that overall higher is the moral attentiveness of individuals, the less likely they will comply with the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. So more individuals reflect on a situation in term of morality, more they behave morally. It was also found that in-group applicants (Swiss) were more positively rated in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct) by individuals high in reflective moral attentiveness than by individuals with a low reflective moral attentiveness. Therefore, codes of conduct had a different effect on individuals according to their level of reflective moral attentiveness.

Significant results were also found on the number of candidates selected per origin. Analyses performed on the number of Kosovo Albanians and Spanish candidates revealed relationships with the interaction between perceptual moral attentiveness of participants and organizational context variables. But no significant relationship was found with the number of in-group (Swiss) applicants selected. Therefore, it demonstrated that results found in the first purpose of this study (that in-group members are more selected in condition 1 and 3 than in condition 2) were not related to moral attentiveness.

Hypothesis H3 claimed that overall, higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the less likely they will follow supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. This statement was not supported since no main effect of perceptual or reflective moral attentiveness was found on the number of candidates selected per origin. More particularly, Hypothesis 3b claimed that in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice), participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will select more out-group candidates than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. This hypothesis was not supported since no significant difference
between individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness and individuals with a low perceptual moral attentiveness appeared on the number of candidates selected per origin in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice).

However, Hypothesis 4b was supported. This hypothesis claimed that in condition 2 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct), higher is the participants’ level of moral attentiveness, the more likely they will follow the organizational codes of conduct and ignore supervisor’s unethical advice. Thereby, participants with a high level of moral attentiveness will select a higher number of out-group candidates than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness. It was found that in condition 2 individuals with a high level of perceptual moral attentiveness selected a higher number of Kosovo Albanians applicants than individuals with a low level of perceptual moral attentiveness. However, results cannot be generalized since no difference was observed on the number of Spanish selected. But this result can be explain by the fact that in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice) very few Kosovo Albanians were selected while a reasonable number of Spanish applicants were selected. So codes of conduct had the effect to reduce discrimination against Kosovo Albanians for individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness.

Finally, Hypothesis 5b claimed that in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability), participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will follow the organizational codes of conduct and ignore supervisor’s unethical advice because are accountable to an audience. Thereby, participants with a low level of moral attentiveness will evaluate out-group candidates more positively than participants with a low level of moral attentiveness who are not accountable to an audience. However, behaviours of participants with a high level of moral attentiveness do not change between the situation of accountability and without accountability. This hypothesis was partially supported. Individuals with a low perceptual moral attentiveness selected less Spanish candidates in condition 1 than in condition 3. So, accountability had a positive effect on the number of Spanish selected for individuals with a low perceptual moral attentiveness. However, the number of Kosovo Albanians selected did not change across conditions for individuals with a low perceptual moral attentiveness. They selected on average a small number of Kosovo Albanians candidates. Concerning individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness, opposite
results were found. They selected less Spanish candidates in condition 3 than in condition 1. In addition, they selected more Kosovo Albanians in condition 2 than in condition 1 and 3. Therefore, for individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness accountability had the opposite effect than expected: as in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice) they discriminated Kosovo Albanians in condition 3 (supervisor’s advice + codes of conduct + accountability). Thus as found with analyses of the purpose 1 of this study, opposite effect of accountability was found, but in this case, it refers to individuals high in moral attentiveness. It may be explain by the fact that individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness found it is not fair to discriminate out-group members, so when they were accountable to an audience (condition 3) they decided to comply with the supervisor by hoping that he will be sanctioned. So they selected very few Kosovo Albanians and Spanish candidates in this condition. However, in condition 2 when they were no accountable to an audience they felt themselves responsible of their decisions and therefore they complied with codes of conduct and did not comply with the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members.

**General discussion**

Overall, it can be said that discrimination against Kosovo Albanians found with analyses related to the purpose 1 of this study was also found with analyses related to the purpose 2. However, it appeared that this discrimination was especially exercised by individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness. They complied with supervisor’s advice in condition 1 and 3. But in condition 2, codes of conduct overcame this negative effect: they complied with codes of conduct and not with the supervisor’s advice. So for these individuals who perceive more easily moral elements in situations, their discriminatory behaviours can be explained by the transfer of responsibility. In condition 1, they did not feel responsible of the decision to discriminate out-group members because it was an advice provided by their supervisor. In condition 2 they complied with codes of conduct because codes are important for these individuals. And as their organization promotes codes of conduct, they felt personally responsible to apply these codes. However, in condition 3 they felt no more responsible of their decision because will have the opportunity to justify their choice: “I discriminated out-group members because my supervisor exercised pressure on me to do that”. And it may be think that they expected their supervisor will be sanctioned and not themselves.
An interesting result was also found on Spanish candidates. Analyses related to the purpose 1 revealed that Spanish candidates were not discriminated: they were fairly evaluated and a reasonable number was selected for an interview. However, Kosovo Albanians were discriminated in condition 1 and 3 (very few were selected for an interview). So it seems that Spanish candidates are treated as “in-group members” by in-group participants (Swiss). Similar results were found with analyses related to the purpose 2. The suitability difference between the two out-group applicants revealed a difference in treatment. Individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness rated more positively Spanish candidates than Kosovo Albanians candidates in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice). This result can be due to the fact that Kosovo Albanians are the population the most dislike in Switzerland (Krings & Olivares, 2007). So participants in absence of codes of conduct and accountability complied with the supervisor’s advice by evaluating less positively Kosovo Albanians than Spanish candidates. Concerning the selection of candidates, in condition 1 (supervisor’s advice) individuals with a high perceptual moral attentiveness selected a high number of Spanish candidates and a low number of Kosovo Albanians. It was also found that individuals with a high reflective moral attentiveness rated equally in-group (Swiss) and Spanish applicants in the three conditions. So according to all these results it seems that individual with a high level of moral attentiveness considered Spanish as in-group members.

More generally, results related to the purpose 1 demonstrated that discrimination in suitability ratings is not the result of organizational context variables because no difference was found between conditions. However, results related to the purpose 2 demonstrated that it is due to moral attentiveness of individuals and to the interaction between organizational context variables and moral attentiveness of individuals. So morality of individuals seems to be a determinant of their behaviours: depending on the context (supervisor’s advice, codes of conduct, accountability) and the level of morality of individuals, non-discriminatory or discriminatory behaviours will be observed. In addition, it was found that overall individuals with a high perceptual or reflective moral attentiveness (depending on the dependent variable) behave morally. This is in line with findings of Reynolds (2008).
8 Practical Implications

Nowadays, workplace market is becoming global due to the increasing movement of population around the world. Therefore, the working population is becoming more and more diverse. But, discrimination within organizations is still present and even is increasing. Next to the immoral aspect of this kind of practices, discrimination can have negative consequences for organizations: it can have legal consequences and also social consequences, mainly in term of reputation. Therefore, it is crucial for companies to promote ethical behaviours among their employees.

Formal systems are a basis to build an ethical climate, and especially codes of conduct because they edict appropriate behaviours to adopt inside organizations. So a first recommendation for organizations is to implement codes of conduct. It has the impact to inform employees that their company matters about ethical aspects of the organizational life. But codes are not effective in all situations as highlighted by previous findings and also by the present study. The interaction between informal systems and formal rules can foster good practices or inversely increase unethical behaviours. For instance, the present study demonstrated that when participants were provided codes of conduct they behaved ethically but when in addition they were accountable to an audience, they complied with the supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group candidates. A possible explanation is the displacement of responsibility from people to the authority’s figure: as people knew they will have to justify their decision, they had in mind to explain that their decision was the result of a compliant behaviour towards pressures exerted by their supervisor to prefer in-group members. Therefore as a second recommendation, organizations have to make employees responsible of their decisions, even if they are “simple employees”. This can be implemented through active communication. In seminars, codes of conduct might be presented to each new person hired and the notion of responsibility should be emphasis. Employees have be educated on the fact that it is not because they have to comply with their supervisor that they have to do “all” orders received. Thus, an ethical climate has to be set, so that even an employee can refuse to comply with an order perceived as unethical or immoral. Inversely, if they behave unethically, they will be personally responsible of their act or decision-making. Overall, companies have to know that codes are important but not sufficient: active communication on ethical dimension in the organizational life should be made.
Another implication refers to findings on moral attentiveness. In general, it was found that individuals with a high level of moral attentiveness (perceptual and reflective) behave morally. Therefore, morality test may be a solution to predict if an individual will have appropriate or ethical behaviour inside organizations. Especially, this kind of test can be used to recruit new employees in organizations.

9 Limitations and Future Research

The methodology used limits the generalizations of results. First, an in-basket exercise was used to study the discrimination in the personnel selection. Therefore, people do not act in the same way as they will do in a real situation because consequences of decisions are only virtual. It has the effect to underestimate the importance of dilemmas presented to them. For instance, in a role-play it can be easy to follow formal rules such as codes of conduct but in real situation it can be very difficult to overcome pressure from a supervisor.

Secondly, a convenient sample was used because was mainly composed by managers who attend to training course. An appropriate sample would be a sample of recruiters.

Thirdly, the sample size was relatively small. It was mainly due to the length of the in-basket exercise, which was approximately 20 minutes. It is time-consuming for managers who work, study and have also a family life. This drawback is due to the introduction of the exercise which was quite long, but it was necessary to explain the situation and the instructions to participants. Several dilemmas have also to be added next to the task of interest (evaluate and select applicants) in order to avoid that participants guess that the true purpose of the study (discrimination in the personnel selection). The sample is also relatively small due to the fact that the study was mainly about the personnel selection in Switzerland (“Suisse Romande” in particular). Therefore, all non-Swiss participants were removed from the sample. This particular sample also limits the generalization of results to the others part of Switzerland (i.e. German and Italian part).
Therefore to overcome these limitations, future research should investigate deeply the relationships tested in the present study by using a larger sample. To improve the ecological validity, a field study would be more appropriate because behaviours of managers in real situation would be observed. But, the main problem may be that organizations and in particular consultants in recruitment do not want to show how they select candidates because do not want that some discriminatory cases are observed.

Future research should also emphasis on unexpected results. In accordance with past findings, supervisor’s advice has a powerful effect on individuals behaviours because can lead to discrimination via compliant behaviours towards the supervisor’s unethical advice. Petersen and Krings (2009) found that codes are ineffective when face to a supervisor’s advice. But this study, by using a similar in-basket exercise, showed opposite results: codes overcame the advice to discriminate. So, further evidence should be provided on codes effectiveness.

Concerning the effect of accountability, the unexpected result should be investigated deeply. If individuals still complied under justification pressure, the most plausible explanation is that they transferred their responsibility of their decision-making on their supervisor. Therefore, future research should be made on the feeling of responsibility about decision-making and especially if this compliant behaviour towards supervisor’s advice to discriminate out-group candidates under justification pressure is the result of a displacement of responsibility. Therefore, the effect of codes of conduct and accountability may be due to the fact that individuals feel themselves no more personally responsible in this situation because they have the opportunities to justify their choice in front of an audience. In this case, they will follow the supervisor’s advice in the hope their supervisor will be sanctioned. The effect of codes of conduct has also to be assessed in order to know if codes overcame the advice to discriminate because people feel themselves personally responsible. These new hypotheses are summarized in the Figure 9.1 below.
Therefore, by making individuals personally responsible of their decisions, compliant behaviour towards supervisor’s unethical advice and so discrimination may be prevented.

Future research should also try to understand why Kosovo Albanians applicants were less favourably evaluated and were less selected than Spanish candidates by people with a high level of perceptual moral attentiveness in presence of supervisor’s advice to prefer in-group members? Is it the result of the supervisor’s advice, the result of stereotypes the Swiss participants have about Kosovo Albanians, or simply because Spanish are considered as in-group members?

Finally, the level of moral attentiveness of individuals should be investigated deeply in the field of discrimination because it seems to influence behaviours of individuals.
References


Appendix I: E-mail Sent to Managers

Bonjour,

Je suis étudiante en dernière année de Master ès Sciences en Management (Organizational Behaviour major) à la Faculté des HEC de Lausanne. Je réalise une thèse sur le comportement des managers face à la prise de décisions en entreprise.

Je vous invite, vous tout particulièrement, à remplir mon questionnaire, car ayant déjà acquis une expérience pertinente dans le monde du travail, vous êtes la personne la plus adéquate pour répondre aux questions. Il s'agit d'un exercice de mise en situation où vous devez répondre aux questions dans la peau du manager, Pascal Chapuis.

Les informations recueillies seront purement confidentielles et anonymes, et ne seront utilisées que dans le cadre de cette étude.

Le questionnaire est disponible via les liens suivants:
- si la première lettre de votre nom de famille se trouve entre les lettres A et H, cliquez sur ce lien: http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=wWmJwjbPzlO3gADEuKYMGW_3d_3d
- si la première lettre de votre nom de famille se trouve entre les lettres Q et Z, cliquez sur ce lien: http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=OAEgff5Ke401IGNp_2bOAAQ_3d_3d

Ce questionnaire sera accessible jusqu'au lundi 20 avril 2009 et ne vous prendra que 20 minutes pour le remplir.

En espérant avoir attiré votre curiosité face à mon étude, veuillez recevoir mes meilleures salutations.

Je vous remercie d'avance pour votre contribution.
Kleinlogel Emmanuelle
Appendix II: The In-basket Exercise

PREMIERE PARTIE: LE COURRIER DU MATIN

Dans cet exercice vous serez amené/e à jouer le rôle d'un chef de département d'entreprise et à prendre différentes décisions.
Ce genre d'exercice est un instrument courant pour étudier et évaluer les comportements décisionnels, il sera nommé «le courrier du matin ». Lors de vos décisions, vous aurez différentes alternatives parmi lesquelles nous vous prions de choisir. Vous aurez parfois l'impression qu'aucune de ces alternatives ne convient. 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. 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 concerne le courrier du matin, dans laquelle 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.
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 sa direction, le restaurant atteint en peu de temps un succès fou. Lavanchy ouvre rapidement deux autres filiales à Lausanne, les investisseurs adorent. L’entreprise a jusqu’alors plus de 135 filiales en Suisse et planifie l’ouverture de dix nouvelles filiales par année, pour au moins 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 de garantir 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 au 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 de Distribution. Ses principales fonctions sont la publicité et la diffusion ainsi que le développement de nouveaux commerces comprenant la ligne des produits surgelés.

Votre rôle:

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 elle 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 disposiez 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.
LA BOUCHEE RAPIDE : Codes de Conduite

Depuis quelques années, les collaborateurs de LA BOUCHEE RAPIDE se sont engagés sur des directives concernant des règles de conduite. Ainsi, ont été mis en place des codes de conduite afin de guider le comportement de chacun pour améliorer la qualité de leur travail.

Ces règles sont primordiales au sein de l'entreprise; et vous sont donc communiquées ci-dessous.

---

2 This information about codes of conduct was not provided to participants of the condition 1.
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 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 rapports aux personnes et à l’environnement pour tous les lieux où elle est implantée. En outre, La Bouchée Rapide encourage des initiatives visant 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 !
COMMISSION POUR LES DROITS DES TRAVAILLEURS

Note interne

A tout le personnel

De:
Anne Lavanchy
Président-directeur Général

10 mars 2009

Notification de convocation

Après avoir constaté plusieurs non-respects des codes de conduite dans notre entreprise, une Commission pour les Droits des Travailleurs a été mise en place. Toute personne amenée à prendre des décisions ayant des conséquences pour l'entreprise doit passer devant cette Commission afin d'exprimer sa décision et d'en énumérer les raisons.

Cette convocation n'est en aucun cas un contrôle de votre capacité à prendre des décisions et ne remet nullement en cause vos compétences.

Le but est de s'assurer que l'engagement pris par l'entreprise de suivre des principes éthiques est bien respecté. Mais aussi pour s'assurer que l'entreprise ne sera confrontée en aucun cas à des plaintes concernant des faits qui enfreindraient notamment les standards de conduite mis en place.

Il est donc possible qu'à tout moment un employé soit convoqué devant cette Commission pour justifier de ses décisions.

---

3 This information concerning the Committee for the Right of Workers was only provided to participants of the condition 3.
LA BOUCHÉE RAPIDE: La situation actuelle

Aujourd'hui mardi 10 mars 2009 à 7h30, vous, Pascal Chapuis, avez moins de 25 minutes pour traiter votre courrier du matin avant votre rencontre avec Montandon à 8h00, rencontre qui va probablement durer tout la 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 le potentiel de présenter un tel bilan à l'avenir également.

Comme d'habitude Madame Burki n'a déposé dans votre courrier du matin que 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 pris votre décision, vous aurez la possibilité faire des commentaires supplémentaires pour l'expliquer, si toutefois vous le désirez.

Veuillez maintenant traiter le courrier du matin aux pages suivantes. Vous en avez 10 au total.
COURRIER 01

Note interne

Pour:
Monsieur
Pascal Chapuis
Chef du Département Gestion
et Finances

De:
Mathieu Wyss
Responsable de service pour
la gestion des propriétés foncières

9 mars 2009

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.

Monsieur Chapuis, que dois-je transmettre à Monsieur Wyss ?

1. Nous allons renoncer à cette participation et nous prendrons part à une autre foire.
2. Choisissez l'une des places bon marché. Celui qui est vraiment intéressé par notre société pourra nous trouver là-bas.

Madame Burki
COURRIER 02

Note interne

Pour:
Monsieur
Pascal Chapuis
Chef du Département Gestion et Finances

De:
Robert Meyer
Conseiller Juridique

9 mars 2009

Notre collègue Geneviève Jacquier

Comme vous le savez, puisqu’ils ne sont plus amis, Mathieu Wyss veut licencier sa collègue Geneviève Jacquier. Personnellement je crois que Madame Jacquier est une très bonne trésorière pour les propriétés foncières et est aussi une 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 licencions, elle risque aussitôt de nous intenter une action judiciaire pour motifs de licenciement injustifiés.

Monsieur Chapuis, que dois-je transmettre à Monsieur Meyer?

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.

Madame Burki
COURRIER 03

Note interne

Pour:
Monsieur
Pascal Chapuis
Chef du Département Gestion
et Finances

De:
Marie Sommer
Cheffe du département Distribution

10 mars 2009

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 2009 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 transmettre à Madame Sommer ?

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. Annuler les réservations.

Madame Burki
COURRIER 04

Note interne

Pour:
Monsieur
Pascal Chapuis
Chef du Département Gestion et Finances

Monsieur
Richard Lehmann
Chef du département Opérations d’entreprise

Madame
Marie Sommer
Cheffe du département distribution

De:
Madame
Anne Lavanchy
Président-Directeur-Général

6 mars 2009

Succession 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 recherchons une personne avec d'énormes compétences sociales et qui démontre un talent de leader 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 questions 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.
COURRIER 05

Note interne

Pour:
Monsieur
Pascal Chapuis
Chef du Département Gestion et Finances

De:
Julie Lavanchy Steiner
Responsable du service des Ressources Humaines

6 mars 2009

Sélection du nouvel assistant du service des Ressources Humaines

Le nouvel assistant aura pour mission de m'assister dans la promotion et l'application de la politique RH de l'entreprise ainsi que dans ses tâches principales, à savoir:
- Recrutement
- Suivis des collaborateurs
- Collaboration avec les opérationnels
- Mise en place d'outils RH
- Administration

J'ai prié mes collègues d'effectuer une présélection à l'arrivée des candidatures. Cette présélection a permis dans un premier temps de ne conserver que les candidats remplissant les conditions formelles (niveau d'éducation exigé, autorisations de travail si nécessaires). Il en résulte à présent une liste qui à notre avis peut entrer en ligne de compte.

Montandon vous a chargé de sélectionner les deux 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 suivant de Monsieur Montandon.

Madame Burki
Note interne

Pour:
Monsieur
Pascal Chapuis
Chef du Département Gestion
et Finances

De:
Daniel Montandon
Directeur

6 mars 2009

Sélection d'un nouvel assistant du service des Ressources Humaines

Cela me rassure de savoir que la nouvelle affectation du 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 pas quelqu'un 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 nécessaires gère les problèmes liés au personnel.

3) J'ai déjà examiné brièvement les candidatures et j'ai été étonné de voir que certains étrangers ont postulé. Compte tenu que ce Département est composé essentiellement d'employés suisses, veuillez s'il vous plaît, ne choisir aucun étranger.

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

Monsieur Chapuis,
Voici ici la liste des candidats à la page suivante.

Madame Burki
COURRIER 07

CANDIDAT N°1 – JEAN-DANIEL DUPUIS

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 4 ans: Employé dans le Département du Personnel chez Bobst SA

Formation
- Etudes en économie politique à Neuchâtel

Score-HR-Potential-Test
- 63

Maîtrise des langues
-Très bonnes connaissances de l'anglais

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme
- Âge: 31
- Etat civil: marié, vit avec sa femme et ses deux enfants à Yverdon-les-Bains

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e:

_Veuillez noter ce qui correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e à votre avis._

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Qualifications préalables pour le job</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3. Acceptable</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7. Très bien</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Spontanément, comment estimez vous les qualités relationnelles de cette personne, telle que la gentillesse, la sympathie, la cordialité ?</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CANDIDAT N°2 – PABLO ESCOBAR

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 2 ans: Cadre chez un grand Pizza-Service régional avec une entreprise de restauration
- 4 ans: Assisitant coordinateur du personnel chez Coop

Formation
- Etudes en économie politique à Neuchâtel

Score–HR-Potential-Test
- 70

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

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme
- Âge: 33
- Etat civil: marié, vit avec sa femme et ses deux enfants à Lausanne

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e:

Veuillez noter ce qui correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e à votre avis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Qualifications préalables pour le job</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7. Très bien</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 2. Expérience professionnelle pour le job | O  | O  | O  | O  | O  | O            |

| 3. Aptitudes pour le job dans son ensemble | O  | O  | O  | O  | O  | O            |

| 4. Spontanément, comment estimez vous les qualités relationnelles de cette personne, telle que la gentillesse, la sympathie, la cordialité ? | O  | O  | O  | O  | O  | O            |
CANDIDAT N°3 – RUDAN VUKSANOVIC

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 4 ans: Employé dans le Département des Ressources Humaines chez Boss (Central)

Formation
- Études en gestion d'entreprise à Lucerne

Score–HR-Potential-Test
- 64

Maîtrise des langues
- très bonnes connaissances de l'anglais

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

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e:

Veuillez noter ce qui correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e à votre avis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Très mauvais</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3. Acceptable</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7. Très bien</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications préalables pour le job</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expérience professionnelle pour le job</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aptitudes pour le job dans son ensemble</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spontanément, comment estimez vous les qualités relationnelles de cette personne, telle que la gentillesse, la sympathie, la cordialité ?</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CANDIDAT N°4 – JUAN LOPEZ

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 3 ans: Assistant du responsable des ventes chez Findus

Formation
- Études en gestion d'entreprise à Genève

Score–HR-Potential-Test
- 65

Maîtrise des langues
- très bonnes connaissances de l'anglais

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme
- Âge: 34
- Etat civil: célibataire, vit avec sa compagne à Morges

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e:

Veuillez noter ce qui correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e à votre avis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Très mauvais</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4. Acceptable</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7. Très bien</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Qualifications préalables pour le job</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Expérience professionnelle pour le job</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Aptitudes pour le job dans son ensemble</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Spontanément, comment estimez vous les qualités relationnelles de cette personne, telle que la gentillesse, la sympathie, la cordialité ?</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CANDIDAT N°5 – JEAN-MARC FELDMAN

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 3 ans: Collaborateur de service dans un restaurant « Le Grand Lac » à Montreux
- 3 ans: Assistant dans le service de gestion du personnel chez "Le Grand Lac" (gestion centrale)

Formation
- Etudes en alternance en gestion d'entreprise à Lausanne

Score–HR-Potential-Test
- 71

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

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe : homme
- Âge: 33
- Etat civil : célibataire

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e:

Veuillez noter ce qui correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e à votre avis.

| 1. Qualifications préalables pour le job | O | O | O | O | O | O | O |
| 2. Expérience professionnelle pour le job | O | O | O | O | O | O | O |
| 3. Aptitudes pour le job dans son ensemble | O | O | O | O | O | O | O |
| 4. Spontanément, comment estimez vous les qualités relationnelles de cette personne, telle que la gentillesse, la sympathie, la cordialité ? | O | O | O | O | O | O | O |
CANDIDAT N°6 – BLIRIM ISLAMI

Expérience professionnelle pertinente
- 2 ans: Employé dans la gestion chez Migros (coordination du personnel)
- 4 ans: Assistant de Direction dans une filiale de Burger King à Genève

Formation
- Études en économie politique à Genève

Score–HR-Potential-Test
- 72

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

Informations supplémentaires
- Sexe: homme
- Âge: 33
- Etat civil: marié, vit avec sa femme et son enfant à Nyon

Appréciation de ce/cette candidat/e:

Veuillez noter ce qui correspond le mieux aux aptitudes du/de la candidat/e à votre avis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1. Très mauvais</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4. Acceptable</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7. Très bien</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Qualifications préalables pour le job</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Expérience professionnelle pour le job</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Aptitudes pour le job dans son ensemble</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Spontanément, comment estimez vous les qualités relationnelles de cette personne, telle que la gentillesse, la sympathie, la cordialité?</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Merci beaucoup

Madame Burki

Candidate préféré : ..............................................
Second candidat préféré : .........................................
COURRIER 08

Note interne

Pour:
Monsieur
Pascal Chapuis
Chef du Département Gestion
et Finances

De:
Jean Bonnard
Contrôleur

6 mars 2009

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 ?

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

Madame Burki
COURRIER 09

Note interne

Pour:
Monsieur
Pascal Chapuis
Chef du Département Gestion
et Finances

De:
Julie Lavanchy-Steiner
Responsable du service
des Ressources Humaines

9 mars 2009

Le programme « Service Culture » du Professeur Marchand

Comme vous vous le souvenez probablement, je défends le 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, que dois-je répondre à Monsieur Bonnard ?

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.


Madame Burki
Remarque sur l'exercice Courrier du matin

Avez-vous eu l'impression que vos décisions dans cet exercice avaient des dimensions éthiques ou morales?

1. Non
2. Certaine
3. En majorité,
4. Oui, dans presque toute

Quelles décisions avaient pour vous des dimensions éthiques ou morales?

.............................................................................................................................
.............................................................................................................................
Questions finales sur l'exercice Courrier du matin

Dans cette 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 six candidats pour le poste d'assistant de référence des ressources humaines vous deviez en sélectionner deux 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.

- **Etat civil**
  1. Monsieur Montandon préférait une personne célibataire.
  2. Monsieur Montandon préférait une personne mariée.
  3. Monsieur Montandon n’a exprimé aucune préférence quant à l’état civil des candidats.

- **Origine**
  1. Monsieur Montandon préférait un candidat suisse.
  3. Monsieur Montandon n’a exprimé aucune préférence quant à l’origine des candidats.

- **Expérience professionnelle**
  1. Monsieur Montandon préférait une personne avec de l’expérience professionnelle dans le secteur gastronomique et dans le domaine du personnel.
  3. Monsieur Montandon n’a exprimé aucune préférence quant à une expérience professionnelle particulière.
### Appendix III: Moral Attentiveness Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1. Pas du tout d’accord</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4. Neutre</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7. Tout à fait d’accord</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Lors d’une journée ordinaire, je fais face à plusieurs dilemmes éthiques</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Je dois souvent choisir entre faire ce qui est juste et faire quelque chose de mal</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Je fais régulièrement face à des décisions qui ont d’importantes implications éthiques</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Dans ma vie, j’ai rencontré un dilemme moral après l’autre</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Parmi les décisions que je prends, beaucoup comprennent des dimensions éthiques</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Je pense régulièrement aux implications éthiques de mes décisions</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Je pense à la moralité de mes actions presque chaque jour</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Je fais rarement face à des dilemmes éthiques</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Je rencontre fréquemment des situations éthiques</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) Il m’arrive souvent que je me creuse la tête sur des questions éthiques</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) Je réfléchi souvent aux aspects moraux de mes décisions</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12) J’aime penser à l’éthique</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>