#### ICT158

Introduction to Information Systems



#### Topic 5

# Decisions and decision making





#### COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

#### **Copyright Regulations 1969**

#### WARNING

This material has been reproduced and communicated to you by or on behalf of Murdoch University pursuant to Part VB of the Copyright Act 1968 (the Act).

The material in this communication may be subject to copyright under the Act.

Any further reproduction or communication of this material by you may be the subject of copyright protection under the Act.

Do not remove this notice.

# Learning objectives



After completing this topic you should be able to:

- Explain why individuals and organisations need to make decisions and identify the main themes involved in decision-making
- Distinguish between rational and intuitive aspects of decisions
- Explain how uncertainty and risk, framing and biases affect decisionmaking
- Distinguish between structured, unstructured and semi-structured decisions, and give examples of each for an organisation
- Briefly explain the difference between classical decision theory and behavioural approaches
- Use multi-criteria decision-making to evaluate alternatives with conflicting priorities
- Use decision tables and decision trees to represent the logic of structured decisions

Readings



- Belanger, F. & Van Slyke, C. (2012) Chapter 6: Analysing information for business decisionmaking. In *Information Systems for Business: An Experiential Approach*. Wiley. Available through MyUnitReadings
- Some of the material in this lecture is from Gammack, J, Hobbs, V, & Pigott, D. (2007). *The Book of Informatics*. Melbourne: Cengage Learning Australia Pty Ltd. Chapter 7 – some pages will be available through MyUnitReadings

#### Overview



- How individuals make decisions
- Decisions and organisations
- Representing decision logic
- Group decision-making

# 5.1 How individuals make decisions



5.1.1 What is a decision?

5.1.2 The nature of decision-making

- Rational versus intuitive
- Bias and the effect on decision-making
- Uncertainty and risk



#### What did you have for breakfast this morning?

#### What influenced your decision?



#### What else did you decide today?



- Whether to get out of bed...
- What to wear...



- Whether to come to this lecture...
- Whether to try and get a close parking spot...
- Whether to throw out or recycle the drink cans...
- Which mobile phone to buy...
- Who to vote for in the guild/council election...
- Where to go on holiday...
- Whether to take that job you were offered...

# What factors affected your decision-making?

Intuition **Competing values** Emotion Uncertainty Risk Calculation **Morals Ethics** Other people





ICT 158 Introduction to Information Systems

. . .





#### A choice made between alternative courses of action in a situation of uncertainty

What decisions might be made at a university?



How many textbooks to reorder for a unit Who teaches what next semester How to determine who can graduate Whether to put on a new unit/course How to brand/advertise Whether to open a new campus

What information would be needed for each of these?

#### Recap



A decision is a choice between alternatives, in

a situation of uncertainty, and is influenced

by factors such as intuition, other people,

risk, amongst others.



# How individuals make decisions

# The nature of decision making



How does a person make a decision?

Decisions may:

- Be based on reason or emotion
- Involve personal styles and preferences
- Involve personal values and principles
- Be based on faulty reasoning or biases
- Involve uncertainty
- Be affected by risk perception and framing

Rational decision – a decision that is based on the available information, weighing advantages and disadvantages in a logical manner The large size coffee tin is better value, but if I buy that I won't have enough money for cheese

I can't really afford those shoes but they make me feel great! **Intuitive decision** – a decision that is predominantly based on feelings or values rather than being made rationally

**Values** – individual moral and social beliefs and principles

I won't buy genetically modified food products

## Rational versus intuitive



- Rational decisions are arrived at through reasoning and logic
- Intuitive may be spontaneous emotional decisions, maybe subconscious
- In practice, most decisions are likely to be a mixture of both emotion and reason, or at least validated against the other mode
- Often a decision is made because it 'feels right' and only later is rationalised

## Rational versus intuitive



- Intuition can also draw on expertise when an expert knows a field so well they 'just know' the answer without apparently reasoning through it
- --- However, they are actually likely to be drawing on extensive previous experience and recognised patterns, and simply applying a shortcut or **heuristic**
- Thus the ability to memorise and recognise familiar patterns, recognise the relevance of new information and to make connections can help increase decision quality

## Cognitive biases



Human thinking is prone to **bias** which can directly affect the quality of decision making

- Biases are 'short cuts' (heuristics) in thinking that lead to the wrong place
- It's important to be aware of the possibility of cognitive bias in your (or someone else's) thinking

The classic work on cognitive bias was done by Amos Tversky and Daniel Kahneman (where these examples are taken from):

'The framing of decisions and the psychology of choice' Science, 1981. 211: 453-8 [available through MyUnitReadings]

"Linda is 31 years old, single, outspoken and bright. She majored in philosophy. As a student she was deeply concerned with issues of discrimination and social justice, and also participated in antinuclear demonstrations."



#### Which is most likely?

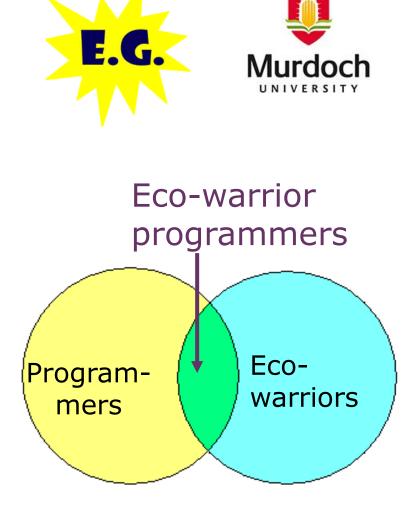
A: Linda is a programmer B : Linda is a programmer and an eco-warrior

(after Tversky & Kahneman, 1982)

A programmer and ecowarrior can't be more likely than just "a programmer"!

#### This is an example of **representativeness bias** (Also called conjunction fallacy)

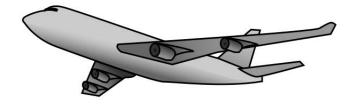
- where the probability of something is estimated erroneously, because it is based on a preconceived idea of its representativeness of a particular category



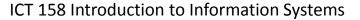
### Availability bias

 Which is a more likely cause of death in the United States being killed by falling aeroplane parts or by a shark?









## Availability bias



- In the USA, the chances of dying from falling aeroplane parts is 30 times greater\* than dying from a shark attack
- However shark attacks are easier to imagine and receive more publicity
  - the information is more *available*

- more people rated shark attacks as the more likely cause of death

\*from Scott Plous, S (1993) The Psychology of Judgment and Decision Making

#### Gambler's fallacy



#### A fair coin is flipped five times – HHHHH You have to bet \$100 on next outcome. H or T – why?





#### Gambler's fallacy



- No preference is correct
- **T** was thought of as more likely due to run
- Assumption that chance sequences must be locally representative – wrong!



# Cognitive biases affecting decision making



- Cognitive biases introduce unpredictability and irrationality into human decision-making
- This can have significant implications, e.g. decisions on funding:

More shark nets or more research on diabetes?

Lots of examples here:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\_of\_cognitive\_biases

# Some cognitive biases affecting decision making



**Negativity** bias – giving more weight to negative than positive information

- **Confirmation** bias searching for information that supports preconceptions
- Loss aversion making losses more important than equal gains
- Bandwagon tendency to do/believe something because others do
- **Gambler's fallacy** believing that random events are influenced by previous random events



Biases are 'short cuts' (*heuristics*) in thinking that

lead to the wrong place

Cognitive biases (such as representativeness;

availability; gambler's fallacy) introduce

unpredictability and irrationality into human

decision-making

### Uncertainty and risk



Х

- In a *closed world* situation the complete set of choices and their relative probability is known
- In these situations the risk of each alternative can be estimated statistically and decisions based on this
- However where we don't have complete information, we have uncertainty



Risk associated with uncertainty can be reduced by taking *extra information* into account

# th?

We know that 'the' is a much more common word than 'thy' in English - guessing that the next letter is E is a lower risk strategy



Relevant information might include...

- Projected number of students in the unit
- Whether the book is required or optional
- Whether it was used last year
- Whether it will be used again next year
- Whether there are other bookshops nearby
- Whether it's available online
- What it costs



. . .

## Risk perception



- Taking risks is a personal preference and rests on an individual's emotional comfort with a choice and their relative optimism, pessimism or realism
- Risks may be perceived differently by different people (and even by the same person under different conditions)
- This means that individuals will vary in their assessment of the likelihood of outcomes and behave accordingly

You are in charge of a hospital, preparing to combat a disease expected to kill 600 people

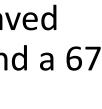
- If program A is adopted:
  200 people will be saved
- If program **B** is adopted:
  There is a 33% probability that 600 people will be saved

and a 67% probability that no people will be saved

#### WHICH DO YOU CHOOSE?







You are in charge of a hospital, preparing to combat a disease expected to kill 600 people

- If program C is adopted:
  400 people will die
- If program **D** is adopted:
  There is a 33% probability that nobody will die and a 67% probability that 600 people will die









#### Framing



- In this example, programs A and C, and B and D, are identical – just *framed* differently
- However when this dilemma was given to real doctors, they made different choices, depending on which version they read:
- In the first version, most (72 per cent) chose program A.

This is a conservative, low risk choice.

• In the second version though, 78 per cent chose D, the higher risk option!



## Framing and risk perception



- This example was used by Tversky and Kahneman in their work on prospect theory
- Prospect theory addresses the finding that people have different attitudes to the same risk whether it is **framed** in terms of loss or gain
- This is significant, as it means that decision-makers may behave inconstantly or irrationally

## Framing and risk perception



- You are about to buy petrol for \$1.20 a litre (you need 50 litres to fill your car). You remember that you saw a petrol station 5 minutes away that was selling it for \$1.00 a litre.
  - Would you make the trip?
- You are about to buy a mobile phone for \$300. The salesman tells you that the mobile phone you want to buy is on sale at the other branch of the store, 5 minutes drive away, for \$290.
  - Would you make the trip?

## Recap



Risks may be perceived differently by

different people, and the same risk may be

perceived differently according to how it is

framed

Uncertainty is often associated with risk:

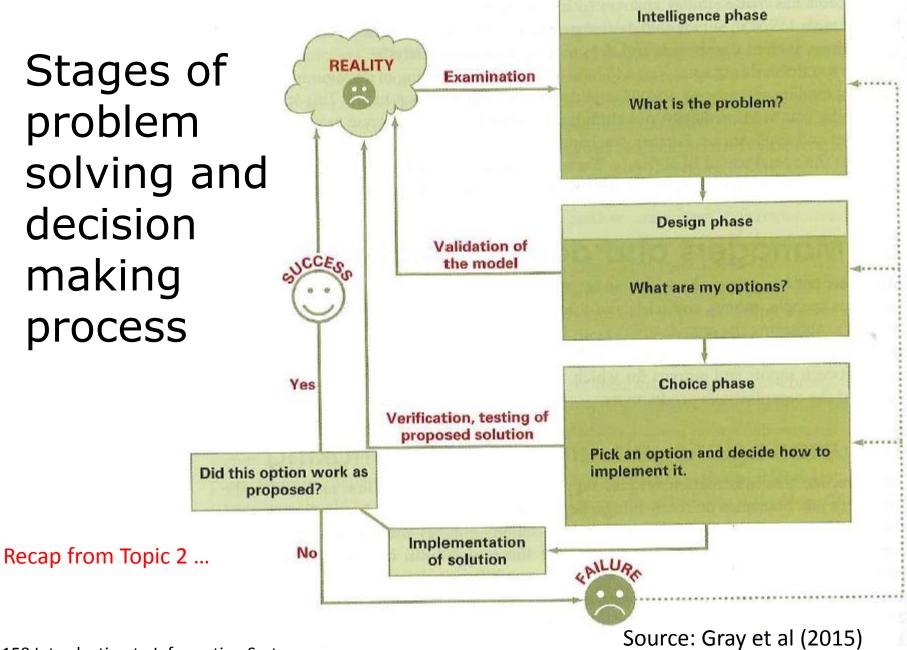
extra information can reduce uncertainty

## 5.2 Decisions and organisations



5.2.1 Problem-solving and decision-making5.2.1 Types of decisions

- Structured
- Semi-structured
- Unstructured
- 5.2.3 Ethics of decision-making
- 5.2.4 Theories of decision making in organisations



# Problem solving and decision making



- Once potential solutions have been identified, a decision can be made about which to choose
- May be straightforward or may involve some judgement
- There may be some **risk** associated with the solution (losing time, money, effort)
- Risks can be identified and quantified in terms of risk/reward ratio, and reduced by testing the solution in a limited manner
- Organisations and individuals will also differ in how 'risk averse' they are

Recap from Topic 2 ...

## Information and decisions



Information is needed to:

- Understand the objectives of a decision
- Understand the constraints that limit the number of alternatives
- Identify the alternatives themselves
- Forecast the potential outcomes from each alternative
- Compare and select among the alternatives

## Information and decisions



- Business rules and procedures
- Basic information about how the business is/has been operating – sales, subscriptions, salaries, profits, etc....
- 'Profiling' information about customers/context, based on statistics (BI)
- Information on customer decision-making behaviour
- Projections based on current data and assumptions
- Information about what competitors are doing/planning
- Research on new innovations in the field

## Types of decisions



**Structured (programmable) decision** – a decision which is routine: it usually occurs frequently, its structure is clear, and the way to handle it is known. Corresponds to a *structured* problem.

**Semi-structured decision** – a decision where some aspects are programmable, but others required judgment

Unstructured (non-programmable) decision – a decision which corresponds to an *unstructured* or infrequent problem. There no well-known set of procedures to handle the decision and the situation needs to be treated as a one-off.

## Who makes which decisions?



#### Operational control Managerial control Strategic planning Structured Accounting systems Human resources Investment analysis, (accounts payable/ reporting, short-term distribution system receivable), order forecasting analysis processing, inventory control, order processing Semi-structured Production planning Budget variance Compensation analysis planning. Unstructured Cash management, Budget preparation, New product planning. project management sales planning social responsibility planning

Gorry and Scott-Morton's Information Systems Framework Table 6.1

Source: Adapted from Gorry & Scott-Morton (1971), Rainer & Turban (2008)

Source: Belanger (2012) p96

## Levels of management and types of decision making



Different decisions are typically made at different levels in the organisation:

- Routine, structured decisions are made at the lower, operational level – or may even be automated
- Semi-structured decisions requiring some level of judgement are made by middle level managers
- Unstructured, strategic and long range decisions requiring a high level of judgement are made by top level managers/executives

#### Recap from Topic 2 ...

## Where IS can provide support for problem solution/decision making



	Operational control	Management control	Strategic planning	IS support
Structured	Accounts receivable, order entry	Budget analysis, short-term forecasting, personnel reports, make-or-buy analysis 2	3	MIS, statistical models (management science, financial, etc.)
Semistructured	Production scheduling, inventory control	Credit evaluation, budget preparation, plant layout, project scheduling, reward systems design	Building a new plant, mergers and acquisitions, planning (product, quality assurance, compensation, etc.)	Decision support systems, business intelligence
Unstructured		Negotiating, recruiting an executive, buying hardware, lobbying 8	New technology development, product R&D, social responsibility planning 9	Decision support systems, expert systems, enterprise resource planning, neural networks, business intelligence, big data

Source: Gray et al (2015)

## Bad decisions...



- Poor decision making skills
- Time pressures
- Relying too much on intuition, rather than being systematic
- Being overconfident
- Going with the group (groupthink)
- Addressing the wrong objective (solving the wrong problem)
- Cognitive biases

Google 'worst ever business decisions' for some examples!

Source: Belanger (2012) p95

## Ethics and decision-making



- Ethics in professional decision-making is very important and it addresses issues that usually cannot be quantified, nor are they simple personality variables
- 'Ethics is not about doing what is legal and avoiding what is illegal; it is about the motives and principles which guide problem solving and decision-making in the grey areas where an action may be legal, but may not be right.'

Source: Harrison (2001)



#### Theories of decision making in organisation

## Classical decision theory



The **classical** approach to decision-making assumes an ideal situation:

- there is no uncertainty
- all the information is available
- consequences are known
- there is a clear criterion to evaluate the choices

The theory assumes **perfect rationality**, so any objective decision maker would make the same choice consistently

## Behavioural theories



- Behavioural theories of decision-making describe how people actually make decisions, which is not always in line with the idealised cases in the classical theories
- Examples include: Simon's concept of bounded rationality Cohen et al's 'garbage can' model

## Bounded rationality



Simon proposed that practical decision making was actually bound by

- Incomplete information
- Uncertainty regarding courses of action and their constraints

#### Concept of **bounded rationality:**

- A decision needs only to be 'good enough'
- Given limited time, resources and information, models that make realistic assumptions are of more practical use
- Similar to the concept of satisficing in problem solving the solution isn't perfect, but good enough

## Garbage can model



Cohen et al's model emphasises the situated context and general messiness of real life organisational decision making:

- Decisions are made in specific contexts of time and place
- With whatever information is available
- And participation from whoever happens to be there
- Decision goals may be ambiguous or unclear
- And people may disagree about how to get there

No mathematically optimal solution – just 'muddling through'

## Recap



### Classical decision theory assumes an ideal

situation of complete information and no

uncertainty, with perfect rationality.

In contrast, behavioural theories seek to

represent how decisions are actually made in

practice





5.3.1 Structured decisions

- Decision trees
- Decision tables
- 5.3.2 Multi-criteria decision matrix
- 5.3.4 What-if analysis

### A decision tree



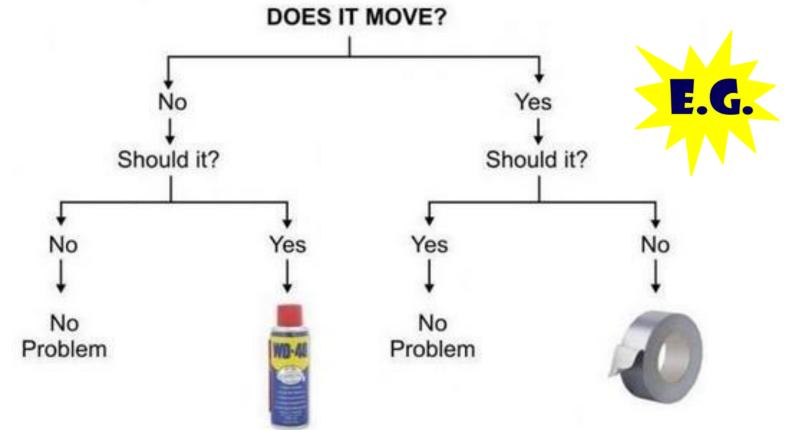


Image from https://www.flickr.com/photos/dullhunk/7214525854/ in/photostream/

C	decision table						
	E.C					U	
	Conditions	Moves	Y	Y	N	N	
	conditions	Should move	Y	Ν	Y	Ν	
		WD-40			Х		
	Actions	Gaffer Tape		Х			
		No problem	Х			Х	

Α

## Decision tables and decision trees



- A simple way of representing complicated condition-action pairs, such as those found in regulations
- Decision tables and decision trees are very common structures in information systems, especially for representing business rules

## How to create a decision table



- Identify the conditions that apply these are the possible states, each of which can be True (Yes) or False (No)
   e.g. Final score over 50? --- answer can be either Yes or No
- 2. Write out **all possible combinations** of conditions
  - 1 condition = 2 combinations (rules)
  - $2 \text{ conditions} = 4 \text{ combinations} (2^2)$
  - 3 conditions = 8 combinations  $(2^3)$
- 3. State the possible outcome (**action**) for each rule. There should be only one action per rule

ICT 158 Introduction to Information Systems

## How to create a decision table



4. Simplify the table by indicating any "don't care" conditions where it makes no difference whether a condition is True or False:

Conditions	Has PhD?	Yes	Yes	No	No
Conditions	Has relevant experience?	Yes	No	Yes	No
Actions	Shortlist	Х			
Actions	Reject		Х	Х	х

	Conditions	Has PhD?	Yes	Yes	No
Simplifies to:		Has relevant experience?	Yes	No	-
	A ati a wa	Shortlist	Х		
	Actions	Reject		Х	Х

E.G.



Students must have paid all their due fees to the university in order to receive a grade for the courses in which they are enrolled. Any failure to pay fees to the university will result in a grade of 'result withheld' being awarded. Furthermore, for a student to be eligible to be awarded a grade, that student must be recorded as being enrolled in the relevant subject prior to the end of semester and regardless of the attendance record and academic performance in the assessed components of that subject. A failure to enrol in the subject will result in a grade of 'result withheld'.

#### What conditions and actions can be identified here?



Students must have **paid all their due fees to the university in order to receive a grade** for the courses in which they are enrolled. Any failure to pay fees to the **university will result in a grade of `result** withheld' being awarded.

**Condition**: PAID FEES or NOT PAID FEES

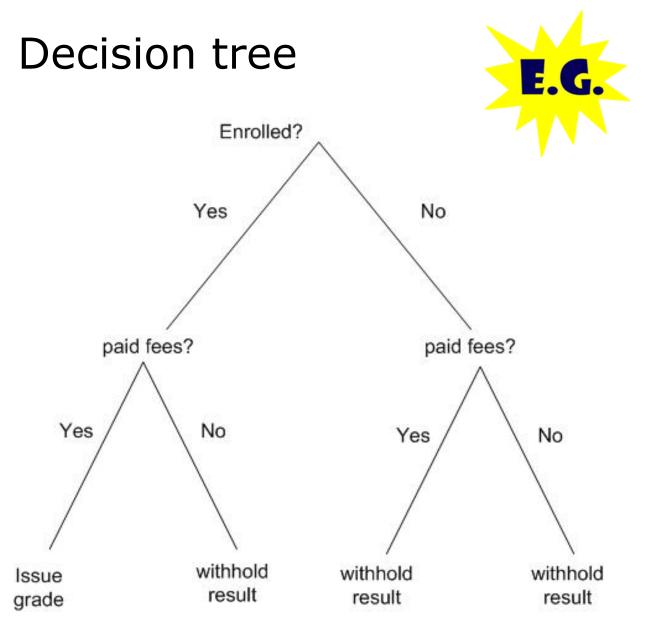
Actions: ISSUE GRADE or WITHHOLD RESULT



... Furthermore, for a student to be eligible to be awarded a grade, that student must be recorded as being enrolled in the relevant subject prior to the end of semester and regardless of the attendance record and academic performance in the assessed components o f that subject. A failure to enrol in the subject will result in a grade of `result withheld'.

**Condition**: ENROLLED or NOT ENROLLED

Actions: ISSUE GRADE or WITHHOLD RESULT





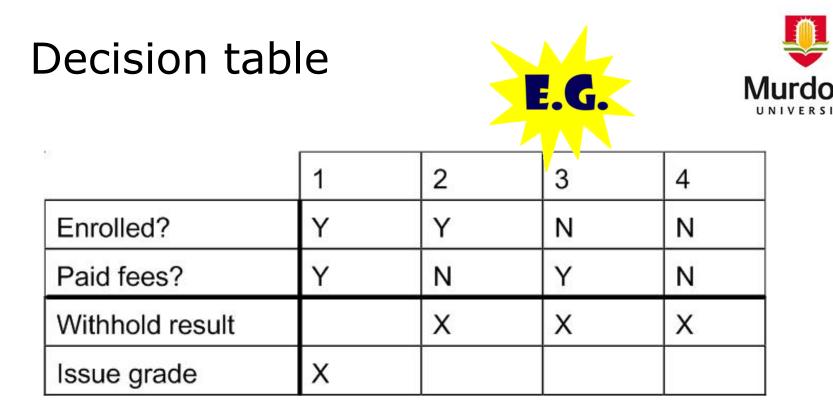
The tree could also be drawn with the first branch being 'Paid fees?' **Decision table** 



## Exactly the same information can be shown as a decision table:

	1	2	3	4
Enrolled?	Υ	Y	N	N
Paid fees?	Y	Ν	Y	N
Withhold result		X	X	X
Issue grade	Х			





Rules can be generated from the table

There are four rules here, eg:

### Rule 1: IF Enrolled AND Paid Fees THEN Issue Grade

## Recap



### Decision tables and decision trees can

### be used to represent the logic of a

structured decision

## Multi-criteria decision-making



When a decision needs to be made based on *many* different criteria

Think about how you will buy your next computer – how do you balance:

Price? Weight? Software? Processor? Touch screen? Battery life?



See for example <u>http://smallbiztrends.com/2014/11/tablet-</u> <u>versus-a-laptop.html</u> (image from article)

## Should I walk? Cycle? Take the car?



						UNI
io: N	The Rookery - Pr	ld - Eridge R	Brighton » view lo Road, Hove » view l 1			E.
Results: Clic	k on a travel opt	ion below to	view a map of the	route with	directions.	7
	distance	duration	calories burnt	cost	carbon footprint	
nap	2.04 miles 3.28 km 4104 steps	41 min	194 calories	30 £ 0	ee 0 kg	
map	2 miles 3.22 km	13 min	135 calories	🙂 £ 0	ee 0 kg	
map	2.21 miles 3.56 km	9 min	Calories	<b>££</b> £ 1.55	0.71 kg	

Example from Gammack et al, Chapter 7

## Which car?



	Toytown Yappy	Hyena Git	Holdem Barista
Cost (\$)	16 000	15 500	14 500
0–100 km (s)	16.4	13.6	13
Height (mm)	1530	1495	1495
Fuel economy (litres/100km)	6.5	6.2	6.9

- The Barista is cheapest...
- ... and the fastest acceleration
- But the Yappy is tallest...
- And the Git is most fuel efficient...



Which of these attributes is most *important* to you?

## Which car?





		Toytown Yappy	Hyena Git	Holdem Barista
Cost	(40)	3	2	1
0-100km	(20)	3	2	1
Height	(10)	1	2	2
Fuel economy	(30)	2	1	3

- RANK the attributes instead of using their absolute values (1 best, 3 worst)
- Next, WEIGHT the attributes according to which is most important to you
  - Here cost is most important, rated at 40%, height is relatively unimportant at 10%

## Which car?



		Toytown Yappy	Hyena Git	Holdem Barista
Cost	(40)	120	80	40
0-100km	(20)	60	40	20
Height	(10)	10	20	20
Fuel economy	(30)	60	30	90
		250	170	170

- The weighted score can now be calculated
- This shows the Yappy is worst overall (highest score) and can be ruled out

## Multi-criteria decision-making



- Multi-criteria decision-making (MCDM) is widely used in information systems for evaluating alternatives (evaluation matrix)
- There are various methods for MCDM, based on how the criteria are scored (here we used a simple ranking) and how the weightings are allocated (here we used percentages)
- Spreadsheets can be used to automate
- Different results will be obtained from different stakeholders if they have different priorities

## What-if analysis



What-if analysis can be used to evaluate different scenarios based on different assumptions or projections

- **Goal seeking** can provide the parameters for a desired outcome
- **Spreadsheets** (e.g. Excel) are typically used for what-if analysis, and have many built-in features

## Recap



Multi-criteria decision-making involves

comparing options on many different and

often competing criteria. A MCD

(evaluation) matrix enables a comparison

using weighted criteria to indicate

priorities

## 5.4 Group decision making



- 5.4.1 Techniques
- Voting
- Nominal group
- Delphi

# Some techniques for group decision making



#### Voting systems

 individuals make decisions that are then aggregated in some way to give a single outcome

#### Nominal group technique

- A group of people is chosen to address a problem and generate ideas and alternatives
- Individuals list ideas and vote to rank/rate them
- Aim is to avoid dynamics of interacting groups

#### Delphi

- A panel of experts each make an anonymous, individual assessment on an issue
- The assessments are collected and averaged
- Experts again give an opinion, until they converge

### Recap



#### There are many techniques that can be used

#### by groups to make decisions. Each is

designed to improve the decision-making

process in some way

### Topic summary



- Decision-making is an integral part of everyday life, and essential to all businesses
- Decision-making involves many human and psychological factors
- Risk, uncertainty, cognitive bias and framing affect how a decision is perceived
- Different types of decisions are made in different part of the organisation
- Decisions can be categorised into structured, semi-structured and unstructured decisions
- Many methods for decision representation and evaluation exist, including decision tables, decision trees, multi-criteria decision matrices, and what-if analysis

## References



- Belanger, F, & Van Slyke, C. (2012). *Information Systems for Business: an experiential approach*: John Wiley & sons.
- Cohen, M D, March, J G, & Olsen, J P. (1972). A garbage can model of organizational choice. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 17(1), 1-25.
- Gray, H, Issa, T, Pye, G, Troshani, I, Rainer, R K, Prince, B, & Watson, H J. (2015). Management Information Systems (First Australasian Edition ed.). Milton (Qld): Wiley.
- Gammack, J, Hobbs, V, & Pigott, D. (2007). The Book of Informatics. Melbourne: Cengage Learning Australia Pty Ltd.
- Harrison, J, et al. (2001). *Ethics for Australian Business*. Frenchs Forrest, NSW: Prentice Hall.
- Plous, S. (1993). *The Psychology of Judgment and Decision Making* McGraw-Hill.
- Simon, H. (1991). Bounded rationality and organizational learning. *Organization Science*, *2*(1), 125-134.
- Tversky, A , & Kahneman, D. (1981). The framing of decisions and the psychology of choice. *Science*, *211*, 453-458.