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**Perception about Whistleblowing as a Proactive
Behaviour: Moderating Impact of Proactive Personality
and Taking Charge**



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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of
Philosophy/Science in Management with specialization in Management at
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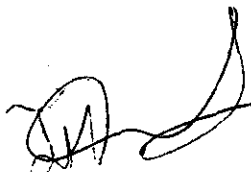
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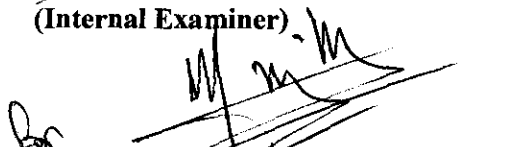
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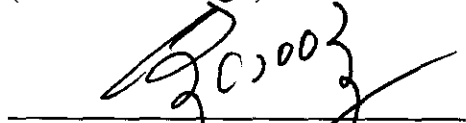
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**IN THE NAME OF
ALLAH, THE MOST MERCIFUL AND BENEFICENT**

DEDICATED

“To all those who can find this piece of research work useful in their academic or
practical endeavors”

ABSTRACT

Whistleblowing though is beneficial for organizations, yet usually disliked. Despite the fact that it is considered as a proactive behaviour, it carries negative connotation. As a result, employees are reluctant to blow the whistle. Motivated by the curiosity to understand this duality of response towards whistleblowing, the present study aims to explore the perception about whistleblowing by hypothesizing that whistleblowing intentions would be higher if whistleblowing is perceived as a proactive behaviour. It is also hypothesized that perception about whistleblowing and its impact on whistleblowing intention is effected by proactive tendencies of the employees i.e. Proactive Personality and Taking Charge. Previous research, however did not explore the perception about whistleblowing from a proactive work behaviour perspective and the impact of this perception on whistleblowing intention.

Data was collected by administering 370 survey instruments in private hospitals operating in Islamabad and Rawalpindi. About 292 (78%) complete survey instruments were received. Results of the study show that whistleblowing intentions increase if whistleblowing is perceived as a proactive behaviour. The results also substantiate the moderating impact of Proactive Personality and Taking Charge on the relationship between perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing intentions. Findings of the study contribute to theoretical stream of knowledge by providing empirical evidence that whistleblowing can be encouraged and benefited of if considered as a proactive work behaviour. Findings of the study also have practical implications for employees and management in terms of encouraging whistleblowing as proactive behaviour and adopting it as a control and corrective strategy.

Keywords: Whistleblowing, Proactive Work Behaviour, Proactive Personality, Taking Charge.

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No portion of the work, presented in this thesis, has been submitted in support of any application for any degree or qualification of this or any other university or institute of learning.

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ABBREVIATIONS

PaW	Perception about Whistleblowing
WI	Whistleblowing Intention
PP	Proactive Personality
TC	Taking Charge

CHAPTER 1

1.1 Background of Study

Fraudulent activities, white-collar crimes and unethical practices by management and employees are the matter of serious concern for all organizations today (Curtis, 2006). These activities are not only widely spread but also very costly in terms of the damage they bring to the organizations (Seifert, 2006). According to Vadera et al. (2009), organizations lose on average five per cent of their annual revenues to white-collar crimes and unethical practices, whereas, National White Collar Crime Center reported that organizations lose on average \$90 billion each year due to employees' embezzlement. Even the developed countries such as United States have reportedly been losing on average \$300 billion annually to white-collar crimes (Costello, 2003). The projected global loss due to organizational fraud reached \$3.7 trillion in 2014 as reported by Association of Certified Fraud Examiners (2014)¹.

White-collar crimes are one of the most growing crimes in the world. Since last decade, the developed economy such as United States even has witnessed rapid increase in these crimes as compared to ordinary crimes (Encyclopaedia Britannica). While highlighting the pervasiveness and wide spread of fraudulent activities, Gokce (2013) stated that 75% of the employees in organizations found involved in activities such as computer fraud, absenteeism, and deliberate harmful activities and almost all the organizations face incidents of employee theft.

¹ACFE established in 1988 by Dr. Joseph T. with a stated mission to reduce the incidence of fraud and white-collar crime and to assist members in its detection and deterrence.

The surfacing of some of the recent white-collar crimes has attracted the attention of academicians and practitioners to the huge loss they can bring to the organizations, individuals and the society as a whole. For instance, former WorldCom CEO, Bernard Ebbers managed to defraud investors out of 11\$ billion through false financial reporting. Andrew Fastow, former CFO of Enron was convicted of fraud, money laundering and concealing company's losses. Former Chairman and CEO of HealthSouth, Richard Scrushy was convicted of bribery and mail fraud. There is a long list of such white-collar crimes and it is expected that these crimes would increase in future because of the leverage available as a result of changing social and technological landscapes (BusinessInsider).

The concept of white-collar crime was coined by Edwin Sutherland (1939) while presenting his theory of 'differential association'. He, for the first time invited the attention of academicians and practitioners towards this class of crimes, which are committed by persons of respect and high status during their course of legitimate occupation in the organizations. In 1973, Clinard and Quinney further divided white collar crimes into occupational crimes and corporate crimes. Edwin Sutherland theorized that occupational crimes are committed by the individuals of high status and respect, while Clinard and Quinney (1973) asserted that these crimes can be committed by any person at any level in the organization for personal benefits.

Fleet and Fleet (2006) defined corporate and occupational crime as "Corporate crime refers to those crimes committed by members of an organization to benefit the organization. White-collar crime refers to those crimes committed by higher-ranking members of an organization to benefit themselves. Occupational or employee crime refers to those crimes committed by members of an organization (generally lower ranking) that are intended to benefit the perpetrators to the detriment of the organization". According to Hansen (2009) and Heath

(2008), occupational crimes include crimes committed by individuals or small group of individuals for personal benefit such as embezzlement, theft, fraud, sales manipulation, income tax evasion etc. whereas, corporate crimes refers to the crimes committed by individuals or group of individuals benefitting the organization.

Perri and Brody (2011), while discussing the motivation behind white-collar crimes, asserted that corporate crimes are accepted by the organizations because they increase their profit base, whereas, occupational crimes are justified by the employees based on the different excuses such as "the company owes me money that i never received, but deserve". According to Heath (2008), individuals' greed motivates occupational crimes, whereas organizations engage in corporate crimes to enhance their financial position. Benson and Simpson (2009) said that white-collar crimes are triggered by availability of the crime opportunities.

Theories explaining the normative view of criminal behaviour of employees focus mostly on organizational culture and presence of informal structure in the organizations. According to these theories, employees' perception about white-collar crimes is influenced by the shared response these crimes get. According to Parilla, Hollinger and Clark (1988), organizational culture and subcultures shape employees' perception. If white-collar crimes are not considered as objectionable, employees feel comfortable in committing those crimes. Shover and Hochstetler (2002) also asserted that employees get motivation and rationalization for white-collar crimes through peer interaction and socialization.

Heath (2008) explained occupational crimes using bad apples theory. According to this theory, individuals with bad intentions in the organizations continuously look for the ways to promote their personal interests. The corporate crimes on the other hand, can be explained

using system failure theory according to which, it is the failure of the organizational system to prevent occurrence of white-collar crimes. Bressler (2007) also said that occupational crimes take place when organizations fail to establish preventive and control mechanism.

The negative impacts of white-collar crimes are not limited to individuals and organizations only rather they also cost the society as a whole. The existence of white-collar crimes damages the moral climate of the society. People lose trust in the capability of the government in ensuring fair practices. This also damages fair market competition in the society and fair players become unable to compete for a longer time. This uncontrolled expansion of the unfair businesses practices then gets strengthened to the extent where they can exercise political influence on the governments as well (web).

Keeping in view the negative consequences of white-collar crimes, scholars have proposed different strategies to prevent their occurrence. According to (Miceli et al., 2009), organizations can be compelled to refrain from committing white-collar crimes through government regulatory agencies. Welsh & Farrington (2000) while discussing the preventive measures of white-collar crimes proposed four strategies: situational, development, community and criminal justice. In situational preventive system, surveillance is ensured through employees reporting system, installation of alarms or video monitors. In development strategy, root causes of occupational crimes are examined and measures are taken accordingly. Community approach uses social experiments and neighbourhood watch programs to prevent occurrence of white-collar crimes. In criminal justice prevention system, partnership is developed between law enforcement agencies and the community.

According to Bressler (2007), occupational crimes can be prevented through encouraging employees for whistleblowing and one of the ways to encourage whistle-blowing is the establishment of fraud hotlines. According to Traub (1996), white-collar crimes can be discouraged through employees' awareness programs including employees' reporting system and creating awareness among employees through training videos or programs, newsletter, notice board bulleting etc. of the types and impact of these crimes.

According to Miceli and Near (2005), employees are the most effective source to highlight unethical behaviour, which helps organizations to rectify them before they become crises. Miceli et al., (2009) asserted that white-collar crimes can internally be detected and prevented through devising internal reporting or whistleblowing system. According to Bjorkelo&Macko (2012), whistleblowing system is an effective control mechanism to bring improvements in organization's procedures, services and products by ensuring timely detection and prevention of problems.

While discussing the significance of whistleblowing, Miceli et al., (2009) said that employees can provide the management with the insider information, which helps them correct bad practices, misconduct and corruption. In its report published in 2012, PCaW² stated that on average, organizations that encouraged anonymous reporting restricted losses to \$100,000 as compared to those which failed to establish anonymous reporting system. Vadera et al. (2009) reported that federal government succeeded in recovering \$9.3 billion during 1996 to 2005 with the help of whistle-blowers. According to Pulliam & Solomon (2002), some of the major scandals that saved the organizations from further collapse have been highlighted due to the conscious understanding of employees that wrongdoing should be brought in the

² Public Concern at Work is a UK based whistleblowing charity.

knowledge of management. The culture of speaking up and the mechanism of reporting unwanted practices help organizations to address them before getting the situation out of control in the form of bad reputation and litigation (Moberly 2006; Callahan, Dworkin, Fort & Schipani, 2002; Miceli and Near 1992; Dworkin & Near, 1987).

Near and Miceli (1985) defined whistleblowing as “the disclosure by organization members of illegal, immoral, or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to persons or organizations that may be able to effect action.” An illegal act is explained as “any crime which is punishable under law, an immoral act as one that is perceived by the whistle-blower to be wrong, and an illegitimate practice as an action that is interpreted by the whistle-blower to be beyond the organization’s authority”.

Whistleblowing policy also ensures compliance to organizational rules and procedures, which is inevitable to achieve organizational goals. If organizations fail to inculcate the sense of compliance to organizational rules and policies, wrongdoing and misconduct would prevail resulting in development of dissent and deviant behaviour (Applebaum, 2007; Henle, Giacalone, and Jurkiewicz, 2005; Robinson and Bennett, 1995), which would further damage the integrity and reputation of the organizations.

Though whistleblowing is beneficial for organizations by providing safety net against development and prevalence of wrongdoing culture and employees’ deviant behaviour, yet it is very critical and sensitive in terms of implementation. It is considered as tabu and has been stigmatized as negative and hostile attitude and whistle-blowers are perceived as disloyal (Pittroff, 2013; Bjorkelo & Macko, 2012; Zhang, Chiu, and Wei, 2009). According to Waytz, Dungan & Young (2013), whistle-blowers do not receive positive response in most of

the cases and responded with reprisal, disciplinary action, suspension and dismissal despite the fact that they are loyal employees and prefer organizational goals over individual ones. Gokce (2013) reported that more than 90% of the whistle-blowers are ostracized, or compelled to exit the organization.

Due to negative connotation attached with whistleblowing and retaliation faced by whistle-blowers, whistleblowing is perceived as futile by employees (PCaW, 2012). 44% of the employees remain silent or remain indifferent to wrongdoings, which results in prevalence of wrongdoing culture (Verschoor, 2005). The report published by PCaW (2012)¹ with collaboration of the Greenwich University covering 1000 callers using the confidential advice line shows that the callers share the common dilemma that whether they should speak up or not when observe wrongdoing.

To get benefit of whistleblowing philosophy, the negative stigma attached with whistleblowing needs to be changed through encouraging note of management (Miceli et al., 1999). Organizations need to realize that whistleblowing is not a threat rather a helping tool through which organizations can correct ill practices and misconducts timely to compete in the market, because no organization can survive in today's highly competitive business environment tagged with frauds, misconducts and unethical practices (Gokce, 2013). Realizing the need for this transformation, Miceli & Near (2005) quoted "managers, employees and members of the society need to undergo a cultural transformation such that whistle-blowing is viewed as potentially positive for those involved. Only with this changed view of whistle-blowing will it prove more effective as a mechanism for corporate and societal change".

According to Bjorkelo&Macko (2012), perception about whistleblowing can be made positive by associating it with other pro-social, pro-organizational, and pro-employees behaviours including citizenship behaviours, proactive behaviours and like. Researchers, however, differ in categorization of whistleblowing. Some take it as pro-social behaviour (Brennan & Kelly, 2007; Dworkin, 1998; Miceli & Near, 1988; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Dozier & Miceli, 1985), others consider it a form of citizenship behaviour (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and the advocates of proactive behaviour consider it as one of the proactive behaviours (Belschak&Hartog, 2010).

Whistleblowing differs from pro-social behaviour in a sense that besides advocating for the welfare of employees and society, it also highlights inefficient practices and illegitimate procedures hindering organizational performance (Waytz, et al., 2013). It also differs from citizenship behaviour as these behaviours aim to achieve improved performance by going extra mile but do not necessarily challenge the status quo. Whistleblowing and proactive behaviour concept share certain common features. Both emphasize on bringing organizational improvement continuously and challenging the status quo. Belschak&Hartog (2010), in the light of Campbell's model (2000) asserted that whistleblowing is a proactive behaviour, however, it is disliked only because it highlights misconducts on the part of some individuals or the management. Moreover, Van Dyne & LePine (1998) and LePine& Van Dyne (2001) stated that raising voice and concerns over inefficient procedures and systems is a manifestation of proactive work behaviour.

Grant & Ashford (2008) defined proactive work behaviour as "anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments." According to Searle (2011), proactive work behaviour involves "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or

creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions". Proactive work behaviours are self-motivated behaviours aimed to adopt changes to meet market demands (Parker & Collins, 2010). The concept of proactivity has been studied in a number of different faculties under concepts such as proactive personality, personal initiative, role-based self-efficacy and taking charge (Belschak&Hartog, 2010; Michael Frese, 2001; Phelp, 1999).

Fostering whistleblowing as a proactive behaviour is also effective because employees' proactivity has been demanded by organizations in today's dynamic business competition. Research shows that employees with proactive workplace approach prefer organizational goals over individual ones and are more committed to organizational goals hence continuously strive for organizational performance (Lewis 2011; Varelius 2009; Lindblom 2007; Vandekerckhove and Commers 2004).

Whistleblowing being a proactive behaviour helps organizations enhance efficiency and effectiveness (Kaplan & Schultz, 2007) through timely detecting and preventing wrong practices (Read & Rama, 2003). It is effective because employees at different levels are more informed about the problems in the underlying systems and procedures who can share them with the management for taking timely corrective measures (Rosecrance, 1988). In the absence of such reporting channel, unwanted practices don't get surfaced and ultimately result in hampering corporate effectiveness (Ahmad, Smith & Ismail, 2012; Near and Miceli, 1995).

1.2 Problem Identification

Realizing the significance of whistleblowing, it has been investigated from social, psychological, and situational aspects to understand the underlying factors influencing it (Pittroff, 2013). However, Nayir&Herzig(2012) stated that little research has been conducted to explore the perception and attitude about whistleblowing. While conducting a study in Turkey, Gokce (2013) found that whistleblowing is generally perceived as negative, however, not much is known about attitude towards whistleblowing. Moreover, most of the studies about whistleblowing have been conducted in US and the West, whereas, perception and attitude of organizations about whistleblowing in non-Western countries is yet to be explored (Nayir&Herzig, 2012).

Extending the assertion of Bjorkelo&Macko (2012) and Miceli & Near (2005) that organizations and the society as a whole can benefit by whistleblowing if consider it as positive behaviour and associating it with behaviours such as citizenship behaviour, proactive behaviour, and pro-social behaviour; it has been found that the extant literature however, is silent about the fact whether whistleblowing has actually been considered as proactive work behaviour by employees and organizations. Addressing this gap, the present study attempted to explore whether employees perceive whistleblowing as proactive behaviour or not.

It is also assumed that if whistleblowing is perceived as proactive behaviour, whistleblowing intentions would be triggered by proactive tendencies of employees. These proactive tendencies are derived from both individual as well as situational factors (Bindl and Parker, in press). The dispositional aspect of proactivity has been conceptualized as proactive personality and is assumed to predict all proactive work behaviours (Parker & Collins, in press).

The extant literature provides a number of empirical studies evidencing the positive attitudinal and behavioural impact of proactive personality such as enhanced performance (Griffin, Neal & Parker, 2007), positive supervisory rating (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Thompson, 2005), rapid career growth (Blickle, Witzki & Schneider, 2009), job satisfaction (Morrison, 1993b; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), lower turnover (Morrison, 1993b), lower absenteeism (Greenglass & Fiksenbaum, 2009), increased adaptability (Ashford, 1986), work identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), social integration (Morrison, 1993a), organizational commitment, team productivity (Kirkman and Rosen, 1999), team effectiveness (Hyatt and Ruddy, 1997), team learning (Druskat and Kayes, 2000) and firm success (Zempel, 1999).

Despite the fact that the concept of Proactive Personality has been explored from different aspect, yet no study has been found exploring the impact of proactive personality on employees' whistleblowing intentions. Furthermore, as asserted by Parker et al. (2006) that Proactive Personality influences all other proactive behaviours, therefore it is also assumed that whistleblowing being a proactive behaviour would also be influenced by Proactive Personality. However, previous research didn't explore this aspect. Addressing this gap, the present study attempted to explore the moderating impact of proactive personality on the relationship between employees' perception about whistleblowing and their whistleblowing intentions.

In a similar vein, there are different types of proactive behaviour, which vary in terms of form/type, temporal orientation (short vs long term), the target to bring improvement in (self and/or organization), frequency and timings of the behaviour, and the way proactive behaviour is exhibited (Thomas, et al., 2010; Grant and Ashford, 2008). Together, these

behaviours share a higher-order category of proactive behaviours. The most common proactive behaviours include taking charge, voice, personal initiatives, role-breadth self-efficacy (Belschak & Hartog, 2010; Michael Frese, 2001; Phelp, 1999).

Taking charge is a change-oriented behaviour, which captures the constructive efforts of individuals to bring functional change in the work (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). It has demonstrated positive impact on attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of employees such as job performance (Thomas, Whitman & Viswesvaran, 2010; Morrison and Phelps, 1999), sense of duty and sense of achievement (Moon et al., 2008), work engagement (Salanova and Schaufeli, 2008), and individuals' propensity to trust (Chiaburu and Baker, 2006).

Morrison & Phelps (1999), while drawing comparison between Taking Charge and other proactive behaviours concluded that it shares some common features with other proactive behaviours. According to Ashford et al. (1998), Taking Charge has some similarities with proactive behaviours such as issue-selling, task revision, role innovation, and personal initiatives. According to Morrison & Phelps (1999), though Taking Charge differs from proactive behaviours such as voice, principled dissent and whistleblowing, yet shares some common features as well.

In the light of above discussion, it is expected that Taking Charge behaviour also influences individuals' whistleblowing intentions. Extending this assumption, it is expected that whistleblowing being a proactive behaviour can take influence from Taking Charge behaviour. However, no study has been found investigating this aspect. Addressing this gap, the present study also attempted to explore the moderating impact of taking charge behaviour on the relationship between employees' perception about whistleblowing and their intentions to blow the whistle.

Whistleblowing over the last 25 years has extensively been researched in all fields of life including business, law, healthcare etc. (Kelly & Jones, 2013). Most of the wrongdoings reported are related to ethical, financial and work safety and the most affected industries are health care, education, charities, local government, and financial services, whereas, patients and consumers are the most affected segments (PCaW, 2012). According to Kelly & Jones (2013), whistle-blowers in healthcare industry suffer the most as compared to other sectors; even most of the whistle-blowers in health care industry had to resign.

Despite whistleblowing perceived as negative, growing concerns over the safety of patients and clients have been witnessed in healthcare and social care sectors in US and Western societies and the organizations have successfully implemented whistleblowing policies to ensure safety of the patients and clients. However, the phenomenon of whistleblowing in healthcare sector operating in non-Western societies is yet to be explored (Nayir and Herzig, 2012). Analysing this gap, the healthcare sector of Pakistan has been selected as the target population for the current study.

1.3 Statement of the Research Problem/Thesis Statement

Whistleblowing is an increasingly growing phenomenon. It has saved many organizations from collapse, however it is usually not encouraged by employer and employees are reluctant to blow the whistle as well. There are different factors, which impact employees' whistleblowing intentions including perception about whistleblowing, personality factors and situational/contextual factors. The perception about whistleblowing plays an integral role in triggering employees' intention to blow the whistle, which is yet to be explored. Addressing this gap, the present study aims to know whether whistleblowing is perceived as a proactive

behaviour and how this perception is effected by proactive behaviour tendencies such as Proactive Personality and Taking Charge behaviour.

1.4 Research Question

This study has addressed the following research questions.

1. Whether employees working in private sector hospitals located in Islamabad and Rawalpindi perceive whistleblowing as proactive behaviour?
2. Does Proactive Personality have moderating impact on the relationship between perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing intentions?
3. Does Taking Charge behaviour have moderating impact on the relationship between perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing intentions?

1.5 Objectives of Research

- (1) To explore the perception of employees about whistleblowing.
- (2) To study the moderating impact of Proactive Personality and Taking Charge on employees' intention to whistle-blow.

1.6 Rationale of the Study

Organizations need such a workforce that owns organizational objectives and pursues goals proactively (Belschak&Hartog, 2010)for which culture of open upward communication encouraging speaking up and whistleblowing is required, which helps organizations know unwanted practices and behaviours (Pulliam & Solomon, 2002). Because survival and growth in today's dynamic business world characterised with complex customers' behaviour is almost impossible without rectifying such unwanted practices (Moberly 2006;Callahan et al. 2002;Miceli and Near 1992;Dworkin& Near, 1987).

Despite the benefits of whistleblowing being a proactive behaviour (Pittroff, 2013; Belschak&Hartog, 2010), it is normally disliked in organizations and reciprocated with retaliation and hence employees avoid whistleblowing (Acre, 2010; Moberly, 2006;Dunfee, 1990;Greenberger,Miceli& Cohen, 1987). Extant literature shows that it depends upon the perception about whistleblowing (Mesmer-Magnus &Viswesvaran, 2005) and triggered by both individual (Frese,Kring, Soose&Zempel1996; Bateman & Crant, 1993) and situational factors (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). However, no study has been found exploring the perception of employees about whistleblowing in Pakistan in a sense whether whistleblowing is considered as a proactive behaviour or not. Moreover, no study has also been found exploring whether proactive personality and proactive behaviour leads to employees' intention to whistle-blow or otherwise.

As the phenomenon of proactive behaviour and whistleblowing vary from culture to culture (King, 2000) and influenced by different dynamics of work settings (Miceli & Near, 1988, King, 1999), hence become more critical and important in services sector especially hospitals, however no such study has been conducted in healthcare sector in Pakistan exploring the perception about whistleblowing and the impact of Proactive Personality and Taking Charge on employees' whistleblowing intention.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The present study is academic and has been conducted for the first time in Pakistan. It has surveyed the employees working in private hospitals operating in Islamabad and Rawalpindi, hence not incorporated cross-cultural and cross-industry investigation. This is a cross-sectional study based on non-contrived settings and self-report surveys. It attempted to

capture the perception of employees about whistleblowing as a proactive behaviour, their intentions to whistle-blow and the impact of proactive personality and proactive behaviour i.e. taking charge on their whistleblowing intentions.

The following chapter covers the detailed literature review on the variables of the study present in the form of extant literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter covers the detailed review of the literature available on the variables of the study. This discussion at length provides insight into the research conducted so far in the areas such as whistleblowing, proactive work behaviour, proactive personality, and taking charge. This would help substantiate the gap identified earlier in chapter 1 and provide base for development of theoretical framework and formulation of hypothesis.

2.1 Proactive Work Behaviour

Proactive work behaviours are self-motivated behaviours aimed to adopt changes to meet market demands (Parker & Collins, 2010). Proactive work behaviour has been defined as “taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions” (Searle, 2011). Grant & Ashford (2008) define proactive work behaviour as “anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments.” Since introduction of the term ‘proactivity’ as a scientific concept about 15 years ago, it has been studied in a number of different faculties under concepts such as proactive, personality, personal initiative, role-based self-efficacy and taking charge (Belschak&Hartog, 2010; Michael Frese, 2001;Phelp, 1999;).

Proactive work behaviour by this definition encompasses two main aspects- anticipatory actions and the target or receiving group. These behaviours are anticipated well in time to align the actions required to meet future organizational demands. Proactive employees continuously scan their working environment to visualize the changing trends and acquire

required expertise. The intention behind proactive work behaviour is to change one's intellectual position or the underlying working environment. Thus proactive work behaviour approach focuses on continuous change (Crant, 2000; Bateman & Crant, 1993) in self (e.g. attaining new skills) or the business contexts (e.g. making suggestions on how to improve service) through incorporating innovative ideas (Belschak & Hartog, 2010; Grant, 2007).

The concept of proactive work behaviour has been emerged due to the realization that organizations need more proactive approach and anticipatory vision to cope with the challenges of today's globalized, highly competitive, technology intensive and multicultural working environment (Michael, 2000). A number of scholars have advocated that individuals possess positive scholarships to cope with the changing environment, which must be nourished for achieving organizational success (Searle, 2011; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Cameron & Lavine, 2006; Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Crant, 2000; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Bandura, 1997; Bateman & Crant, 1993; Covey, 1989; Ashford & Cummings, 1985).

According to Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag (1997), implementation of strong monitoring system is not enough to achieve enhanced organizational performance rather organizations require such a working culture which encourages employees to take on the responsibilities and initiatives to fulfil them through timely identification of challenges and striving to meet them. This would help organizations gain leverage over the competitors and ensures organizational effectiveness (Bateman & Crant, 1999). Proactive work behaviours become even more significant at times of market uncertainty and growing interdependence between different stakeholders (Searle, 2011; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Kotter, 1985).

Researchers have identified a number of behaviours that come under the domain of proactive work behaviour. These are self-directed or organization-directed, change-oriented and future directed behaviours aim to serve the organizational goals in their best. These proactive work behaviour include feedback seeking (Ashford, Blatt, & Vandewalle, 2003; Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Ashford & Cummings, 1985, 1983), assisting others in the organization and raising voice and concerns over inefficient procedures and systems (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; 2001; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), problem anticipation, introduction and implementation of innovative ideas (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Frese & Fay, 2001; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Roberson, 1990), adopting to new environment (Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000; Ashford & Black, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1996;), socialization and networking (Morrison, 2002; Ashford & Black, 1996; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), issue-selling (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Dutton & Ashford, 1993), crafting jobs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and assuming new and enhance responsibilities (Searle, 2011; Belschak & Hartog, 2010; Grant & Ashford 2008; Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997; Staw & Boettger, 1990; Nicholson, 1984).

The importance of proactive work behaviour has fetched considerable attention of both scholars as well as practitioners over past several years. The concept has been addressed from various aspects resulting in different conceptualization of proactive work behaviour. Most researchers studied the concept by exploring its impact in already established research streams such as job performance, leadership, entrepreneurship, work teams, feedback seeking, socialization, career management and like, however, a comprehensive theory explaining proactive work behaviour is yet to be established (Michael, 2000).

Extant literature shows eleven different types of proactive work behaviours that have been categorised into three second-order factors namely proactive work behaviours, proactive

strategic behaviours, and proactive environmental organization fit behaviours. Proactive work behaviours aim to improve organizations internally; proactive strategic behaviours focus on bringing improvements to match market trends and proactive environmental organization fit behaviours address requirement of skills and knowledge for employees to meet market demands (Searle, 2011). According to Parker & Collins (2010), second-order factor of proactive work behaviours have four further dimensions: problem prevention (discovering root causes and avowing reoccurrence), individual innovation (new ideas to meet market demands), voice (constructive concerns to improve existing systems), and taking charge (seek to improve the execution of work).

Dodge (1985) while studying proactive behaviours aimed to advance organizational improvement referred such behaviours as 'positive deviance' defined as "intentional behaviours that depart from the norms of a referent group in honourable ways" comprising of actions that help organizations to achieve goals including specific behaviours such as introducing innovative ideas, challenging pathetic procedures, not following unauthorized and functionless directives and raising voice against incompetent supervisors (Applebaum, Laconi & Matousek, 2007)

Searle (2011) using four dimensions of second-order factor of proactive work behaviours as reported by Parker & Collins (2010) conceptualized proactive work behaviour as four factor correlation model in finding the antecedents of proactive behaviour and found positive relationship among proactive personality, innovation, problem solving and taking charge mediated by psychological empowerment. Moreover, he also reported positive impact of servant leadership on four dimensions of proactive work behaviour. Other researchers also reported positive impact of proactive work behaviour on employees' job performance and job

satisfaction (Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Ashford & Mael, 1996).

Belschak and Hartog (2010) reported that proactive work behaviours benefit both individuals as well as organizations in terms of positive attitudinal and behavioural impact such as enhanced job performance, higher organizational commitment and job satisfaction, more career success, favourable job evaluations, well-being of individuals help organizations to achieve goals more effectively. Acknowledging the benefits of proactive work behaviour, Doris Fay (2010) however observed that such proactive behaviours should be encouraged and motivated in a controlled pattern.

Proactive work behaviour may have some negative consequences as proactivity requires going beyond one's job responsibilities which put work pressure and stress in terms of time and resources. It also creates rift among employees as suggestion and proactive implementation enhances evaluation parameters for other employees who if unable to deliver become against proactive individuals. Too much dependent on proactive employees may risk organizations knowledge management and adoption program due to increasing employees' turnovers (Bolino, Valcea & Harvey, 2010). Furthermore, not all proactive behaviors are desirable. According to Bateman and Crant (1999), proactivity should be guided in accordance to the organizational requirement, otherwise it would be dysfunctional.

Researchers identified different motivating drivers for proactive work approach such as cognitive, individual and contextual factors. Belschak & Hartog (2010) state that employees' cognitive motivational states and psychological drivers trigger employees' proactivity. For instance, the cognitive state of high commitment motivates employees to strive continuously

for the betterment of the organization by introducing innovative ideas in solving problems and adopting changes. However, many researchers are of the view that individual and contextual factors are the main driving force for proactivity (Parker&Collins, 2010; Crant, 2000).

The impact of individual personality traits on employees' proactivity has rigorously been studied by researchers (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Ashford & Black, 1996) due to differences in individuals' responses towards same situation with some being more proactive than others. Similarly some individuals get motivated early while others require quite strong and continuous motivating force. Some individuals anticipate changing requirements and adopt them in advance whereas others are more reactive and followers. Individual factors are derived from personality disposition and captured through constructs such as desire for control, general self-efficacy and felt responsibility and proactive personality. Contextual factors on the other hand include job-autonomy, co-workers' trust, empowerment, decision making, leadership style (Searle, 2011; Searle & Barbuto, 2011; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010; Liden et al., 2008; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Extant literature however shows that contextual factors have more impact on employees' proactivity than personality traits (Belschak&Hartog, 2010).

Belschak&Hartog (2010) by bringing different studies conducted on proactive work behaviour reported that existing literature on the subject discusses the issue from different aspects. Some researchers studied the impact of employees' proactivity on individual well-being such as job involvement, job performance, career success, favourable job evaluation, as well as organizational well-being such as organizational commitment, organizational performance, organizational competitive advantage, whereas others focused on the

antecedents of proactive behaviour and these studies occupy major portion of the literature in the domain. The antecedents of proactive work behaviour come from two main sources i.e. individual personality traits and contextual factors and the constructs developed so far also address these two driving forces. The proactive approach from individual personality trait has been measured through constructs such as proactive personality and personal initiative, whereas constructs based on contextual factors are role based self-efficacy and taking charge.

Proactive Personality scale is developed by Bateman and Crant (1993). It taps the differences among people in influencing their environment owing to differences in their individual characteristics. They defined the prototypical proactive personality as "someone who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces and who effects environmental change". Proactive people by anticipating opportunities, take proactive initiatives and continue efforts until achieve the targeted change. On the other hand, people who are not proactive enough fail to act proactively because they can't identify opportunities timely and hence can't strive to bring change. Unlike proactive people they are passive and followers.

Personal Initiatives is interview based scale consisting of five components: 1) consistent with the organizational mission; 2) takes a long-term focus; 3) action-oriented and goal directed; 4) persistent in the face of obstacles; and 5) self-starting and proactive. It identifies individuals' tendencies to go beyond formal job descriptions by taking actions. Role Breadth Self-Efficacy is a 10-item scale developed by Parker (1998) to know employees' assessment that they are capable to perform proactive, interpersonal, and integrative tasks. It is not a stable disposition rather can vary in different contexts. Taking charge scale is developed by

Morrison and Phelps (1999). It is defined as “constructive efforts by employees to effect functional change with respect to how work is executed.” It is future directed and change-oriented behaviour to bring improvement in the way work is executed at functional level. It is measured using 10-item reported by co-workers; however, the items can easily be adapted for self-report measures.

2.1.1 Proactive Personality

Proactive Personality scale is developed by Bateman and Crant (1993). It taps the differences among people in influencing their environment owing to differences in their individual characteristics. They defined the prototypical proactive personality as “someone who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces and who effects environmental change”. Proactive people by anticipating opportunities, take proactive initiatives and continue efforts until achieve the targeted change. On the other hand, people who are not proactive enough fail to act proactively because they can't identify opportunities timely and hence can't strive to bring change. Unlike proactive people they are passive and trend followers.

Proactive personality is a dispositional aspect of proactivity. It influences all proactive behaviours including proactive problem solving (Parker et al., 2006), individual innovation and career innovation (Seibert et al., 2001). According to Seibert et al. (1999) and Parker et al. (2006), proactive personality is correlated to different types of proactive behaviours including role breadth self-efficacy (Parker, 1998), flexible role orientation (Parker and Sprigg, 1999), career initiatives (Seibert et al., 2001), network building (Lambert et al., 2006), taking charge, individual innovation, problem prevention, voice (Parker and collins, in press), and proactive socialization (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003). According to

Kim and Wang (2008), proactive personality would engage in feedback seeking if organizational procedure is perceived as fair.

The meta-analysis of 103 independent samples conducted by Thomas, et al. (2010) found significant correlation between proactive personality and job performance, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, social networking. Crant (1995) also reported positive relationship between proactive personality and job performance. Fuller Jr. and Marler (2009) in their meta-analysis of 313 correlations from 107 studies found positive impact of proactive personality on objective and subjective career success. They also found more significant impact of proactive personality on supervisor rated job performance than the impact of big five personality traits. However, proactive personality found unrelated with social desirability. According to Zampetakis (2008), proactive personality and creativity are positively associated. Li, Liang & Crant (2010) reported that proactive personality and relationship with supervisor is positively related, which further results in increased job satisfaction and OCB. Moreover, the relationship between proactive personality and OCB is moderated by procedural justice.

2.1.2 Taking Charge

Taking charge is a discretionary behaviour aimed to bring functional improvement in the organizations (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). It is important in bringing change and improvement (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). Taking charge behaviour is aimed at improving organizational functioning by introducing innovative ways (Love & Dustin, 2014). According to Staw and Boettger (1990), if employees follow wrong or faulty procedure even through extra efforts, this would in fact be dysfunctional for the organization until those faulty procedures are challenged and changed. Bringing change by the employees through

taking initiatives is very important from strategic point of view as well (Bunce and West, 1995; Burgelman, 1994; Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1994; Scott and Bruce, 1994).

Taking charge has also been included in change-oriented citizenship behaviour along with other behaviours such as voice, creative performance, positive proactive behaviour, and personal initiative (Chiaburu, Lorinkova & Van Dyne, 2013) and depends upon leaders, coworkers, and the organization. It also shares similarities with constructive deviance. Taking charge is more active form of extra role behaviour as it aims at changing organizational functions (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li & Gardner, 2011).

Morrison & Phelps (1999) while discussing taking charge in depth compares it with related behaviours. According to them, taking charge shares some similarities with extra role behaviours and change-oriented behaviours. However, it is different from the former because it challenges the status quo. It is a second-order factor of proactive behaviours. Furthermore, taking charge is different from principled dissent and whistleblowing in a sense that it addresses functional change, whereas the later two behaviours address broader, strategic nature of issues. Moreover, Taking charge challenges status quo through approved practices whereas principled dissent and whistleblowing may take other forms as well. Taking charge targets to bring something positive whereas principled dissent and whistleblowing focuses to expose the negative and illegitimate actions.

There are also similarities and differences between voice and taking charge. Voice has been defined broadly (Withey and Cooper, 1989) which though includes some manifests of taking charge like sharing concerns with other, use of suggestion boxes but differs in many other behaviours. Taking charge also have some features common with issue-selling (Ashford et al., 1998) such as attracting attention towards areas required improvement, however it is

different from taking charge because it focuses at strategic issues. Taking charge is also different from task revision and role innovation in a sense that taking charge focuses beyond individuals' job role. Taking charge is similar to personal initiatives in a sense that personal initiatives also calls for reorganizing work structure, however it more a stable dispositional aspect whereas taking charge varies from situation to situation.

Taking charge depends upon both individual as well as situational factors. According to Love & Dustin (2014), Taking Charge depends upon two underlying factors-the assessment of likelihood of success and of anticipation of the consequences. Chiaburu and Baker (2006) stated that taking charge is positively related to the supervisory output control. Furthermore, leader-member exchange has also positive impact on taking charge (Buttencourt, 2004). Taking charge is influenced by top management openness, self-efficacy, and felt-responsibility (Morrison and Phelps, 1999).

Moon, Kamdar, Mayer & Takeuchi (2008) reported positive relationship between taking charge and sense of duty and procedural justice, and negative relationship with achievement striving. Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) also found positive relationship between taking charge and work engagement. Chiaburu and Baker (2006) found positive relationship between taking charge and individual's propensity to trust.

Taking charge has positive impact on employees' performance (Morrison and Phelps, 1999; Thomas et al., 2010). Taking charge can provoke conflict and disturb employees' relationship (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). Being proactive, it may evoke reactions from employees because these behaviours challenge status quo (Bindl and Parker, 2011).

2.2 Whistleblowing

Near & Miceli (1985) defined whistleblowing as “the disclosure by organisation members (former or current) of illegal, immoral, or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to persons or organisations that may be able to effect action”. It is a voluntary disclosure of objectionable practices done by employees or management. It can be done internally to the higher authorities within the organization or to external sources perceived as capable of correcting wrongdoings (Park et al., 2005; Dworkin and Callahan, 1991) either anonymously or disclosing one’s identity. According to Read & Rama(2003), whistleblowing is the act of “employees going outside organizations to expose the illegal, inefficient, or unethical practices of their employing organizations”. Baker (1983) and Miceli & Near (1984) reported that though both internal and external whistleblowing is not mutually exclusive, yet it has been observed that whistle-blowers, who go for external channels, first raised concerns internally (Park,Rehg& Lee, 2005).

Researchers are of the view that whistleblowing on the whole is done in good faith. Rosecrance(1988) in his study found that all employees opted for whistleblowing shared the common characteristics of good job reputation, high self-esteem and an internal locus of control. For organizations, whistleblowing is an important organizational measure to control unwanted practices and improve organizational performance (Callahan,Dworkin, Fort &Schipani, 2002; Miceli & Near 1992;Lombardi 1988). Organizations which fail to nourish the culture of speaking up and whistleblowing are at the greater risk of collapse as there would be no one to identify practices hindering organizational progress (Kaplan & Schultz, 2007; Eaton & Akers, 2007;Lacayo& Ripley, 2003; Near and Miceli, 1995).

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Pulliam & Solomon (2002) found that some of the infamous financial scandals get highlighted only due to employees' whistleblowing, which saved organizations from complete collapse and led the development of acts such as Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002. Whistleblowing can play an important role in preventing organizational wrong doings through timely detecting (Ponemon, 1994) and effective organizational decisions can only be possible when management have the right and honest opinion and feedback of employees, which can only be achieved by encouraging open upward communication (Rosecrance, 1988). In the absence of such a communication channel, employees are left with only the option of external whistleblowing (Ponemon, 1994), which results in negative publicity and litigation issues (Dworkin & Near, 1987).

Though apparently, whistleblowing gives the impression of role conflict, yet done to highlight and rectify bad practices and maintain integrity (Arce, 2010). The probability of employees' going for whistleblowing is higher when they perceive that management would take it serious (Zhuang, 2002; Near and Miceli, 1985) even if they feel themselves less capable of correcting the same (Rosecrance, 1988). The reason is that employees with higher intentions to whistle-blow are unable to adjust and compromise with such bad practices and feel that they should speak up to the authorities. Conducting the study on the intentions of whistleblowing in probation department, Rosecrance(1988)observed that officers that opted external sources to highlight organizational wrongdoings are the well-wishers of the department and first shared the problems within the organization and exhausted internal sources to bring positive organizational change.

According to Gorta and Forell (1995), individuals process whistleblowing intentions in four stages-keep silent and do nothing, discussing with colleagues, reporting internally to

concerned quarter, reporting external to the source perceived as influential to take corrective measures. Rosecrance (1988) reported that whistleblowing intentions develop over time and categorized the process into five stages started with criticism of objectionable practices, development of intransigent behaviour, external whistleblowing, organizational retaliation and aftermath.

Graham's (1986) gave the model of principled organizational dissent to explain the whistleblowing behaviour. "Principled organizational dissent is the effort by individuals in the workplace to protest and/or to change the organizational status quo because of their conscientious objection to current policy or practice", which many researchers used to understand and explain individuals' whistleblowing intentions (Kaplan & Whitecotton, 2001; Schultz, Johnson, Morris, & Dyrnes, 1993). Regarding theoretical underpinning of whistleblowing intentions, researchers refer whistleblowing in the light of pro-social behavioural theory defined as "behaviour which is (a) performed by a member of an organization, (b) directed toward an individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (c) performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed (Brennan & Kelly, 2007; Dworkin, 1998; Miceli & Near, 1988; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Dozier & Miceli, 1985).

Extant literature shows that employees' intentions to whistle-blow derived from individual as well as contextual factors (Miceli & Near, 1984; Near & Miceli, 1990; Sims & Keenan, 1998; McLain & Keenan, 1999; MacNab & Worthley, 2008). According to Rothschild and Miethe (1999), whistleblowing intentions depend upon individual as well as organizational factors on whether to blow the whistle internally, externally or keep silent.

Gobert & Punch (2000) conducted the detailed study on impact of individual factors on intentions to whistle-blow and stated that individuals differ in their intentions to go for whistleblowing due to differences in psychological and sociological factors. Park et al., (2005), however observed that the existing research discussing the impact of individual and contextual factors on employees' intentions to whistle-blow has not explored the domain from all aspects. For instance, very little research has been done to find the impact of cultural dimensions on individuals' whistleblowing intentions. Kaplan (2001) opined that individuals in individualistic culture may be more intended to whistle-blow as compared to individuals in collectivistic culture as evident from the rapid development of whistleblowing protection acts in western countries such as United States, Britain, Australia, Canada etc. King (2000) stated that communication codes in a society depend upon the underlying cultural characteristics that shape the communication space it is willing to allow their citizens.

Park et al., (2005) studied the impact of societal cultural values on employees' whistleblowing intentions and observed that reporting intentions in Western cultures are high as compared to non-Western cultures, which shows that culture has impact on employees' willingness to report wrongdoings as in some Asian countries, for instance, South Korea, whistleblowing is considered as negative and even betrayal to the organization responsible for shattering employees' faith in the organization and the intensity of this may vary according to kind and type of whistleblowing as well.

Employees' intentions to whistle-blow also depend upon organizational culture. Read & Rama (2003) reported that employees are willing to whistle-blow when they perceive the management as supportive and quite competent to pursue the issue. Ponemon (1994) also stated that controls and codes can only be effective if management is serious in implementing

them. Employees don't prefer to report wrongdoings if they consider it useless keeping in view the management's indifference attitude (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005) and fear of retaliation (Read & Rama, 2003).

Rehg et al., (2008) defined retaliation as "taking an undesirable action against whistleblower—in direct response to the whistle-blowing—who reported wrongdoing internally or externally, outside the organization". It can be informal as well as formal done by management as well as colleagues in the form of isolation, increasing rift with organization and colleagues, job loss, career blacklisting, selective downsizing, workplace bullying, unfavourable job evaluations etc. (Arce, 2010; Bjørkelo et al., 2008; Read & Rama, 2003; Cortina and Magley, 2003; Faulkner, 1998; Lennane and De Maria, 1998; De Maria and Jan, 1997; Baucus and Dworkin, 1994; Lennane, 1993; Rosecrance, 1988; Near and Miceli, 1986). Whistle-blowers are also considered as disloyal to the organization and considered as promoting self-interests. Bjorkelo (2013) stated that informal retaliation usually comes from colleagues in the form of isolation, whereas formal retaliation comes from supervisors and bosses as they possess the authority over subordinates.

Whistleblowing culture is important for organizations in a sense that it helps highlight objectionable practices that hamper organizational capacity to progress. Continuous indifference to speaking up and employees' whistleblowing would deprive organizations of committed and conscious individuals (Rosecrance, 1988). It is also important because it helps organizations to correct things before becoming public causing reputational damage (Dunfee, 1990).

Employees' fear of retaliation however, can be minimized and whistleblowing can be encouraged through different strategies. Krull (1996) stated that organizations can encourage employees to blow the wrongdoings through developing such a culture that gives confidence to the employees that they would be listened and issues would be rectified. Such a culture requires clearly defining and standing by the code of conduct and ethics and assessing employees' feedback through implementing employees' suggestion programme and open door policy. Engaging internal auditors would also encourage reporting bad practices. Guiding employees about the way to report wrongdoings, giving and becoming role model increase likelihood of whistleblowing,

Pittroff (2013) exploring the theoretical underpinning of the organizational willingness to implement whistleblowing system stated that legitimacy theory provides basis for whistleblowing concept as it aims to serve the societal interests. Taking legitimacy theory as a base, he conducted study on German managers and found that external whistleblowing is not considered as effective which is in line with legitimacy theory. As for as internal whistleblowing system is considered, legitimacy theory is not substantiated instead power theory comes to play.

2.3 Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis

Whistleblowing in organizations is an important behavioural outcome, which enables organizations to know the issues and problems hindering the progress and organizational growth. Despite its significance, employees hesitate to whistle-blow. Research has identified both individual (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Bateman & Crant, 1993) as well as situational (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) factors responsible for this. Addressing both these factors, extant literature cites a number of studies conducted to know the underlying causes

and give suggestions to encourage employees to break silence and blow the whistle. One such stream of research is the 'employees' proactive work behaviour', which focuses on employees' capabilities to anticipate and respond changing market environment with proactive conscious decisions (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Cameron & Lavine, 2006; Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Crant, 2000; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Bandura, 1997; Bateman & Crant, 1993; Covey, 1989; Ashford & Cummings, 1985;).

Employees' proactive work behaviours are directed at introducing and bringing positive changes in organizational processes and systems to meet changing market requirements (Belschak & Hartog, 2010). These positive changes and improvement in organizational efficiency and effectiveness can't be achieved until inefficient procedures, malpractices and wrongdoings are addressed and rectified. Realizing this, it is expected that proactive employees have more tendencies and intentions to whistle-blow and highlight such inefficient processes, procedures, malpractices and wrongdoings.

Despite the recognition of whistleblowing as a proactive and necessary behaviour for organizational success (Bjorkelo & Macko, 2012), it is however, not welcomed by management and thus employees hesitate to whistle-blow. Moreover, employees vary in their intentions to whistle-blow on observing organizational wrongdoing (Miceli et al., 1991). Researchers reported a number of factors responsible for negative perception towards whistleblowing; however, extant literature is silent about the fact whether whistleblowing has actually been perceived as proactive work behaviour by employees. It is also important to explore the perception about whistleblowing, because perception affects attitudinal reactions and elicit specific behaviors (Locke, McClear, & Knight, 1996). Whistleblowing if perceived as a proactive behaviour would increase employees' intentions to whistle-blow. Thus, it is hypothesized that;

H1: Employees' Whistleblowing Intentions would be higher if whistleblowing is perceived as a proactive behaviour.

2.3.1 Perception about Whistleblowing, Proactive Personality and Whistleblowing Intentions

Individuals tag meanings to things and draw inferences from the situations depending upon the impression they develop. The same thing and situation may be interpreted differently by different individuals depending upon the differences in their perception. Among other factors, this difference in the perception is due to individuals' personality characteristics (website source-uniguide studies), which affect attitudinal reactions and elicit specific behaviours (Locke, McClear, & Knight, 1996). According to cognitive social view, individuals' intentions/behaviour depend upon personality dispositions (Shoda and Mischel, 1993; Michel, 1973). Variation in individuals' behaviour is the outcome of differences in dispositional characteristics of personality (Epstain, 1979; House et al., 1996).

Whistleblowing intentions also depend upon individual characteristics (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996). Individuals vary in their intentions to whistle-blow on observing organizational wrongdoings depending upon different individual factors (Miceli et al., 1991). According to Ahmad et al. (2011), intention to whistle-blow is a case specific and depends upon dispositional factors. In a similar vein, perception about whistleblowing as proactive behaviour also differs from individual to individual. Thus perception of all proactive personalities about whistleblowing (as a proactive behaviour) may not be the same in a sense that some may consider whistleblowing as proactive behaviour and others may not.

The dispositional aspect of proactive behaviour has been conceptualized as Proactive Personality by Bateman and Crant (1993), which seeks to capture personality disposition toward proactive tendencies (Michael, 2000). It taps differences among individuals to the extent they are willing to take actions to influence their environment. It has been defined as someone who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces and who effects environmental change. Proactive people identify opportunities and act on them, show initiative, take action, and persevere until meaningful change occurs. In contrast, people who are not proactive exhibit the opposite patterns: they fail to identify, let alone seize, opportunities to change things. Less proactive individuals are passive and reactive, prefer to adapt to circumstances rather than change them.

According to Parker et al. (2006), proactive personality influences all other proactive behaviours. As whistleblowing considered as a proactive behaviour (Belschak & Hartog, 2010), therefore, it is assumed that if whistleblowing is perceived as a proactive behaviour by proactive personality, whistleblowing intentions would be higher and vice versa. On the basis of this, it is hypothesized that:

H2: Relationship between Perception about Whistleblowing and Whistleblowing Intentions is moderated by Proactive Personality in such a way that if whistleblowing is considered as a proactive behaviour, Whistleblowing Intentions would be higher.

2.3.2 Perception about Whistleblowing, Taking Charge and Whistleblowing Intentions

Morrison and Phelps (1999) introduced the "Taking Charge"- a construct of proactive behaviour to capture the idea that organizations need employees who are willing to challenge

the status quo to bring constructive changes. It is defined as constructive efforts by employees to effect functional change with respect to how work is executed. At its essence, Taking Charge is a change-oriented and geared toward improvement. It measures tendencies towards situation-specific proactive behaviour presumed to change in response to environmental conditions (Michael, 2000).

Taking charge encompasses voluntary productive efforts to bring functional change in the way work is done in the organization (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). It requires challenging practices considered as counter-productive and replacing them with more efficient and effective ones (Van Maanen and Scbein, 1979). According to Staw and Boettger (1990), employees who follow organizational rules and procedures without striving to bring improvement in them are in fact hindering the competitive pace of the organization. Instead of maintaining status quo, organizations need employees who dare to bring continuous changes in faulty procedures and systems (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Despite differences between taking charge and whistleblowing, both behaviours share some similarities (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Whistleblowing reports illegitimate practices and loopholes in underlying procedures for remedial actions. Taking Charge also challenges inefficient procedures and practices and bring changes to improve them. Both are change oriented and future directed. The immediate focus of Taking Charge is at functional level, whereas, whistleblowing' domain ranges from strategic level to functional level.

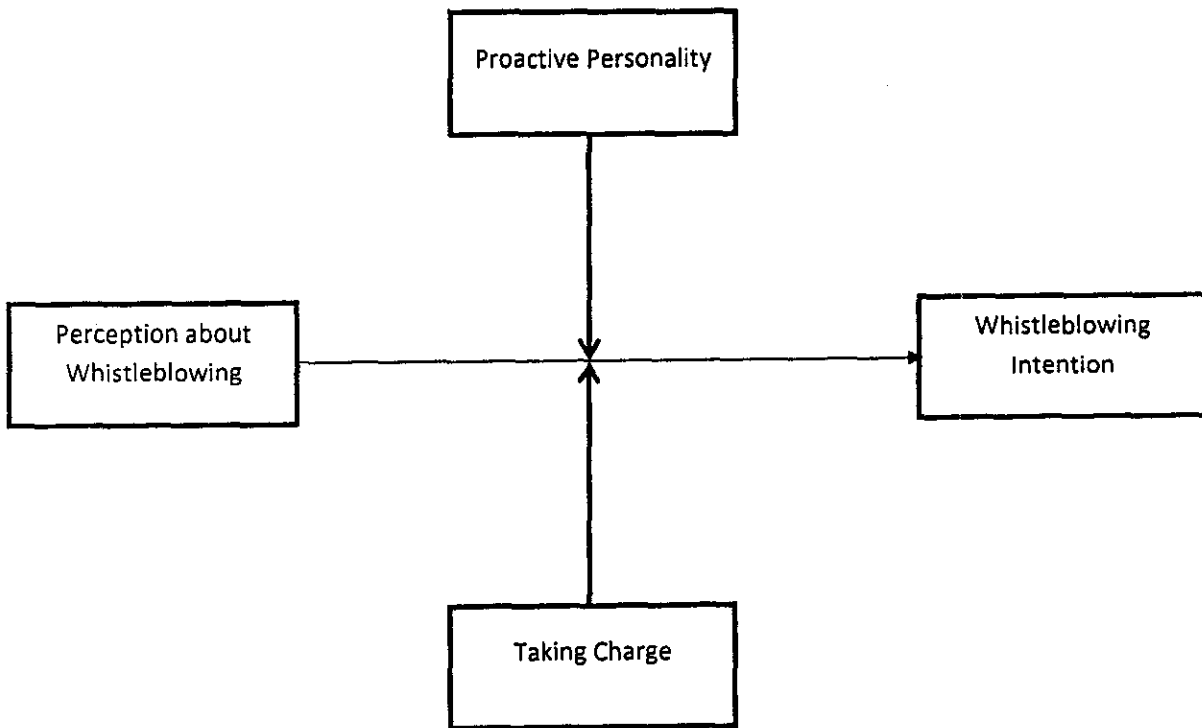
According to Morrison & Phelps (1999), Taking Charge depends upon the likelihood of success and likelihood of consequences, which is derived from the perception of individuals. It means that if taking charge tendencies are higher and whistleblowing and speaking up

against ill practices is perceived as a proactive behaviour, employees would be confident to highlight and address inefficient practices for corrective measures. This would further lead to higher whistleblowing intentions.

Therefore, it is assumed that if employees report higher on taking charge behaviour and perceive whistleblowing as a proactive behaviour, then whistleblowing intentions would be higher and vice versa. Thus, it is hypothesized that;

H3:*Relationship between Perception about Whistleblowing and Whistleblowing Intentions is moderated by Taking Charge in such a way that if Taking Charge is high, Whistleblowing Intentions would be higher.*

2.4 Proposed Research Model



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Theoretical framework developed and hypothesis has been formulated in Chapter 2 on the basis of detailed survey of extant literature in the areas of whistleblowing, proactive work behaviour, proactive personality, and taking charge. The current chapter covers discussion on the industry and target population selected followed by the research design employed for the purpose of this study. The chapter ends with the discussion of results of the pilot study conducted in connection with this research.

3.1 Target Population

Population of the study is the private hospitals operating in Islamabad and Rawalpindi. There are 20 private hospitals in these two cities. Total working strength of all these hospitals is approximately 6000.

Thought private sector hospitals don't face the problems as those of public sector hospitals such as greater formalization, centralization and bureaucratic structure, political intervention and financial constraints, yet they have their own set of restrictions. They are in the market for profit generation and hence focus more on it instead of public welfare. Unlike public sector hospitals, they have limited resources and have to operate within the business and legal space provided by the government. In case of any unwanted incident occurred in the shape of violation of government rules or damage to customers' interest, they have to face the consequences. To balance between these two extremes, they have to be very much sensitive to the customers' needs in the light of changing market trends. This can only be possible when they succeed to nourish such a working culture in which employees proactively scan changing market trends and customers' needs and bring structural and behavioural

improvement accordingly, and have courage and confidence to highlight and speak up about those problems which hinder in achieving this.

Keeping in view the importance and uniqueness of this industry and significance of study variables, this study aimed to investigate the proposed relationship in private hospitals operating in Islamabad and Rawalpindi.

Hospitals comprise of core as well as supporting professions/departments. Doctors, paramedical staff and labs' employees constitute core, whereas administration, finance and other employees are part of supporting professions/departments. Though need and intensity of employees' proactivity and speaking up may vary from profession to profession and individual to individual, yet it is necessary rather inevitable at all levels. Doctors being specialist and paramedical employees being technical to the business must need proactive work behaviour approach to align structural and behavioural aspects with the changing market demands. This however can't effectively be achieved without inculcating the same spirit in the supporting professions responsible to create execution space for the plans. Any structural or behavioural problems in Administration, Finance and other such professions may have reciprocal impact on core departments, which they can't absorb for survival and growth. Keeping in view the significance of employees at all levels and departments, this study aimed to get feedback from employees working in all these professions/departments.

3.2 Sampling Technique

Population of the study consisted of employees working in different professions/departments (Doctors, paramedical, supporting) in Islamabad and Rawalpindi. Convenience sampling has been used to reach the respondents.

3.3 Research Design

This cross-sectional descriptive study investigated the relationship between variables of the study through hypothesis testing in natural settings using convenience sampling in which employees were the unit of analysis.

Total population of the study comprising of Doctors, paramedical staff and employees working in Administration and Finance departments was 6000. Using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table, sample size for the study was 361 (Sekaran, 2003).

3.4 Procedure

The survey instruments have been administered personally to the employees working in private hospital operating in Islamabad and Rawalpindi to ensure high response/return rate. A cover letter briefing the purpose of the research and assuring observance of confidentiality has been attached with the questionnaire. As the study was academic, hence only volunteer participants have been engaged and no reward has been offered in response to rating the questionnaire.

3.5 Questionnaire Measures

The variables incorporated for hypothesis testing have been measured through already validated research instruments. The reliability of the scales were satisfactory, showing Cronbach alpha greater than 0.70. Employees have been asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each description on Likert scale. However, vignettes have been used to tap the perception of employees about whistleblowing.

Following instruments have been used for the measurement of proactive work behaviour and employees' whistleblowing intention.

3.5.1 Proactive Personality

Employees' proactive work behaviour due to individual personality disposition has been measured using Proactive Personality scale developed by Bateman & Crant (1993), which consisted of 10 items measured on 7-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The Cronbach alpha of the scale was 0.96 for the current study.

3.5.2 Taking Charge

Employees' proactive work behaviour has been measured using the Taking Charge scale developed by Morrison and Phelps (1999), which consisted of 10- items measured on 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'very infrequently' to 'very frequently'. The Cronbach alpha of the scale was 0.89 for the current study. Taking Charge scale is originally a co-worker scale, however, researchers (Onyishi, 2007; Onyishi and Ogbodo, 2012) have converted it into self-report measure for their studies as well. According to Chattopadhyay (1999) and Grant (2008), self-report measure is equally valid and reliable rating method.

3.5.3 Perception about Whistleblowing

The perception of employees about whistleblowing as proactive work behaviour has been measured by developing a scenario based Vignettes. Vignette is defined as "short descriptions of a person or a social situation which contains precise references to what are thought to be the most important factors in the decision-making or judgement-making processes of respondents" (Alexander & Becker, 1978). According to Ahmad, Ismail, Azmi & Zakaria (2014), vignettes present hypothetical scenarios to get feedback about sensitive issues.

Randall and Gibson (1990) stated that vignettes should be developed with realistic approach and be clear. They should be designed in such a way that respondents can put themselves in a hypothetical situation for recording response (Patel, 2003). According to

Gundlach, Martinko & Douglas (2008), vignettes are more appropriate for whistleblowing research. There are certain limitations with vignette approach as well. According to Xu and Ziegenfuss (2008), validity and generalizability of vignettes are limited. Miceli et al. (2008) stated that it can't be ascertained whether whistleblowing intentions would be transformed into act of whistleblowing in real world scenarios. Furthermore, vignettes also face social desirability and order effect biases.

Ahmad et al. (2014) conducted the study to check the existence of social desirability response bias and order effect bias in vignettes and found results free of order effect bias. However, reported the existence of social desirability response effect bias. According to Nguyen (2008), however, social desirability response bias does not pose significant threat. Moreover, Randall and Fernandes (1991) stated that social desirability response bias decreases with increasing level of anonymity. As in this study, anonymity has completely been ensured; therefore, social desirability response bias has been minimal.

For the purpose of this study, three Vignettes used to tap the responses on 7-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' to know whether respondents consider the particular behaviour portrayed in vignettes as proactive behaviour or otherwise. The Cronbach alpha of the scale was 0.93 for the current study.

3.5.4 Whistleblowing Intention:

Employees whistleblowing intention has been measured using scale developed by Park, H. and Blenkinsopp, J. (2009). The four items related to internal whistleblowing intention have been used by asking the question "If you found wrongdoing in your workplace, how hard would you try to do the following?" on 5-point

Likert scale ranging from Not at all (1) to Very hard (5). The Cronbach alpha of the scale is .84 for the current study.

3.6 Pilot Study

Pilot study is defined by Kraemer et al. (2006) as “small study to test research protocols, data collection instruments, sample recruitment strategies, and other research techniques in preparation for a larger study.” It is a short version of the original research work, which provides the researchers to get an idea about different elements of the research before taking on full length research activity. It is an important stage of the research study conducted to test different aspects of the research design and aims to identify problems and deficiencies in the research process so that they can be eliminated before proceeding towards the larger study (Zailinawati et al., 2006; Lancaster et al., 2004).

A pilot study conducted for this research was self-administered in September, 2014 by sampling the subjects from the actual study sample-private hospitals operating in Islamabad and Rawalpindi. Full version of the research instruments designed for the study was used, which were received back after two weeks.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections. One sought information about demographics of the respondents and the other contained scales of perception about whistleblowing as a proactive behaviour, intention to whistle-blow, proactive personality, and taking charge. Brief description of these constructs was also given at the start of the questionnaire so that respondents could understand them. English version of the questionnaire was used. Feedback of the respondents about different aspects were also sought at the end of the questionnaire such as layout and format of the questionnaire, comprehensibility of the

questionnaire, time consumed in completing the questionnaire, any other comments regarding questionnaire.

Data from 52 subjects was collected, which was 14% of the sample size. According to Baker (1994), 10-20% of the sample size is reasonable and accepted for conducting pilot study. The questionnaire was explained to the respondents at the time of distribution, so no problem was faced at later stage. Respondents took 6-8 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The response rate was 100% and no questionnaire was reported with missing or wrong entry.

According to descriptive analysis of the pilot study, 34 (65%) were male and 18 (35%) were female. 27 were doctors, 12 were paramedical professional, and 13 were working in Finance/Administration/Other departments.

Analysis was done using SPSS version 16 and found no difficulty therein. Results of the pilot study showed that design of the study is feasible to be conducted at larger scale. Comments regarding readability and understandability were positive. Only some respondents suggested the questionnaire to be translated into Urdu language, which was done accordingly.

The pilot exercise showed that the method adopted to approach subjects i.e. self-administration yielded good results both in terms of return rate and time consumption. Though email address was also mentioned on the questionnaire to report any query, yet no correspondence has been made. This also gave confidence in overall design of the questionnaire and collection approach.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results of the pilot study discussed in chapter 3 shows the appropriateness of the research design employed. Full scale detailed study was then conducted whose results have been discussed in this chapter covering descriptive as well as inferential statistics. The chapter concludes with findings from this study.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Out of 370 survey questionnaire distributed among the respondents, 292 complete questionnaires collected (response rate 78%). Data obtained consisted of 194 males (64%) and 98 females (33%). Majority of the subjects were of age 26-30 (31%) followed by 31-35 (26%). 33% were Doctors, whereas respondents working in Paramedical and Administration/Finance/Other professions were 21% and 44% respectively. Majority of the respondents possessed experience 1-5 years (44%) followed by 6-10 (32%). Summary of descriptive statistics is presented in Table 4.1.

4.2 Correlation

Correlation matrix was drawn to find whether there exists relationship between different variables of the study. Results of correlation presented in Table 4.2 show significant positive relationship of demographic variables such as gender, age, and years of experience with whistleblowing intention (WI). The relationship of perception about whistleblowing (PaW) ($r = .520$), proactive personality (PP) ($r = .521$), and taking charge (TC) ($r = .566$) with whistleblowing intention (WI) are also positively significant.

Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Study

Demographic Variables	Frequency
Age of the Respondents	
20 – 25	42
26 – 30	92
31 – 35	77
36 -40	39
41-45	08
46-50	34
51-55, 56 & above	Nil
Gender	
Male	194
Female	98
Profession	
Doctor	99
Para-Medical	63
Administrative/Finance/Other	130
Experience	
1-5 years	131
6-10 years	95
11-15 years	26
16-20 years	14
21-25	12
26-30	14
31 & above	Nil

Table 4.2: Matrix Showing Correlation Among Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender								
2. Age	.242**							
3. Experience	.265**	.849**						
4. Profession of respondent	.011	.547**	.472**					
5. Perception about whistleblowing	.236**	.328**	.337**	.317**	(.93)			
6. Proactive Personality	.080	.047	.166**	.131	.670**	(.96)		
7. Taking Charge	.185**	.224**	.321**	.233**	.607**	.721**	(.89)	
8. Whistleblowing Intention	.431**	.180**	.214**	-.199	.520**	.521**	.566**	(.84)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
 Reliabilities (α) given in bold along the diagonal

Results of correlation analysis (Table 4.2) show significant positive association of WI with PaW (.502), PP (.521), and TC (.566). Among demographic variables, only gender (.431) found to be significantly positively associated with WI, whereas age and experience do not report significant association with WI. There is also positive association between PaW and PP (.670), and PaW and TC (.607).

4.3 Normality of Data

Normality test (Kolmogrove-Simornov) was used to assess normality of all the variables. Results show that data were not normally distributed (p-value less than 0.05), which is quite common in larger samples.

4.4 Analysis of Demographic Variables

Extant literature provides a number of studies affirming the impact of demographic variables on employees' whistleblowing intention. For instance, Yu & Zhang (2006) found that females being more sensitive to unethical behaviour exhibit more tendencies towards whistleblowing. According to Erkmen et al. (2014), and Liyanarachchi & Newdick (2009), differences exist between whistleblowing behaviour of male and female employees. Ahmad et al. (2012) reported that older employees have more whistleblowing intentions as compared to younger ones.

In a similar vein, employees with more experience show more whistleblowing intention on minor wrongdoings as compared to employees with lesser experience who show more whistleblowing intentions on major or severe wrongdoings (Keenan, 2000; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Sims & Keenan, 1998).

Keeping in view the impact of demographic variables on employees' whistleblowing intentions, the present study has also sought the demographic information (gender, age, length of experience, nature of profession) of the respondents. The purpose is to know whether the impact of demographic variables taken in this study needs to be controlled or not while testing the impact of independent variable (PaW) on dependent variable (W1). The following sections discuss the tests employed for investigating the impact of demographic variables of the study on dependent variable (W1).

4.4.1 Parametric vs Non-Parametric Analysis

The data obtained for this study was not normal. Non-parametric tests are used in cases where data is not normal. However, according to contention of Seifert (2006), parametric tests can be used with non-normal data to avoid the loss of power of non-parametric tests if results of both parametric and non-parametric tests are same.

Though independent sample t-test (Guiard & Rasch, 2004; Shlomo S & Stephen B, 1992) and ANOVA (Schminder, Ziegler, Danay, Beyer & Buhner, 2010; Hair, 1998) are robust to violation of normality yet, to check whether results from both parametric and non-parametric tests are same, non-parametric analysis was also done to check whether results have been affected by non-normality of data. Man U Whitney tests was done to test the impact of gender on WI, whereas, kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to test the impact of age, experience, profession on WI. The results of these non-parametric tests were not different from parametric tests i.e. independent sample t-test, ANOVA. Therefore, independent sample t-test and ANOVA were used to avoid loss of power in case of non-parametric tests.

To find whether males and females differ in whistleblowing intention, independent samples t-test was used, which computed difference of means in both gender groups.

Levene's statistic (3.577) is significant ($p < .05$), therefore equal variances are not assumed. T-test for equality of means is significant at -02.774 ($p < .05$). The results (Table 4.3) show that there is difference in whistleblowing intention in males and females. The magnitude of the difference in the means is large (eta squared=.16).

4.4.2 Independent Samples t-tests

Table 4.3: Independent Samples T-Test

				Levene's Test for		t-Test for Equality of Means		
				Equality of Variances				
Private								
Sector	N	M	SD	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Hospitals								
Male	194	3.66	0.49					
				26.143	0.000	-7.102	138	.000
Female	98	3.06	0.77					

Eta squared shows the effect size for independent-sample t-test due to gender. According to Cohen (1988), the value of eta squared ranges from .01=small effect, .06=moderate effect, and .14=large effect. The result shows that 16% of the variance in employees' intention to whistle-blow is explained by gender.

4.4.3 Age

Table 4.4

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Whistleblowing Intentions by Respondent's Age

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Between groups	5	8.944	1.789	4.248	.001
Within groups	286	120.723	.422		
Total	291	129.667			

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of age on employees' whistleblowing intention. Subjects were divided into eight groups on the basis of their age (Group 1: 20-25, Group 2: 26-30, Group 3: 31-35, Group 4: 36-40, Group 5: 41-45, Group 6: 46-50, Group 7: 51-55, Group 8: 56 & above.). There was statistically significant difference at $p < .05$ level in WI scores for the eight groups [$F(6,000) = 4.248, p = .001$]. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was medium. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .06. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 2 ($M = 3.18, SD = .98$) was significantly different from Group 3 ($M = 3.65, SD = .86$) and Group 6 ($M = 3.71, SD = .09$). Other groups did not differ significantly from each other (Table 4.4).

4.4.4 Experience

Table 4.5: *One-Way Analysis of Variance of Whistleblowing Intentions by Respondent's Length of Experience*

<i>Source</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between groups	5	7.679	1.536	3.601	.004
Within groups	286	121.987	.427		
Total	291	129.667			

One-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of years of experience on employees' whistleblowing intention. Subjects were divided into seven groups on the basis of their job experience (Group 1: 1-5, Group 2: 6-10, Group 3: 11-15, Group 4: 16-20, Group 5: 21-25, Group 6: 26-30, Group 7: 31-35).

21-25, Group 6: 26-30, Group 7: 31 & above). There was a statistically significant difference at $p < .05$ level in WI scores for the seven groups [$F(6000)=3.601, p=.004$]. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .05. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M=3.2, SD=.94$) was significantly different from Group 3 ($M=3.7, SD=.26$). Other groups did not differ significantly from each other (Table 4.5).

4.4.5 Profession

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of profession on employees' whistleblowing intention. Subjects were divided into three groups on the basis of their profession (Group 1: Doctor, Group 2: Paramedical, Group 3: Administrative/Finance/Other). The difference was not statistically significant at the $p < .05$ in the scores of whistleblowing intention for the six age groups ($F[6000]=2.490, p=.096$).

4.5 Regression Analysis

4.5.1 Impact of Perception about Whistleblowing on Whistleblowing Intention using Regression Analysis

In order to explore the impact of Perception about Whistleblowing (PaW) on Whistleblowing Intention (WI), regression analysis was done at 5% significance level (confidence interval). This significance level is considered acceptable in social and behavioural sciences. 5% significance level is considered appropriate as 100% human behaviour can't be tapped in natural settings.

Table 4.6

Summary of Simple Regression Analysis for the respondents' Whistleblowing Intentions

Variable	B	SE(B)	β	t	Sig.(p)
Perception about Whistleblowing	.307	.030	.520	10.360	.000

Note. $R^2 = .270$

Table 4.6 shows results of the regression analysis. The model explains 27% variation in dependent variable i.e. whistleblowing intention due to independent variable i.e. perception about whistleblowing ($R^2 = 0.270$). However, one percent change in 'perception about whistleblowing' resulted in 52% change in 'whistleblowing intention' ($B=0.520$, standardized). The results are statistically significant at p-value 0.000. Thus hypothesis (H1) has been supported.

H1: Employees' intention to whistle-blow would be high if whistleblowing is perceived as a proactive behaviour.

4.5.2 Controlling Impact of Demographic Variables (Gender, Age, Job Experience)

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was carried out to test impact of independent variable- PaW on the dependent variable-WI by controlling the impact of demographic variables-gender, age, and job experience. Results of the regression (Table 4.7) show that PaW is significantly related to WI ($B=.364$) and accounted for 20.5% variation in WI. Neither age of the respondents nor job experience make unique contribution in respondents WI.

Table 4.7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Control Variables Predicting Whistleblowing Intentions

Variable	B	SE(B)	β	t
Model 1				
Gender	.569	.078	.404	7.4
Age	-.015	.047	-.034	-.32
Job Experience	.064	.051	.132	1.3
Model 2				
Perception about whistleblowing	.236	.034	.399	6.9

Note. $R^2 = .196$ for Model 1, $p < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .116$ for Model 2, $p < .001$; Total $R^2 = .312$, $p < .001$

4.6 Moderation Analysis

4.6.1 Impact of Proactive Personality as Moderators on the Relationship between Perception about Whistleblowing and Whistleblowing Intention

Table 4.8

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis with Proactive Personality as Moderator

Independent Variable	Whistleblowing Intentions			
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	p
Step 1				
Perception about Whistleblowing	.520	.270		.000
Step 2				
Perception about Whistleblowing*				
Proactive Personality	.585	.342	.072	.000

The moderating impact of Proactive Personality was explored using regression analysis by taking combined scores of Proactive Personality with Perception about Whistleblowing. These combined scores normally termed as 'interaction term' was then regressed upon Whistleblowing Intention to measure the moderating impact of Proactive Personality on the relationship between Perception about whistleblowing and Whistleblowing Intention. The results were analyzed on the basis of change in R^2 after introducing 'interaction term' in the directed depicted by associated positive or negative sign.

Table 4.8 shows results of the moderation analysis done to find the moderating impact of proactive personality. The combined score of PaW and PP was calculated by multiplying individual scores of PaW and PP ($PaW * PP$). This 'interaction term' was then regressed upon WI. As a result of this step, R^2 value changed from 0.270 to 0.342 depicting significant positive impact of PP as moderator on the relationship between PaW and WI at $p = .000$. Thus hypothesis (H2) has been supported.

H2: Relationship between perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing intention is moderated by Proactive Personality in such a way that if whistleblowing is considered as a proactive behaviour by Proactive Personality, whistleblowing intentions would be higher.

4.6.2 Impact of Taking Charge as Moderators on the Relationship between Perception about Whistleblowing and Whistleblowing Intention

The moderating impact of Taking Charge was analysed using regression analysis by taking combined scores of Taking Charge with Perception about Whistleblowing. These combined scores (interaction term) was then regressed upon Whistleblowing Intention to measure the

moderating impact of Taking Charge on the relationship between Perception about whistleblowing and Whistleblowing Intention. The results were analysed on the basis of change in R^2 after introducing 'interaction term' in the direction depicted by associated positive or negative sign.

Table 4.9 shows results of moderation analysis done to find the moderating impact of Taking Charge. The combined score of PaW and TC was calculated by multiplying individual scores of PaW and TC (PaW*TC). This 'interaction term' was then regressed upon WI. As a result,

Table 4.9

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis with Taking Charge as Moderator

Independent Variable	Whistleblowing Intentions			
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	p
Step 1				
Perception about Whistleblowing	.520	.270		.000
Step 2				
Perception about Whistleblowing*				
Proactive Personality	.618	.382	.112	.000

R^2 value changed from 0.270 to 0.382 depicting significant positive impact of TC as moderator on the relationship between PaW and WI at $p=.000$. Thus hypothesis (H3) has been supported.

H3: *Relationship between perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing intention is moderated by Taking Charge in such a way that if Taking Charge is high, whistleblowing intentions would be higher.*

4.7 Findings

Empirical results of the study reveal that whistleblowing is perceived as a proactive behaviour and this perception further leads towards individuals' intention to blow the whistle. Employees consider the reporting of wrongdoings as right, proactive, and part of their professional responsibility. This shows that if whistleblowing is cultivated as proactive and demanded behaviour, employees in general, would be motivated to highlight unwanted practices and bringing them in the notice of management and the organizations would save handsome resources from spoilage. Through fostering such an open working culture, individuals with proactive personalities would feel more confidence in introducing new ideas and identifying wrongdoings. The results also show that perception about whistleblowing as proactive behaviour motivates individuals to bring functional changes to the underlying working processes through exhibiting taking charge behaviour more confidently by challenging the status quo, identifying malpractices and ill procedures and rectifying them through bringing functional improvements.

CHAPTER 5

Chapter 4 covered results obtained from hypothesis testing. In this chapter, discussion has been generated on these results in the light of extant literature in the field under study. The results bear great significance because of the contribution they extended to the extant literature as well as their practical implications, which are also discussed in this chapter. The chapter then concludes with the conclusion drawn from this research study.

5.1 Discussion

The correlation matrix shows the positive relationship of independent variable PaW ($r=.421$) and moderating variables PP ($r=.534$) & TC ($r=.455$) with WI. All the demographic variables such as gender ($r=.281$), age ($r=.194$), and job experience ($r=.215$) except profession show positive relationship with WI, whereas the relationship of profession with Whistleblowing Intention is not significant. The results of Independent Samples t-test show that 16% variation in respondents' Whistleblowing Intentions are due to gender difference. Results of ANOVA show that respondents differ in Whistleblowing Intentions depending upon their age and job experience. However, the impact this difference brought in Whistleblowing Intentions was medium in case of age and small in case of job experience. Controlling the impact of gender, age, and respondents' job experience, results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis show that age and job experience of respondents don't have unique contribution to their Whistleblowing Intentions. However, males and females differ in their intention to blow the whistle.

Extant literature shows mixed results for the impact of demographic variables on employees' whistleblowing intention. Brennan & Kelly's (2007) and Park et al. (2005) argued that demographic variables don't give consistent results on employees' whistleblowing intention.

Erkmen et al. (2014) also found insignificant relationship of demographic variables such as working circumstances, service tenure and membership with employees' whistleblowing intention, whereas, Cassematis & Wortley (2013) reported insignificant effect of gender on employees' whistleblowing intention. Besides, a number of studies failed to find significant relationship of demographic variables with whistleblowing intention (Rothwell & Baldwin, 2007; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Rothschild & Miethe, 1999; Sims & Keenan, 1998; Singer, Mitchell, & Turner, 1998; Barnett, Cochran, & Taylor, 1993).

Ahmad et al. (2012) while studying the impact of age on whistleblowing intentions reported that older employees have more whistleblowing intentions as compared to younger ones, which might be due to the fact that they face less retaliation. Similarly, employees with more experience show more whistleblowing intention on minor wrongdoings as compared to employees with lesser experience who show more whistleblowing intentions on major or severe wrongdoings (Keenan, 2000; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Sims & Keenan, 1998).

On the other hand, there are also a number of studies who found significant impact of demographic variables on employees' whistleblowing intentions. The study results are in congruence with the findings of Ahmad et al. (2012) that males and females differ in their intentions to blow the whistle internally. Liyanarachchi & Newdick (2009) also found that gender has significant impact on the relationship between employees' level of moral reasoning and propensity to blow the whistle. According to Yu & Zhang (2006), females being more sensitive to unethical behaviour exhibit more tendencies towards whistleblowing as compared to males. Females have less tolerance for unethical and illegal practices than males (Vermeir & Van Kenhove, 2008). Results also support the findings of Erkmen et al.

(2014) that differences exist between whistleblowing behaviour of male and female employees in accounting professionals.

The causal impact of PaW on WI is significant ($B=.232$), which shows that one per cent change in 'perception about whistleblowing' would increase Whistleblowing Intention by 23.2%. The positive impact of PaW on employees' WI is in line with the findings of Waytz et al. (2013) that attitude predicts intention in the light of Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behaviour. Near and Miceli (1985) reported that whistleblowing would be increased if perceived as efficacious. The decision making process of whistleblowing also depends upon employees' perception about whistleblowing and associated risks and cost (Gokce, 2013).

Mansbach, Ziedenberg & Bachner (2013) found that employees' intention to blow the whistle internally increases when they perceive that leadership and co-workers consider whistleblowing as positive and ethical. The results also support the findings of Zhuang (2012) that whistleblowing if perceived as responsibility by the individuals, their whistleblowing intentions would be increased irrespective of the cost associated with it. However, Mansbach et al. (2013) found that fear of retaliation mediates the relationship between perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing intention. On the other hand, Rosecrance (1988) found that employees go for whistleblowing even if not perceived as efficacious.

Employees' intentions to whistle-blow also depend upon the response of management towards whistleblowing. If top management is open to constructive suggestion, whistleblowing and speaking up would be fostered (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Employees raise voice in favour of whistle-blowers only when they perceive whistleblowing legally and morally justified (Miceli et al., 2009)

The moderating impact of PP on the relationship between PaW and WI is positively significant ($B=.035$) increasing the impact of PP by 5.3% ($\Delta R^2=.053$) on the relationship between perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing intentions. The results are in line with the findings of Searle (2011) that individual characteristics and attitude determines whistleblowing intentions and proactive personality is positively related to proactive work behaviour. Individuals with proactive personality if perceive whistleblowing as proactive would have more whistleblowing intentions (Rosecrance, 1988). According to Bjorkelo (2010), proactive personality traits predict individuals' whistleblowing intentions. Grant and Ashford (2008) contended that whistleblowing is an initiative to report wrongdoings, which is derived by the proactive traits of individuals. The voice behaviour also depends upon proactive personality (Searle, 2011; Lin-Bin & Hock-Hai, 2010).

According to Gokce (2013), whistle-blowers possess more proactive personality as compared to non-whistle-blowers. Supporting the contention of Miceli et al. (2001), Gokce (2013) found that proactive personality affects individuals' intentions to report wrongdoing. Moreover, personality traits such as negative and positive affectivity also help determine individuals' reporting intentions. Results of the study conducted by Gokce (2013) also confirmed that positive and negative affectivity as well as proactive personality affect whistleblowing intentions. Morrison & Phelps (1999) suggested that individual's change-initiative is derived from the level of self-efficacy and felt responsibility, which are proactive behaviour.

The moderating impact of TC on the relationship between PaW and WI is positively significant ($B=.059$) increasing the impact of TC by 8.9% ($\Delta R^2=.089$) on the relationship between perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing intentions. Morrison & Phelps (1999) found that attitude of top management impacts employees' speaking up behaviour by

building positive perception about speaking up. Welcoming note of top management to constructive suggestions fosters employees' taking charge behaviour.

Love & Dustin (2014) contended that Taking charge behaviour is adopted when malfunctioning is reported. It depends upon the response of the organization. If perceived as positive and devoid of negative consequences, individuals would exhibit more taking charge behaviour. Kanter(1983) reported that only supportive and encouraging environment can foster behaviours such as taking charge. Taking charge being change-oriented is usually not welcomed by the organization and employees. It challenges the status quo, creates conflict and hence is fostered only when perceived as positive (Bindl and Parker, 2011; McAllister et al. 2007; Van Dyne and LePine,1998). In the light of 'an exchange ideology', taking charge behaviour is high when perceived as positive and demanding and vice versa (Van Dyne et al.,1995). As far as impact of demographic variables is concerned,Morrison & Phelps (1999)found no significant impact of gender, age, hierarchical level and job experience on Taking Charge behaviour.

5.2 Theoretical Contribution

Exploring the phenomenon of whistleblowing from the perspective of proactive work behaviour, the present study contributed to the existing stream of knowledge in various facets. The extant literature provides abundant of studies investigating the phenomenon of whistleblowing from different aspects, however no study has been found exploring the perception about whistleblowing from the perspective of proactive work behaviour. Furthermore, the extant literature is also silent about the impact of Proactive Personality and Taking Charge on employees' perception about whistleblowing and whistleblowing

intentions, which the present study explored empirically. Having reached to the conclusion that whistleblowing is perceived as proactive behaviour, would help develop the culture of speaking up in the organizations. These findings would provide base and avenues for further investigation of the phenomenon from the perspective that how whistleblowing as a proactive behaviour can enhance its acceptability in organizations and its adoption as a control and corrective measure.

5.3 Practical Implications

Findings of the present study provide useful practical implications for organizations. Results show that whistleblowing has been perceived as proactive work behaviour, which influences employees' whistleblowing intention. Organizations can benefit of the proven advantages of whistleblowing by nourishing the positive perception about whistleblowing. In this way, whistleblowing system can be utilized as a control and corrective measure. Findings of the study also show that organizations can foster the culture of speaking up by employing individuals with more proactive personalities. Furthermore, proactive behaviour of employees can be motivated by establishing and promoting the culture of whistleblowing. This would help organizations in addressing problems internally and avoiding consequences of external reporting and whistleblowing and mitigating development of deviant behaviour on the other.

5.4 Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study could have contributed more to existing knowledge stream if certain limitations were addressed, which however, can be taken up in future studies. The present restricted to empirical investigation of the perception about whistleblowing and the impact of Proactive Personality and Taking Charge on Whistleblowing Intention, however, it is expected that

Personality and Taking Charge on Whistleblowing Intention, however, it is expected that exploratory investigation would further enhance the understanding of the underlying factors of the phenomenon. Furthermore, the study has been conducted in natural settings, whereas experimental designs can be used in future studies to avoid biases and problems generally associated with non-contrived studies. This study did not cover perception and response of the management towards whistleblowing, which can be investigated in future studies. This would also help to know about the reluctance of organizations in implementing whistleblowing policy despite its proven contribution to the welfare of the organizations. Vignettes (based on hypothetical scenarios) have been used to explore the perception of employees about whistleblowing and its impact on whistleblowing intention. It is however, expected that actual whistleblowing attempts would provide better clues in understanding the underlying motivational factors behind the decision to blow the whistle. The perception about whistleblowing and its underlying factors may be different in sectors other than healthcare, education, environment, which may be considered as less sensitive in terms of their direct effect on clients, consumers, or environment. Investigation of the phenomenon of whistleblowing in those sectors would help understand how the perception and attitude of employees and management about whistleblowing vary from sector to sector.

5.5 Conclusion

Whistleblowing in organizations is not only important rather has become inevitable. Despite the proven advantages of whistleblowing, employees hesitate to blow the whistle. The quest to know why employees remain silent on observing wrongdoings and how to encourage them to blow the whistle has motivated this study. Bringing literature from different strands and analysing the study empirically, it has been revealed that whistleblowing can be encouraged

Fostering the organizational culture where employees' proactivity is encouraged, employees would help organizations to grow and compete through bringing continuous improvement at all levels. Such a working environment would motivate proactive tendencies such as whistleblowing to assist organizations in identifying wrong and counter-productive practices timely for remedial actions before they become scandals. This realization needs to be fostered so that individuals, organizations and the society as a whole could be saved from harmful consequences.

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Appendix A

NON-PARAMETRIC ANALYSIS

Analysis of Demographic Variables

Based on results of normality test, non-parametric analysis was done to find the impact of demographic variables on employees' Whistleblowing Intentions. Specifically, Man-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis were used instead of t-test and ANOVA to explore the impact of gender and age/experience respectively on Whistleblowing Intention.

Impact of Gender on Whistleblowing Intentions

Man-Whitney U test was used to find the impact of gender difference on Whistleblowing Intention. Results show that male and female employees differ in their intentions to blow the whistle ($p\text{-value}=0.000 < 0.05$). Male employees ($n=233$) are more intended to blow the whistle as compared to female employees (Table I).

	N	Mean	Man-Whitney U	p-value
Whistleblowing Intention				
Male	233	138.58	9482.50	.000
Female	128	204.30		

Table I

Impact of Age on Whistleblowing Intentions

Kruskal-Wallis Test was used to find the impact of different age groups on their intentions to blow the whistle. Results show that whistleblowing intentions vary in different age groups (p -

value=.000 < .05) with age group 31-35 having more whistleblowing intentions followed by age group 46-50 and age group 41-45 (Table II).

	N	Mean	X ²	p-value
Whistleblowing Intention				
Age (years)				
20-25	65	147.77	35.313	.000
26-30	156	161.38		
31-35	62	230.02		
36-40	30	183.28		
41-45	18	222.69		
46-50	30	226.42		

Table II

Impact of Experience on Whistleblowing Intentions

Kruskal-Wallis Test was used to find the impact of difference in experience on employees' intentions to blow the whistle. Results show that whistleblowing intentions vary depending upon years of experience (p-value=.000 < .05). Employees having experience 11-15 & 16-20 have more whistleblowing intentions followed by employees possessing experience of 26-30 years (Table III).

Impact of Department on Whistleblowing Intentions

Impact of profession (Doctor, Paramedical, Finance/Administration/Other) on Whistleblowing Intention was tested using Kruskal-Wallis Test. Results show that employees

working in different professions don't vary in their Whistleblowing Intentions (p-value=.145 > .05).

	N	Mean	X ²	p-value
Whistleblowing Intention				
Experience (Years)				
1-5	214	159.04	27.644	.000
6-10	82	199.66		
11-15	17	237.00		
16-20	11	237.00		
21-25	11	208.14		
26-30	26	231.08		

Table III

APPENDIX B

Respected Sir/Madam

I am a research scholar at Faculty of Management Sciences, International Islamic University, Islamabad working on my MS thesis. The objective of this research is to know the employees' perception about whistleblowing and the impact of proactive work behaviour on their intentions to whistle-blow in health care (hospitals) sector.

Your feedback would help me to view theoretical arguments raised in this research in the light of empirical responses (actual). It would certainly be a valuable participation towards noble cause of knowledge creation.

I ensure that any information obtained in connection with this research will remain highly confidential. In any written report or publication, no one will be identified and only aggregate data will be presented.

Moreover, I also intend to have feedback in second stage based on interviews, which is optional. If you are willing to participate in the same, please mention your E-mail ID as well to have interview session.

I would be grateful for cooperation and sparing precious time to fill this questionnaire.

Truly Yours

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Terms used in this questionnaire are briefed below for better comprehension.

Proactive Behaviour: Self-motivated work behaviours aimed to adopt changes to meet organizational demands by taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions.

Perception about Whistleblowing: This portion presents three hypothetical situations to know whether you perceive the acts mentioned therein as proactive and right to be reported to appropriate authority for remedial measures.

Proactive Personality: Intends to know your behavioural tendency to identify opportunities to change things at work.

Taking Charge: Questions under this head tap the constructive efforts put by you to bring functional changes in the way work is executed.

Intention to Whistleblow: This portion intends to know your intentions to report wrongdoings to appropriate authority for rectification.

Gender:	Age:	Experience (years):	Designation:
Occupation/Department:			
1) Doctor		2) Paramedical	3) Finance/Administration/Other
E-mail ID:			

PERCEPTION ABOUT WHISTLEBLOWING:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Vignette						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	<p>One of your colleagues having good job repute often speaks about inefficient procedures and bring to the notice of concerned authorities even they are not directly related to his/her working domain.</p> <p>i. Would you perceive his/her behaviour as proactive?</p> <p>ii. Would you think his/her behaviour as right?</p> <p>iii. Would you think it's the duty of every member of the organization to bring counter-productive practices into the notice of concerned authorities in the organization?</p>							
2	<p>You are working in purchase department of the hospital. While processing a purchase order on competitive rate basis, it came in your notice that Purchase Manager wants to favour a particular supplier by relaxing terms and conditions which would benefit the company in monetary terms but would damage the spirit of fair competition. Observing the situation, the Assistant Manager shared this with top management.</p> <p>i. Would you perceive that the Assistant Manager behaved proactively?</p> <p>ii. Would you perceive that the Assistant Manager did the right job?</p> <p>iii. Would you think the act of Procurement Manager is wrong and should be brought into the notice of concerned authorities in the organization?</p>							
3	<p>On a particular day, a patient rushed into the hospital in a critical situation. He was attended with necessary emergency treatment but inadvertently excessive doze provided and as a result his/her position deteriorated further. You know that this happened due to negligence of the staff and the duty Doctor. The middle management wants to hide the incident to avoid reputational damage, but one of the staff members highlighted the same with the top management.</p> <p>i. Would you think the act of the staff member who shared the incident with the top management as proactive?</p> <p>ii. Would you think the staff member who shared the incident with the top management did the right job?</p> <p>iii. Would you think that act of hiding the incident by middle management is wrong and should be brought into the notice of concerned authorities in the organization?</p>							

PROACTIVE PERSONALITY:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q.No	Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.							
5	Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive							
6	Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.							
7	If I see something I don't like, I fix it.							
8	No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it.							
9	I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.							
10	I excel at identifying opportunities.							
11	I am always looking for better ways to do things.							
12	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.							
13	I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.							

TAKING CHARGE

Very Infrequently	Rarely	Occasionally/sometimes	Often	Very Frequently
1	2	3	4	5

Q.No	Question	1	2	3	4	5
14	I often try to adopt improved procedures for doing my job.					
15	I often try to change how my job is executed in order to be more effective.					
16	I often try to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department					
17	I often try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company.					
18	I often try to change organizational rules or policies that are non-productive or counter-productive.					
19	I often make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization.					
20	I often try to correct a faulty procedure or practice.					

21	I often try to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures.					
22	I often try to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems.					
23	I often try to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.					

INTERNTION TO WHISTLEBLOW

Not at All	Almost Never/Rarely	Somewhat	Almost Everytime/Often	Very Hard
1	2	3	4	5

“If you found wrongdoing in your workplace, how hard would you try to do the following?”

Q.No	Question	1	2	3	4	5
24	Report it to the appropriate person(s) within the organization.					
25	Use the reporting channels inside of the organization.					
26	Let upper level of management know about it.					
27	Tell my supervisor about it.					

- 1) Is there any system in your organization/hospital to report objectionable practices? If Yes, then reply question 2 below. If No, then reply question 3 below.
- 2) What is the system in your organization/hospital to report objectionable practices?

- 3) Do you think there should be a system in your organization /hospital to report objectionable practices?

Yes

No

If you felt/observed any problem while attempting this questionnaire, please comment below. The same would be incorporated to improve the understandability.

Format/layout *Ok* */Comments* _____

Readability *Ok* */Comments* _____

Understandability *Ok* */Comments* _____

Translation into Urdu needed *No* *Yes*

Thank You

Fig # 37, 46, 65