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**EFFECT OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
ON WHISTLEBLOWING INTENTION: RESEARCH IN
INTERNATIONAL TRADE ORIENTED ORGANIZATIONS**

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MASTER THESIS

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my princesses E'Lonm and E'Yram Mebounou, my husband Guy Crescent Mebounou, my parents Raphael and Solange, my brothers Sylvestre, and Herbert, and my sister Isabelle.



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ÖZET

Bu araştırmada örgütsel iklim ile haberdar etme (whistleblowing) arasındaki ilişkinin tespit edilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmada çalışanlara iş yerindeki olumsuz veya hatalı davranışların haberdar edilmesini örgüt iklimini teşvik edip etmediği incelemiştir. Anket uygulamak için rastgele örnekleme yöntemiyle, Konya ve Ankara ilindeki organize sanayi bölgesindeki firmalar seçilmiştir. Kesitsel anket yoluyla veriler toplanmıştır. Çalışmada 274 geçerli anket geri dönüşü elde edilmiştir. Veriler; tanımlayıcı istatistikler, açıklayıcı faktör analizi, korelasyon analizi ve doğrusal regresyon yöntemleri kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Beklendiği gibi bireysel özerklik ve güven, haberdar etmeye olumlu katkıda bulunurken mobbing olumsuz etkiye yol açar. Aksine, örgütsel adalet, lider güvenilirliği, moral ve haberdar etme üzerinde tutarlı bir etkisi bulunmamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Haberdar etme, örgütsel iklim, iş ortamı, ihracat yapan firmalar, olumsuz veya hatalı davranış.



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SUMMARY

This research investigated the relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing intention in international trade oriented organizations. By using a random sampling method through a cross-sectional investigation in international trade oriented firms operating in Ankara and Konya, this research examined whether organizational climate motivates and encourages employees to unveil or report wrongdoings and malpractices witnessed in their working environment. The survey had led to 274 valid answered questionnaires used for the empirical analysis. Following the Exploratory Factors Analysis to check the validity of the measuring instrument and find out the relevant principal components, correlation and linear regression analyses were carried out to test the relationship between organizational climate drivers and whistleblowing intention. As expected, individually autonomy and trust are positively contributing to whistleblowing intention while mobbing has a negative effect on it. In contrary, organizational justice, morale and leader credibility display no consistent relationship with whistleblowing intention though they were expected to be positive drivers of organizational climate.

Key Words: Whistleblowing, organizational climate, working environment, international trade oriented organization, wrongdoings.

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INTRODUCTION

Following the failure of market regulation, Jensen and Meckling (1976: 4-7) developed agency theory to raise the major issues related to the principal/agent relationship, including the informational asymmetry, the moral hazard, the adverse selection, and the conflicting interest behaviors. This paved the way to corporate governance with an array of coordinating, regulating and monitoring mechanisms. Despite the implementation of complex arrangements such as audit committees, boards, and other legal and regulatory provisions, numbers of scandals have occurred in both public and private sphere. Perhaps, Enron in 2001 and Madoff in 2008 in United States should be considered the biggest frauds and embezzlement never experienced before in the mankind. These financial scandals have raised questions about the relevance of traditional governance devices. It is in this context that whistleblowing has got increasing prominence and greater visibility as a powerful denunciation tool for the public (Seifert, Stammerjohan, & Martin, 2014: 157) though the concept was coined more than three decades ago.

The last ten years, whistleblowing has become a buzzword in the encyclopedia of corporate governance jargons and myriad regulatory enforcement programs (Banerjee & Roy, 2014: 7) since it helps exposing improper conduct, including mismanagement, corruption, illegal kickbacks, bribes to government officials, financial scandals, use of prohibited inputs in the production, trading of outdated items in underdeveloped countries, failure with quality standards, delays and missed delivery deadlines, wage discriminations, sexual harassments, prejudice or harm to the public environment, etc. This ultimately aims to early rectify wrongdoings and avoid public scandals that could jeopardize shareholders and other stakeholders' values, either within the workplace or external. Therefore, whistleblowing appears as a credible alternative to unveil malpractices and wrongdoings in working environment in order to stop early the pillaging of resources and prevent unnecessary bankruptcies.

In the whistleblowing process, employees hold the prominent role since they are the very first people to realize or suspect a potential malpractice or wrongdoing in their workplace. They are even usually in touch with more information compared to the other stakeholders. Notwithstanding their privileged position in blowing the

whistle on wrongdoings, employees often face retaliations (mobbing, intimidation, harassment, dismissal, hostile treatment or violence) from employers, management, supervisors or even their fellow colleagues, without an opportunity for vindication. In many countries, whistleblowing is even associated with treachery or spy.

The perception an employee builds about the working environment might seriously affect his or her decision-making process to engage in whistleblowing. It is often very difficult, if not impossible, for an employee to get involved in whistleblowing actions in a fearful environment. Indeed, the perception of mobbing in a working environment may frighten and silent employees and therefore forced them not to report observed wrongdoings (Gül & Özcan, 2011: 130). Employee could be encouraged to speak out only if they are assured against adverse repercussions or retaliations, confident that they will be listened to, and confident that appropriate action will be taken. In essence, employees can feel more supported and regard whistleblowing process as more fair when managers demonstrate organizational justice and correct reported wrongdoings (Miceli et al., 2012: 928; Seifert et al., 2014: 158). It then seems that the nature of organizational climate plays a key role in building employee's confidence in whistleblowing process. In this respect, Huang, Lo, and Wu (2013: 694) argued that the establishment or improvement of the ethical climate can enhance whistleblowing intention for organizational members. In the same vein, Near, Baucus, and Miceli (1993: 204) posited that “positive organizational climates may discourage serious wrongdoing and encourage whistle-blowing under some conditions, but the relationship is not as straightforward as might be expected”.

Since the literature lacks clear empirical evidence addressing the relation between organizational climate and whistleblowing, it will be worthwhile to examine the issue in international trade oriented organizations. The investigation begins with this basic question. Does the organizational climate influence whistleblowing in international companies? In fact, this quantitative research aims to systematically analyze the relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing in international companies. To this end, a survey was carried out with a structured questionnaire to gather data on employees working in international trade oriented corporations operating in Turkey. The collected data were then analyzed using

various statistical procedures including Exploratory Factor Analysis and linear regression.

The remaining of the thesis is structured in three chapters as follows. The first chapter reviews the literature related to whistleblowing and organizational climate, examines the theoretical backgrounds underpinning these concepts as well as investigating the probable relationship between them. The second chapter outlines the conceptual framework and the research method. The third chapter presents the statistical estimated results and discusses the findings. Finally, main findings were summarized and directions for future research were suggested.



CHAPTER 1: WHISTLEBLOWING AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE: A THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter delves into the literature to examine whistleblowing and organizational climate as well as discussing the relationship between these two concepts.

1.1. WHISTLEBLOWING CONCEPT

In this section, a short history as well as theoretical backgrounds of whistleblowing was first presented. Following these, the scope of whistleblowing concept was clearly delineated in order to dispel out possible ambiguities with related constructs, including denunciation, denouncement, and alert. The section ends by displaying legal perspectives and whistleblowing protections around the globe.

1.1.1. Short History and Theoretical Background of Whistleblowing

1.1.1.1. Short History of Whistleblowing

1.1.1.1.1. Earliest Whistleblowing: Denunciation in Socio-Political Context

The history of whistleblowing seems to be hazy because no systematic description of its origin exists in the available literature and archive. Yet, whistleblowing might originate from the denunciation of the many nasty and demeaning socio-political events that had affected the history of humanity. As it could be expected, several attempts of denunciations to reveal those wrongdoings to the broader audience had been observed. In this work, some main examples have been exposed, including the denunciation of vicious practices of the clergy leading to the Reformation of the church; some harsh criticisms against the slave trade leading to its abolition; the denunciation of the wrongdoings perpetrated by senior officials during the French revolution; and the denunciation of the Holocaust during World War II.

Perhaps, one of the earliest whistleblowing practices can be traced back to Reformation epoch, when Martin Luther (1483-1546) challenged the Roman Church in the early 1500s A.D. In that period, the pope was considered as the interface between God and Man but at the same time, the higher clergy of the Roman Catholic

Church were deeply involved in corruption, luxury, abuses of position and power (Sydow, 1999: 3). Luther disputed these practices and gave a new impetus to Christianity. He believed religious beliefs should be based on the Bible alone and that the pope and his priests had no real authority. Then, each person was equal before God (Sydow, 1999: 7) and no one need a priest to explain the Bible to her or him. He argued that there is no need to interpret the mysterious writings of God and then eliminated the main function of priests as the performers of necessary religious rituals (Howard, 2005: 96). Furthermore, the invention of the printing presses at the same period had favored and hastened the spread of Luther's ideas to the mass audience (Howard, 2005: 91) which led to major changes in mankind history and also profoundly affected the modern view of politics and law.

Another outstanding phenomenon in the mankind history is slavery that has been developed across all ages and continues to be performed in its modern-day forms. Nevertheless, the triangular trade is undoubtedly one of the worst experiences rooted in the collective memory and considered as a major crime orchestrated by the Westerns between the 15th and 19th century (Felsen & Kalaitzidis, 2005: 7-9). At that time, European smugglers have deported tens of millions of slaves from Africa to America in very humiliating conditions in order to sell them as labor force in various plantations. These slaves were exposed to cruel treatments causing them all kind of moral and physical pains. These abuses resulted in slave revolts and especially denunciations from the first Human Rights defenders such as Victor Schoelcher who was later considered as the initiator of the abolition of this slave trade in 1848 (Dorigny, 2003).

Furthermore, French Revolution that occurred around the period ranging from 1789 to 1799 had also brought some array of early practice of whistleblowing. At that time, whistleblowing, known as denunciation, was already included in the France Constitution of 1791 and was considered to be a virtue and civic duty. It was aiming to assure transparency of government actions and prevent the ongoing revolution from conspirators and the republic's traitors and enemies (Münch, 2011: 2-3).

In a political theory perspective, Bremond-Pouille (2006: 43-84) reviewed the whistleblowing practices in which Jean Paul Marat (1743-1793) was involved during

the French Revolution to dishearten the wrongdoings of aristocracy. Indeed, Marat was engaged in a systematic process to expose politicians with high position who were found guilty of corruption, embezzlement, authority abusing, self-interest behavior, and other malpractices detrimental to the common interest. He then urged his fellow citizens to blow the whistle every time they witness wrongdoings and malpractices perpetrated by public authorities. In this vein, a special research committee was established in 1789 in Paris to receive denunciations from ordinary citizens who might witness wrongdoings or possess any information related to actions or behaviors of public representatives which could be harmful to the public interests (Lucas, 1996: 770). However, he warned against slanders and asked whistleblowers to provide accurate proofs of the allegations and reveal their identity when doing so. He also considered press freedom as a powerful tool that can help the brave citizens to make public their complaints. A citizen does not need to be a member of the assembly before monitoring his elected representatives, and therefore exposing the transgressors of the economy and the traitors of the nation. It is then clear to notice that Marat had already projected whistleblowing as a powerful mechanism of governance in which the citizen control would play a key role.

Some whistleblowing traits can also be seen during the period of World War II and the period of the Cold War (1947-1991). At that time, the anti-Semitic issue was dominating the debate. Indeed, Jews were subject to excessive denunciation during the period when France was invaded by Germany. In fact, Jews were present in every strategic area and were even taking over some high position in the republic. This situation had exacerbated some French citizens who considered themselves as true patriots and thus systematically denounced this indignation. Thus, thousands of anonymous letters reporting the involvement of Jews in mafia networks were sending to the police who proceeded to hundreds of apprehensions in which some could be regarded as arbitrary. For example, in July 1942 a Russian Jew employed as a Franco-German interpreter by the city of Mothe-Saint-Heray was denounced and jailed (Joly, 2007: 137-138).

After World War II, there would certainly have been several attempts to denounce wrongdoings in socio-political environment. Although whistleblowers are often seen as traitors or enemies, they prefer to blow the whistle to unveil abuses and

wrongdoings at the expense of their freedom or even their lives. They become the “number one enemy” of government's top secrets. Furthermore, whistleblowing has been extended to private organizations where it is now playing a key role in corporate governance (Bowen, Call, & Rajgopal, 2010: 1239).

1.1.1.1.2. The Emergence of Whistleblowing in Private Organizations

Although early denunciations emerged centuries ago in the public and socio-political areas, it took until the late 1960s that a true debate began being initiated on the relevance of whistleblowing in private organizations. Over a long period, organization has been regarded as a black box where an employee should be absolutely loyal towards his employer. This duty of loyalty had been strengthened by the theories of scientific management mainly developed by Frederick Taylor, Lillian Gilbreth and Frank, Henry Gantt, Henry Fayol and Max Weber. These proponents of the classical school referred to the organization as a machine which must be operated based on centralized authority, clear lines of authority, marked division of labor, rules and regulations, specialization and expertise, and clear separation of staff and line (Celik & Dogan, 2011: 65). In this situation, an employee is required to be strictly loyal to his or her employer. This labor discipline had then prevented employees to reveal to the public any wrongdoing they could have witnessed in their working environment even if they were aware of the related risks for the organization or the public interest.

However, the organizational theories advancement combined with changes in the socio-economic environment had allowed challenging the labor discipline standards and its related loyalty. From scientific management perspectives to human resources school of thought, workers' conditions have been improved in terms of delegation of authority, employee autonomy, trust and openness, concerns with the whole person, and interpersonal dynamics (Perrow, 1973: 3) leading to employee development. In this respect, employees should enhance their commitment to organization and even challenge the existing administrative authority when management teams become involved in self-interest behaviors or in harmful actions to the public interest.

Hence, the debate related to labor discipline raised in the early 1970s enabled employees to be disloyal to their employers in order to protect public interest. Ristau (2012: 923-928) termed it as the public policy exception enabling the employee to pass over or violate the duty of loyalty when employers undermine a clearly expressed public policy or get involved in illegal or prohibited actions that could jeopardize public health, safety, or welfare. Therefore, employees could no longer remain silent when they witness wrongdoings in their working environment. This led to the conflict between the public interest and the interest of the organization. Thus, it has become quite impossible to hide shortcomings, mistakes, problems, or other wrongdoings that may undermine public interests even though the whistleblowing is viewed to be harmful to the organization's image (Vandekerckhove, 2012: 1-3). In this vein, Vandekerckhove (2012: 8) recalled that whistleblowing in an organizational context can be traced back to 1972 when consumer advocate Ralph Nader emphasized that an employee should blow the whistle any time the organization is involved in corruption, illegal, fraudulent or harmful activities.

The introduction of whistleblowing in organization was legitimized by the pre-eminence of public interest over the private interest despite the hostility developed towards daring employees who took the risk to sound the alarm on wrongdoings witnessed in their workplace. Nevertheless, whistleblowing continued to grow in importance in the organizational context and even became a powerful tool and a buzzword in corporate governance (Banerjee & Roy, 2014: 7). In the same way, several instances of whistleblowing have been stepped up in recent years. The most important cases of whistleblowing in the early years of this century occurred in anglo-saxon countries. Perhaps, some of the famous and well-publicized examples of whistleblowing in organizational context could be brought to Edward Snowden (2013) in Central Intelligence Agency; Olivier Dubuquoy (2011) in oil and gas sector; Sherron Watkins (2001) with Enron; Jeffrey Wigand (1996) in tobacco industry; and Erin Brockovich (1996) in water sector. Short comments related to these whistleblowing practices have been provided as follows:

- Edward Snowden is a former employee of CIA, Dell, and NSA. Edward Snowden had revealed to the public several confidential documents on mass surveillance programs. He revealed in June 2013, the National Security

Agency's PRISM system launched in 2007 by the US government to monitor data from social networks users under the pretext of fighting terrorism. Prosecuted by justice for high treason, he fled his country to join Hong Kong in June 2013, and then has been granted temporary asylum in Moscow.

- Olivier Dubuquoy revealed information on science washing practices that occurred in the oil and gas industry of France. In 2011, he released confidential investigation results related to the toxicity of red mud containing heavy metals.
- Sherron Watkins had been an executive for the Enron Corporation and helped in exposing the enormous financial lies and frauds perpetrated in the company. She had drawn the CEO attention on the accounting irregularities. Although her warnings did not help to automatically end the illegal activities going on in the company, Sherron Watkins had significantly contributed to the following investigations carried out by U.S. House of Representatives and Senate Investigative Committee and leading to the downfall of Enron.
- Jeffrey Wigand is a former tobacco company executive who revealed in the early 1990s to the general public that the industry knew long ago and were hiding the addictive and carcinogenic feature of cigarettes. He made several enemies by claiming in 1996 that cigarette companies were fully aware that they were packing their products with addictive levels of nicotine.
- Erin Brockovich had unveiled the disaster related to the presence of hexavalent chromium in drinking water of Hinkley in California. By conducting an exhaustive investigation on a series of mysterious illnesses in the town of Hinckley, she discovered that Pacific Gas and Electric was leaking a toxic chromium into the groundwater which had been poisoning the small town's drinking water for over 30 years. Erin exposed this public health problem and then initiated a legal proceedings. Following a trial in 1993, the giant Pacific Gas and Electric Company was forced to pay out a compensation amounting hundreds of millions of dollars to the victims.

The above short description encompasses non-exhaustive examples of the most well-known whistleblowers who had mainly contributed to the revolution of whistleblowing in organizational context. Some call these individuals heroes while

many others view them as traitors and spies. They became famous by exposing to the general public the wrongdoings committed by their fellow colleagues or management teams or disclose supposedly confidential information of the organization they work/worked for even at the expense of their freedom and life. Their actions have triggered whistleblowing legislation or strengthened it and mainly contributed to the establishment of procedures of whistleblowing and whistleblowers' protection in organizational context.

1.1.1.2. The Main Theories Underpinning Whistleblowing

The advancement of denunciation and especially the emergence of the whistleblowing concept in organizations have led to significant theoretical changes. The whistleblowing development has improved some theories while it puts others into serious question. Indeed, denunciation and its derivative concepts have deeply challenged many theories developed on employee loyalty towards their employers and the organization in which they work for. Inversely, they have mainly contributed to the debates pertaining to ethical theories and at the same time helped in addressing the issue related to information asymmetry in the agency theory.

1.1.1.2.1. Whistleblowing: Quandary or Tradeoff between Loyalty and Ethics

Whistleblowing has raised serious debates related to the controversial issue between the loyalty duty of an employee and ethical requirements. The loyalty refers to the commitment and trust of an individual or an employee to a specific person, organization or group (Swiatek-Barylska, 2013: 51). The loyal employee sacrifices his or her own goals and interests and then gets involved with and identifies his or herself with the organization (Çetinkaya & Kaplan, 2013; Lurie & Frenkel, 2002: 296). It requires the obligation of discretion and confidentiality, the complete devotion to the corporate priorities, and after all the abstention from any acts that could harm the company. The employees are very often forced to a duty of loyalty that prevents them from reporting their employers' wrongdoings (Riedy & Sperduto, 2014: 268-274). In other words, they cannot bite the hand that feeds them or show ingratitude to their employers by involving in whistleblowing actions. At first glance, whistleblowing seems to be a violation of loyalty and confidentiality duties of an

employee towards his or her employer and fellow colleagues. Thus whistleblowing should be regarded as a violation of the employer-employee trust relationship (Tavani & Grodzinsky, 2014: 10) and be considered as a betrayal and a fraying of social fabric (Waytz, Dungan, & Young, 2013: 1027).

Furthermore, Masaka (2007: 39) argued that whistleblowing is incompatible with loyalty and then morally irrelevant in working environment unless in case of protecting a higher public interest. This objection raised to justify the disloyal behavior of an employee is discussed through the standard theory and complicity theory developed by (Davis, 1996: 6-7). According to the standard theory, whistleblowing is morally permitted when the employee has already exhausted the internal procedures and possibilities without reaction and the wrongdoing will likely do serious and considerable harm to the public. Also, the employees should be sure that the external reporting will correct or stop the wrongdoing.

In complicity theory, the employee is morally required to report the wrongdoing that he or she has witnessed in the working environment in order to avoid colluding with the wrongdoers. In this case the employee refers to whistleblowing to disclaim moral responsibility. Since complicity theory refers to employee moral responsibility, it raises the ethical issue which is defined as moral principles that govern a person's or group's behavior. The ethics of whistleblowing is deeply related to its moral purpose, whether for changing a situation for the better or fulfilling a deontological duty (Wilmot, 2000: 1051).

As Waytz et al. (2013: 1027) put it, whistleblowing decision causes a conflicting relationship between fairness and loyalty norms. Similarly, Lukacs, Cristache, Nicolai, and Stoica (2012: 55) also emphasized that whistleblowing involves a conflict between employee loyalty and protection of public interest. Indeed, whistleblowing creates a disloyal behavior of the employee while promoting basic moral values including justice and fairness. However, Uys and Senekal (2008: 43-44) reconciled these conflicting issue by developing the framework in which morality of principle versus the morality of loyalty work together. They argued that whistleblowing should be interpreted as loyalty to the society as a whole since the organization in which the whistleblower works for is a microstructure of the society that is the macro-organization. Therefore, employees who witness wrongdoing in

their working environment should no longer feel confusing between their loyalty duties and ethical requirements. Overall, they should prioritize higher public interest and then could even involve in whistleblowing in order to correct or stop the wrongdoing. Furthermore, business ethics should be set up so that organizations will be operated by being conforming to the general ethics of the society which Uys and Senekal (2008: 39) referred as morality of principle. By doing so, whistleblowing becomes an important tool to reduce information asymmetry among stakeholders.

1.1.1.2.2. Whistleblowing: A governance Mechanism of Reducing Information Asymmetry and Agency Costs

Whistleblowing is increasingly becoming a critical tool in corporate governance and its related theories. Corporate governance is mainly rooted in the theories of the firm namely the transaction costs (Coase, 1937: 390-391), especially the agency theory (Jensen & Meckling, 1976: 308-313). Agency theory refers to a contractual relationship whereby one or more persons (the principal(s)) engage another person (the agent) to perform some service or task on their behalf which involves delegating some decision making authority to the agent (Jensen & Meckling, 1976: 308). The agency theory raises two main issues including the self-interested behavior and the agency costs.

The self-interested behavior happens when agents have the ability to operate in their own self-interest rather than in the best interests of the principal (s) because of the separation of ownership and control combined with the asymmetric information issue related to imperfect labor and capital markets. The asymmetric information arises from information failure whenever one party has more or better information than the other leading to an imbalance of power in economic transactions. The self-interested behavior may vary from the consumption of some corporate resources in the form of perquisites and the avoidance of optimal risk positions to more nasty behaviors including misappropriation, embezzlement, shirking, stealing, self-dealing, corruption, or mismanagement which Edwin Sutherland termed in 1940 as the white collar crimes (Shapiro, 2005: 279). The impossibility of the principal to monitor all of the agent's actions may increase moral hazard problem or adverse selection whereby agents take unobserved actions in their own self-interest. Shapiro (2005:

267), Waterman and Meier (1998: 178-183) emphasized that the existence of multiple principals and multiple agents sometimes increases the informational asymmetries and undermines the monitoring. They also reported that information asymmetry is one of the reasons that organizational crimes can flourish undiscovered for long periods of time and buried in complex structures of actions. These agency issues should be addressed by increasing the amount and quality of information available in order to align the conflicting goals of principals and agents (Lin & Huang, 2011: 11442).

Principal should incur extra expenses known as agency costs to monitor and or encourage the agent to avoid self-interest behavior in order to maximize wealth for the principal. The agency costs may greatly vary and arise from many sources (Ali Fadhl Alfadhl & Alabdullah, 2013: 240) which may be classified into three major groups including:

- Monitoring and policing costs (audit costs, incentives, bonding and insurance expenditures);
- Organizational structuring expenditures to limit undesirable managerial behavior, such as appointing outside members to the board of directors or restructuring the company's business units and management hierarchy; and
- Opportunity costs which are incurred when shareholder imposed restrictions, such as requirements for shareholder votes on specific issues, reducing the ability of managers to take actions that advance shareholder wealth.

The agency costs may increase when agents focus their efforts on the wrong things and when principals strengthen the organizational structures to minimize opportunism. However, the principal may be unable to cope with agency costs or decide not to squander resources when agency costs become too high. It would therefore be efficient to resort to mechanisms which could significantly reduce asymmetric information and its related agency costs as well as reconcile diverging interests among stakeholders in order to limit self-interest behaviors. That is precisely what governance theories try to address. So, Williamson (1979: 239) reported that the main function of governance is to harmonize interests that would otherwise give way to antagonistic sub-goal pursuits. Stoker (1998: 17) put it as

creating the conditions for ordered rules and collective actions. The adoption of suitable governance mechanisms lower the level of agency costs and reduce the asymmetry of information between stakeholders (Gul, Sajid, Razzaq, & Afzal, 2012: 275). Thus, governance can be seen as set of devices to carry out the coordination, regulation and monitoring of actors, social groups, institutions in order to achieve at lowest agency cost various and conflicting goals discussed and defined collectively in fragmented and uncertain environment.

The classical governance mechanisms which have hitherto been experienced revealed their limitations over the last few years. So, it becomes a duty to coin new devices for more efficient governance. It is in this context that whistleblowing has become an increasingly evident tool to enhance standards and controls for better and more effective corporate governance (Shaik Md Noor Alam, 2009: 3). Whistleblowing can then be perceived as effective arrangements to eradicate unlawful, unethical practices in order to move towards better corporate governance (Nagpal, 2013: 855) and develop a soundness social and economic system. In the same vein, Dorasamy (2013: 113) revealed that the effective management as well as the institutionalization of whistleblowing practices and procedures within any organization reflects good governance. In this respect, whistleblowing has become a buzzword in the encyclopedia of corporate governance jargons and myriad regulatory enforcement programs (Banerjee & Roy, 2014: 7), because it helps exposing improper conduct, including malpractice, wrongdoing, mismanagement, corruption, risk of injury, prejudice or harm to the public environment, shareholders and other stakeholders, either within the workplace or external. It promotes and enhances integrity, transparency and accountability in corporate governance. Since whistleblowing occurs with a free speech of an employee, it can be analyzed as the most efficient mechanism of governance to limit the asymmetry of information among stakeholders and significantly reduce agency costs. Despite all aforementioned knowledge about whistleblowing, it seems to be worthwhile to ascribe a precise meaning to whistleblowing concept in order to design a precise tool for assessing it.

1.1.2. Delineating Whistleblowing Concept

1.1.2.1. Definitions of Whistleblowing and Related Expressions

1.1.2.1.1. Definitions of Whistleblowing

Etymologically, whistleblowing derives from the association of the word “whistle” and the verb “to blow”. The word “whistle” refers to a small tool often use to make a clear high-pitched sound by forcing breath through it while “to blow” means forcing air out of your mouth and through an instrument. The original meaning of the expression “blow the whistle” or “Whistleblowing” is associated to an action from a policeman or a referee (Sampaio & Sobral, 2013: 372). They use a whistle to either signalize an illegal action or a foul within a game or draw attention on an infraction in the social setting. In this vein, Miceli and Near (1992: 15) made an analogy to an official such as a football referee on a playing field who blows the whistle to stop an action although they acknowledged not to be exactly sure about the true provenance of the expression. In the United Kingdom, the term can be attributed to the actions of the “English bobbies” (police constables) who blew the whistle when they noticed the commission of an infraction (Dasgupta & Kesharwani, 2010: 57). In essence, the police officer blows the whistle to summon public to help apprehending a lawbreaker. In both cases (policeman and referee), the whistleblower has the authority to either immediately stop the wrongdoer or to alert officially the law enforcement authorities in order to maintain fair-play as well as save the public from any harm or injustice.

Whistleblowing in the context mentioned above is not fully compatible with the perception associated to it nowadays in the organizational environment. Although the goals are similar, i.e. safeguarding the public interest, the whistleblower in workplace lacks the power and authority to immediately stop wrongdoing, unlike a referee or a policeman. Therefore, whistleblowing in working environment must appeal to someone of greater power or authority (Miceli and Near, 1992: 15). This could be one of the reasons why Vandekerckhove (2012: 7) argued that whistleblowing in organizational context entails an extra meaning. Thus, it is possible to encounter various definitions of whistleblowing since every scholar has often find his or her own way to describe it.

Whistleblowing in organizational context does not lead to the use of a true whistle. Rather it refers to speak out, to tell, to utter secretly, to whisper, to squeal, to signal, to summon, or to give secret information in order to unveil a wrongdoing, an irregularity or an injustice witnessed in a workplace. It is described as an act of a man or woman who, believing that the public interest overrides the interest of the organization he or she serves, blows the whistle when witnessing corrupt, illegal, fraudulent or harmful activities in the organization (Nader, Petkas, & Blackwell, 1972). Whistleblowing refers to a decision to report another person's unethical behavior to a third party Waytz et al. (2013: 1027) or to alert a third party that someone has done or is doing something wrong (Lamba, 2013: 229). The wording of these definitions could lead to confusion between whistleblowing and other related concepts such as alert, denouncement as well as denunciation. While waiting to bring light on the differences among these concepts, whistleblowing concept has been delineated by referring to its original context on the basis of the characteristics highlighted in the literature as well as the definitions meeting these criteria. By scanning the available literature (Chiu, 2003: 65; Dasgupta & Kesharwani, 2010: 57-58; Jubb, 1999: 77; Rocha & Kleiner, 2005: 80), the main criteria that should be included in whistleblowing definition can be summarized in five features as follows:

- the person who is blowing the whistle must be a member of the organization concerned whether a current or a former;
- the complaint, i.e. a wrongdoing, a misconduct or an unethical behavior being reported may be a violation of a law, rule, regulation and/or direct threat to public interest, such as fraud, abuse, theft, bribery, dishonesty, blackmail, nepotism collusion, health/safety violations, corruption, and so one. It must be clearly noticed within the organization or within an independent structure associated with it;
- the wrongdoing reporting must be supported with irrefutable evidence or unequivocal proof;
- the complaint may be reported to a person or an entity within the organization or outside, generally the management, the governmental authorities, or media;

- the wrongdoing reporting must be undertaken as a voluntary moral protest in order to prevent unnecessary harm to others or to protect public interest.

Based on these features, the most recurring definition encountered in the literature is the one suggested by Near and Miceli (1985: 525), in which whistleblowing is considered as “the disclosure by organization members (former or current) of illegal, immoral, or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to persons or organizations that may be able to effect action”. James (1983) defined whistleblowing as an attempt by an employee or former employee of an organization to bring illegal or socially harmful activities of the organization to the attention of the public. In the same vein, Uys (2000: 259) referred to whistleblowing as the disclosure of illegal, unethical or harmful practices in the workplace to parties who might take action. Furthermore, Perks and Smith (2008: 15) emphasized that whistleblowing aims to eradicate unethical behavior in the work place.

1.1.2.1.2. Whistleblowing and Related Expressions

Although whistleblowing is a new word in the literature, it is rooted in an older concept called denunciation which is derived from the verb to denounce. The latter refers to an action to condemn or censure openly or publicly a wrongdoing. It means to make formal accusation against malpractices or to report an unethical behavior. The denunciation may be performed by a member of the organization or an outside individual or group in order to safeguard either the public interest or preserve self-interest. Denunciation is therefore a polysemic concept that encompasses more specific components such as alert, denouncement, and whistleblowing. It is then important to highlight the dissimilarities among these sub-components of denunciation in order to ascribe specific meaning to whistleblowing construct as a measured variable to be operationalized later in the empirical investigation.

Davis (1996: 7) argued on the difference between whistleblowing and alert by focusing on the internal or external nature of the person who speaks out to uncover the wrongdoing. Indeed, he emphasized that a person involved in whistleblowing, i.e. the whistleblower, must be a member of the organization, whether a current or former member. A whistleblower can only blow the whistle on wrongdoing

occurring in his or her working environment. In contrary, when a mere individual who does not belong to the organization sounds the alarm, this kind of denunciation is termed as an alert, not a whistleblowing. Moreover, whistleblowers must provide evidence and justify their actions (Jubb, 1999: 87; Lucas, 1996: 769). The motivation of whistleblowing is completely different from the substantiation underpinning the action of secret agents, spies, and other infiltrators.

Although both whistleblowing and denouncement are forms of denunciation, there is an absolute discrepancy between these two concepts. The difference is mainly based on the purpose pursued by the author involved in the denunciation. Indeed, a whistleblower generally seeks to prevent others from harm or protect the general interest. In contrary, the author of a denouncement is rather concerned with satisfying self-interests. He or she can be concerned about obtaining economic or financial gains as a result of his or her action. They can also seek moral satisfaction including revenge or increasing notoriety. While the whistleblowing seeks to protect the general interest, the denouncement is performed to meet self-interest.

After all, denunciation, denouncement, alert, and whistleblowing are concepts closely related with some dis-similarities. Denunciation is a broader context that encompasses the whistleblowing, the denouncement and alert. The graphic below provides a synthetic view of the distinctions among them.

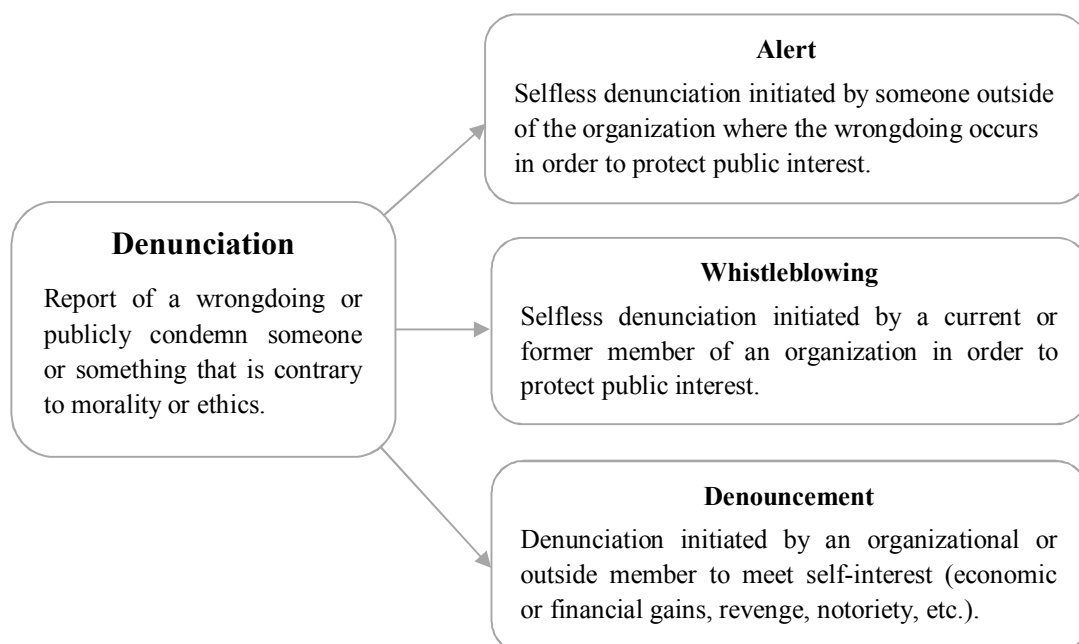


Figure 1.1.2.1.2: Denunciation and its hyponyms

Created by the author

1.1.2.2. Whistleblowing and Whistleblowers: Typologies

The whistleblowing is an action or an act while the whistleblower is the person who is responsible for that action. Although these two concepts are closely related they do not follow the same typology. This section exposes in one hand the different types of whistleblowing and in the other hand the typology of whistleblowers.

1.1.2.2.1. Types of Whistleblowing

A number of investigations only focus on the differences between internal and external whistleblowing (Banerjee & Roy, 2014: 7; Park & Blenkinsopp, 2009: 545; Zhang, Chiu, & Wei, 2009: 25). However, the literature provides a broader categorization of whistleblowing based on three dimensions, each dimension representing a choice for the employee. In fact, they emphasize six types of whistleblowing grouped in three options, including internal versus external, formal versus informal and identified versus anonymous (Gökçe, 2013: 166; Oktem & Shahbazi, 2012: 946; Park et al., 2008: 930).

- **Internal versus External Whistleblowing:** This classification is based on whether an employee provides information to someone inside or outside of the organization. This categorization is supported by Bouville (2008: 579) who considered whistleblowing as an act whereby an employee (or former employee) discloses what he/she believes to be unethical or illegal behavior to higher management (internal whistle-blowing) or to an external authority or the public (external whistle-blowing). The whistleblowing is termed internal when the wrongdoing is reported to persons within the organization, such as the top management or fellow colleagues. More broadly, the internal whistleblowing refers to the form in which whistleblowers may make their allegations internally, i.e. to other people within the same organization. Internal whistleblowers are employees who discover misconduct in the workplace and communicate this to their fellow colleagues or supervisors, who then follows established procedures to address the misconduct within the organization. So, an effective internal channel of complaints is the keystone of motivating

employee to be involved in internal whistleblowing rather to disclose wrongdoings outside the organization (Gökçe, 2013; Vinten, 1996: 108).

In contrary, it becomes external when the disclosure is made to an external entity, such as governments, regulators, media, law enforcement agencies or groups concerned with the issues (Near & Miceli 1996: 509). External whistleblowing refers to disclosing a wrongdoing to outside agencies or entities which have the necessary power to correct it. Although both internal and external whistleblowing may coexist in the same organization, several investigations have revealed that the former usually precedes the latter (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvara, 2005: 278).

As a rule of thumb, Sampaio and Sobral (2013: 372) emphasized that an employee will only refer to external whistleblowing when a previous internal disclosure was not successful. In the same vein, Dasgupta and Kesharwani (2010: 60) argued that an employee who does not feel satisfied by the actions carried out by the organization after blowing the whistle internally can step forward to disclose the wrongdoing to external agencies. Moreover, Rothschild and Miethe (1999: 112) show that the vast majority of whistleblowers reported the misconduct to someone within the company rather than to external authorities.

Internal whistleblowing is more beneficial because organizations may be able to privately rectify the wrongdoings and without public scandals and a loss of reputation (Rothschild & Miethe, 1999: 120). Indeed, external whistleblowing can cause serious damage to the organizations as compared to internal whistleblowing whereby managers can fix the wrongdoings as well as ensuring organizational confidentiality which foster organizational accountability and learning (Zhang et al., 2009: 26). Thus, the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 encourages internal whistleblowing by requiring corporations to provide employees with a standardized channel through which they can report organizational misconducts internally (Moberly, 2006: 1107). Nevertheless, Sampaio and Sobral (2013: 372) argued that true whistleblowing relates only to reporting to parties outside of the organization. This external whistleblowing is processed more readily in a more highly regulated industry because of the

existence of regulatory agencies to which observers of wrongdoings might logically and easily report (Ponnu, Naidu, & Zamri, 2008: 288).

- **Formal versus Informal:** This classification is based on whether the communication channel or procedure used for reporting wrongdoing is already in place in an organization. Formal whistleblowing is an institutional form of reporting wrongdoings, following the standard lines of communication or a formal organizational protocol for such reporting, whereas informal whistleblowing is done by the employee personally telling close associates or someone she or he trusts about the wrongdoings (Park et al., 2008: 930).
- **Identified versus Anonymous:** Identified whistleblowing is an employee's reporting of a wrongdoing using his or her real name (or in some other form giving information which might identify him or her) whereas in anonymous whistleblowing the employee gives no information about himself or herself, and may use an assumed name (Gökçe, 2013: 166; Park et al., 2008: 930).

Overall, this typology of whistleblowing has been summarized as follow:

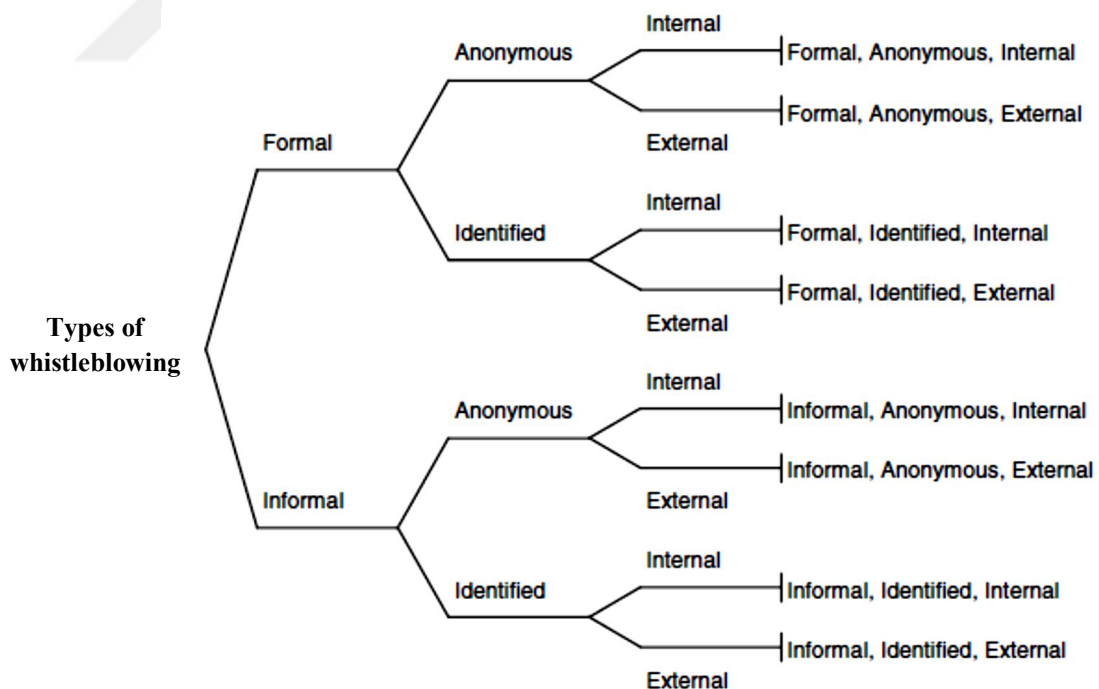


Figure 1.1.2.2.1: Whistleblowing typology

Source: Adapted from Park, Blenkinsopp, Oktem, and Omurgonulsen (2008: 930)

1.1.2.2.2. Types of Whistleblowers

A whistleblower is an organization member (employee whether current or former) who witnesses a wrongdoing in his or her working environment and speaks out to uncover it. Very little research has been performed on categorization of whistleblowers. By delving into the available literature, so far two investigations have been involved in building whistleblowers typology. The first categorizes whistleblowers into three main groups, while the second builds five clusters of whistleblowers.

By investigating the conditions under which employees move towards public disclosure through ten prominent case studies, Glazer (1983: 33) came out with the conclusion that whistleblowers can be categorized into three main groups including unbending resisters, implicated protestors and reluctant collaborators.

- The **unbending resisters** blow the whistle on the unethical or illegal behavior they witness with a strict commitment to their moral principles despite any flattery or coercion. They usually begin their disclosing actions within the organization, and ultimately extend it outside when the first attempt failed or when they become subject of retaliations.
- The **implicated protestors** exposed wrongdoings within the organization but fear legal liabilities. They are flexible in their process and ready to give up the initiative when they are forced to do so.
- The **reluctant collaborators** only speak out to unveil malpractices to public after leaving the organization. As long as they work with the organization, they remain silent on the wrongdoings witnessed and can even become deeply involved in acts they privately condemn.

This earliest typology lacks rigor because it fails to consider the main dimensions useful to map out relevant clusters of whistleblowers. It is an unidimensional typology which only capture the perception of potential whistleblowers towards retaliation. It has rather omitted important aspects such as the motivation of the whistleblower, the organizational features, and other important criteria. Glazer (1983: 33-41) failed to apply his theoretical approach to the ten cases he reviewed and no further empirical evidence has been used to test this theoretical whistleblowers' typology. Contrary to this three-tail categorization, Heumann,

Friedes, Cassak, Wright, and Joshi (2013: 40) recently constructed a broader multidimensional typology underpinned by whistleblower personalities, goals, motivations, claims and success rates as perceived by management, peers, families, the general public, and whistleblowers themselves. They provided a typology by differentiating five types of whistleblowers, including the altruist, the avenger, the organization man, the alarmist, and the bounty hunter.

- The **altruist** sees an evil, objects fearlessly, and fights valiantly within, and even beyond the organization for the sake of justice and remedy. The altruist acts as the conscience of the organization and hopes for nothing other than rectifying the wrongdoings or malpractices witnessed in the working environment. Though the altruist achieves an honored status, and even enjoys elevation within the organization, he or she could face retaliatory actions.
- The **organization man** encompasses employees deeply stuck to organizational culture and mission and who report what they perceive as illegal or improper conduct out of a primary concern for the company. They trust their own judgment about what the company or organization should be doing above that of others, even those higher up in the chain of command. Whistleblowers with this perspective see their own motivations as generally pure, and protective of the organization. Perceived as a “Mr. or Ms. Know-It-All”, they warn on the consequences of not acting as they say and its related harm and catastrophe. Management may perceive the Organization Man as a goad or a roadblock against achieving their goals or adhering to their policies, or an unwelcome voice at odds with managerial goals or procedures.
- The **alarmist** is an employee who complains constantly but without much reliability and is almost always wrong. The alarmist may eventually lose credibility because of the irrelevance often detected in the complaints about conducts that could not be illegal, improper, or harmful to the public interest.
- The **avenger** is motivated by revenge purpose or retribution for a perceived slight or injustice inflicted by the organization or one of its members. The avenger usually reports frauds, mismanagement, or illegal activities for self-vindication in order to get back at someone who offends or humiliates him or

her. The avenger is the organization member who blows the whistle because of the predominance of individual anger or selfishness instead of genuine concern for the harm caused by the wrongdoings to others.

- The **bounty hunter** is primarily motivated to make money. A monetary compensation for whistleblowers should be a good incentive for employees who risk their jobs and expose themselves to all kinds of retaliations in order to serve general interest (Boumil, Nariani, Boumil, & Berman, 2010: 17).

This typology of whistleblowers seems to be concise and comprehensive. It presents mutually exclusive clusters although the difference between the altruist and the organization man is not easily perceivable. Nevertheless, it can be noticeable that the altruist detects wrongdoing by referring to common moral and ethical rules while the organization man considers his personal values based on his knowledge of the organizational culture and mission piled up from his experience in the company. More over the avenger and the bounty hunter can be classified as actors of denouncement rather than whistleblowers because of their self-interest motivation. It is also clear to notice that the typology of whistleblowers is poorly documented compared to the literature related to whistleblowing.

1.1.3. Whistleblowing Development and Whistleblower Protection Worldwide

Legislate to protect those who risk their lives in defending general interest is the backbone of whistleblowing protection development worldwide. Indeed, whistleblowers are often exposed to a variety of retaliations ranging from simple warning to murder in extreme circumstances. However, few countries in the world have implemented legislation and regulations to ensure a reliable and effective protection of whistleblower. To get more understanding on legal environment of whistleblowing, the development of its legislation worldwide have been reviewed in Anglo-Saxon countries where whistleblowing is rooted in common habits and either parts of the world where it is an emerging phenomenon, sometimes unknown by the large public.

1.1.3.1. Whistleblowing Development and protection in Anglo-Saxon Countries

Anglo-Saxon countries mainly refer to English-speaking countries with a common socio-political heritage, including United States of America, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Ireland, and New Zealand. Most of these countries have a long whistleblowing tradition as well as legislation to protect and encourage organization members who expose wrongdoings.

In the United States, legal protections vary according to the issue reported, and sometimes the state in which the whistleblowing arises. The first US law adopted to specifically protect whistleblowers was the 1863 United States False Claims Act (revised in 1986), which aimed to tackle suppliers' fraud against the United States government. This Act encourages whistleblowers by providing them with a certain percentage (between 15 and 30 per cent) of the money recovered or damages won by the government (Sehgal, 2014: 7). It also protects whistleblowers from wrongful dismissal or other retaliations. Another US law that protects whistleblowers is the Lloyd-La Follette Act of 1912 which guaranteed the right of federal employees to provide information to the United States Congress. Similar protections for employees were put in subsequent laws, including the Clean Water Act of 1972, the Safe Drinking Water Act (1974), the Energy Reorganization Act of 1974 (through 1978 amendment to protect nuclear whistleblowers), the Toxic Substances Control Act of 1976, the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (1976), the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act (CERCLA, the Superfund Law) (1980), the Surface Transportation Assistance Act (1982), the Clean Air Act (1990), the Pipeline Safety Improvement Act (PSIA) of 2002, the Sarbanes–Oxley Act of 2002 (for corporate fraud whistleblowers), the Dodd–Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act (2010), etc. It is also important to emphasize that the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 adopted for federal employees has deeply revived the legal protections for employees who report illegal misconduct of their employers (Shimabukuro & Whitaker, 2012: 1). In short, USA set up a very comprehensive legal armory to reward and assure the protection of employees involved in blowing the whistle on wrongdoings in various fields.

Contrary to USA, whistleblowers protection in the other Anglo-Saxon countries is still in its formative stage. For instance, in Canada whistleblowers protection in both public and private sectors is usually settled with common law (Johansen & Branch, 2001: 3) and it was only in 1985 that the whistleblowers defense in public sector was admitted by the Supreme Court of Canada. More recently, the Public Servants Disclosure Protection Act SC, 2005, c 46 strengthened the protection of public servants involved in disclosing wrongdoings or reporting government actions that are illegal acts or in policies that jeopardized the life, health or safety of the public (Latimer & Brown 2008: 779, 785).

In U.K., the Public Interest Disclosure Act of 1998 which received four key changes in 2013 is a unique piece of legislation providing protection to employees disclosing wrongdoings in the public, private and non-profit sectors, including those working outside the U.K. In the same vein, Ireland refers to Prevention of Corruption (Amendment) Act 2010, Criminal Justice Act 2011 and other piecemeal legislation to provide some protection for whistleblowers. In Australia, whistleblowers protection is broadly ensured by Public Interest Disclosure Act 2013 at the federal level along with fairly comprehensive legislations for State public interest disclosure, such as Whistleblowers Protection Act 1993 (South Australia), Whistleblowers Protection Act 1994 (Queensland), Public Interest Disclosures Act 1994 (New South Wales), Protected Disclosure Act 2012 (Victoria), Public Interest Disclosures Act 2002 (Tasmania), Public Interest Disclosure Act 2003 (Western Australia), Public Interest Disclosure Act 2008 (Northern Territory), Public Interest Disclosure Act 2012 (Australian Capital Territory). Australia also celebrates every 30th July the National Whistleblowers' Day to promote disclosure and investigation of wrongdoing and maladministration. New Zealand relies on the Protected Disclosures Act 2000 to protect whistleblowers.

1.1.3.2. Whistleblowing Development in other Parts of the World

The legal frameworks for whistleblower protection are still weak in other parts of the world contrary to fairly comprehensive legislation in Anglo-Saxon countries. Indeed, whistleblower protection legislations in Europe widely vary from one country to another. The current legal frameworks do not really ensure the safety of

those taking the risk to unveil wrongful practices though several European Union countries have recently taken actions to strengthen whistleblower rights. Worth (2013: 5) reported that employees in Europe could surprisingly discover the weakness of whistleblower provisions and subsequently face retaliations after blowing the whistle with no legal recourse. It is also worthwhile to emphasize that only Luxembourg, Romania, Slovenia and the United Kingdom have soundness legal frameworks for whistleblower protection. Sixteen of EU countries have partial legal protections for employees who come forward to report wrongdoing while the remaining seven countries have either very limited or no legal frameworks (Worth, 2013: 5). By analyzing the effect of the cultural dimensions and framework of civil service on the whistleblower protection law and practice in public sector in diverse European countries, Batishcheva and Vorontsov (2013: 1) highlighted that whistleblower protection in law and practice is working more effectively in the West and North than in the South and East.

In Turkey, there is no specific legislation protection for whistleblowers; and those disclosing wrongdoings to protect general interest can usually rely on common laws. To some extent, whistleblowers may refer to the right to petition under Article 74 (1) of the Constitution providing that citizens and foreigners have the right to engage in legal proceedings or submit requests and complaints affecting their own and/or the public's interest to the competent authorities or Grand National Assembly of Turkey. Whistleblowers in Turkey may also rely on Witness Protection Law (Law No. 5726) passed in 2008, Article 18 (3) of the Labor Law as well as international whistleblower protection conventions ratified. The identity of the whistleblower can be made public upon the request of the prosecuted person only when denunciation is valid though Article 18 of Law No 3628 emphasizes the confidentiality of the whistleblower's identity (except in case of his or her own consent).

In Brazil, the whistleblowing legislation is narrow and mostly focuses on corruption and bribery. For instance, Brazil authorities refer to Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA) to prohibit bribes provided by multinational corporations to officials to obtain lucrative contracts. These prohibitions include bribes extended to employees of government owned companies.

China has also improved its legal framework for the protection of whistleblowers in order to fight against corporate frauds. Recently, the Basic Standard for Enterprise Internal Control, the Chinese analogue of Sarbanes-Oxley and commonly named China SOX, has been promulgated on July 1, 2009 (Beller, 2010: 873). This legal arrangement contains a whistleblower protection provision and also requires companies in China to set up whistleblower mechanisms for fraud alert. However, Chinese prefer reporting corruption through the internet, rather than directly to public prosecutors or the police because they consider these whistleblower protection measures to be too weak. It is also important to emphasize that Chinese government devotes massive financial and human resources to internet surveillance, monitoring and censorship which may frighten and prevent potential whistleblowers to spill the beans on wrongdoings.

In Japan, the whistleblower protection law was enacted in June 2004 (Wolff, 2004: 209) and is scheduled to come into effect on April 1 2006. The new law should ensure both the protection of whistleblowers from retaliation by their employers and the obligation on employers and government organs to respond to whistleblowing. Also, similar to China, the Japanese government has also promulgated an analogue of US SOX (referred to as J-SOX), and has drafted the J-SOX rules in a loose way. This enables corporations to interpret the rules as needed and adapt it to their own needs (Mizutani, 2007: 118).

Contrary to northern countries, whistleblowing is less developed in Africa because of lack of legal provisions protecting whistleblowers. However, some African countries step forward and improve recently their whistleblowing legislations. For instance, the Parliament of Ghana passed the whistleblower law (Act 720) in 2006 to legalize the disclosure of public-interest information by individuals. This Act designs the framework and procedure useful to disclose unlawful or other illegal conducts or corrupt practices. It also provides protection against victimization as well as rewards for whistleblowers (Coalition, 2010: 9). The law thus encourages citizens to disclose unlawful or corrupt practices. It also provides protections against victimization of persons carrying on such disclosures. Furthermore, the Ghana Anti-Corruption Coalition launched in 2010, the “Guide to whistleblowing in Ghana”,

which is intended to improve the level of knowledge among the citizenry about the whistleblower.

In South Africa, the protection of whistleblowing is based on the Protected Disclosure Act of 2000 (Act 26 of 2000) (Malan, 2010: 8). The act aims to deter wrongdoings in the workplace, acting as an early warning mechanism to prevent impropriety and corruption within the public sector. The Protected Disclosure Act seeks to fight crime and corruptions through the disclosing of wrongdoings. It aims to create a culture which will facilitate the disclosure of information by employees relating to criminal and other irregular conduct in the workplace in a responsible manner, by providing comprehensive statutory guidelines and protection against any retaliation as a result of such disclosures (Holtzhausen, 2007: 6).

After all, the whistleblowers' protection legislation has become a growing and pressing concern for both governments and general public since it enables dealing with retaliations faced by those involved in exposing wrongdoings they witness. However, no whistleblowing protection arrangements can take in account all the various existing retaliations, notably the most subtle such as mobbing. Thus, whistleblowers may involve in a more complicated process of decision making than one might imagine because the employees who chose to sound the alarm on wrongdoings witnessed in working environment face a dreadful dilemma. In this vein, any employee facing a whistleblowing decision making must assess several factors or determining features, the most important of which seems to be the organizational climate. So, it will be worthwhile to have a deep understanding of organizational climate concept before involving in how it shapes whistleblowing decision-making.

1.2. ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE CONCEPT

In this section, first, various definitions of organizational climate have been examined as well as its main features. Second, the key theories underpinning organizational climate were discussed based on the extant literature. Third and finally, the confusions and ambiguities between organizational climate and its related muddled concepts such as psychological climate and organizational culture were lighted.

1.2.1. Organizational Climate: Definition and Features

1.2.1.1. Meaning and Definition of Organizational Climate

The concept climate originates from the Latin word “*clima*” and literally means region, zone, or slope of the Earth. Later, it has been associated with environmental characteristics of a region and describes weather conditions such as cloudiness, precipitation, wind velocity, humidity, sunshine, temperature, and air pressure throughout the year. This concept has been later extended to organizational ontology to depict the trend of feeling, mood, atmosphere, spirit, tone, temper prevailing in a working environment. Forehand and Von Gilmer (1964: 361) portrayed the organizational climate as the environmental variation enduring over time in a workplace which distinguishes an organization from other organizations and influence the behavior of its members. Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) define it as values of a particular set of characteristics or attributes related to the quality of the total working environment experienced by organization's members and which can influence their behavior.

These early definitions of organizational climate seem to be too broad and may even raise confusion with organizational culture. To make the construct more practicable and measurable for empirical investigations purposes, more narrowed and relevant definitions have been coined in the literature. Thus, Peña-Suárez, Muñiz, Campillo-Álvarez, Fonseca-Pedrero, and García-Cueto (2013: 137) depicted organizational climate as the set of perceptions shared by workers who occupy the same workplace. It is the perception of organization members towards their working environment. It is associated to the social setting made by the specific characteristics and features perceived by organization members and which determine their

behaviors. Burton, Lauridsen, and Obel (2004: 70) as well as James and James (1989: 740) tagged it as a psychological climate which is defined as employees' perception of their working environment including role clarity, role overload, job autonomy (Baltes, Bauer, Bajdo, & Parke,r 2002: 4) and other organizational practices and procedures related to organizational influences on individual performance, satisfaction, and motivation.

1.2.1.2. Key Components of Organizational Climate

Following the various definitions provided to depict organizational climate three main components can be identified as the pillars of this construct. These are the organizational member, the perception, and the internal environment.

The first and the most important feature of organizational climate is perception which refers to a psychological construct expressing the way an individual transposes sensory feelings about their close environment into logical and coherent outlook. Based on convergence zones theory, the visual processing of an object or event activates the feature detectors of cognitive function in the brain's modality-specific system (Niedenthal, Barsalou, Winkielman, Krauth-Gruber, & Ric, 2005: 194) called convergence zones. The latter record the perceptual features and will be able to retro-activate them for future use. Perception entails a key component which is the meaning tied to the features and attributes noticeable in the environment (Ekehammar, 1974: 1031). Through a cognitive process, the individual assesses the environmental attributes, analyzes its stored mental representations, and adds a meaning to it. Furthermore, Mandler (1982: 8) argued that the valuation of the perceived attributes is more internally oriented and enables the individual to judge the traits related to the working environment such as challenge, friendliness in interactions with coworkers, equity, etc. Hence, Verbeke, Volgering, and Hessels (1998: 308) reported that the individuals interpret and respond to situational variables in a manner that is psychologically meaningful to them and not simply on the basis of the objective descriptions of specific situational or structural attributes. In the same vein, climate can be viewed as a product of perceptual and cognitive processes that result in cognitive representations reflecting an interpretation of the situation in forms which are psychologically important to individuals.

The second key component of organizational climate is organizational members who can be considered as the carriers of the engine or tool that processes the perceived working environment's attributes. In fact, the organizational members are the individual who work in or for the organization and experience the working environment. Organizational members react differently to what they perceive in the working environment. The variability in organization members' perceptions can be analyzed through the complex man approach developed by Shepard and Hougland Jr. (1978: 414-418). Indeed, they argued that individuals are both internally complex and different from each other. Individual differences stem from values which workers have acquired through prior socialization non-work settings such as attitudes, beliefs, norms, needs, etc. It can also be determined by variables such as age, education, income, unionization, length of time in organization, occupational history, and length of time on present job. The complex man approach emphasizes only variability of individual characteristics and responses. Individual response to a given structural arrangement will vary according to the appropriateness of that arrangement.

The third key component is the working environment which refers to the geographical location where tasks are performed and its related features. It is the physical working environment where the complex human-machine relations and their mutual interactions occur. It concerns with the workplace, the tools used, the decorations, the quality of the air, the noise level, and its related facilities (free child care, unlimited coffee, or adequate parking) as well as the psychological, sociological, and anthropological attributes. With the development of the networks based on internet technology, the working environment can go beyond a physical workplace and integrate the virtual universe where online jobs are carried out.

These three components determine the organizational climate which is the process whereby an organization's member perceives the working environment attributes and creates abstract or psychological representations. The perception of the working environment can then affect behavior of the organization members.

1.2.2. Key Theories Underpinning Organizational Climate

The Hawthorne studies have served as the starting point in shift in paradigm in management science, from scientific management to human relations school (Zhang & Liu 2010: 189). Indeed, the Hawthorne studies have been the most important early empirical investigation to show the impact of the working environment on job performance. Following the outcome of these studies, organizational climate theories have evolved through two main streams of thought encompassing the Gestalt school of psychology and the school of functionalism (Schneider, 1975: 447).

1.2.2.1. The Hawthorne Studies

The Hawthorne studies refers to experiments carried out in the late 1920s till the early 1930s by Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger on workers at the plant of the Western Electric Company located at Hawthorne, a suburb of Chicago. They investigated the effects of physical conditions on employee productivity and then delve into socio-psychological features of human behaviors in workplace. Indeed, the experiences initially aimed to investigate the impact of the physical workplace features, especially lights intensity on employees' productivity (Smith, 1987: 109). At this stage, the finding revealed that lighting had only a minor effect on employees' productivity. The studies have later moved to the psychological catalysts including the number and duration of rest breaks, the length of working hours, the group size, the group cohesiveness, the group pressure, the work restriction norms, supervision and leadership styles, the counseling system, the value of decency, and psychological manipulation of employees (Sonnenfeld, 1985: 112-114).

The experience revealed that physical conditions changes have little effects on workers' productivity. Rather, it is probably the specific concern showed by someone to their workplace, and the opportunities given to them to discuss changes before they took place that enhanced workers' productivity. Mayo and Roethlisberger came to the conclusion that workers were most responsive to social factors, such as the amount of interest their manager had in their work, i.e. the additional attention and the feeling that their managers cared about and were interested in their work. They were also responsive to working team and its related atmosphere. So, the workers' performance depends upon their surroundings and the people that they are working

with as much as their own innate abilities. The productivity will increase if employees are treated well, if they have a sense of togetherness, and if they receive special recognition for their contributions.

The Hawthorne studies then revealed that a worker's performance is influenced by social settings and job content. In addition, monetary incentives and good working conditions are generally less important in improving employee productivity than the individual need and desire to belong to a group and be included in decision making.

1.2.2.2. The Gestalt School of Psychology

The proponents of the Gestalt school have significantly contributed to the theoretical foundations of organizational climate. In fact, they were mainly involved in analyzing the psychological process of mental development in human mind that underlies perception which is the core construct of organizational climate. The gestalt psychologists believed that human mind perceives and integrates the environmental characteristics as a whole in contrary to the structuralism view whereby mental processes were breaking down into the most basic components. Then, the perceived features in the environment affect the behavior of the individual. In this vein, Schneider (1975: 451) reported that people apprehend order in their working environment based on perceived and inferred cues and then behave in ways that fit the order they apprehend. Behavior is then constrained by environmental causes rather than by internal forces. For instance, Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996: 219) reported that perceived organizational support entails organizational commitment.

1.2.2.3. The School of Functionalism

Proponents of functionalism school have challenged the structuralism approach and at the same time have deepened a Gestalt theory of perception. They rather worked on the role play by the mental process instead of focusing on the process itself. Though, the proponents of functionalism acknowledge the role of the environment in the perception building, they mainly advocate the adaptation capacity of human beings. As portrayed by Lewin (1951: 25), behavior is the function of personality (individual differences) and environment. Hence, behavior cannot be determined by only perceived features in the close environment, rather individuals

try to create order in their environment with the purpose of effectively adapting their behavior to the working environment (Schneider, 1975: 447). Furthermore, two main orientations in functionalism had been pointed out, including (1) the functions of cognition and behavior in adaptation to the environment and (2) the role of individual differences in the capacity to adapt.

In short, functionalism is built upon the individuals' ability to interact with their environment in the building of perception which is the root of organizational climate. The individual is no longer a simple bystander whose behavior varies depending on perceived changes in the environment. He becomes an active role player in the mental development process underlying perception building and is therefore reported as an important lever in the organizational climate designing.

After all, theories underpinning organizational climate have their roots in the Hawthorne experiments which raised the issue related to the impact of working environment on employee behavior in terms of productivity. Most of these theories converged on the central role of perception in organizational climate but through contradictory rationales developed by psychologists. The main difference raised is related to the role performed by individuals in perception building. Hence, the Gestalt psychologists argued that perception is determined only by perceived features in the environment and people have no choice while proponents of functionalists advocated the adaptability of people that allow them to react to perceived features in the environment and consequently adjust their behavior.

1.2.3. Organizational Climate and its Related Muddled Concepts

The evolution of organizational climate theories has entailed a confused use of some concepts as if they are synonyms. Some of them have close meaning with organizational climate while others incur completely different sense. This section will try to bring out similarities and dissimilarities between organizational climate and its related most confusing concepts such as psychological climate and organizational culture.

1.2.3.1. Organizational Climate and Psychological Climate

The psychological climate is often used as a synonym of organizational climate. Though the two concepts display lots of similarities, they do not exactly

have the same meaning or refer to the same phenomenon. The psychological climate refers to the individual or employee perception of working environment (Baltes, Zhdanova, & Parker, 2009: 669; L. R. James & Jones, 1974: 1096; Jones & James 1979: 201). It involves the way an individual cognitively perceives and assigns meaning and significance to environmental features (James, 1982: 219). Thus, Koys and DeCotiis (1991: 266) argued that psychological climate primarily shapes and formats the individual behavior toward the references established in the organization. They also identified three characteristics of the psychological climate, including the individual's description of his or her organizational experiences rather than his or her affective or evaluative reaction to what has been experienced; the relative stability over time of the perceptions; and the ease of these perceptions to be shared among the organization members.

The perception of working environment ascribed to psychological climate is the main attribute shared with organizational climate, and sometimes leading to considerable confusions. At the same time, it is the characteristic used to clarify the ambiguity and then differentiate the two concepts. Hence, perceptions in psychological climate should be assessed at individual level while perceptions in organizational climate might be measured at group or organization level (Joyce & Slocum, 1982: 952-953; Parker et al., 2003: 408). The organizational climate is then portrayed as the average perceptions of organizational members or the collective description of the working environment (Joyce & Slocum, 1982: 968). It is the logical extension of psychological climate. It then refers to the overall meaning derived from the aggregation of individual perceptions of the working environment, i.e. the typical or average way people in an organization ascribe meaning to the organizational features (James et al., 2008: 15). This falls into the context of the definition of Schneider, White, and Paul (1998: 151) whereby the organizational climate refers to a perceptual medium of shared perceptions of employees concerning the practices, procedures, and kinds of behavior that get rewarded and supported in a particular setting. In the same vein, Manning (2010: 53) referred to individual-level outcomes to investigate psychological climate while using group-level outcomes to assess organizational climate.

1.2.3.2. Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate

Organizational climate and culture display lots of similarities which sometimes lead to an interchangeably usage of the two concepts and then create a great deal of confusion (Castro & Martins, 2010: 2; Denison, 1996: 625). For instance, Schein (1999: 3,13) argued that climate is merely an artifact of a broader concept called culture since the former is a measure of the latter.

According to Schein (2010: 18), culture refers to “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”. More specifically, the organizational culture includes the set of values shared by organizational members such as knowledge, beliefs, symbols, norms, myths, rituals, ceremonies, meanings given to physical objects, languages used in the organization (professional language, jargon, jokes, songs, slogans), stories related to the past of the organization, organizational philosophy about workers and customers, work rules necessary for harmony, honesty and standard set of behavioral expectations (Deshpande & Webster, 1989: 4; Ouchi, 1981; Schein, 1990: 109). Burton et al. (2004: 70) summarized organizational culture as social patterns including knowledge, belief, behavior, norms, symbols, and rituals which shape and determine the way things are done.

After all, culture is then a set of social values used as a guidelines and benchmarks for organizational members that direct them in performing their tasks and mold their interpersonal interactions. It shapes the behavior of each member of the organization and represents the social glue to maintain internal cohesion and bind the group together. It determines the prevailing atmosphere in the working environment and can be quite rightly termed as the spirit of the organization. Therefore, organizational culture seems to be a major trait if not the most important feature of working environment which is the focus spot of the organizational climate.

Despite the similarities, many theoretical and empirical works have widely identified the basic similarities between organizational climate and culture and then come to the conclusion that these two concepts are markedly different. In this regard,

Schwartz and Davis (1981: 32) emphasized that culture should not be confused with climate whatever the meaning assigned to it.

Koys and DeCotiis (1991: 266-267) sort out the confusion between climate and culture by insisting on the perceptual and describing aspects of organizational climate and the fact that it cannot be an aspect of organization or task structure. Culture is deeply rooted in the history, values, beliefs, and assumptions which are transmitted through a process of socialization to a variety of identity groups that converge in the workplace (Denison, 1996: 624). Organizational culture usually bring stability since it is structurally and deeply embedded in the organizational operations and management. Furthermore, Denison (1996: 644) argued that culture refers to a sufficiently complex phenomenon and then may resist to direct manipulations. In contrast, organizational climate seems to be more subjective and easily subject to direct control and manipulation by people with power and influence since it is closely related to individual cognition, thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and behaviors of organizational members. Anyway, climate is more concerned with members' perceptions of organizational features, practices, procedures, and above all the available culture (Guion, 1973: 121; Joyce & Slocum, 1982: 952; Koys & DeCotiis, 1991: 266) and their related impacts on groups and individuals' behaviors.

From a methodological point of view, Denison (1996: 621) has pointed out that investigations on culture should be operated with qualitative research methods. Indeed, the qualitative research approach will help the investigator focusing on the natural and social settings to provide understanding of the value, history, beliefs, and assumptions and at the same time make sense in term of the unique meaning organizational members bring to these settings. It is also quite obvious that these settings could not be numerically assessed or apprehended through quantitative tools such as survey. The researchers involving in culture studies should rather place more emphasis on ethnomethodology or ethnography and use observations, in-depth interviews, or focus groups to gather data needed. In contrary, organizational climate studies should require quantitative methods which fall into the positivism paradigm and its scientific process through assumptions testing and generalization.

After all, it is quite obvious that organizational climate is completely different from culture. In fact, climate is rightly an employee's specific perception about

culture which encompasses organizational characteristics. In this regard Thumin and Thumin (2011: 106) ascertained that organizational climate is the most important measuring instrument of the broader concept called culture.



1.3. ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND WHISTLEBLOWING

The perception of the working environment can determine the behavior of organization's members and therefore shapes their decision making process. It is then obvious that the organizational climate experienced should affect the employees' whistleblowing intention. So, the organizational climate could influence either positively or negatively whistleblowing intention. This section has examined the organizational climate drivers that may stimulate whistleblowing intention and those undermining it as well as the limits of the existing literature related to the issue.

1.3.1. Organizational Climate Drivers Stimulating Whistleblowing Intention

By probing the literature, it is noticed that four main organizational sub-components which could foster the organization's members to commit themselves in whistleblowing process when witnessing wrongdoing in their workplaces. To this end, the perception of trust, safety, justice, and ethic in working environment are considered to be important variables affecting whistleblowing intention which is still a complex decision-making process and a dilemma for employees involved in sounding the alarm on the wrongdoings and malpractices. This is substantiated by Seifert et al. (2014: 157) when emphasizing that trust to supervisor and to organization are key factors that mediate the relationship between organizational justice and the likelihood of whistleblowing. Accordingly, Seifert, Sweeney, Joireman, and Thornton (2010: 714) also argued that the organizational justice increases the likelihood of whistleblowing.

Furthermore, a potential whistleblower also pays attention to how previous whistleblowing were addressed. He or she cares about the transparency and the fairness of whistleblowing procedure as well as its related treatment. The employee may assess managerial attention to the complaint and actions taken to stop the wrongdoings or the following retaliations measures against the whistleblower (Miceli and Near, 1985: 527). When an organization publishes general information related to the number of incidents or wrongdoings reported and general actions are taken with regard to those incidents, employees may feel safety and trustful climate which may positively impact their likelihood to unravel wrongdoings observed in the working

environment. Such information could serve as a signal that the organization is trustworthy and its climate is safe in handling whistleblowing. Moreover, Colquitt and Rodell (2011: 1195) showed a reciprocal relationship between organizational justice and trustworthiness. More broadly, general organizational climate provides a context for specific safety evaluation. Indeed, if employees perceive that there is an open communication and the organization is supportive of their general welfare and well-being, they will be more likely to perceive that the organization values the safety of employees (Neal, Griffin, & Hart, 2000: 103).

Several studies also portrayed ethical culture and positive climate to be strong predictors of whistleblowing intention (Ahmad, Yunus, Ahmad, & Sanusi, 2014: 445; Zhang et al., 2009: 25). Since whistleblowing stems from moral motives of preventing wrongdoing, the development of a sound ethical culture and moral sense of duty could be key levers to foster organizational members to report wrongdoing (Zakaria, 2015: 231). Huang et al. (2013: 681) asserted that employees have higher intentions of whistleblowing when the organization displays a more positive ethical climate underpinned by intense law and rules, relatively strong company profit or efficiency, or independence. Inversely, ethical climate may have only limited effects on the employees' likelihood to sound the alarm on wrongdoings since whistleblowing is a complex and sensitive decision. Nevertheless, Rothwell and Baldwin (2007: 606) argued that organizational climate drivers such as supervisory status and policy mandating the reporting of misconduct are consistently related to whistleblowing intention.

1.3.2. Organizational Climate Drivers Disheartening Whistleblowing Intention

Whistleblowers often suffer retaliations in the working environment. The literature points out a negative relationship between retaliations and whistleblowing intention. Indeed, whistleblower may be considered disloyal to colleagues or traitor of the organization (Jubb, 1999: 82), when revealing information about possible dangers, frauds or wrongdoings. They are often at risk of mobbing, bullying, ostracism, dismissal, harassment, blacklisting, or other retaliations which can endanger their careers (Martin & Saint Martin, 2012: 206; Parmerlee, Near, &

Jensen, 1982: 20) or even destroy their lives. The perception of retaliation in a working environment leads to an increasing widespread of fear which ultimately reduces the likelihood of whistleblowing (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran 2005: 280; Near & Miceli 1996: 523; Parmerlee et al., 1982: 30). Though, the retaliations are often initiated by organizational top management, mere supervisors or coworkers may sometimes involve in it, in order to silent the whistleblower or potential candidates for the whistleblowing (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran 2005: 281).

Furthermore, Rothschild (2013: 898) revealed that the relationship between whistleblowing judgment and whistleblowing intention is moderated by the fear of retaliations, the status of the wrongdoer, the perceived organizational support and the tolerance for dissent within the organization. It means that individuals that judge whistleblowing as an ethical course of action may decide not to blow the whistle if they fear retaliations, if the misconduct was committed by a high status member of the organization, and if the organization does not tolerate dissent and does not provide support for its members. So, to take the decision to sound the alarm, employee needs to be absolutely certain of protections (availability of whistleblowers protection laws) or have exceptional courage, or both.

Since there is a significant relationship between personality¹ and mobbing (Deniz & Gülen Ertosun, 2010: 139), and the latter being one of the major retaliations faced by whistleblowers, it can be assumed a negative relationship between mobbing and whistleblowing intention. Mobbing refers to morally intimidate the organization's members and prevent them to get involved in whistleblowing actions.

1.3.3. The Limits of the Existing Literature

The whistleblowing enables an employee to report wrongdoings he or she has witnessed in the working environment. Yet, the decision to blow the whistle may be driven by various factors, either personal or organizational. Whistleblowing can then be viewed as a complex construct that depends upon wider social settings (Vandekerckhove, 2010: 97), including the perception of the working environment,

¹ Personality refers to a set of dynamic and organized characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, behaviors, and his or her responses to various environments or situations.

that is to say climate whether psychological or organizational. The perception of the employee may result in positive drivers for whistleblowing decision making such as trust, safety, justice, ethic, etc. Inversely, it can yield fearful factors such as retaliations which may weaken or become main hindrance for whistleblowing intention.

However, the literature seriously lacks empirical evidences analyzing the relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing. In our knowledge, there might be a deficiency in both theory and empirical investigations related to the issue. No research has yet tried to explicitly and systematically capture the way the perception of the working environment may affect the employee's decision-making process of blowing the whistle though some studies have tried to unravel this relationship by focusing on certain aspects but in isolated ways. The literature has not provided a full overview of how each component of organizational climate affects whistleblowing intention. It is expected to come up with useful insights on this issue in order to fill this gap.

CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter first presented the conceptual framework to depict the research objectives and importance, to examine the variables useful to the empirical investigation, and to portray the theoretical model as well as the hypotheses underpinning it. The second section developed the analysis design by selecting appropriate analysis methods based on the existing literature. The chapter ended with data collection approach.

2.1. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1. Research Objectives and Interests

2.1.1.1. Research Objectives

Whistleblowing is an exciting field of research. The debates related to this issue still have some grey areas that require more investigations to be clarified. The available literature lacks clear evidences pertained to the main determinants underpinning the employee's psychology when involving in blowing the whistle and expose wrongdoings he or she witnesses in the working environment. The literature has not provided yet a full overview of how each component of organizational climate affects whistleblowing intention. This study aims to contribute to fill the gap by focusing on the effects of organizational climate on whistleblowing intention. More narrowly, this research mainly aimed to systematically analyze the impact of organizational climate on whistleblowing in international trade oriented organizations. In order to achieve this goal, the following specific objectives were considered to be achieved:

- To test the significance of the relations between the constituents of organizational climate and whistleblowing;
- To analyze organizational climate drivers which positively influence the whistleblowing;
- To investigate organizational climate drivers which negatively affect the whistleblowing.

2.1.1.2. Research Theoretical and Methodological Interests

More than four decades later, whistleblowing seems not to be fully conceptualized with a well clarified and unequivocal definition. Indeed, there is still some confusion among whistleblowing and some related expressions such as alert, denunciation and denouncement. Despite the little similarities they display, it is not obvious to note the major differences that prevent using them interchangeably. In order to sort out the existing confusions and avoid adopting a polysemic definition, the ambiguities were clarified by setting the main dissimilarities in comparing whistleblowing to its related expressions including alert, denunciation and denouncement.

Furthermore, the existing literature provides more theoretical representation of whistleblowing concept with very little empirical investigations to analyze its determinants and confirm its validity in the organizational context. It is not common to find scientific works examining the relations between whistleblowing and organizational variables such as climate, culture, ethics, etc. So far, no prior study to our knowledge has yet depicted the impact of organizational climate on whistleblowing intention. Hence, the second major theoretical contribution of this research is to establish and test the relationship between whistleblowing and organizational climate in order to emphasize how the perception of working environment features, i.e. organizational climate drivers, affects whistleblowing intention.

In the existing literature, there is no concise scale to measure the relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing. This logically derives from the fact that no earlier research had focused on the empirical analysis of the issue to discuss. Though valid and reliable scales had already been developed to measure each of the variables to be used, no available measuring instrument have combined yet all of them in the same questionnaire. Thus, as methodological contribution, this research aimed to develop a single instrument from existing scales in order to measure the relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing. Exploratory Factor Analysis and linear regression were performed to check the validity of the measuring instrument as well as the theoretical model portraying the relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing.

2.1.1.3. Practical Advantages for Management

The various scandals that have occurred in the world have brought to light whistleblowing as a powerful mechanism in corporate governance. Indeed, it is worthwhile to notice the key role of whistleblowing in reporting wrongdoings and malpractices related to recent scandals, such as Edward Snowden (2013) in Central Intelligence Agency, Olivier Dubuquoy (2011) in oil and gas sector, Sherron Watkins (2001) with Enron; Jeffrey Wigand (1996) in tobacco industry; and Erin Brockovich (1996) in water sector. The whistleblowing helps to protect the public interests and maintain high level of governance in public sectors as well as private organizations.

Thus, on the managerial front, the findings of this research aimed to contribute to identify the organizational climate variables that are very sensitive to the whistleblowing intention. In essence, this research should enable leaders and management to better understand key organizational climate factors for optimizing whistleblowing as a corporate governance mechanism. It would be useful to employees to be aware of the important role assigned to them in corporate governance as well as to know the way the organizational climate drivers can influence their intention to sound the alarm when witnessing wrongdoings in their working environment. The research will also review the various alternatives available to blow the whistle with less retaliation depending on the nature of the organizational climate. The table below summarizes the main contributions of this investigation.

Table 2.1.1.3: Summary of Research Interests

Theoretical and Methodological Contributions	✓ To clarify the ambiguities between whistleblowing and its related expressions, including alert, denunciation and denouncement.
	✓ To examine the relations between whistleblowing and organizational climate drivers.
	✓ To design a unique measuring instrument on the basis of the available scales to assess the relationship between whistleblowing and organizational climate as well as testing its validity.
Practical Contributions for Management	✓ To enable leaders and management to better understand key factors for optimizing whistleblowing as a corporate governance mechanism.
	✓ To help employees to be aware of the important role assigned to them in corporate governance.

2.1.2. Variables Selection

Since this research aims to examine the relation between whistleblowing and organizational climate, it should be decent to assign measurable and quantified variables to these two broad constructs. So, this section devoted to depict the various variables that will be used to operationalize whistleblowing as well as organizational climate.

2.1.2.1. Dependent Variable: Whistleblowing Intention

Most of the researchers involved in empirical investigation of whistleblowing have referred to whistleblowing intention as a measurable instrument to assess this phenomenon. The whistleblowing intention can be defined as the likelihood of an employee to report wrongdoings of which he or she has witnessed or has been aware. It is the extent to which an employee willingly tries to uncover wrongdoings or malpractices. As portrayed by Keenan (2002: 81), the likelihood of whistleblowing is associated to the commitment of an employee to report wrongdoings or fraudulent activities observed or witnessed. It is a kind of feelings of obligation to report illegal, immoral or illegitimate practices to parties who can take action (Keenan 1995: 571). Miceli and Near (1985: 526-527) described it as an organization member's decision to blow the whistle or to remain silent when he or she observes wrongdoings.

By using meta-analysis, Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005: 287-288) argued that whistleblowing is more strongly associated to whistleblowing intention than actual whistleblowing. In essence, whistleblowing seems to be more accurately assessed with the employee intention or the likelihood to unveil wrongdoings than whistleblowing effective actions. In the same vein, Park and Blenkinsopp (2009: 2) referred to whistleblowing intention as a proxy measure for whistleblowing behavior since the proponents of Theory of Planned Behavior² supported the use of intention as better predictor for behavior (Ajzen, 1987: 56; Buchan, 2005: 166) or more specifically ethical behavior. Perhaps, this should be why Ponnu et al. (2008: 277) relied on whistleblowing intention to assess executives ability in reporting illegal,

² According to the Theory of Planned Behavior, Ajzen (1987) assumed that individual behavioral intention is shaped by three main determinants, including behavioral beliefs (beliefs related to the likely consequences - favorable or unfavorable attitude - of the behavior), normative beliefs (beliefs resulting in perceived social pressures or subjective norms), and control beliefs (beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of the behavior).

immoral or illegitimate practices behavior in banking industry. Indeed, they emphasized that predicted whistleblowing intention of employees should be suitable to set up ethical system in the organization. Based on the theory of Planned Behavior and previous studies, whistleblowing intention has been used as a proxy measure of whistleblowing behavior of employees in working environment situations.

2.1.2.2. Independent Variables: Organizational Climate Drivers

Associated with individual evaluations of the working environment, the organizational climate encompasses a wide range of aspects as measured in many different ways. Litwin and Stringer (1968: 81-82) assess organizational climate in referring to dimensions such as structure, standards, responsibility, support, commitment, rewards, warmth, identity, risk and conflict. Yet, the use of these variables seemed to generate confusion between organizational climate and culture (Schneider, 1990). In order to sort out this confusion, Koys and DeCotiis (1991: 266) provided three main features to specify climate. In essence climate should be descriptive (not evaluative), stable over time, and widely shared by organizational members.

More recently, Neal et al. (2000: 102) measured organizational climate by using employees' perceptions about seven different aspects of their working environment including appraisal and recognition, goal congruency, role clarity, supportive leadership, participative decision-making, professional growth, and professional interaction. In the same vein, Burton et al. (2004: 70) referred to trust, morale, rewards equitability, leader credibility, conflict, scapegoating, and resistance to change. Organizational climate has also been assessed using variables such as individual autonomy, organizational justice, esprit (the spirit of unity), and consideration or through psychological measures such as disengagement, hindrance, intimacy, and aloofness.

Based on the forgoing, the organizational climate has been assessed in this study with variables related to psychology in individual decision making such as individual autonomy, organizational justice, morale, leader credibility, mobbing, and trust.

Individual Autonomy: Hackman and Oldham (1975: 162) described Autonomy as “the degree to which the task provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out”. It is a kind of freedom, independence, and discretion in achieving a task. In essence, it is a freedom to select work projects, decide how a job gets accomplished, and to set work schedules (Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994: 14). This definition ascertain the multi-dimensional aspect of autonomy as depicted by Breugh (1985: 551) when he split autonomy into three facets such as work method autonomy, work scheduling autonomy, and work criteria autonomy. The work method autonomy refers to the degree of discretion to choose the procedures or methods when performing a job. The work scheduling autonomy is related to the freedom in controlling, scheduling, sequencing, or timing the tasks to be achieved. The work criteria autonomy addresses the worker’s ability to change the indicators or standards used for evaluating performance. High autonomy increases experienced responsibility for work, work motivation, job satisfaction, and performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1975: 160; van Mierlo, Rutte, Vermunt, Kompier, & Doorewaard, 2006: 282).

Organizational Justice: Organizational justice refers the way employees perceive they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the direct related effects on their workplace as well as their behavioral reactions to such perceptions (Moorman, 1991: 845). It is the employee’s perception concerning the nature of treatment given to him or her in the workplace (Akanbi & Ofoegbu, 2013: 208). Organizational justice is a description of fairness and equitable behavior in the workplace (Greenberg, 1990: 309-400; Rafei-Dehkordi, Mohammadi, & Yektayar, 2013: 696).

The organizational justice is depicted through three sub-features included distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Bakhshi, Kumar, & Rani, 2009: 146; Bidarian & Jafari, 2012: 1622; Greenberg, 1990: 400-405; Iqbal, 2013: 49; Mahrani, Kamaluddin, Takdir S., & Ansir, 2015: 628). The distributive justice is the perceived fairness related to the rewards (wages, salaries, promotions, or other outcomes and incentives) employees receive in the organization (Moorman, 1991: 845). In fact, the employee assesses the fairness and equity of distributed outcome through comparison with others in order to be sure that it is done on the basis of

equality, need or contribution (Al-Zu'bi, 2010: 103; Alsalem & Alhaiani, 2007). The procedural justice is described as the perceived fairness of the rules and procedures that regulate a process (Nabatchi, Blomgren Bingham, & Good, 2007: 150). It may display features such as impartiality in decision-making process, neutrality of the process (Tyler & Lind, 1992: 140-141), and the trustworthiness of the decision making authority (Tyler & Bies 1990). As reported by Moorman (1991: 845), the procedural justice may also describe the fairness of the procedures used. The interactional justice describes the fairness perceived in the operationalization of the procedures in organization context (Moorman, 1991: 852). It includes the respect, the thorough explanation, and the quality of interpersonal treatments employees receive during procedures (Streicher et al., 2008: 132). It may split into interpersonal justice and informational justice (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). While the former display the respectful, polite, and dignified treatment of people by decision-makers, the latter reflects the quality and quantity of information on the decision process given to people in terms of accurate, timely and reasonable explanations (Streicher et al., 2008: 132).

Overall, the organizational justice may be an important lever to enhance positive perception and feeling of working environment that is to display positive organizational climate. Indeed, employees who believe they are treated fairly will be more committed in the organization (Barling & Phillips, 1993: 649) because they display satisfaction and well-being as well as good and positive feeling of their working environment (Moliner, Martínez-Tur, Ramos, Peiró, & Cropanzano, 2008: 327).

Morale: Morale refers to the atmosphere related to employee satisfaction and enthusiasm towards the achievement of individual and group goals in a working environment (Rauf, Akhtar, Iqbal, & Malik, 2013: 70). It is associated with optimism, willingness, confidence, enthusiasm, courage, and discipline which may provide the necessary spirit and motivation in a given job situation in order to endure hardship. So, morale can rightly perceive as a motivational construct in job achievement (Britt & Dickinson, 2006: 162). In the same vein, Peterson et al (2008: 21) described it as a cognitive, emotional, and motivational stance toward the goals and tasks of a group. Upadhyay and Gupta (2012: 80-82) also reported morale as a

key mental phenomenon driving performance in the organization and which creates a positive working environment. It is then obvious to consider morale as a driven positive factor for organizational climate.

Leader Credibility: Leader credibility may be defined as the trust, confidence, and pride that a subordinate grants to his or her supervisor. It is based on an alignment between the values of the trustor (the subordinate) and the trustee (the supervisor or leader). The intensity of determination of the subordinate to voluntarily take risks at the hands of the supervisor may be a reliable tool to assess leader credibility (Schoorman , Mayer , & Davis 2007: 347). Credibility is the combination of three factors; including competence, trustworthiness, and caring/goodwill (McCroskey & Teven, 1999: 91; Porter, Wrench, & Hoskinson, 2007: 143). Competence is the extent that an individual truly knows what he or she is discussing. Trustworthiness is the degree to which one individual perceives another person as being honest. Furthermore, Richmond and McCroskey (2000: 85) argued that subordinate perception of the supervisor credibility is positively related to both employee job satisfaction and motivation. It follows that the leader credibility may allow the employee to have a positive perception of organizational climate.

Trust: Trust is an expression of confidence between the parties in which one party expects not be harmed or put at risk by the other (Jones & George, 1998: 531) even in cases where there are no monitoring, control, or supervision mechanisms available (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995: 712). Trust derives from mutual confidence (Sabel, 1993: 1133) as well as factors such as reliability, honesty, worthiness, benevolence, credibility, truth, good faith, and so on. In a trusting environment, the word, promise, and verbal or written statement are sacred and could be relied upon (Rotter, 1967: 651). Accordingly, trust perceived in organization should create cohesive relationships and interactions in working environment. This can be explained by beliefs in management, assurance about the thoughts of colleagues, honesty and positive expectations (Yilmaz & Atalay, 2009: 343). Moreover, trust should also act as a catalyst in commitment in social, cooperative and altruistic behavior (Poon, 2006: 519).

Mobbing: According to Leymann (1996: 168), mobbing or psychological terror in working life is a psychosocial harassment which involves hostile and unethical

acts directed in a systematic way by one individual or a group of individuals against a specific person who is pushed into helpless and defenseless position. Mobbing may be expressed through consistent negative behaviors (intimidation, threats, maltreatment, rudeness, brutal attack, and hostile acts) of one or numerous individuals to upset the self-confidence and the self-esteem of a targeted employee in workplace (Aiello, Deitingner, Nardella, & Bonafede, 2008: 10; Yuksel & Tunçsiper, 2011: 54). Mobbing aims to prevent the victim from effective communication, to maintain good contact with his or her working environment, or to deprive the victim of any rewarding activity (professional or social). Mobbing hurts and destabilizes the victim who may lose self-confidence and feels intense low self-esteem. No research has been found portraying mobbing as organizational climate driver despite the atmosphere of muteness it can bring in working environment. To this end, Gül and Özcan (2011: 131) argued that mobbing can lead to organizational silence by being a muting factor for employees. Hence, mobbing perception in working environment may create a negative organizational climate.

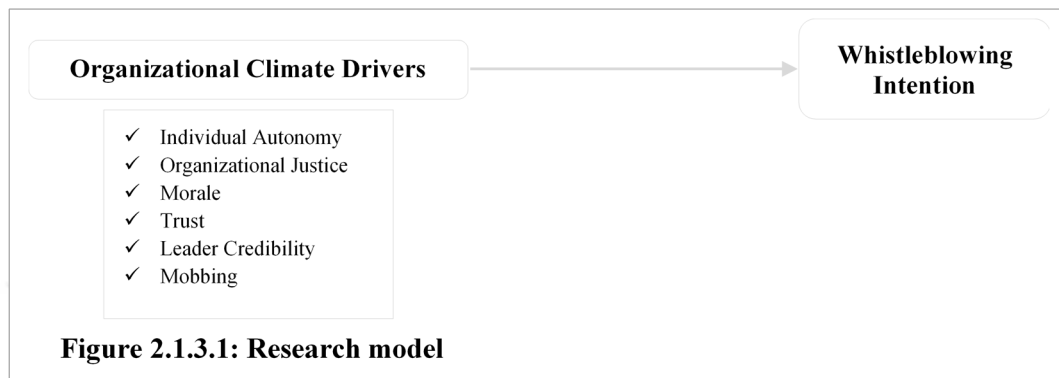
The above listed six variables have been used to assess the organizational climate in this research and their positive or negative effects have been also highlighted. Overall, these variables may play an important role in an employee's decision-making process, especially when it comes to report wrongdoings witnessed in working environment. Indeed, the perception of these variables in working environment seems to be key attributes in determining employee's decision making process to involve in whistleblowing.

2.1.3. Theoretical Model and Research Hypotheses

2.1.3.1. Theoretical Model

Since whistleblowing intention is often a dilemma, all factors perceived in the organizational environment that may influence employee psychology and cognition should probably be important drivers that shape this decision making process. Among the various social settings that may shape whistleblowing decision-making, only the effects of organizational climate drivers were considered. More specifically, individual autonomy, organizational justice, morale, leader credibility, mobbing and trust should be regarded in this research as key organizational climate variables

which influence the employee's decision-making process of blowing the whistle. The theoretical model associated to this relationship and showed in the figure below is sparked by the following basic question. Does the organizational climate influence whistleblowing intention?



2.1.3.2. Research Hypotheses

In the literature, there is obviously no empirical investigation that has already analyzed the impact of organizational climate on whistleblowing. However, Near et al. (1993: 204) have had the merit to come up with the first hypothesis underpinning this relationship. Indeed, they have posited that positive organizational climate fosters whistleblowing. More specifically, they have reported that “positive organizational climates may discourage serious wrongdoing and encourage whistleblowing under some conditions, but the relationship is not as straightforward as might be expected”. In essence, a positive organizational climate should motivate and encourage employees to unveil or blow the whistle on wrongdoings and malpractices witnessed in their working environment in order not to jeopardize organizational going concern as well as the sustainability of their own job.

Based on this rationale and the literature, a direct relationship was assumed between whistleblowing intention and organizational climate drivers which encompass in this study six factors including individual autonomy, organizational justice, morale, leader credibility, trust, and mobbing. To this end, the main hypothesis depicting this direct relationship is stated as follow and then split in six sub-hypotheses.

H₁: The organizational climate drivers affect whistleblowing intention.

H_{1A}: There is a positive relationship between individual autonomy and whistleblowing intention.

H_{1B}: There is a positive relationship between organizational justice and whistleblowing intention.

H_{1C}: There is a positive relationship between morale and whistleblowing intention.

H_{1D}: There is a positive relationship between trust and whistleblowing intention.

H_{1E}: There is a positive relationship between leader credibility and whistleblowing intention.

H_{1F}: There is a negative relationship between mobbing and whistleblowing intention.

2.2. ANALYSIS DESIGN

2.2.1. Review of Prior Analysis Approaches

Before exposing approaches and methods adopted for the analysis, the literature was examined to look at the techniques used in these kinds of studies. More precisely, the empirical works that addressed some aspects of the topic were investigated. The summary of this literature review is presented in the Table below. To test the theoretical models, most of these investigations refer to Exploratory Factor Analysis and regression/structural equation modelling (path analysis or confirmatory factor analysis).

Table 2.2.1: Summary of Some Quantitative Investigations

N°	Authors	Titles	Main conclusions	Model used	Indep. variables	Mediating variables	Dep. variables
1	Neal, Griffin and Hart (2000)	The Impact of Organizational Climate on Safety Climate and Individual Behavior	Organizational climate exerts a significant impact on safety climate, and safety climate in turn was related to safety performance (compliance and participation). The effect of safety climate on safety performance was partially mediated by safety knowledge and motivation.	Structural equation modeling	Organizational climate	Safety climate; Safety knowledge; Safety motivation.	Safety compliance; Safety participation
2	Rothwell & Baldwin (2007)	Whistle-Blowing and the Code of Silence in Police Agencies Policy and Structural Predictors	Policy mandating the reporting of misconduct and supervisory status are the most consistent predictors of whistleblowing.	Regression analysis	Number of sworn officers; Number of employee; Supervisor; Years at current agency; Investigative; Administrative; Professional; standards; Policy manual; Reporting Policy; Internal affairs Unit; Polygraph use.	-	Willingness to blow the whistle; Frequency of blowing the whistle
3	Ponnu Naidu, and Zamri (2008)	Determinants of Whistle Blowing	Whistleblowing intentions (internal and external) are significantly related to three determinants of planned behavior, including attitude towards whistleblowing; subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control.	Multiple Regression analysis	Attitude towards whistleblowing; Subjective norms; Perceived behavioral control; Position; Education; Experience; Department; Job satisfaction	-	Internal whistle-blowing intentions; External whistle-blowing intentions.

Nº	Authors	Titles	Main conclusions	Model used	Indep. variables	Mediating variables	Dep. variables
4	Colquitt and Rodell (2011)	Justice, Trust, and Trustworthiness: A Longitudinal Analysis Integrating Three Theoretical Perspectives	Justice leads to trust	Factor analysis and structural equation modeling	Ability, Benevolence, Integrity, Procedural justice, Distributive justice, Interpersonal justice, Informational justice	-	Trust
5	AL-Abr row and al. (2013)	The Relationship between Organizational Trust and Organizational Justice Components and Their Role in Job Involvement in Education	Organizational justice causes organizational trust and organizational trust in turn plays a mediating role between organizational justice and job involvement	Factor analysis and regression	Distributive justice; Procedural justice; Interactional justice.	-	Trust in organization; Trust in supervisor
6	Huang, Lo, & Wu (2013)	Ethical Climate and Whistle-Blowing: An Empirical Study of Taiwan's Construction Industry	More positive ethical climate in an organization leads to higher intentions of whistle-blowing of its members.	Factor analysis, hierarchical regression analysis	Ethical climate; Supervisory status; Years of service; Ethical education experience.	-	Whistleblowing intention
7	Seifert and al. (2014)	Trust, Organizational Justice, and Whistleblowing: A Research Note	Trust plays a mediating role in the connection between organizational justice and the likelihood of internal whistleblowing.	Factor analysis and structural equation modeling	Distributive justice; Procedural justice; Interactional justice.	Trust in organization; Trust in supervisor	Likelihood of Whistleblowing

Source: Created by the author

2.2.2. Methods of Analysis

To process the data collected, Exploratory Factor Analysis, and linear-regression analysis were utilized. Yet, the main statistical characteristics of the sample depicted before providing the relevance of these methods to the ongoing investigation.

2.2.2.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis is a statistical method used to reduce and synthesize a large number of observable variables into limited numbers of unobservable factors easy to understand and analyze (Yong & Pearce, 2013: 80). Factor analysis can be an exploratory analysis or a confirmatory analysis. The former aims to reveal the underlying structure of a relatively large set of variables while the latter intends to test the consistency of an existing structure or relationship. In this study, Exploratory Factor Analysis was run to test the validity of the items used to measure different constructs and to identify the possible existence of latent variables or underlying factors.

2.2.2.2. The Linear Regression Analysis

Priyadarshini and Babu (2012: 347) described regression analysis as one of the most popular statistical technique to investigate relationships between variables and explore which among the independent variables are significantly related to the dependent variable. Previous investigations (Table 2.2.1) examining organizational climate or whistleblowing referred to regression analysis or Structural Equation Modeling (specifically path analysis) to examine relationship (Seifert et al., 2014, Huang et al., 2013, Al-Abr row et al., 2013, Colquitt and Rodell, 2011, Ponnu et al., 2008, Rothwell and Baldwin, 2007, Neal et al., 2000). The linear regression was used to assess the empirical relationship between organizational climate drivers and whistleblowing intention.

2.3. DATA COLLECTION METHOD

2.3.1. Population

The ongoing investigation is an empirical research since it aims to assess the relationship between social phenomena based on evidences from real life in working

environment. More precisely, it tests hypotheses in order to confirm or reject the assumed relation between whistleblowing and organizational climate drivers. To this end, data were collected from employees working in international trade oriented corporations since it is possible to observe several wrongdoings and non-compliances with contractual commitments including failure with quality standards, delays and missed delivery deadlines, use of prohibited inputs in the production, trading of outdated items in underdeveloped countries, wage discriminations, etc. It is also the “perfect” place where people with different cultures sometimes conflicting interact.

Indeed, firms increasingly expand their businesses beyond national borders using various internationalization strategies ranging from exports to supply chains of transnational corporations. In fact, globalization has particularly fostered economic exchanges and fast development of international trade. Perceived as the greatest revolutions of modern times, globalization has steadily reduced cultural, sociological or economic barriers among peoples of different countries around the world.

It is worthwhile to emphasize that the export is the primary step of internationalization strategies. Indeed, exports refer to the sending of commodities out of a country in order to be sold in another country. The trading of the goods or services in the foreign countries may be performed through electronic distribution channels or physical sales force located in the receiving countries. Export is an important component of business competitiveness on international market and plays a key role in growth and economic development of countries. However, protectionist and trade-distorting policies may force companies to conquer new markets by involving in foreign direct investment through mergers or acquisitions of foreign companies. Internationalization strategies may also be driven by legal or technical constraints, demand specificities, or efficiency motives. In fact, a company reaches the ultimate stage of multinational corporations when it begins operating production units and develops strategies in different countries.

2.3.2. Sampling

The current investigation cannot be carried out comprehensively because it is quite impossible to gather the necessary resources in terms of time and money to

survey all the employees working in the Turkish international trade-oriented companies. It would be also very tedious to access the complete list of the companies to be studied since the population considered initially appears to be very large and would require significant amount of resources for a comprehensive investigation. For reasons of efficiency and the virtually impossibility to reach and examine all employees of these companies, an appropriate sample was extracted from the main population. Indeed, the survey focus on employees working in international trade oriented corporations operating in industrial areas of Ankara and Konya. As part of the study, a cross sectional survey was conducted by randomly distributing questionnaires to the targeted employees.

In a practical and concrete way, 90 companies that possess production units or warehouses in industrial areas of Ankara and Konya were randomly chosen. Then, these companies were contacted for scheduling appointments. Finally, 69 of the targeted companies that had accepted to provide the needed information on the basis of a questionnaire designed for this purpose were physically visited. From 615 distributed questionnaires, only 353 respondents answered favorably. Following the cleansing, incomplete and duplicated questionnaires as well as those with serious inconsistencies were dropped out. The filled questionnaires under the influence and guidance of management teams were also removed. Finally, it remains a total of 274 valid questionnaires used as the basis for the empirical analysis.

This size of the sample seems to be relevant for the six predictors' linear regression analysis since six independent variables were used as organizational climate drivers in this research. Indeed, VanVoorhis and Morgan (2007: 48) suggests at least fifty (50) participants for a correlation or regression analysis though there are more complex statistical methods to estimate the sampling size. For instance, Green (1991: 499) recommends $N > 50 + 8m$ (m is the number of independent variables in the model). As for this investigation, there are six independent variables in the theoretical model, which means that there is a need of at least 98 participants in the sample. In the current case, the number of valid answers is far higher than the minimum required ($274 > 98$).

2.3.3. Data Gathering

2.3.3.1. Data Instruments and Scales

A questionnaire structured in three sections was used. The first section included items related to the whistleblowing; the second section related to the measurement of organizational climate; and the last section focused on demographic characteristics of the respondents. The questionnaire used for this investigation was adapted from existing scales based on a thorough review of literature. The wording of some scale items has been refined to suit the context of this research. The items of the questionnaire have initially been phrased in English and later translated into the Turkish language. Though different levels of Likert-scales have been used in the literature, all the scales was harmonized to five-points (1= strongly disagree, 2 = partly disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = partly agree, 5 = strongly agree) with answers representing different levels of agreement for each item in order to minimize ambiguity for participants when responding. The rationales behind the selection of items to build the data instrument are discussed below.

2.3.3.1.1 Whistleblowing Measurements

Whistleblowing Intention is used as the dependent variable in the theoretical model. By delving into the literature, no sufficiently stable instrument to assess whistleblowing intention as it was previously reported by Huang et al. (2013: 685). Nevertheless, most of the available questionnaires focus on the types of whistleblowing. For instance, some scales only differentiate between internal and external whistleblowing (Huang et al., 2013: 685; Ponnu et al., 2008: 288). Yet, Gökçe (2013a: 1193) provided the most comprehensive instrument that has been used to develop 6 item-scales in order to capture various aspects of whistleblowing mainly including the types (internal versus external; identified versus anonymous; formal versus informal).

2.3.3.1.2. Organizational Climate Measures

Individual Autonomy: Several scales have been developed to assess individual autonomy, that is to say employee's autonomy in working environment. According to Sia and Appu (2015: 777), the well-validated and frequently used among them

probably appears to be the one designed by Breugh (1985: 373). This scale encompasses 9 items grouped into three dimensions, namely, work method autonomy, work scheduling autonomy and work criteria autonomy. The reliability and validity of this scale have been further established by various studies, that is to say, the scale is proved to be internally consistent and stable (Breugh, 1999: 368-371). Subsequently, the scale have been successfully used in several recent empirical investigations, including Langfred (2005: 518), Sia and Appu (2015: 777), and Denton and Kleiman (2001: 109). It also important to notice that this is a five-point Likert rating instrument ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Besides, the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) questionnaire based on a dichotomous measurement of individual job autonomy has also been used in the literature. Though the items are phrased as questions, the contents seem to be close to the Breugh's scale. The latter has been adopted with some modifications (rephrasing, deleting repetitive items) since it seems to be more comprehensive and structure. In this respect, 7 item-scales were retained as the measuring instrument for the individual autonomy in working environment.

Organizational Justice: Two major organizational justice assessment instruments have been found out. The first organizational justice measurement tool was developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993: 541) while the second which seems to be a rephrasing of the former was designed by Colquitt (2001: 389). Moreover, both scales display 20 items which are structured and organized in three main dimensions, including distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Yet, it is worthwhile to notice that Niehoff and Moorman's scale, which has been adopted in this research, is the most prominent in the literature and the most commonly used in empirical investigations. Despite this option, a questionnaire was redesigned in order to reduce the number of items from 20 to 9. In this vein, some of the items were assorted and rephrased and redundancies were also eliminated.

Morale: In this investigation morale is assessed with the scale developed by Hardy (2009: 268). The questionnaire was built based on the available literature. It is a 10 item-scale with short and comprehensive statements grouped into two groups, one related to high morale and the other associated to low morale. Yet, 5 item-scales related to only high morale were used for the need of the study as soon as the

opposite side could be easily inferred by the Likert rating scale. It is also important to notice that the high and low morale scales could be used independently or together as emphasized by Hardy (2009: 162); and it is upon to researchers to choose the most suitable option depending on the ongoing investigation.

Trust: The existing literature displays various available questionnaires to assess organizational trust. For instance, AL-Abrow, Ardakani, Harooni, and Moghaddam pour (2013: 33) built a 9-item organizational trust questionnaire based on the instruments developed by Scott (1981) while Schoorman et al. (2007: 348,352) use a 7-items scale provided by Schoorman and Ballinger (2006). Fard and Karimi (2015: 222) referred to 49 items scale developed by Ellonen, Blomqvist, and Puumalainen (2008: 167-170) which seems to be the most comprehensive and well-structured. These items were designed to assess trust in three main level, including trust between employees (lateral trust), trust in leader-employee relationships (vertical trust), as well as institutional trust. Obviously, the 49-items questionnaire should have been chosen to assess trust. However, a more holistic view was adopted to assess trust regardless of the different levels. This perspective has contributed to greatly reduce the number of items. It is also worthwhile to notice that some of the items are more pertained to the causes of trust rather than express trust itself. Somehow, these items are already used to measure some determinants of organizational climate, such as justice and credibility. In the light of the foregoing and along with the conceptualization of trust by Mayer et al. (1995), 10 item-scales strictly related to trust feeling in working environment were developed.

Leader Credibility: Leader Credibility has been measured with the scale-instrument including in the Feedback Environment Scale. As pointed out by Steelman, Levy, and Snell (2004: 166), this scale is related to “*the contextual aspects of day-to-day supervisor-subordinate and coworker-coworker feedback processes rather than to the formal performance appraisal feedback session*”. The 4 selected items derive from Steelman et al. (2004: 180) and highlight the source of credibility for supervisors.

Mobbing: There are several measuring instruments of mobbing available in the literature. Most scholars agree that these scales originated from the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terror (LIPT) which emerged early of 1990s (Aiello et

al., 2008: 13; Cowie, Naylor, Rivers, Smith, & Pereira, 2002: 38). The LIPT scale has been developed to measure psychological or psychical terror at workplace, including negative communication, humiliating behavior, isolating behavior, frequent changes of task to punish someone, and violence or threat of violence (Cowie et al., 2002: 38). In order to ease their assessment, Leymann (1996: 170) ascribed concise and adequate meanings to these retaliation practices. The negative communication is related to attacking a person's possibilities of communication such as employee silencing, verbal attacks, verbal threats, or verbal activities to reject employee. The isolating behavior consists to attacking a person's social relationships such as isolating employee or impeding colleague to interact with a targeted employee. The humiliating behavior refers to attacking a person's social reputation such as gossiping, directing ridiculous or fun critics toward the targeted employee's physical appearance, ethnical heritage, and so on. The employee punishing through frequent changes of task, depriving the targeted employee of tasks or provide the employee with meaningless activities. The violence or threat of violence refers to expose employee physical health at risk such as dangerous works tasks, physical attacks, sexual harassment, etc. Over time, the LIPT scale has undergone several modifications but without remarkable change in the original basis. Perhaps the most famous example is the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) developed by (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997: 91). For the purpose of this investigation, mobbing is assessed with an 8 item-scale by referring to the existing literature and the aforementioned instruments, namely the scales used in recent investigations by Hacicaferoğlu and Gündoğdu (2013: 53-54) and Aiello et al. (2008: 16-19). Nevertheless, it should be noted that no item related to the physical violence have been included in the scale since physical retaliations are concerned with bullying issue rather than mobbing. The latter is considered to be a psychological or psychical terror.

2.3.3.1.3. Demographic Characteristics

Twelve variables were designed to explore the background demographic characteristics of the respondents and the company they are working. The demographic questions are related to personal characteristics of the respondents such as gender, marital status, age, education level, working experience in current job,

work department, and occupied position within the organization. In addition to questions pertaining to individual characteristics, the participants were also asked five general questions about the company they are working for, including business sector, total workforce, operating life of the business, and legal status of the company. Along with these, a question was asked to check the effective involvement of the company in exports.

2.3.3.2. Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

In this research, the items used to measure the variables are selected from questionnaires available in the literature. The existing questionnaires used to develop the measuring instrument have already been applied in various empirical investigations. Though most of them have been proved reliable and valid, the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument for this research cannot be *de facto* asserted. Some of the items have also been rephrased to suit them to the ongoing research purpose.

The validity enables to be ensured that the measuring instrument truly assesses the phenomenon to be studied. Among the various techniques proposed to assess validity, triangulation methods seem to be the most prominent in the literature (Golafshani, 2003: 603). Nevertheless, the triangulation approaches have not actually been applied since the items included in the questionnaire are not new scales. Instead, the questionnaire is verified to be sure that it is truly compatible to the purpose of this investigation. To this end, the content of the measuring instrument was discussed with five experts in management field to be sure that they have the same understanding and comprehension of items used in the questionnaire. The comments and contributions that seemed relevant to improve the quality of the questionnaire have been considered before involving in data collection process.

The reliability enables to check the internal consistency of the results. The most used methods to assess reliability include the Spearman-Brown test, Kuder-Richardson, and the Cronbach alpha (Brown, 2002: 17). Since the latter is the most frequently encountered in the literature, it has been implemented in order to assess the reliability of the collected data.

After the pilot survey, the reliability was assessed on the basis of data collected from the first 45 respondents. The Cronbach alpha statistics at this stage were globally consistent, ranging from 0.66 to 0.95. So, the questionnaire is proven reliable and has then been used for the investigation.



CHAPTER 3: ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter is devoted to the findings derived from the analysis of the survey data by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The first section displays the preliminary statistics and analyses. The main characteristics of the sample, the Cronbach alpha coefficients as well as the outcomes of the Exploratory Factor Analysis have been examined. The second section tests the relationships between variables. And finally, the last section discusses the findings.

3.1. PRELIMINARY ANALYSES OF THE SURVEY DATA

The survey of this investigation has been carried out by giving opportunity to 615 employees working in Turkish international organizations to fill questionnaires, in which 274 have provided usable data (a response rate of 46%).

3.1.1. Demographic Profile of the Sample

The demographic settings enable to examine the characteristics of a sample and get overall insights on different subgroups that make up it. Both individual demographic characteristics (gender, marital status, age, department, education level, occupation and experience in current job) and surveyed companies' basic characteristics (business sector, total workforce, operating life of the business, and legal status of the company.) were examined.

As gender composition of the sample, the individuals surveyed are predominantly male. Most of the respondents were married and fell within 25-49 age categories which are obviously the relevant age group of active labor force. Education levels and experiences in current job of the respondents were quite scattered with frequency peaks for bachelor degree and 4-6 years of work experience. Most of the respondents are simple performers and operate in the department of production. The details related to individual demographics of the sample on frequency analysis basis have been presented in the table below.

Table 3.1.1.A: Respondents' Demographics

		Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	174	63.50
	Female	99	36.13
	Missing	1	.37
	Total	274	100.00
Marital Status	Married	164	59.85
	Single	75	27.37
	Missing	35	12.77
	Total	274	100.00
Age	Under 18	1	0.36
	18-24	24	8.76
	25-35	126	45.99
	36-49	94	34.31
	50-65	19	6.93
	Above 65	1	0.36
	Missing	9	3.28
	Total	274	100.00
Education	Primary School	7	2.5
	Junior Secondary School	21	7.66
	Senior High School	51	18.61
	Vocational high School	25	9.12
	Associate Degree	45	16.42
	Bachelor Degree	91	33.21
	Master Degree	25	9.12
	Ph.D.	1	0.36
	Missing	8	2.92
	Total	274	100.00
Experience in Current Job	Under 1 year	37	13.50
	1-3 years	52	18.98
	4-6 years	72	26.28
	7-9 years	50	18.25
	10-15 years	37	13.50
	16-20 years	12	4.38
	More than 20 years	10	3.65
	Missing	4	1.46
	Total	274	100.00

		Frequency	Percent (%)
Occupation	Owner / Partner	10	3.65
	CEO/Asst.	5	1.82
	Section or Unit Manager/Asst	45	16.42
	Supervisor/Foreman	44	16.06
	Worker/Performer	150	54.74
	Others	5	1.82
	Missing	15	5.47
	Total	274	100.00
Work Department	Purchase and sale	42	15.33
	Production	87	31.75
	Marketing	15	5.47
	Accounting and Finance	41	14.96
	Human Resources	4	1.46
	Foreign trade	3	1.09
	Support Staff	42	15.33
	Management	9	3.28
	Missing	31	11.31
	Total	274	100.00

The sample covers almost all sizes and types of businesses, from small to large corporations, with a frequency peak for companies employing 10-49 workers. The sample is built up with mostly respondents working in limited companies and incorporated companies though it also includes firms with other types of legal status. The majority of respondents work in companies older than 20 years. The business sectors of the surveyed companies are scattered with a frequency peak for construction industry. The details related to the surveyed companies' characteristics are distributed in the table below.

Table 3.1.1.B: Surveyed Companies' Basic Characteristics

		Frequency	Percent (%)
Total Workforce	Less than 10	40	14.60
	10-49	81	29.56
	50-99	54	19.71
	100-249	39	14.23
	250-499	40	14.60
	500-999	3	1.09
	1000-1999	4	1.46
	More than 2000	10	3.65

		Frequency	Percent (%)
	Missing	3	1.09
	Total	274	100.00
Operating Life of the Business	Under 1 year	7	2.55
	1-3 years	7	2.55
	4-6 years	7	2.55
	7-9 years	20	7.30
	10-15 years	39	14.23
	16-20 years	35	12.77
	More than 20 years	156	56.93
	Missing	3	1.09
	Total	274	100.00
Business Sector	Electricity and Energy	29	10.58
	Construction	63	22.99
	Automotive	21	7.66
	Food	40	14.60
	Textile	2	0.73
	Metal	32	11.68
	Machine	24	8.76
	Health	5	1.82
	Plastic	3	1.09
	Farm equipment	4	1.46
	Others	29	10.58
	Missing	22	8.03
	Total	274	100.00
Legal Status of the company	Partnership Company	2	0.73
	Limited Partnership Company	0	0.00
	Limited Company	130	47.45
	Incorporated company	124	45.26
	Cooperative	1	0.36
	Others	7	2.55
	Missing	10	3.65
	Total	274	100.00

3.1.2. Reliability Test

Cronbach's Alpha was used to test the reliability of organizational climate drivers and whistleblowing intention. The reliability results of the variables are globally relevant. Indeed, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients computed for each variable ranged from .82 to .95. The details of the Cronbach alpha coefficients are displayed in the Table 3.1.2.

Table 3.1.2: Cronbach's Alpha for the Variables

	Variables	Number of items	Mean	Std. Dev.	Cronbach's Alpha
Organizational Climate	Individual autonomy	7	3.024	1.107	.944
	Organizational justice	9	3.604	.865	.921
	Morale	5	3.642	.841	.870
	Trust	10	3.816	.884	.945
	Leader credibility	4	3.810	.898	.919
	Mobbing	8	1.614	.731	.889
Whistleblowing	Whistleblowing Intention	6	3.483	.938	.818

Likert scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.

Table 3.1.2 also displayed the mean values and the standard deviations of each variable. The whistleblowing intention shows an average value of 3.483 with standard deviation of .938. This induces that, in average, the likelihood of whistleblowing intention is high, that is the individuals of survey sample do have the will to sound the alarm when they witness a wrongdoing of a colleagues or supervisors in their working environment. The respondents also disclose not to have observed wrongdoings the last six months. Furthermore, the findings reveal an overall positive organizational climate. Indeed, all the drivers used to assess organizational climate in this study except mobbing have revealed an average score above 3 with low standard deviation (less than 1). The average score related to mobbing is 1.614 with standard deviation of .731, meaning that mobbing is not perceptible as retaliating actions in the surveyed companies. Since mobbing copes with an inverse effect in positive climate, the low score of mobbing should be consistent with a positive organization climate.

3.1.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Principal component analysis using Varimax method along with Kaiser Normalization is run to determine the factor structure and assess scale validity. The data proceedings have issued only significant correlation coefficients and there is no correlation coefficient higher than 0.9. To this end, no item was dropped out because of multicollinearity problem within the items.

The determinant coefficients (D), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett tests (χ^2) were found significant for each variable, revealing that the sample is

suitable for principal component analysis and data are normally distributed. The KMO statistic assesses the sampling adequacy and indicates whether component or Exploratory Factor Analysis will be suitable. The rule of thumb related to KMO value required at least 0.5 though a value around 0.8 can be considered as a good indicator of the sampling adequacy. The Bartlett's test of sphericity is a test of homogeneity to measure the validity and suitability of the data collected to address the issue to be investigated as well as the normal distribution of the population to study. The outputs associated to determinant coefficients (D), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett tests (χ^2) are all significant, indicating that the correlation matrix is non-singular and the data are consistent for Exploratory Factor Analysis. The table below summarized the deriving key indicators.

Table 3.1.3.A: Summary of key Indicators underpinning Principal Component Analysis

Variables	Determinant Coefficients	KMO statistic	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
Whistleblowing Intention	.156	.797	416.934 (p<.000)
Individual autonomy	.002	.915	1690 (p<.000)
Organizational justice	.002	.901	1638 (p<.000)
Morale	.086	.826	649.513 (p<.000)
Trust	.000	.941	2132 (p<.000)
Leader credibility	.051	.842	805.194 (p<.000)
Mobbing	.012	.901	1177 (p<.000)

The principal component analysis revealed only a single factor for each variable, whether dependent or independent. Accordingly, it can be assumed that the items used to assess each variable converged to the same measuring instrument; that is the item-scales are valid and aim to measure the same construct in each case. As for the continuation of the analysis, the resulting factors have been labelled with the related variable identifier. Their scores have been computed with Anderson-Rubin method and stored in the data base for the following analyses. The outputs from the principal component analysis have been displayed in table below.

Table 3.1.3.B: Exploratory Factor Analysis Outputs

Items	Component Whistleblowing Intention
I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate authorities by disclosing my identity.	.865
I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate person outside the organization if there is no successful action to stop the wrongdoing after blowing the whistle internally.	.793
I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate authorities by using official procedures.	.754
I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate authorities outside the organization.	.693
I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate person inside the organization.	.622
I keep quiet and I don't report the wrongdoing.	.444
D=.156>.00001; KMO=.797>.5; $\chi^2=417$ (p<.000); Total variance explained= %50.154; $\alpha= .818$.	

Items	Component Individual Autonomy
I freely achieve my work program.	.908
I have control over the scheduling of my work	.879
I can modify the normal way of evaluation in my job.	.876
I am able to choose the procedures to go about my job.	.862
I am able to modify what my job objectives are.	.862
I can emphasize some aspects of my job while playing down others.	.858
I am allowed to choose the suitable method to perform my job.	.814
D=.002>.00001; KMO=.915>.5; $\chi^2= 1690$ (p<.000); Total variance explained=74.997 %; $\alpha= .944$.	

Items	Component Organizational Justice
The decision making process in the organization is fair, reasonable and appropriate.	.865
All work decisions are applied consistently to all organization members.	.842
In the organization, management makes impartial and objective decisions.	.817
My work Schedule is quite fair compared to those of my colleagues.	.806
My work load is quite fair compared to those of my colleagues.	.786
In the organization, decisions are made based on accurate and complete information.	.769
Any new decision is clearly explained to all organization members.	.765
My supervisors treat me with respect and dignity when making work decisions.	.718
My level of pay is quite fair compared to those of my colleagues.	.701
D=.002>.00001; KMO=.901>.5; $\chi^2=1638$ (p<.000); Total variance explained=%61.930; $\alpha=.921$.	

Items	Component Morale
I feel comfortable at work.	.849
I am cheerful at work.	.842
I feel lots of energy at work.	.824
I look forward to going to work.	.785
My job is interesting.	.761
D=.086>.00001; KMO=.826>.5; $\chi^2=650$ (p<.000); Total variance explained=%66.084; $\alpha=.870$.	

Items	Component Trust
Integrity is a key value shared by all organization members.	.856
The organization members are benevolent.	.855
In general, most organization members keep their promises.	.854
I feel comfortable to rely on my supervisors.	.854
I can openly discuss work policy with my colleagues.	.844
I feel comfortable to rely on my colleagues.	.837
The organization members are honest.	.831
Rules and procedures applicable in organization are reliable and credible.	.825
I can openly discuss work policy with my supervisors.	.768
I can openly express views about what is wrong in the organization without being troubled.	.694
D=.000>.00001; KMO=.941>.5; $\chi^2=2132$ (p<.000); Total variance explained=%67.766; $\alpha=.945$.	

Items	Component Leader Credibility
I have confidence in the feedbacks, advices and suggestions my supervisors give me.	.915
With respect to job performance feedback, I usually trust my supervisor.	.911
My supervisor is fair when evaluating my work performance.	.899
In general, I respect my supervisors' opinions about my work performance.	.864
D=.051>.00001; KMO=.842>.5; $\chi^2=805$ (p<.000); Total variance explained=80.573%; $\alpha=.919$.	

Items	Component Mobbing
I feel like I am usually targeted by harsh remonstrance or humiliating remarks (mockery, verbal abuses, etc.)	.843
Unfounded rumors often circulate about me.	.835
I have the impression that my career is deliberately hampered by management.	.817
My opinions are constantly criticized in the organization.	.812
I have the impression that no one listens to me in the organization.	.795
I have hostile or unfriendly relationship with my colleagues.	.772
I feel to be a "scapegoat" in the organization.	.734
I am excluded from informal gatherings in the organization.	.480
D=.012>.00001; KMO=.901>.5; $\chi^2=1177$ (p<.000); Total variance explained=59.164%; $\alpha=.889$.	

3.2. STATISTICAL TESTS OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIABLES

In this section, the output of the statistical tests (correlation and linear regression) used to analyze the relationships between variables have been presented and the theoretical hypotheses have been examined in order to confirm or rebut them.

3.2.1. Correlation and Multicollinearity Analysis

Before moving to regression analysis, the Pearson's correlation coefficients between the predictors have been computed and displayed in Table 3.2.1.A. Though the resulting coefficients are all significant, they globally display relatively moderate values assuming low association between independent variables. As expecting, these coefficients are all positive excepting those depicting the association between mobbing and other predictors. These findings confirm the opposite effect of mobbing on organizational climate compare to other drivers (individual autonomy, organizational justice, morale, leader credibility, and trust). In this respect it is clear that mobbing have a reversal effect on organizational climate. Indeed, a highly mobbing perceived in working environment worsens the work atmosphere and paves the way to the deterioration of the organizational climate.

Table 3.2.1.A: Summary of Pearson's Correlations

	Individual Autonomy	Organizational Justice	Morale	Trust	Leader Credibility	Mobbing
Individual Autonomy	1.000					
Organizational Justice	.177** (.003)	1.000				
Morale	.216** (.000)	.669** (.000)	1.000			
Trust	.244** (.000)	.696** (.000)	.655** (.000)	1.000		
Leader Credibility	.119** (.049)	.617** (.000)	.614** (.000)	.706** (.000)	1.000	
Mobbing	-.090 (.138)	-.492** (.000)	-.461** (.000)	-.520** (.000)	-.514** (.000)	1.000

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed); ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Since correlations analysis is not sufficiently strong to carry out multicollinearity analysis, alternative methods such as Variance Inflation Factor and Eigen System Analysis of Correlation Matrix are available in the literature. To this end, the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) to test the multicollinearity between the main independent variables (individual autonomy, organizational justice, morale, leader credibility and mobbing) have also been computed since O'Brien (2007: 673) emphasized that it is the widely used measures to check the degree of multicollinearity in a regression model. The level of VIF usually accepted in the academic world ranges from 1 to 10 (Marquardt, 1970: 610; Stine, 1995: 54), that is a minimum 10% of tolerance (VIF is reciprocal value of tolerance coefficient). The VIF outputs presented in Table 3.2.1.B display values varying between 1.083 and 2.822, meaning that there is no significant multicollinearity symptom affecting the independent variables used in this investigation.

Table 3.2.1.B: Variance Inflation Factors

Independent Variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Individual Autonomy	.923	1.083
Organizational Justice	.419	2.385
Morale	.455	2.200
Trust	.354	2.822
Leader Credibility	.431	2.319
Mobbing	.664	1.507

3.2.2. Regression Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

Table 3.2.2.A presents the regression outputs related to the linear association between organizational climate drivers and whistleblowing intention.

Table 3.2.2.A: Regression outputs using Whistleblowing Intention as Dependent Variable

	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	t	Sig.
	B	Std Error	Beta		
(Constant)	-1.627×10 ¹⁷ **	.057	-	.000	1.000
Individual autonomy	.138*	.060	.138	2.295	.023
Organizational justice	-.062	.089	-.062	-.699	.485
Morale	.017	.086	.017	.204	.839
Trust	.229*	.097	.229	2.364	.019
Leader credibility	-.123	.088	-.123	-1.404	.161
Mobbing	-.212**	.071	-.212	-2.996	.003

* p< .05; **p< .01; R²= .115; F=5.778 (p=.000); Durbin-Watson=1.690; df -Regression=6; df-Residual=267.

The F-value (F=5.778; P=.000) is significant at 1% level. This shows that the proposed relation between the whistleblowing intention and organizational climate drivers is overall significantly reliable. At least, one of the organizational climate drivers used as predictors in the model explains the whistleblowing intention, the dependent variable. Overall, three out of the six predictors are non-zero coefficients according to the t-test outputs and the related sub-hypotheses are proven valid; the remaining three having been statistically rejected. Therefore, the main hypothesis (H₁) of this investigation is supported; i.e. the organizational climate drivers affect whistleblowing intention. The concluding decisions of the hypotheses are summarized in the table 3.2.2.B.

Table 3.2.2.B: Hypotheses and Test Results

Hypotheses		Test Results
H ₁	The organizational climate drivers affect whistleblowing intention.	Supported
H _{1A}	There is a positive relationship between individual autonomy and whistleblowing intention.	Supported
H _{1B}	There is a positive relationship between organizational justice and whistleblowing intention.	Not Supported
H _{1C}	There is a positive relationship between morale and whistleblowing intention.	Not Supported
H _{1D}	There is a positive relationship between trust and whistleblowing intention.	Supported
H _{1E}	There is a positive relationship between leader credibility and whistleblowing intention.	Not Supported
H _{1F}	There is a negative relationship between mobbing whistleblowing intention.	Supported

According to the regression outputs, individual autonomy and trust display significant and positive regression slope coefficients at 5% level. It follows that individual autonomy and trust are positively associated with whistleblowing intention. It can then be inferred that a higher level of individual autonomy of an employee combined with a trustful working environment create a strong whistleblowing intention. Hence, the sub-hypotheses H_{1A} and H_{1D} are proven valid. Indeed, the statistical analyses confirm a positive relationship between individual autonomy and whistleblowing intention (H_{1A}); and a positive relationship between trust and whistleblowing intention (H_{1D}).

The coefficient related to mobbing is negative and significant at 1% level. This confirms that a higher level of mobbing in working environment is inversely associated with whistleblowing intention. In essence, a high perception of mobbing in the workplace decreases the likelihood of blowing the whistle and consequently prevents employees to report witnessed wrongdoings. Therefore, the sub-hypothesis H_{1F} is proven valid, i.e. there is a negative relationship between mobbing and whistleblowing intention (H_{1F}).

In contrary, the slope coefficients associated to the three remaining predictors are not statistically significant. Indeed, the outputs display no statistically significant slope coefficients for organizational justice, morale, and leader credibility. This reveals the lack of association between these independent variables and whistleblowing intention. Therefore, the expected effects of these organizational climate drivers (organizational justice, morale, and leader credibility) on whistleblowing intention have not statistically been confirmed in this case. Based on the forgoing, the hypotheses H_{1B} , H_{1C} , and H_{1E} are rejected.

Furthermore, the coefficient of determination for this regression is $R^2 = 0.115$. This represents the proportion of the variance explained by the model. It is the proportion of the variability in the response that is fitted by the model. It means that the predictors that are statistical significant in the model, i.e. individual autonomy, trust, and mobbing, explain 11.5% of the data around the mean value of whistleblowing intention in this empirical analysis.

3.3. DISCUSSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The goal of this investigation was to analyze the effects of organizational climate drivers (individual autonomy, organizational justice, morale, trust, leader credibility, and mobbing) on whistleblowing intention. After conducting various statistical analysis procedures, the findings have critically been discussed in the light of the extant literature and the limitations of the ongoing investigation have been highlighted.

3.3.1. Discussions

As depicted through the statistical scores computed, the empirical results reveal a globally positive organizational climate with employees showing a high level of motivation for blowing the whistle on wrongdoings. The statistically significant relationship between whistleblowing intention and three of the predicting variables supports the theoretical hypothesis posited by (Near et al., 1993: 204). Indeed, a high level of employees' autonomy and trustful working environment appear as positive organizational climate attributes which encourage them to unveil or blow the whistle on wrongdoings and malpractices that could jeopardize organizational going concern as well as the sustainability jobs. This is also substantiated by Seifert et al. (2014:

157) when emphasizing that trust to supervisor and to organization are key factors that mediate the relationship between organizational justice and the likelihood of whistleblowing.

The surveyed employees have also revealed a low level of mobbing which have then displayed a negative significant relationship with whistleblowing intention. This low level of mobbing seems to be an important signal of protection against moral retaliations that may pave the way to free reporting of wrongdoings and malpractices in the working environment. This is in line with Rothschild (2013: 898) when assuming that the relationship between whistleblowing judgment and whistleblowing intention is moderated by the fear of retaliations, the status of the wrongdoer, the perceived organizational support and the tolerance for dissent within the organization. It is also consistent with the fact that the perception of retaliation in a working environment leads to an increasing widespread of fear which ultimately reduces the likelihood of whistleblowing (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran 2005: 280; Near & Miceli 1996: 523; Parmerlee et al., 1982: 30).

In contrary, organizational justice, morale and leader credibility which were expected to be positive drivers of organizational climate display no consistent relationship with whistleblowing intention as shown in the regression outputs. Hence, it can be surmised that these organizational climate drivers could not be decisive in the decision making of the employees to sound the alarm or blow the whistle. It is then clear that organizational justice, morale and leader credibility are not playing a major role as positive organizational climate drivers in fostering whistleblowing intention in this empirical investigation. These findings are not in line with the assumption put forward by Seifert et al. (2010: 714) when emphasizing that the organizational justice increases the likelihood of whistleblowing.

3.3.2. Limitations of the Findings

As with all human endeavors, this research has some limitation inherent to the methodological orientation chosen. In this respect, three main points have been identified as potential limitations for the reliability and validity of the empirical findings. These include the restriction of the factors selected as predictors of whistleblowing intention, the sampling, and the statistical analysis methods.

Organizational climate is a broad and multidimensional construct that has been measured in many different ways with various factors that go far beyond the restricted six drivers used in the scope of this study. For instance, Litwin and Stringer (1968) referred to dimensions such structure, responsibility, warmth, support, rewards, conflicts, standards, identity, and risk to assess organizational climate but Schneider (1990) urged on the confusion between organizational climate and culture when relying on these patterns. Burton et al. (2004: 70) referred to trust, morale, rewards equitability, leader credibility, conflict, scapegoating, and resistance to change. Organizational climate has also assessed using variables such as individual autonomy, organizational justice, esprit (the spirit of unity), and consideration or through psychological measures such as disengagement, hindrance, intimacy, and aloofness. Furthermore, the consideration of the legal arrangements of whistleblowing protection could also be an important predictor of whistleblowing decision-making.

The limitation related to the sampling is threefold. Firstly, this investigation has referred to only international trade oriented organizations though it could have been extended to all types of trade organizations whether international trade oriented or not. Indeed, wrongdoings can be encountered in every organization and whistleblowers may face the same dilemma to expose them. Secondly, the number of respondents could have been extended beyond the sample size reached in order to increase the validity of the statistical outputs and generalization of the findings. Thirdly, direct interview should have been used as a good alternative to gather more relevant data on the real motives, thorough and detailed information about the issue.

The linear regression technique was used to analyze the statistical relationships between organizational climate drivers and whistleblowing intention. Though this technique is a valuable statistical tool to measure and estimate the relationship between a dependent variable and its predictors, it lacks power to reveal causation or underlying causal mechanism in statistical associations. Yet, it is possible to use in future research a more comprehensive technique such as path analysis to test a potential causal relationship.

CONCLUSION

This study investigates the empirical relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing based on the theoretical hypothesis posited by Near et al. (1993: 204) and that has remained without empirical testing till now. Although all the six organizational climate drivers do not display significant coefficients in the regression analysis, three of them including individual autonomy, trust, and mobbing are statistically strongly connected to whistleblowing intention. More specifically, individually autonomy and trust are positively contributing to whistleblowing intention while mobbing has a negative effect on it. These findings are consistent with the theoretical hypothesis. However, the other predictors including organizational justice, morale, and leader credibility show no significant connection with the whistleblowing intention.

Overall, the findings have advanced the knowledge about the connection between organizational climate drivers and the whistleblowing intention though the statistical outputs do not fully support the hypotheses and the existing literature. First, this investigation has helped revealing three organizational climate variables that are very sensitive to the whistleblowing intention. Indeed, individual autonomy, trust, and mobbing appear as important variables which management team can leverage to improve the quality of governance corporate through whistleblowing actions. Thus, managers could efficiently manipulate these variables in order to increase whistleblowing to maintain high level of corporate governance. In essence, managers should enhance individual autonomy through employee empowerment strategies as well as developing trustful working environment in order to create favorable condition for whistleblowing.

To increase their ability for whistleblowing, employees should also improve their sense of autonomy at work and reduce destructive behavior of confidence in the working environment. Both management team and employees should also avoid psychological violence and retaliating actions or practices in the working environment in order to prevent the spread of fear and panic which usually impede determination and willingness to blow the whistle on wrongdoings and malpractices. It is also worthwhile to notice that the lack of wrongdoings reporting undermines good corporate governance and paves the way to bankruptcies which subsequently

jeopardizes the going concern and jobs. In this respect, all the stakeholders especially employees should contribute to maintain positive organizational climate to ease whistleblowing decision-making.

Second, the research contributes to dispel out existing confusions between whistleblowing and some related expressions such as alert, denunciation and denouncement. The dissimilarities and ambiguities between these concepts were clarified. This enables to better delineate whistleblowing as a measurable construct and avoid adopting a polysemic approach in this investigation.

Third, a unique questionnaire to assess the relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing was developed by relying on valid and reliable scales available in the extant literature. The empirical implementation of the measuring instrument combined with the statistical tests has revealed the reliability and the validity of the questionnaire as a good device to capture the relationship between organizational climate and whistleblowing.

Despite the theoretical and empirical contributions raised in this investigation, it is worthwhile to emphasize that whistleblowing decision-making is a complex issue that could not be predicted only by organizational climate drivers. Indeed, other relevant factors such as religious issues, the national culture and the level of whistleblower's protection may also be integrated as predicting variables in order to provide a holistic framework for better analysis of whistleblowing decision making process. Moreover, psychological climate variables could usefully replace organizational climate drivers in order to put emphasis on individual features of each employee instead of the overall climate of the organization.

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Dear Participant,

This questionnaire aims to examine the effects of organizational climate on employee whistleblowing intention. Your answers will be only used for scientific purposes. Any information identifying the respondents will not be disclosed. Thank you for your time and cooperation in completing this questionnaire.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire (English)

Whenever you get aware of wrongdoings in your organization to what extent the following items best describe your reaction? (1= Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree).

1	I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate person inside the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate authorities outside the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate person outside the organization if there is no successful action to stop the wrongdoing after blowing the whistle internally.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate authorities by disclosing my identity.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	I report the wrongdoing to the appropriate authorities by using official procedures.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	I keep quiet and I don't report the wrongdoing.	①	②	③	④	⑤

To what extent do you agree with the following items describing your organizational climate? (1= Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree).

Individual autonomy						
1	I am allowed to choose the suitable method to perform my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	I am able to choose the procedures to go about my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	I have control over the scheduling of my work.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	I freely achieve my work program.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	I can modify the normal way of evaluation in my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	I can emphasize some aspects of my job while playing down others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	I am able to modify what my job objectives are.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Organizational Justice						
1	In the organization, decisions are made based on accurate and complete information.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	The decision making process in the organization is fair, reasonable and appropriate.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	In the organization, management makes impartial and objective decisions.	①	②	③	④	⑤

4	Any new decision is clearly explained to all organization members.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	All work decisions are applied consistently to all organization members.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	My work Schedule is quite fair compared to those of my colleagues.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	My work load is quite fair compared to those of my colleagues.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	My supervisors treat me with respect and dignity when making work decisions.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	My level of pay is quite fair compared to those of my colleagues.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Morale						
1	I look forward to going to work.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	I am cheerful at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	I feel comfortable at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	My job is interesting.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	I feel lots of energy at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Trust						
1	The organization members are honest.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	The organization members are benevolent.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Rules and procedures applicable in organization are reliable and credible.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Integrity is a key value shared by all organization members.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	In general, most organization members keep their promises.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	I feel comfortable to rely on my colleagues.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	I can openly discuss work policy with my colleagues.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	I feel comfortable to rely on my supervisors.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	I can openly discuss work policy with my supervisors.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	I can openly express views about what is wrong in the organization without being troubled.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Leader Credibility						
1	In general, I respect my supervisors' opinions about my work performance.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	My supervisor is fair when evaluating my work performance.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	I have confidence in the feedbacks, advices and suggestions my supervisors give me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	With respect to job performance feedback, I usually trust my supervisor.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Mobbing						
1	I have hostile or unfriendly relationship with my colleagues.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	Unfounded rumors often circulate about me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	I am excluded from informal gatherings in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	I feel to be a "scapegoat" in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	I feel like I am usually targeted by harsh remonstrance or humiliating remarks (mockery, verbal abuses, etc.)	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	My opinions are constantly criticized in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	I have the impression that no one listens to me in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	I have the impression that my career is deliberately hampered by management.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Overall organizational climate perception						
1	I am cheerful with the work atmosphere prevailing in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	In general I am satisfied with my work environment.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Everything is in harmony in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Good working climate exists in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	Good working relationships exist in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤

What is your gender?	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female	What is your marital status?	<input type="checkbox"/> Married <input type="checkbox"/> Single
What is your Age?	<input type="checkbox"/> Under 18 <input type="checkbox"/> 50-65	<input type="checkbox"/> 18-24 <input type="checkbox"/> Above 65	<input type="checkbox"/> 25-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-49
What is your education level?	<input type="checkbox"/> Primary school <input type="checkbox"/> Senior High School <input type="checkbox"/> Associate Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master degree	<input type="checkbox"/> Junior Secondary School <input type="checkbox"/> Vocational high School <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Ph.D.	
How many years have you spent working in this organization?			
<input type="checkbox"/> Under 1 year <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 <input type="checkbox"/> 7-9 <input type="checkbox"/> 10-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> More than 20 years			
Your work department (Please specify):			
Is your business also carrying out exports?		<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
What is your current position?	<input type="checkbox"/> Owner/Partner <input type="checkbox"/> Section or Unit Manager/Ass <input type="checkbox"/> Worker/Performer	<input type="checkbox"/> CEO/Asst. <input type="checkbox"/> Supervisor / Foreman <input type="checkbox"/> Other:	
For how long your Business has been operating?			
<input type="checkbox"/> Under 1 year <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 <input type="checkbox"/> 7-9 <input type="checkbox"/> 10-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> More than 20 years			
Number of employees?	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 10 <input type="checkbox"/> 250-499	<input type="checkbox"/> 10-49 <input type="checkbox"/> 500-999	<input type="checkbox"/> 50-99 <input type="checkbox"/> 1000-1999 <input type="checkbox"/> More than 2000
Your organization sector? (Please specify):			
The legal status of the organization?	<input type="checkbox"/> Partnership Company <input type="checkbox"/> Limited Company <input type="checkbox"/> Cooperative	<input type="checkbox"/> Limited Partnership Companies <input type="checkbox"/> Incorporated company <input type="checkbox"/> Other:	

Once again, thank you for your time and cooperation

Appendix 2: Questionnaire (Turkish)

Değerli Katılımcı;

Bu Anket, işletmede örgütsel iklim ile Whistleblowing (haber dar etme) arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz cevaplar genel değerlendirmelerde bilimsel amaçlı kullanılacak olup kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır. Görüş ve düşüncelerinizi içtenlikle paylaşarak katkı sağladığınız ve değer kattığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

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Olumsuz veya hatalı davranışa tanık olduğunuzda genelde nasıl hareket edersiniz? Buna ilişkin ifadeler ne düzeyde katılmaktasınız? (1 = Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 2 = Katılmıyorum, 3 = Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum, 4 = Katılıyorum, 5 = Kesinlikle katılıyorum)						
1	Gördüğüm olumsuz veya hatalı davranışı derhal işletme içindeki ilgili kişiye bildiririm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	Gördüğüm olumsuz veya hatalı davranışı derhal işletme dışındaki ilgili mercilere bildiririm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Gördüğüm olumsuz veya hatalı davranışı işletme içindeki ilgili kişiye bildirdiğim halde gerekenin yapılmaması durumunda işletme dışındaki ilgili mercilere bildiririm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Gördüğüm olumsuz veya hatalı davranışı ilgili mercilere kendi ismimi gizlemeden, açıkça belirterek bildiririm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	Gördüğüm olumsuz veya hatalı davranışı resmi yollardan ilgili mercilere dilekçe vererek bildiririm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	Gördüğüm olumsuz veya hatalı davranışı bildirmem, görmezden gelirim veya sessiz kalırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Örgütsel İklım ile ilgili aşağıdaki ifadeler ne düzeyde katılmaktasınız? 1 = Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 2 = Katılmıyorum, 3 = Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum, 4 = Katılıyorum, 5 = Kesinlikle katılıyorum						
Bireysel Özerklik						
1	İşimi yaparken hangi yöntemi kullanacağımı kendim belirlemekteyim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	İşimi yaparken hangi prosedürleri takip edeceğime kendim karar vermekteyim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Haftalık çalışma takvimimin nasıl olacağını kendim belirlemekteyim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Yapılacak işlerin planlamasını kendim bağımsız olarak yaparım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	İşimin değerlendirmesinin nasıl yapılacağına kendim karar vermekteyim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	İşimi yaparken hangi işlere daha fazla öncelik verilmesi gerektiğine kendim karar verebilmekteyim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	İşimi yaparken iş hedeflerini kendim belirlemekteyim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Örgütsel Adalet						
1	İşletmemizde yöneticiler işle ilgili kararları vermeden önce doğru ve eksiksiz bilgiler toplarlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	İşletmemizde takip edilen işle ilgili karar alma süreci (prosedürü) adildir, mantıklıdır ve uygundur.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	İşletmemizde yöneticiler yansız ve tarafsız bir şekilde kararlar alırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	İşletmemizde yöneticiler işle ilgili alınan kararları tüm çalışanlara açıklarlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤

5	İşle ilgili alınan kararlar ayırım gözetmeksizin tüm çalışanlara uygulanır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	Aynı veya benzer işi yapan diğer iş arkadaşlarımla kıyasladığımda çalışma programımın adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	Aynı veya benzer işi yapan diğer iş arkadaşlarımla kıyasladığımda iş yükümün adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	İşimle ilgili kararlarımda yöneticilerim bana saygılı davranır ve önem verirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	Aynı veya benzer işi yapan diğer iş arkadaşlarımla kıyasladığımda aldığım ücretin adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Morale						
1	Her gün işime gitmek için genelde sabırsızlanırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	İş yerinde genelde neşeliyimdir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	İş yerinde kendimi genelde rahat hissedirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	İşim ilgi çekicidir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	İş yerinde kendimi genelde çok enerjik hissedirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Güven						
1	İşletmemizde çalışanlar dürüsttür.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	İşletmemizde çalışanlar yardımseverdir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	İşletmemizde uygulanan kurallar ve prosedürler güvenilirdir ve inandırıcıdır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Dürüstlük tüm işletme çalışanları tarafından paylaşılan önemli bir değerdir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	İşletmemizde çalışanlar genellikle sözlerini tutmaktadır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	İş arkadaşlarıma güvenirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	İş arkadaşlarımla çalışma kurallarını açıkça tartışabilirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	Yöneticilerime güvenirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	Yöneticilerim ile çalışma kurallarını açıkça tartışabilirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	İşletmede yanlış veya hatalı olan davranışları endişelenmeden, açık yüreklilikle söyleyebilirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Lider Güvenilirliği						
1	Genelde, işteki performansım hakkında yöneticimin görüşlerini dikkate alırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	İş performansımın değerlendirmesinde yöneticilerim adil davranırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Yöneticilerimin yapmış oldukları geribildirimlere, verdikleri tavsiyelere ve önerilere güvenirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	İş performansıma dair yaptıkları geribildirimlerde genelde yöneticilerime güvenirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Mobbing						
1	İş arkadaşlarımla birbirimize düşmanlık besleyen bir ilişkimiz vardır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	İşletmede genellikle hakkımda asılsız dedikodular üretilir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	İşletmede düzenlenen organizasyonlara davet edilmiyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	İşletmede kendimi "günah keçisi" gibi hissediyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	İşyerimde yüksek sesle azarlanırım ve onur kırıcı sözlere (argo kelimeler, küfür, vb.) maruz kalırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	Yaptığım işler sürekli hak etmediğim şekilde değerlendirilir ve sürekli eleştirilir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	İşyerimde sanki orada ben yokmuşum gibi davranılır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	Bu işletmedeki geleceğimin ve kariyerimin kasıtlı olarak engellendiğine dair genel bir izlenimim var.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Genel örgüt iklimin algısı						
1	İşletmemizin iş ortamından haz almaktayım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	Genel olarak işletmemizdeki çalışma ortamından çok memnunum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	İşletmemizde genelde her şey uyum içindedir.	①	②	③	④	⑤

4	İşletmemizde iyi bir çalışma ortamı vardır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	İşletmemizde iyi bir iş ilişkileri ortamı vardır.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Cinsiyetiniz?	<input type="checkbox"/> Erkek <input type="checkbox"/> Kadın	Medeni Durumunuz?		<input type="checkbox"/> Evli <input type="checkbox"/> Bekâr
Yaşınız?	<input type="checkbox"/> 18 yaş altı <input type="checkbox"/> 50-65	<input type="checkbox"/> 18-24 <input type="checkbox"/> 65 yaş üstü	<input type="checkbox"/> 25-35	<input type="checkbox"/> 36-49
Eğitim Durumunuz?	<input type="checkbox"/> ilkokul <input type="checkbox"/> Ön lisans	<input type="checkbox"/> Ortaokul <input type="checkbox"/> Lisans	<input type="checkbox"/> Lise <input type="checkbox"/> Yüksek Lisans	<input type="checkbox"/> Meslek Lisesi <input type="checkbox"/> Doktora
Bu işletmede kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız?				
<input type="checkbox"/> 1 yıldan az <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 <input type="checkbox"/> 7-9 <input type="checkbox"/> 10-15 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 20 yıl üzeri				
Çalıştığınız bölüm (belirtiniz):				
İşletmeniz ürettiğiniz malların yurtdışına ihracatını da yapmakta mıdır?				
<input type="checkbox"/> Evet, ihracat yapılmaktadır <input type="checkbox"/> Hayır, ihracat yapılmamaktadır				
İşletmedeki konumunuz	<input type="checkbox"/> Firma Sahibi/Ortağı <input type="checkbox"/> Bölüm veya Birim Müdürü / Müdür Yrd. <input type="checkbox"/> İş gören/Çalışan	<input type="checkbox"/> Genel Müdür/Genel Müdür Yrd.	<input type="checkbox"/> Şef/Süpervizör/Formen/Ustabaşı	<input type="checkbox"/> Diğer (belirtiniz):
İşletmeniz kaç yıldır faaliyet göstermektedir?	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 yıldan az <input type="checkbox"/> 10-15	<input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 <input type="checkbox"/> 16-20	<input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 <input type="checkbox"/> 20 yıl üzeri	<input type="checkbox"/> 7-9
İşletmeniz toplam personel sayısı?	<input type="checkbox"/> 10'dan az <input type="checkbox"/> 250-499	<input type="checkbox"/> 10-49 <input type="checkbox"/> 500-999	<input type="checkbox"/> 50-99 <input type="checkbox"/> 1000-1999	<input type="checkbox"/> 100-249 <input type="checkbox"/> 2000 üstü
İşletmeniz faaliyetinde bulunduğu sektör (Belirtiniz):				
İşletmenin yasal statüsü?	<input type="checkbox"/> Kolektif Şirket <input type="checkbox"/> Anonim Şirket	<input type="checkbox"/> Komandit Şirket <input type="checkbox"/> Kooperatif	<input type="checkbox"/> Limited Şirket	<input type="checkbox"/> Diğer:

Tekrar teşekkür ederiz

Appendix 3: Curriculum vitae

Codjori Edwige IKO AFE
 Born on May 13, 1982 in Cotonou (Benin)
 Marital status: Married
 Tel.: (0090) 507 821 61 06 / (00229) 97 22 13 04
 Email: ikoafeedwige@yahoo.fr/ ikoafecodjori@gmail.com

Education status

Degree	Name of the school	Place	years
Primary education	EPP Gbedjromede	Cotonou (Benin)	1988-1995
Secondary	CEG Ste Rita	Cotonou (Benin)	1995-1999
High School	CEG Ste Rita	Cotonou (Benin)	1999-2003
Bachelor Degree in Business Administration	Abomey-Calavi University	Abomey-Calavi (Benin)	2003-2007
Master in Governance and Democracy	Abomey-Calavi University	Abomey-Calavi (Benin)	2008-2010
Master in Business Administration	Selçuk University	Konya (Turkey)	2012-2016

Conferences papers

- ✓ Codjori Edwige Iko Afe and Ali Şükrü Çetinkaya, 2015, "Hiring the Right Person to the Right Position: Impact of Recruitment Practices", I. Eurasia International Tourism Congress (EITOC), 687-692.
- ✓ Ali Şükrü Çetinkaya and Codjori Edwige Iko Afe, 2015, "İnsan Kaynağı Temini Ve Seçimi Yöntemlerinin Doğru İşe Doğru Çalışan Belirlenmesine Etkisi", 5.Ulusal Verimlilik Kongresi.

Work experiences

- ✓ March-May 2009: Participate in the adherence campaign for automatic ticket machines; La poste du Benin.
- ✓ June 2009 to February 2010: Cashier; La clef du Christ.
- ✓ March 2010 to May 2012: Cashier; KOK Services.

Foreign language

- ✓ French
- ✓ English
- ✓ Turkish

Skills and Interests

Highly motivated for Research in Management field, excellent interpersonal and communication skills, team worker, responsible, hard worker, able to take initiatives, and able to work independently under pressure and with little or no supervision.

References

- ✓ Dr. Ali Şükrü ÇETİNKAYA, Associate Professor at the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, International Trade Department, Tel: (0090) 533.3549795/ (0090) 0332.2234352, E-mail: alisukru@selcuk.edu.tr Selçuk University Konya (Turkey).
- ✓ Dr. Bernard Hounmenou, Dean of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (Savè), University of Parakou (Benin), Tel: (00229) 95226058/ (00229) 96855805 E-mail: hbenaf@yahoo.fr. University of Abomey-Calavi (Benin).