



The relationship between organisational culture, organisational climate and managerial values

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Abstract *This paper begins with a comprehensive review of the management literature on culture, and demonstrates close parallels with research and writings on organisational climate and values. The paper then reports the findings from an empirical investigation into the relationship between the organisational culture, climate, and managerial values of a large Australian public sector agency. The relative strengths of four dimensions of culture in this organisation were measured using Hofstede's instrument. Added to this were items from a questionnaire developed by Ryder and Southey, derived from the Jones and James instrument measuring psychological climate and providing scores across six specific dimensions of organisational climate. Measures of managerial values, drawn from a questionnaire by Flowers and Hughes, were also incorporated. Results show that levels of culture within this particular organisation are at variance with those reported by Hofstede from his Australian data. Findings indicate a strong link between specific organisational climate items and a number of managerial values dimensions. Additional relationships between particular dimensions of culture, climate and managerial values are also reported. From this, a hypothesised, predictive model of linkages between the constructs is presented.*

Introduction

Organisational culture

Blau and Scott were two of the first post-war management authors to assert that all organisations consist of both formal and informal dimensions, and that it is simply not possible to know or understand the workings of an organisation without a sound understanding of its informal character (Blau and Scott, 1962). It was not until 1978, however, that the first major analysis of the informal dimension, focussing on organisational culture and management, gained attention in the mainstream literature of organisational theory (Peters, 1978). This was closely followed by the substantial work of Pettigrew (1979), who suggested that organisational cultures consist of cognitive systems explaining

how people think, reason, and make decisions (Pettigrew, 1979). Pettigrew also noted differing levels of culture, arguing that at the deepest level, culture consists of a complex set of values, assumptions, and beliefs that define the ways in which a firm conducts its business (Pettigrew, 1990).

Paralleling these early developments was an emerging interest in understanding the cultural factors underpinning Japanese economic performance in the late 1970s and early 1980s. This interest spawned a series of popular business books which readily synthesised the ideas of Pettigrew into an accessible form for practitioners of the time. *The Art of Japanese Management* (Pascale and Athos, 1981), *Corporate Culture* (Deal and Kennedy, 1982), and *In Search of Excellence* (Peters and Waterman, 1982) all provided timely accounts of the competitive advantage of organisations with deeply embedded shared values. At the same time, however, Pfeffer emphasised the idea that organisations may have a number of different and competing cultures, arguing that individual organisational subunits are likely to develop distinctive ideologies and structures of meaning (Pfeffer, 1981).

It has been noted by several authors that early interest in culture arose almost simultaneously from two separate sources (Knights and Willmott, 1987; Barley *et al.*, 1988; Sackmann, 1991). While there were the management authors providing practitioner accounts of organisational success stories, emphasising the importance of shared values and belief systems in harnessing the loyalty and influencing the behaviour of organisational members, conversely, a group of academic researchers began to conceptualise organisations in terms of structures of meaning. Sackmann (1991) notes that academic accounts are primarily concerned with understanding culture in organisations, while practitioner accounts are frequently concerned with control and prediction.

Hofstede (1980) conceived culture as a construct which manifests itself in an organisation as a result of the organisation's location within a particular society. On the basis of an extensive analysis of 88,000 responses to a questionnaire survey of IBM employees in 66 countries, Hofstede argued that there are four discrete dimensions of culture:

- (1) individualism (the extent to which people are oriented towards self-interest versus an orientation towards the interests of a wider group of which they are a part);
- (2) uncertainty avoidance (the extent to which people seek to minimise uncertainty versus the extent to which they are tolerant of ambiguity);
- (3) power distance (the extent to which relationships between superior and subordinate are distant and formal versus close and informal); and
- (4) masculinity (the extent to which success is defined in terms of assertiveness, challenge and ambition, rather than in terms of caring and nurturing).

On the basis of his research, Hofstede demonstrated that countries differ significantly in their "score" on these dimensions. In addition to the relevance of

the framework, his work has been acknowledged to have been based on a rigorous research design, a systematic data collection and a coherent theory to explain national variations (Sondergaard, 1994).

However, three important limitations to Hofstede's work have been suggested by a range of reviewers. First, a number of authors have emphasised the limitations of gathering data from employees of a single organisation in order to make inferences about national cultures (Robinson, 1983; Sorge, 1983; Korman, 1985). Second, several reviewers have pointed out that the dimensions developed from Hofstede's analysis may be artefacts of the period in which the surveys were conducted (Warner, 1981; Lowe, 1981; Baumgartel and Hill, 1982). Third, questions have been raised about the validity of inferring values from attitude surveys alone (Smucker, 1982; Schooler, 1983). Sondergaard (1994) notes that despite these limitations, Hofstede's work is widely acknowledged, receiving no less than 1,063 direct references in journals between 1980 and September 1993, and has provided the basis for 61 replicative studies. Among these citations, 274 studies exist in which Hofstede's dimensions have been used as a paradigm or conceptual framework outside their original setting.

From the early work by Hofstede, Pettigrew, Peters, Deal and Kennedy and others, the organisational cultural school emerged, the assumptions of which were adroitly integrated and articulated by Louis (1983). Louis argues that the concept of organisational culture emerged in part out of the dissatisfaction with the fundamental inadequacies in traditional methods of exploring the dynamics of organisations (Van Maanen, 1979; Evered and Louis, 1981). Pointing to a string of studies dating back to 1970, Louis reasons that the common thread underlying such concepts as symbols, myths, and metaphors, is that they are all artefacts of culture. Developing the argument that traditional organisational theories are limited by their failure to grasp behavioural nuances in organisations at the collective level, Louis maintains that with few exceptions, researchers in the organisational sciences "have proceeded as if study of the universal stratum alone were sufficient to produce understandings of organisational behaviour" (Louis, 1983). In other words, she contends that organisational phenomena have been studied implicitly as universal matters devoid of any cultural component. Accordingly, criticism is directed at the focus of organisational scientists who adopt a reductionist approach to the study of organisational phenomena, where parts and pieces are assumed to be worthy of study (e.g. leadership, structure, technology). Louis argues that it is only when these and other elements are considered as a whole that the character and nature of the organisation's social system become meaningful. While conceding that conceptual development was needed to flesh out a cultural perspective, her early efforts unequivocally established the organisational cultural school as a new and more holistic approach to organisational inquiry. This approach promised to yield a greater potential for understanding the human dynamics of public and private sector organisations.

In the same year, Keeley proposed that organisations exist by virtue of agreement on joint activities to achieve separate purposes, rather than to achieve organisational goals (Keeley, 1983). As a protagonist from the multiple constituencies school of organisational theory, Keeley raised the important issue of managerial values, claiming that individual ideas of “what ought to be” are in themselves necessary targets of investigation for organisational scientists. This claim contradicted the widely held view that administrative science can and should be value-free. Vigorously refuting Simon’s (1957) claim that “an administrative science is concerned purely with factual statements”, Keeley paved the way for further investigation into concepts such as “mutual expectations” and “voluntariness” in the organisational arena. This work provided an important counterpoint to the practitioner position that organisational culture can and should be managed. Modern explorations of organisational culture refer to homogeneous versus heterogeneous cultures, enriched versus managed cultures, developing versus stationary cultures, and balanced versus dissonant cultures (Fletcher and Jones, 1992).

Culture and organisational climate

There is a close and sometimes ambiguous relationship between organisational culture and climate which has often been overlooked in the literature (Schneider, 1985; Ryder and Southey, 1990). According to Barker (1994), there is evidence that the two terms have frequently been used synonymously. Despite the large number of studies into climate, attempts to define the construct in a way that differentiates it from culture have proven problematic (Field and Ableson, 1982). Moran and Volkwein (1992) argue that while culture and climate are distinctly identifiable elements within organisations, there is some overlap between the two terms. Culture is widely understood to be made up of a collection of fundamental values and belief systems which give meaning to organisations (Pettigrew, 1979; Schein, 1985; Sackmann, 1991; Hatch, 1993). In this respect it is argued to be a more implicit concept than organisational climate, which consists of more empirically accessible elements such as behavioural and attitudinal characteristics (Drexler, 1977; O’Driscoll and Evans, 1988; Moran and Volkwein, 1992). A further distinction between the two lies in the contention that the climate of an organisation consists essentially of shared perceptions, whereas the culture of an organisation is made up of shared assumptions (Ashforth, 1985). In a similar vein, Moran and Volkwein (1992) have suggested that climate consists of attitudes and values alone, whereas culture exists as a collection of basic assumptions, in addition to attitudes and values.

Climate has variously been conceptualised as an individual attribute measurable by a multi-trait matrix (Schneider and Bartlett, 1970), a sub-system phenomenon (Powell and Butterfield, 1978), and an organisational entity (Campbell *et al.*, 1970). While formally established guidelines as to the key elemental components of climate are yet to find universal acceptance, the explanatory powers of the concept lie in its potential to conceptually link organisational and individual behavioural phenomena (Falcione *et al.*, 1987; Moran and Volkwein, 1992). It is this

promise that has attracted researchers to attempt to operationalise and quantify climate. A number of researchers, including Jones and James (1979), Middlemist and Hitt (1981), and Joyce and Slocum (1982) have argued in favour of a multi-dimensional approach to the issue of measurement. Specifically, Jones and James derived six dimensions of climate:

- (1) leadership facilitation and support;
- (2) workgroup co-operation, friendliness and warmth;
- (3) conflict and ambiguity;
- (4) professional and organisational *esprit*;
- (5) job challenge, importance and variety; and
- (6) mutual trust (Jones and James, 1979).

It has been argued that these dimensions represent a useful method for measuring organisational climate (Ryder and Southey, 1990). In summary, climate has been established as a construct of considerable interest within the field of organisational behaviour research, predominantly as a result of its demonstrable influence on organisational effectiveness (Likert, 1961; Franklin, 1975; Kanter, 1983; Mudrack, 1989), as well as its relationship to individual motivation and behaviour (Litwin and Stringer, 1968; Bowers, 1976).

Culture and values

Values lie at the heart of Hofstede's (1980) model of the component parts of culture. Values are described by Hofstede as consisting of non-specific feelings of good and evil, beauty and ugliness, normality and abnormality, rationality and irrationality (Hofstede *et al.*, 1990). Hofstede asserts that values themselves cannot be observed directly, but can be inferred from their manifestations in alternatives of behaviour. Sackmann (1991) uses the analogy of an iceberg to differentiate between the visible aspects of culture, observed behavioural regularities (the tip of the iceberg), and the central cognitive components of culture; values and beliefs (the underlying bulk of the iceberg). Research into values by Posner and Schmidt (1992) differentiates between personal and organisational values. Hofstede (1989) makes a similar distinction by differentiating between the value components of culture at the occupational, organisational and national levels. These different value sub-sets illuminate areas of value congruence, in which individual values coincide with values held by others at either the organisational or national level. Beyond Hofstede's conceptions, there has been considerable interest in defining and measuring organisational values. A number of studies have developed several important value dimensions, and have demonstrated their relationship to aspects of managerial behaviour. Most notable among these research efforts are those by Flowers and Hughes (1978), Ali and Al-Shakis (1985), Davis and Rasool (1988), Woodcock and Francis (1989), and Huo and Randall (1991). The first of these studies identified a comprehensive set of 12 discrete organisational values. These were:

- (1) power;
- (2) élitism;
- (3) reward;
- (4) effectiveness;
- (5) efficiency;
- (6) economy;
- (7) fairness;
- (8) teamwork;
- (9) law and order;
- (10) defence;
- (11) competitiveness; and
- (12) opportunity.

Relationship between culture, climate and values

Despite conceptual problems and nuances in its definition and operationalisation, the construct of organisational culture is still considered to be one of the most important areas of empirical research by organisational scholars in recent years (Adler, 1983; Schein, 1990a; 1990b; Denison, 1990; Gordon and DiTomaso, 1992; Hatch, 1993; Hofstede, 1994; Bloor and Dawson, 1994). A second strand of research activity has focused on exposing differences in organisational climate to explain and delineate the determinants of specific managerial activities and practices (James and Jones, 1974; Glick, 1985; Tierney, 1990; Ryder and Southey, 1990). Though closely related to culture, organisational climate holds several important differences. Climate is held to be a summary perception of how an organisation deals with its members and environments, and thus develops specifically from internal factors primarily under managerial influence (Ostroff and Schmitt, 1993). Organisational culture, by contrast, is created from a broad range of internal and external influences, some of which have been argued to lie beyond managerial control (Alvesson, 1991). Paralleling these developments, there has been a plethora of literature examining managerial values and expectations across industries and organisations (Flowers and Hughes, 1978; Hedley, 1980; Posner and Schmidt, 1984; Woodcock and Francis, 1989; Shackleton and Abbas, 1990). Some of this work has posited demographic factors such as: age; sex; length of service; and educational attainment, together with individual skills, attitudes and personality dimensions as key intervening variables in the determination of managerial values. It has been strongly contended that these sets of correlates (culture, climate, and managerial values) are instrumental in predicting levels of managerial and organisational effectiveness in both public and private sector institutions (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Kilmann *et al.*, 1986; Schein, 1986; 1988; 1990a), although insufficient work to date has empirically tested this hypothesis (Gordon and DiTomaso, 1992). Furthermore, it is clear from the

above review that evidence points to values as integral elements of culture (Sackmann, 1991). It has also been suggested that climate and culture are not entirely discrete constructs (Moran and Volkwein, 1992; Barker, 1994). This suggests the proposition that these sets of correlates are inter-related in some way, and consequently this issue is worthy of empirical investigation.

Research questions

The purpose of the current study was to measure the culture, climate and managerial values of a large Australian public sector organisation; the Victoria Police. A comparison of the culture scores from this investigation with Hofstede's original findings on Australia, and an investigation of the inter-relationships and linkages between culture, climate and values were intended as exploratory procedures. More specifically, two research questions were posited:

- (1) What are the cultural, climate and managerial values of the Victoria Police?
- (2) Are these three sets of variables – culture, climate, values – interrelated?

Method

To derive appropriate data to address the research questions, a four-part questionnaire was developed. First, from Hofstede (1980), the five highest loading variables defining each one of the four cultural dimensions in his factor analysis were chosen as appropriate culture items. Next, the 35 composites defining six components from Ryder and Southey's (1990) modified principal components analysis of Jones and James' (1979) work were incorporated as measures of organisational climate. Then, two items from each of the 12 dimensions from Flowers and Hughes (1978) were extracted and used as indicators of managerial values for the analysis. Finally, some bibliographical and related questions were incorporated as potential moderating variables. Opportunity was taken also at this stage to standardise scaling and modify language used to make questions culturally and occupationally meaningful and specific. In order to minimise bias, some items were negatively worded and reverse scored. Further refinements were provided through a pilot exercise. This process resulted in the development of a 64-item questionnaire, using an anchored Likert-type scale attached to each item. Subjects were asked to record their level of agreement/disagreement with respect to each of the 64 statements. The questionnaire was forwarded to a representative sample of 300 male and female officers of varying ranks in the 10,000 personnel strong Victoria Police Force – a substantial public service institution, and the second-largest police organisation in Australia. After follow-up procedures, a total of 203 questionnaires were retained for analysis, yielding a 67 per cent response rate. Sample characteristics are displayed in Table I. Data were subsequently analysed through SPSS procedures.

Rank	Number currently in service		Number of questionnaires issued ^a	Number of questionnaires retained for analysis ^b	Demographic data		Percentage
	M	F			Male	Female	
Superintendents and chief superintendents	82	-	70	58			95.0 5.0
<i>Length of service</i> Inspectors and chief inspectors	297	6	100	68	< 5 years service 5-10 years service 11-30 years service 31 + years service		- 7.0 64.0 29.0
<i>Age band</i> Sergeants and senior sergeants	2,155	89	100	57	< 20 years of age 20-29 years of age 30-39 years of age 40-49 years of age 50 + years of age		- 3.0 17.0 51.0 29.0
<i>Highest education attainment</i> Constables and senior constables	6,076	1,305	30	20	Did not complete secondary/high school Completed secondary/high school leaving certificate Attended, but did not complete undergraduate university or college course Completed undergraduate university or college course Completed postgraduate course		35.0 21.0 12.0 22.0 10.0
Totals	8,610	1,400	300	203			

Notes:

^aBecause of smaller numbers and the managerial focus of the research, proportionately higher numbers of the more senior, managerial ranks were included in the sample;

^ba few questionnaires received were incomplete and consequently not used

Table I.
Sample characteristics

Results

What are the cultural, climate and managerial value levels of the Victoria Police?

Hofstede's formulae were used first of all to compute the four cultural indices based on the sample data (Hofstede, 1980). These are reported in Table II, together with Hofstede's findings in regard to Australia generally. (In both cases, theoretical ranges were standardised to a 0-100 scale for ease of comparison.)

Essentially, whereas the index level of uncertainty avoidance for police is around the average (and similar to Hofstede's figure for Australia generally; 56 versus 51 respectively), considerable differences on the other three dimensions emerge. Individualism, as recorded in the police sample data is markedly lower (40 versus 90) as is masculinity – although here the difference is slightly less pronounced (50 versus 61). Conversely, power distance is higher compared with the Australia-wide data (48 versus 36).

Variable aggregate scores were then used to compute organisational climate and managerial values indices from the sample data (again to a standardised scale of 0-100); these are presented in Tables III and IV.

Clearly, respondents perceived leadership, mutual trust and conflict/pressure to be of average intensity in the organisation. This is to say that there was neither a noticeably negative, nor a particularly positive leaning towards any of these three climate dimensions. There was a substantially more positive feeling about job variety and challenge, together with a relatively positive feeling about *esprit de corps* and workgroup co-operation. With respect to managerial values, Table IV clearly shows that of the 12 value dimensions, only one (reward) emerges with a relatively low score. This suggests that employees within this organisation do not believe that managers place emphasis on linking rewards to performance. Conversely, four dimensions have relatively high index values, these are:

- (1) power;
- (2) efficiency;
- (3) fairness; and
- (4) law and order.

The first two of these give a clear indication of the bureaucratic nature of the organisation in question.

Are these three sets of variables – culture, climate, managerial values – interrelated?

An exploratory analysis of these relationships is summarised in Tables V and VI using correlation scores. Only correlations > 0.3 or -0.3 are reported here.

Table V shows a potential link between culture, climate and values. More specifically (and not surprisingly), conflict and ambiguity within the organisation increases with greater power distance and uncertainty avoidance.

Mutual trust increases with respect to power distance, but there is a negative relationship between power distance and teamwork. Demographic relationships are not surprising, given the traditional nature and hierarchy of police organisations. As indicated in Table VI, the relationships between organisational climate and values are more pronounced and extensive. More specifically, of the 72 potential relationships between organisational climate and managerial values variables, 25 are significant. This provides some prima-facie evidence for a strong relationship between these two constructs.

Discussion

The analysis of the cultural dimensions with respect to the sample data, and in comparison with Hofstede’s findings, reveals some interesting and

Cultural dimensions	Index value	
	Victoria Police (sample data) N = 203	Australia-wide (Hofstede)
Individualism	40	90
Masculinity	50	61
Power distance	48	36
Uncertainty avoidance	56	51

Table II.
Victoria Police and Australia-wide cultural indices

Dimensions	Index value
Leadership, facilitation and support	52
Job variety, challenge and importance	81
Conflict and ambiguity	51
<i>Éspirit de corps</i>	67
Workgroup co-operation, friendliness and warmth	67
Mutual trust	58

Table III.
Organisational climate of the Victoria Police Force

Dimensions	Index value
Power	68
Élitism	50
Reward	36
Effectiveness	51
Efficiency	69
Economy	46
Fairness	69
Teamwork	58
Law and order	65
Defence	61
Competitiveness	62
Opportunity	47

Table IV.
Organisational values of the Victoria Police

Table V.
Summary correlation
matrix: dimensions of
culture, climate, values
and demographics

		<i>Dimensions of culture and demographics</i>				
Dimensions of climate, values and demographics		Power distance (culture)	Uncertainty avoidance (culture)	Age (demographics)	Education (demographics)	Years service (demographics)
Conflict and ambiguity (climate)		0.31	0.50			
Mutual trust (climate)		0.34				
Teamwork (values)		-0.33				
Rank (demographics)				0.63	0.31	0.58
Years service (demographics)				0.80		

Note: Values for $r = > 0.3$ or -0.3 only

Table VI.
Summary correlation
matrix: organisational
climate and values

Values	Climate					
	Job challenge, importance and variety	Facilitation and support	Mutual trust	Workgroup co-operation	Conflict and ambiguity	<i>Ésprit de corps</i>
Efficiency	0.32	0.31	-0.33	0.33		
Effectiveness		0.62				
Elitism		0.36		0.33		
Fairness			-0.40		-0.33	
Justice			-0.31	0.32	-0.40	
Opportunity		0.37	-0.43		-0.39	
Power		0.43	-0.26	0.35	-0.32	
Teamwork	0.32	0.37	-0.36	0.32	-0.33	0.30

Note: values for $r = > 0.3$ or -0.3 only

thought-provoking points. First, individualism is considerably lower than that recorded for the national level. Perhaps this is indicative of police organisations in Australia where culture produces great emphasis on teamwork and mutuality, and where acceptance of authority and conformity are the norm. The substantial difference in the power distance index seems representative also of this hierarchical type of organisation where relations between supervisor and subordinate are somewhat more distant and formal than would be apparent in private sector and indeed other public sector organisations. The deviation between the sample data and Hofstede's figures with respect to masculinity is interesting and somewhat surprising, again when one considers the nature of police work and the profile of police organisations. It may well be the case, though, that

Hofstede's results on Australia, based on data collected in the 1970s, do not reflect national characteristics relative to this dimension in the 1990s. In summary, and in response to research question 1, it is clear that the culture value levels of the Victoria Police are somewhat different from those reflected in Hofstede's study of Australian employees generally.

In relation to the organisational climate variables in the sample data, some significant results emerge from the analysis. High scores recorded for job variety and challenge, workgroup cooperation and *esprit de corps* provide evidence to suggest an organisation where work is interesting and challenging, and where teamwork, brotherhood and "mateship" are highly valued and positively encouraged. The results here are indicative of a positive climate in terms of work and working relationships generally within this organisation.

With respect to the managerial values investigated in this study, although comparative data are not offered, analysis reveals some interesting facets. For example, the low score for reward, as indicated earlier, suggests a perception that there is a lack of emphasis on linking rewards to performance within this organisation. This is likely to have an effect on levels of motivation and job satisfaction among achievement-oriented individuals within the Victoria Police Force. Given the traditional nature of police organisations generally, and in particular of Australian public sector organisations in the past – where length of service and seniority, rather than performance *per se*, represented the key determinant of career progression – this figure is not unexpected. However, with the strong impetus in policing throughout Australia in recent years towards systems of merit-based advancement, and with a mounting awareness of the value of professional performance generally, it is not unreasonable to assume that perceptions about linkages between performance and rewards are likely to change.

Expectations about issues relating to the values of power and efficiency were sustained. These relatively high scores are indicative of an organisation portraying a number of typical bureaucratic characteristics. These include a strong role-based culture, heavy emphasis on adhering to established rules, regulations and procedures, a strong focus on efficiency, and the concentration of power at the strategic apex. At the same time, the survey results show that there are strong perceptions of fairness with regard to how rules are applied to and enforced upon organisational members.

In response to research question 2, the correlation analysis clearly points to potential linkages between the three sets of variables, although the precise nature and direction of these linkages cannot be unequivocally articulated at this stage. Given these tentative results, it might be instructive to embark on a more rigorous analysis of this issue, based on a larger sample, incorporating several public sector organisations across a range of industries, and perhaps using either a path analysis or LISREL approach. The extent and magnitude of the inter-relationships between the individual variables, as well as between the

sets of variables, could be calculated and mapped out through path analysis. Alternatively, structural equation modelling, such as LISREL analysis, could be employed to more accurately examine the direction of causal flows, account for the effects of any residual components in the model, and search for any latent variables. Figure 1 traces out such an exercise showing expected inter-relationships based on the findings from the sample data reported in the current study.

The central proposition here is that culture, organisational climate, and managerial values are related but that the causal directions are largely not presumed. The tenuous link between national cultural dimensions, and organisational climate and managerial values, seems to be at odds with Hofstede's assertions. Clearly, it would be of interest to test this. The indication from the sample data that there is a strong link between organisational climate and managerial values, is well supported in the literature (Moran and Volkwein, 1992; Barker, 1994). A similar assumption could be made regarding the relationship between managerial values and behaviour (Davis and Rasool, 1988), although no data from the current study were offered on this link. Finally, as a number of authors have suggested, it may well be that factors such as age, gender, and education intervene and moderate the effects in some way (Ali and Al-Shakis, 1985; Huo and Randall, 1991). Accordingly, these are incorporated in the hypothesised model.

In conclusion, this study has mapped out the cultural, climate and managerial values existing in the Victoria Police organisation, providing valuable evidence and posing some challenges for management in the rapidly changing environment of policing within Australia. The implications of these findings for this particular organisation are clear, but whether they can be extrapolated to other police organisations, or indeed other public sector organisations, is less obvious. Second, from the exploratory correlation analysis, sufficient evidence now emerges to deduce that inter-relationships between culture, climate and managerial values do exist, and that with the inclusion of the additional dimension of managerial behaviour, these inter-relationships and linkages should be more formally and accurately assessed in a new research endeavour aimed at developing a predictive model of these important constructs and concepts.

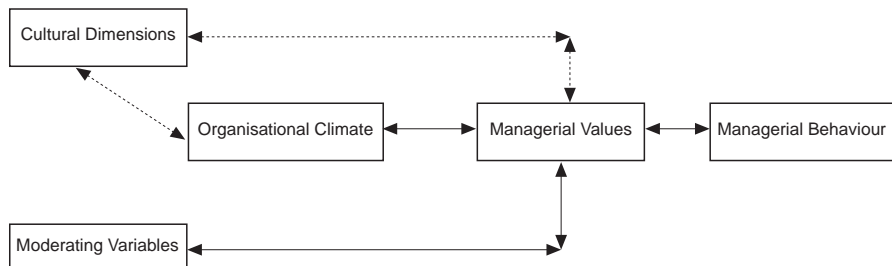


Figure 1.
Hypothesised model of
the relationship between
culture, organisational
climate, managerial
values and behaviour

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