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Reiny Iriana  
Francis Buttle

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# Customer Relationship Management (CRM) System Implementations

## An Assessment of Organisational Culture

Reiny Iriana, Macquarie Graduate School of Management, Australia

Francis Buttle, Macquarie Graduate School of Management, Australia

*Abstract: Many commentators have identified organisational culture as an important factor that enables or disables the achievement of desirable CRM outcomes, along with other key people-related issues, such as senior management commitment and people's willingness to support the initiative. Our review of the CRM literature shows that an organisational environment that puts more importance on customer-focused behaviours, information sharing, cross-functional teams, performance-based rewards, supportive relationships, adaptive and responsive attitudes to change, and a higher degree of risk-taking and innovation, is more likely to be associated with successful CRM system implementations. We have used the Competing Values Framework to study the culture of organisations implementing CRM in Australia. The ultimate objective of this study is to provide insights into the relationships between organisational culture and CRM implementation outcomes. We have collected organisational culture data from 101 organisations that are implementing CRM. The results show that only half of the organisations implementing CRM in Australia have organisational culture characteristics that match those that the literature suggests are associated with successful CRM outcomes.*

Keywords: Organisational Culture, Competing Values Framework, Customer Relationship Management

### Organisational Culture

**E**DGAR H. SCHEIN, in his seminal work 'Organization Culture and Leadership', wrote that the most commonly accepted definition of organisational culture is: "a pattern of basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that have 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 relationship to those problems" (Schein, 1992, p. 9). This definition highlights the importance of organisational culture as a set of shared assumptions. Schein (1984) developed a three level model of organisational culture. The first level of organisational culture is the visible artefacts, the second level is the espoused values that control behaviour, and the deepest level is the basic underlying assumptions on how things are in the organisation. Other researchers contest the claim that the three level model is sufficient to explain organisational culture. Martin and Siehl (1983)

identified management practices, such as recruitment, training, appraisal and rewards as additional elements of organisational culture. Siehl and Martin (1988) argued that espoused values are different from values-in-use and suggest classifying values-in-use as management practices or cultural forms. Rousseau (1990) suggested adding a fourth element of organisational culture - patterns of behaviour or behavioural norms – to Schein's three level model.

Organisational culture has been linked with organisational effectiveness variables such as organisational or business performance, information technology implementation outcomes and marketing effectiveness. Figure 1 provides a framework for studying organisational culture and effectiveness as recommended by Denison (1997, p. 5). The figure shows that effectiveness is influenced by the values and beliefs held by members of an organisation and the policies and practices used by an organisation. The core values and beliefs, interrelated with organisational policies and practices and the business environment of the organisation, influence the effectiveness of the organisation.



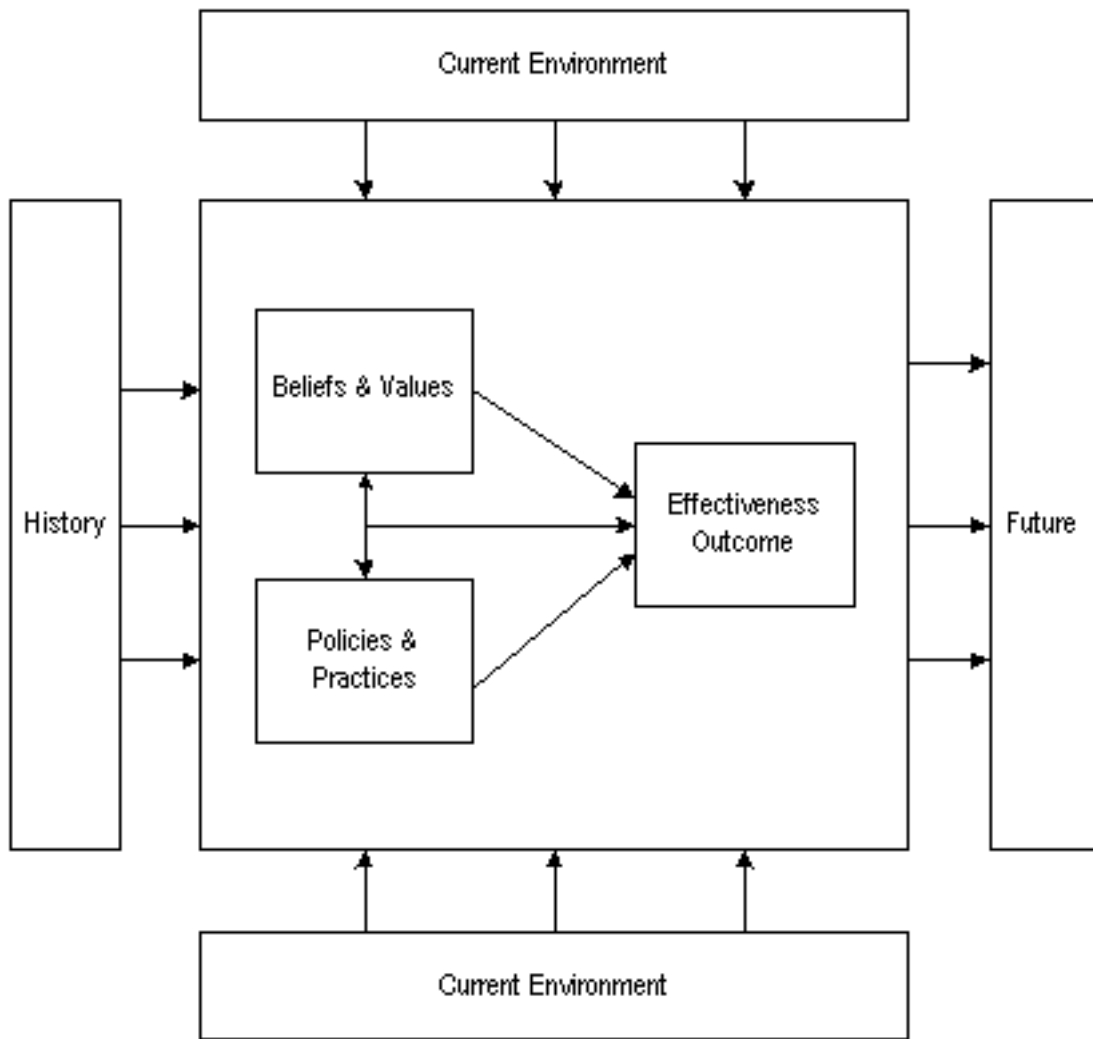


Figure 1: Organisational Culture and Effectiveness Framework

**Organisational Culture and Customer Relationship Management (CRM)**

In recent years, Customer Relationship Management (CRM) has become widely accepted as an important management discipline. Bain and Company’s global survey ranked CRM as one of the top ten tools used by managers (Rigby and Bilodeau, 2005).

CRM has been defined as “the core business strategy that integrates internal processes and functions, and external networks, to create and deliver value to targeted customers at a profit. It is grounded on high quality customer-related data and enabled by information technology” (Buttle, 2004). CRM is thus characterised by the application of information technology to the customer-facing functions of an organisation; these generally comprise the selling, marketing and service functions.

As this suggests, technology – software, hardware and services - needs to be deployed by an

organisation before CRM can be practised. These deployments are called CRM system implementations. The failure rate for these CRM system implementations reportedly remains high. A global survey of senior executives worldwide in April 2003, conducted by the Economist Intelligence Unit for AT&T, shows only 29% of respondents are satisfied with the performance of their CRM implementations (AT&T, 2003). Moreover, a global survey released in April 2004 by IBM Business Consulting Services reveals that only 15 percent of global companies believe they are fully succeeding with their CRM initiatives, and another 20 to 30 percent are having only partial success (IBM, 2004).

Successful CRM performance has been linked to an organisation’s ability to identify and respond to potential barriers within organisational culture. People’s resistance to working with newly created processes and to using the CRM software may lead to implementation failures (Crosby, 2002; Kavanagh, 2003). Thus, many researchers suggest that employee

behaviour and attitude have to be reviewed, and potentially changed, to create a culture that is conducive for the successful implementation of a CRM system (Mack, Mayo and Khare, 2005; O'Malley and Mitussis, 2002; Rigby, Reichheld and Scheffer, 2002; Wilson, Daniel, and McDonald, 2002).

A number of surveys identify the importance of organisational culture in CRM implementations. Consultants CGEY (CapGemini, 2002) studied an international sample of life-science companies that were implementing CRM. Their results reveal that organisational culture is one of the reasons for poor CRM acceptance. Sales people's resistance to making customer knowledge available to others was found to be part of the culture in some organisations. Another survey of 219 IT professionals by DMR Consulting in 2002 (cited in Kale, 2004) reveals that customer-centric organisations met a higher percentage (71 percent) of their implementation goals than non-customer-centric organisations (53 percent). The results from McKinsey and Co's survey of 60 major insurance companies in North America shows that 59 percent of those companies who reported a successful CRM implementation had addressed the cultural changes required by the CRM system implementation but only 33 percent of those reporting a failure had addressed the cultural changes required (cited in Agarwal, Harding and Schumacher, 2004).

It is widely accepted that adopting a customer-centric culture is an important requirement for a CRM initiative to be successful (Kale, 2004; Karakostas, Kardaras and Papathanassiou, 2005; Rigby *et al.*, 2002; Verhoef and Langerak, 2002). Starkey and Woodcock (2002) have measured customer management performance using the CMAT toolkit in hundreds of companies.<sup>1</sup> They conclude that organisations that fail to perform customer-focused behaviours are more likely to have poor CMAT scores.

Mack *et al.* (2005) highlight the importance of communicating and valuing changes in organisation culture through rewards, thereby ensuring that all employees understand the importance of adopting customer-centric behaviours as they strive to develop stronger customer relationships. Campbell (2003) studied CRM implementations at five Canadian financial services firms. The findings indicate that the rewards structure is a key success factor in the development of deeper customer knowledge. Companies may need to restructure performance-based rewards to motivate customer-focused behaviours, such as single point-of-contact resolution of customer complaints.

Ryals and Knox (2001) add that customer-centric organisational cultures are adaptive and responsive to change. They note that many companies assume that by implementing CRM they will be automatically become customer-centric. This is unlikely to occur without a planned effort to modify the existing organisational culture to be more customer-focused (Kale, 2004).

Verhoef and Langerak (2002) suggest that cross-functional teams can assist in the development of customer-centricity. Front-line people may need assistance from other departments to solve customer problems and for that reason teamwork and shared customer data are essential (Eichorn, 2004; Ryals and Knox, 2001). Wilson *et al.* (2002), who investigated CRM success factors from the IT point of view, also identify the need for cross functional teams focusing on the customer.

A study by Campbell (2003) in five organisations confirms that cross-functional teamwork is required to develop the deeper customer-related knowledge on which CRM is based. Chen and Popovich (2003) also suggest that CRM requires sharing of information and knowledge across departments. O'Malley and Mitussis (2002) add that sharing customer data, accounts data, marketing data and inventory data within an organisation enables the relevant departments to market, sell, and service customers more effectively. Without this, heads of department may conflict over the issue of data or system ownership and reject the idea of collaboration, therefore putting at risk the drive to become more customer-focussed (Eichorn, 2004).

Galbreath and Rogers (1999) note that decentralised decision-making, whereby front-line people are empowered to solve customers' problems using their own initiative, is another critical organisational culture issue. An organisational environment that promotes an atmosphere of risk-taking can create a climate of confidence in which employees feel able to act in the best interests of customers. This kind of climate encourages employees to be more innovative in trying to overcome problems in the CRM implementation, and can ultimately generate a better CRM outcome. Reinartz and Chugh (2003) interviewed senior managers of 15 large companies involved in strategic CRM projects. The results of this study demonstrate that giving employees control over customer service and ensuring job security for employees contribute to CRM success.

From these previous studies, it seems clear that an organisational culture that puts more importance on customer-focused behaviours, information sharing, cross-functional teams, performance-based

<sup>1</sup> CMAT obtains evidence about a company's CRM performance by collecting responses to 260 questions. A broad range of people, from senior management to operational practitioners, is interviewed and a benchmarking report is issued.

rewards, supportive relationships, adaptive and responsive attitudes to change, and a higher degree of risk-taking and innovation, is more likely to be associated with successful CRM system implementations.

**Organisational Culture Measurement**

Several instruments have been developed to assess organisational culture. Quantitative instruments widely used by other researchers to assess culture include the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke and Lafferty 1989), the Organizational Culture Profile (O’Reilly III, Chatman and Caldwell 1991), the Six-Dimensional Model (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders 1990), and the Competing Values Model (CVM), also known as the Competing Values

Framework (Cameron and Quinn 1999). The Organisation Culture Inventory measures behavioural norms, while the Competing Values Model and Organisational Culture Profile measure values that affect behaviour. The Six Dimensional Model of Organisation Culture is an instrument that assesses culture from the perceived practice of members of an organisation.

In this study, we use The Competing Values Framework (CVF). The CVF has its origins in the work of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) who developed the framework based on their analysis of 39 organisational effectiveness indicators, initially created by Campbell *et al* (1974). Cameron and Quinn (1999) reworked the CVF and renamed it the OCAI (Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument), as presented in figure 2.

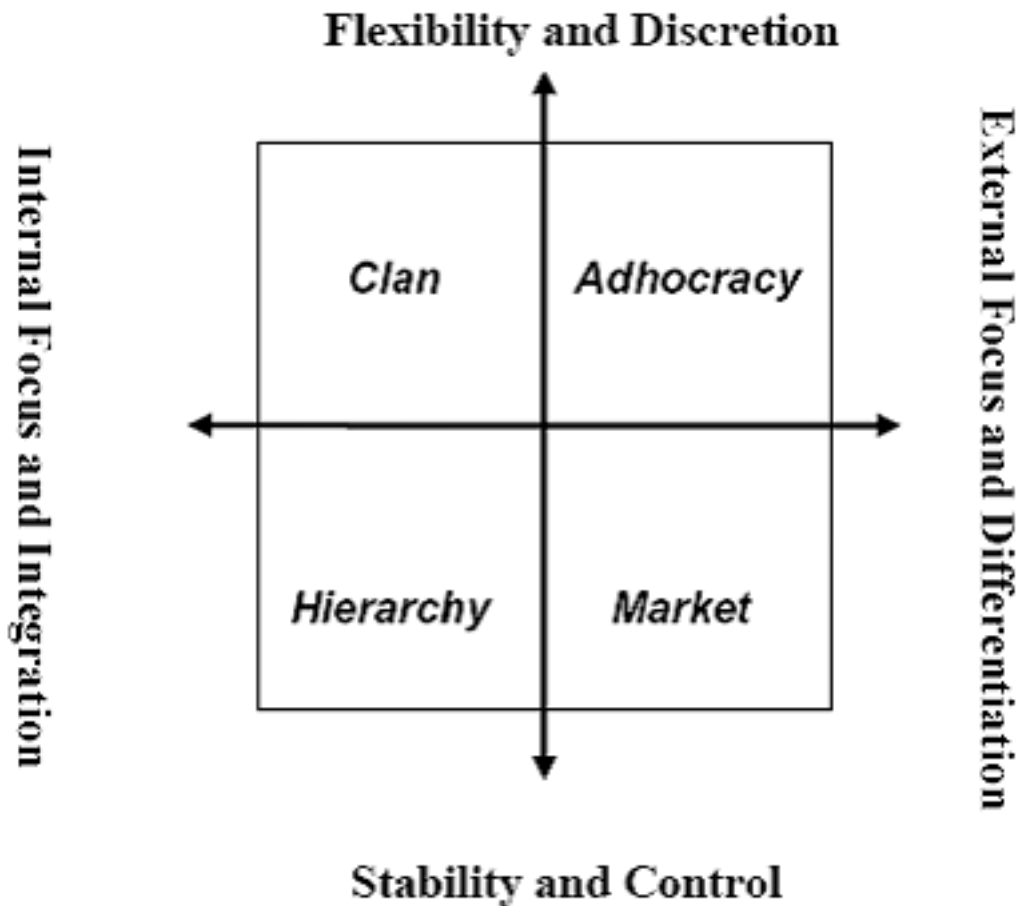


Figure 2: The Competing Values Framework

In figure 1, four types of organisational culture are identified, each named according to its most important characteristic - Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market. The two quadrants on each dimension indicate a similar set of organisational effectiveness indicators. Each continuum has a core value that is

opposite from the value on the other end of the continuum. For example, the upper left quadrant and the lower left quadrant emphasise internal focus and integration, whereas the upper right quadrant and the lower right quadrant emphasise external focus and differentiation. Similarly, the upper quadrants

emphasise flexibility and discretion, whereas the lower quadrants emphasise stability and control. This model is named the *Competing Values Framework*, because each continuum and quadrant represents opposite or competing assumptions.

Each cell within the CVF has four characteristics. The Clan culture is characterised by participation, commitment, openness and morale; the Adhocracy culture is characterised by innovation, external support, adaptation and growth; the Market culture is characterised by direction, productivity, goal clarity and accomplishment; and the Hierarchy culture is characterised by stability, documentation, control, and information management.

### Reliability of the OCAI

Reliability refers to “the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made” (Malhotra, Hall, Shaw and Oppenheim, 2002, p. 809). Several researchers have provided evidence of the reliability of the OCAI. Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) tested the reliability of OCAI on 796 executives from 86 companies. A similar test was conducted by Yeung, Brockbank and Ulrich (1991) in which 10,300 executives from 1064 companies participated. Using data collected from 97 manufacturing plants, McDermott and Stock (1999) also computed the OCAI’s reliability. The reliability of each component and the overall (combined) scale is assessed by computing Cronbach alpha (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988). All studies showed that the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the scales that measure the four culture types are statistically significant and exceed levels generally deemed satisfactory.

The OCAI has also been tested for its reliability in Australia. Parker and Bradley (2000) used the OCAI to study organisational culture in 6 public sector departments in Queensland. Lamond (2003) redesigned the OCAI instrument for the Australian context and used the new measures to collect organisational culture data from 462 Australian managers. The OCAI’s reliability was also assessed by Jones, Jimmieson, and Griffiths (2005) using data from 67 organisational units within Queensland’s state government. All these assessments show that the four types of organisational culture identified in the CVF can be measured with confidence in Australia.

### Validity of the OCAI

Validity is defined as “the extent to which differences in observed scale scores reflect true differences among objects on the characteristics being measured, rather than systematic or random error” (Malhotra

et al., 2002, p. 813). Cameron and Freeman (1991) tested whether the OCAI instrument really measures four types of organisational culture. They studied 334 institutions of higher education, from which a total of 3406 individuals participated. Evidence for validity was discovered when the results consistently showed that each culture’s characteristics were associated with the theoretically expected areas of organisational effectiveness, and the organisational strategies, decision processes, and structures in use (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

Further evidence of the validity of the OCAI has been produced by other researchers. All of them provide support for the validity of OCAI as an instrument to measure organisational culture. Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) validated the OCAI using data from 796 executives. They found evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity of the OCAI instrument. Convergent validity was indicated by the association between scores from two different ways of measuring organisational culture. One method employed Likert scales and the other invited respondents to allocate 100 points between four different organisational culture scenarios. Discriminant validity was indicated by the differences between scores on the scales used to construct the four forms of organisational culture.

### Methodology

This study aims to gain an understanding of the culture of organisations implementing CRM, rather than investigating particular organisations in depth. Thus, survey research is deemed an appropriate method. We used the 16 OCAI items developed by Lamond (2003) for Australia-specific application to measure the organisational culture of 101 organisations implementing CRM (see Table 1 below).

A seven-point Likert-type scale was applied, anchored at two points: 1 = very strongly disagree; 7 = very strongly agree. Table 1 lists Cronbach alpha scores for the four types of culture, as reported by Lamond (2003). The scale items measure the four dimensions of organisational culture indicated by the OCAI, *viz*:

- The dominant characteristics of the organisation, or what the overall organisation is like
- The management style of the organization. This characterises the way that employees are treated and what the working environment is like
- The organisational glue or bonds that hold the organisation together
- The strategic emphases of the organisation.

**Table 1: Organisational Culture Types and Measures**

Culture Type	Measure	Dimensions
Hierarchy (=0.62)	The work process is coordinated and under control Rules, procedures and formal methods guide the work There is a stable, predictable work environment Quantification and measurement are key parts of the work climate	Control Documentation Stability Information Management
Clan (=0.84)	Participative decision making is widely and appropriately employed There is a positive interpersonal climate Consensual decision making is encouraged Employees feel as though they really belong to the organisation	Participation Commitment Openness Morale
Market (=0.78)	The goals are clearly understood by most members The work effort is usually intense It is easy to explain the overall objectives of the organisation There is a constant striving for greater accomplishment	Direction Productivity Goal Clarity Accomplishment
Adhocracy (=0.84)	Innovation is stressed Outsiders perceive it as a vibrant high potential organisation Creative insights, hunches and innovative ideas are stressed Organisation has the image of a growing, dynamic system	Innovation External Support Adaptation Growth

Invitations to participate were sent to named individuals in 1449 public and private-sector organisations in Australia. The list, which included individuals holding management positions in Sales, Marketing, Customer Service and Information Technology in 11 industries, was obtained from Dun and Bradstreet Information Services. Acceptance of participation was followed by a six-page questionnaire, with cover letter and reply paid envelope. After sending a second reminder by surface mail and a follow-up phone call encouraging people to participate, a total of 134 questionnaires were returned (9.25% response rate). After dropping questionnaires returned by organisations with no CRM system in place, a total of 101 questionnaires were identified as usable. The questionnaire contained questions on a number of CRM topics as well as the OCAI. This low response rate had been anticipated because only organisations with a CRM system in place could complete the survey, and in Australia, according to a Gartner Inc. survey (cited in Peterson, 2003), CRM systems were used in only about 35 percent of organisations with more than 500 employees.

Respondents consist of 96 private sector organisations and 5 government organisations. The largest group of respondents is involved in manufacturing industry (18%). The other three large groups of respondents operate in finance and insurance (12%), construction (10%), and communication services (10%). All other industry categories contain less than ten percent of respondents.

**Data Analysis and Results**

The average culture scores for all participating organisations are shown in Table 2. From Table 2, we can see that the strength of organisational culture among companies implementing CRM in Australia is high, that is, they tend towards the positive side of the midpoint (4) on the 7-point Likert-type scale.

A cluster analysis was then performed to provide more insight into the cultural characteristics of organisations implementing CRM. Essentially, cluster analysis groups like organisations with like. Organisations having similar cultures, as measured by the Australian OCAI, are clustered together. We used agglomerative hierarchical clustering. This method initially treats each object (organisation, in this research) as a cluster-of-one, and then commences a statistical routine that groups, or agglomerates, the organisations into bigger and bigger clusters. Using an approach recommended by Hair *et al* (1998) and Malhotra *et al.* (2002), changes in the agglomeration coefficient at each stage of the hierarchical clustering process enabled us to identify an appropriate number of clusters. The selection of clusters is based on the largest percentage increase at each stage. A simple frequency count on the numbers of organisations falling into each cluster was also used to decide on the optimal number of clusters (Malhotra *et al.*, 2002).

**Table 2: Scores for each Culture Type**

Dimensions of Culture	Measures #	Hierarchy	Clan	Market	Adhocracy
Management Style	1, 5, 9, 13	5.21	5.12	5.23	4.93
Organisational Glue	2, 6, 10, 14	5.13	5.49	5.62	5.45
Organisational Climate	3, 7, 11, 15	4.87	4.94	5.50	4.72
Strategic Emphasis	4, 8, 12, 16	5.21	5.29	5.79	5.79
Organisational culture average score		5.11	5.21	5.54	5.22

Our analysis of the agglomeration coefficients generated from hierarchical cluster analysis appears in Table 3. A k-means cluster analysis was then used to confirm the number of clusters. Table 4 shows the

possible clusters that were generated by this procedure. We conclude that a five-cluster solution is merited, because a balanced distribution of organisations was achieved.

**Table 3: Analysis of Agglomeration Coefficients**

Number of clusters	Agglomeration Coefficient	% change in coefficient to next level
10	1256.004	4.02
9	1306.439	4.90
8	1370.393	5.28
7	1442.774	6.55
6	1537.294	6.61
5	1638.918	7.57
4	1763.041	9.37
3	1928.29	11.34
2	2146.991	38.40
1	2971.539	

**Table 4: Cluster Membership**

Cluster	6 clusters	5 clusters	4 clusters	3 clusters	2 clusters
1	13	28	4	66	75
2	2	11	2	2	26
3	28	41	63	33	
4	17	19	32		
5	2	2			
6	39				
Total	101 companies				

The mean scores for the 16 OCAI variables were computed for the companies falling into each cluster. These scores are shown in Table 5. A two-tailed,

one-sample t-test was performed for each variable across the clusters, to identify if a cluster means score was significantly different from 4, the midpoint.

**Table 5: Final Cluster Means**

	Cluster number (companies in cluster)					F Value	Sig.
	1 (28)	2 (11)	3 (41)	4 (19)	5 (2)		
Control (hierarchy1)	5.29* <sup>1</sup>	3.55	6.02*	4.53*	3.00	29.532	.000
Participation (clan1)	4.46	3.18*	6.27*	5.05*	2.00	28.859	.000
Documentation (hierarchy2)	5.46*	4.00	5.95*	3.84	2.00	25.192	.000
Direction (market1)	5.54*	3.12*	6.24*	4.21	1.50	40.457	.000
Productivity (market2)	5.11*	5.55*	6.05*	5.74*	3.50	5.212	.001
Stability (hierarchy3)	5.14*	3.82	5.51*	3.74	4.50	8.730	.000
Innovation (adhocracy1)	4.21	4.09	5.61*	5.26*	2.50	12.734	.000
Commitment (clan2)	5.25*	3.00*	6.37*	5.68*	2.50	37.182	.000
Information Management (hierarchy4)	5.32*	3.36	6.17*	4.32	2.50	16.743	.000
Openness (clan3)	4.46*	3.36	5.99*	4.58*	2.00	24.796	.000
External Support (adhocracy2)	4.82*	4.36	6.10*	5.95*	2.00	15.909	.000
Adaptation (adhocracy3)	3.86	3.36	5.51*	5.37*	2.00	22.252	.000
Goal Clarity (market3)	5.82*	4.36	6.15*	4.74*	1.00	20.293	.000
Accomplishment (market4)	5.46*	4.73	6.37*	6.11*	1.50	25.806	.000
Morale (clan4)	5.00*	3.86	6.12*	5.16*	1.50	22.333	.000
Growth (adhocracy4)	4.57*	4.18	6.12*	6.12*	2.00	22.167	.000

<sup>1</sup> \* The score is significantly different from 4 (p<.05)

Table 6 shows the percentage of companies that score significantly above 4, the midpoint (see Table 5), on the 16 dimensions that make up the 4 types of organisational culture.

**Table 6: Organisations with Scores Significantly above 4**

Culture Type	Culture dimensions	%
HIERARCHY ( $\alpha = 0.76$ )	Control	87
	Documentation	68
	Stability	68
	Information Management	68
CLAN ( $\alpha = 0.86$ )	Participation	59
	Commitment	87
	Openness	87
	Morale	47
MARKET ( $\alpha = 0.73$ )	Direction	68
	Productivity	98
	Accomplishment	47
	Goal Clarity	47
ADHOCRACY ( $\alpha = 0.83$ )	Innovation	59
	External Support	87
	Adaptation	59
	Growth	47

As Table 5 indicates, the organisations implementing CRM in Australia can be clustered, categorised, and described as follows (percentages rounded up or down).

*Cluster 1: Internal and Control culture orientations (28 %)*

The 28 companies in cluster one have scores significantly above 4 on all dimensions of Market and Hierarchy cultures, three dimensions of Clan culture, and two dimensions of Adhocracy culture. These organisations score lower on innovation and adaptation, two attributes found in Adhocracy culture, and participation, an attribute found in Clan culture.

*Cluster 2: Productivity culture (11 %)*

The 11 companies of cluster two have scores significantly above 4 on productivity, an attribute found in Market culture.

*Cluster 3: Strong culture (41 %)*

The 41 companies making up cluster three have scores significantly above 4 on every dimension of organisational culture.

*Cluster 4: Flexible and External culture orientations (19 %)*

The 19 companies in cluster four have scores significantly above 4 on all the variables describing Clan and Adhocracy cultures, three variables describing Market culture, and only one variable used to describe the Hierarchy culture. These organisations score lower on control, information management, and documentation, three variables describing Hierarchy culture, and direction, an attribute of Market culture.

*Cluster 5: Weak culture (2 %)*

The 2 companies of cluster five have low scores on every dimension of culture, suggesting a poorly defined culture.

## Discussion

Ryals and Knox (2001) suggest that becoming customer-centric requires an organisational culture that is adaptive and responsive to change. Galbreath and Rogers (1999) also suggest that an innovative culture will encourage employees to overcome any problems in CRM implementation. In addition, a CRM project leader is expected to promote an atmosphere of innovation thereby encouraging employees to solve problems during CRM system implementation. In our sample, only 59% have scores significantly above 4 for innovation and adaptation.

The role of cross-functional teamwork to assist the development of customer-centricity is widely identified as a critical organisational culture issue (Galbreath and Rogers, 1999; Verhoef and Langerak, 2002; Campbell, 2003). A participative culture will encourage the development of the cross-functional

teams that enable companies to learn about customers and share that knowledge across work groups to create better value for and from customers. In our sample, only 59% have scores significantly above 4 for participation.

Inadequate measurement is identified as a problem associated with CRM system implementations. This problem arises because organisations and employees do not have a clear understanding of their CRM goals (Ryals and Payne, 2001). Clearly defined CRM metrics serve to resolve the uncertainty about CRM goals. Companies are advised to communicate these goals to employees and to spell out how the organisation intends to achieve them (Kim, Suh and Hwang, 2003). In our sample, only 47% have scores significantly above 4 for goal clarity.

According to Rigby *et al.* (2002), a sense of ownership and commitment are important in implementing CRM. CRM initiatives demand top management's involvement and commitment throughout the implementation project to ensure that employees accept and support the CRM initiative (Croteau and Li, 2003; Kale, 2004). In addition, customers have different needs and not all customers may want to have relationships with suppliers (Rigby *et al.*, 2002; Verhoef and Langerak, 2002). The impression that an organisation is a growing and dynamic system, and the perception from outsiders, especially from customers, that an organisation is a high potential organisation, will encourage customers to participate in the CRM program. Almost 87% of our sample scored significantly above 4 for commitment and external support.

## Conclusions, Limitations and Further Study

Our results indicate that more than 40 percent of the sampled organisations lack the organisational culture that the extant literature would indicate is conducive for achieving CRM implementation success. These organisational attributes include adaptation, innovation, participation, and goal clarity. However, most of the sampled organisations do have some culture characteristics that may contribute to the success of their CRM implementations, for example commitment and external support. From the organisational culture scores, we can also conclude that:

- the management style in organisations implementing CRM in is mostly characterised by control and direction;
- the glue that holds these organisations together consists of documentation, commitment, productivity, and external support;
- the climate of the organisations is typified by stability and openness; and

- the organisations emphasise information management.

The next step in this research will be to obtain measures of CRM performance to check whether the literature's claim that performance is influenced by organisational culture is supported.

The main limitation of this study is that the culture scores reported here are based on self report data

provided by customer-facing management in the sampled organisations. We do not know with any certainty that other organisational members share the same perceptions of culture. Front-line staff, or back-office management, may perceive organisational culture differently from our informants.

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## About the Authors

### *Ms Reiny Iriana*

Reiny Iriana is a Doctoral Candidate at Macquarie Graduate School of Management, Sydney, Australia, since 2003. Her CRM research has been awarded as an outstanding dissertation proposal by the Society for Marketing Advances in 2005.

### *Prof. Francis Buttle*

Dr Francis Buttle is Professor of Management and Chair of Marketing Management at Macquarie Graduate School of Management, Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia.



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