AN ASSESSMENT OF THE ANTECEDENTS OF CHURCH COMMITMENT

by

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Declaration

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ABSTRACT

The conception of relationship marketing has led to an increased interest in organisations developing long-term relationships with their members or clients. The emphasis has shifted from a transaction-based marketing approach to a relationship-based marketing approach. This shift has resulted in an increased need for research in the field of relationship marketing in for-profit as well as non-profit organisations.

The purpose of this study was to identify and assess the dimensions through which South African churches can manage commitment with their members. These dimensions are regarded as antecedents to commitment and were identified through a literature review. The literature review identified 11 antecedents of church commitment, which were classified into antecedents that are specifically relevant to churches, and those with a broader appeal. Furthermore, churches were classified whether they can be viewed as traditional or non-traditional.

An empirical investigation followed the literature review and included a pilot and a comprehensive empirical study among the total student population of Stellenbosch University, as in 2011. After the pilot study was conducted the number of antecedents was reduced to eight, while three antecedents had to be renamed. The final empirical study provided support for two antecedents of church commitment, namely '*small-groups'* and '*reliability'*. In addition, significant differences were found between traditional and non-traditional churches in respect of the confirmed relationships. Consequently, a framework was developed by which churches can manage commitment with their members.

This study makes a valuable contribution to the relationship marketing literature, since no formally published study could be found in which relationship marketing was used to identify the antecedents of church commitment.

OPSOMMING

Die voortbestaan van verhoudingsbemarking het gelei tot ʼn toename in organisasies se belangstelling in die ontwikkeling van lang termyn verhoudinge met hulle kliënte en/of lede. Die fokus het gevolglik verskuif vanaf ʼn transaksie-gebaseerde benadering tot bemarking, tot ʼn meer verhoudings-gebaseerde benadering. Hierdie verskuiwing het gelei tot ʼn toenemende belangstelling in, en behoefte aan navorsing op die terrein van verhoudingsbemarking, beide ten opsigte van winssoekende asook nie-winssoekende organisasies.

Die doel van hierdie studie was om die dimensies aan die hand waarvan Suid-Afrikaanse kerke hul toewyding (*commitment*) met hul lidmate kan bestuur, te identifiseer en te assesseer. Hierdie dimensies kan beskou word as boustene (*antecedents*) van toewyding en is geïdentifiseer deur middel van ʼn literatuuroorsig. Die literatuuroorsig het 11 boustene van kerk-toewyding geïdentifiseer, wat geklassifiseer is volgens daardie boustene wat spesifiek relevant tot kerke is, en daardie boustene met ʼn wyer aantrekking. Voorts is kerke geklassifiseer ten opsigte van of hulle as tradisioneel of nie-tradisioneel beskou kan word.

Die literatuuroorsig is gevolg deur die empiriese studie, wat uit twee komponente bestaan het: ʼn voorafstudie (*pilot study*), gevolg deur die hoof empiriese studie onder die totale studente-populasie van die Universiteit van Stellenbosch, soos in 2011. Op grond van die resultate van die voorafstudie is die aantal boustene verminder tot agt, terwyl drie boustene herbenoem moes word. Die finale empiriese studie het ondersteuning gebied vir twee boustene van toewyding, naamlik ‘klein-groepies’ (*small-groups*) en ‘betroubaarheid’ (*reliability*). Verder is beduidende verskille gevind tussen tradisionele en nie-tradisionele kerke ten opsigte van die verhoudinge wat as beduidend bevind is. ʼn Raamwerk is gevolglik ontwikkel waarvolgens kerke hul toewyding met hul lidmate kan bestuur.

Hierdie studie maak ʼn waardevolle bydrae tot die literatuur van verhoudingsbemarking, aangesien geen soortgelyke formele gepubliseerde studie gevind kon word waarin verhoudingsbemarking gebruik is om die boustene van kerk-toewyding te identifiseer nie.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank my Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ, for making it possible to conduct and complete this study. During the conclusion of this study I gained a new understanding of John 1:1-5:

> ***"1 In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God, and the Word was God. 2 He was in the beginning with God. 3 All things were made through Him, and without Him nothing was made that was made. 4 In Him was life, and the life was the light of men. 5 And the light shines in the darkness, and the darkness did not comprehend it."*** (The Bible, 2002 NKJV)

I would further like to thank the following individuals who contributed to the successful completion of this study:

- My supervisor, Dr. E. Theron, for always being prepared to assist me with technical issues and for his contribution of acquired knowledge.
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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CBO	Community Based Organisation
CRM	Customer Relationship Management
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
FPO	For-Profit Organisation
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NKJV	New King James Version (of the Bible)
NPO	Non-Profit Organisation
NTC	Non-Traditional Church
PBO	Public Benefit Organisation
RDP	Reconstruction and Development programme
TC	Traditional Church

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CHAPTER 1
CHURCH COMMITMENT AND ITS ANTECEDENTS

1.1 Introduction

The non-profit sector has experienced consistent growth in recent years, resulting in this sector becoming more fragmented, but highly competitive (Shabbir, Palihawadana & Thwaites, 2007:272). Consequently, the need has grown for marketing by non-profit organisations (NPOs) to attract, retain and build relationships with their members (Abreu, 2006:140). Marketing can also assist NPOs in defining their target markets, evaluating competitors' capabilities and developing effective communications with members and the general public (Abreu, 2006:141). Churches are a type of NPO which have begun to implement relationship marketing strategies because of an apparent lack of church member loyalty and commitment (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59). Clearly there is a need to promote commitment amongst church members and this warrants an investigation of relationship marketing as an appropriate tool for the task. However, relationship marketing requires that the building blocks or antecedents of church commitment are clearly identified.

This chapter identifies the antecedents of church commitment and provides an introduction to commitment, non-profit organisations, relationship marketing in churches, the scope of South African churches, church commitment and the antecedents of church commitment. Furthermore, the problem statement, objectives and hypothesis as well as the methodology pertaining to this study is introduced.

1.2 Commitment

Commitment appears to be a precursor of successful marketing relationships. Implying that when commitment is established in a marketing relationship the probability of that marketing relationship to be successful will be high (Mukherjee & Nath, 2007:1176). Commitment can be defined in two parts: "positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in, the work organization" and "the extent to which employees feel committed to their organizations by virtue of the costs that they feel are associated with leaving" (Carmeli, Elizur & Yaniv, 2007:639).

In addition, commitment can be divided into three dimensions: "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership" (Steers, 1977:46). According to Steers (1977:47) there are five outcomes of commitment namely, desire to remain, intent to remain, attendance, employee retention and job performance. When commitment is established with clients or organisation members, the intention of those clients or members to remain with the service provider or organisation is enhanced and when commitment is present, be it clients or organisation members there is some kind of behavioural outflow (Wetzels, De Ruyter & Van Birgelen, 1998:413).

Commitment comprises of three different types: affective, calculative and normative commitment (Bloemer, Schröder & Martens, 2002:5). *Affective commitment* is an individual's need to continue a relationship on the bases if his or her own satisfaction realised in the relationship. Whereas, *calculative commitment* is an individual's need to continue a relationship based on the costs linked with ending the relationship. *Normative commitment* is an individual's perception of his or her moral obligation to continue in the relationship. Commitment therefore has an effect on the devotion an individual shows towards an organisation and it enhances the performance of an organisation's operations (Süß & Kleiner, 2009:42).

1.3 Non-profit organisations

Lettieri, Borga and Savoldelli (2004:16) defined NPOs as "all the organisations aimed at creating social value for society as a whole and which do not recognise as their main goal the creation of profit for stockholders." The ever-present nature of NPOs has led to an increase in the competitive environment surrounding the non-profit sector (Bennett, 2003:335). Whether it be health, art, social services or religious organisations, there are increasing numbers of non-profit and voluntary organisations (Gainer & Padanyi, 2006:182). This implies that the pool for financial support is getting smaller and NPOs need to become more creative in securing sponsorship for the provision of their services (Bennett, 2003:335).

NPOs have various stakeholders, such as shareholders, management and employees, clients, suppliers, government, trade unions, the communities, donors,

media, and the general public (Balser & McClusky, 2005:295). Making it increasingly complicated to effectively manage all of these relationships (Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009:277). The need has become apparent to implement not only marketing, but also relationship marketing strategies in NPOs to assist in developing and managing relationships with stakeholders (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59).

The number of NPOs in South Africa is estimated to exceed 100 000 organisations (Impact Consulting, 2006). There is no exact figure of how many NPOs there are in South Africa because not all NPOs are officially registered. Heinrich (2001:6) has reported that 46% of South Africa's NPOs focus on local communities, 25% have a regional focus and 29% operate on a national level. Because churches are a type of NPO the following section briefly explains relationship marketing and the relevance thereof on the church in general.

1.4 Relationship marketing and churches

The term relationship marketing originated in the 1980s (Petrof, 1997:1). The relational orientation views consumers at the centre of production and marketing processes with consumers seen as co-creators of value (Wolfe, 1998:450). Relationship marketing focuses on developing and maintaining long-term relationships between organisations and their members to establish loyalty (Ndubisi, 2007:99).

Relationships provide the bases for an organisation's activities; these include relationships with clients, distributors and manufacturers (Walden, 2008). The relative importance of relationships increases when institutions are more service orientated. Various benefits arise through establishing relationships with an organisation's members, which include increased customer retention and potential profits (Conway & Swift, 2000:1393). Relationship marketing results in an improvement in the commitment of a client to a service provider and in turn this can increase the level of satisfaction and trust a client perceives to have with that specific services provider (Conway & Swift, 2000:1393).

Relationships are not only important for increasing customer retention but also assist in keeping alternative service providers at a comfortable distance. Relationship

marketing has the ability to build trust, commitment, communications, respect, and affection with the services provider and the client (Colgate & Alexander, 1998:144). It is important to note that relationships are a two-way communication process and is difficult to establish without effective interaction between two constituents.

According to Weideman and Terblanche (2007:59) church-member loyalty has waned over recent years and a possible solution is to implement more effective relationship marketing strategies in churches. Concerning the church, marketing can be viewed as activities that produce a shared exchange of value between the church and its members (McDaniel, 1989:175). It is generally recognisable that one of the church's core foundations is the notion of relationships as voiced in the Bible in Matthew 7:23 (NKJV): "And then I will declare to them, 'I never knew you; depart from Me, you who practice lawlessness!" It is clear that the church's core is based on a relationship with a living eternal God. Parent (2003:59) expands on this by pointing out that a church consists of numerous relationships that need to be managed. Relationship marketing consequently has an important role to play in the management of relationships between a church and its members.

1.5 The scope of South African churches

A church can be defined as "a building for public and especially Christian worship" or "a body or organisation of religious believers" (Merriam-Webster, 2011). Churches are often distinguished according to whether they can be classified as traditional (mainline) or non-traditional (Charismatic) (Dart, 2006:22; Morris, 1983:103). However, the classification of churches can be divided into numerous different denominational classifications with sub-groups, for example Apostolic, Catholic, Baptist. (Membership classifications, 2009). The vast range and extent of denominational classifications renders it nearly impossible to discuss each of these classifications in detail. For the purposes of this study church classifications were divided into traditional (TCs) and non-traditional (NTCs) churches.

1.5.1 The traditional church

The first TC in South Africa was established in 1652 when the Dutch settlers arrived at the Cape of Good Hope (Hofmeyr, 2002:12). Church membership was

predominantly white and only in 1737 did real evangelic efforts spring from the traditional church (Barrett, Kurian & Johnson, 2001:677). During 1910 South Africa was declared a union and by 1995, 83% of the South African population were recognised as Christians (Barrett *et al.,* 2001:677). However, according to the *South African Christian Handbook* (2007-2008:93) there are many South Africans who see themselves as Christians, but do not take part in Christian activities, such as attending church. Moreover, there is an increasingly apparent shift from main-line TCs to NTCs not only in South Africa, but globally (*South African Christian handbook,* 2007-2008:93).

1.5.2 The non-traditional church

The NTC movement originated in the early 1900s, but only flourished during the 1960s when the designation 'charismatic' first appeared (Hocken, 1981:37; Morris, 1983:103). 'Charismatic' stems from the Greek word (charisma) meaning gift and represents a gift from God (Dart, 2006:22). The charismatic movement is characterised by the outpouring of God's spirit and represents the fullness of the Gospel (Hocken, 1981:33). The main signs charismatic believers use, are those of the Holy Spirit, particularly speaking in tongues (Hendrix, 1977:159).

1.6 Church commitment

There is no clear definition of church commitment, but Coleman, Toomey and Woodland (1975:677) suggest that church commitment can be interpreted through the level of attendance and/or church participation. They consequently name the positive effects of religious commitment as: a member's eagerness to stay in a church regardless of any incentives to terminate the relationship, the member's approval of the church's norms, beliefs and values and a church member's willingness to participate in church activities. Payne and Elifson (1976:214) argue that when individuals are committed to a religious organisation the outflow of this commitment produces some kind of action, for example increased church attendance or participation in church activities. They also submit that commitment is facilitated by individuals' beliefs, but still there is an outflow of some action formed from commitment. Consequently, a church that can establish commitment among its members will have more members participating in its activities than a church in which

there is a lack of organisational commitment. But for true church commitment to exist certain preconditions or antecedents must prevail. These antecedents are discussed in the next section.

1.7 The antecedents of church commitment

Information about the antecedents examined here was gathered from the relevant literature and from consulting with experts in the religious profession such as academics and theologians. The marketing literature distinguishes two categories of church commitment antecedents, namely antecedents of church commitment with a broader appeal and church-specific antecedents. Table 1.1 lists these antecedents of church commitment and specifies how they are operationalized.

Table 1.1

Antecedents of church commitment

Antecedent	Studies that include this dimension	Operationalization
Antecedents of church commitment with broad appeal including churches		
Customisation	White & Simas, 2008:154; McDaniel, 1989:175	The degree to which a church will modify its service offering to satisfy its members.
Experience	Dudley,1999:112; Hoge & Petrillo, 1979:306; Finney, 1978:20	Previous encounters and knowledge that have shaped individuals' perceptions about church organisations.
Communication	MacMillan, Money, Money & Downing, 2005:808; Wilson & Keyton, 1993:261	Communication can be viewed as a two-way process that involves the sharing of information between a church and its members.
Trust	Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:63	The assurance that members have in a church organisation's integrity and confidentiality.
Relationship benefits	Reiff, 1996:96	The perceived benefits church members receive by continuing in a relationship with that specific church.
Antecedents of church commitment specifically relevant for churches		
Follow-up	Moyer, 1994:339	Continuing communication with an individual until he or she has come to a conscious decision whether to join a church or not.
Seeker sensitiveness	White & Simas, 2008:154	Adapting the service offering in such a way that will satisfy the needs of church members but dilute the final message.
Beliefs	Parent, 2003:60; Wilson & Keyton, 1993:260; Hoge & Petrillo, 1979:309; Hoge & Carroll, 1978;109	The degree to which individuals share the same values with an organisation. This can include race interests, education, personal faith, and views.
Secularisation	Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:58	Replacing religious values with non-religious values. In other words a movement away from a religious lifestyle.
Compassion	Moyer, 1994:343; Hulme, n.d:342	The manner in which each individual receives individual attention in a caring manner.
Small-groups	What is a small-group, 2010; Wilson & Keyton, 1993:262	A small-group is a gathering, usually 6-10 people, who meet to offer mutual acceptance, support for one another's goals, and encouragement for life's challenges.
Friendships	McGaw, 1979:148	The ties people have with other people in a religious group or church.

The five antecedents of church commitment with broad appeal are described below.

Customisation of church services can play a role in attracting different market segments to a particular church (White & Simas, 2008:154). However, it is noteworthy that customisation of church services does not mean changing the message, only the means by which it is represented. Customisation could involve adding a worship band, music and/or dance (White & Simas, 2008:154). If church services are not adapted the possibility is high that growth will not be realised, regardless of participation by current members (McDaniel, 1989:175).

Experience refers to previous knowledge that individuals have acquired either through things experienced themselves or knowledge acquired through their parents and friends. Friends, and more so parents, have a significant influence on their sibling's feelings towards the church (Hoge & Petrillo, 1979:306). Thus the standards set by the groups surrounding people will determine the way in which these people react towards different churches and their activities (Finney, 1978:20).

Communication is the main tool a church has to attract and retain members. The core product of churches arises from communication. Everyone who has attended a church in their life will know that the preacher communicates a message to its members from a pulpit or stage of some sort. Without communication, whether it is via media or the Internet, church activities cannot take place. Communication has a direct effect on the commitment of members to a church (Wilson & Keyton, 1993:260). The nature as well as the communication medium used could enhance or detract from individuals committing to a non-profit organisation (Wilson & Keyton, 1993:261). Furthermore, when individuals are asked what communication medium they prefer, and adhered to, it leads to an increase in the level of commitment to that organisation (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2005:72).

Trust is a building block of commitment (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:63). Morgan and Hunt (1994:23) confirm that trust leads to commitment and commitment leads to behavioural intentions such as loyalty. Therefore it is imperative to establish trust with an organisation's members to ensure that there is an outflow to commitment.

Relationship benefits are those benefits individuals receive by being affiliated or involved in a church and contribute to individuals committing to a church (Reiff, 1996:96). The benefits can possibly be spiritual, social or psychological.

The seven antecedents of church commitment specifically relevant for churches are follow-up, seeker sensitiveness, beliefs, secularisation, compassion, small-groups and friendships.

Follow-up implies continuing contact with a person that has either visited the church for the first time or made a renewed commitment to God. This implies that the person is contacted during the week after the church meeting to ensure that he or she does

not lose interest or to make sure that he or she feels welcome and part of the church family (Moyer, 1994:339). Furthermore, *follow-up* can be viewed as a relationship-building process with new visitors to the church, facilitating new members from being inactive to becoming active participants in a local church. Effective *follow-up* produces friendships and these friendships will have a greater effect on converting new visitors into active members. However, *follow-up* cannot be completed by just one member of a church, but need to include many members, given size and time constraints on the church and its members (Everett, 1985:154)

Seeker sensitiveness implies that churches adapt their service offering by including music, drama and other arts to attract especially more young individuals to join churches (White & Simas, 2008:154). This is a form of customisation, however it is also possible to become so focused on gaining new members that a church will do anything to satisfy its members and veer from the message that needs to be preached. According to Perrin (2001:93) there is evidence that seeker-sensitive churches do tend to move away from doctrine. This involves moving away from preaching the entire Word of God to a watered down 'acceptable' gospel that will appeal to seeker-sensitive church members. Furthermore, seeker-sensitive churches have the ability to attract existing believers to their churches, but not necessarily the unsaved (Sargeant, 2001:24).

The *beliefs* individuals have about churches can determine the level of participation and commitment that they will invest in a church. Also, the more a church member believes that attending church is necessary for salvation and the more he or she believes that his or her church proclaims God's truth more than other churches the higher the level of participation and commitment will be (Hoge & Carroll, 1978:109).

Beliefs can also be shaped by family and friends and they are linked to past experience (Hoge & Petrillo, 1979:309). Individuals want to be affiliated with churches that have the same values as they do (Wilson & Keyton, 1993:260). It is also possible as knowledge about God and the church increase that individual's *beliefs* change (Hoge & Petrillo, 1979:309). This implies that the more one is exposed to the truth the more one's eyes open to see the untruths. Therefore, as knowledge about God and the church increase, knowledge concerning a lifestyle outside of God and the church is exposed to be an untruth.

Secularisation involves a movement away from God and the church to human creations such as materialism, entertainment and the need to have more, be it power or money (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:58). Why do people not want to attend church? This is an important question that needs to be answered and *secularisation* quite likely plays a significant role in the answer. As the world becomes more advanced religion becomes less and less important (Crabtree, 2008). This begs the future question whether *secularisation* is the reason why the Word of God is often not being preached anymore? Bloom (2008:42) points out that there are churches that no longer want to worship or mention the name of God, rather only to worship the Bible. Is this true Christianity or is the church simply becoming an activity of entertainment?

Compassion plays a central part in a church's role of building relationships with members. *Compassion* is one of the central themes in the Bible and it is especially important in ministering to church members (Hulme, n.d:342). "And when Jesus went out He saw a great multitude; and He was moved with compassion for them, and healed their sick" (Matthew 14:14, The Bible, 2002 NKJV). "Finally, all of you be of one mind, having compassion for one another" (1 Peter 3:8, The Bible, 2002 NKJV). It is important for new members to have compassionate support in the first few months after their salvation (Moyer, 1994:343).

Small-groups are vital for building relationships with church members. It is virtually impossible for a pastor to greet or try to get to know everyone in a congregation that has a regular meeting attendance of 1000 members or more. The purpose of *small-groups* is to get together as a group of believers during the week to build relationships with each other (Wilson & Keyton, 1993:267). In this way members can make friends in the church and become part of a larger family of believers (Jones, 2006:31).

Finally, denominational commitment can be determined by the *friendship* circles people find themselves in. *Friendships* form relational ties and people are more likely to commit to a church denomination where they already have existing relationships. (McGaw, 1979:148).

The antecedents of church commitment is summarised in Figure 1.1 and Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.1

Antecedents of church commitment with broad appeal (including churches)

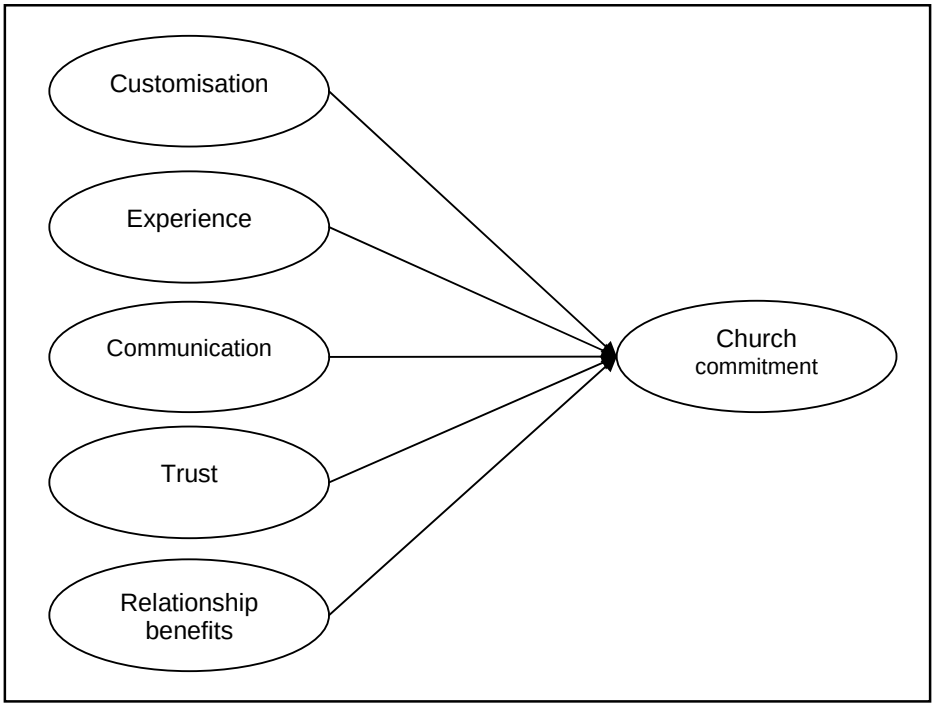
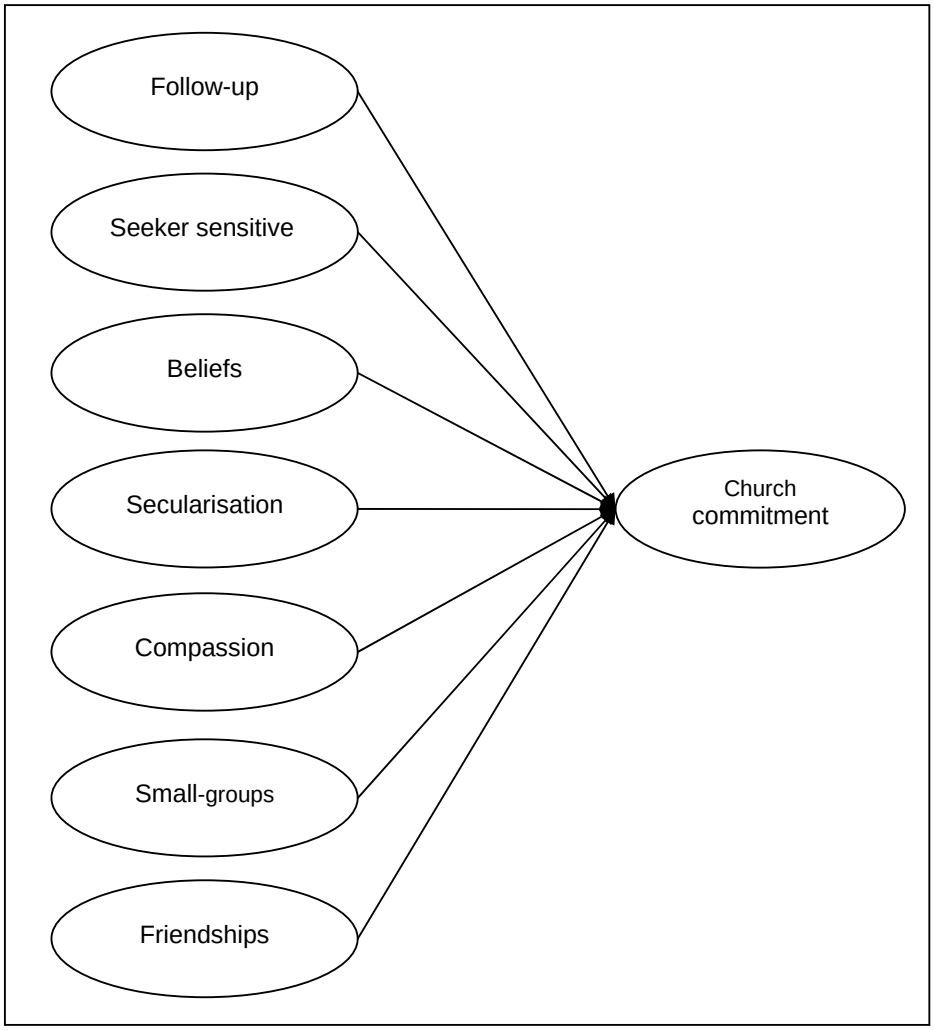


Figure 1.2

Antecedents of church commitment specifically relevant for churches



1.8 Problem statement

The literature suggests that church attendance is becoming more of an occasional occupation than a continuous lifestyle (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:58). The question arises whether it is possible for a church to counteract the lack of commitment by members. The marketing literature points to various antecedents for the establishment of church-member commitment. Despite the emerging importance and relevance of relationship marketing to churches, no framework could be found in which commitment can be managed in South African churches. There is thus an indisputable need to determine how churches can manage commitment with members.

1.9 Objectives

Primary objective:

The primary objective of this study is to assess the significance of each antecedent of church commitment.

The primary objective is supported by four secondary objectives, namely to

- Identify the antecedents of church commitment;
- Investigate the relationships between the broad-appeal church commitment variables and church commitment;
- Examine the relationships between the specific church commitment variables and church commitment;
- Establish whether there are differences between traditional and non-traditional churches concerning the antecedents of church commitment.

The objectives were accomplished by compiling hypotheses and conducting the appropriate assessments. These hypotheses are described in the next section.

1.10 Hypotheses

Sixteen directional hypotheses were formulated for the purposes of this study. The hypotheses are divided into three groups, namely hypotheses concerning antecedents with broad appeal (including churches), hypotheses specifically relevant for churches, and hypotheses for testing the differences between the commitment antecedents in traditional and non-traditional churches.

Hypotheses with broad-appeal (including churches) are:

H_1: There is a positive relationship between trust and church commitment

H_2: There is a positive relationship between experience and church commitment

H_3: There is a positive relationship between communication and church commitment

H_4: There is a positive relationship between relationship benefits and church commitment

H_5: There is a positive relationship between customisation and church commitment

Hypotheses specifically relevant for churches are:

H_6: There is a positive relationship between follow-up and church commitment

H_7: There is a negative relationship between seeker sensitiveness and church commitment

H_8: There is a positive relationship between beliefs and church commitment.

H_9: There is a negative relationship between secularisation and church commitment

H_{10}: There is a positive relationship between compassion and church commitment

H_{11}: There is a positive relationship between small-groups and church commitment

H_{12}: There is a positive relationship between friendships and church commitment

Hypotheses for determining differences between commitment antecedents in TCs and NTCs are:

H_{13}**:** There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and church commitment.

H_{14}: There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and small-groups

H_{15}: There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and church follow-up

H_{16}: There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and reliability

1.11 Methodology

This section briefly introduces the research design, sampling, data collection, and data analysis.

1.11.1 Research design

The research design employed in this study was a survey method, specifically an online self-administered questionnaire. It appears that a survey is the preferred research method across the scope of literature investigated (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009:4). This design makes use of information collected from a sample population in the form of a questionnaire. This study therefore, utilises a quantitative research approach.

1.11.2 Sampling

"The purpose of sampling is to estimate an unknown characteristic of a population" (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:403). This means that "sampling is defined in terms of the population being studied" (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:403). This subsection briefly describes the population and sample frame, method, sample size and the measurement instrument.

1.11.2.1 Population and sample frame

The population of this study consist of the students of Stellenbosch University, who were at the time of the survey either attending church meetings or who have

previously attended church meetings in or outside of Stellenbosch. Although individual churches have their own databases, it was not possible to gain access to these databases. Therefore no sample frame was used.

1.11.2.2 Method

A non-probability sampling method was chosen and convenience sampling was applied. The convenience sample was the selection of Stellenbosch University students as sampling elements. The reason for using students as the sample elements is that most students leave Stellenbosch University after they have graduated and thus their respective churches too. It is therefore worthwhile for churches to establish effective ways to facilitate church commitment so that when students leave they might join the same denomination in another town if possible. Students are also the future middle to high-income earners who could contribute a large proportion of churches' income.

A list of churches was compiled after discussions with the Student Representative Council (SRC) at Stellenbosch University, church leaders and students. The list was verified against Stellenbosch University's database which indicated the different churches Stellenbosch students attend (Odendaal, 2011; *Kerke van Stellenbosch, 2010*). This was done to ensure the completeness of the list of churches students attend.

The churches in the list were classified into TCs and NTCs to ensure that sufficient responses would be received form students representing the two categories of churches. For convenience purposes of the completion of the measurement instrument for this study, church denominations with fewer than 1000 student members were not included. Table 1.2 lists the church denominations that qualified for inclusion.

Table 1.2

Traditional and non-traditional church denominations

Church Denomination
Traditional
Anglican Church
Dutch Reformed Church
Methodist Church
Roman Catholic Church
Stellenbosch Gemeente
Non-traditional
Every Nation
Shofar

The sample included individuals that were either currently members of a TC or NTC or who were members of a TC or NTC church in the past. These individuals were men and women between the ages of 18 to 26 years. The research proposal was submitted to the ethics committee of Stellenbosch University to receive permission for conducting the study among Stellenbosch University students. Accordingly, permission was granted to proceed with the study.

1.11.2.3 Sample size

The total student population of 27 694 students of Stellenbosch University was included in this study (Stellenbosch University, 2010). The aim was to obtain at least 400 respondents.

1.11.2.4 Measurement instrument

The measurement instrument (i.e. questionnaire) items were taken from the marketing literature. In some cases it was necessary to adapt the items slightly to fit the specific environment. The modifications were done with care so as not to change the original meaning of the questions. The questionnaire was designed in a structured format with no open-ended questions except for those eliciting demographic information. Each construct measured consisted of 4 to 5 items and to reduce possible respondent fatigue constructs were grouped in a final questionnaire consisting of 27 items.

1.11.3 Data collection

The questionnaire was sent by email to students followed by two emailed reminders. The first reminder was sent a week later while the second reminder was sent two weeks later providing students with a three week deadline to complete the questionnaire. Respondent errors were reduced by including a cover letter and a description of the study with a short guide on completing the questionnaire effectively.

1.11.4 Data analysis

The statistical programmes that were used for data analysis were CheckboxSurvey 4.7 and SPSS version 18, to calculate medians and modes and compile frequency tables. A linear regression analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the independent variables (antecedents of church commitment) and the dependent variable (church commitment) and whether the selected independent variables were the best predictors or building blocks in managing relationships between churches and their members. T-tests were applied to determine whether there are significant difference between TCs and NTCs. The reliability of the results was determined through the measurement of coefficient alpha. The statistical significance of the data was tested at $p \leq 0, 05$, which means that the data was measured at a 95% level of confidence.

1.12 Marketing theories

Marketing incorporates various theories intended to explain the interactions between individuals and organisations. These theories attempt to describe the reasons for interactions between individuals and organisations and the rationale behind individuals entering into relationships with organisations. Four of these theories are: the dual-process theory which claims that there are two systems of cognitive processing that individuals undergo (Kvaran, 2007:23); transaction cost theory focuses on costs “incurred in making an economic exchange” (Akbari, 2005a); resource dependency theory states “that actors lacking in essential resources will seek to establish relationships with others in order to obtain needed resources” (Akbari, 2005b); social exchange theory states that individuals have a dependence

on each other in a relationship due to the benefits they receive from one another (Lambe, Whittman & Spekman, 2001:3).

This study attempted to develop social exchange theory in terms of the mutual relational exchange between a church and its members. Furthermore, a church cannot exist without members and a member cannot be a church on its own. There are various benefits a church receives from a member and vice versa. Therefore, social exchange theory is applicable to churches even though there are a small number of monetary transactions that take place between a church and its members.

1.13 Orientation of the study

Chapter 1 provided background on NPOs, relationship marketing, church commitment and its antecedents and introduced the purpose and objectives of the study as well as a summary of the methodology. Chapter 2 provides an overview of marketing from its conception to where it has evolved to currently whilst Chapter 3 discusses NPOs and concludes with a description of the South African non-profit sector. Chapter 4 focuses on marketing practices in NPOs and Chapter 5 emphasises churches, the role of commitment and discusses the antecedents of church commitment. Chapter 6 describes the methodology pertaining to the study, which includes the final questionnaire items and hypotheses to be assessed with Chapter 7 presenting the empirical findings. Finally, Chapter 8 discusses the conclusion and recommendations which reflect the empirical findings of this study.

CHAPTER 2
OVERVIEW OF MARKETING

2.1 Introduction

Marketing is a concept used by a wide range of organisations, consumers and researchers and it is a general term used to describe organisations' efforts to promote products and services to achieve organisational objectives (Grönroos, 1989:53). Although marketing activities have been in existence for more than two millennia, marketing as a discipline was conceived at the beginning of the 1900's (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:397). Since then marketing as a whole has evolved through various phases of development ranging from being production and transaction-orientated to being focused on relationships (Petrof, 1997:27; Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:397; Bartels, 1976:3). Marketing is a concept that can be applied to the for-profit as well as the non-profit sectors. Whether a company wants to promote its products or services or even a concept, marketing is the driving force through which it can be accomplished (Foxall, 1989:9).

This chapter overviews marketing thought and the key areas in the development of marketing. The chapter considers marketing over time, services marketing, societal marketing, relationship marketing and social networking.

2.2 Summary of marketing history

Some of the earliest forms of marketing occurred in 2700 BC where the Egyptians used branding to identify their livestock and in 1300 BC where the Chinese, Romans and Indians used branding on their porcelain, pottery and other goods (Khan & Mufti, 2007:76). Since then marketing has developed as a discipline through various stages with the emphasis shifting from a transaction-based orientation to a relationship-based orientation of marketing (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:397). The period 1870-1930 was characterised as the production era, with emphasis on high levels of production and limited focus on consumer needs and wants. The production era was followed by the sales era during the 1930s (Keith, 1960:36). The 1950s and 1960s saw the development of the marketing concept and marketing mix respectively (Svensson, 2005:6; Bartels, 1976:7). Services marketing evolved during the 1970s

(Brown, Fisk & Bitner, 1994:23). Followed by the development of the relationship marketing orientation during the 1980s and social networking which became evident during the late 1990s early 2000s (Boyd & Ellison, 2007:214; Petrof, 1997:1). The sections to follow provide a more comprehensive description of the marketing eras provided.

2.3 Marketing in the period 1300-1900

Legislation was approved in 1266 in England making it compulsory for bread bakers to place their trademarks on all the bread they sold (Khan & Mufti, 2007:77). Since then marketing has evolved to a more complex discipline. In the 1300s and 1400s goods were produced with high quality due to the relationships that were built between buyers and suppliers (Gras, 1940:286). The probable reason for this could be that suppliers had more knowledge about buyers needs and could therefore adapt products accordingly. Relationships thus began to play an important role in business and marketing during this time period. The 1450s saw Johannes Gutenberg's invention of the first printing press which made it possible to introduce mass marketing to the general public (Inventions from the 1400's, 2010).

During the 1850s the producers of goods were predominantly domestically based and products were marketed by the producers themselves (McKinnon, 1989:43). The development of the railways and the entry of low-cost food imports during the 1860s led to the emergence of marketing intermediaries (McKinnon, 1989:44). Marketing activities increased during the 1880s when furniture corporations in The United States of America started to promote their products in catalogues (Witkowski, 1998:129). During the 1870s up to early 1900s the production era came to the forefront (Keith, 1960:36).

2.4 Marketing in the period 1900-1970

The first use of marketing as a separate construct took place in the period 1906 to 1911 while the conception of contemporary marketing occurred at the start of the twentieth century (Petrof, 1997:27). Table 2.1 indicates the stages in the development of marketing thought from 1900 to 1970.

Table 2.1

Stages in the development of marketing thought, 1900 to 1970

Time period	Marketing stage	Description
1900-1909	Discovery	The beginning of marketing and the identification of the name.
1910-1919	Conceptualisation	Development of marketing definitions and terms.
1920-1929	Integration	Marketing principles and school of thought emerged.
1930-1939	Development	Specialisation in different marketing concepts developed.
1940-1949	Reappraisal	Scientific methods were considered and the increased need for marketing knowledge.
1950-1959	Reconception	A new philosophy of the marketing concept emerged including customer satisfaction and social responsibility.
1960-1969	Differentiation	New concepts such as managerialism, environmentalism, holism, systems, and integration developed.
1970	Socialisation	The influence of marketing upon society became important.

Sources: Adapted from Petrof, 1997:27; Bartels, 1976:3

Table 2.1 reveals the maturing of marketing thought from the discovery of marketing towards the socialisation of marketing in the 1970s (Bartels, 1976:3). During the same period various marketing eras emerged, namely the manufacturing era, the sales orientation era, and the marketing era.

2.4.1 The production era

The production era emerged during the 1870s and continued until the 1930s (Keith, 1960:36). Improvements in technology and enhancements in managerial practices set the production era in motion, while distribution was initially seen as an inconsequential concern (Fullerton, 1988:108). However, according to Egan (2008:5), during the period 1910 to 1920 emphasis also shifted towards the distribution of products and not just the production of goods. The production era therefore emphasised the importance of the distribution of products as well. Table 2.2 provides some characteristics of the production era.

Table 2.2

Characteristics of the production era

Characteristic
Organisations focused their attention primarily on production. Distribution was left to retailers and wholesalers.
Limited product lines were produced with production requirements emphasised instead of consumer needs.
There was an excess in the demand of products and limited competition in each product market.
Products were known to sell themselves and extensive marketing techniques were not necessary.
The production era was not marketing orientated or focused on consumers needs and wants.

Source: Compiled from Fullerton, 1988:108

A criticism of the production era is that there was no emphasis on marketing and the satisfaction of the needs of consumers (Fullerton, 1988:108). The focus was on producing goods and therefore the production era eventually led to a divergence between consumer's needs and organisation's supply of products (Theron, 2008:36). This implies that suppliers were not satisfying the needs of consumers through the goods which they produced.

2.4.2 The sales era

The sales era originated during the 1930s and was birthed from an excess supply of goods caused by high levels of production during the production era (Theron, 2008:37; Keith, 1960:36). The excess supply of goods was also the result of a reduction in the disposable income of individuals, which forced organisations to develop effective sales teams to sell products resulting from mass production (Marketing: Historical Perspectives, 2010). The sales era was characterised by an increased emphasis on advertising and promotion (Keith, 1960:36). The objective of the sales era was therefore to sell products through the use of advertising and promotions and not necessarily to satisfy consumers' needs.

2.4.3 The marketing era

The marketing era originated during the 1950s and was characterised by an emphasis on customers' needs and wants (Fullerton, 1988:108). The marketing orientation did not only emphasise the production or the sale of goods, but the preferences of consumers. Accordingly, the "marketing orientation is understood as the acceptance of the marketing concept" (Esteban, Millán, Molina & Consuegra, 2002:1005).

As marketing-focussed research during the 1950s started to concentrate on the needs of consumers, the marketing concept began to develop (Svensson, 2005:6). The marketing concept emphasises the needs and wants of consumers (Grönroos, 1989:56). This notion implies that marketing should be introduced at the beginning of the product life cycle and make consumers part of the production process (Petrof, 1997:27).

Kimery and Rinehart (1998:121) define the marketing concept as:

> "…a business philosophy that holds profitable customer satisfaction as the goal of all functional areas of a business entity and the primary means of achieving long-term organisational success. The marketing concept supports the cross-functional collection, analysis, and integration of customer and critical constituency information into strategic and operational decisions throughout the organization. Critical constituencies are those groups who have some interest in the organization's activities or outcomes and who are able to exercise a significant level of influence over the organization and/or its customers."

The marketing concept therefore accentuates satisfying the needs of customers through a customer-centred orientation as well as adding value to these customers (Ravald & Grönroos,1996:19; Haywood, 1990:196). According to McGee and Spiro (1998:40) there are three notions around which the marketing concept revolves, namely customer orientation, integrated effort and profit direction. Customer orientation refers to knowing what the customers' needs and wants are while integrated effort points to all activities in an organisation that needs to be integrated to deliver a product or service which is suited to consumers' needs and wants. Finally, the marketing concept places its emphasis on profits and not sales.

The marketing concept laid the foundation for the marketing mix. Bordon (1984:7) indicated that a marketer can be viewed as "one who is constantly engaged in fashioning creatively a mix of marketing procedures and policies in his efforts to produce a profitable enterprise" and further he specified eleven elements of the marketing mix which were reduced to the four Ps of marketing.

The marketing mix was first introduced during the 1960s due to an excess supply in goods (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:406; Bartels, 1976:7). Marketing was required to sell these surplus goods and this resulted in the development of concepts such as advertising, promotions and distribution (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:406). The four Ps were used to assist companies in maximising their profits and the greater a company's market share the greater a company's profits would be (Ambler & Styles, 2003:634). The four Ps are product (the product itself), place (the distribution

channels), promotion (all marketing activities related to the sale of the product) and the price (the financial expenditure associated with the purchase of a product). A criticism for the marketing mix is that there is doubt surrounding the validity of the four Ps as a marketing theory (Ambler & Styles, 2003:634). Moreover, Constantinides (2006:409) points out that the marketing mix is not sufficient to address the marketing of services, the management of relationships and the marketing of industrial products.

2.5 Services marketing

The academic foundation of services marketing literature was laid in the 1970s (Brown *et al.*, 1994:23). Nevertheless, it was only during the 1980s that services marketing literature experienced a large influx and the marketing of services took off. Services marketing differ from marketing tangible goods because it requires more than just a financial transaction to receive the service (Brown *et al.*, 1994:28). The transaction orientation emphasised the acquisition of customers and not the development of long-term marketing relationships with those customers. Services are limited by having few or no tangible attributes that consumers can judge them by. Unlike physical products, services rely on intangible attributes to assist in satisfying clients' needs. The type of service offered influences the importance of the various characteristics of a marketing relationship (Ward & Dagger, 2007:286). This implies that different services have different attributes of value and the attributes having greater value need to be emphasised. Dissimilar services may have the same relational attributes, but the importance of these attributes diverge.

Consequently, it is appropriate that relationship managers in services develop an effective marketing relationship framework for customers. If an ineffective framework is developed, resources will be wasted and customers left unsatisfied (Ward & Dagger, 2007:287). Relationship marketing can be used as a tool to develop competitive advantage over rivals in a services industry (Veloutsou, Saren & Tzokas, 2002:434). Clients are co-producers of value in services and interaction between customers and services representatives is essential for the success of a services provider (Arias, 1998:148).

The interaction between customers and services representatives leads to the development of marketing relationships (Arias, 1998:148). When clients return to a services provider, it is preferred that those clients are served by the same services representative because a particular services representative is already familiar with the customer and serving that customer again can increase the strength of the relationship and lead to trust (Arias, 1998:148). Note however that this assumption may not be true for all services. Julian and Ramaseshan (1994:30) conclude that most customers view the service representative as the service, in other words, everything that the service representative does becomes a part of a customer's evaluation of the service.

2.6 Societal marketing

During the time services' marketing was being established, societal marketing came to the forefront. Societal marketing originated in the 1970s promoting increased responsibility for marketing from society's point of view (Crane & Desmond, 2002:548). Societal marketing is "the marketing activity that focuses on society rather than the individual consumer as its audience" (Ward & Lewandowska, 2006:243). Societal marketing promotes principles that protect the consumer and enhances the long-term well-being of society as well as introducing ethical values into the marketing of products and services (Abratt & Sacks, 1989:25). One of the characteristics of societal marketing is providing "community aid or charity" to society (Ward & Lewandowska, 2006:244). It follows that societal marketing can be practised by for-profit (FPOs) and NPOs, but societal marketing is most likely more important for NPOs given their lack of profit incentives (Crane & Desmond, 2002:553).

Organisations can use societal marketing to differentiate themselves from their rivals and create an emotional link with their clients (Meyer, 1999:27). In the case of NPOs customers could include beneficiaries, donors, the media and society as a whole. Cause-related marketing is a type of societal marketing that can be implemented by FPOs as well as NPOs (Chattananon, Lawley, Trimetsoontorn, Supparerkchaisakul & Leelayouthayothin, 2007:232). Cause-related marketing is defined as marketing activities that enhance corporate performance and assist worthy causes (Varadarajan & Menon, 1998:59). NPOs are usually directly related to some or other cause which

they promote. Therefore, cause-related marketing is more applicable to NPOs than FPOs.

An example of a NPO undertaking societal marketing is a religious organisation. A priority of a religious organisation is improving the overall welfare of society while at the same time satisfying the needs of individual members (Abreu, 2006:140). Societal marketing also introduces a moral dimension into marketing by ensuring customers of safe products or services, and by escalating the attention on customer needs to bring about objectives set for society as a whole (Crane & Desmond, 2002:564).

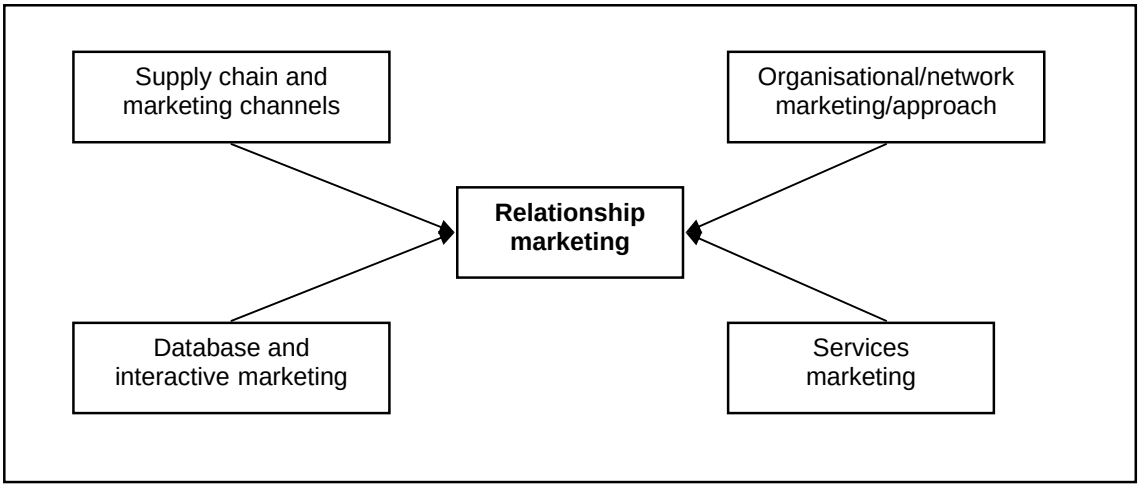
2.7 Relationship marketing

The term 'relationship marketing' came to the fore in the 1980s (Petrof, 1997:1). Marketing initially developed around the notion of exchange and the value created through transactions between companies and consumers (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:402). This notion was short-lived when the emphasis switched from value exchanges to value creation (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:403). In other words, the consumer became part of the production process and contributed to the value they received through the products they purchased. A relational orientation developed through consumers being made part of the value-creation process. The requirement for consumer information increased and this led to an increased focus on relationships (Wolfe, 1998:450).

Relationship marketing has been defined as "all marketing activities directed toward establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relational exchanges" (Morgan & Hunt, 1994:22). These relational exchanges refer to incorporating clients and channel members into marketing activities and making them part of the production process (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:399). There are four main groups in which relationship marketing found its origin and which can be used as a guideline for the different types of relationships that exist between organisations, suppliers and consumers (Brito, 2008:5; Eiriz & Wilson, 2006:282). The four groups are illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1

Conceptual roots of relationship marketing



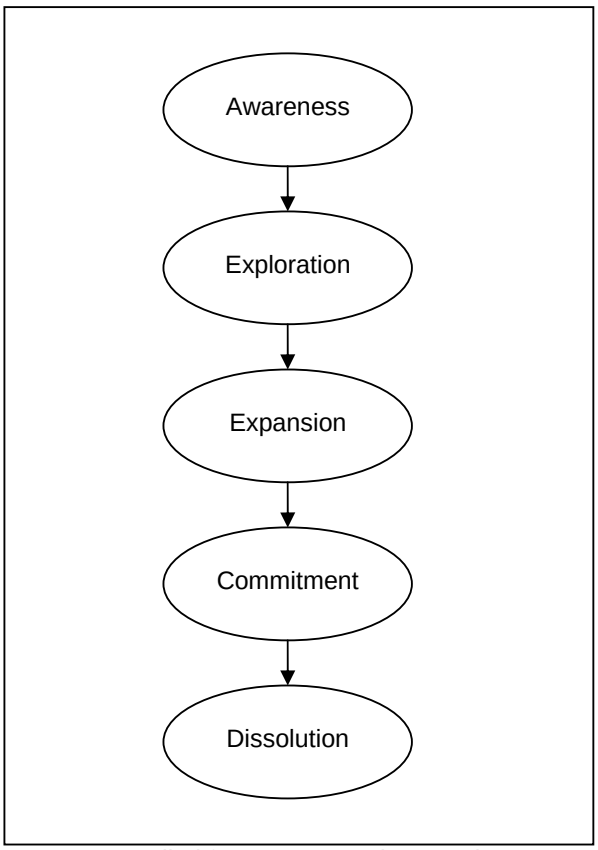
Sources: Adapted from Brito, 2008:5; Eiriz & Wilson, 2006:282

The supply chain and marketing channel node examines the power distance between channel members and its effects on relationships within these channels (Eiriz & Wilson, 2006:283). Power refers to the extent to which channel members need to exert pressure on other members to achieve performance objectives and to improve cooperation between members (Morgan & Hunt, 1994:26). *Database and interactive marketing* derives from improvements in technologies and allows organisations to keep track of consumer preferences and manage consumer relationships more effectively (Brito, 2008:7). *Organisational marketing* is similar to relationship marketing but includes marketing to the employees of a company thereby strengthening the internal network (Eiriz & Wilson, 2006:283). Another foundational root of relationship marketing is *services marketing* in that consumers contribute to the consumption as well as the production of services. In addition the building of relationships with consumers assists organisations in satisfying consumer needs more effectively (Brito, 2008:6).

According to Dwyer, Schurr and Oh (1987) marketing relationships have five stages of development as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2

Stages of development of marketing relationships



Source: Compiled from Dwyer, Schurr & Oh,1987

The *awareness* phase recognises the possibility of developing a partnership on the basis of the compatibility and the attractiveness two partners show towards each other. During the *exploration* phase both parties consider entry into a marketing relationship and evaluate the benefits and risks associated with the intended relationship; that is the level of attractiveness from both parties' point of view is determined. The *expansion* phase signifies each partner involved in the marketing relationship approving the relationship, and as the benefits of the marketing relationship increases so do the interdependencies between the partners. The *commitment* phase is characterised by loyalty. The marketing relationship has been established and both partners are willing to continue in the relationship without searching for alternatives. Each partner perceives that the benefits of the marketing relationship outweigh the risks and the interdependence between these partners' increases as the number of transactions between them increases. In the *dissolution* phase partners decide to end the marketing relationship. Dissolution could be caused by dissatisfaction and/or expectations being set too high in the beginning of the

marketing relationship. These stages of development can be used to identify the level of commitment exchange partners have reached in the development of their marketing relationship.

Relationship marketing has a long-term orientation and focuses on developing long-term marketing relationships with clients and retaining those clients in the future (Ambler & Styles, 2003:635; Grönroos, 1989:56). Relationship marketing views marketing relationships between consumers, companies and channel members as strategic assets and draws customers into the production process of organisations and make them part of the value-creation process (Ambler & Styles, 2003:634; Petrof, 1997:28). Furthermore, relationship marketing puts emphasis on consumers and determines what consumers' needs, desires and preferences are before developing products and services or undertaking marketing campaigns. An example of this is to research the specifications clients prefer in motor vehicles (colour, size, fuel consumption) and implementing these specifications in the production process of the vehicles.

Long-term relationships lead to higher profits than short-term transactions. Making the development of long-term relationships with customers important. Maintaining marketing relationships can lead to competitive advantage over rivals and this competitive advantage is established through the development of trust between customers and services representatives (Arias, 1998:149). When a customer trusts a services provider, he or she will be more likely to be committed to that services provider (Caceres & Paparoidamis, 2007:845). But relationship marketing does not only pertain to developing marketing relationships with customers, but also the building and maintaining of strong relationships with employees. Employees are the frontline services representatives (Julian & Ramaseshan, 1994:29). For this reason, employees need to understand their job descriptions and they must be satisfied with their working environments, otherwise unsatisfied employees can negatively impact clients' satisfaction (Lindgreen & Crawford, 1999:236).

Relationship marketing forces organisations and marketing managers to spend more time and resources on understanding what consumers want and need. These resources could include database management, product guarantees and loyalty programmes. The following two sections look at key aspects of maintaining and

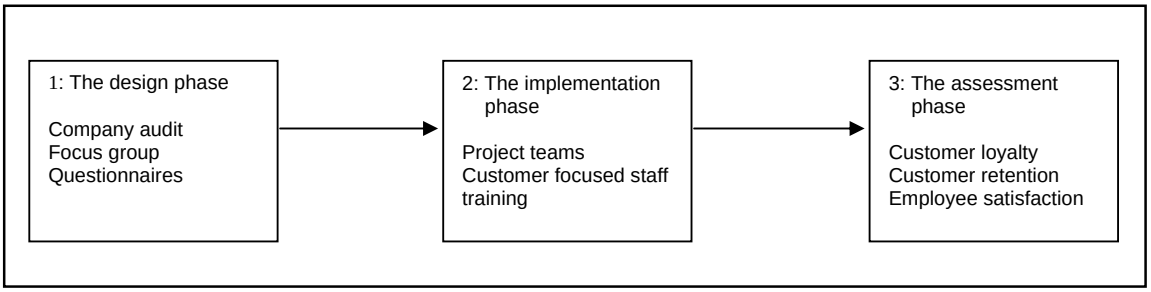
improving marketing relationships, namely measuring relationships and understanding the benefits of relationship marketing respectively.

2.7.1 Measuring marketing relationships

Organisations must measure marketing relationships so that when weaknesses are detected in an organisation's processes and procedures, the appropriate adjustments can be made. Figure 2.3 illustrates a programme by Lindgreen and Crawford (1999:235) that can assist an organisation to measure marketing relationships.

Figure 2.3

Three-phase programme for measuring relationship marketing



Source: Adapted from Lindgreen & Crawford, 1999:235

According to Lindgreen and Crawford (1999:235) the first phase evaluates the problem inside the company. Problem detection takes place through focus groups, questionnaires and company audits. Employees and clients are part of this evaluation process. During this phase the major dimensions associated in delivering a product or service is evaluated and the problem areas are identified and solutions developed. In the second phase the solutions are implemented through the training of staff and regular and effective communication between top management and employees. New strategies implemented in the second phase are appraised in the assessment phase which focuses on the level to which customer loyalty, customer retention and employee satisfaction has improved.

It is noteworthy that the programme depicted in Figure 2.3 may not necessarily be applicable to all organisations focusing on the management of marketing relationships. In measuring relationship marketing it is crucial to determine the major dimensions of a specific service provider's marketing relationships with its clients. Without clear definition of the dimensions, the service provider or organisation will not

be able to effectively evaluate or solve service- or customer-related problems such as lack of customer satisfaction and customer retention.

2.7.2 Benefits of relationship marketing

The importance of relationship marketing has increased significantly since its conception, owing to the amplified standards of the quality of services now available from organisations today. Service quality by itself cannot be viewed as the main component of competitive advantage, but the implementation of relationship marketing strategies is necessary for organisations to compete effectively (Nufer & Bühler, 2009:1).

It is important to distinguish between the organisational and consumer benefits of relationship marketing. Consumers' benefits of relationship marketing include improved confidence in an organisation, reduced risk, simplifying the decision-making process, increased efficiency, and social and functional benefits. Social benefits include the pleasure or trust generated from a marketing relationship while functional benefits are those benefits associated with the purchase of a product such as its convenience and functionality (Navarro, Iglesias & Torres, 2004:427). Organisational benefits that arise through the implementation of relationship marketing include positive word of mouth, customer retention, repeat purchase behaviour and increased satisfaction (Ashton & Pressey, 2004:455).

Relationship marketing assists in facilitating cooperation between buyers and suppliers making a two-way process offering support for the buyers and the suppliers of products (Conway & Swift, 2000:1391). The value of relationship marketing increases when there is little or no differentiation between the products provided by suppliers. The emotional attachment formed through developing relationships between exchange partners can realise a competitive advantage over organisations competing for the same market (Gould, 1998:24). Inevitably, developing marketing relationships with clients not only enhances an organisation's ability to be more competitive but conceivably increases customer retention and repeat purchases. Therefore, retaining clients brings forth higher profits than searching for new ones (Verhoef, 2003:41).

2.8 Social networking (1990s onwards)

Social networking is "a collection of individuals linked together by a set of relations" whether it be electronically or in person (Downes, 2005:411). This implies that individuals are linked to each other through active relationships with one another. There is no precise date to which social networking's advent can be traced, but the first social networking website was introduced in 1997 (Boyd & Ellison, 2007:214). This site encouraged users to construct profiles of themselves and send one another messages (Boyd & Ellison, 2007:214). Since then social networks have proliferated with web-based social networks like Facebook, You Tube, MySpace and Twitter being widely used, offering immense opportunities for marketing (Cain, 2008:1).

Facebook, MySpace and Twitter are social networks that provide individuals with the opportunity to upload personal information, invite friends to their networks and share opinions, interests and day to day activities with one another while You Tube can be used to upload video clips. These social networks provide potential advertising mediums directly to individuals.

Social networks also provide information to organisations about the interests and demographics of prospective customers through individuals personal profile information (Hartline, Mirrokni & Sundararajan, 2008:189). According to Van Laere and Heene (2003:248) social networks also exist between organisations and their customers, competitors and suppliers' trough business-to-business marketing and the exchange of information. Traditional social networks allow any person to join that network while other social networks only permit those whom belong to a specific organisation, group or collection of friends (within a social network (Social Networking, 2011).

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter overviewed marketing from its conception to where it has progressed to in its current state. The major stages marketing evolved through over the past 100 years were described. These stages ranged from the emergence of the production era to present day social networking and include the shift from a transaction based view of marketing to a relationship based view of marketing. Relationship marketing

places its emphasis on building long-term relationships, whether it is with FPOs and their clients or NPOs and their stakeholders. The role of marketing in FPOs as well as NPOs is essential in achieving organisational objectives. In this study the centre of attention is on marketing by NPOs and building long-term relationships with their constituents. Therefore, it is necessary to discuss the environment and marketing of NPOs.

The next chapter explores the nature and structure of NPOs as well as accountability and fundraising in NPO. The ethical climate in NPOs is discussed as well as an overview of the South African non-profit sector.

CHAPTER 3
NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS

3.1 Introduction

The ever-present nature of NPOs has lead to an increase in the competitive environment surrounding the non-profit sector (Bennett, 2003:335). Whether it is health, art, social services or religious organisations there are increasing numbers of non-profit and voluntary organisations (Gainer & Padanyi, 2006:182). This means that the pool of financial support is getting smaller and NPOs need to become more creative in securing sponsorship for the provision of their services (Bennett, 2003:335).

There is a continuing intensifying need for NPOs to be held accountable for the management of stakeholders' funds (Gainer & Padanyi, 2006:182). The question arises how these NPOs will secure resources for their continued operations. An obvious answer lies in developing an effective marketing strategy (Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009:277). Even though NPOs do not have profit incentives they need the adequate financial support to conduct their day-to-day activities (Wu & Hung, 2008:322).

This chapter elaborates on the definition, types, essential elements, accountability, fundraising practices, ethical climate and marketing needs of NPOs. It ends with an overview of the South African non-profit sector.

3.2 Non-profit organisations defined, classified and categorised

This section defines NPOs and sets out their dimensions, categorises the type of NPOs, and distinguishes their essential elements.

3.2.1 Defining non-profit organisations

According to Wu and Hung (2008:322) a NPO is defined as an "organisation that is prohibited from distributing its profit to individuals, group members, directors, officers, or board members." This entails that any additional profits generated after employees

have been remunerated must be used for the generation of the service offered by the NPO (Wu & Hung, 2008:322). Lettieri, Borga and Savoldelli (2004:16) have defined NPOs as "all the organisations aimed at creating social value for society as a whole and which do not recognise as their main goal the creation of profit for stockholders." NPOs can thus be viewed as institutions that do not seek to accumulate profits for their stakeholders; rather they seek the well-being of society or the community in which they operate. Starke (2009:2) specifies three attributes distinguishing NPOs from FPOs: All money received by NPOs is used to pursue organisational objectives, additional finances are used to pursue the objectives of the organisation and do not get divided among organisational members; and NPOs provide benefits to the general public.

NPOs represent the interests of society and the extent to which these interests or needs are fulfilled determines the level of success a NPO experiences (Guo & Musso, 2006:4). Such representation comprises five dimensions, namely substantive, symbolic, formal, descriptive and participatory representation. Each of these dimensions is elaborated in Table 3.1 with particular attention to the responsibilities toward stakeholders.

Table 3.1

Representation dimensions

Dimension	Description
Substantive representation	Takes place when the management of a NPO is structured in such a way that the needs of the various stakeholders are represented. This includes a trade-off between the mission of the non-profit organisation and the interests of the community the non-profit organisation serves. However, the mission of a NPO is still central in the formation of its operations.
Symbolic representation	Occurs when various stakeholders put their trust in the NPO. Symbolic representation is the position the non-profit organisation forms in the mind of its stakeholders to accomplish what it is supposed to.
Formal representation	Emphasises the manner in which the management of a non-profit organisation is selected to promote the interests of its stakeholders. Formal representation can also be viewed as the extent to which organisational leaders are selected democratically.
Descriptive representation	Takes place when the NPO leadership reflects the attributes of the community. This means that the composition of the board or leadership should not just consist of wealthy members, but the members should have attributes that represent the entire community.
Participatory representation	Is when NPO stakeholders take part in the NPO's activities and the NPO maintains effective communications with the stakeholders about its proceedings.

Source: Guo & Musso (2006:5)

3.2.2 Types of non-profit organisations

Different types of NPOs exist, such as churches, health services, educational services, cultural societies, art societies and civic services (McNamara, 2008). These organisations attempt to enhance the well-being of society (Guo & Musso, 2006:4). The ultimate goal of NPOs is to ensure that unmet needs of society are met through the provision of their services (McNamara, 2008). NPOs can be named as "non-governmental organisations (NGOs), community based organisations (CBOs), civil society organisations (CSOs), public benefit organisations (PBOs), trust or foundations, charities, and Religious Bodies or Institutions" (Department of Social Development, 2001:5).

The classification of NPOs indicated in Table 3.2 divides NPOs into eleven categories, with each of these having sub-divisions (Anheier, 2005:390; Salamon & Anheier, 1996:7).

Table 3.2

Classification of non-profit organisations

Classification	Sub-divisions
Culture and recreation	Media and communications; visual arts, architecture ceramic art; performing arts; historical, literary and humanistic societies; museums; zoos and aquariums; sports; recreation and social clubs; service clubs
Education and research	Elementary, primary and secondary education; higher education; vocational/technical schools; adult/continuing education; medical research; science and technology; social sciences and policy studies
Health	Hospitals; rehabilitation; nursing homes; psychiatric hospitals; mental health treatment; crisis intervention; public health and wellness education; public health treatment, primarily outpatient; rehabilitative medical services; emergency medical services
Social services	Child welfare, child services and day care; youth services and youth welfare; family services; services for the handicapped; services for the elderly; self-help and other personal social services; disaster/emergency prevention and control; temporary shelters; refugee assistance; income support and maintenance; material assistance
Environment	Pollution abatement and control; natural resources conservation and protection; environmental beautification and open spaces; animal protection and welfare; wildlife preservation and protection; veterinary services
Development and housing	Community and neighbourhood organizations; economic development; social development; housing associations; housing assistance; job-training programs; vocational counselling and guidance; vocational rehabilitation and sheltered workshops
Law, advocacy, and politics	Advocacy organisations; civil rights associations: ethnic associations; civic associations; legal services; crime prevention and public policy; rehabilitation of offenders; victim support; consumer protection associations; political parties and organisations
Philanthropic intermediaries and voluntarism promotion	Grant-making foundations; volunteerism promotion and support; fund-raising organisations
International	Exchange/friendship/cultural programmes; development assistance associations; international disaster and relief organisations; international human rights and peace organisations
Religion	Congregations; associations of congregations
Business and professional associations, unions	Business associations: professional associations; labour unions

Sources: Anheier, 2005:390; Salamon & Anheier, 1996:7

The classification of NPOs indicated in Table 3.2 was compiled from two studies and indicates an extensive number of different types of non-profit organisations. However, Table 3.2 might not include all existing categories of NPOs.

3.2.3 Elements of non-profit organisations

This section concentrates on elements of NPOs which are important in the management of NPOs. Table 3.3 lists seven essential elements of NPOs gleaned from the literature on NPOs.

Table 3.3

Essential elements in non-profit organisations

Elements	Source
Mission	Abreu, 2006:140; The Andringa Group, 2006; Knerr, 2004; Allison & Kaye, 1998:2
Leadership	The Andringa Group, 2006; Knerr, 2004; Rohe, Quercia & Levy, 2001:595
Strategic thinking	Anheier, 2005:259; Knerr, 2004; Allison & Kaye, 1998:2
Communication	Abreu, 2006:141; Conway & Whitelock, 2007:199; Knerr, 2004; Allison & Kaye, 1998:2; Johnson, Geiger & Clark, 1993:259
Multiple stakeholders	Weisingera & Black, 2006:146; Conway & Whitelock, 2007:201; Krashinsky, 1997:150
Third-party funding	Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2005:61; MacMillan *et al.*, 2005:806; Allison & Kaye, 1998:2
Volunteers	Abreu, 2006:140; Weisingera & Black, 2006:146; Allison & Kaye, 1998:2

An organisation's *mission* statement is "the purpose of an organisation's existence" (Kantabutra, 2008:129). The success of a NPO is governed by the manner in which the employees as well as other stakeholders have a clear understanding of the purpose of the organisation to be able to complete that mission (Knerr, 2004). The mission of a NPO thus provides a guideline by which employees can operate to achieve the ultimate goal of that organisation. The goal of a non-profit health organisation, for example could be to ensure that all individuals in a population are aware of the effects of smoking, while the goal of a religious organisation could be to take the whole gospel to the whole world. The mission statement of a NPO provides the backbone for its operations. Successful NPOs all have clear mission statements (Abreu, 2006).

Without effective *leadership* it is not possible for any organisation to operate successfully (Knerr, 2004). According to McCollum (1999:150) leaders are an example for subordinates; they grant the necessary authority to individuals to act on the behalf of the organisation; they install confidence into employees or organisational members; and they motivate organisation members to pursue a shared vision. Effective leadership is most likely of greater importance for NPOs than FPOs because of the lack of financial incentives provided to these organisations as a whole.

Strategic thinking is the competence of managers to solve problems and the capability to adapt to changing environments around them to ensure the long-term success of an organisation (Bonn, 2005:336; Allison & Kaye, 1998:2). Strategy can

be viewed as the methods used to accomplish the mission or goals set by an organisation (Kantabutra, 2008:129). Strategic thinking is simply the creative ways by which managers accomplish organisational goals (Bonn, 2005:336).

Communication plays a vital role in NPOs because a NPO has to communicate its goals, vision and mission not only to its employees, but also to the stakeholders of the organisation (Knerr, 2004). It is thus of utmost importance that a NPO develops an effective communication system through which it can reach all individuals or groups involved with that organisation (Johnson *et al*., 1993:259). According to Virta (2009:31) a communication strategy has three major elements: well-defined objectives, effective understanding of stakeholders and a communication message that is clear and comprehensible. He continues that the communication strategy has to be managed and implemented to assist in achieving the long-term objectives of a FPO or NPO alike.

Stakeholders in NPOs can be distinguished as internal or external stakeholders (Krashinsky, 1997:150). Internal stakeholders include shareholders, management and employees and external stakeholders include clients, suppliers, government, trade unions, the community, donors, the media, and the public (Balser & McClusky, 2005:295). These stakeholders all have their personal interests and the possibility of friction rising between the different interests of these stakeholders is a reality. Vitally, NPOs should not get distracted from accomplishing their objectives and they should remain focused on organisational goals and from this point of view try to satisfy all possible stakeholders as far as possible (Krashinsky, 1997:159).

NPOs predominately rely on *third-party funding* to finance the services they provide (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2005:61; MacMillan *et al.*, 2005:806; Allison & Kaye, 1998:2). These donors could be individuals, private companies or the government. NPOs reliance on *third-party* funding can be the reason why there is a limited amount of funds available for these organisations (Weisingera & Black, 2006:146).

Because of the lack of financial incentives in NPOs *volunteers* play an essential role in the operational success of these organisations (Abreu, 2006:140; Weisingera & Black, 2006:146; Allison & Kaye, 1998:2). But some problems arise when volunteers assist NPOs in their operations. One is that volunteers do not get paid for the

services they offer to the NPO so that they often have fulltime jobs and do volunteer work at night, weekends or holidays (Allison & Kaye, 1998:4). Another problem is their involvement with their jobs can inhibit them from completing the duties they have started with the non-profit organisation (Allison & Kaye, 1998:4).

According to Reche, López & Manzanares (2009:490) NPOs differ from FPOs in five ways: NPOs are guided by values and not profits; employees who work for NPOs are dedicated to the foundational cause of the organisation; NPOs have to be accountable to multiple stakeholders including the general public; decision making in the non-profit sector may take longer due to the multiple stakeholders involved; and NPOs do not have a consistent flow of revenue and this increases the complexity of long-term decision making.

3.3 Non-profit organisations and accountability

Accountability in NPOs is necessary, be it is for the tithes of church members or the donations received by a cancer association (Lettieri *et al.,* 2004:17; Buckmaster, 1999:187). When organisations form any type of marketing relationship with members where a society, community or group is the beneficiary, accountability is called for (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2005:61).

There has been a shift in the ownership of NPOs from government owned to privately-owned NPOs (Considine, 2003:63). The reason is governments' failure to produce sufficient public services and the mismanagement of public funds (Considine, 2003:65). NPOs "create social value for society" which implies that NPOs attempt to improve the social circumstances that local communities or societies are entangled in (Lettieri *et al.,* 2004:16). NPOs provide services to society which most FPOs would not consider delivering. The efficiency and the effectiveness of the operations of NPOs are not necessarily on par with that of FPOs although the creation of effective management systems, knowledge sharing, and accountability does lead to improved management of NPOs (Lettieri *et al.,* 2004:17; Buckmaster, 1999:187).

Accountability in NPOs is important since these organisations manage public funds which are donated by government, corporations or individuals (Sargeant & Woodliffe,

2005:61). The challenge facing NPOs and donors alike is to determine to whom the NPOs should be accountable and how they can be kept accountable. A manifest answer is that NPOs should be kept accountable by their stakeholders, donors or possibly the society in which they operate (Buckmaster, 1999:188). More specifically, Anheier (2005:237) names six stakeholders to which NPOs need to be accountable, namely members, supporters or donors, beneficiaries, paid and voluntary employees, contractors or cooperating organisations, and public agencies (regulatory agencies).

The manner in which NPOs can be kept accountable is determined by the extent to which these organisations achieve their objectives (Buckmaster, 1999:188). The two major areas of accountability for NPOs concern their financial expenditure and social objectives (Myers, 2004:642). NPOs should be kept accountable through setting clear performance objectives, evaluating these performance objectives and providing adequate reasons to stakeholders when these objectives are not achieved (Buckmaster, 1999:190).

According to Wu and Hung (2008:325) accountability of NPOs can be measured by five dimensions: the extent to which a NPO achieves its mission; assessment of the final results from the donor's perspective; the extent of mission achievement from the recipient (customer) of the NPO service's point of view; enhancement of the organisation's processes and procedures by satisfying donors and final recipients of donations; and improving communications and organisational learning to achieve the mission.

3.4 Fund-raising in non-profit organisations

The financial objectives of a NPO are central to its mission (Abraham, 2006:213). Implying that the financial objectives of a NPO are managed in terms of the organisation's mission and not according its financial support (Abraham, 2006:213). Limited resources require an organisation to focus on its core activities and a lack of financial support reduces the ability of an organisation to accomplish its objectives or mission. Consequently, it is important for NPOs to manage relationships with their members effectively through the implementation of relationship marketing to assist them in acquiring sufficient funds for their operations.

Fund-raising requires financial expenditure to acquire additional financial support to conduct organisational operations. The majority of NPOs finances are limited and therefore it is important for fund-raising activities to be effectively planned and executed (Simon, 1997:109). When funds are provided by donors they expect that their financial support will be used effectively for the purposes for which they were provided (Foley, 2005:40). It is important for organisations seeking to raise money to develop an effective marketing plan that will describe the manner in which donors' funds will be used and the reasons why it is necessary to raise additional financial support (Foley, 2005:41). More NPOs are embracing marketing concepts in their fundraising efforts, not only to increase financial support, but to assist organisations in understanding why individuals give money to these organisations (Hibbert & Horne, 1996:4). Donors experience a sense of self-gratification when they contribute to a cause that would make a difference in other people's lives (Hibbert & Horne, 1996:8). Improved understanding of consumers thus helps NPOs to adapt their marketing strategies to increase the satisfaction and the financial support an organisation will receive from its donors (Hibbert & Horne, 1996:6).

3.5 The ethical climate in non-profit organisations

Inside any organisation, whether in the for-profit or the non-profit sector there are certain beliefs, attitudes, values, and rules governing employees and management (Agarwal & Malloy, 1999:1). These rules, whether written or unwritten, determine the way in which an organisation is run and they can affect the ethical stances of an organisation (Agarwal & Malloy, 1999:2). Organisational ethics can be defined as "statements of moral principles which function as guides to behaviour within the organization" (Al-Kazemi & Zajac, 1999:353).

According to Tsahuridu and Perryer (2002:305), two views inform organisational ethics. The first is that an organisation determines the ethical values of employees, that is the organisational environment, values and rules determine the standard of ethics by which employees operate. The second view stipulates that an organisation which employs ethical individuals operate in an ethical manner. In addition, individuals are attracted to organisations that have a reputation for implementing good organisational ethics (Tsahuridu & Perryer, 2002:311). Suggesting that a NPO that applies good organisational ethics may attract more individuals and the result

may be increased financial support. This also implies that people may be more committed to an organisation with sound organisational ethics. It is thus crucial that organisations not only hire ethical employees, but more so that they develop organisational values and norms which promote an appropriate ethical environment.

Table 3.4 lists unethical behaviours which tend to appear in FPOs as well as NPOs. These behaviours range from interpersonal ethics behaviours through illegal behaviours to organisational ethics behaviours.

Table 3.4

Unethical behaviours in organisations

Interpersonal ethics behaviours
Passing blame for one's errors to innocent co-workers
Divulging confidential information
Claiming credit for someone else's work
Illegal behaviours
Pilfering agency materials
Accepting gifts in exchange for preferential treatment
Giving gifts in exchange for preferential treatment
Misappropriating agency resources for personal use
Organisational ethics behaviours
Calling in sick to take a day off
Authorising a subordinate to violate agency rules
Taking longer than necessary to do a job
Taking extra time during work breaks
Conducting personal business on agency time
Concealing one's errors
Not reporting others' violations of agency policies and rules

Source: Adapted from Al-Kazemi & Zajac, 1999:356

The unethical behaviours indicated in Table 3.4 represent guidelines of unethical behaviours in organisations. The preceding sections in this chapter provided a general discussion on non-profit organisations. The section to follow offers a more specific description of a NPO in terms of the South African non-profit sector.

3.6 The South African non-profit sector

According to Heinrich (2001:4) the majority of the South African non-profit industry stemmed from the apartheid era during the 1980s when large non-profit-seeking organisations developed. Heinrich (2001:4) further indicates that there are four different categories of NPOs:

> "…organizations closely linked to and servicing the anti-apartheid movement, liberal non-governmental organisations advocating change in apartheid policies from within the political system, NGOs focusing on social service delivery while trying to remain neutral with regard to the political arrangement, and large welfare bodies cooperating with the apartheid regime on the racially segregated delivery of social services."

After the first democratic elections in 1994 in RSA the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was established to assist in the development of NPOs, but this was replaced by the Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) in 1996 (Hopkins, 2002:4).

The South African non-profit sector plays a role in the reduction of unemployment and the delivery of public goods and services (Swilling & Russell, 2002a). Total non-profit expenditure in South Africa in 1998 was R 9.3 billion or 1.2% of the gross domestic product (Swilling & Russell, 2002b:15). Government contributions to the non-profit sector amounted to R 5.8 billion in 1999, which incorporated local as well as foreign governmental assistance (Hopkins, 2002:34). According to Swilling and Russell (2002b:17) in 1999 the South African non-profit sector saw 1.5 million volunteers assisting NPOs and the total number of NPOs was estimated at 98 920 apparently. In 1999 the South African non-profit sector had 305 011 (47%) full-time employees and 23 314 (4%) part time employees (Hopkins, 2002:16).

Table 3.5 registers the primary fields of operation for NPOs in South Africa at the close of the century.

Table 3.5

Areas of operation of South African non-profit organisations

Field of work	Percentage
Rural development	16,2
Health	8,5
Children	8,1
Education and training	7,3
Adult education	5,8
Youth	5,4
Welfare	5,4
Human rights and political education	5,4
Women	5,0
Other	26,7
Unclassified	6,2
Total	100

Source: Heinrich, 2001:6

It is possible that the list of the areas of operation indicated in Table 3.5 is incomplete; however this was one of only two lists which could be found in a South African non-profit context. The second list is indicated in Table 3.6 which provides a more comprehensive description of the South African non-profit sector during 2009.

Table 3.6

South African non-profit organisations

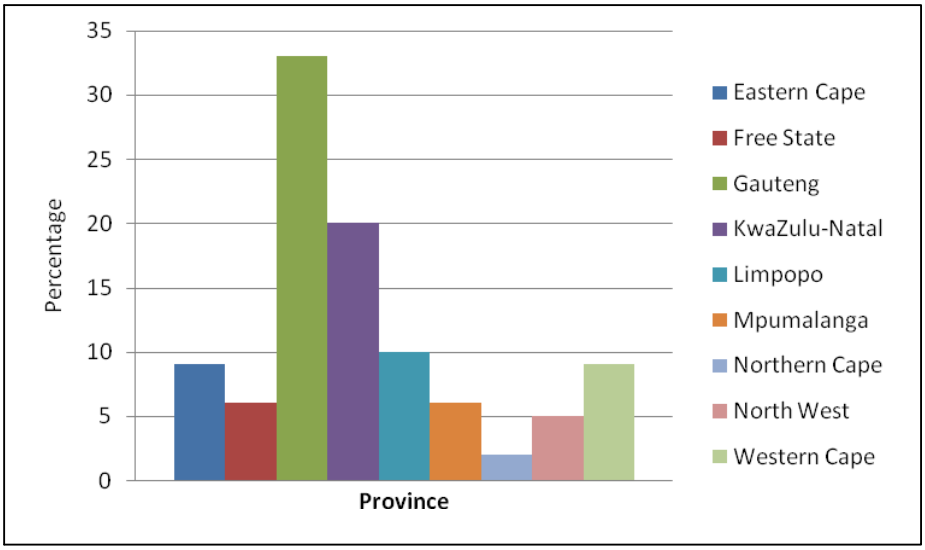
Areas of operation	No. of registered non-profit organisations	Percentage
Culture and Recreation	2 925	5.20
Education and Research	7 610	13.53
Health	6 794	12.08
Social Services	17 389	30.92
Environment	692	1.23
Development and housing	12 348	21.95
Law, advocacy and politics	1 247	2.22
Philanthropic intermediaries and voluntarism promotion	759	1.35
Business and professional associations	272	Less than 1
International activities	39	Less than 1
Religion	6 166	10.96
Not elsewhere classified	3	Less than 1
Total	**56 244**	**100%**

Source: Compiled from Department of Social Development 2009:13

The number of NPOs in 2009 is 43% less than in 1999. Reasons could be inaccurate previous research, a reduction in NPOs over a 10 year period or current research only taking into account officially registered NPOs. The proportional distribution of NPOs per province in South Africa is illustrated in Figure 3.1

Figure 3.1

Percentage registered non-profit organisations per province



Source: Compiled from Department of Social Development 2009:13

Figure 3.1 portrays that Gauteng (33%) has the most registered NPOs with KwaZulu-Natal (20%) second most and Limpopo (10%) third most. Some examples of NPOs in South Africa include the South African Institute of fund raising, Food for Life and Child line.

3.7 The need for marketing in non-profit organisations

The competitive environment surrounding NPOs have increased in recent years (Shabbir *et al*., 2007:272). Implying that the pool of financial support is getting smaller and NPOs need to become more creative in securing sponsorship to continue providing their services (Bennett, 2003:335). It has thus become indispensable for NPOs to implement into their operations marketing strategies such as segmentation (identification of individuals likely to support the organisation's objectives and mission), product positioning (the image developed to draw those segmented individuals towards the organisation), advertising (the communication message used to draw the segmented group of individuals) and distribution (the communications channels that need to be used to communicate effectively to the segmented group) (Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009:277).

NPOs have various stakeholders and it is becoming increasingly complicated to manage all of these relationships effectively (Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009:277). It has

become apparent that there is a need to implement not only marketing, but also relationship marketing strategies in NPOs to assist in developing and maintaining relationships with stakeholders and consequently enhancing commitment to these organisations (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59). The increasing need to implement relationship marketing strategies is due to rising numbers of competitors and decreasing resources available to NPOs, which raises the importance of facilitating commitment with stakeholders (Foreman, 2005:1; Bennett, 2003:335).

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter described the nature, characteristics and structure of NPOs. Accountability, fundraising and ethical behaviours in NPOs were discussed and attention was given to the South African non-profit sector. Finally Chapter 3 concluded with the identification of the need for marketing and relationship marketing in NPOs to facilitate commitment with stakeholders. Consequently, it is necessary to implement marketing practices in non-profit organisations.

Chapter 4 focuses on marketing in NPOs with an emphasis on relationship marketing. Attention is given to the importance of marketing in NPOs as well as marketing approaches employed by these organisations. Furthermore, this study's focal point surrounds marketing in churches. Therefore, the importance of marketing in churches is discussed together with previous research conducted on church marketing as well as the future and criticism of marketing in churches.

CHAPTER 4
MARKETING PRACTICES OF NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS

4.1 Introduction

There is a growing need for NPOs to implement marketing strategies in their operations because of an increase in the number of NPOs globally and a reduction in the pool of resources available to these organisations (Pope, Isley & Tutu, 2009:185; Foreman, 2005:1). Both factors have contributed to an intensification of competition in the non-profit sector (Bennett, 2003:335). Since NPOs are dependent on donations for their survival, marketing must be utilised to play a greater role in securing future funds for the non-profit sector (MacMillan *et al.*, 2005:806). NPOs should use marketing not only to promote the organisation to potential donors, but also to potential volunteers, recipients of the service and potential employees (Macedo & Pinho, 2006:534). Further, adopting only traditional marketing strategies in NPOs is not sufficient, but it is also necessary to implement relationship marketing strategies (MacMillan *et al.*, 2005:806). This chapter examines marketing of NPOs with specific emphasis on churches, which pertains to the purpose of this study.

4.2 Importance of marketing in non-profit organisations

Marketing plays a significant role in acquiring sufficient funds for conducting non-profit organisational activities, seeing that a large proportion of non-profit financial assistance originates from public funds (Mano, 2010:566). Marketing activities practised by NPOs increase their authenticity and exposure, and they bestow an important and necessary competitive advantage in distinguishing NPOs from their rapidly growing numbers of competitors (Mano, 2010:557). There is consensus that a marketing orientation in NPOs is a prerequisite for achieving organisational success and sufficient visibility (Pavicic´, Alfirevic´ & Mihanovic, 2009:192; White & Simas, 2008:53; Macedo & Pinho, 2006:534; Gonzalez, Vijande & Casielles, 2002:56).

Different markets may require different marketing strategies for NPOs to be successful (Mano, 2010:557). Illustrations of this are given by the Czech Republic, Israeli and United States non-profit sectors. The Czech Republic is characterised by continuously transforming external environments regarding political, economic,

financial and social circumstances, while the majority of the Israeli non-profit sector is funded by their government with the private sector not allowing much room for financial support to the non-profit sector. The United States' non-profit sector is by contrast characterised by an increasingly competitive environment and thus a smaller financial pool from which to receive funds (Mano, 2010:557; Pope *et al.,* 2009:185; Bulla & Glass, 2006:141).

4.2.1 The marketing orientation of non-profit organisations

This subsection describes six aspects of adapting a marketing orientation in a NPO, namely definitions, adoption, addressed groups, antecedents, focus areas and dimensions of marketing orientation.

4.2.1.1 Definition

"A marketing orientation emphasises the attainment of competitive advantages based on the correct interpretation of customer needs" (Vázquez, Alvarez & Santos, 2002:1022). Other definitions of marketing orientation are "an integrated focus from the whole organisation on the needs and wants of the organisation's market, or customer groups" (Govan, 2006:5) and "the generation of appropriate market intelligence pertaining to current and future customer needs and the relative abilities of competitive entities to satisfy these needs, the integration and dissemination of such intelligence across departments; and the co-ordinated design and execution of the organization's strategic response to market opportunities" (Gray, Matear, Boshoff & Matheson,1998:886). It is clear that a marketing orientation emphasises the needs of consumers.

4.2.1.2 Adopting a marketing orientation

According to Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009:277), a marketing orientation in NPOs can be adopted in four ways: *Market segmentation* in NPOs is the identification of individuals who would want to be involved in or would want to support the organisation. *Positioning* in NPOs involves building an image that would draw supporters to the organisation. *Advertising* in NPOs is developing communication strategies that will draw supporters to the organisation. *Place* in NPOs implies

communicating with potential supporters of these organisations through channels they use.

4.2.1.3 Groups

The two major groups addressed by a marketing orientation in NPOs are the donors and beneficiaries of the service (Macedo & Pinho, 2006:537). Therefore a marketing orientation in NPOs follows a customer-centred approach and places customers at the centre of the organisations planning processes. What makes marketing more important in NPOs than in FPOs is that the former have to manage more relationships than the latter because of the increased number of stakeholders involved (Vázquez *et al.*, 2002:1024).

4.2.1.4 Antecedents

Wood, Bhuian and Kiecker (2000:214) identify seven antecedents of the marketing orientation applicable to FPOs and NPOs; they are "professional commitment of the senior management team, professional education of the senior management team, professional ethics of the senior management team, organizational entrepreneurship, perception of the presence and intensity of competition, perception of competition as a threat and perception of demand as under and/or over the capacity of the organization to serve." When these antecedents are in place; organisations tend to be more customer-focused and operate more efficiently (Wood *et al.,* 2000:215).

4.2.1.5 Areas

Hyman (2010) records five areas that an organisation can focus on to become more marketing orientated. The first is to create a learning culture. This means that employees and management need to improve their understanding of their stakeholders. Second is positioning marketing communications in such a way that they are in the centre of leadership. This is done to ensure that the mission of the organisation is effectively communicated. Third, use available resources in ways that ensure that the organisations' objectives are achieved. Fourth, be strategically driven as this ensures that any unnecessary organisational activities or communications are

phased out and the core organisational activities are emphasised. Fifth, employ individuals who are competent and who have a long-term focus.

4.2.1.6 Dimensions

Marketing orientation for a NPO comprises of three dimensions, namely having a customer-centred orientation, competitor orientation, and implementing inter-functional coordination (Deng & Hu, 2008:436). Therefore, a marketing orientation necessitates that organisations need to be aware of customers' needs, competitors, and to integrate their operations to satisfy the needs of beneficiaries and donors (Deng & Hu, 2008:437). Two dimensions particular to FPOs that are quite likely applicable to NPOs are supplier-dealer orientation and environment orientation (Esteban *et al.*, 2002:1005). Given that NPOs need to manage multiple relationships, it becomes more important to manage these relationships more effectively (Vázquez *et al.,* 2002:1024). Consequently there is a strengthening need to implement relationship marketing strategies in NPOs (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59).

4.2.2 Branding

NPOs are neglecting the importance of branding and the significance of understanding the reasons for stakeholders entering into a relationship with an organisation (Voeth & Herbst, 2008:71). The intensifying competitive environment of the non-profit sector is putting pressure on organisational resources and a possible solution is to implement effective branding (Hyojin, 2002:49). Brand management in NPOs has been expressed as "the organizational wide process of generating and sustaining a shared sense of brand meaning that provides superior value to stakeholders and superior performance to the organization" (Ewing & Napoli, 2005:842).

Branding produces advantages for NPOs. Carcamo and Katz (2002:4) note that the brand communicates what the organisation represents and does; a strong brand attracts financial support from the business sector; it attracts financial assistance from the general public; a strong brand provides a positive public image; and it differentiates organisations from its competitors.

Ewing and Napoli (2005:851) mention three dimensions of brand management. First, all actions affecting the brand of an organisation should be conducted in ways that enhance market performance and awareness. Second, NPOs must understand the needs of their stakeholders and the changes which occur due to the internal and external pressures their stakeholders' experience. Third, it is important for NPOs to understand what their stakeholders think of their brand, be it the positive or the negative aspects of the brand. Brand management of NPOs is equally important as for FPOs due to the competitive pressure exerted by the acquisition of funds (Carcamo & Katz 2002:9). NPOs which adopt a marketing orientation acquire a greater understanding of their customers than those which do not (Carcamo & Katz 2002:9).

4.2.3 Stakeholders involved

Marketing could become more important when there are more relationships to manage. With NPOs there are numerous external relationships that must be managed, such as those with donors, beneficiaries and volunteers. Notwithstanding this, the literature confirms that there are NPOs that do not coordinate marketing activities effectively into their operations because they fail to perceive the importance thereof (Pope *et al.,* 2009:186).

Relationship marketing emphasises the importance of customers, or in the case of NPOs, the various stakeholders involved. Beneficiaries of the service are placed at the centre of the planning process and this assists organisations to determine the needs of their customers thereby improving the efficiency of the organisation's operations (Bruce, 2005:1). Relationship marketing is related to social exchange theory which postulates that individuals are active in a relationship because of the mutual benefits they receive from each other in the relationship (Saxena, n.d:132). These mutual benefits are not necessarily economic, but can take the form of self-gratification individuals experience by being part of some cause that improves the welfare of society (Arnett, German & Hunt, 2003:90).

According to Arnett *et al.* (2003:93), the relationships donors have with NPOs primarily take the form of social exchanges rather than economic exchanges. However, NPOs are more complex than just managing one relationship type because

they have multiple stakeholders (Knox & Gruar, 2007:127). Knox and Gruar (2007:127) have asserted need for the implementation of relationship marketing among all the stakeholders in a NPO and not just with the donors.

When donors financially support NPOs, they do not receive any material benefits, only non-material social benefits (Arnett *et al.*, 2003:90). Financial support is provided for different reasons and Cermak, File and Prince (1994:121) stipulate that individuals are motivated to donate on social or humanitarian grounds. Donations are often made as a family tradition or to enjoy some kind of tax incentive. Some individuals donate because they have themselves been beneficiaries of a NPOs services or they know someone else who has been.

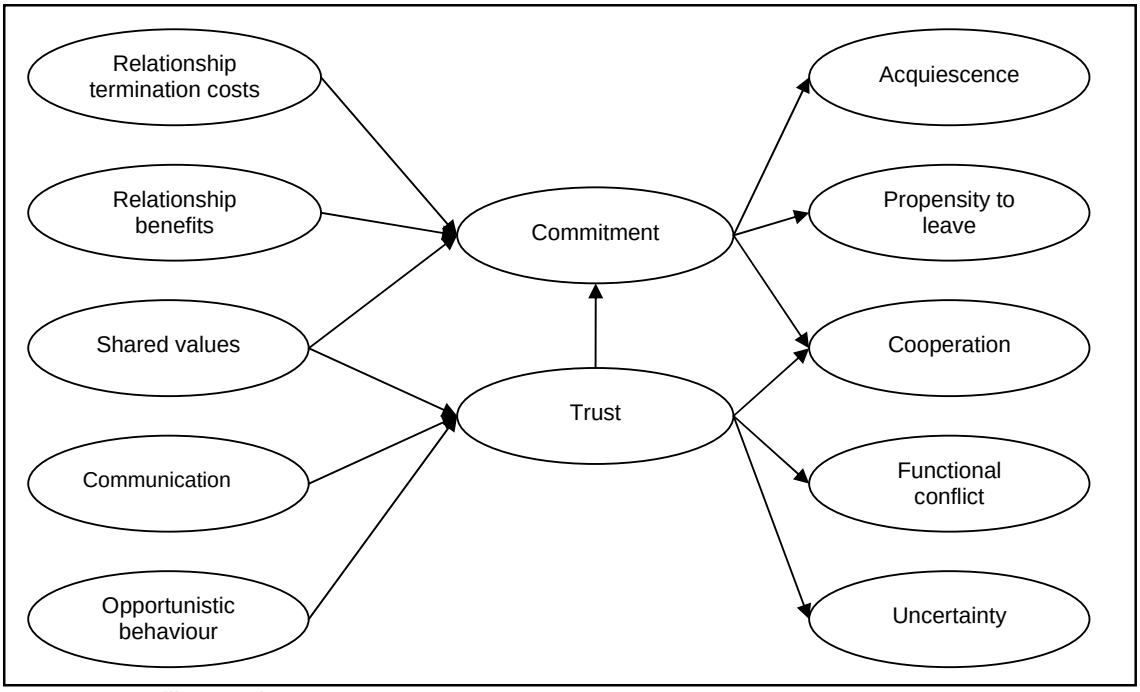
4.3 Relationship marketing approaches employed by non-profit organisations

Since the 1980s marketing has shifted from a transaction-orientated approach to a relationship oriented approach (Vargo & Lusch, 2004:1). Relationship marketing enhances customer value by determining the current as well as future needs of customers (Toker & Kankotan, 2010:5). Relationship marketing considers trust and commitment as important building blocks in establishing successful relationship with the stakeholders involved in FPOs as well as NPOs (MacMillan *et al.,* 2005:807). When trust and commitment are established they lead to intentional outcomes (Morgan & Hunt, 1994:33).

Figure 4.1 represents a model of relationship marketing that can be implemented in both FPOs and NPOs.

Figure 4.1

Relationship marketing model



Source: MacMillan *et al.*, 2005:808

The generalised model presented in Figure 4.1, is an extension of Morgan and Hunt's (1994:32) model of relationship marketing in the for-profit sector, and can also be applied to the non-profit sector. Depending on the type of industry or organisation, the constructs indicated in the model will differ accordingly.

In the case of NPOs, relationship marketing aims to create value across different groups of stakeholders involved in some way with these organisations (Knox & Gruar, 2007:116). Relationship marketing has a long-term orientation and focuses on developing long-term marketing relationships with clients and retaining those clients in the future (Ambler & Styles, 2003:635; Petrof, 1997:26). Relationship marketing can potentially cultivate improved relationships not only with donors, but also with other stakeholders involved in a NPO.

Implementing relationship marketing in the non-profit sector is more complex than in the for-profit sector due to the lack of research conducted in this sector (Brennan & Brady, 2006:328). Many NPOs are reactive and not proactive; this implies that these organisations respond to the market as a whole and not to individuals that might need their services (Brennan & Brady, 2006:328). Therefore, this calls for NPOs to

create a more personalised marketing strategy for the individuals they want to serve through the implementation of relationship marketing.

Another form of relationship marketing implemented by organisations is customer relationship management (CRM). CRM is generally implemented in the for-profit sector to improve relational exchanges between an organisation and its customers (Lin, Chen & Chiu, 2010:112). CRM allows organisations to have a customer-centred approach and assists in improving the overall satisfaction of customers (Chang, Park & Chaiy, 2009:1). CRM can be implemented in NPOs considering that the services they offer are directed at satisfying the beneficiaries of the services without providing any tangible products or requiring payment for the services provided.

The difference between FPOs and NPOs is that the latter strive to create value while the former strive to make profits (Toker & Kankotan, 2010:4). The value which a NPO creates enhances customer satisfaction (Toker & Kankotan, 2010:4). NPOs can implement CRM by focusing on their donors and providing them a personalised service offering or updates on the progress of the organisation (Jang & Chang, 2005:476). CRM can be measured by the degree to which beneficiaries are satisfied and by the retention of donators to the organisation (Batenburg & Versendaal, 2004:6).

4.4 The future of marketing in non-profit organisations

The future of marketing in NPOs may be rooted in the implementation of relationship marketing strategies (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59). It is therefore necessary to identify the building blocks of relationships to guide the implementation of effective relationship marketing strategies in NPOs.

Relationship marketing emphasises the development of relationships with individuals over the long term (Ambler & Styles, 2003:635). Relationship marketing represents a movement away from transaction-based relationships towards relationships that aspire to satisfying the needs and wants of consumers, clients or members (Brito, 2008:6; Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995:403). Competitive advantage can no longer be established on the basis of transactions or service quality, but the implementation of relationship marketing is important for the long-term success of any organisation

(Nufer & Bühler, 2009:1). Chapter 1 mentioned that churches are also a type of NPO. Accordingly, the importance of marketing in churches is discussed in the following section.

4.5 Importance of marketing in churches

This section delves into the importance of marketing in churches and its applicability to religious organisations. An extensive literature review found that there is a large amount of research that has been conducted on marketing in churches. The result of this literature review appears in Table 4.1. Table 4.1 is classified into four categories, namely the usefulness of marketing techniques, using or analysing marketing techniques, the impact of marketing on religion and the relation of marketing and culture.

Table 4.1

Research on marketing in churches

Authors	Year	Finding of article
		Usefulness of marketing techniques
Hansen & Woolridge	2002	Churches do not agree that marketing is a necessary factor in achieving their objectives.
Ogletree	1995-1996	Marketing has much to offer and can help spread the good news. Market thinking can also foster self-indulgence and short-term advantages at the expense of long-term well-being.
Wrenn	1993	There are major criticisms of marketing, marketing practice can benefit the church when fully understood and properly used. Religion cannot be marketed, but religious institutions can.
Traber	1987	Mass media for marketing the church will not be as effective as many leaders think.
		Using or analysing marketing techniques
Kane	1993	Examines the challenges to Christian Bible colleges based on their place in the product life cycle.
Wrenn & Cotler	1993	Examines the marketing of parochial schools as an exchange process, discussing what both parties gain from the exchange of educational services.
Pilgrim	1991-1992	Describes the marketing strategies used by televangelist Lester Sumrall in fund-raising.
McDaniel	1989	Associates a church's growth or decline with the marketing techniques used by that church to determine which activities are related to church growth.
Ross	1984	How public relations can affect the administration and effectiveness of pastoral counselling programmes.
Lageman	1984	Studied pastoral counselling centres, found four approaches to marketing pastoral counselling.
Fewster	1980	Considers how a seminary utilises marketing and recruitment techniques without appearing unholy.
		Impact of marketing on religion
Weideman & Terblanche	2007	The church in general has experienced a large reduction in attendance and the possible solution for this could be the implementation of relationship marketing strategies.
Wells	1995	Church needs to be theology-centred, marketing could cause the church to centre on non-religious people, thus losing its effectiveness. Adapting the faith to consumers' wants poses a great danger.
Kenneson	1993	Questions if the act of marketing the church makes it less religious less committed to God.
Iannaccone	1992	Examines consumers' rational choice behaviour in religious commitment, finding commitment increase with open markets in religion.
		Relation of marketing and culture
Mauss	1996	Examines the church in a cost benefit analysis. The cost of joining a new religion may be too high, or too low. If too low, potential members may assume the product is of little value.
Luidens, Dean & Benton	1994	Studies 500 Baby Boomers confirmed in Presbyterian Churches, finding they have great tolerance for differing opinions and beliefs.
Samuel & Sudgen	1983	Examines the relationship between the host country and church and the international mission agency.

Source: Compiled from Weideman & Terblanche (2007:59); Hansen & Woolridge (2002:1); Cutler & Winans (1998:138)

Table 4.1 includes negative as well as positive aspects of marketing related to religious organisations and more specifically churches. It can be expected that there will be a large extent of research conducted in this field in the future.

4.5.1 Marketing approaches employed by churches

Angheluta, Dima and Zaharia (2009:175) describe marketing in religious organisations as:

> "Analyzing the needs of its constituents, on developing marketing programs to satisfy those needs, on offering them at the right place and time, on effective and efficient communication with the constituents and on attracting the necessary resources in order to support the activities of the organization."

Marketing can therefore be seen as a necessary process that needs to be included into church activities. Wrenn (1994:133) concludes that:

> "Churches that are both Bible-driven and market-sensitive leave ample room for God's surprises. Marketing is one tool of many that God may use for His glory. If He does, we can humbly thank Him for His goodness."

There is some consensus that the implementation of marketing in NPOs including churches is essential (Vokurka & McDaniel, 2004:132). Wrenn's (1994:118) interview with a pastor about marketing in the church found that:

> "The pastor of a congregation which has declined from 800 to about 150 in attendance over the past 15 years recently told us, *I'm not a salesman. Selling has no place in the church. I just tell people who visit our church, you are lost, and you must accept Jesus as your Saviour. If you don't, you'll go to hell*. What he doesn't realise is that this *is* selling — he has the product, now all he wants to do is get people to buy it."

Clearly this pastor did not really understand what marketing is and the importance thereof. As the decline in the numbers of his congregation indicates. Marketing in

churches should go beyond the promotion of concepts like repentance and salvation both of which are primary reasons why the church exists, but cultivating relationships is probably more important for the long-term success of churches (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59).

It has been pointed out that the reason why church marketing could be unsuccessful is due to the fact that churches try to apply marketing strategies practiced by other churches to their own church, when the latter's nature is totally different. These differences could involve church members' preferences and denominational rituals (Vokurka & McDaniel, 2004:133). Therefore, introducing relationship marketing practises in churches can improve denominations' understanding of their members' needs and wants as well as improving the effectiveness of their marketing strategies (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59).

There appears to be a positive relationship between the level of marketing orientation a church adopts and the level of member participation in church activities and gatherings (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009:2). The reason is that a church that has a marketing orientation towards its members will be more inclined to have a service offering that satisfies the needs and wants of its members (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009:3). The implementation of a marketing orientation therefore has a customer centred-approach which in the context of a church, does not mean that the message should change, but the means by which it is presented (Govan, 2006:5).

In contrast, some researchers suggest that church marketing is not ethical and should not be made part of the church (Singhapakdi, Marta, Rallapalli & Rao, 2000:306). If this is indeed the case, how will members or non-members be informed of church services and other related activates, and how will churches know whether members prefer a service with a modern band or just traditional church musical instruments? It is possible that religious organisations like churches may associate marketing with just the selling of products and the generation of profits. This should not be because marketing goes beyond making people aware of products or services: it can also determine the needs and wants of individuals.

4.5.2 Marketing practices of churches

Angheluta *et al.* (1993:177) have identified four ways in which a church or a religious organisation can implement marketing. The first concerns the alteration of the service offering to suit the needs of members without compromising the values or doctrine of the specific religious organisation or church. Second, marketing can be used in ways that enhance a church's image and member loyalty, for example shifting from an outdated church programme to one focused on current social issues. Third, the sale of literature and the promotion of the various church activities could assist in marketing a church. Fourth, undertake social marketing that helps to shape people's behaviour and support behaviour in line with the appropriate behaviours mentioned in the Bible.

Kenneson (1993:322) avers that if a church is not growing in membership numbers it could either be the quality of the 'service' provided that is the problem or that the church needs to improve its marketing strategies and their implementation. He further points out that churches are often unsuccessful either because they are not market-driven, which implies that churches do not recognise the needs of their members, or they do not have the structures in place to provide effective marketing communications to members, and more so to non-members.

When a church is not market driven it is like an organisation selling a product without taking into consideration the preferences of consumers (Kenneson, 1993:322). For instance, a church can have members predominantly between the ages of 18 and 24 and yet have no worship band or activities that would attract and retain young adults. In such a case the number of members would probably decrease if changes were not made to the service offering. Relationship marketing represents a viable option to assist churches in making changes to their service offerings to adapt to member preferences (Weideman & Terblanche 2007:59).

Melheim (2006:20) has identified five first impressions of a church which are directly related to relationship marketing. These impressions emphasise marketing in a relational sense and not from a mass-media televangelist point of view. They are warmth and hospitality, building image, graphics, worship, and preaching. *Warmth* and *hospitality* are the perceptions of new visitors' feelings about being welcomed to

a church. *Building an image* does not refer to advertising or promotions, but to the neatness, signage and other physical attributes inside the church. *Graphics* refer to objects which can be seen by people coming into the church, making it important that a church keeps its brand image consistent. *Worship* involves among other things the worship band, the music and the lighting. *Preaching* goes further than just someone giving a message from a pulpit, but should allow people to share testimonies, words and scripture with the congregation. After all the preacher is not the church, its members are.

4.6 The future of church marketing

For churches to be successful in achieving their mission and objectives they should go further than just selling a concept: they must cultivate relationships with their members through the implementation of relationship marketing strategies (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59). Ultimately, the basis of Christianity is to have a relationship with a living everlasting God, but preaching from a pulpit might not be enough to achieve this. Building relationships with each other and relating to people on their level could facilitate the commitment which many church pastors may be striving for.

Weideman and Terblanche (2007:59) identified that it is important not only to implement marketing, but also relationship marketing strategies to assist in developing and maintaining long-term relationships with church members. The church in general has experienced a large reduction in attendance and the possible remedy could be the implementation of relationship marketing strategies (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:59; Ford & Mottner, 2003:337).

The decline in church attendance is possibly attributable to churches not having a clear understanding of their members' needs and wants. Relationship marketing places customers, or in this case church members, at the centre of planning processes through the development of long-term relationships (Toker & Kankotan, 2010:5). Houghland and Wood (1982:340) suggest that church participation is related to the satisfaction of its members and high levels of church participation are related to an increase in church membership. It is therefore possible that the reduction in church attendance is related to the lack of satisfaction experienced by church

members, but this remains an assumption which has not yet been empirically assessed.

In the context of the church, marketing can be seen as "those activities designed to achieve a mutually satisfying exchange of value between the church and the population it serves" (McDaniel, 1989:175). McDaniel (1989:175) continues that:

> "… a church can either modify its service offering in order to better meet consumer needs or it can refuse to change, hold its traditional structure, and refuse to accommodate this consumer preference."

If a church does not take into consideration the preferences of its members it is likely that church attendance will fall even further and become redundant. Little empirical research is extant on church marketing, a reason being that churches do not agree that marketing is a necessary factor in achieving their objectives (Hansen & Woolridge, 2002:1).

4.7 Criticism of marketing by churches

The implementation of marketing can be advantageous for churches. However, in mass marketing this might be different. Traber (1987:322) contends that mass marketing does not necessarily promote Christianity in its essence, but has ulterior motives, as he observes that: "For what the televangelists do is to make of the good news of Christ another entertainment programme, or to be more precise, turn it into a fund-raising show wrapped up in religion." Marketing can therefore be used to promote Christianity and church activities, but there is also the moral reprehensible side where individuals or groups seek personal gain through the promotion of 'Christianity' (Traber, 1987:322).

Stevenson (2009:22) points out that marketing will cause the Gospel to become a product that is promoted, but the Gospel cannot be seen as a product. He continues that marketing in churches will result in a consumerist point of view of the church and promote the prosperity and selfishness of individuals instead of promoting giving and unselfishness. MacArthur (2006:13) puts it bluntly:

> "If you promise people a religion that will allow them to be comfortable in their materialism and self-love… i.e. they will respond in droves."

Paul understood well when he told Timothy what will happen when the message of the Gospel is changed to adhere to the desires of men.

> "2 Preach the word! Be ready in season and out of season. Convince, rebuke, exhort, with all longsuffering and teaching. 3 For the time will come when they will not endure sound doctrine, but according to their own desires, because they have itching ears, they will heap up for themselves teachers; 4 and they will turn their ears away from the truth, and be turned aside to fables" (2 Timothy 4:2-4, The Bible, 2002 NKJV).

4.8 Conclusion

Chapter 4 described the application of marketing in NPOs and churches. In addition, marketing orientation, brand management in NPOs and relationship marketing approaches employed by NPOs as well as marketing in churches were discussed. The chapter concluded with the future of relationship marketing and the sentiments apposing church marketing. Furthermore, in order to implement relationship marketing strategies in churches it is necessary to identify the means by which relationships are built in churches.

Accordingly, Chapter 5 explores the building blocks of relationship marketing in churches and the church commitment variables are identified with a broader view of the church and its denominational classifications. In addition, churches are divided into traditional and non-traditional churches.

CHAPTER 5

CHURCHES AND THE ROLE OF COMMITMENT IN CHURCHES

5.1 Introduction

The church in general has been in existence for more or less 2000 years, and over time the church has developed and transformed into a large number of different denominations. These churches range from a Christian approach to religion to an atheistic approach to 'religion'. According to Statistics South Africa, during 2001 South Africa had 23 core religious groupings that consisted of 84% (37 157 820) of the South African population (Nieman, 2006:596). 2011 Religious institutions therefore appear to play an important role in South African culture.

The literature suggests that church attendance is becoming more of an occasional occupation than a continuous lifestyle (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:58). Consequently, the need for marketing by churches to attract, retain and build relationships with their members has grown (Abreu, 2006:140). When a church adopts a customer-centred orientation, the participation of church members increases making it beneficial for churches to adopt marketing strategies in their operations (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009:6).

This chapter focuses on the Christian church in South Africa and the church commitment variables associated with it. Attention is given to church classification**,** the TC, the NTC, commitment, church commitment, and the antecedents of church commitment.

5.2 Classification of churches

A church classification system is required to identify and arrange different denominations according to their diverse core doctrinal beliefs and rituals regardless of forming part of the same religious grouping (Christian). The church classification presented in Table 5.1 was compiled from four different sources. The reason being that no clear classification could be found in which all the denominational church classifications were included in a South African context. Table 5.1 represents classifications which are used in South Africa as well as in the United States. The

classification utilised from an American point of view corresponded with many of the denominational classifications in South Africa and adds to the completeness of the list. The classification of churches can be divided into 58 different denominational classifications. Table 5.1 provides a list of these classifications.

Table 5.1

Classification of churches

Churches			
1.	African Methodist/Episcopal	**30.**	Mainline Protestant Churches
2.	Anglican	**31.**	Maranatha Reformed Church of Christ
3.	Apostolic	**32.**	Mennonite
4.	Assembly of God	**33.**	Methodist Church of Southern Africa
5.	Baptist	**34.**	Methodist/Presbyterian United
6.	Catholic	**35.**	Missionary Church
7.	Christian Missionary Alliance	**36.**	Moravian Church in Southern Africa
8.	Christian Reformed	**37.**	Nazarene
9.	Church of Christ	**38.**	No denomination
10.	Church of God	**39.**	Open Bible Standard Church
11.	Church of God in Christ	**40.**	Orthodox
12.	Congregationalists	**41.**	Pentecostal
13.	Coptic Orthodox Church	**42.**	Pentecostal Assemblies
14.	Council of African Instituted Churches	**43.**	Presbyterian Church of South Africa
15.	Disciples of Christ/Christian	**44.**	Reformed Church in South Africa
16.	Dutch Reformed Church	**45.**	Religious Society of Friends
17.	Episcopal	**46.**	Seventh-day Adventist
18.	Episcopal, Charismatic	**47.**	Southern African Catholic Bishops' Conference
19.	Evangelical Friends	**48.**	Sovereign Grace Ministries
20.	Evangelical Church in South Africa	**49.**	Unitarian Universalist
21.	Evangelical Lutheran Church in South Africa	**50.**	United Congregational Church in South Africa
22.	Fellowship of Brethren Churches	**51.**	United Presbyterian Church in Southern Africa
23.	Foursquare	**52.**	United Protestant Churches
24.	Fundamentalists	**53.**	Uniting Reformed Church of Southern Africa
25.	Greek Orthodox	**54.**	Unity Church
26.	Independent/Nondenominational	**55.**	Vendor
27.	Interfaith Military Chapels	**56.**	Vineyard
28.	Jewish	**57.**	Volkskerk van Suid-Afrika
29.	Lutheran	**58.**	Wesleyan

Sources: Compiled from Southern African Council of churches, 2010; Membership classifications, 2009; SA Christian, 2000; Goodhew, 2000:346

Table 5.1 might not be a complete list of all the existing denominational classifications, but includes the majority of church classifications. These classifications also include subgroups. Due to the extensiveness of the list it will not be possible to discuss each of the churches presented in Table 5.1.

However, as mentioned in Chapter 1 for the purposes of this study churches have been divided into TCs and NTCs (Dart, 2006:22; Morris, 1983:103). McGaw (1979:149) also distinguishes between mainline or traditional and charismatic or non-traditional churches.

5.2.1 The traditional church in South Africa

The Dutch Reformed Church was established in South Africa in 1652, and was the first TC in the colony (Hofmeyr, 2002:12). At that time the Dutch Reformed Church was the only religious-based organisation in and near the Cape region (Meiring, 1991:35). The major shift from main line TCs to NTCs occurred during 1960 to 1980 in a period characterised by apartheid, which probably significantly influenced the trend (Goodhew, 2000:345). In 1995, 83% of the South African population were recognised as Christians (Barrett *et al.,* 2001:677). According to the *South African Christian handbook* (2007-2008:93) there are many South African citizens deeming themselves as Christians, but who do not take part in Christian activities, such as attending church services. In addition, from a global perspective there is an increasing shift from main line TCs to NTCs (*South African Christian handbook*, 2007-2008:93).

5.2.2 The non-traditional church in South Africa

The NTC movement emerged during the early 1900s, but only took off during the 1960s (Hocken, 1981:37; Morris, 1983:103). The 'charismatic' movement is characterised by the outpouring of God's Spirit and represents the fullness of the Gospel (Hocken, 1981:33). The main sign that charismatic believers use is the Holy Spirit and that of speaking in tongues (Hendrix, 1977:159). Charismatic believers refer to it as being baptised in the Holy Spirit and this comes with accompanying spiritual gifts which are mentioned in 1 Corinthians 12 in the Bible (Morris, 1983:103).

In the context of South African churches, people started to break away from mainline TCs during the apartheid era to form their own church denominations. This situation was instigated by the social ineptness associated with the main line churches and the "social dislocation caused by group removal areas" (De Gruchy, 1985:19). Goodhew (2000:366) alleges that the shift was caused by secularisation and the government's

role in the repression of the education system, which was "controlled by mainline denominations." The Rhema Church was established in South Africa for these reasons (De Gruchy, 1985:19).

5.3 The importance of commitment in relationships

Commitment appears to be a precursor of successful marketing relationships. This implies that when commitment is established in a marketing relationship the probability of that marketing relationship being successful is high (Mukherjee & Nath, 2007:1176). Commitment has been defined in two parts: "positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in the work organization" and "the extent to which employees feel committed to their organizations by virtue of the costs that they feel are associated with leaving" (Carmeli, Elizur & Yaniv, 2007:639). Wiener (1982:418) defined commitment as the "affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth."

Commitment can be divided into three components: affective, calculative and normative commitment (Bloemer *et al*., 2002:5). *Affective commitment* is an individual's need to continue a relationship on the bases if his/her own satisfaction realised in the relationship. Affective commitment can be viewed as "an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002:21). *Calculative (continuance) commitment* is an individual's need to continue a relationship based on the costs linked with ending the relationship. These costs are referred to as switching costs. *Normative commitment* is an individual's perception of his or her moral obligation to continue in the relationship. Further, normative commitment can explain why certain individuals will commit to an organisation and others will not, because some individuals feel a moral obligation to an organisation while others do not feel the same obligation (Wiener, 1982:418).

Steers (1977:47) distinguishes five outcomes of commitment; that is desire to remain, intent to remain, attendance, employee retention, and job performance. When individuals are committed to an organisation, it is likely that the productivity of that organisation will be higher and vice versa (Alqurashi, n.d:2). Muthuveloo and Rose

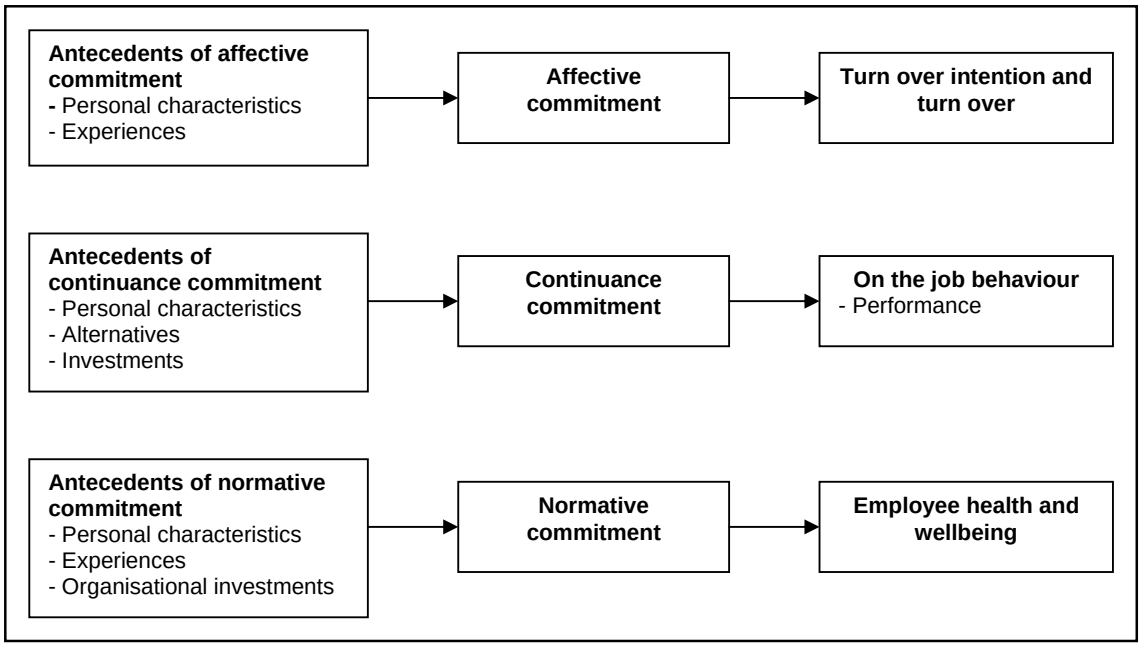
(2005:1095) suggested that "organisational outcomes can be improved by increasing employees' organisational commitment."

When commitment is established with clients or organisational members, the intention of those clients or members to stay with the services provider or organisation is enhanced and when commitment is present, whether it is by clients or organisation members, there is some kind of behavioural outflow (Wetzels, De Ruyter & Van Birgelen, 1998:413). This behavioural outflow could include cooperation, propensity to stay, and acquiescence (MacMillan *et al.*, 2005:808).

Figure 5.1 depicts an organisational commitment model which includes the three components of organisational commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. The importance of these components is highlighted by the number of times they feature in the literature on commitment.

Figure 5.1

A model of organisational commitment



Source: Adapted from Meyer *et al.,* 2002:22

Even though the model focuses on employee commitment to an organisation, the principles are equally applicable to clients' commitment to organisations. Moreover, commitment has an effect on the devotion an individual shows towards an organisation and it enhances the performance of an organisation's operations (Süß &

Kleiner, 2009:42). When a sense of commitment is established in a consumer, client or member to an organisation, this commitment can result in loyalty towards the organisation which in turn, could lead to positive implications for the organisation (Bloemer *et al.,* 2002:2). These positive implications can include increased retention rates of clients and increased profits (Hallowell, 1996:31).

Figure 5.2 illustrates a four-component model of commitment and provides two important reasons why individuals would commit to a church.

Figure 5.2

Four component model of commitment

Timing	**Bases of commitment**	
Before entry to the organisation	**Instrumental commitment propensity**	**Normative commitment propensity**
After entry to the organisation	**Instrumental commitment**	**Affective commitment**

Source: Adapted from Cohen, 2007:337

Cohen (2007:337) points out that there are two types of commitment *(instrumental commitment propensity* and *normative commitment propensity)* before entering a relationship with an organisation. Further, there are two types of commitment *(instrumental commitment* and *affective commitment)* after entering a relationship with an organisation.

Instrumental commitment propensity refers to a person's expectations with regard to the rewards he or she might receive from establishing a relationship with an organisation, while normative commitment propensity is the moral obligation a person has towards an organisation. Instrumental commitment is a person's perception of the degree of rewards received from the organisation in relation to the input made. Affective commitment is "a psychological attachment to the organization demonstrated by identification with it, emotional involvement and a sense of belonging" (Cohen, 2007:337).

5.4 Church commitment

No clear definition could be found in the marketing literature for church commitment. Coleman, Toomey and Woodland (1975:677) suggest that church commitment can be defined in terms of the level of attendance and/or church participation. They add that the positive effects of religious commitment are shown in a member's eagerness to remain in a church regardless of any outside incentives to terminate the relationship, the member's approval of the church's norms, beliefs and values, and a church member's willingness to participate in church activities.

Hoge and Carroll (1978:108) have identified four theories of church commitment, namely participation deprivation theory, child-rearing theory, doctrinal beliefs and status group theory. *Deprivation theory* asserts that individuals suffering from some kind of dispossession will become more likely to be attracted towards religion to compensate for it. However, this theory was tested and found to be unsubstantiated. *Child-rearing theory* suggests that when married couples become parents church participation increases. *Child-rearing* theory has been supported through testing. The doctrinal beliefs of individuals can determine the level of commitment individuals' show towards a church. This implies that if a person believes that the chances of salvation are greater if he or she attends church, church commitment will increase. Doctrinal beliefs have also been supported through testing. *Status group theory* implies that individuals attend church due to some identification with or status received through being an active church member. Status group theory is supported by testing, but such status identification cannot on its own add to church member participation.

Payne and Elifson (1976:214) suggest that when individuals are committed to a religious organisation the outflow of this commitment produces some kind of action. This could be increased church attendance or participation in church activities. Commitment is facilitated by individuals' beliefs, but there is still an outflow of some action that is formed from commitment (Payne & Elifson 1976:214). Consequently, a church that can establish commitment amongst its members will have more members participating in its activities than a church in which there is a lack of organisational commitment. In this section church commitment was defined.

5.5 The antecedents of church commitment

There are two types of antecedents of church commitment, namely those with a broader appeal, and those specifically relevant for churches. An extensive literature review confirmed that the 'experience' dimension identified as an antecedent of church commitment with broad appeal (as indicated in Chapter 1), was closely related to 'beliefs'. Experience was therefore removed from further discussion or use in this study. The discussion of the antecedents aims to clarify each antecedent and to arrive at formulations of a hypothesis for each one.

5.5.1 The antecedents of church commitment with broader appeal

The four antecedents of church commitment with broad appeal are customisation, communication, trust and relationship benefits.

5.5.1.1 Customisation

Customisation is the ability to adapt a service offering to the needs of individual clients (Gill, Flaschner & Shachar, 2006:399; Coulter & Coulter, 2002:44). Customisation does not only have a positive influence on the levels of trust clients perceive for a service provider, but can also generate a competitive advantage over rivals (Amaro, Hendry & Kingsman, 1999:361). When service offerings are customised clients will be more likely to return to that service provider because they are receiving what they want and need.

Service providers can undertake mass customisation strategies to increase trust relationships with all clients (Lowson, 2003:77). Mass customisation occurs when a service offering is adapted for individual clients' needs and wants, but includes all the clients of a service provider (Lowson, 2003:77). Clients want their service offerings to be customised according to their own preferences, to increase the quality of the service which they receive (Miranda & Konya, 2007:449). When clients become part of the service delivery process and have control over the quality of the service, they perceive that the risk associated in making use of that service is reduced (Miranda & Konya, 2007:451). The marketing literature suggests that the customisation of services leads to commitment (Wong, Chan, Leung & Pae, 2008:140). There is

therefore a positive relationship between the customisation of services and commitment.

Concerning churches, customisation can play a role in attracting different market segments to a particular church. Note that customisation of church services does not imply changing the message, but only the means by which it is represented. This could involve adding a worship band, music or dance (White & Simas, 2008:154). If church services are not adapted the possibility is greater that growth will not be realised, regardless of current member's participation (McDaniel, 1989:175).

5.5.1.2 Communication

Communication is the "formal as well as informal sharing of meaningful and timely information between individuals" (Chen, Chen & Yeh, 2003:38). Personalised communications or information increases the level of trust and satisfaction a client perceives with a service provider (Ball, Coelho & Machas, 2004:1284). This implies that the more individualised attention and information given to a client the more likely a customer will be to trust a service provider. When information is shared in a manner that increases the customer's convenience and reduces effort the results can be enhanced trust (Ball *et al*., 2004:1277).

Communication comprises different dimensions which consist of openness, the quality of the information and politeness (Mukherjee & Nath, 2003:8; Coulter & Coulter, 2002:37). Openness is the degree to which information is shared openly with clients and not withholding important information from them. The quality of information refers to the relevance of information pertaining to a specific situation. Politeness, for example is "the degree to which the service provider is perceived as being considerate, tactful, deferent, or courteous" (Coulter & Coulter, 2002:37).

According to Wilson and Keyton (1993:260) church commitment is significantly influenced by communication. The communication medium used by churches can either detract or add to church member commitment. Therefore, it is necessary to determine the preferred communication medium of church members (Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2005:72). Consequently, it can be hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between communication and church commitment.

5.5.1.3 Trust

Trust is the assurance that members have in an organisation's integrity and confidentiality (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:63). It has been established that trust enhances the commitment of clients to their service providers and commitment increases their intention to stay with the service provider. The capability of both parties to contribute value to the relationship determines the level of trust and commitment that will be established (Caceres & Paparoidamis, 2007:845).

According to Weideman and Terblanche (2007:63) trust is a building block of commitment and this is also true in regards to the church. Morgan and Hunt (1994:23) support this by asserting that trust leads to commitment and commitment leads to behavioural intentions such as loyalty. Therefore it is important to establish trust with organisational members to ensure that there is an outflow to commitment. Necessarily, there is a positive relationship between trust and commitment.

5.5.1.4 Relationship benefits

Relationship benefits are the economic, social and tactical benefits associated with building a relationship with an organisation (Sweeney & Webb, 2007:475). Holdford and White (1997:250) define relationship benefits as the "quality of services and goods" in relation to other alternatives. Palakshappa and Gordon (2005:82) analysed relationship benefits and stipulated them as objectives in organisations. They found that the success of relationships was increased where these objectives were accomplished and that there was a positive relationship between achieving these objectives, trust and commitment. According to Morgan and Hunt (1994:25) relationships benefits adds to customer satisfaction and commitment and delineates that there is therefore a positive relationship between relationship benefits and commitment.

5.5.2 Church-specific antecedents of commitment

The seven identified antecedents of church commitment specifically relevant to churches are detailed in the next section.

5.5.2.1 Follow-up

Riggs (n.d:614) defines follow-up as "the process of giving continuous attention to a new Christian until he is integrated into the church, discovering his place of service, developing his full potential for Jesus Christ, and helping to build Christ's church". This statement can be confirmed through Ephesians 4:11-13 (The Bible, 2002 NKJV):

> "11And He Himself gave some to be apostles, some prophets, some evangelists, and some pastors and teachers, 12 for the equipping of the saints for the work of ministry, for the edifying of the body of Christ, 13 till we all come to the unity of the faith and of the knowledge of the Son of God, to a perfect man, to the measure of the stature of the fullness of Christ."

There is a clear relation between follow-up and incorporating members into active church membership, which implies that there is a clear relationship between follow-up and church commitment (Everett, 1985:155). It can therefore be hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between effective follow-up and church commitment.

5.5.2.2 Seeker sensitiveness

'Seeker sensitiveness' implies that churches adapt their service offering to attract individuals to their respective churches (White & Simas, 2008:154). Table 5.2 records typical features of seeker-sensitive churches.

Table 5.2

Characteristics of seeker-sensitive churches

	Characteristics
1.	The seeker-sensitive church tries to reach out to the unsaved person by making the church experience as comfortable, inviting, and non-threatening to him as possible.
2.	Theatrics and musical entertainment are the norm in the church service to keep the unsaved person from getting bored as he does with traditional churches.
3.	Short sermons (typically 20 minutes at most) are usually focused on self-improvement.
4.	Rarely are sin, hell, or repentance spoken of, and Jesus Christ as the exclusive way to heaven is rarely mentioned. Such doctrines are considered divisive.
5.	The seeker-sensitive church movement has pioneered a new method for founding churches involving demographics studies and community surveys that ask the unsaved what they want in a church. This is a kind of "if you build it they will come" mentality.
6.	The focus of the seeker church then is not Christ-centred, but man-centred.
7.	The main purpose of the seeker church's existence is to give people what they want or meet their felt needs.
8.	The message the seeker church sometimes passes on to the unsaved person is that God is a great cosmic genie, and if you stroke Him the right way, you will get what you want. In other words, if you profess to believe in Jesus, God will give you a better life, better relationships and purpose in life. What too often happens in such a system is that people make a profession of faith, but when the circumstances of their lives don't immediately change for their material good, they forsake Christ, believing He has failed them.

Source: Compiled from Should a church be seeker sensitive? 2010

Seeker sensitive churches patently promote Christianity in a way that is pleasing to man and not necessarily to God. In a sense, a prosperity gospel is preached and life will be fine if you accept Jesus Christ as your saviour. This is not necessarily true as Jesus said in Matthew 10:38 (NKJV) that "And he who does not take his cross and follow after Me is not worthy of Me."

Paul mentions in 2 Corinthians 11:25-28 of some of the trials and tribulations he had to endure as a believer:

> "[25]Three times I was beaten with rods; once I was stoned; three times I was shipwrecked; a night and a day I have been in the deep; [26] in journeys often, in perils of waters, in perils of robbers, in perils of my own countrymen, in perils of the Gentiles, in perils in the city, in perils in the wilderness, in perils in the sea, in perils among false brethren; [27]in weariness and toil, in sleeplessness often, in hunger and thirst, in fastings often, in cold and nakedness— [28] besides the other things, what comes upon me daily…." (The Bible, 2002 NKJV)

There is a fine line between customising the service offering of a church and adopting the Gospel in a way that changes the final message. This links back to marketing in

that, organisations should not be deceptive and sell a product to individuals, which is not entirely truthful.

Branaugh's (2008:13) work on the effects a seeker-sensitive approach had on a church found that over the short term it seemed that the seeker sensitive approach had a positive effect on church attendance, but it also revealed that a large proportion of the church was spiritually unsatisfied and were considering leaving the church with a resultant negative influence on church commitment. A negative relationship between a seeker sensitive-approach to managing a church and commitment seems to exist.

5.5.2.3 Beliefs

Beliefs can be defined in terms of the degree to which individuals share the same values with an organisation. These can involve race interests, education, personal faith, and views (Parent, 2003:60; Wilson & Keyton, 1993:260). Shared beliefs or values enhance the ability of the service provider to come across more empathetically, reduce interpersonal conflict, increase comfort levels, and lead to the emergence of trust (Gill *et al*., 2006:389). The greater a client's perception of shared values is with his or her service representative, the higher the level of trust will be (Mukherjee & Nath, 2003:8). Clients have the tendency to commit more to a relationship if their values coincide with the service providers' values (Morgan & Hunt, 1994:25). Hence it can be hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between beliefs and church commitment.

5.5.2.4 Secularisation

Secularisation is the replacement of religious values with non-religious values. In other words a movement away from a religious lifestyle (Weideman & Terblanche, 2007:58). This is also expressed in 1 John 2:15-17 (The Bible, 2002 NKJV):

> "[15]Do not love the world or the things in the world. If anyone loves the world, the love of the Father is not in him. [16]For all that is in the world — the lust of the flesh, the lust of the eyes, and the pride of life — is not of the Father but is of the world. [17]And the world is passing away, and the lust of it; but he who does the will of God abides forever."

Moojan (1999) in Crabtree (2008) views secularisation in five different ways, which is specified in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

Views on secularisation

Description of views
Decline of popular involvement in institutionalised religion. This can be seen in the decline in church attendance, with fewer marriages, baptisms and funerals being performed under religious auspices.
The loss of prestige of religious institutions and symbols and the decline in influence of religious organisations.
The separation of society from the religious world, so that religion becomes purely personal matter.
The loss of the idea of the sacred. As science increases our understanding of humanity and of the world, the area of 'mystery' and the supernatural decreases.
Religious groups themselves become increasingly concerned with the things of this world rather than the spiritual world.

Source: Moojan (1999) in Crabtree (2008)

Table 5.3 highlights the influence that secularisation exerts on religious institutions and their behaviours. Verweij, Ester and Nauta (1997:320) point out that secularisation affects religious thinking, attitudes, church attendance as well as church membership. There is also evidence that secularisation has a negative influence on church commitment (Moberg & Piedmont, 2003:130; Welch, 1981:85). Accordingly a negative relationship between secularisation and church commitment is postulated.

5.5.2.5 Compassion

The broader view of compassion refers to empathy. Empathy refers to the individualised attention an organisation gives to its clients (Gill *et al*., 2006:386). There is a direct relationship between the amount of empathy provided and perceived trust experienced (Gill *et al*., 2006:386). In addition, the level of trust perceived by clients influences their commitment (Caceres & Paparoidamis, 2007:845). Because empathy influences trust and commitment positively, it is

hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between empathy and commitment. In church life empathy is replaced by compassion, the latter being the manner in which individuals receive individual attention in a caring manner which is not superficial (Moyer, 1994:343). There is therefore a positive relationship between compassion and trust.

5.5.2.6 Small-groups

Small-groups serve a discipleship purpose and form part of a healing ministry (Latini, 2010:34). According to Latini (2010:34) discipling adds to the healing ministry of churches through small-group congregational care, social interaction – "belonging, trust and intimacy" – and accountability. Welch (1981:85) has noted that group norms and beliefs influence commitment. For this reason it is possible that small-groups can have a positive influence on an individual's commitment to a group and also to the church denomination. It is hypothesised that small-groups and church commitment is positively related.

5.5.2.7 Friendships

Hernandez and Dudley (1990:157) recognise that commitment to a religious institution may be caused by the attachments individuals have towards social groups and they point out that the primary social group of influence is family members who can directly affect individuals' commitment to religious institutions. Friends, and more so parents, have a great impact on their siblings' feelings towards the church (Hoge & Petrillo, 1979:306). The standards set by the groups people are surrounded by determine the way in which these people react towards different churches and their activities (Finney, 1978:20).

Individuals who obtain emotional support from congregational members have an enhanced sense of belonging in that congregation, while for those who do not receive emotional support, the opposite is true. Christianity emphasises love and forgiveness towards one another which in its essence opens the door to successful long-term relationships (Krause & Wulff 2005:74). McGaw (1979:148) has postulated that there is a positive relationship between friendships people have in a church and

church commitment. Therefore it is hypothesised that a positive relationship exists between friendships and church commitment.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the church and the antecedents of church commitment and included sections on the church classification, the importance of commitment in relationships, church commitment and the antecedents of church commitment. The antecedents of church commitment were divided into antecedents of church commitment with broad appeal and the church specific antecedents. These antecedents were gathered from previous marketing literature. In addition to this, the relationships each of these antecedents has towards church commitment were identified.

The next chapter describes the methodology followed in this study and includes a conceptual model of church commitment as well as the hypothesis to be assessed. Furthermore, the research design is described and the questionnaire items used in the final survey is provided.

CHAPTER 6
METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter's purpose is to describe the study's methodology. The antecedents of church commitment identified in Chapter 1 are divided into broad-appeal antecedents and antecedents specifically relevant for churches. The broad-appeal antecedents include customisation, communication, trust and relationship benefits, while the antecedents specifically relevant for the church are follow-up, seeker sensitive, beliefs, secularisation, compassion, small-groups and friendships. These antecedents were used as constructs in the generation of the measurement instrument for this study.

This chapter presents and discusses the conceptual model of church commitment, the hypotheses to be assessed, the research design, the measurement instrument, sampling and data analysis. In the development of the measurement instrument a pilot study was conducted to purify the questionnaire items. The statistical methods used to analyse the data are factor and linear regression analyses as well as t-tests to assist in achieving the purpose this study – to determine the manner in which churches can manage commitment with their members.

6.2 Conceptual model of church commitment

No model of church commitment in terms of relationship marketing could be found. Therefore, a conceptual model of church commitment was developed through a review of the marketing literature. Due to the extensiveness of the model it was split into two parts: the antecedents of church commitment with broad appeal and the antecedents of church commitment specifically relevant for churches. These models are represented in Figures 6.1 and 6.2 respectively.

Figure 6.1

Conceptual model of the antecedents of church commitment with broad appeal

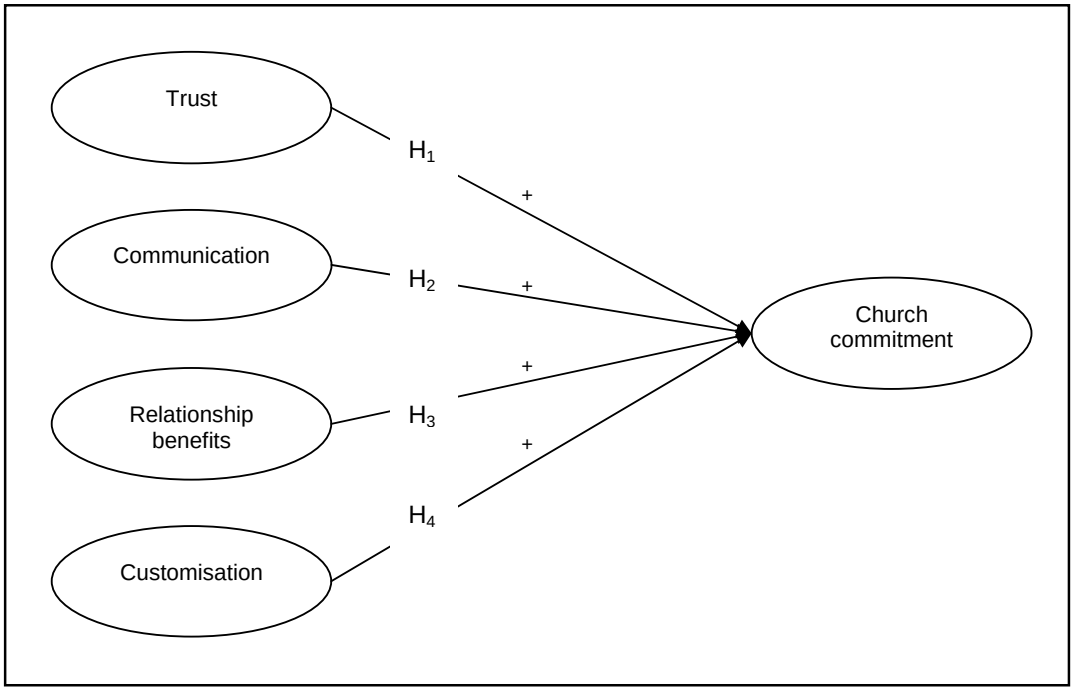
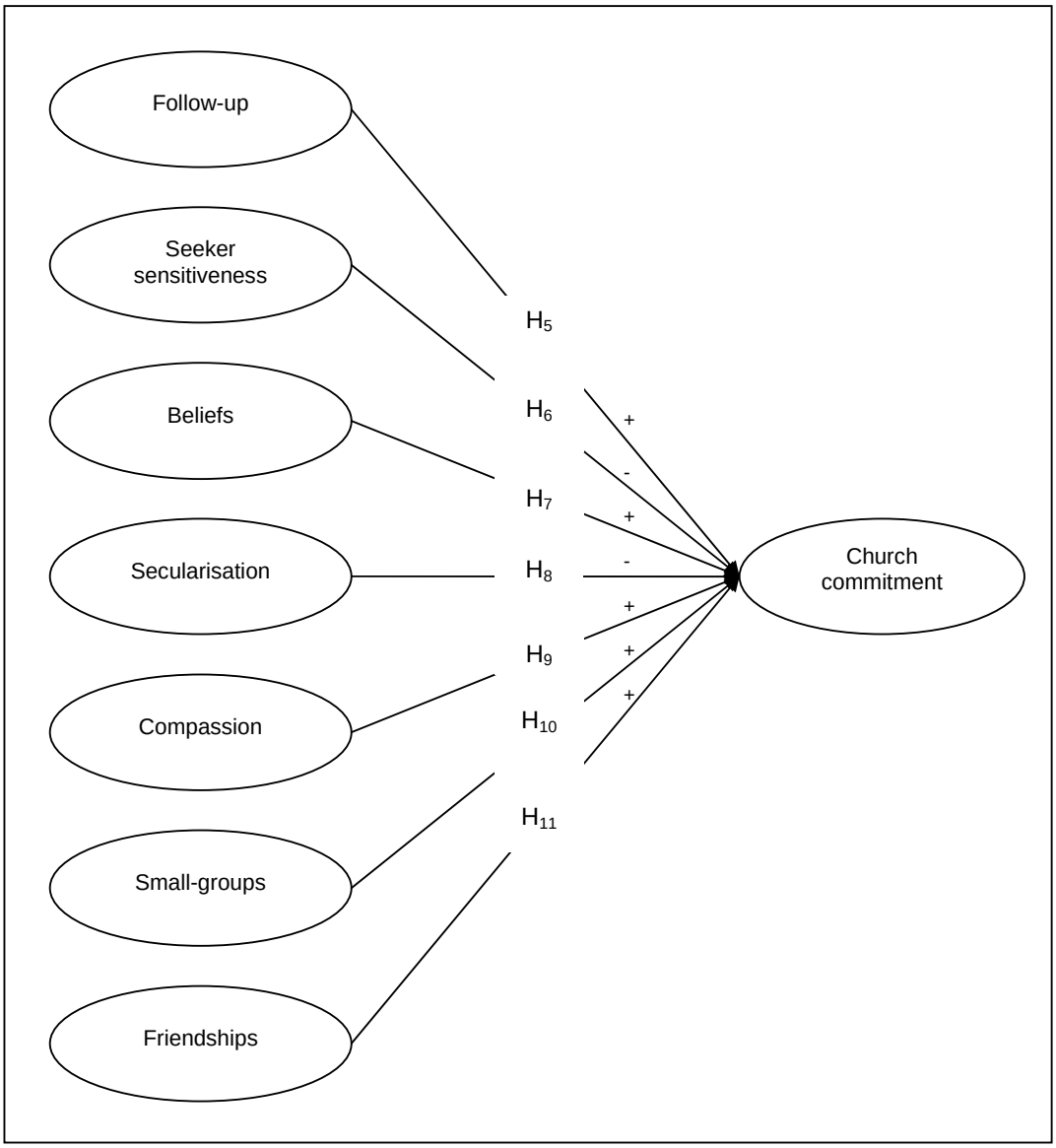


Figure 6.1 depicts the corresponding hypothesised relationships each of the antecedents with broad appeal has with church commitment. Trust, communication, relationship benefits and customisation all have positive relationships in relation to church commitment. The exclusion of experience as antecedent of church commitment was mentioned in chapter 5.

Figure 6.2

Conceptual model of the antecedents of church commitment specifically relevant for churches



The hypothesised relationships that each of the church-specific antecedents of church commitment has towards church commitment, are portrayed in Figure 6.2. Follow-up, beliefs, compassion, small-groups and friendships each have a positive relationship to church commitment, while seeker sensitiveness and secularisation have negative relationships with church commitment.

The next section identifies the initial hypotheses to be assessed. These hypotheses were formulated before the pilot study and prior to any reliability and validity analyses, and were therefore subject to change.

6.3 Initial hypotheses to be assessed

Table 6.1 indicates the directional hypotheses identified through the literature review.

Table 6.1

Initial directional hypotheses to be assessed

Hypotheses	Proposed relationship
Hypotheses with broad appeal	
H_1	There is a positive relationship between trust and church commitment.
H_2	There is a positive relationship between communication and church commitment.
H_3	There is a positive relationship between relationship benefits and church commitment.
H_4	There is a positive relationship between customisation and church commitment.
Hypotheses specifically relevant for churches	
H_5	There is a positive relationship between follow-up and church commitment.
H_6	There is a negative relationship between seeker sensitiveness and church commitment.
H_7	There is a positive relationship between beliefs and church commitment.
H_8	There is a negative relationship between secularisation and church commitment.
H_9	There is a positive relationship between compassion and church commitment.
H_{10}	There is a positive relationship between small-groups and church commitment.
H_{11}	There is a positive relationship between friendships and church commitment.
Hypotheses for determining difference between traditional and non-traditional churches	
H_{12}	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and church commitment.
H_{13}	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and small-groups.
H_{14}	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and church follow-up.
H_{15}	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and reliability.

Based on the results of the pilot study, the initial set of hypotheses was adjusted because of the formulation of new constructs after conducting reliability and validity analyses.

6.4 Research design of the study

This section describes the secondary and primary research techniques pertaining to this study.

6.4.1 Secondary research

Secondary research refers to the assessment of data which already exists (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:316). The purpose of the secondary research was to ascertain the antecedents of church commitment from existing literature. An extensive review of academic journals, conference proceedings, working papers as well as a general metalib search enabled the researcher to compile a list of the antecedents of church commitment. The secondary research also involved interviews with various academics and theologians to ensure the effective identification of the antecedents of church commitment, and to certify the validity of the study.

6.4.2 Primary research

The primary research design implemented for the assessment of the antecedents of church commitment in South African churches, is a survey research design, specifically an online self-administered questionnaire. It appears that a survey is the preferred research method across the scope of literature investigated (Mulyanegara & Tsarenko, 2009; Houghland & Wood, 1982:342). This design makes use of information collected from a sample population by means of a questionnaire.

6.5 Initial measurement instrument

The initial measurement instrument indicated in Table 6.2 covers the twelve dimensions identified through the literature review. Five items per dimension were selected to ensure that sufficient reliability was created for each dimension on the grounds claimed by Churchill (1979:66), that the use of multiple items in developing a measurement instrument will yield more reliable results.

The questionnaire format consists of a Likert scale with seven response categories ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The total number of items in the initial measurement instrument was 60.

Table 6.2

Questionnaire items used in the pilot study

Dimension	Code	Item	Source
Church commitment	COMT1	I am very committed to my church.	Sharma & Patterson, 2000:489
	COMT2	I have a strong feeling of loyalty towards my church.	Sharma & Patterson, 2000:489
	COMT3	I wish to remain in a relationship with my church.	Patterson & Smith, 2001:110
	COMT4	I am not looking for another church to replace my present one.	Patterson & Smith, 2001:110
	COMT5	I expect to continue to be involved with my church's activities.	Batt, 2000:25
Trust	TRUST1	My church has a great deal of integrity.	Gill *et al.,* 2006:393
	TRUST2	I have great confidence in my church.	Johnson & Grayson, 2005:506
	TRUST3	I trust my church.	Yau, McFetrige, Chow, Lee, Sin & Tse, 2000:118
	TRUST4	My church is honest.	Gill *et al*., 2006:393
	TRUST5	My church is truthful.	Coote, Forrest & Tam, 2003: 599
Communication	COMM1	My church provides timely information.	Kang, Jeon, Lee & Lee, 2005:304
	COMM2	My church communicates relevant information.	Self-generated
	COMM3	My church provides accurate information.	Theron, 2008:208
	COMM4	My church provides frequent communication about issues that are important to me.	MacMillan *et al.,* 2005:813
	COMM5	My church keeps me informed about its activities.	Coote *et al.,* 2003:599
Relationship benefits	RLB1	My church provides me an opportunity to take part in programmes that will have a good long-term impact on society.	MacMillan *et al*., 2005:813
	RLB2	I benefit from my relationship with my church.	MacMillan *et al*., 2005:813
	RLB3	My relationship with my church enriches my life.	Self-generated
	RLB4	My relationship with my church helps me to utilise opportunities in everyday life.	MacMillan *et al*., 2005:813
	RLB5	Because of the benefits I receive I do not want to leave my church.	Venetis,1997:196
Customisation	CUST1	My church is flexible enough to accommodate unforeseen problems I may experience.	Homburg, Giering & Menon, 2003:60
	CUST2	My church provides a service suited to my unique needs.	Coulter & Coulter, 2002:41
	CUST3	My church assists me whenever my needs change.	Homburg *et al.,* 2003:60
	CUST4	My church provides services that are customised to individuals' needs. (E.g. service times, bilingual church services, individual attention).	Coulter & Coulter, 2002:41
	CUST5	My church provides solutions to meet my religious needs.	MacMillan *et al*., 2005:813
Compassion	COMP1	My church is caring.	Coulter & Coulter, 2002:41
	COMP2	My church in general is regarded as friendly.	Coulter & Coulter, 2002:41
	COMP3	My church provides me with a sense of warmth.	Coulter & Coulter, 2002:41
	COMP4	My church is compassionate towards me.	Chen, Shi & Dong, 2008:17
	COMP5	I experience a sense of kindness in my church.	Coulter & Coulter, 2002:41

Table 6.2 continued overleaf

Dimension	Code	Item	Source
Beliefs	BL1	My church has beliefs similar to mine.	Gill *et al*., 2006:393
	BL2	My church has similar opinions to mine.	MacMillan *et al*., 2005:813
	BL3	My church has values similar to mine.	Gill *et al*., 2006:393
	BL4	My church and I share the same feelings about things around us.	Sin, Tse, Yau, Chow, Lee & Lau, 2005:193
	BL5	My church has similar principles to mine.	Gill *et al*., 2006:393
Secularisation	SEC1	If I had to choose between a church meeting and a social meeting, I would generally go to the church meeting.	Payne & Elifson, 1976:213
	SEC2	Church activities in general are a major source of satisfaction in my life.	Payne & Elifson, 1976:213
	SEC3	The church as institution is important in modern society.	Sociology A-level: secularisation problems of assessment, 2000
	SEC4	The church in general has lost its influence over society.	Secularisation and the diminished influence of religion in society, 2009.
	SEC5	The church in general does not influence my lifestyle.	Self-generated
Seeker sensitiveness	SKS1	My church preaches the truth according to my religion.	Self-generated
	SKS2	I will attend my church even if my church does not preach the word according to my religion.	Self-generated
	SKS3	I will attend a church even if they only want to please people.	Self-generated
	SKS4	I will attend a church that adapts its message just to please people.	Self-generated
	SKS5	I will attend a church that only preaches what people want to hear.	Self-generated
Small-groups	SMG1	I like being part of/would like to be part of a small-group (e.g. cell group) in my church.	Self-generated
	SMG2	Being a member of a small-group (e.g. cell group) in my church enhanced/ would enhance my commitment towards my church.	Self-generated
	SMG3	It is important for my church that its members are part of a small-group (e.g. cell group).	Self-generated
	SMG4	If my church offers small-group activities I would attend it.	Self-generated
	SMG5	Small-group activities enhance my satisfaction towards my church.	Self-generated
Follow-up	FL1	My church has an effective system of follow-up for new members.	Omega decipleship ministaries, 2010.
	FL2	My church has an effective system of caring for new members.	Omega decipleship ministaries, 2010.
	FL3	In my church existing members support new members.	Omega decipleship ministaries, 2010.
	FL4	My church has a follow-up system in place; therefore I am more committed to my church.	Self-generated
	FL5	I think my friends are more committed to the church because my church has a follow-up system.	Self-generated
Friendships	F1	I have close friends in my church.	Krause & Cairney, 2009:8
	F2	My friends influence my choice of church.	Self-generated
	F3	I prefer/would prefer to attend a church where my friends are.	Self-generated
	F4	I would attend a church even if I do not have any friends there.	Self-generated
	F5	Having friends in my church is important to me.	Self-generated

The questionnaire items indicated in Table 6.2 were used to conduct a pilot study. The two subsections to follow (6.5.1 and 6.5.2) discuss the scale development and the outcome of the pilot study.

6.5.1 Scale development

The majority of the questionnaire items indicated in Table 6.2 was taken from the marketing literature. Nevertheless, due to the lack of relevant questionnaire items found for the church-specific dimensions it was necessary to include 19 self-generated items in the development of the questionnaire, especially for the seeker sensitiveness, small-group, follow-up and friendships dimensions. However, the items were phrased in such a way that they would truthfully reflect the definition of each dimension. It was therefore necessary to conduct a pilot study to ensure that the questionnaire items had sufficient reliability and validity.

6.5.2 Pilot study

The pilot study involved 130 respondents, which remained within the parameters of the population of this study. The pilot study was conducted at Stellenbosch University. A group of first year students were selected to complete a hard copy of the initial measurement instrument, in a class context. A reliability and exploratory factor analysis was performed to test sufficient reliability and validity in each construct. The reliability analysis yielded that the seeker-sensitiveness, secularisation and friendships dimensions were insufficiently reliable; they were therefore removed from the final questionnaire. The item COMT4 was also removed due to insufficient reliability. The above mentioned reliability statistics are indicated in Chapter 7, Table 7.1.

The exploratory factor analysis indicated that TRUST1, TRUST3, COMM5, RLB5, CUST2, CUST3, CUST5, COMP1, COMP4, COMP5, BL1, BL2, BL4, SMG3, SMG4, FL4 and FL5 did not have sufficient validity and were consequently removed from the final questionnaire. The validity analysis revealed that three new dimensions were formed. The first new dimension included CUST1, COMP2, and RLB1. The second new dimension included BL3, COMP3 and BL5. The final new dimension included RL4, COMM4 and CUST5. These new dimensions were renamed as ‘positiveness’, ‘shared beliefs’ and ‘helpfulness’ respectively. The final interpretable factor analysis yielded a factor structure of eight factors. This implied that the final questionnaire was reduced to eight dimensions, excluding church commitment. Table 6.3 identifies the remaining questionnaire items for this study.

Table 6.3

Revised questionnaire items used in the final questionnaire

Dimension	Code	Item
Church commitment	COMT1	I am very committed to my church.
	COMT2	I have a strong feeling of loyalty towards my church.
	COMT3	I wish to remain in a relationship with my church.
	COMT4	I expect to continue to be involved with my church's activities.
Trust	TRUST1	I have great confidence in my church.
	TRUST2	My church is honest.
	TRUST3	My church is truthful.
Communication	COMM1	My church provides timely information.
	COMM2	My church communicates relevant information.
	COMM3	My church provides accurate information.
Relationship benefits	RLB1	I benefit from my relationship with my church.
	RLB2	My relationship with my church enriches my life.
Positiveness	POS1	My church is flexible enough to accommodate unforeseen problems I may experience.
	POS2	My church in general is regarded as friendly.
	POS3	My church provides me an opportunity to take part in programmes that will have a good long-term impact on society.
Shared beliefs	SBL1	My church has values similar to mine.
	SBL2	My church provides me with a sense of warmth.
	SLB3	My church has similar principles to mine.
Helpfulness	HPS1	My relationship with my church helps me to utilise opportunities in everyday life.
	HPS2	My church provides frequent communication about issues that are important to us.
	HPS3	My church provides solutions to meet my religious needs.
Small-groups	SMG1	I like being part of/would like to be part of a small-group (e.g. cell group) in my church.
	SMG2	Being a member of a small-group (e.g. cell group) in my church enhanced/would enhance my commitment towards my church.
	SMG3	Small-group activities enhance my satisfaction towards my church.
Follow-up	FL1	My church has an effective system of follow-up for new members.
	FL2	My church has an effective system of caring for new members.
	FL3	In my church existing members support new members.

The original questionnaire used in the pilot study was revised to comprise 27 items excluding demographic questions. The final online self-administered questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

6.5.3 Hypotheses to be assessed

The reliability and validity analyses for the pilot study indicated that some questionnaire items were not sufficiently reliable or valid, and moreover three new

dimensions emerged, as indicted in Table 6.3. Consequently, three hypotheses had to be removed and three adapted to accommodate the three new dimensions which were created. Table 6.4 provides a revised listing of the directional hypotheses to be assessed in this study.

Table 6.4

Directional hypotheses to be assessed

Hypotheses	Proposed relationship
Hypotheses with broad appeal including churches	
H_1	There is a positive relationship between trust and church commitment.
H_2	There is a positive relationship between communication and church commitment.
H_3	There is a positive relationship between relationship benefits and church commitment.
Hypotheses specifically relevant for churches	
H_4	There is a positive relationship between small-groups and church commitment.
H_5	There is a positive relationship between follow-up and church commitment.
H_6	There is a positive relationship between positiveness and church commitment.
H_7	There is a positive relationship between shared beliefs and church commitment.
H_8	There is a positive relationship between helpfulness and church commitment.
Hypotheses for determining difference between traditional and non-traditional churches	
H_9	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and church commitment.
H_{10}	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and small-groups
H_{11}	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and church follow-up.
H_{12}	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and reliability.

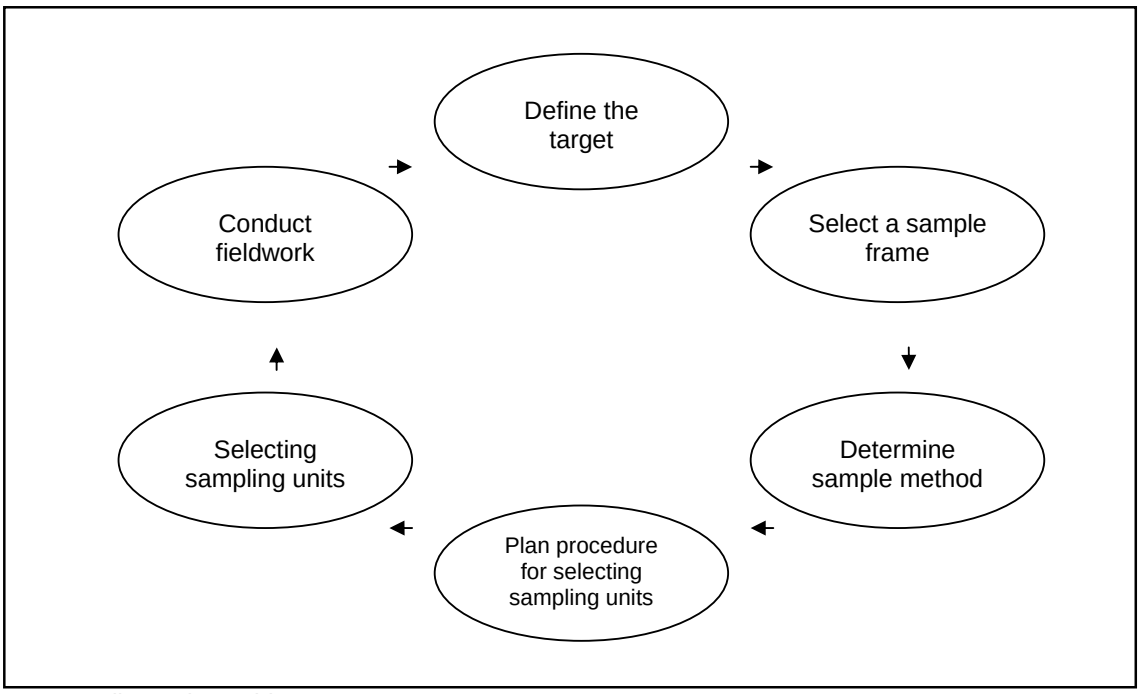
The results of the pilot study concluded that three new dimensions were formed and three dimensions were removed. As a consequence the number of dimensions was reduced to nine. Implying that, eight antecedents (independent variables) of church commitment remained as well as church commitment (dependent variable).

6.6 Sampling process

Sampling is used to draw inferences from a small-group of a population and generalise it to the entire population (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:403). The sampling procedure is set out in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3

Steps in a general sampling procedure



Source: Zikmund & Babin 2007:406

This study's sampling process was initiated by defining the target market and was followed by the selection of the sample frame. After this the sampling method (non-probability, multistage, judgement and convenience sampling), procedure for selecting sample units and data collection method was identified.

6.6.1 Population of the study

A population is defined as "any complete group of entities that shares some common set of characteristics" (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:404). The population of this study is students of Stellenbosch University, who are either currently attending a church or who have previously attended a church. This can be any church, whether it is in Stellenbosch, their hometown or a nearby city or town.

The population of this study includes 18 to 26 year-old individuals who are South African citizens and deem themselves to be Christians. The population consists of both genders and different cultural groups (indicated in Table 6.5). Although individual churches in Stellenbosch and elsewhere have their own databases, it was not possible to gain access to these databases. Therefore, no sample frame was

used. Table 6.5 provides the total number of Stellenbosch University students enrolled during 2010; according to their academic programme level, gender and race.

Table 6.5

Stellenbosch University students by academic programme level, gender and race, 2010

Race/programme level	Male	Female	Total
Undergraduate			
White	6286	6189	12475
Coloured	1112	1564	2676
Black	570	555	1125
Indian	101	147	248
Total	**8069**	**8455**	**16524**
Postgraduate			
White	2614	2599	5213
Coloured	687	1098	1785
Black	1475	1295	2770
Indian	142	133	275
Total	**4918**	**5125**	**10043**
Special students			
White	394	499	893
Coloured	20	43	63
Black	85	55	140
Indian	17	14	31
Total	**516**	**611**	**1127**
All students			
White	9294	9287	18581
Coloured	1819	2705	4524
Black	2130	1905	4035
Indian	260	294	554
Total	**13503**	**14191**	**27694**

Note: Special students are students from foreign countries on a student exchange programme.

Source: Stellenbosch University, 2010

The total number of students at Stellenbosch University accumulated to 27 694 in 2010. In addition to this, Table 6.6 records the total number of Stellenbosch University students enrolled during 2010 according to their geographical origin.

Table 6.6

Stellenbosch University students by geographical origin, 2010

Geographical origin	Total	Percentage
RSA		
Western Cape	17715	64.0
Gauteng	2465	8.9
Eastern Cape	1604	5.8
KwaZulu-Natal	1236	4.5
Northern Cape	700	2.5
Mpumalanga	462	1.7
Free State	427	1.5
Limpopo	367	1.3
Northwest Province	189	0.7
Total RSA	**25165**	**90.9**
Other countries		
Namibia	826	3.0
Zimbabwe	140	0.5
Botswana	117	0.4
Lesotho	53	0.2
Swaziland	43	0.2
Elsewhere	1350	4.9
Total other countries	**2529**	**9.1**
Grand Total	**27694**	**100.0**

Source: Stellenbosch University, 2010

Table 6.6 depicts that the majority of Stellenbosch University students are located in the Western Cape followed by Gauteng and Eastern Cape respectively.

6.6.2 Sampling method

A non-probability sampling method was used in this study and convenience sampling was employed. “A sample is a subset, or some part, of a larger population” whereas a census is an investigation of all the individual elements that make up the population” (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:403). A census therefore collects information from all the individual elements in a population. Non-probability sampling “is a technique in which units of a sample are selected on the basis of personal judgement or convenience” while convenience sampling makes use of individuals “that are most conveniently available” (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:411).

The convenience sampling comprised of the selection of students at Stellenbosch University as sample elements. Access was granted to the Stellenbosch University’s database by the ethics committee. No sample was thus drawn. The entire student population of the University of Stellenbosch received an online self-administered

questionnaire. However, foreign students were excluded because they did not fall into the parameters of the population of this study.

The final questionnaire was sent by email to students followed by two emailed reminders. The first reminder was sent a week later while the second reminder was sent two weeks later providing students with a three week deadline to complete the questionnaire. The data was stored on Stellenbosch University's database and was retrieved at a later stage.

One problem with non-probability sampling is that the results of the research cannot be generalised to the general population (Barendregt, Van der Poel & Van de Mheen, 2005:125). The implication is that the results generated by this study cannot be generalised to the entire population of church members in South Africa. However, it will be possible to generalise the results according to individuals between the ages of 18 and 26 years attending Universities in South Africa.

The motivation for using students as the sample elements is that students are inclined to leave the university after graduation and thus their respective churches, which causes a lack of church commitment over the long-term. Therefore, it is necessary that churches establish effective ways to facilitate church commitment with their members. The reason being, that when students leave they might join the same denomination elsewhere. Students are also potential future middle to high-income earners and could represent a large proportion of churches donated income. Another motivation for selecting students was due to convenience purposes and the inability to obtain permission from churches to use their database for sampling purposes.

It was mentioned in Chapter 5 that there is an extensive number of existing denominational classifications. The large number of existing denominational classifications renders it virtually impossible to provide a detailed description of each of these church classifications. Because, students at Stellenbosch University were used as sample elements in this study, the church denominations on the University's database were used, and included in the final questionnaire (Appendix A).

For convenience purposes, church denominations with fewer than 1000 members were excluded from the survey. Compensation for this was made by providing an

additional open response category in the final questionnaire, in which respondents could indicate their church denominations. Another reason for not including all the denominations on the University's database was that it was obsolete. Therefore, it was necessary to add new church denominations — currently operating in Stellenbosch and elsewhere in South Africa — to the list based on the researcher's knowledge of the local church environment, namely Every Nation, Shofar and Stellenbosch Gemeente. The previous three churches were added since they comprise more than a 1000 members. Table 6.7 lists the church denominations named in the final questionnaire.

Table 6.7

Selected church denominations

	Church denomination
	Traditional
1.	Anglican Church
2.	Dutch Reformed Church
3.	Methodist Church
4.	Roman Catholic Church
5.	Stellenbosch Gemeente
	Non-traditional
6.	Every Nation
7.	Shofar

Table 6.7 represents the biggest churches (in terms of number of members) who students attend according to Stellenbosch University's database and the researcher's knowledge of the local church environment.

For the purposes of this study churches were classified in two categories, namely TCs and NTCs. These two terms were identified through a literature search (Dart, 2006:22; Morris, 1983:103). The samples of this study consist of individuals who are currently members of either a TC or a NTC or were previously members of a TC or NTC. These individuals include males and females between the ages of 18 and 26 years. All races and cultures represented in the student population (excluding foreign students) are included in this study. The emphasis in this study is on South African churches and citizens.

6.7 Final data analysis

The statistical programs used for data analysis were CheckboxSurvey 4.7 and SPSS, which were specifically used to determine descriptive and inferential statistics as well as the reliability and the validity of the measurement instrument. The results of the statistical analysis are indicated in Chapter 7.

6.7.1 Statistical analysis

This section discusses the reliability and coefficient alpha, as well as the validity pertaining to this study.

6.7.1.1 Reliability

Reliability is a measure of the internal consistency of a measurement instrument (Churchill, 1979:68). In this study the reliability of the measurement instrument was assessed using coefficient alpha (Cronbach alpha). Coefficient alpha is a measure of internal consistency, which indicates that the "percentage of variance in observed scores is explained by the variance in true scores" (Theron, 2008:163; Cortina, 1993:98). It is generally recognised that the cut-off point of coefficient alpha is 0.70, but coefficient alpha alone is not enough to determine the accuracy of a measurement instrument (Schmitt, 1996:351). For the research purpose of this study a coefficient alpha of 0.60 was accepted with the implication that an error in the data of more than 40 percent led to a questionnaire item not being used. Moreover, in addition to reliability the validity of a measurement instrument must be established (Schmitt, 1996:351).

6.7.1.2 Validity

Validity is the degree to which a measure adequately measures what it is supposed to measure (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:323). Validity was established according to three types: face validity, criterion validity and discriminant validity. Face validity is established when a measurement instrument's items seems to look like it measures what it is supposed to measure (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:323). Accordingly, face validity is established on the grounds of observation and not empirical testing.

Therefore, face validity on its own is not sufficient for establishing validity of a measurement instrument (Gaber & Gaber, 2010:139). In this study face validity was established by consulting various academics and developing questionnaire items appearing to measure what they are supposed to measure.

Criterion validity is "the ability of a measure to correlate with other standard measures of similar constructs" (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:323). Criterion validity is divided into concurrent and predictive validity (Parrot, 1991:94). Concurrent validity is assessed "when criterion and test are measured at the same time", while predictive validity is assessed when the criterion data is collected at a future stage (Parrot, 1991:94). According to Theron (2008:165) criterion validity can be confirmed if the hypothesised relationships in a proposed model can be established.

Discriminant validity refers to "how unique or distinct" a measure is (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:323), which implies that "scales that correlate to highly may be measuring the same rather than different constructs" (Churchill, 1979:70). Discriminant validity was established in this study by conducting an exploratory factor analysis (Boshoff, 1999:241). The factor analysis assesses the correlation between constructs and establishes whether each construct item measure what it is supposed to measure (Churchill, 1979:70).

6.7.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics describe the characteristics of the distribution of data (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:710). The data analyses included three types of descriptive statistics, as listed in the Table 6.8.

Table 6.8

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics	**Measures of descriptive statistics**		
Location	Mean	Median	Mode
Spread	Variance	Standard deviation	Not applicable
Shape	Skewness	Kurtosis	Not applicable

Source: Cooper and Schindler, 2008:707

Other descriptive statistics which are portrayed are stem-and-leaf plots and histograms (Appendix B). Table 6.9 describes the definition of each of the mentioned descriptive statistics that will be used in the data analysis.

Table 6.9

Definitions of descriptive statistics

Location	
Mean	Average or central location of metric data.
Median	Half of the observations fall above or below this value.
Mode	The value that occurs the most frequently.
Spread	
Variance and Standard deviation	Describes how scores clusters or scatters in a distribution.
Shape	
Skewness	Is a measure of a distribution's deviation from symmetry.
Kurtosis	Kurtosis is a measure of a distribution's peakedness (or flatness).

Source: Cooper & Schindler, 2008:707

The results of the descriptive statistics are indicated in Chapter 7 and in Appendix B in the form of stem-and-leaf plots, histograms and tables.

6.7.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics are used "to make inferences from data to more general conditions" (Inferential Statistics, 2006). Inferential statistics are thus used to draw conclusions about the sample or population being studied (Inferential Statistics, 2006). For the purposes of hypothesis testing, parametric tests are used. Parametric tests are tests that derive their data "from interval and ratio measurements" (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:753). This implies that the data must be interval- or ratio-scaled for the tests to be conducted.

A linear regression was used to evaluate the proposed hypotheses. This test determines the strength of the relationship between church commitment and the antecedents of church commitment. Two tailed hypothesis tests were made use of for the purposes of analysing the data. The regression analysis was used to determine whether the independent variables which were selected were the best predictors or building blocks in managing commitment in churches. In linear regression R^2 falls between the values 0 and 1, and if the beta (β) coefficient has a positive value, there is a positive relationship between the independent and dependent variables. R^2 explains the amount of variance that is captured by the data. The closer R^2 is to 1, the more the independent variables explain the changes or variance in the dependent variables (Multiple regression, 2008; Linear Regression, 1999).

Furthermore, an independent t-test was conducted to determine whether there is a difference between TC and NTCs. An independent sample t-test is used to test the difference between the means of two different groups (Boshoff, 2009).

The statistical significance of the data was tested at $p \leq 0,05$ for the regression analysis. This implies that the data was measured at a 95% level of confidence. When the significance level is equal to or below the p-value, there is a strong statistical significance, which implies that there is an association or relationship between the independent and dependent variable (Boshoff, 2009).

6.7.4 Non-response error

Non-response error occurs when sample elements do not respond, or decline to take part in a study (Singer, 2006:637). Wagner and Kemmerling (2010:359) indicated that the "higher the response rate, the lower the non-response rate and the less concern there is for non-response bias". Therefore, the higher the number of selected sample elements who completed a study, the lower the non-response error will be. Non-response error can be verified by comparing respondents who replied to a survey before a reminder was sent out, to respondents who replied to a survey after a reminder was sent out (Wagner & Kemmerling 2010:359; Armstong & Overton, 1977:397). This is done to ensure that both groups of respondents are similar. Subsequently non-response error was measured by comparing the first 25% of respondents with the last 25% of respondents by conducting a t-test (Mills, 2010:108).

6.8 Conclusion

Chapter 6 described the methodology of this study. The research design, measurement instrument, sampling process and data analysis were covered, the latter being a description of the reliability and validity analysis as well as descriptive and inferential statistics. The final measurement instrument was developed through the implementation of a pilot study. The pilot study indicated that three dimensions (seeker-sensitiveness, secularisation and friendships) had to be removed due to insufficient reliability.

In addition, the results of the pilot study pointed out that three new dimensions were created and renamed as ‘positiveness’, ‘shared beliefs’ and ‘helpfulness’. The pilot study ensured that the measurement instrument items had sufficient reliability and validity.

Chapter 7 delineates the results generated from the statistical tests portrayed in this chapter. The realised sample of this study is depicted, with the corresponding data analyses results generated from the techniques discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 7
EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 described the methodology pertaining to this study. The purpose of this chapter is to report the empirical results generated from the statistical methods and tests mentioned in the preceding chapter. The results of the assessed hypotheses are depicted and the relationship that commitment has with each antecedent of church commitment is defined. Furthermore, this chapter includes sections on the initial scale purification, realised sample, descriptive statistics, final scale purification, final hypotheses to be assessed, inferential statistics and hypotheses test results.

7.2 Initial scale purification

The pilot study was conducted to ensure that the reliability and validity of the measurement instrument was sufficient. Consequently, the pilot study indicated that not all the constructs had sufficient reliability and validity. Table 7.1 lists the coefficient alpha's of each construct after the first reliability analysis.

Table 7.1

Initial pre-test reliability statistics

Construct	Coefficient alpha
Church commitment	0.598
Trust	0.752
Communication	0.715
Relationship benefits	0.633
Customisation	0.682
Compassion	0.652
Beliefs	0.773
Secularisation	0.498
Seeker-sensitiveness	0.374
Small-groups	0.695
Follow-up	0.623
Friendship	0.554

By applying the specified cut-off value of 0.6 for coefficient alpha; four constructs, namely commitment, secularisation, seeker sensitiveness, and friendships did not have sufficient reliability. However, after removing COMT4 the commitment construct

yielded sufficient reliability. The secularisation, seeker sensitive and the friendships constructs were consequently removed from the final questionnaire due to insufficient reliability. The constructs with sufficient reliability are listed in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2

Pre-test reliability statistics before validity analysis

Constructs	Coefficient alpha
Church commitment	0.655
Trust	0.752
Communication	0.715
Relationship benefits	0.633
Customisation	0.682
Compassion	0.652
Beliefs	0.773
Small-groups	0.695
Follow-up	0.623

The validity analysis indicated that three new dimensions were created and various questionnaire items were removed due to a lack of validity, as mentioned in Section 6.5.2. Table 7.3 portrays the remaining constructs used for the final research purposes for this study, with their corresponding reliability statistics.

Table 7.3

Pre-test reliability statistics after validity analysis

Constructs	Coefficient alpha
Church commitment	0.655
Trust	0.715
Communication	0.636
Relationship benefits	0.752
Positiveness	0.602
Shared beliefs	0.763
Helpfulness	0.683
Small-groups	0.613
Follow-up	0.679

The constructs indicated in Table 7.3 were included in the final measurement instrument.

7.3 Realised sample

The entire student population — according to the end 2010 statistics — (27 694) of Stellenbosch University was approached (by email) to take part in an online self-administered questionnaire. A total of 1658 students responded, providing a response rate of 5.99 %. Only 1052 of the returned questionnaires could be used for final data analysis. The reasons for the removal of these questionnaires are listed in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4

Completed questionnaires removed prior to data analysis

Reason for removal	Questionnaires	Percentage
Non-South African citizens	177	29.21
Respondents 27 years and older	195	32.19
Incomplete questionnaires	169	27.89
Non-Christian	48	7.92
Do not attend church	17	2.81
Total	**606**	**100**

The removals were completed because the questionnaires did not conform to the parameters of the population of this study (section 6.6.1). Incomplete questionnaires were those containing more than three missing values in the statement ratings, and had missing demographic, church denomination, and church attendance information. In addition, mean replacement was used in the case of missing values in the statement ratings.

Concerning denominations, this study only distinguishes between TCs and NTCs. TCs were classified according to the absence of recognition of the main signs of charismatic believers, that is the manifestation of the Holy Spirit specifically speaking in tongues (Hendrix, 1977:159). Church denominations were classified as non-traditional on the grounds of the afore mentioned attribute being present. Table 7.5 specifies the TCs and NTCs indicated by the respondents and the number of respondents mentioning each.

Table 7.5

Traditional and non-traditional churches indicated by respondents

Non-traditional churches	Number of responses	Traditional churches	Number of responses
Assemblies of God	7	APK	2
Burning Bush Church	1	AGS	2
Christ Embassy	2	Anglican Church	33
Christian Church	1	Apostolic Church	21
Christian Science Church	1	Baptist Church	11
Church Ablaze Missionaries	1	Church of England in South Africa	10
Church of Christ	3	Church of the Nazarene	1
Church of the Nations	1	Congregational church	5
Coastal Assemblies	1	DFS	1
CRC	2	Dutch Reformed Church	369
Destiny Church	4	Evangelical Christian Fellowship	1
Evangelical Church	1	Full Gospel Church	2
Every Nation	100	Greek Orthodox	2
Grace Ministries	4	Hebrew Christian Community	1
Grace Life Ministries	1	Latter Rain Mission Church	1
Hillsong	16	Light and Life Cell Church	1
His People	5	Lutheran Church	2
Home Church	1	Messianic Jewish Church	1
New Frontiers	1	Methodist Church	25
New Generation	4	Presbyterian Church	5
Pentecostal	4	Protestant Church	1
Pinkster Church	2	Reformed Church	27
Revival Hour Ministries	1	Roman Catholic Church	47
Rhema Cape Town North	1	Seventh Day Adventists	11
Shekiniah Healing Ministry	1	Stellenbosch Gemeente	47
Shofar	164	TBT Student Church	3
The Bay Christian family church	3	The Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter Day Saints	1
Universal Church of the Kingdom of God	1		
The Peoples Church Constantia	1		
Vineyard Church	1		
Total	**336**	**Total**	**633**

Table 7.5 accounts for 969 (92%) of the final 1052 (100%) respondents. 83 respondents (8%) who indicated that they do not attend one specific church could not be assigned to belonging to a NTC or TC. Furthermore, the seven churches with the most respondents correspond with six of the seven churches provided in Table 6.7 with the exception of the Reformed Church, generating two more (27) responses than the Methodist Church (25). Consequently, the decision to include the seven specified churches in Table 6.7 was justified.

7.3.1 Non-response error

No significant statistical difference was found between the first 25% of respondents and the last 25% of respondents' responses. The response rate of 5.99% is therefore warranted due to a lack of non-response error. Consequently the response rate of

5.99% was deemed to be sufficient, considering that adequate recommendations could be made (Mills, 2010:108). The paired sample t-test results for measuring non-response error are provided in Appendix C.

7.4 Descriptive statistics results

This section presents and discusses the descriptive statistics of church commitment and the antecedents of church commitment as named in Tables 6.8 and Table 6.9. Table 7.6 provides the average descriptive statistics of church commitment and the antecedents of church commitment.

Table 7.6

Average descriptive statistics

Descriptive Statistics								
	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
AVE = average					Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
COMT AVE	1052	4.9990	2.00305	4.012	-.915	.075	-.401	.151
TRUST AVE	1052	5.4590	1.94919	3.799	-1.456	.075	1.016	.151
COMM AVE	1052	5.4960	1.83372	3.363	-1.522	.075	1.348	.151
RLB AVE	1052	5.4337	2.08438	4.345	-1.437	.075	.794	.151
POS AVE	1052	5.3784	1.71945	2.957	-1.260	.075	.890	.151
SBL AVE	1052	5.4770	1.84806	3.415	-1.464	.075	1.182	.151
HPS AVE	1052	5.1312	1.96592	3.865	-1.082	.075	.018	.151
SMG AVE	1052	4.5427	2.26234	5.118	-.591	.075	-1.030	.151
FL AVE	1052	4.6839	2.17157	4.716	-.766	.075	-.642	.151

Table 7.6 lists the average minimum and maximum values that respondents indicated on the questionnaire pertaining to church commitment and its antecedents (trust, communication, relationship benefits, positiveness, shared beliefs, helpfulness, small-groups and follow-up). Table 7.6 also includes an average mean and standard deviation for each of the previously mentioned antecedents. The descriptive statistics stipulate that the majority of the data is slightly skewed to the right, which implies that the data is not normally distributed. This is portrayed by the skewness of the majority of the data (less than -1) which implies that the data are “not distributed symmetrically” (Data distributions, 2009; Cooper & Schindler, 2008:707). A normal distribution entails that “data are symmetrically distributed to either side of a central value” (Data distributions, 2009; Cooper & Schindler, 2008:707).

Furthermore, the mean scores provide an indication that respondents tended to agree with the statements in the questionnaire. Due to the extensiveness of the data it was not possible to include all the descriptive statistics. Therefore, further descriptive statistics are included in Appendix B.

7.5 Final scale purification

This section describes the processes undertaken to purify the measurement instrument. This implies that the questionnaire items that were unreliable and invalid were removed from the final data analysis and excluded from the final recommendations.

7.5.1 Reliability analysis

As mentioned in Chapter 6, reliability is a measure of the internal consistency of a measurement instrument (Churchill, 1979:68). The cut-off point of coefficient alpha is generally recognised as 0.70 (Schmitt, 1996:351). In this study the cut-off point was lowered to 0.6, with the implication that questionnaire items were deleted if they yielded a coefficient alpha below 0.6. Table 7.7 provides the coefficients alpha for each of the constructs being measured. However, above cut-off value, reliability coefficients do not imply that all the questionnaire items measured in each construct qualify for inclusion in the final data analysis. Only following a validity analysis can items to be included in the final data analysis be ascertained.

Table 7.7

Reliability statistics before validity analysis

Construct	Coefficient alpha
Church commitment	0.855
Trust	0.856
Communication	0.833
Relationship benefits	0.847
Positiveness	0.692
Shared beliefs	0.845
Helpfulness	0.805
Small-groups	0.818
Follow-up	0.817

The reliability analysis indicated that all the measured constructs, except for positiveness, yielded a coefficient alpha above the general recognised level of 0.7. Therefore, it was not necessary to remove any of the questionnaire items before performing the validity analysis.

7.5.2 Validity analysis

Validity is the degree to which a measure, adequately measures what it is supposed to measure (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:323). A factor analysis was used to determine whether the questionnaire items had adequate discriminant validity (Churchill, 1979:70). For the purposes of the factor analysis the extraction and rotation methods used was principle component and direct oblimin rotation respectively. The reason for this being that the descriptive statistics indicated that the majority of the data is not normally distributed and there are correlations between factors (Boshoff, 2009).

A first factor analysis yielded a three-factor structure with eigenvalues of at least one, which is a prerequisite for items to be established as valid (Boshoff, 1999:241). However, this factor structure was not interpretable. After removing POS1 due to being invalid, a second factor analysis was conducted. The second factor analysis yielded an interpretable three factor structure.

The original measurement instrument contained 27 questionnaire items. For the purposes of the data analysis 26 items were used which included one new construct. Table 7.8 indicates the final interpretable factor structure.

Table 7.8

Factor analysis

Pattern Matrix			
	Component		
	1	2	3
TRUST3	**.897**	-.005	-.097
TRUST2	**.881**	-.027	-.136
SBL1	**.873**	.058	-.098
SBL3	**.850**	.041	-.132
TRUST1	**.805**	-.008	.003
COMM3	**.790**	-.016	.072
COMM2	**.781**	-.048	.060
HPS3	**.758**	.046	.049
RLB2	**.750**	.163	.014
SBL2	**.695**	.066	.090
RLB1	**.692**	.191	.009
POS2	**.686**	-.134	.129
COMM1	**.673**	-.047	.181
HSP2	**.594**	-.044	.306
HPS1	**.533**	.205	.173
POS3	**.482**	.070	.272
SMG1	.054	**.840**	.005
SMG2	.056	**.834**	-.067
SMG3	-.045	**.794**	.172
FL2	.022	.044	**.850**
FL1	.053	.021	**.804**
FL3	.110	.150	**.658**

The numerical values in bold are those items which loaded significantly above the 0.4 cut off level and those that yielded eigenvalues of at least one (Boshoff, 1999:241). The reliability statistics after the validity analysis yielded: church commitment (0.855); reliability (0.958); small-groups (0.818); and follow-up (0.817). Table 7.9 provides the remaining items in the measurement instrument used in the final data analysis and indicates that there are four constructs remaining for the purposes of data analysis, which includes the new construct reliability.

Table 7.9

Remaining questionnaire items

Construct	Code	Item
Church commitment	COMT1	I am very committed to my church.
	COMT2	I have a strong feeling of loyalty towards my church.
	COMT3	I wish to remain in a relationship with my church.
	COMT4	I expect to continue to be involved with my church's activities.
Reliability	REL1	I have great confidence in my church.
	REL2	My church is honest.
	REL3	My church is truthful.
	REL4	My church provides timely information.
	REL5	My church communicates relevant information.
	REL6	My church provides accurate information.
	REL7	I benefit from my relationship with my church.
	REL8	My relationship with my church enriches my life.
	REL9	My church in general is regarded as friendly.
	REL10	My church provides me an opportunity to take part in programmes that will have a good long-term impact on society.
	REL11	My church has values similar to mine.
	REL12	My church provides me with a sense of warmth.
	REL13	My church has similar principles to mine.
	REL14	My relationship with my church helps me to utilise opportunities in everyday life.
	REL15	My church provides frequent communication about issues that are important to us.
	REL16	My church provides solutions to meet my religious needs.
Small-groups	SMG1	I like being part of/would like to be part of a small-group (e.g. cell group) in my church.
	SMG2	Being a member of a small-group (e.g. cell group) in my church enhanced/would enhance my commitment towards my church.
	SMG3	Small-group activities enhance my satisfaction towards my church.
Follow-up	FL1	My church has an effective system of follow-up for new members.
	FL2	My church has an effective system of caring for new members.
	FL3	In my church existing members support new members.

The following section provides the final hypotheses to be assessed in correspondence with the changes brought about after the conclusion of the reliability and validity analyses.

7.6 Final hypotheses to be assessed

The validity analysis confirmed that there was one questionnaire item that did not have sufficient validity and was subsequently removed from the final data analysis. The number of constructs was reduced to four, including church commitment (the

dependent variable). The reduction in the number of constructs was caused by 16 questionnaire items originally divided within different constructs, loading on one factor in the factor analysis. Therefore, one new construct was created. This construct was labelled reliability. This reduction in constructs and items necessitated the removal of their five associated hypotheses (see Table 6.4) to leave the seven set out in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10

Final hypotheses assessed

Hypotheses	Proposed relationship
Hypothesis with broad appeal	
H_1	There is a positive relationship between reliability and church commitment.
Hypotheses specifically relevant for churches	
H_2	There is a positive relationship between small-groups and church commitment.
H_3	There is a positive relationship between follow-up and church commitment.
Hypotheses for determining difference between traditional and non-traditional churches	
H_4	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and church commitment.
H_5	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and small-groups
H_6	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and church follow-up.
H_7	There is a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional churches and reliability.

Only one hypothesis with broad appeal and two hypotheses concerning antecedents specifically relevant for churches remain to be assessed. The four hypotheses pertaining to the differences between TCs and NTCs, remain intact.

7.7 Inferential statistics results

This section illustrates the results of the regression analysis and independent sample t-test used to draw conclusions about the stated hypotheses for this study.

7.7.1 Final regression analysis

A regression analysis determines whether the independent variables selected are the best predictors or building blocks in managing the dependent variable (church commitment). Tables 7.11 and 7.12 indicate the results of the linear regression analysis.

Table 7.11

R-square

Model Summary								
			Std. error		Change statistics			
R	R^2	Adjusted R square	of the estimate	R square change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change
.857	.735	.734	1.03335	.735	967.022	3	1048	.000

R^2 in Table 7.11 is equal to 0.735 which is sufficient for the purposes of this study. The closer R^2 is to 1, the more the independent variables explain the changes or variance in the dependent variables (Multiple regression, 2008; Linear Regression, 1999). A R^2 of 0.735 indicates that the independent variables explain 73.5% of the variance in the dependent variable.

Table 7.12 summarises the coefficient statistics at a 95% confidence interval, which includes the beta (β) value, t-value and significance level.

Table 7.12

Summary of coefficient statistics at 95% confidence interval

Coefficients							
	Standardised coefficients			95.0% confidence interval for B		Collinearity statistics	
	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower bound	Upper bound	Tolerance	VIF
Reliability	.752	32.847	.000	.831	.936	.484	2.067
Small-groups	.160	8.147	.000	.107	.176	.658	1.520
Follow-up	.007	.342	.733	-.032	.046	.541	1.849

Table 7.12 indicates that all the (β) and t-values are > 0. Reliability and small-groups have a significance of 0.000, while follow-up's significance is indicated as 0.733. The VIF values fall below the cut-off point of 10 and this corresponds with the recorded tolerance values above the cut-off level of 0.10 (Boshoff, 2009; Theron, 2008:181), "which implies that there are no excessive levels of correlation between the independent variables" (Theron, 2008:181).

7.7.2 Independent sample t-test

Chapter 6 indicated that an independent sample t-test is used to assess the difference between the means of two different groups (Boshoff, 2009). Table 7.13

provides the descriptive statistics of a t-test with commitment as the dependent variable and 'traditional' and 'non-traditional' as independent variables.

Table 7.13

t-test descriptive statistics with commitment as dependent variable

Group statistics					
Traditional (1) and non-traditional (2)		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error of mean
Church commitment	1	633	4.9584	1.94662	.07731
	2	336	5.6616	1.63412	.08928

Table 7.13 illustrates that the mean (5.6616) for NTCs is higher than the mean (4.9584) for TCs pertaining to church commitment.

Table 7.14 provides the independent sample t-test's statistics at a 95% confidence interval with commitment as dependent variable and 'traditional' and 'non-traditional' as independent variables.

Table 7.14

Independent sample t-test with commitment as dependent variable

Independent samples test										
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference Lower	Upper
Churh Commitment	Equal variances assumed	27.208	.000	-5.643	967	.000	-.70315	.12460	-.94767	-.45864
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.954	788.688	.000	-.70315	.11810	-.93498	-.47132

Table 7.14 depicts a significance level of 0.000, which suggests that there is a significant difference between TCs and NTCs concerning church commitment.

Table 7.15 offers the descriptive statistics of a t-test with small-groups as the dependent variable and traditional and non-traditional as independent variables.

Table 7.15

t-test descriptive statistics with small-groups as dependent variable

Group statistics					
Traditional (1) and non-traditional (2)		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Small-groups	1	633	4.2124	2.29077	.09098
	2	336	5.5158	1.88987	.10325

Table 7.15 specifies that the mean (5.5158) for NTCs is higher than the mean (4.2124) for TCs pertaining to small-groups.

Table 7.16 provides detail on the independent sample t-test's statistics at a 95% confidence interval with small-groups as dependent variable and traditional and non-traditional as independent variables.

Table 7.16

Independent sample t-test with small-groups as dependent variable

Independent samples test										
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference Lower	Upper
Small-groups	Equal variances assumed	57.794	.000	-8.931	967	.000	-1.30343	.14595	-1.58984	-1.01702
	Equal variances not assumed			-9.471	799.613	.000	-1.30343	.13762	-1.57356	-1.03329

Table 7.16 depicts a significance level of 0.000, which suggests that there is a significant difference between TCs and NTCs concerning small-groups.

Table 7.17 presents the descriptive statistics of a t-test with follow-up as the dependent variable and traditional and non-traditional as independent variables.

Table 7.17

t-test descriptive statistics with follow-up as dependent variable

Group statistics					
Traditional (1) and non-traditional (2)		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Follow- up	1	633	4.3363	2.23475	.08875
	2	336	5.7451	1.52266	.08319

Table 7.17 portrays that the mean (5.7451) for NTCs is higher than the mean (4.3363) for TCs pertaining to follow-up.

Table 7.18 depicts the independent sample t-test's statistics at a 95% confidence interval with follow-up as dependent variable and traditional and non-traditional as independent variables.

Table 7.18

Independent sample t-test with follow-up as dependent variable

Independent samples test										
									95% confidence interval of the difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	Lower	Upper
Follow-up	Equal variances assumed	121.918	.000	-10.338	967	.000	-1.40874	.13627	-1.67615	-1.14132
	Equal variances not assumed			-11.581	907.008	.000	-1.40874	.12165	-1.64748	-1.16999

Table 7.18 indicates a significance level of 0.000, which suggests that there is a significant difference between TCs and NTCs concerning follow-up.

Table 7.19 provides the descriptive statistics of a t-test with reliability as the dependent variable and traditional and non-traditional as independent variables.

Table 7.19

t-test descriptive statistics with reliability as dependent variable

Group statistics					
Traditional (1) and non-traditional (2)		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Reliability	1	633	5.3590	1.63809	.06506
	2	336	6.0579	1.28621	.07027

Table 7.19 specifies that the mean (6.0579) for NTCs is higher than the mean (5.3590) for TCs pertaining to reliability.

Table 7.20 delineates the independent sample t-test's statistics at a 95% confidence interval with reliability as dependent variable and traditional and non-traditional as independent variables.

Table 7.20

Independent sample t-test with reliability as dependent variable

Independent samples test										
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference Lower	Upper
Reliability	Equal variances assumed	32.831	.000	-6.782	967	.000	-.69896	.10306	-.90120	-.49672
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.299	830.111	.000	-.69896	.09576	-.88693	-.51099

Table 7.20 portrays a significance level of 0.000, which suggests that there is a significant difference between TCs and NTCs concerning reliability.

7.8 Hypotheses test results

This section describes and summarises the results of the hypothesis assessment yielded by the regression analysis and independent sample t-tests. Table 7.21 encapsulates the regression analysis statistics concerning the three independent variables (or antecedents).

Table 7.21

Statistical summary of the regression analysis

Antecedent	Beta (β)	t-value	Significance
Reliability	.752	32.847	.000
Small-groups	.160	8.147	.000
Follow-up	.007	0.342	.733

It is important to note that the higher the Beta (β) value, the greater the impact of the independent variable is on the dependent variable (Boshoff, 2009). A high (β) value usually also corresponds with a high t-value, as indicated in Figure 7.21

7.8.1 Regression

Reliability yielded a t-value of 32.847 and a positive (β) value of 0.752, which is indicative of a positive association between reliability and church commitment. Reliability produced a significance of 0.000; indicating that $p < 0.05$. Therefore, H_1 is not rejected and it can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between reliability and church commitment.

Small-groups yielded a t-value of 8.147 and a positive (β) value of 0.160, which is suggestive of a positive association between small-groups and church commitment. Small-groups documented a significance of 0.000; signifying that $p < 0.05$. Therefore, H_2 is not rejected and it can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between small-groups and church commitment.

Follow-up yielded a t-value of 0.342 and a positive (β) value of 0.007, which is indicative of a positive association between follow-up and church commitment. However, follow-up yielded a significance of 0.733; indicating that $p > 0.05$. Therefore, H_3 is not supported and it can be concluded that there is not a positive relationship between follow-up and church commitment. Consequently follow-up will not be included in the final recommendations.

7.8.2 Independent sample t-tests

The independent sample t-test with commitment (Table 7.13) as the dependent variable indicated that there is a difference of 0.703 between the mean score of TCs and NTCs, with NTCs obtaining the higher score. The significance of the two-tailed t-test (Table 7.14) yielded 0.000; indicating that $p < 0.05$. Therefore, H_4 is not rejected and it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between TCs and NTCs concerning church commitment.

The independent sample t-test with small-groups (Table 7.15) as the dependent variable pointed out that there is a difference of 1.303 between the mean score of TCs and NTCs, with NTCs achieving the higher score. The significance of the two-tailed t-test (Table 7.16) yielded 0.000; portraying that $p < 0.05$. Therefore, H_5 is not rejected and it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between TCs and NTCs concerning small-groups.

The independent sample t-test with follow-up (Table 7.17) as the dependent variable specified that there is a difference of 1.409 between the mean score of TCs and NTCs, with NTCs attaining the higher score. The significance of the two-tailed t-test (Table 7.18) yielded 0.000; depicting that $p < 0.05$. Therefore, H_6 is not rejected and it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between TCs and NTCs concerning follow-up.

The independent sample t-test with reliability (Table 7.19) as the dependent variable designated that there is a difference of 0.6989 between the mean score of TCs and NTCs, with NTCs holding the higher score. The significance of the two-tailed t-test (Table 7.20) yielded 0.000; specifying that $p < 0.05$. Therefore, H_7 is not rejected and it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between TCs and NTCs concerning reliability.

7.9 The significance of each of the antecedents of church commitment

Small-groups and reliability yielded the same level of significance. However, both of these antecedents (β) values are dissimilar. Reliability has the higher (β) value (0.752) followed by small-groups (0.160). This implies that reliability has the greatest influence on the dependent variable (church commitment) followed by small-groups. This corresponds with the t-values of reliability (32.847) and small-groups (8.147), which fall into the same order.

7.10 Conclusion

This chapter described the results generated from the statistical tests. After conducting a reliability and factor analysis only two original antecedents remained (small-groups, follow-up). In addition, one new antecedent was created, namely reliability. A linear regression analysis and independent sample t-tests were conducted to assess the final hypotheses. The linear regression analysis yielded positive relationships between small-groups and church commitment, and reliability and church commitment. The independent sample t-tests concluded that there are significant differences between TCs and NTCs concerning, church commitment, small-groups, follow-up, and reliability. The results generated in this chapter are captured in the final conclusion and recommendations.

Chapter 8 describes the conclusion and recommendations to this study and depicts the final conceptual model of church commitment. General recommendations are made concerning TCs and NTCs as well as recommendations pertaining to the differences between TCs and NTCs.

CHAPTER 8
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine how churches can manage commitment with their members. This was investigated by identifying the antecedents of church commitment through a literature study and by determining the significance of each. Eleven antecedents of church commitment were singled out and divided into two groups, namely those with broad appeal (customisation, experience, communication, trust and relationship benefits) and those specifically relevant to churches (follow-up, seeker sensitiveness, beliefs, secularisation, compassion, small-groups and friendships).

A pilot study established that three antecedents were insufficiently reliable, that is seeker sensitiveness, secularisation and friendships. Validity analysis led to the creation of three new antecedents, namely positiveness, shared beliefs and helpfulness. Final analysis indicated that all the remaining antecedents (trust, communication, relationship benefits, positiveness, shared beliefs, helpfulness small-groups and follow-up) had sufficient reliability. However, validity analysis reduced the number of antecedents to three. Only two of the original antecedents remained and one new one was established; they are small-groups, follow-up and reliability respectively. The reason for the reduction of the number of antecedents is not entirely clear. However, the newly established antecedent reliability comprised of several of the original antecedents (trust, communication, relationship benefits, positiveness, shared beliefs and helpfulness).

The objective of this chapter is to develop a framework for the management of church commitment in South African churches. Furthermore, managerial recommendations are made and the limitations of this study along with possible grounds for future research are mentioned.

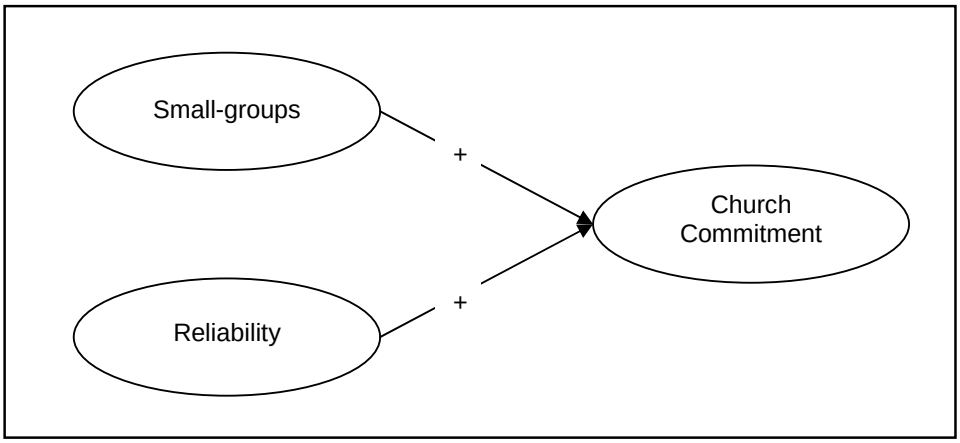
8.2 A framework for managing church commitment

Weideman and Terblanche (2007:59) suggested that employing relationship marketing strategies in South African churches may counteract the lack of church loyalty and commitment experienced. The purpose of this study was to determine how churches can manage commitment with their members. This was accomplished by developing a framework for managing church member commitment.

The three remaining antecedents of church commitment (follow-up, small-groups and reliability; indicated in section 8.1) were submitted to a linear regression analysis. The regression analysis yielded that follow-up does not have a positive relationship with church commitment and therefore the alternative hypothesis (H_3) was not supported. The opposite is true for small-groups and reliability. Therefore, the framework is based on these two remaining antecedents of church commitment which were shown to be sufficiently reliable and valid. The framework is depicted in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1

Suggested framework for the management of church commitment



Reliability was found to have the greatest influence on church commitment. The use of this framework is supported by the recommendations discussed in section 8.3.

8.3 Managerial recommendations

In this section the development of the framework for the management of commitment within churches is addressed on the grounds of the findings of this study. Associated managerial recommendations are also made.

8.3.1 General managerial recommendations

This section sets forth recommendations concerning each of the two antecedents illustrated in the managerial framework, namely small-groups and reliability.

8.3.1.1 Small-groups in the management of church commitment

A positive relationship exists between small-groups and church commitment. This study concluded that people like being part of or would like to be part of a small-group; being a member of their church's small-groups enhances or would enhance their commitment towards their church; and small-group activities enhances their satisfaction towards their church. For these reasons it is essential that churches develop small-group structures and promote small-group activities. This can be executed through effective leadership development, accountability and communication.

Church leaders need to identify individuals who attend church regularly or have been committed to the church for six months or longer. Leaders can be recognised in terms of regular church attendance and specifically the time these individuals spend volunteering at church activities and gatherings. Such individuals need to be trained and appointed as small-group leaders or facilitators if they are willing to take up such leadership roles. The reason for selecting individuals who have been attending church for six months or longer is that they are less likely to leave a church than someone who has only been attending church for a few weeks. The former church members may be older believers who are more mature, confident and exposed to their church's beliefs, values and vision. Furthermore, it is essential that leaders are continually identified and equipped in order to either take over from existing leaders leaving the church or to take ownership of their own small-groups due to church growth.

It is important that the appointed small-group leaders are kept accountable by church leadership to ensure that the small-group structure in the church remains effective. Accountability is necessary to ensure that small-group leaders continue to align their small-groups with the church's vision and values, and to preserve a biblical perspective. Accountability can be established through the church leadership arranging monthly meetings with small-group leaders. It is also recommended that larger churches appoint additional leaders to oversee small-group leaders to ensure that the latter operate effectively and have available leaders to consult when needed. The reason being, that when churches become too large it may become difficult for church leadership to coordinate regular meetings with small-group-leaders. It will be simpler and more effective if additional leaders are appointed over three to five small-group leaders, the small-group-leaders must be accountable to these appointed leaders. Church leaders can effectively communicate with the additional appointed leaders, and they with the small-group leaders.

Effective communication with church members concerning small-group activities is necessary for small-group structures to be successful. A church's leadership must inform church members during church services about small-group activities and schedules. The rationale for this is that visitors, who are potential new members, are made aware of the existence of small-groups in the church. Communication with church members can be accomplished through pre- and/or after-service announcements and information tables in church foyers.

8.3.1.2 Reliability in the management of church commitment

A positive relationship was shown to exist between reliability and church commitment. Reliability comprises a variety of attributes, which implies that reliability can be established through several methods. These methods are proposed here.

The survey established that people attend churches in which they have great confidence; which they trust; which are honest; and which provide accurate information. For this reason churches must be truthful in their communications; that is, in preaching the truth — not a watered down gospel — and providing accurate church announcements concerning church activities and involvement in social issues.

It was found that respondents attend churches that provide timely information, churches that communicate relevant information and churches that provide frequent communication about issues that are important to members. Hence churches must communicate regularly with their members, which also involve making announcements during church services, as well as developing a database of church members. Churches can email relevant information concerning church activities to church members on a weekly or monthly basis. Church leadership can ascertain what issues are important to church members by consulting with small-group leaders to verify with small-group members what issues are relevant to them.

It was also found that it is important to members that they benefit from their relationship with their church; that their relationship with their church enriches their lives; that their church provides opportunities to take part in programmes that will have beneficial long-term impacts on society; that their relationship with their church helps them to use opportunities in everyday life; and that their church provide solutions to meet their religious needs.

Because church members want to benefit from their relationship with their church there should be opportunities for church members to make an impact on society. This can be done by developing outreach programmes into the local community and/or abroad. Outreach programmes can include evangelism or getting involved in local community projects such as soup kitchens for the poor or youth development programmes.

Churches need to equip and encourage their members to take advantage of opportunities in everyday life and to meet their religious needs through leadership development and training. This can be accomplished through small-group leadership and developing structures for Bible teaching and biblical leadership as well as running a part time Bible school. Such a part time Bible college operating on a monthly or weekly basis could help improve church members' knowledge on the Bible and provide a solution to meeting church members' spiritual and religious needs.

The survey established members experience churches to be friendly; that their churches provide them with a sense of warmth; and that their churches also have

similar values and principles as themselves. It follows that individuals tend to attend churches having similar values and principles to theirs. It is strongly recommended that churches do not adapt their values and principles to acquire church members, unless of course if those values are not in line with biblical principles, by which churches should operate. If a church adapts its values merely to gain the approval of their existing members and attract new one‘s they have become people pleasers and moved away from biblical principles. A practical illustration of this could be, if a church’s members do not like a concept such as baptism and church leadership refrain from encouraging individuals to be baptised or exclude it from their churches values — because of their church member preferences — they are moving away from biblical statutes.

Churches need to ensure that they provide a friendly and warm environment when conducting church services. A friendly a warm environment can be defined as a loving environment or a setting in which people experience love. Encouraging existing church members to greet visitors and to approach and speak to individuals sitting or standing alone at church can accomplish this. It is recommended that churches develop a culture where visitors are welcomed and treated the same way existing members are treated.

Small-groups can be used to communicate a friendly and warm church culture to members. Church leaders need to communicate their church’s strategy concerning this, to their small-group leaders and who in turn can communicate it to their small-group members. Small-group members should also be encouraged to invite visitors or new members to their small-groups meetings.

8.3.2 Managerial recommendations concerning differences between traditional and non-traditional churches

This section makes managerial recommendations suited to the differences between TCs and NTCs. It is found that there are significant differences in the roles small-groups and reliability play regarding church commitment in TCs and NTCs.

8.3.2.1 Recommendations concerning church commitment

The survey findings imply that individuals attending NTCs are more committed to their churches than those attending TCs. The difference in the level of church commitment in TCs and NTCs can be interpreted in the light of differences in the roles played by small-groups and reliability in the two church categories. The message of the findings is that TCs need to concentrate on increasing the commitment of their members by improving their small-group structures and reliability.

8.3.2.2 Recommendations concerning small-groups

The analyses showed that TC members are less inclined to be part of small-groups than NTC members; that TC members are also less disposed to becoming more committed to their church through attending small-groups than NTC members and TC members satisfaction is increased less through small-groups than NTC members. It is not clear why small-groups have a lesser effect on church commitment in TCs than NTCs. There is a possible underlying cause. Given that TC and NTC members indicated a desire to be part of small-groups and that members of both categories coincide small-groups as enhancers of their commitment and satisfaction, one can conclude that the small-group structures in TCs may be less effective than those of NTCs. Hence, the small-group structures of TCs needs to be improved.

It is recommended that leaders of TCs communicate with their small-group leaders to determine why small-groups are less effective in promoting commitment than they ought to be. TCs need to earnestly heed the recommendations made in Section 8.3.1.1 to improve their small-group structures.

8.3.2.3 Recommendations concerning reliability

TC members perceive their churches to be less reliable than NTC members. Consequently, TC members are less confident and less trusting; they believe that their churches are less honest; and that their churches provide less accurate information than NTCs do. So, it is suggested that TCs apply the recommendations made in Section 8.3.1.2 as meticulously as possible.

It was found that members of TCs (compared to those of NTCs) perceive that they benefit less from their relationship with their church; that their relationship with their church enriches their lives less; that their churches provide less opportunities to take part in programmes that will have beneficial long-term impacts on society; that their relationship with their churches helps them less to use opportunities in everyday life; and that their churches provide less solutions to meeting their religious needs. TCs are thus encouraged to implement the recommendations made in Section 8.3.1.2 with added measure.

Finally, it emerged that TC members perceive their churches to be less friendly; provide a reduced sense of warmth; and not have as similar values and principles with their churches as NTC members do with their churches. Again, TCs are encouraged to implement the recommendations made in Section 8.3.1.2 more thoroughly than their NTC counterparts. It remains important to emphasise that a church should not align its values and principles with those of its members, unless of course the church's values are not in line with biblical values and principles. In addition, TCs should determine the reasons for the above mentioned differences by communicating with church members individually through their small group structures to determine the possible solutions.

8.4 Results and recommendations in correspondence with literature

The literature indicated that there is a growing trend amongst church members moving away from TCs towards NTCs (South African Christian handbook, 2007-2008:93). This corresponds with the results that were generated. The results established that there was a clear indication of a significant difference between TCs and NTCs pertaining to church member commitment. With NTC members being more committed to their churches than TC members. In addition, the results and recommendations provided the probable causes for the shift away from TCs towards NTCs. The results and recommendations of this study therefore confirm the literature.

8.5 Limitations and future research

This study investigated the antecedents of church commitment from the point of view of relationship marketing. However, this precludes the spiritual connotation churches

have, that influences members' church commitment. Gaining a better understanding of the antecedents of church commitment was limited in this study as it was not able to examine the implications of this connotation.

Possible future research could be conducted to determine why there is a positive relationship between small-groups and church commitment. It can be speculated that small-groups provide more individual attention and that friendships are formed in small-groups.

8.6 Conclusion

This chapter developed a framework by which churches can manage church commitment with their members. This framework included two variables namely small-groups and reliability. General managerial recommendations were made for traditional and non-traditional churches. Additional managerial recommendations were added to compensate for the recorded difference between traditional and non-traditional churches. Furthermore, the results and recommendations confirmed the literature and provided reasons for the shift from traditional churches towards non-traditional churches. The limitations of this study and potential grounds for future research was also provided.

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APPENDIX A:

FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
Department of Business Management

UNIVERSITEIT STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

1. I am a South African citizen

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

2. Gender

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

3. Age

- ○ 18-26 years
- ○ 27 years +

4. The following church/religious institution best represents my religion

- ○ Anglican Church (*Anglikaanse kerk*)
- ○ Dutch Reformed Church (*NG Kerk*)
- ○ Every Nation
- ○ Methodist Church (*Metodiste Kerk*)
- ○ Roman Catholic Church (*Rooms Katolieke Kerk*)
- ○ Shofar
- ○ Stellenbosch Gemeente
- ○ I do not attend one specific church
  Other (please specify): _____

5. I have attended a church/religious meeting in the past 3 months:

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

6. How many times per month do you normally attend church/religious meetings?

- ○ About 3 to 4 times a month.
- ○ About 1 to 2 times a month
- ○ Less than once a month
- ○ I am not sure how many times

The following statements request your opinion in respect of your relationship with your church. Indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by awarding a value to each statement. By crossing a value of 7 means that you strongly agree and a value of 1 means that you strongly disagree. If you neither agree nor disagree, make a cross in block 4. There are no wrong or right answers. Please respond to all the statements.

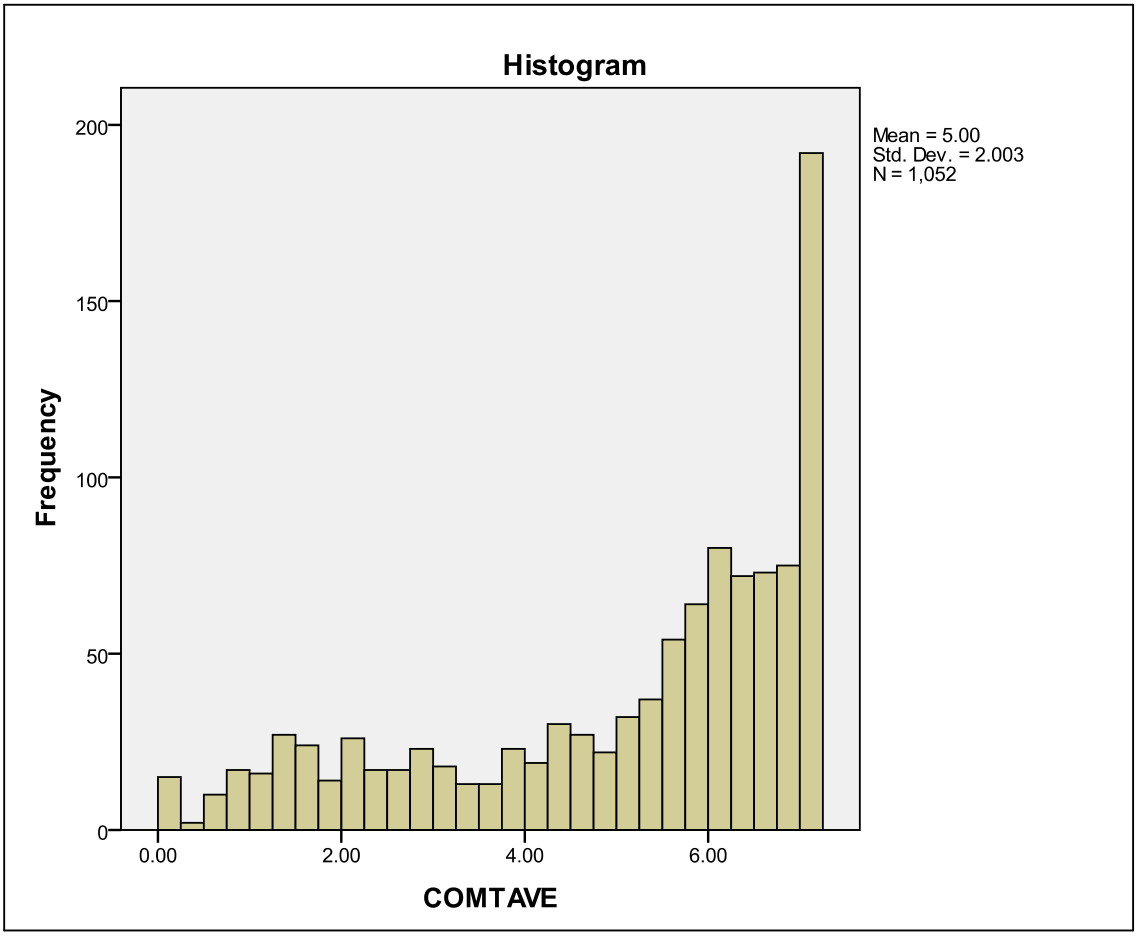
	Strongly disagree			Neutral			Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am very committed to my church.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church is honest.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church has similar principles to mine.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Being a member of a small-group (e.g. cell group) in my church enhanced/would enhance my commitment towards my church.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church is flexible enough to accommodate unforeseen problems I may experience.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have great confidence in my church.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church communicates relevant information.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I wish to remain in a relationship with my church.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I benefit from my relationship with my church.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church provides solutions to meet my religious needs.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church is truthful.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church has an effective system of follow-up for new members.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church provides me an opportunity to take part in programmes that will have a good long-term impact on society.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church provides accurate information.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My relationship with my church helps me to utilise opportunities in everyday life.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a strong feeling of loyalty towards my church.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Small-group activities enhance my satisfaction towards my church.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church has an effective system of caring for new members.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church provides frequent communication about issues that are important to us.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I expect to continue to be involved with my church's activities.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church in general is regarded as friendly.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church provides timely information.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like being part of/would like to be part of a small-group (e.g. cell group) in my church.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my church existing members support new members.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church provides me with a sense of warmth.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My relationship with my church enriches my life.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My church has values similar to mine.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

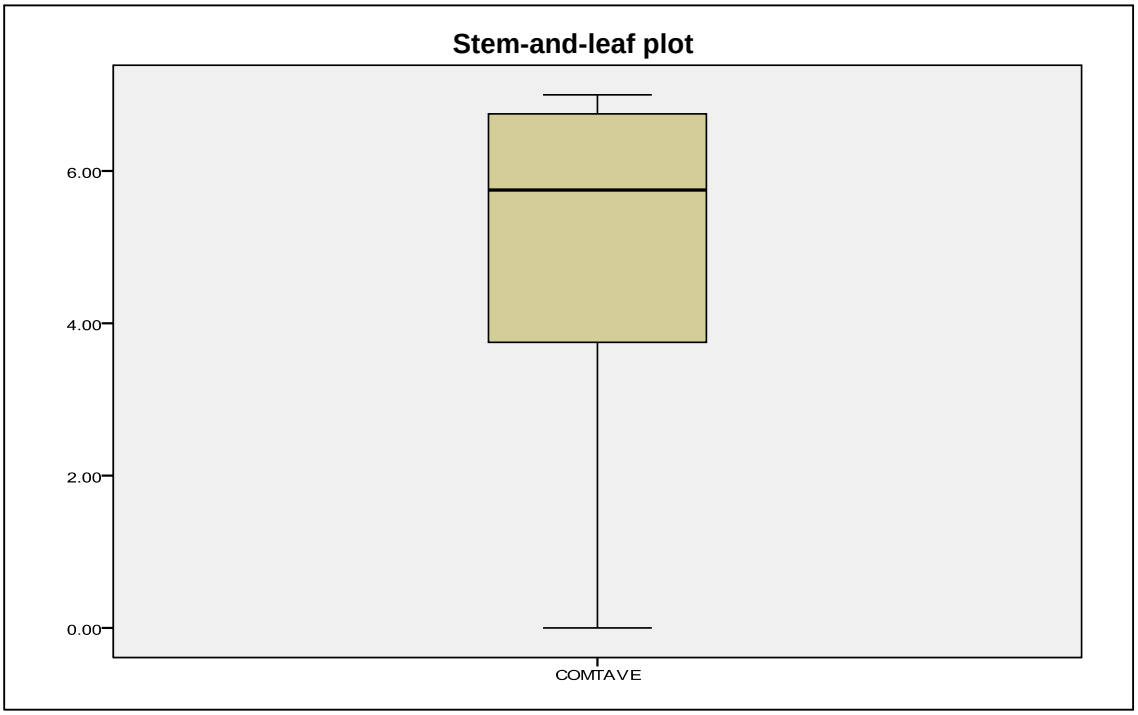
Finish

APPENDIX B:

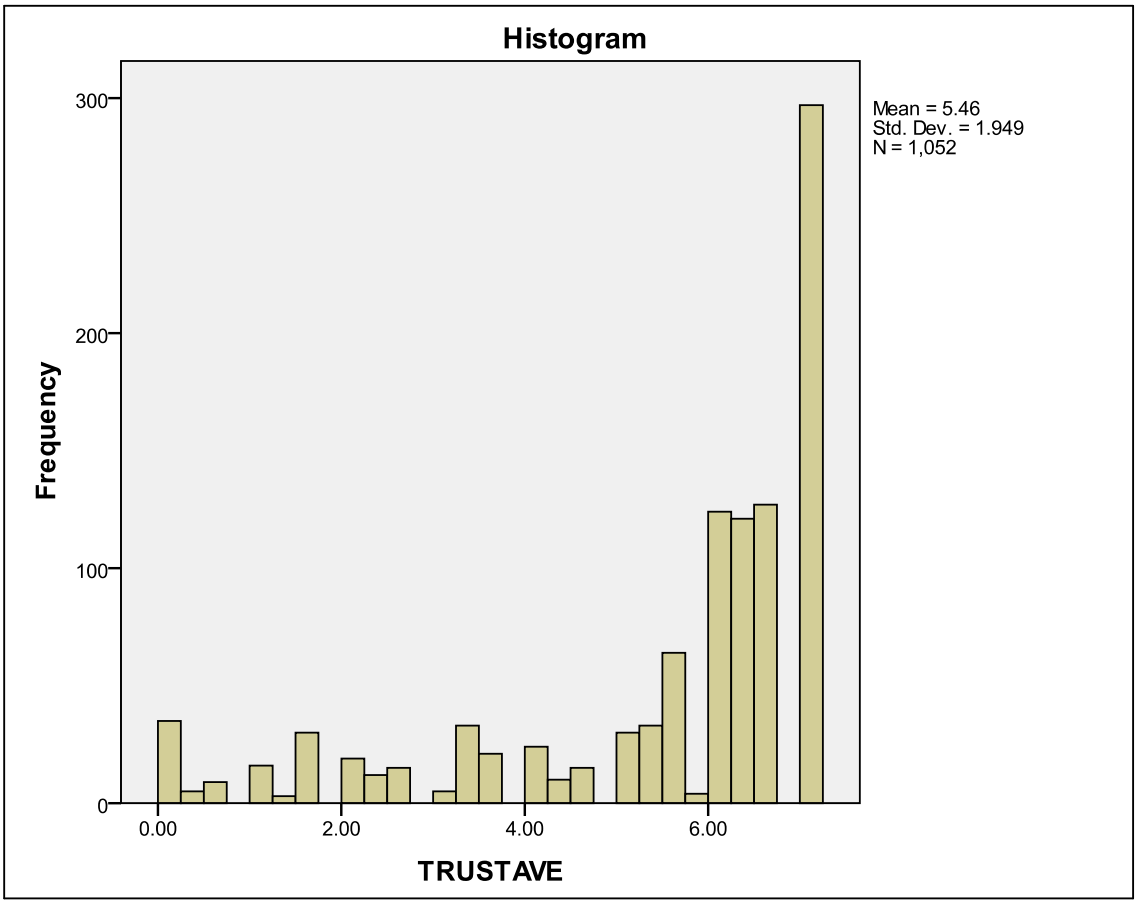
STEM-AND-LEAF PLOTS, HISTOGRAMS AND OTHER DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

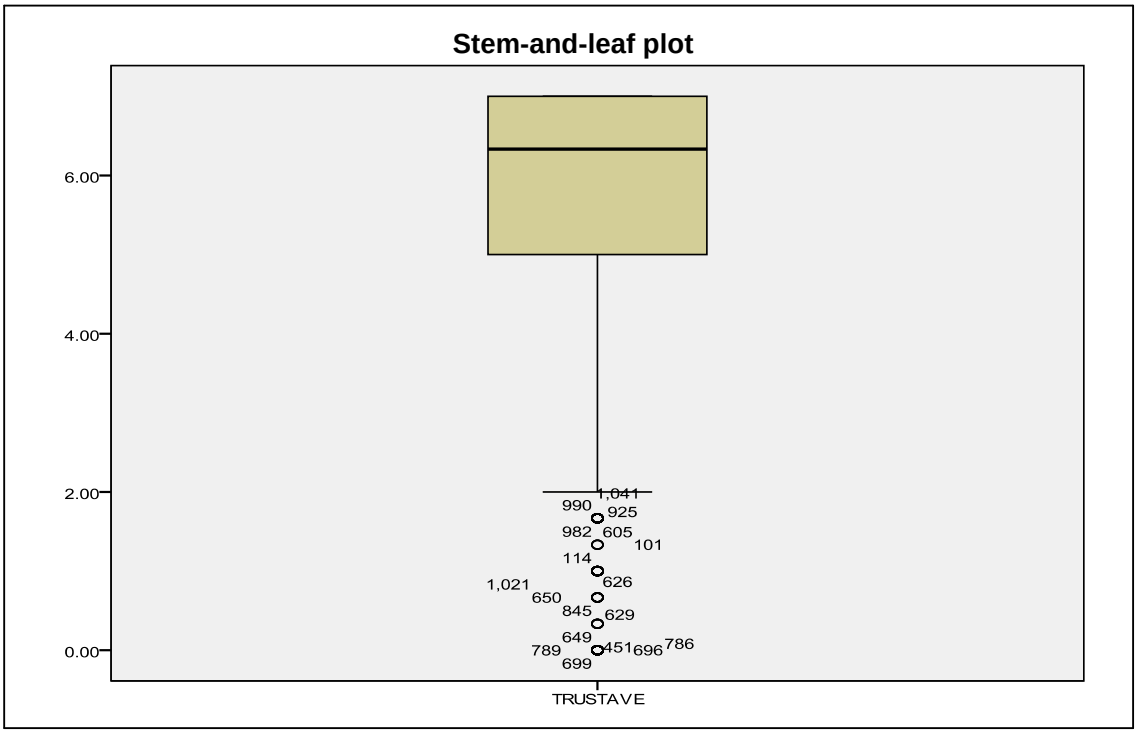
COMMITMENT AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION:



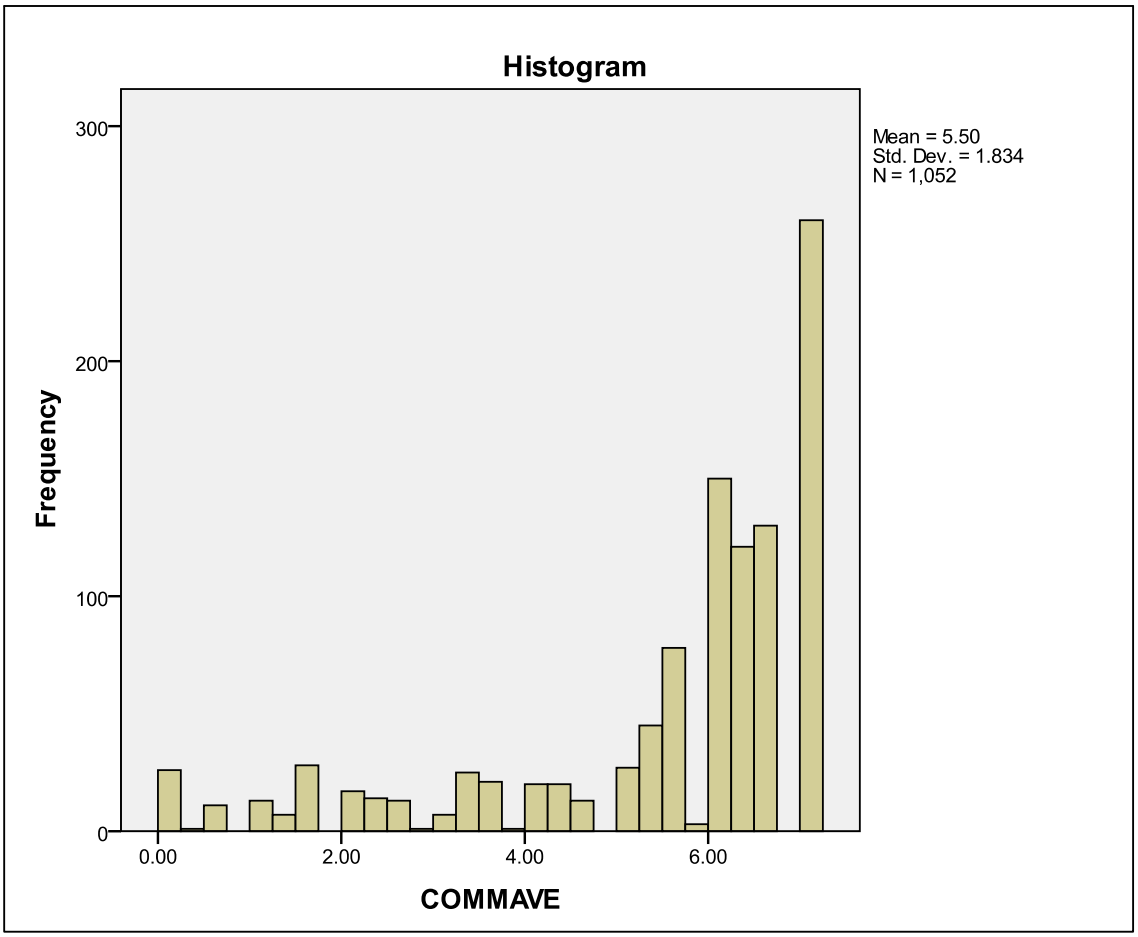


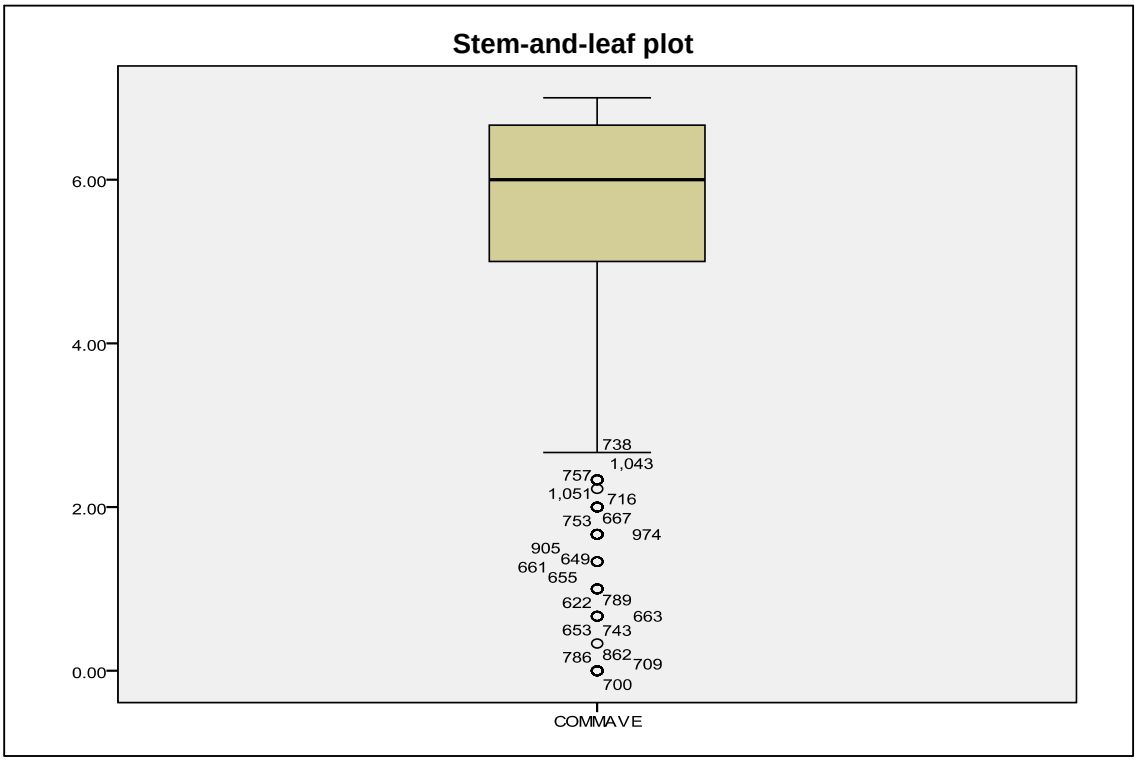
TRUST AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION:



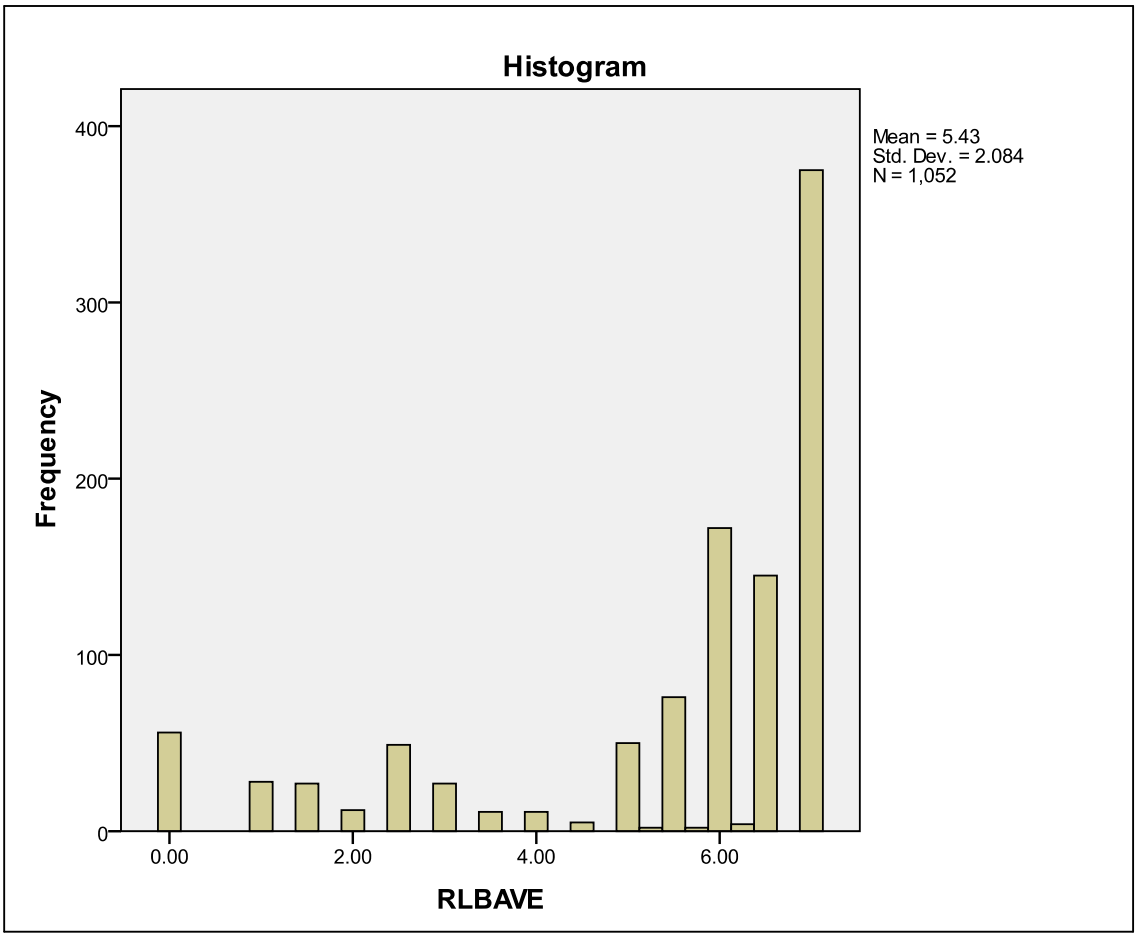


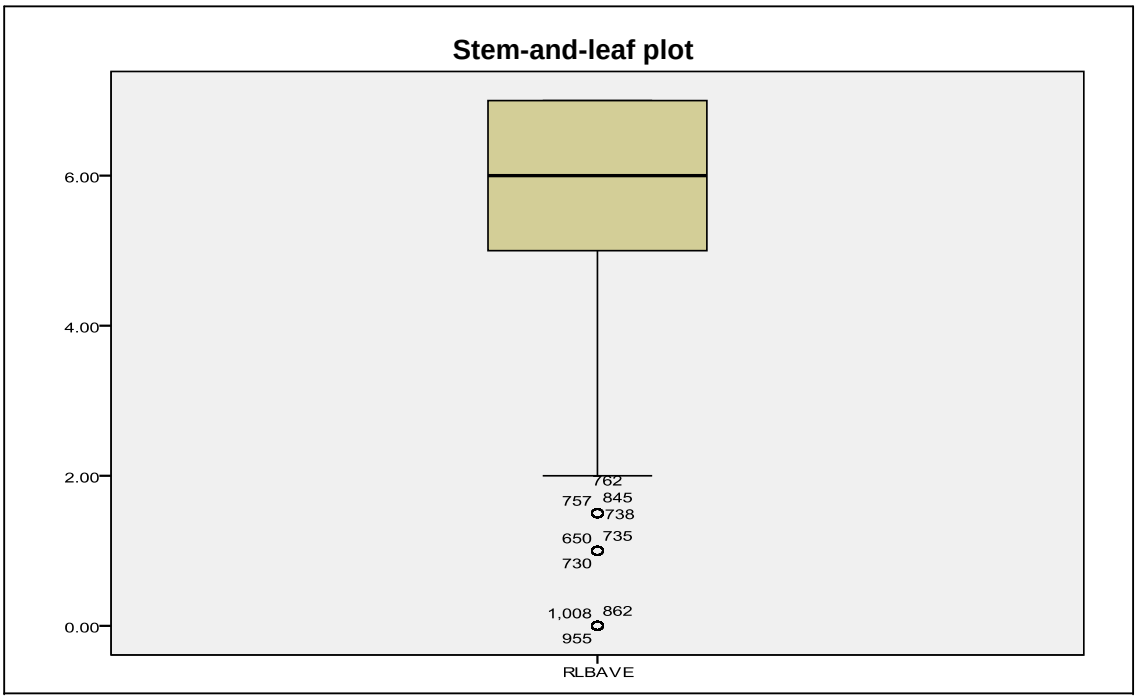
COMMUNICATION AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION:





RELATIONSHIP BENEFITS AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION:





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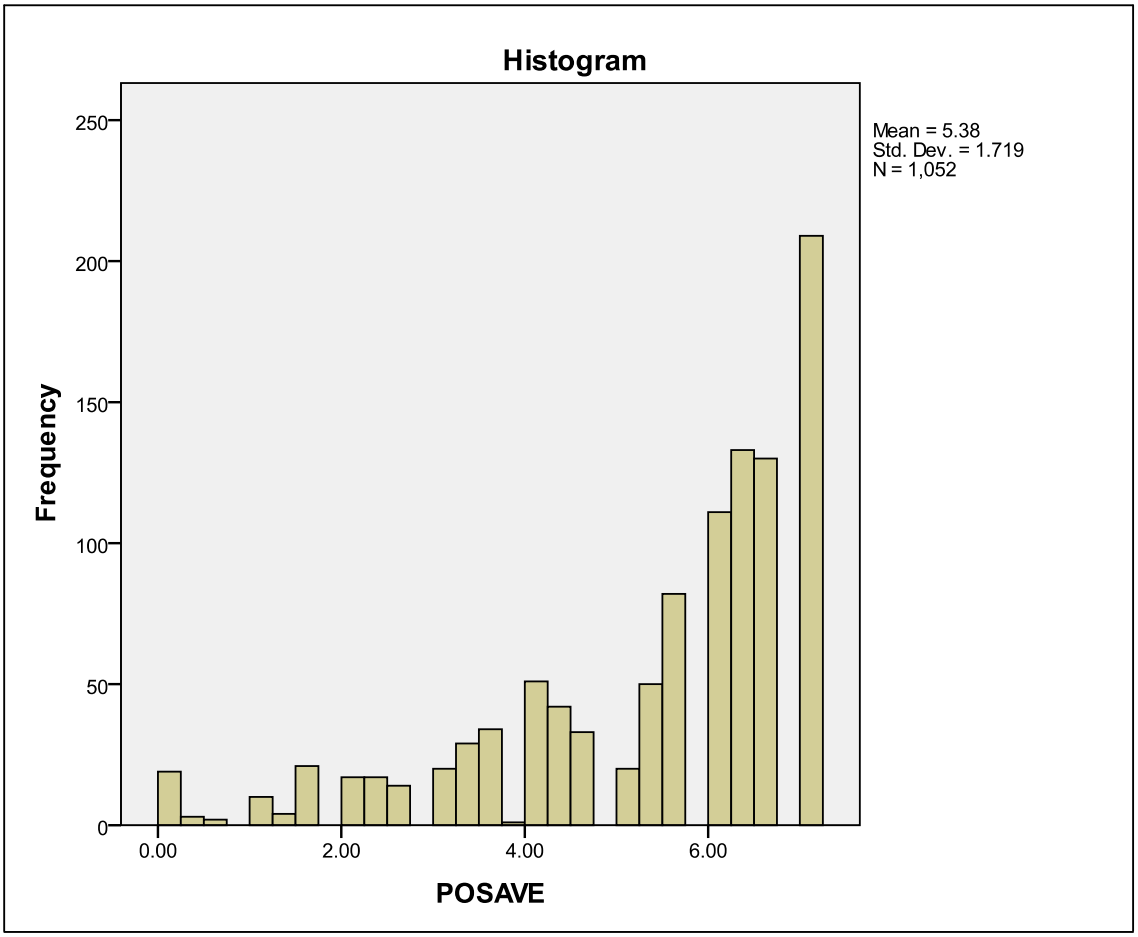
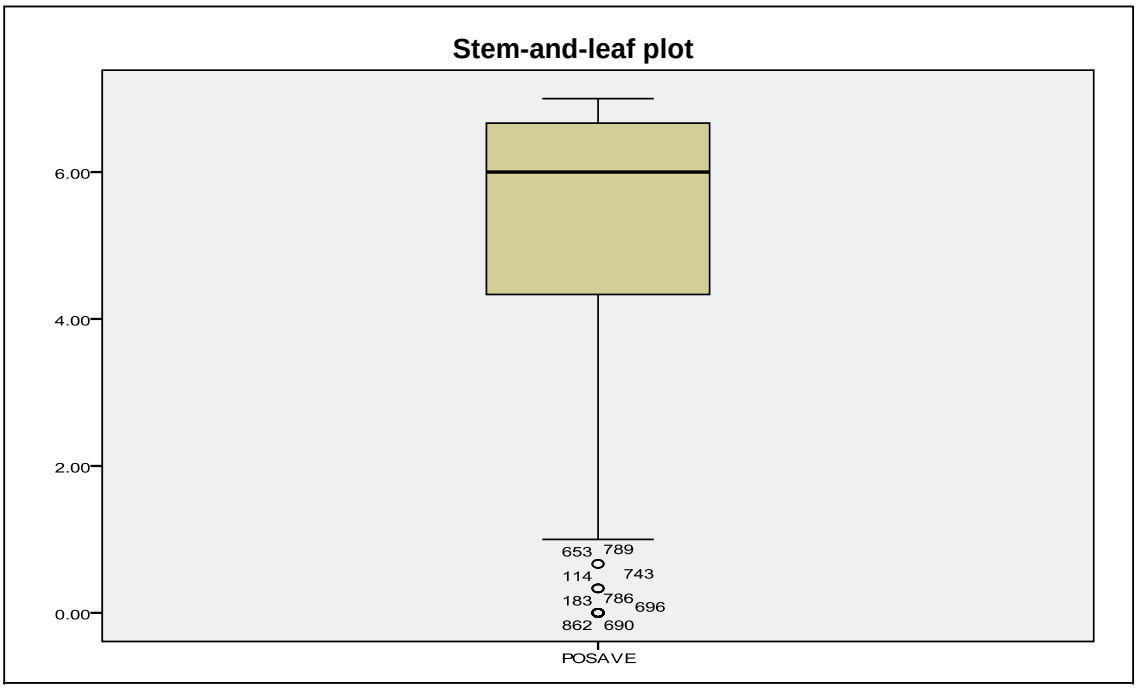
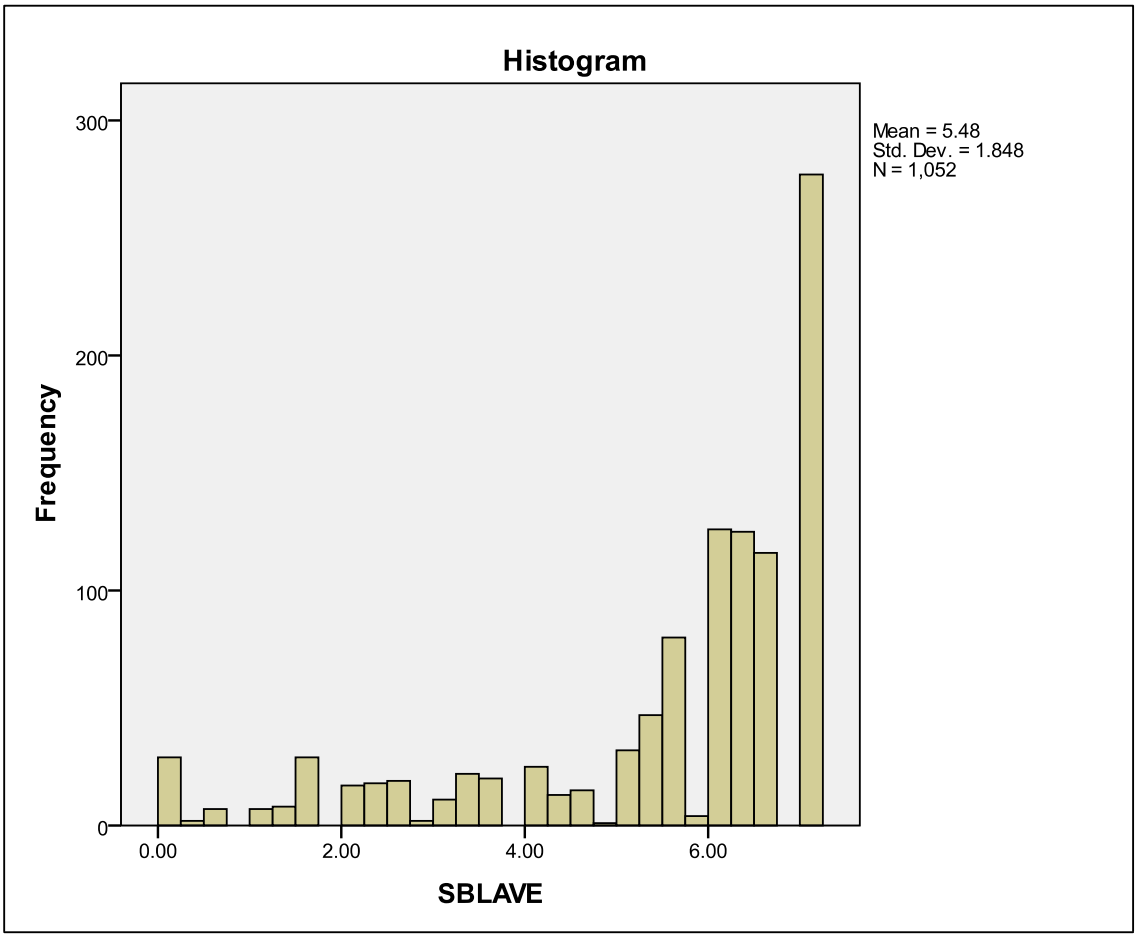
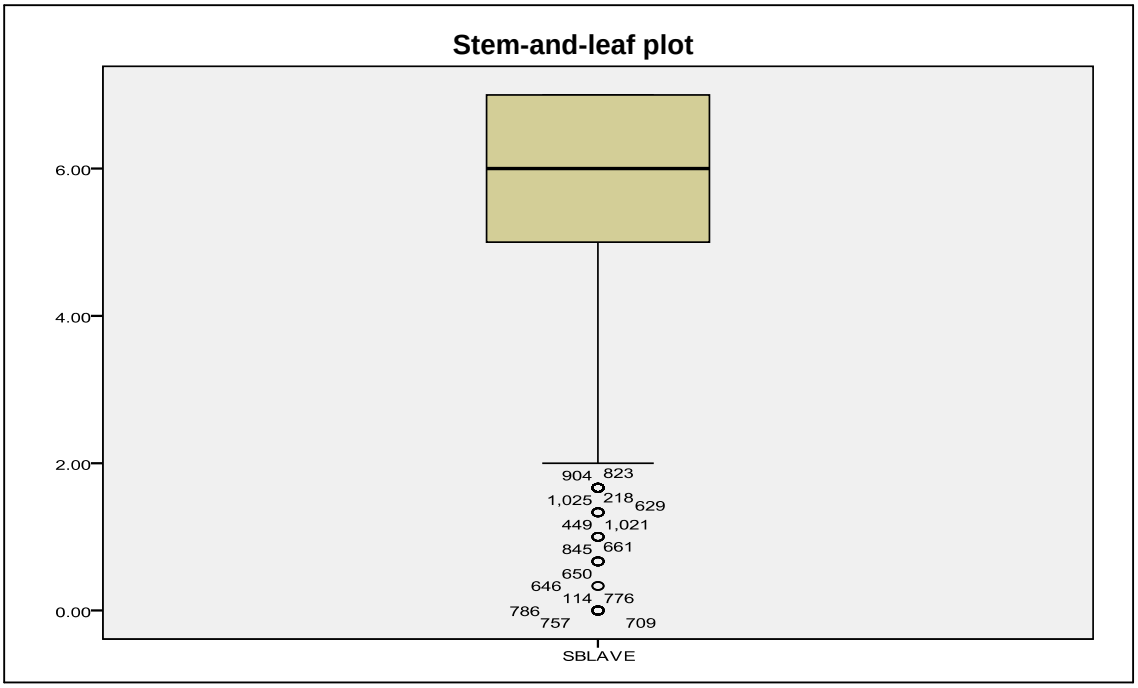




SHARED BELIEFS AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION:





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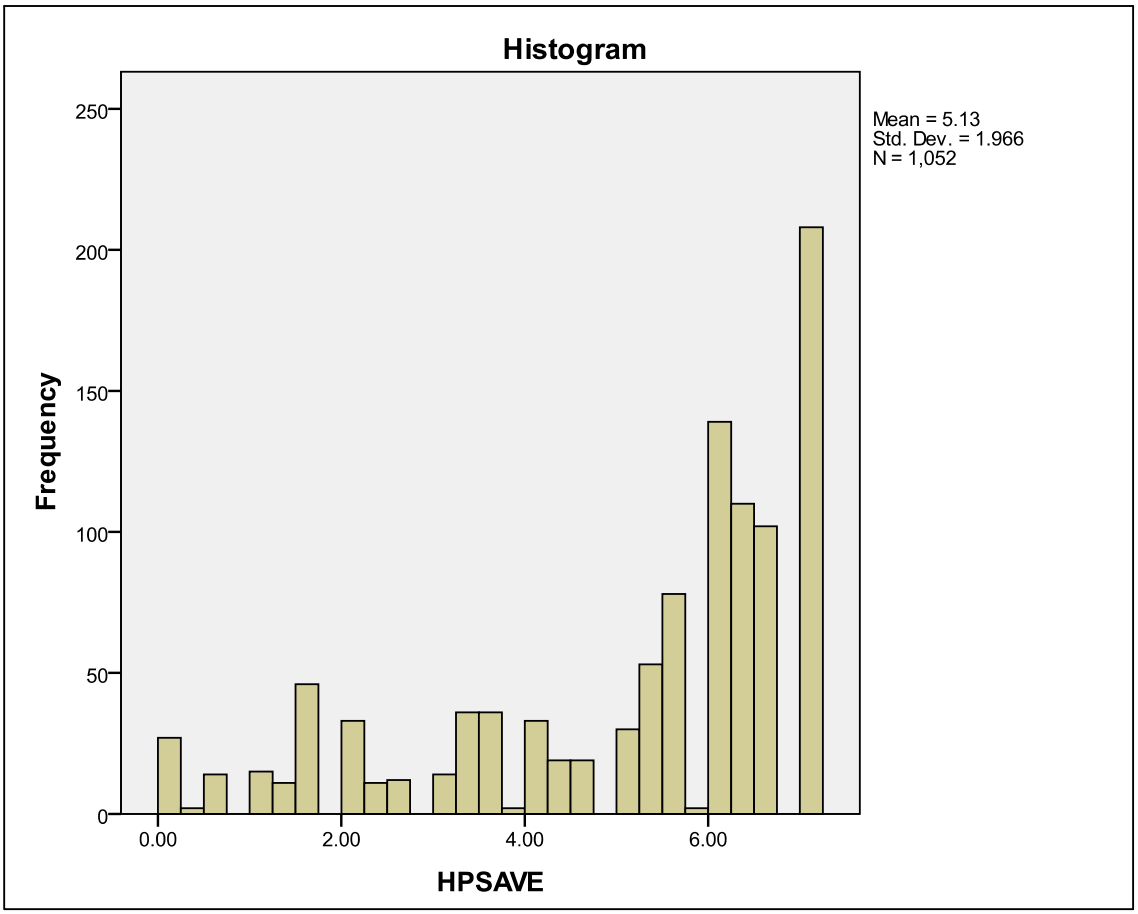
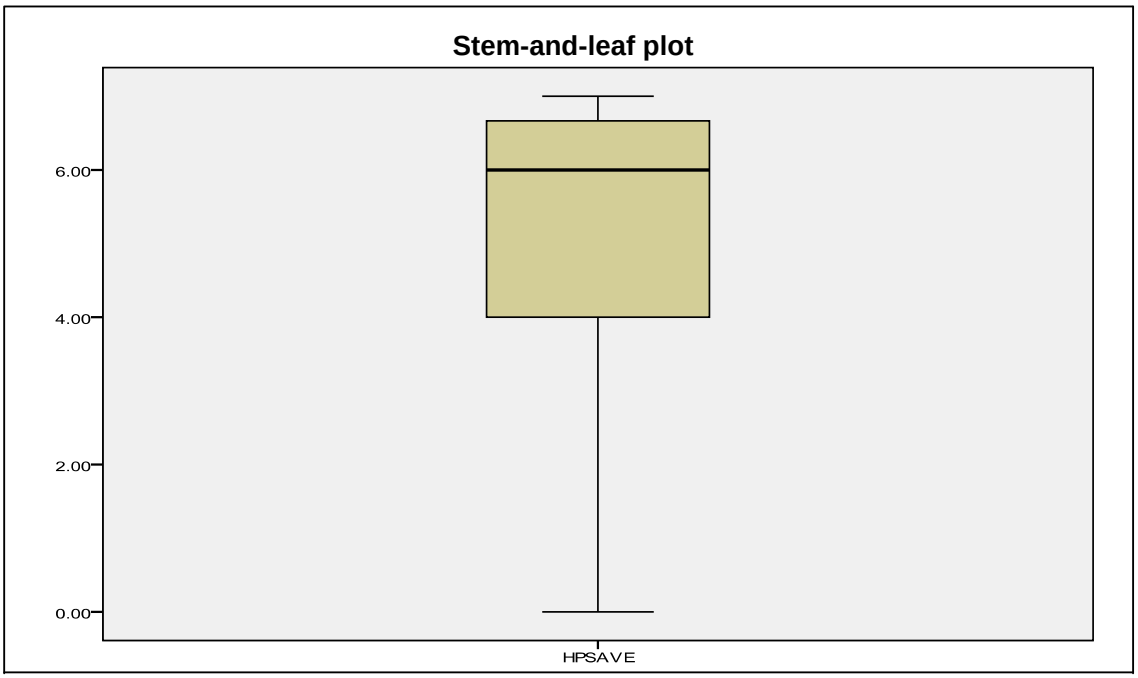
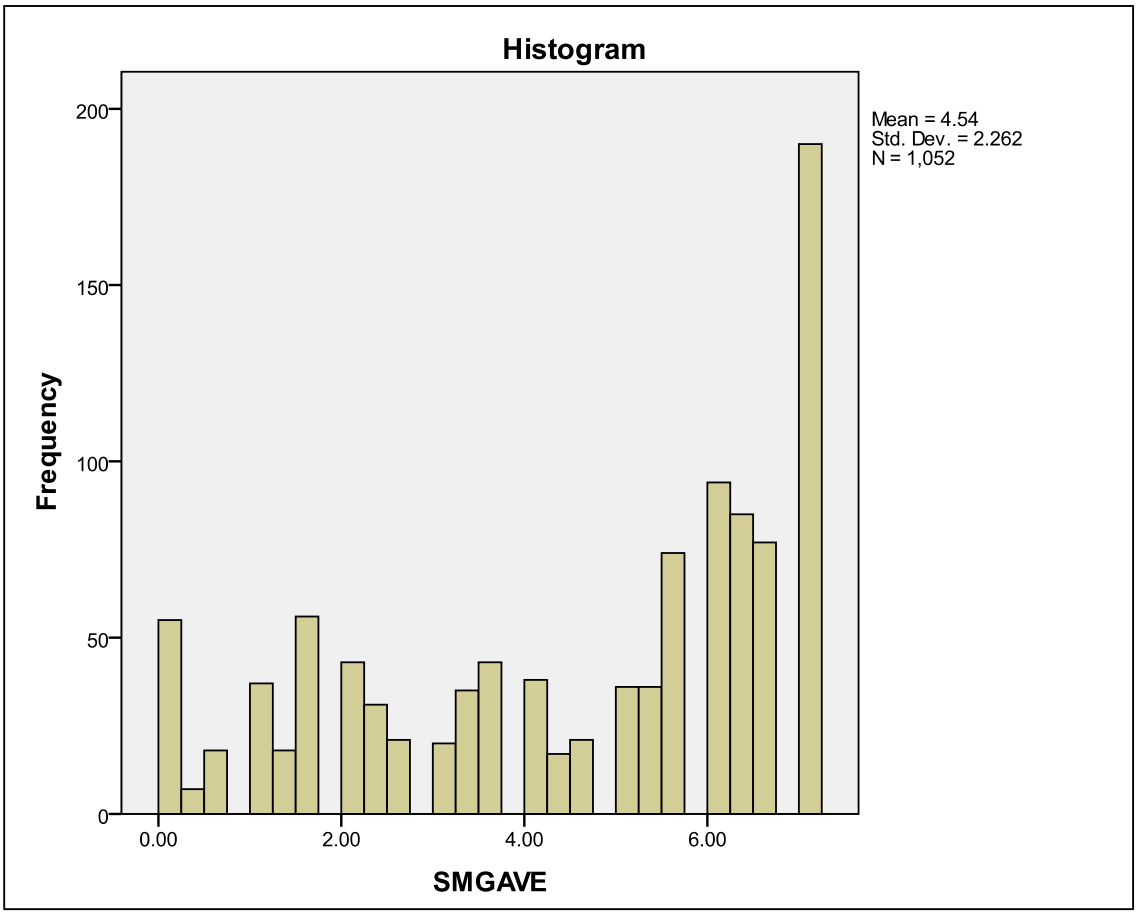
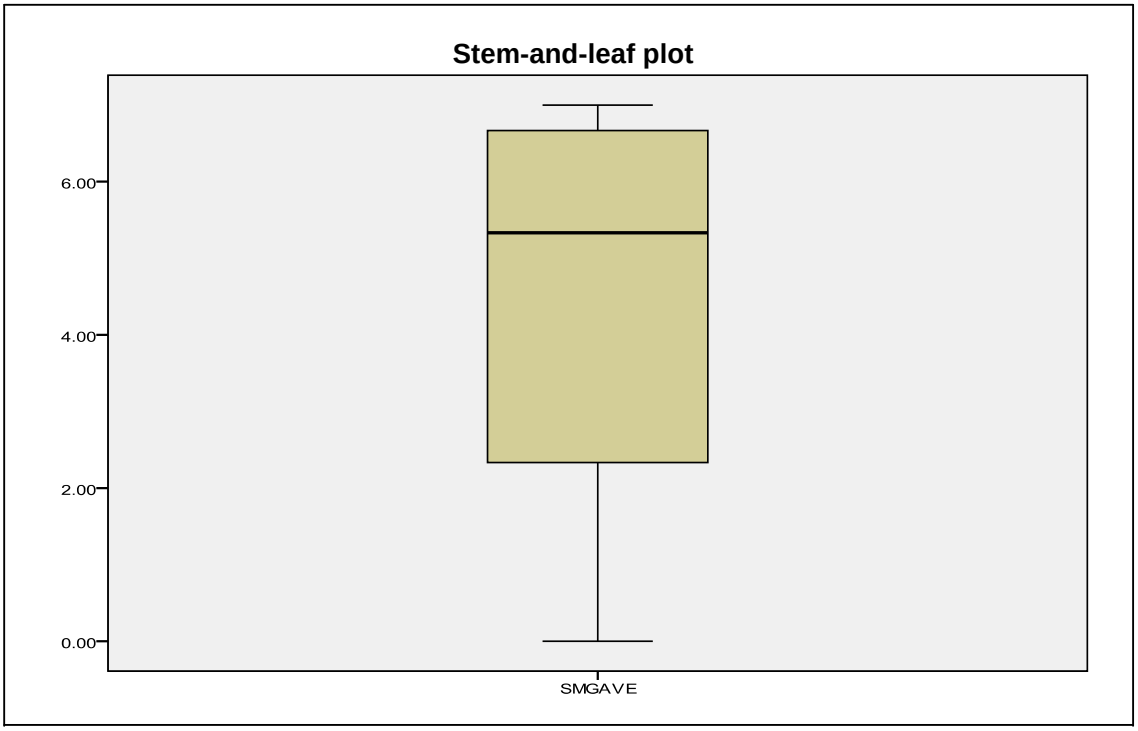


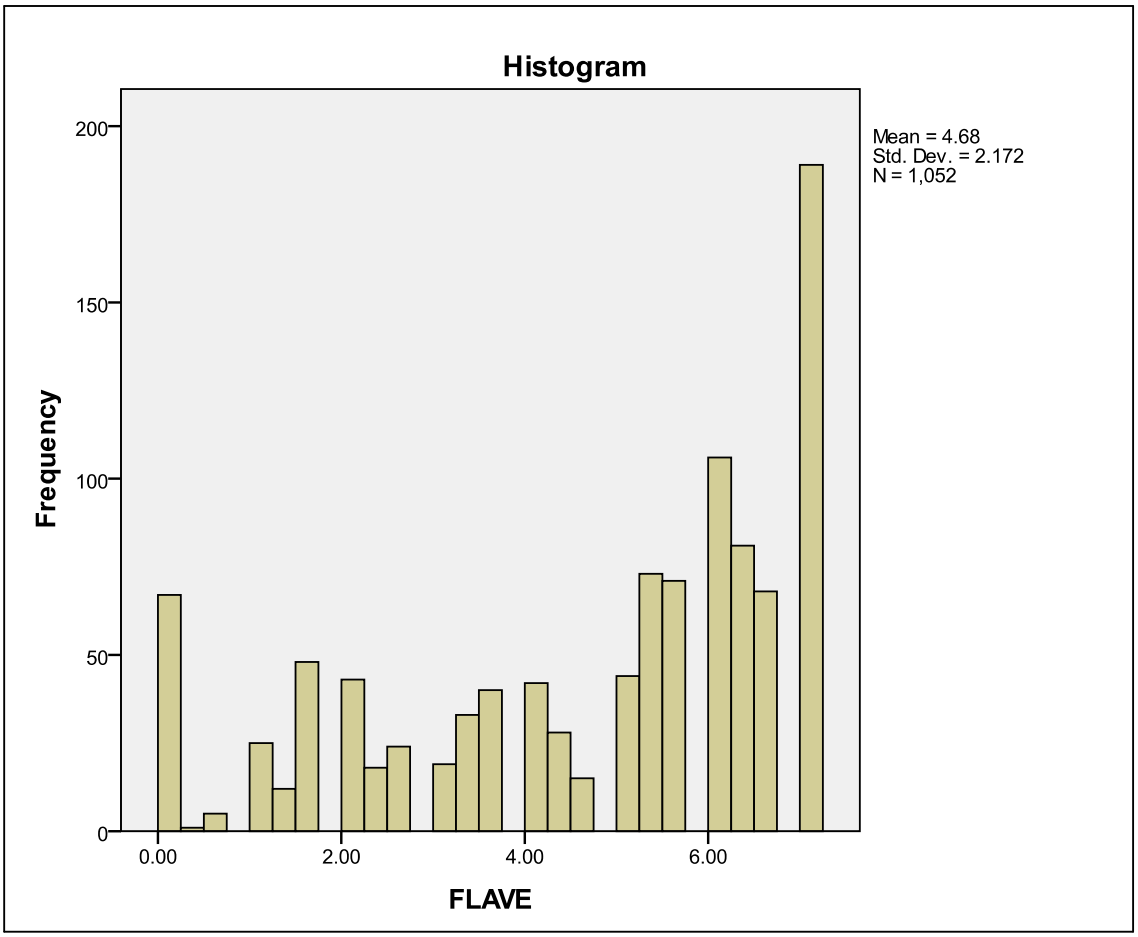


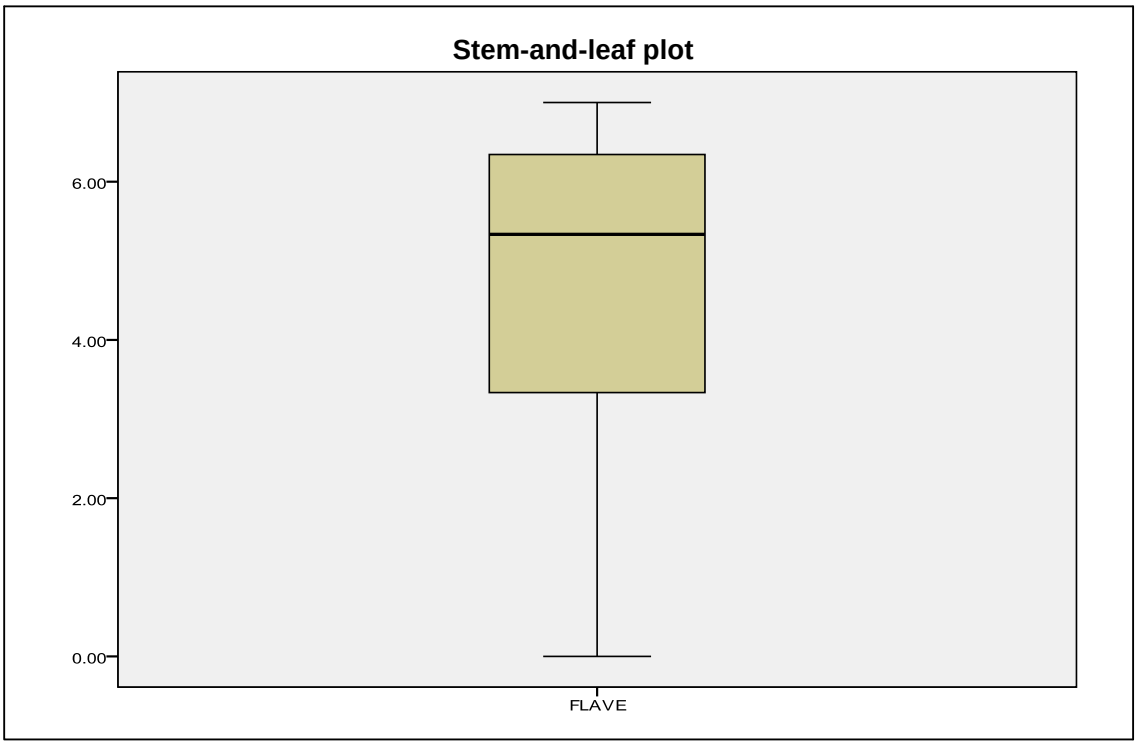
SMALL-GROUPS AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION:





FOLLOW-UP AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION:





OTHER DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics pertaining to commitment

Statistics					
		COMT1	COMT2	COMT3	COMT4
N	Valid	1052	1052	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.43	4.88	5.60	5.08
Median		5.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Mode		7	7	7	7
Std. Deviation		2.558	2.467	2.159	2.396
Variance		6.541	6.088	4.660	5.742
Skewness		-.678	-1.047	-1.744	-1.189
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075	.075	.075
Kurtosis		-1.072	-.389	1.721	-.037
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151	.151	.151

Descriptive statistics pertaining to trust

Statistics				
		TRUST1	TRUST2	TRUST3
N	Valid	1052	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		5.29	5.49	5.60
Median		6.00	6.00	6.00
Mode		7	7	7
Std. Deviation		2.242	2.231	2.161
Variance		5.028	4.976	4.672
Skewness		-1.494	-1.682	-1.796
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075	.075
Kurtosis		.905	1.482	1.930
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151	.151

Descriptive statistics pertaining to communication

Statistics				
		COMM1	COMM2	COMM3
N	Valid	1052	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		5.36	5.57	5.56
Median		6.00	6.00	6.00
Mode		7	7	7
Std. Deviation		2.182	2.057	2.114
Variance		4.761	4.231	4.468
Skewness		-1.639	-1.800	-1.827
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075	.075
Kurtosis		1.424	2.130	2.099
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151	.151

Descriptive statistics pertaining to relationship benefits

Statistics			
		RLB1	RLB2
N	Valid	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0
Mean		5.46	5.41
Median		6.00	6.00
Mode		7	7
Std. Deviation		2.241	2.235
Variance		5.024	4.993
Skewness		-1.576	-1.543
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075
Kurtosis		1.131	1.027
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151

Descriptive statistics pertaining to compassionate

Statistics				
		COMPS1	COMPS2	COMPS3
N	Valid	1052	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		4.87	5.81	5.45
Median		6.00	6.00	6.00
Mode		7	7	7
Std. Deviation		2.485	1.819	2.203
Variance		6.177	3.307	4.855
Skewness		-1.124	-2.191	-1.584
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075	.075
Kurtosis		-.263	4.172	1.224
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151	.151

Descriptive statistics pertaining to shared beliefs

Statistics				
		SBL1	SBL2	SBL3
N	Valid	1052	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		5.59	5.41	5.44
Median		6.00	6.00	6.00
Mode		7	7	7
Std. Deviation		2.031	2.191	2.120
Variance		4.126	4.799	4.494
Skewness		-1.787	-1.576	-1.648
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075	.075
Kurtosis		2.106	1.220	1.566
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151	.151

Descriptive statistics pertaining helpfulness

Statistics				
		HPS1	HPS2	HPS3
N	Valid	1052	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		4.89	5.12	5.38
Median		6.00	6.00	6.00
Mode		7	7	7
Std. Deviation		2.468	2.307	2.167
Variance		6.092	5.321	4.695
Skewness		-1.134	-1.352	-1.543
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075	.075
Kurtosis		-.224	.464	1.139
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151	.151

Descriptive statistics pertaining to small-groups

Statistics				
		SMG1	SMG2	SMG3
N	Valid	1052	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		4.75	4.65	4.23
Median		6.00	6.00	5.00
Mode		7	7	7
Std. Deviation		2.600	2.625	2.703
Variance		6.759	6.892	7.305
Skewness		-.874	-.861	-.621
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075	.075
Kurtosis		-.845	-.870	-1.251
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151	.151

Descriptive statistics pertaining to follow-up

Statistics				
		FL1	FL2	FL3
N	Valid	1052	1052	1052
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		4.51	4.56	4.98
Median		6.00	5.19	6.00
Mode		7	7	7
Std. Deviation		2.646	2.549	2.415
Variance		7.001	6.498	5.830
Skewness		-.804	-.886	-1.215
Std. Error of Skewness		.075	.075	.075
Kurtosis		-.945	-.736	.024
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.151	.151	.151

APPENDIX C:

NON-RESPONSE ERROR STATISTICS

PAIRED SAMPLE TEST

		Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	COMT1 - COMT2	-.23520	-.73355	.26315	-.937	.351
Pair 2	TRUST1 - TRUST2	-.53815	-.96999	-.10631	-2.473	.015
Pair 3	RLB1 - RL2	-.76263	-1.29612	-.22914	-2.837	.006
Pair 4	COMM1 - COMM2	-.49717	-.89991	-.09444	-2.450	.016
Pair 5	POS1 - POS2	-.37051	-.81128	.07027	-1.668	.098
Pair 6	SBL1 - SBL2	-.58606	-1.04397	-.12815	-2.540	.013
Pair 7	HPS1 - HPL2	-.31818	-.76407	.12770	-1.416	.160
Pair 8	SMG1 - SMG2	-.01020	-.69931	.67890	-.029	.977
Pair 9	FL1 - FL2	.01717	-.56108	.59542	.059	.953