LIBERTY BAPTIST THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

A STRATEGY FOR A SUCCESSFUL

DOCTOR OF MINISTRY PROJECT

A Thesis Project Submitted to
Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree

DOCTOR OF MINISTRY

By

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LIBERTY BAPTIST THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

THESIS PROJECT APPROVAL

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GRADE

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MENTOR

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READER

ABSTRACT

A STRATEGY FOR A SUCCESSFUL DOCTOR OF MINISTRY PROJECT

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Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary, 1992

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A review of current literature demonstrates that very little material is available to assist Doctor of Ministry candidates with their major projects. The purpose of this project is to illuminate Doctor of Ministry students regarding the nature of the project, its common elements, and an effective strategy for preparing a project. Based on surveys and questionnaires sent to seminaries and students, the project reviews historical perspectives and present institutional and personal perspectives regarding the project. It then reviews the elements which are common to most projects, and offers practical advice regarding the successful preparation of these elements.

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INTRODUCTION

Since its inception in 1970, when it was approved by
the American Association of Theological Schools, the Doctor
of Ministry degree has become one of the most popular
religious degrees of our day. More than eighty institutions
currently offer one or more forms of this degree, with a
total enrollment that exceeds six thousand students[1].

Cobble mentions that there are at least two factors
which have served as contributing influences to the
popularity of this program. The first factor is the rising
educational demand placed on ministers as they attempt to
effectively pastor modern congregations. With today's
congregations possessing a higher level of education than
their predecessors, it means that the minister must work
harder than ever to meet the needs of the people[2].

A second factor is the pressure placed on academic
institutions to initiate programs as they compete for an

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[1]Association of Theological Schools in the United
States and Canada, <u>Factbook on Theological Education for the
Academic Year 1990-1991</u> (Vandalia: A.T.S., 1991), 6.

[2]James Forrest Cobble, Jr., "The Influence of the Doctor
of Ministry Program and Its Expanded Clientele on the Program
Content, Instructional Practice and Perceived Mission of
McCormick Theological Seminary" (Ed.D. diss., University of
Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1981), 1-2.

ever dwindling pool of educational candidates. The addition of a program such as the Doctor of Ministry degree may be viewed by the institution as a means of reversing the decline in enrollment[3]. But whatever factors may be involved, the point which is to be made is that this program is flourishing and having an immense impact on our religious culture.

One of the major elements of the Doctor of Ministry degree is the requirement of a significant applied research project. This project is to be "sensitive both to the theory and practice of ministry"[4], and must meet several other criteria as given by the Association of Theological Schools. Unfortunately, these criteria have historically been somewhat general, with the end result that the project has remained rather loosely defined. According to the Hartford study, "There is little uniformity among D.Min programs in their definitions of the nature and purpose of the major project, its appropriate methods and forms of presentation, and its style and length."[5]

This lack of uniformity and clarity has resulted in

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[3]Ibid.

[4]Association of Theological Schools in the United States and Canada, "Revised D.Min. Standards," Theological Education 12, no.4 (Summer 1976) 213.

[5]Auburn Theological Seminary and Hartford Seminary's Center for Social and Religious Research, A Study of Doctor of Ministry Programs (Hartford: Hartford Theological Seminary, 1987), 125.

several difficulties. First of all, it is difficult for
students to author a project if their own institution has
not clearly articulated what they perceive to be the purpose
and goals of the project. When one realizes that nine
percent of respondents stated that their institution did <u>not</u>
clearly articulate these expectations, then the seriousness
of this situation becomes apparent. Also, due to the
differences in institutional requirements, it is very
difficult for students to look beyond the walls of their own
institution for proper models and guides. The final
handicap is that the lack of consistency has dissuaded most
from trying to compile a manual or tutorial to guide others
through the process of writing a Doctor of Ministry project.

<div align="center">Review of the Literature</div>

A survey of the literature confirms that very little
material is written which addresses the specific issues
related to Doctor of Ministry projects. Two notable
exceptions are the volumes by Davies and Sayre. Davies'
work is extremely helpful in relation to the methodology
involved in doing empirical research. But it is quite
detailed and involved and does not answer some of the more
practical questions raised by the project process[6].
Sayre's work focuses almost exclusively on matters of form

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[6]Richard E. Davies, <u>Handbook for Doctor of Ministry Projects: An Approach to Structured Observation of Ministry</u> (Lanham: University Press of America, 1984).

by summarizing the components of Turabian that are most

likely to be utilized in the course of a Doctor of Ministry

project[7].

A large amount of material has been written for other

disciplines, dealing with the subject of master's and

doctoral level research. The volumes by Davis[8] and

Sternberg[9] volume were perhaps the most practical.

Madsen[10] and Mauch[11] were comprehensive in their general

treatments of issues involved in writing dissertations.

Balian's[12] work provided the most understandable section

dealing with behavioral research, and since the volume was

done in a workbook format, it was quite easy to use. The

second edition even included a computer program to assist in

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[7]John L. Sayre, <u>A Manual of Forms for Research Projects and D.Min. Field Project Reports</u>, 4th ed., (Enid, OK:Seminary Press,1989).

[8]Gordon B. Davis and Clyde A. Parker, <u>Writing the Doctoral Dissertation: A Systematic Approach</u> (New York: Barron Publishers, 1979).

[9]David Sternberg, <u>How to Complete and Survive a Doctoral Dissertation</u> (New York: St. Martins Press, 1981).

[10]David Madsen, <u>Successful Dissertations and Theses: A Guide to Graduate Student Research</u> (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1983).

[11]James E. Mauch and Jack W. Birch, <u>Guide to the Successful Thesis and Dissertation: Conception to Publication</u> (New York: Marcel Dekker, 1989).

[12]Edward S. Balian, <u>How to Design, Analyze, and Write Doctoral Research: The Practical Guidebook</u> (Lanham: University Press of America, 1982).

statistical analysis. Long's[13] work addressed some of the more specific issues involved in the preparation of education and social science dissertations. The volume by Miller[14] was probably the most useful work dealing with matters of form and style. It answers a number of questions that other volumes avoid.

A great deal has been written in the area of behavioral research. The vastness of the literature and the complexity of the discipline made it difficult to determine the best materials. Sommer's[15] volume was perhaps the best introduction because it was comprehensive, yet easily understandable. Balian and Davies had sections in their volumes which deal with aspects of behavioral research, and which are very helpful for the Doctor of Ministry candidate.

Statement of Purpose

It appears that there is indeed a vital need which exists in this environment for another project guide, written on a very practical level, to assist the candidate in navigating through the treacherous waters of the final project. Therefore, it is the purpose of this project to

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[13]Thomas J. Long, John J. Convey, and Adele R. Chwalek, Completing Dissertations in the Behavioral Sciences (San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1983).

[14]Joan I. Miller, The Thesis Writers HAndbook (Linn, Oregon: Alcove Publishing, 1989).

[15]Robert Sommer, and Barbara B. Sommer, A Practical Guide to Behavioral Research: Tools and Techniques (New York: Oxford University Press, 1980).

develop a manual that will determine the nature of the
Doctor of Ministry project and the components and obstacles
that are most common, to assist the candidate in developing
an effective strategy for a Doctor of Ministry project, and
then to guide the student through each step of the process
to the successful completion of the project.

Statement of Methodology

In the first chapters of the project the focus will be
directed at helping the student understand the general
nature and purpose of the Doctor of Ministry project. In
order to provide the proper frame of reference there are
several criteria which must be examined. The first chapter
will begin with an overview of the history and development
of the Doctor of Ministry degree. This history is essential
as it will provide the reader with a sensitivity to the
struggles and controversies which surrounded the origin of
the degree. The next step will be to provide an overview of
The Association of Theological Schools' criteria for the
Doctor of Ministry program and the manner in which these
criteria have evolved since the inception of the degree.
This will provide the reader with the perception held by
this accrediting association towards the degree and the
project.

In the ensuing section attention will be directed
towards the perceptions held by educational institutions
regarding the project, based on materials received from a

number of schools which offer the degree. These materials
consist mainly of program catalogs and project manuals.
This segment will be followed by an examination of the
perception of individual Doctor of Ministry students towards
the project process. This will be based on a survey
conducted by the author which was sent to nearly three
hundred students, including both graduates and current
students. The final portion of this chapter will attempt to
summarize the nature and purpose of the project as it is
currently perceived.

The next chapter will be directed towards helping the
student prepare for the project process. The student will
be given instruction regarding the evaluation of the
negative and positive aspects of the project, and whether or
not he should make the commitment to enter the process. The
remainder of the chapter assumes that the candidate has made
the decision to begin the process, and then proceeds to give
a summary description of the various elements which are
involved. A preliminary checklist is then included so that
candidates can successfully gauge their progress.

The third and fourth chapters will contemplate the
various types of research with which the student should be
familiar. First of all, the candidate will be exposed to a
strategy for the successful use of libraries in the research
process. In the next chapter, the candidate will examine
other forms of research which may be utilized. These

include the use of questionnaires, case studies, and other methods of observation. This will prepare one to recognize, prior to the choice of a topic, the possible research techniques which each topic may involve. It will also provide a general base of knowledge for conducting this research.

The remaining chapters will examine in detail each of the four main components of the project. The first of these chapters will look at the project's topic. Choosing a topic can sometimes be such a frustrating experience that students balk at the prospect of continuing in the project process. The aim of this chapter is to provide enough information regarding this process that the reader will be encouraged at his ability to choose a successful topic, and will continue with his project. After a summary description of the topic, there will be an in-depth presentation of a methodology for choosing a successful topic. This will include a discussion of essential criteria, the best sources, necessary research, and the proper time to choose a topic.

Next are the procedures for narrowing the field down to three or four likely possibilities, after which the topic must be presented to the appropriate person and in the proper format. This step also involves choosing an advisor for the project, for which some guidelines are suggested. This chapter concludes with a checklist which focuses specifically on the times and elements of the topic, and

which will allow the reader to view at a single glance what
remains to be done.

The next major element of the project is the proposal.
While the importance of the proposal is sometimes over-
looked, a well done proposal will always result in a much
smoother road through the remainder of the project. The
reader is instructed regarding the necessary elements that
should be included in a good proposal. This is followed by
a detailed analysis of these elements, and how they should
be packaged for presentation to the faculty committee. In
addition, there is a brief discussion of the next step
required by some institutions, which is the presentation of
the proposal to faculty and to fellow D.Min. students.

Having traveled this far in the process the reader is
now prepared to complete the research and begin preparation
of the main body of the project. This will serve as the
focus of chapter seven. The initial part of the chapter
deals with various types of practical, or behavioral science
research. Should surveys be used to gather some
information, and if so, how do you prepare and analyze the
surveys? Basic suggestions pertaining to these and other
related questions are the topic of this segment. Attention
is then directed to the matter of the main body of the
project, and some suggestions for doing this effectively and
efficiently.

The last chapter addresses some of the final

considerations involved in the completion of the project.

Suggestions for the oral defense are included here, along

with recommendations pertaining to copyrighting the project,

writing the abstract, binding the work, and the presentation

of the completed project to committee members and to the

institution. A final checklist is included to insure that

nothing is forgotten in this lengthy process. Appendices

are provided to show the individual and institutional

surveys used in compiling some of the data upon which some

of the conclusions of this work were established.

Statement of Scope and Limitations

This project is not intended as a comprehensive work

on grammar, form, or style. It is believed that there are

already a sufficient number of volumes available which

pertain to these issues. A sampling of these are included

in the project bibliography for those who wish to consult

them.

Neither is this project intended as a guide for those

preparing to write a research dissertation in another

discipline or for another degree program. The Doctor of

Ministry degree is unique among doctoral degrees, and the

written project which serves as the culmination of the

project also has its differences. This is not to imply that

this degree is inferior to other programs, but rather that

it is unique in its philosophy and goals. Therefore, a

guide which may be of significant assistance to the D.Min.

student will certainly be lacking in some areas for someone working on another type of dissertation.

Finally, it should be recognized that this project will not meet the needs of every candidate preparing a Doctor of Ministry project. There is such a wide range of expectations and requirements for the project that it would be virtually impossible to address every different nuance. The desire of this project is to focus on those aspects that would be applicable to a majority of students and institutions.

CHAPTER 1

UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE
DOCTOR OF MINISTRY PROJECT

Before one can accurately define and understand the
Doctor of Ministry project there are some related matters
which must be considered. The focus of this chapter will be
to identify and discuss some of these related matters. One
of the most important areas of concern regards the purpose
of the Doctor of Ministry program itself. There seems to be
little awareness of the fact that the Doctor of Ministry
degree is the fruit of many years of consideration by the
theological educational institutions of the United States
and Canada. Also, it should be recognized that a great deal
of discussion and debate preceded the initial offering of
the degree. These controversies which surrounded the birth
and development of the program have had a great impact on
expectations related to the project, and so they will be
presented in this chapter.

In addition, the criteria set forth by the Association
of Theological Schools related to the project must be
considered. Then there will be an examination of some of
the current institutional philosophies regarding the
project, followed by the summary of a survey which reflects

individual assessments of the project process. The chapter

will conclude with a synopsis of the effects which the above

components have had on the project.

A Brief History of the Doctor of Ministry Degree

Perhaps the most thorough work describing the history

of the development of the Doctor of Ministry degree is

included in Robert Duffett's dissertation[16]. In the fourth

chapter he traces theological education in this country from

its origins, beginning with the founding of the first

seminary in 1808[17]. It will be sufficient for the purposes

of this paper to examine only the modern era of theological

education.

In 1936, the Conference of Theological Seminaries and

Colleges in the United States and Canada changed its name to

the American Association of Theological Schools[18], thus

emerging as the professional organization for theological

education in this country. One of the recognized

obligations of this association was the assistance of member

schools in the development of consistent nomenclature and

criteria for the theological degrees which they offered.

Therefore, when association members began to request a

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[16]Robert George Duffett, "The History and Development of
the Doctor of Ministry Degree at the Minnesota Consortium of
Theological Schools: 1957-1985" (Ph.D. diss., University of
Iowa, 1986), 94-223.

[17]Ibid., 97.

[18]Ibid., 126.

professional doctorate degree for their clergy, it naturally
fell to the association to implement and oversee the
development of such a degree. Over the course of the next
thirty years, a number of recommendations for this degree
were offered.

The first formal proposal was given in 1940, when the
Committee on Degrees and Standards suggested that the Master
of Theology degree should become the first degree and that
two types of doctoral study could then be based on it[19].
The first would be called a Doctor of Theology degree, while
the second would be referred to as a Doctor of Divinity
degree. This second degree was to be offered to those in the
pastorate and included five years of home study under the
supervision of a faculty member, one semester of seminary
residency, examinations, and objective tests measuring the
candidate's competency in ministry[20]. When the proposal
was sent to member institutions, most of the ones who
responded to the survey reacted negatively to the
recommendation and it was not passed.

However, it is important to see the type of degree
that the association had in mind as it considered a
professional degree. It appears that the committee's desire
was to develop a program that would be the religious, or
theological, equivalent of the M.D. for medical doctors, the

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[19]Ibid., 130.

[20]Ibid., 130.

J.D. for lawyers, or other similar types of degrees. It was
not to be patterned after a Ph.D. because its goal was not
to prepare men for the role of research scholars. Instead,
it was expected to be a rigorous academic degree that would
produce religious clergy who had a very high level of
professional skill in ministry.

A second plan was then recommended at the 1944
gathering of the association[21]. This plan called for a
centralized program, requiring ten years of study, in which
a single "Board of Graduate Professional Studies was to be
responsible for syllabi, bibliographies, and examinations.
One (exam) would be taken at the end of the first five year
period; the other two (exams) at the end of the ten year
period."[22] Four six-week periods of residency were
required during these years, and denominational letters
attesting to the candidate's ability had to be submitted.
Then after passing a national exam, the candidate could be
awarded the Doctor of Divinity degree by the sponsoring
institution[23]. Once again however, there was insufficient
support among member institutions to approve this
recommendation. Discussion regarding the development of a
professional degree continued, however there were no

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[21]Ibid., 134.

[22]Ibid.

[23]Ibid.

solutions offered which would meet the approval of the association's membership. Finally, in 1956, after another decade of dissension regarding the proposed degree, the association's Executive Committee disbanded the committee that had been trying to develop a solution[24]. It appeared that there was no resolution which could meet everyone's expectations for this degree.

Then, in the 1960s, the Divinity School of the University of Chicago, the School of Theology at Claremont, and the San Francisco Theological Seminary decided to offer professional doctorates without the approval of the Association of Theological Schools[25]. This immediately put the Association under a great deal of pressure. They could either produce criteria for a similar program that all qualified member institutions could offer, or they could censure these three schools and their programs. The association wisely chose the former, and in 1968 once again assigned a committee to study the possibility of a professional doctorate[26].

At the 1970 meeting of the association, the assigned committee presented four recommendations regarding degrees and nomenclature. The second of these recommendations was

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[24]Ibid., 144.

[25]Ibid., 148.

[26]Marvin J. Taylor, "Some Reflections on the Development and Current Status of the D.Min.," Theological Education 12, no.4 (1976): 271.

that schools with sufficient resources should establish a

professional doctorate, the Doctor of Ministry degree, to be

built upon the Master of Divinity degree or its

equivalent[27]. Member institutions were allowed to offer the

degree either as an in-sequence program, where it was a

fourth year added on to the end of the M.Div., or they could

offer the degree as an in-ministry degree for those who were

already in ministry but who wanted to continue with their

academic training. The recommendations passed and the

association's authorization for the new Doctor of Ministry

program was complete. While there was still not a clear

consensus regarding the program's goals, it was clearly

determined that the time had come to make the professional

degree available to those in ministry. After the

authorization of the program in 1970, the years 1970-1972

were spent developing standards for the new program. These

standards were approved in June of 1972[28].

A.T.S. Criteria Related to the Project

A portion of the A.T.S. standards directly addresses

the matter of the final project. In the 1976 standards,

which represent the first revision of the Doctor of Ministry

standards, the fourth point under the heading of the

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[27]Ibid., 182.

[28]Association of Theological Schools in the United States
and Canada, "Revised D.Min. Standards," 213.

program's structure states that "The program shall include
the design and completion of a project of significance and
substance which is sensitive both to theory and practice of
ministry and which normally will include written
presentation and oral evaluation"[29]. Three criteria for
the project were also listed under this heading. The first
criteria was an ". . . ability to identify a specific
concern in ministry, mobilize appropriate resources, develop
a method for addressing the concern, and evaluate the
completed results". Criteria number two was an ". . .
ability to reflect depth of theological insight in its
relation to ministry", and the third was ". . . an ability
to function responsibly under supervision appropriate to the
project"[30].

A comparison of these early criteria with the 1990
version manifests a great deal of progress on the part of
the A.T.S. related to its expectations for the project.
Essentially the entire initial description has been revised.
It now states that the program is to include ". . . the
design and completion of a written doctoral level project
which may also utilize other media and which addresses both
the nature and practice of ministry"[31]. Notice that the

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[29]Ibid., 216.

[30]Ibid.

[31]Association of Theological Schools in the United States
and Canada, A.T.S. Biennial Meeting: Bulletin 39 (Vandalia:
A.T.S.,1990) 144-146.

project now has the phrase "written doctoral level" added to its description as a replacement for "of significance and substance". While the earlier wording provided each institution the opportunity to interpret it and apply it in a way that would most closely fit the needs of their program, the result was that a large variety of works could be accepted as Doctor of Ministry projects without violating the A.T.S. guidelines. While the current statement allows for some institutional flexibility with its inclusion of the phrase "may also utilize other media", there is still the strongly stated understanding that it is to be written, and of doctoral level quality.

Secondly, the newer standards state that the purpose of the project is to address ". . . the nature and practice of ministry", in contrast to the earlier definition of ". . . sensitive both to the theory and practice of ministry". Again it would seem that the effort has been made to narrow the range of possible meanings for those seeking to define the project. Also, while the older measure stated that a written presentation and oral evaluation would "normally" be required, the newer states that an oral presentation and evaluation "shall" be required. The third criteria was deleted from the 1990 standards. Therefore, of the three criteria presented with the 1976 standards, two of them have remained basically the same. Both have been reworded for clarity but the meaning was essentially

unaltered. The third criteria was deleted from the 1990 standards.

The most recent revision also contains other additional elements which were not mentioned in the previous standards. It states that the project is to be accessioned in the institutional library. Also, it is to contribute to the practice of ministry and be applicable to other ministry contexts. An interesting phrase is included in regard to the project's contributing to the practice of ministry, where it states that the project's contribution is to be judged by "professional standards[32]". It is assumed that this means that it will be the responsibility of the individual institution to determine these professional standards.

Generally speaking, the result of two decades of revision to the standards pertaining to the Doctor of Ministry project has been a very careful narrowing and clarification of the criteria. When complied with by all institutions this will allow for the upgrading of the quality of the projects and will provide for a greater consistency in the types of projects being developed at various institutions.

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[32]Ibid.

Institutional Perspectives Towards the

Doctor of Ministry Project

Two instruments were used to gather some of the data necessary to determine both institutional and individual perspectives towards the project. The first of these, mailed in the summer of 1991, was designed to accumulate data which would reflect the perspective of educational institutions. This instrument consisted of a letter mailed to each of the seminaries in the United States and Canada which currently offers the Doctor of Ministry program. Addresses for these institutions were taken from the Association of Theological School's membership directory.

The letter requested information regarding three main areas. First, each institution was asked to provide general data concerning its Doctor of Ministry program. This included information regarding institutional goals and purpose related to the program, curriculum requirements, and course descriptions. Secondly, data was requested related to the project itself. This would include any institutional publications that would describe the nature and purpose of the project, time stipulations, and any other guidelines. The third type of material requested dealt with enrollment issues such as the number of students enrolled, the number of graduates, and the names and addresses of students to whom a survey could be mailed. In particular, it was requested that these students either be graduates, or

students who are currently working on their projects. A
copy of the potential survey was included with the letter.

As previously stated, the desire was to gain as much
institutional material as possible which would describe the
program, the project, and the students involved. Of the
more than ninety schools who were originally contacted,
fifty five responded with at least some type of information.
Unfortunately, there was very little consistency in the type
or amount of information which was received. Due to the
amount of labor required to respond to such a survey, many
institutions chose to provide only a minimal response.
Often this consisted of little more than their general
seminary catalog. Seventeen institutions provided a list of
survey candidates, and one school offered to mail the survey
from their institution. Apparently, and certainly
justifiably so, there is a great deal of institutional
sensitivity in the area of student dropout rates or any
other information which would reflect poorly on the
institution. Therefore, insufficient data was obtained
pertaining to graduates and enrollment to allow for any
verifiable assertions to be made.

However, enough information was received to allow for
some observations to be made regarding at least three
categories. These include the nomenclature used to describe
the project, the length of the project, and whether or not
workshops are provided to assist students in the project

process.

It is quite interesting to note the diversity which exists in the terminology used by various institutions to describe the project. The majority of the responding institutions (thirty-four percent) use the title "Doctor of Ministry Project" , while twelve percent refer to it as a "Thesis Project", and another twelve percent use "Dissertation Project" as their standard nomenclature. Various other titles are also used. It can be referred to as a "Major Field Project", a "Field Project Report", a "Project in Ministry", an "Independent Study Project", a "Ministry Project", or as a "Dissertation".

One might wonder why such diverse terminology is used to represent the final work for the same degree. It does not appear likely that such a diversity of terms would be used to apply to a Ph.D. student's magnum opus, regardless of the institution where the degree was to be conferred. However in this case it appears that the diversity of views towards the Doctor of Ministry degree itself, which were described earlier, continues to be made manifest in the attitudes of institutions towards the project.

In other words, the lack of uniformity among institutional perspectives regarding the purpose of the Doctor of Ministry degree has resulted in this plethora of terminology which is used to describe the project. For instance, an institution which views the project as a highly

structured academic exercise that is comparable in quality to a Ph.D. will be more likely to refer to the project as a dissertation. On the other hand, a school which views the final work as a very practical exercise in ministry may be satisfied with reference to this work as a report or essay. In between these two extremes can be found the remainder of the titles used for the project, but they will tend to be reflective of the institutional view of the degree.

Another related characteristic which was observed was the variance in the length requirements for projects. At some institutions the reported guidelines for length were from forty to eighty pages long. At other institutions the required length is from 125 to 250 pages. This may also be attributed to the diversity in institutional perspectives towards the degree.

Another characteristic which was observed among the institutional literature was the number of schools which provide the students with a workshop or seminar as preparation for the project journey. Of the schools which provided this information, ninety-four percent either offered or required this type of a workshop. At least one institution offers the workshop in a VHS format, while some others utilize a one or two day format. It would appear that this is one area where schools could do a great deal to enhance the students' understanding of the institutional expectations for the project, by providing a seminar where

the entire process could be described in detail for the
students.

Individual Perspectives Towards the
Doctor of Ministry Project

The second instrument which was then developed was
designed to gain the perspective of the individual student
towards the project. This instrument was a twenty-four
question survey which was mailed to 285 of the
aforementioned students in November and December, 1991.
Twelve of the surveys were returned due to incorrect
addresses. Of the remaining 273 surveys, 156 (fifty-seven
percent) were completed and returned. In many instances one
or more of the questions were left unanswered. Therefore
the reported percentages were calculated using the total
number of actual responses to the question. As previously
stated, the goal of the survey was to obtain the individual
student's perspective on various components related to the
project process. Results of this survey will be referred to
throughout this paper. A copy of the cover letter which
accompanied the survey is included at the end of this
project as Appendix 2a, while the survey itself is included
as Appendix 2b. A narrative summary of the results of the
survey is included as Appendix 2c.

Concluding Observations

Historically speaking, the Doctor of Ministry degree

has developed under the tension produced by two distinct philosophical orientations. The first is represented by those individuals who have desired a program that would represent the highly academic efforts of a select group of the best ministerial professionals in the country. It should be noted that such a program could only be offered at a select group of institutions which had sufficient resources. The other orientation is represented by those who sought a degree which would provide a means through which most clergy could further develop their practical, professional skills. An examination of the institutional literature would lead one to conclude that most schools are more closely aligned with the latter rather than the former. Also, it should be noted that within the context of each individual Doctor of Ministry program there are probably representatives of each viewpoint.

The end result is that over the past two decades there has not been a great deal of uniformity in institutional expectations regarding the type and quality of Doctor of Ministry projects. This lack of consistency has meant that the project process has sometimes been an occasion for frustration on the part of faculty and students alike.

But encouraging signs of improvement in this area are emerging. The newest Association of Theological School guidelines are much clearer, in terms of the Association's expectations, than earlier versions were. It also appears

that institutions are exerting greater effort to clarify their goals by providing seminars, workshops, and thorough project guidelines for students.

Generally speaking, what does the average project process involve? According to the students surveyed, it will take nearly two years to complete and will be between 100-200 pages long, with a computer having been used to produce it. It will be written in the author's home, and most of the writing will be done in the morning. Almost 500 hours will be spent in its preparation, and the after tuition expenses for the project will be approximately $2,000. The most difficult part of the process will be the preparation of the proposal, closely followed by difficulties in research. Nearly half of the projects will require some degree of revision prior to their final acceptance, and most will be considered by their authors as being beneficial to their ministry.

CHAPTER 2

PREPARING FOR THE PROJECT PROCESS

Having given consideration to the nature of the Doctor
of Ministry project, one must now begin to consider all that
is involved in the project process and initiate some
preliminary planning. This chapter will give consideration
to two matters of concern related to initial planning. The
first of these items relates to the individual process of
evaluating the pros and cons of pursuing the project
process. As a matter of good stewardship, candidates should
be willing to examine both the negative and positive factors
which pursuing the project would necessitate, and then
decide whether or not they should enter the fray. The first
portion of the chapter will address some of these pertinent
issues. The second aspect of the chapter is devoted to a
description of the various elements of the process which the
candidate may anticipate, and a discussion of some initial
planning and strategy which will assist in the preparation
of a successful project.

Evaluation of the Project Process

There are a number of concerns which each individual
needs to assess as they contemplate actually initiating the

project process. While there are many positive motivations
involved in completing a project like this, one would be
remiss not to also give thought to some of the negative
factors. These negative aspects will be considered first,
not with the intent of discouraging the candidate, but to
prepare them for the reality of the commitment they are
preparing to enter.

One of the first items is the recognition of the fact
that not everyone in the Doctor of Ministry program will
complete, or even begin, a dissertation project. This
phenomenon is not unique to the Doctor of Ministry degree.
Rather, it is a well known fact of academic life that a
fairly significant percentage of students enrolled in
doctoral programs will stop at the "all but dissertation",
or ABD stage of the program. Sternberg calculated that in
dissertation-required doctoral programs, covering twelve
major disciplines, only about forty-two percent of the
candidates are actually graduating[33]. The remainder stay
at the ABD status. He further estimates that the number of
ABDs generated by these programs during the 1980s would be
in excess of half a million students[34]. It is extremely
difficult to judge the accuracy of Sternberg's figures, as
statistical information regarding doctoral enrollments and

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[33]Sternberg, <u>How to Complete and Survive a Doctoral Dissertation</u>, 9.

[34]Ibid., 8.

completions is difficult to obtain. Educational
institutions appear to be very sensitive about releasing
information which reflects poorly on the school.

The figures seem to be somewhat better regarding
Doctor of Ministry students. Program directors estimate
that only about ten percent of those who have had their
proposal accepted do not complete the degree[35]. One must
also consider that there will be additional students who
will complete coursework but who will not even proceed to
the proposal stage before dropping out of the program, thus
expanding the ten percent figure considerably. Even so, the
same director's survey estimated that only about twenty-
three percent of the students who began the program did not
complete it[36]. Therefore even if all of these individuals
stopped at the ABD stage it would still be considerably
lower than Sternberg's figures for Ph.D. programs.

There are a number of reasons that might at least
partially explain why it is that such a large percentage of
candidates could progress so far and yet stop short of
completing their degree requirements. Many of the problems
are inherent in the character of the project itself. For
instance, perhaps the greatest problem is the fact that the

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[35]Jackson W. Carroll and Barbara G. Wheeler, Study of
Doctor of Ministry Programs, (Hartford: Auburn Theological
Seminary, 1987). Information noted on director's
questionnaire, page 10.

[36]Ibid., 169.

project process is a very individual, self-directed endeavor. Generally speaking, the very nature of coursework means that it is much more structured and programmed. In contrast, the project process requires an intense, lengthy period during which the student is personally responsible for deciding which part needs to be completed next, and when it needs to be ready. The task of motivating oneself for such an extended period in the midst of the time demands involved with most ministries is often perceived to be a lower priority, and therefore it is not pursued. More self discipline is required for this responsibility than for any other coursework in the program.

Another difficulty is the change in peer support that a project candidate must face. During coursework a student is surrounded by classmates who serve as an encouragement and motivation. But when approaching the project process one quickly realizes that this task will not have the same luxury of the peer support which was enjoyed during the coursework phase of the program. This is the academic equivalent of a solo voyage across the Atlantic Ocean. The question may then come to mind regarding the involvement of faculty in the process. After all, does not every institution require two or three advisors to assist the student? The obvious answer is yes, there are faculty members who will be responsible for facilitating the process. But the candidate cannot always expect the same

type of involvement which he received from faculty during the coursework phase. The candidate will have to realize that it will be his own responsibility to initiate much of the interpersonal communication which will be necessary. Generally speaking, the candidate will not have the luxury of waiting for the faculty member to open the communication doors.

Another hindrance is the reputation enjoyed by the project process, coupled with the candidate's feelings of inadequacy. The project's enormity and difficulty are often exaggerated and are therefore perceived as being disproportionate to the candidate's skill. Doctor of Ministry students, in particular, may feel that their academic background has not sufficiently prepared them for the types of research which may be required. Often, they will have a theological and ministry oriented background which will not have included much, if any, training in behavioral research. Therefore the candidates may in fact view themselves as unarmed Israelites facing the Philistine giant Goliath, rather than recognizing that when the task is broken down into smaller, manageable pieces, it readily becomes an achievable goal.

An additional consideration is the time investment that is required by the project process. On the average it will occupy nearly two years of a persons life, during which time approximately 500 hours of work will be invested. This

may mean 500 hours away from family, ministry, and from ones

own personal time. It will be the equivalent of three

months of full time work, and it represents an enormous

investment for any individual. Another investment which

must be considered is the financial one. The average

expenses incurred in the preparation of the project were

$1,876, not including tuition. This is the equivalent of

seventy-eight dollars a month over the two year period,

which is a sizeable chunk of many family budgets. And almost

fifty percent of those who completed projects had received

either very minimal financial assistance from their

sponsoring church, or they did not receive any support.

Therefore this financial factor may be a major

consideration. Any of these elements may result in various

levels of stress in individuals and should be given careful

consideration.

While it may seem that the only motivations related to

pursuing the project process are negative, such is not

really the case. There are indeed many positive motivations

that each candidate should consider as well. There is the

personal satisfaction of having completed the program and of

having attained the highest possible academic degree

available in your profession. Most graduates felt that

their own ministry was enhanced by the work which they

accomplished in their project. There is a feeling of

professional accomplishment, in addition to the personal

sense of pride. There may also be some extrinsic
motivations such as better salaries and more opportunities
for ministry.

Often, as one approaches the project process, there
may be an overwhelming sense of personal inadequacy. A
review of the negative factors discussed above might cause
one to wonder if there is really any reason to make the
decision to continue on with the project. But the purpose
of exposing the reader to these factors is not to discourage
them from the project, or to provide a ready-made set of
excuses for not completing the degree, but rather to provide
the necessary information so that they might make the best
possible decision. It is possible that students might
legitimately determine that the individual costs associated
with the project would be more than they could bear, and
they may stop at this point in their program. The decision
to proceed with the project or not is a personal choice
which each candidate must make for themselves.

However, the instances of individuals choosing to stop
at this point should be the rare exception, rather than the
rule. It is hoped that by providing this realistic look at
some of the elements involved, most candidates would
recognize that they are indeed able to accomplish such a
task, and that they will then decide to continue on with the
project process. The rewards that come with the completion
of the program, especially in terms of the benefit to

ministry and the personal gratification, may easily outweigh any of the negative elements. Having properly counted the costs, they are now prepared to put their hand to the plow and proceed with the task.

Major Components of the Project Process

At this point the candidate is prepared to view the major components of the project. There are basically five elements that are common to most projects. These are the project research, the selection of the topic, the preparation of the proposal, the writing of the main body, and the concluding steps of the project. This section will include a summary description of each of these stages.

Project research is an ongoing process that begins at the earliest stage of the project. Initially, it will mean doing a review of current literature to become aware of all that has been written pertaining to the potential topic. It will also require sufficient research for the candidate to become knowledgeable about the topic.

The topic stage is the phase at which the candidate chooses the subject that will serve as the focal point of the project. The determination of a successful topic will mean learning the best sources for a topic, and recognizing the attributes of a good topic. This is also the stage where the candidate will choose an advisor for the project.

The proposal stage is where the candidate, having chosen what he is confident will serve as a successful

topic, develops a detailed synopsis of what he proposes to do in the project. This is the stage where the candidate has to think through the entire project and make a presentation of this to the educational institution. The length requirements for proposals vary somewhat from institution to institution, and the means of presentation varies as well. But this is the point where one is forced to look clearly at what one hopes to accomplish with the project, and then articulates this strategy to others. Institutional approval must be received at this stage before the candidate can proceed to the next phase.

The next stage is where the candidate, having received approval for the proposal, continues to develop the proposed strategy. This stage will include additional hours of library research, the development and implementation of surveys, testing instruments, and practical experiments in ministry, and the actual writing of the main body of the paper.

In the final stage the candidate turns his attention toward the concluding elements involved. This will usually involve an oral defense of the project, where the candidate will have the project reviewed and questioned by a committee of people. Revisions may be required, or the project may be accepted in its presented form. Upon completion of this aspect the candidate will turn his attention to additional details including the printing and binding of the project.

A vita, and an abstract will also need to be prepared.

Preliminary Preparation for the Project Process

The candidate is now at the point of beginning preliminary preparation for the project. This will consist of some important decisions which will be necessary to prepare the candidate for the first major stage of the process. The assumption is that the candidate has made the decision to proceed with the project process.

One of the first major steps is for the candidate to familiarize himself with the institutional requirements pertaining to the project. This may include discussing the project with the director of the program, and it will probably also include a thorough examination of the institutional literature describing the Doctor of Ministry program. Some schools publish a separate project handbook, while others incorporate project guidelines into a more general publication. In some cases the requirements and expectations are very clearly spelled out, while in other instances the written desires are quite vague.

It is necessary to determine the style or type of research which is expected for the project. Some institutions prefer a very academic, research oriented project, while others place their emphasis on the project's practicality. Still others ask that the project be prepared in the style of a book manuscript. It is also important to know as many details as possible pertaining to the length of

the project, the required form which is to be followed, and whether any workshops or seminars are offered to assist the students in their preparation. Finally, the candidate must have a detailed understanding of the dates and deadline which will need to be met in the course of the process.

There is also a need for each individual to examine his personal resources and priorities in order to establish a realistic goal for the completion of the project. He needs to determine how many hours per week, over the next year or two, can be devoted to the project. This will necessitate discussing the situation with the spouse and other family members. This should also be discussed with the candidate's supporting ministry if it is perceived that the time commitment for the project will take away from time currently spent with the ministry. A foreknowledge of the amount of time which will be available may affect the candidate's choice of a topic later on in the process. It will also allow the candidate to plug this information into the school's timetable and forecast a date for the completion of the project.

It is also necessary to determine whether or not expenses related to the project will be paid for by the candidate or through another means. If it appears that the candidate will absorb the costs personally, then he must determine how much can be budgeted for the project. This may have an impact on the topic and the type of project

which the candidate chooses to do.

It will also be helpful, even in these early stages, to prepare a project office. This will allow the candidate to determine where he will do the bulk of his writing. It should be as private as possible so that interruptions will be minimal. It should also be fairly accessible to the candidate. A designated office twenty miles away may discourage the candidate from feeling motivated on occasion to go spend some time writing. It should be stocked with adequate supplies. If a computer and word processing software are to be used for the project, are they currently available or will they need to be purchased? Is the space large enough to allow for fairly comfortable work? It is ideal if this space is dedicated to the project so that materials can remain undisturbed. If someone is writing in two-hour blocks of time every day for instance, but has to get everything out and set it up each time, then he is going to feel that half of his time is spent getting materials out and putting them away. This may soon become a discouragement. The goal is to have an environment that is conducive to research and writing, rather than a hindrance.

An additional note may be worth mentioning to those who anticipate using ministry space or personnel to assist in the project. For example, pastors may assume that the church secretary will do all of their typing for them. Make sure that the supporting ministry, in this instance a

church, is aware of the plan and is supportive of it. While
one might view this as a natural part of the secretary's job
description, there may well be an elder or member who will
disagree. Some good communication regarding this point may
avoid some hurt feelings along the way.

The final step in this early preparation is to set up
a broad timeline that will cover from the anticipated date
of the beginning of the project, to the proposed date of
completion. Begin by determining a proposed date for
completing the project. Then work backwards from that date
and plug in all of the known dates required by the
institution. Insert the dates for the seminars or workshops
and see whether or not these time elements will fit into the
proposed time frame. In addition, Davis states that you can
anticipate spending perhaps one-third of your time choosing
a topic and preparing a proposal, one-third doing research
and analysis, and the remainder of the total time doing
writing, editing, and proofing[37]. Utilize these broad
guidelines in your timeline as well.

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[37]Davis, <u>Writing the Doctoral Dissertation: A Systematic
Approach</u>, 21.

CHAPTER 3

SHARPENING LIBRARY RESEARCH SKILLS

Subsequent to the commitment to enter into the project
process, but prior to the choice of a topic, the candidate
should give consideration to the potential research that
will be necessary for his project. For the sake of
simplifying matters, this paper will divide project related
research into the two distinct categories of library
research and behavioral research. It will be the goal of
this chapter to assist Doctor of Ministry students in their
library research.

Throughout the academic careers of most individuals,
from elementary school through graduate school, students
have had some degree of exposure to academic libraries.
However, not all of these library experiences proved to be
rewarding, or even pleasant, particularly as the academic
demands increased. There are many possible explanations as
to why library experiences related to academic endeavors
have not always had effective results. Libraries, and
library materials, tend to be organized in a complex manner.
They often contain such an overwhelming amount of material,
and so many different ways of accessing it, that users
become quickly discouraged. Even between individual

libraries there are many differences. The end result is that occasional users often find themselves frustrated and less than enthusiastic about the prospect of a trip to a research library. Badke observes that ". . . most college students experience stress when approaching a library."[37]

Even Doctor of Ministry students are not immune to some of these symptoms, and yet they recognize that every project will require some degree of library research. The average response of those surveyed stated that 137 hours was spent on their Doctor of Ministry projects in the performance of some type of library research. How then can these hours be best, and most fruitfully, invested by the candidate preparing their project?

It is this author's opinion that two ingredients are necessary to assist Doctor of Ministry candidates in their library research. First of all, they need to have at least a basic understanding of the library's organization and the resources available to them. Secondly, as suggested by Badke, they need to be able to ". . . plan a systematic strategy for library research."[38] This chapter will attempt to assist candidates regarding each of these aspects. This will not be an effort to respond to the needs of library users in other disciplines. The focus here will

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[37]William B. Badke, The Survivor's Guide to library Research (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 1990) 11.

[38]Ibid.

be directed almost entirely towards the needs of the Doctor
of Ministry candidates.

Library Organization and Resources

Most academic libraries offer two basic types of
materials, namely books and periodicals. Often, in addition
to their being available in paper formats, libraries will
also have one or both of these types of materials in micro-
form. Other types of materials that may be available at
some libraries include films, recordings, maps, and
individual kits of materials.

Libraries then organize these materials according to
their type. Usually the library user will find the
periodical collection, the general book collection, the
reference book collection, audio/visual materials, and
microform materials located in different parts of the
library. Academic libraries usually offer tours or other
information to interested individuals describing the
individual library's organization, hours of operation, and
other policies. Candidates are encouraged to familiarize
themselves with their institution's library at a very early
stage in their studies.

Each of the types of material are classified within
their own area according to a particular system, based on
their subject content. Each title is assigned a unique
combination of letters and numbers, known as a call number.
Determined by the classification system used, the call

number tells the patron where the volume is located in the library's collection. Depending on the library, one of three classification systems may possibly be found.

The most common system is the Library of Congress Classification system, which is employed by most large academic libraries. In this system, the assigned classification begins with one or two letters which describe the general subject content. For example, the letter B indicates the realm of philosophy or religion. The letter D indicates history, L indicates education, M indicates music, and so on. This letter may be followed by a second letter, which narrows the subject matter even further. For instance, BS would indicate works on the Bible, BT would indicate doctrinal theology, and so on.

A series of numbers serves to refine the volume's subject even further. A number beginning with BS1160 would indicate a volume dealing with the criticism and interpretation of the Old Testament, while BT380 would represent Christ's Sermon on the Mount. These are usually followed by other numbers and letters which represent further refinement of the subject, and identification of the author. Volumes are then placed on the shelves in their alpha-numeric order, based on the call number.

The next most common classification system is the Dewey Decimal system. This system is most often used by libraries of less than 100,000 volumes. Rather than

beginning with letters, this system begins the call number with a numerical designation. For instance, the 200s represent the philosophy and religion area. Additional numbers and letters further identify the particular volume. Materials are again shelved in the order of their alpha-numeric call number.

A third system is the Union Theological Seminary classification system, which was designed specifically for use by religion libraries. This system utilizes an alphabetical beginning to its call number, although different from the Library of Congress system. This system is used by only a few libraries.

Once organized, materials may be accessed through several different means. For book materials, the major source for accessing these materials once they have been classified is the card catalog. Within the card catalog are cards identifying each volume in the collection according to a predetermined access point. Access points include the title, the author, the subject headings which have been assigned to the work, and possibly the series to which the work belongs. Depending on the volume, a single book may have ten or more cards available for use as access points in finding that particular work. Sometimes all of these access points are interfiled. In other libraries however, a user may need to look in a subject catalog, where all of the subject headings representing that volume are filed. Or

they may need to look in the author/title catalog, where all
non-subject access points are filed.

Automated catalogs are becoming quite common in
academic libraries and have had a tremendous impact on the
satisfaction experienced by users searching for materials.
With the standard card catalog one would need to know the
author's correct name, or the proper subject heading, or all
the words in the title. But with the automated catalog one
may search for any word in a subject or title or series and
still locate materials successfully. Also, searches are
done much more quickly, and all searches can be made from
the same spot without having to wander around and check
individual drawers. Bibliographies may be printed at the
terminal, and with some systems users may browse the shelves
from the computer terminal.

Accessing periodicals is somewhat different. Though a
card or automated catalog may tell you whether or not a
periodical title is owned by the library, you are not able
to look for periodical articles or subjects from there.
Instead, the information in these materials must be accessed
through a periodical index. Periodical indexes are usually
subject specific paper indexes in which an individual may
search for either an author or a subject. A number of
periodical indexes are available that will be helpful for
Doctor of Ministry students.

In the field of religion there are some very fine

indexes. Perhaps the most frequently used is the Religion Index One, published by the American Theological Library Association. This set indexes articles in major religious magazines going all the way back to 1949. At that time it was titled the Index to Religious Periodical Literature, changing to its current name in 1977[39]. Up until 1985 this title included indexes for subjects, authors, and book reviews, but since that time has only included the subject index[40]. This is undoubtedly the most comprehensive, general index for the field of religion.

Another helpful index in this field is the former Elenchus Bibliographicus, currently titled Elenchus of Biblica. The focus of this very scholarly index is in the area of biblical studies and it includes a large number of foreign language works. The drawback to using this volume is that it is usually a couple of years behind in its indexing, and it is much more cumbersome to use than Religion Index One.

Other helpful indexes found in many libraries include PsychAbstracts, Education Index, E.R.I.C., and Social Science Index. All of these index periodicals which publish articles dealing with the types of issues that are often relevant to the ministry.

Just as the computer age has greatly enhanced the

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[39]Ibid., 50.

[40]Ibid., 51.

search for book materials, it has also revolutionized the access to periodical materials. With paper periodical indexes a library user needs to search each year's volume for a particular subject heading. Information related to articles then needs to be copied down by hand. The process can be dreadfully time consuming.

But with computerized indexes, either as on-line systems or in CD-ROM format, the search is much easier. By inputting a single search heading the user may search multiple years at once. Also, search headings may be combined for even greater efficiency. On-line searches are billed at various rates, dependent upon the hourly cost for a particular database, the number of items found, and the format in which they are printed out. Fortunately, Religion Index is one of the least expensive databases to search, and can save a user scores of hours of labor. Larger academic libraries should have the capability to perform on-line searches, and many will have them available in a CD-ROM format.

There are some additional tools which should also be mentioned at this point. Many book materials are often collections of lengthy articles compiled under a single title, and with a single editor. Often, access to these individual articles is not available through either a card catalog, or most periodical indexes. However, in the area of religion there is an excellent tool designed especially

to assist in accessing these types of articles. It is
titled Religion Index Two, and is also published by the
American Theological Library Association.

This same association also publishes another fine work
which is tremendously helpful to Doctor of Ministry
Students. Published annually, it is called Research in
Ministry, and is an index to Doctor of Ministry projects.
Brief abstracts accompany the author and title information.
This an excellent tool to browse for topic ideas, or to
determine if other projects have covered similar material to
the one the candidate wishes to pursue. Along the same
lines, many projects are contained in the Dissertation
Abstracts index. This is available on-line, or in a paper
format, and a user can locate projects in this index as
well. Libraries also house previously completed Doctor of
Ministry projects done by graduates of their institution.
It will be helpful to look through these.

A seldom used but very useful tool is the Subject
Guide to Books in Print. Published annually by Bowker
Publishers as a part of the Books in Print set, this tool
contains a thorough subject listing of all books published
for that year. Most major religious publishers works are
listed here, as well as all other major U.S. publishers.

Candidates should be aware of the number of additional
services offered by libraries. One of the biggest of these
is referred to as Interlibrary Loan. This is the service

through which the candidate's library is able to borrow
periodical or book materials from other libraries. Given
sufficient time, libraries can obtain most materials which
students need through this service. In addition, reference
librarians are usually available to assist in locating
sources of information, and may even help in the shaping of
a topic. Also, many libraries provide copiers, typewriters,
and sometimes even word processors for student use.

At the Liberty University Library, Doctor of Ministry
students have access to nearly all of these aforementioned
materials and services. In addition, this library also has
over 200 projects from other institutions available in
microfiche. If a specific author or title is known,
students may identify the project's location in the card
catalog. A listing of these projects, complete with a
subject index is located in the seminary's project handbook.

Candidates may also access the library's automated
catalog from the convenience of their personal computer.
All they need is an IBM compatible computer, communications
software, a modem, and a brief set of instructions which are
available from the library. Candidates may also request
books, computer searches, and periodical literature by
simply contacting the library via either the telephone or
postal services.

Library Search Strategies

Once aware of the materials and services available,

the candidate needs to develop a strategy for utilizing these services. The following four-step strategy is recommended.

To assist in the search for a topic, the candidate should browse the above sources in which projects are found. The focus should be to gain a familiarity with the type of topics being completed for projects. When some potential topics are chosen, these sources should be consulted to determine if other projects have covered the same material.

Secondly, once a topic is chosen, the candidate needs to do a literature review to see what research is available to help with their particular project. The various periodical indexes and book catalog should be utilized for this. A brief sample of these materials should be gathered and read to assist the candidate in determining the scope and direction that should be utilized for his project. Enough material should be gathered and read to allow the candidate to complete his proposal. A summary of this research should be incorporated into the proposal, and usually even into the project. This allows readers of the work to have an understanding of the broad range of literature available on the topic. Citations located, but not yet gathered, may be incorporated into the proposal bibliography.

Once the proposal is approved the candidate is ready to gather the remaining materials from the initial research.

In addition, these materials may refer to other source
materials and these should also be gathered and read. Try
to read intelligently, that is, read thoroughly the
essential works or parts of works that are related directly
to the project. Other materials may only need to be
skimmed. It may be helpful to use an index card, so that as
each item is read one may make any necessary notations for
later reference.

Now the candidate may prepare the initial outline for
writing the project, and plug his research into its place in
the outline. If areas of the outline appear to be light, in
terms of significant research gathered, now is the time to
re-research these areas. All notecards made as the reading
was done should also be assigned to their place in the
outline. The majority of the library related research will
be done at this point. Some new materials may be located
throughout the process, but these should be minimal.

CHAPTER 4

DEVELOPING BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE RESEARCH SKILLS

Certain factors will have an impact on the type of
project that candidates will be able to complete. For
instance, financial restrictions, time limitations, or even
something as simple as a lack of sufficient library
resources could limit one's topic choice.

Another factor which may play a part in determining a
topic is the type of research methodology that the topic
might require. Davies observes that ". . . thesis research
will generally involve observation of, and possible
experimentation in, the parish or other pastoral
situation."[41] While Doctor of Ministry candidates often
have a background that allows them to excel in research
related to biblical and theological issues, they may be less
experienced in issues related to social or behavioral
research. Indeed, twenty-five percent of those surveyed
stated that project related research was the most difficult
part of their project.

Therefore, candidates need to examine the potential
types of research which a topic may require in light of
their own educational background and training. They may

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[41]Davies, Handbook for Doctor of Ministry Projects, 1.

then recognize that certain forms of research are not suitable to their training, and that topics which may necessitate these types of research should be avoided.

When considering behavioral or social science research it will be helpful for the candidate to understand the three major steps related to it. The first step is the development of the research design for the project. This involves an understanding of the two predominant approaches to research, and the major types of research that will be most beneficial for Doctor of Ministry projects. The second step involves the collection of research data. This includes understanding the principles for sampling, and the techniques which are involved in gathering data. The third category involves the analysis and reporting of the data. This chapter will review each of these elements.

Developing a Research Design

In developing the research design for the project, the candidate needs to be aware of two aspects of the design. The first aspect may not seem very practical because it addresses the philosophical approaches to research in the social sciences. But it is important for the candidate to have an awareness of these approaches. Then, once the candidate understands the basic philosophical approaches, he will be ready to begin the analysis of the general types of research that may be utilized in the preparation of a project.

Research Approaches

Brewer relates what she considers to be the two basic approaches that are characteristic of social science research. The first is research that is ". . . applied, problem driven observation in field settings."[42] The second is research that is ". . . basic, knowledge-driven experiments in the laboratory."[43] While various terminology is often used to describe the different approaches to social science research, these very basic divisions by Brewer remain quite accurate.

In other words, there are approaches to research which at their very core consist of the observation of subjects, usually in their natural setting, with the goal of observing, and analyzing what exists[44]. This type of research is sometimes described as correlational[45], descriptive[46], or naturalistic observation[47]. For the

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[42]Marilynn B. Brewer, "Experimental research and Social Policy: Must It Be Rigor Versus Relevance?," <u>Journal of Social Issues</u> 41 (1985): 160.

[43]Ibid.

[44]Clifford J. Drew, and Michael L. Hardman, <u>Designing and Conducting Behavioral Research</u> (New York: Pergamon Press, 1985), 25.

[45]Paul C. Cozby, <u>Methods in Behavioral Research</u> (Palo Alto: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1977), 31-39.

[46]Balian, <u>How to Design, Analyze, and Write Doctoral or Master's Research</u>, 87.

[47]Lawrence S. Meyers and Neal E. Grossen, <u>Behavioral Research: Theory, Procedure, and Design</u>, (San Francisco: W.H. Freeman, 1974), 95.

purposes of this paper it will be referred to as
observational research. Subjects are observed, data is
collected and analyzed, and conclusions are then drawn.

On the other hand, there are the approaches that are
usually described as some type of experimental research.
Experimental research involves the observation of subjects,
usually in a controlled environment, with certain variables
of the study being manipulated by the researcher in order to
determine the effects on the subjects[48].

A perusal of titles of Doctor of Ministry projects
would lead one to understand that most will not be based on
experimental research, but will fall instead under the
category of observational, or descriptive research. These
are projects that will include some type of observation of
people and programs, and will have conclusions supported by
an analysis of the data collected during the observation.
On the other hand, in the context of local ministry it will
be difficult to develop control groups and the environment
necessary to perform what would technically be considered as
experimental research. Therefore it is utilized less
frequently.

Some caution flags need to be waved as the candidate
considers research design. The first flag is in relation to
the matter of the ethical issues which may be involved in
research. An example which would explain this warning would

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[48]Drew, <u>Designing and Conducting Behavioral Research</u>, 21.

be a potential experimental research design in which a
researcher desired to determine the effect of a warm,
nurturing environment on children. To have validity, the
research would need to include groups of children who would
be exposed to such an environment, as well as a control
group who would have this environment withheld from them.
The researcher must answer the question of the ethics of the
decision to intentionally deprive someone of something for
the sake of research. Ministers of the Gospel need to be
especially sensitive concerning this matter.

A second warning is in regard to what is known in
research as the Hawthorne effect. A study done in a Western
Electric plant in 1939 found that every change increased
group productivity. If lighting were increased, then
productivity also increased. But if lighting were reduced,
then the productivity still increased. Simply the fact that
a change occurred was sufficient to cause an increase in
productivity[49]. In a pastoral setting one should always be
careful to keep in mind the tendency of a congregation to
desire to please their pastor. For instance, responses to a
particular program might be higher when done as the pastor's
Doctor of Ministry project, than if done at another time or
under other circumstances.

Research Types

Once an adequate understanding of the different

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[49]Davies, <u>Handbook for Doctor of Ministry Projects</u>, 3-4.

research approaches has been attained, the candidate will be prepared to begin consideration of the various research types. One very useful research type is the program evaluation.[50] Program evaluation consists of the measurement of a program's effectiveness against its desired goals. This is one of the most frequently utilized types of research employed in the preparation of projects.[51]

For example, a minister may be interested in developing an innovative method for teaching the book of Proverbs to a single adult Sunday School class. The minister might begin by developing a set of goals which should be reached through this method. Then, after a predetermined period of time, evaluations would be done to determine the extent to which the program had met the desired goals.

Another popular research type is the case study. The case study is ". . . an in-depth investigation of a single instance."[52] A case study is a proper approach to utilize when it is not possible to gather before and after information, or when a controlled experiment is not possible.[53] Becausof its ability to ". . . emphasize the

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[50]Ibid., 9.

[51]Ibid.

[52]Sommer, <u>A Practical Guide to Behavioral Research: Tools and Techniques</u>, 103.

[53]Ibid.

individuality and uniqueness of the participants and the setting"[54], it is a very useful approach to utilize in a ministry setting, where so much emphasis is placed on individual people[55].

A potential opportunity for a case study might be to investigate the effects of a revival on the church body. Not knowing that an outbreak of revival was forthcoming, a researcher might have a difficult time gathering pre-revival data. After the fact however, it would be possible to observe the people involved and determine the revival's effects.

A third potential research type for a project is an observational type which Davies refers to as survey research[56]. While survey techniques may be used in almost every type of research, it is also possible to design a project that consists entirely of various survey types. Davies defines this type of research as ". . . the basic counting and tabulation of opinions, knowledge, and objective facts."[57] A project designed to determine the

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[54]Ibid., 104.

[55]Davies, Handbook for Doctor of Ministry Projects, 27. Davies views the case study less in terms of when the research takes place in relation to the phenomenon, and more in terms of the unit which is being researched. Whereas a program evaluation might focus specifically on an actual program, the case study focusses on a particular social unit. It is this writer's opinion that Sommers' distinction is more suitable.

[56]Ibid., 20-26.

[57]Ibid., 20.

attitudes of parishioners towards their church's involvement in community politics might be an instance in which this type of research design would be useful.

A type of experimental research, which Davies refers to as "Treatment Effects"[58], may also be a potential design for a project. As mentioned earlier, most research types utilized in Doctor of Ministry projects will be one of the observational types of research. But in some instances it may be possible to utilize a type of experimental research such as the treatment effect method.

This method consist of taking several similar groups, doing something different with each of them, and then observing the results. Or another method might be to establish different groups, do the same thing to them and compare the results[59].

The key to this type of research is to have some type of a control group which is not being affected by the variables in the study[60]. This allows the researcher to determine whether changes in the groups were the results of the variables applied, or if they would have occurred anyway.

In a ministry setting there are a number of potential uses for this research design. A minister may be

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[58]Ibid., 14-20.

[59]Ibid., 14.

[60]Ibid., 15.

considering a change in his approach to counseling marital conflicts. He could then divide the potential counseling candidates into two similar groups. One of these groups would continue with the present counseling approach and would serve as the control group for the study. Then, utilizing the other approach to counseling, the same minister would counsel the second group. At the end of a predetermined period of time the minister would then evaluate the two groups and analyze the differences in their responses to the different counseling methods.

These four aforementioned research types represent some, though not all, of the most suitable research designs for Doctor of Ministry projects. In some instances these designs may be combined, while in others an entirely different approach may be used. Candidates should take care to choose a design that will best answer the research question and which is suitable to their own personal experience and ability.

Collecting Research Data

Once the research design is determined, the candidate begins the two-fold task of collecting the research data. The first part of this stage, prior to deciding what tools to use, is to determine who should be approached in the information gathering process. The second part of this task is to ascertain the research tools and techniques which will be utilized in the project. These are the tools and

techniques which will be used by the researcher in the observation of subjects and the collection of research data. Those which will be utilized most frequently in the preparation of projects include the questionnaire, interview, rating scales, and standardized tests[61].

Sampling Guidelines

A minister in a large church would have a difficult time distributing a survey and compiling the results if it were sent to every member of the congregation. Fortunately, for research purposes every individual does not need to be sampled. Instead, the candidate may choose a representative sample from the congregation, and then test this sample. There are some guidelines that should be followed however, in choosing the sample.

First of all, the size of the sample should be representative in relation to the size of the whole congregation, which in statistical terminology is referred to as the population. But how many are required to be a good representation? Unfortunately, this is not always easy to determine. Kraemer's volume is a good example of attempts to provide a methodology for determining statistically valid sample sizes[62]. But even though

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[61]Sommer, A Practical Guide to Behavioral Research: Tools and Techniques. Various chapters throughout Sommer's book are used to develop these, and other, techniques.

[62]Helena Chmura Kraemer and Sue Theimann, How Many Subjects? Statistical Power Analysis in Research, (Newbury Park: Sage Publications, 1987).

directed towards a non-statistician audience[63], the
concepts discussed here may be difficult to grasp for those
who do not have a strong mathematical background.

Balian states that "The fact is, in the majority of
cases, sample sizes are derived from either previous
studies, mentor recommendations, or budgetary
constraints."[64] The larger the sample, the more accurate it
will be, but the greater will also be the time and expense
involved in doing the research. Doctor of Ministry
candidates, in particular, may find themselves constrained
by issues such as these, and will have to limit sample sizes
accordingly. Perhaps the best rule of thumb to be offered
for project research is to attempt to survey the largest
possible sample within the confines of the aforementioned
constraints.

Secondly, the sociological makeup of the sample needs
to be representative of the population. If forty percent of
the population are low-income males over fifty years of age,
then the sample should be have a similar representation.
The more representative the sample is of the characteristics
of the whole population, then the more accurate the survey
results will be.

How then should the sample be chosen? At least four

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[63]Ibid., 17.

[64]Balian, How to Design, Analyze, and Write Doctoral or Master's Research, 185.

potential methods exist for choosing samples. The first is

a random sample, where ". . . every member of the population

has an equal chance of being selected".[65]   This might be

accomplished through a technique as simple as pulling names

out of a hat, or as sophisticated as utilizing a table of

random numbers. These lists are often included in

statistics manuals.[66] These random numbers are assigned to

names, and then a sample is chosen.

Another method is the stratified sample. In this

method the candidate will first need to determine the

relevant characteristics of the population. Individuals are

then chosen randomly within each of the categories.

According to Sommer, ". . . each category in the sample

appears in the same percentage as in the population."[67]

This may be a good approach in a ministry context, as a

minister may well be able to determine this type of

information and then identify a truly representative sample.

An additional method is the quota sample[68], or what

Drew refers to as proportional sampling[69]. With this

method the researcher identifies select characteristics that

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[65]Ibid., 186.

[66]A sample table is included in Sommer's volume on page
245.

[67]Ibid., 187.

[68]Ibid, 188.

[69]Drew, Designing and Conducting Behavioral Research, 165.

are considered essential to the survey. A random sample is then drawn from a list of those possessing these characteristics. Balian refers to a final method which he describes as cluster sampling[70]. This method is used ". . . for collecting data from a large geographic area."[71] Samples are drawn from representative clusters within the larger geographic boundaries.

Research Techniques

The successful researcher will also need to determine the most appropriate research technique (or techniques) to utilize in the collection of data. One of the most helpful tools for collecting data is the questionnaire. "A questionnaire is a series of written questions on a topic about which the respondent's written opinions are sought."[72] A unique characteristic of this tool is that it allows the researcher to study behavior that cannot be observed or experimented upon directly[73]. With its help candidates may accurately determine attitudes, feelings, and

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[70]Balian, How to Design, Analyze, and Write Doctoral or Master's Research, 171.

[71]Ibid.

[72]Ibid., 65. Sommers views the questionnaire as a specific research type, such as the program evaluation, case study, et.al.. But it is this writer's opinion that the questionnaire would not be a suitable research design for a Doctor of Ministry project. It could certainly, however, be incorporated into the research design as a technique for collecting data. In fact, this will be one of the most useful tools available.

[73]Ibid.

other factors within their congregation. These elements
would be difficult to gather apart from a technique such as
the questionnaire. If properly constructed, the
questionnaire will tend to be easier to score than the other
data gathering devices.

The first step in constructing a questionnaire is to
familiarize oneself with the entire range of activities
related to the topic. Neglecting this step could cause the
candidate to overlook pertinent questions related to the
research. For instance, a pastor may be interested in
measuring the effectiveness of the church's senior adult
ministry. Neglecting to familiarize oneself with all of the
elements of that ministry might result in the construction
of a questionnaire that would not contain any questions
related to the senior adult ministry to shut-ins. A major
omission such as this may go undiscovered until after the
questionnaires have been distributed. It could also cause
the survey results to be viewed with some suspicion.

Questions can be constructed as either open or closed
questions. In an open question the respondent writes out
their own answer, while in a closed question the respondent
chooses from a number of potential answers which are
provided by the researcher. This type of question is more
commonly known as a multiple choice question. Sommer lists
a number of helpful criteria for choosing between the open

and closed type of question[74].

The two most important goals to strive for in the construction of a questionnaire are clarity and brevity. The more effort required to complete and return the questionnaire to the candidate, the less likely it is to be returned. Try to keep the total length to one page or less. Also, try not to use very many open ended questions. They generally require greater effort to answer, and therefore are less likely to be completed. Researchers should ask themselves, "If I received this questionnaire in my mail today, would I take the time to complete it?". Also strive to express the questions very clearly. Try not to use words or language which could be understood in a number of different ways. Once a draft of the questionnaire has been completed, distribute a few copies to advisors, readers, and other friends, and ask for their evaluation. Do not be surprised if the questionnaire goes through a number of revisions before it is ready to distribute.

A tool which is similar to the questionnaire is the interview. Perhaps the major difference between the two is that the interview presents the questions in an oral format, rather than in a written one. Interviews are more time consuming, and can be more difficult to score. This is due to the fact that respondents to an oral questionnaire may tend to ramble in their answers and lose focus of the

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[74]Ibid., 65.

question[75].

However, if the group to be surveyed is not too large, the interview is a good method to use for topics that are ". . . complex and emotionally loaded."[76] For example, if a pastor were doing a case study to determine the spiritual impact caused by a church split, then a number of interviews might provide better information than would the same number of questionnaires. The interview will allow the researcher to have better access to people's attitudes and emotions.

Another helpful tool for evaluating aspects of ministry is the rating scale. "Rating scales are used to rank people's judgements of objects, events, or other people from low to high or from poor to good."[77] Rating scales may be used in conjunction with other tools, for instance, as part of a questionnaire or interview.

Rating scales can be constructed in a number of different ways. A person may be given a line with only the end-points and the mid-point identified. On this scale, called a graphic rating scale, the individual marks the place on the line that would best correlate to their opinion[78]. In an interval scale, the respondent chooses

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[75]Ibid., 63.

[76]Ibid., 81.

[77]Ibid., 135.

[78]Ibid.

between graded intervals of letters, numbers, or adjectives[79]. For instance, a respondent might be asked to rank their perception of the effectiveness of the morning sermon. They might be asked to choose a number between one and ten, with ten being very effective and one meaning that it was not effective at all.

A third scale is a comparative scale, where a respondent might be asked to compare one item (or person) with a similar object or person[80]. A question might be phrased, "Based on all of the Sunday morning sermons which you have heard from this pastor, would you rank this morning's sermon in the top one percent, five percent, twenty percent, fifty percent, or bottom fifty percent?".

Rating scales may also be used to determine attitudes. Balian refers to these as Likert-type scales[81]. A respondent may be given a statement such as "The pastor's recent sermon series on joy was very helpful to me personally". The respondent would then choose between: I strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, or strongly disagree. When an attitude scale like this is used, a candidate may want to consider giving the instrument out a second time to determine if similar responses are given both

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[79]Ibid., 136.

[80]Ibid.

[81]Balian, How to Develop, Analyze, and Write Doctoral or Master's Research, 144.

times. This helps establish the validity of the scale.

A fifth scale is referred to as a ranking scale[82]. In this method the respondent is asked to rank a set of items from the highest to the lowest priority. When utilized, no more than seven items should be contained in the list[83].

In some cases a candidate may want to take advantage of some of the standardized tests and scales which have already been developed by other researchers. Because instruments can be difficult and time consuming to construct, this is an important option to contemplate. For instance, a minister wanting to measure spiritual gifts as a part of a project may want to utilize the spiritual gifts inventory instrument developed by the Church Growth Institute[84].

Another source is a bibliography compiled by William Silverman. Entitled "Bibliography of Measurement Techniques Used in the Social Scientific Study of Religion"[85], it is a very useful resource. Periodicals such as Journal for the

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[82]Ibid., 149.

[83]Ibid.

[84]The Church Growth Institute publishes and sells many helpful materials related to church growth. The Spiritual Gift Inventory is one of the materials produced by this ministry. Further information regarding this and other materials may be received by calling (804) 525-0022.

[85]William Silverman, "Bibliography of Measurement Techniques Used in the Social Scientific Study of Religion", Psychological Documents, 1983. (Ms. #2539). This is available in microfiche format from Select Press, P.O. Box 37, Corte Mandera, CA 94925, for $7.50.

Scientific Study of Religion, and the Review of Religious
Research, may provide some more recent instruments.

Analyzing and Reporting Research Data

Once the research has been designed and the data has
been collected, the candidate will begin the process of
analyzing and reporting the results of the research. The
most common method for evaluating research results is
through statistical analysis. Balian describes statistical
analysis as ". . . an objective tool for researchers to use
in measuring their findings and comparing them both to their
expectations and past results."[86] For the Doctor of
Ministry candidate this will be the tool through which
survey results may best be analyzed.

Essentially, there are two types of statistics. They
may be descriptive statistics, which means that they are
statistics that are being used to describe the data[87]. Or,
they may be inferential statistics, which are statistics
that are used ". . . to test the data and then make
objective inferences to a population"[88].

There are numerous examples of descriptive statistics
which may be used in the analysis and reporting of data.
Three of these represent various ways of reporting averages.

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[86]Balian, How to Design, Analyze, and Write Doctoral or
Master's Reaearch, 197.

[87]Ibid., 204.

[88]Ibid., 210.

One of these averages is referred to as the mean, which is the arithmetic average of all the scores[89]. The mean is determined by adding all of the scores together, and then dividing this total by the total number of scores. A second average is the median, which is the : ". . . midpoint of the distribution when all of the scores are arranged from highest to lowest. Half of the scores fall above the median and half below."[90] The third type of average is the mode, which is the score which appears most frequently in the results.

Sometimes the researcher may want to report the variances in scores, in which case the results may be reported as the range or the standard deviation. The range is simply ". . . the difference between the highest and lowest scores in a distribution."[91] The standard deviation is the degree of variance of the average scores from the mean. A very small standard deviation means that there is little variance among scores, while a large standard deviation implies that scores are greatly spread out.

Sometimes, project research will involve testing two or more groups and then analyzing the differences in the score results. In this realm of inferential statistics, it

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[89]Sommer, A Practical Guide to Behavioral Research: Tools and Techniques, 199.

[90]Ibid., 201.

[91]Drew, Designing and Conducting Behavioral Research, 243.

is important to be able to report data in terms of its correlation, analysis of variance (ANOVA), probability, and level of significance.

In most cases, it is this author's opinion that candidates should avoid utilizing inferential statistics in their projects. The reason is simply that only a candidate with a solid statistical background will be able to properly utilize these complex concepts and methods. Therefore, unless the educational institution either prepares the candidate personally through coursework in this discipline, or perhaps even provides faculty or staff assistance specifically related to the utillization of inferential statistics, then the topic should be chosen and the project designed in such a way as to minimize the use of this type of statistical analyis.

CHAPTER 5

SELECTING THE TOPIC

The next, and one of the most difficult elements in the project process, is the selection of a viable topic for the project. The goal of this chapter is to provide the candidate with the strategy for choosing a successful topic. A number of criteria must be considered as the candidate seeks a topic which will be personally satisfying, beneficial to ministry, and which will fulfill the requirements of the educational institution. The focus of this section will be directed towards enabling the student to recognize and evaluate these criteria.

A four-step process will be utilized to insure the candidate's choice of a successful topic. The first step is a three stage process which will assist the candidate in the identification of potential topics. The next step will be to utilize the topic rating chart to evaluate each of the topics, with the highest scoring topic being the logical choice for the project. The next part of the process will be to further refine the chosen topic, and the final step consists of the presentation of the topic to the educational institution. This last stage includes choosing an advisor to oversee the project process. Also, Appendix Three of

this project is a topic checklist which has been developed
and included to assist the candidate in visualizing the
process. By utilizing this checklist one may avoid missing
any of the necessary elements of the topic phase of the
project.

Prior to the description of this process, which
essentially answers the question of how to determine a
topic, it will be necessary to examine two additional
questions. The first of these concerns the definition of
the topic. What exactly is this elusive and difficult
aspect of the project?

In general terms, the topic of a paper is the subject
regarding which the paper is written. But when approaching
the project one must be more specific and begin to think of
the topic in terms of a research problem or question. The
solution or answer to this will serve as the focus of the
project. The candidate needs to be looking for a specific
idea or problem that can eventually be refined into a thesis
statement and a problem to be solved.

A second question pertains to the matter of when the
search for a topic, representing the initial step in the
project process, should be initiated. Ideally, the process
should begin as early as possible in the candidates'
doctoral studies. This will allow the candidates to tailor
their choice of course electives to subjects which will be
of assistance in the project. The later candidates wait to

begin the process and make a firm decision regarding the
choice of a topic, the less they will be able to correlate
the coursework to the project. Rather than approaching the
Doctor of Ministry degree with the philosophy that the
project is simply a big paper tacked on at the end of the
program, the candidates should approach the degree with the
mindset that everything in the program is to build towards,
and contribute to, the project. At Liberty Baptist
Theological Seminary the student is required to submit a
project topic upon completion of the two required
orientation seminars[92], thus allowing the candidate to make
the most use of their coursework in developing their
project.

<p align="center">Identifying Potential Topics</p>

As previously mentioned, three elements are involved
in the process of identifying potential topics. These
include the evaluation of institutional requirements,
recognition of essential topic elements, and sources from
which potential topics may be gleaned. At the completion of
this step the candidate will have narrowed the field to
three or four plausible topic choices.

<p align="center">Evaluating Institutional Requirements</p>

As previously mentioned, three elements are involved
in the process of choosing potential topics. In this first

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[92]Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary, Doctor of Ministry
Student Handbook, n.d., 4.

phase, the evaluation of institutional requirements, it will be the student's responsibility to determine both the type of topic which will suit the seminary's expectations and the time limits which the student will have to abide by during the project process. It may not be as simple as one would expect to determine the type of project that is expected at a given educational institution. In some instances it may be that the schools' expectations are for a very practical, ministry oriented project which may be summarized in a brief written report of forty to fifty pages. On the other hand, it may be that the school will not accept anything less than a very academic and scholarly work which would be similar in form and quality to a Ph.D. dissertation, with a required length of 200 or more pages.

In order to gain a general idea of what is expected, the student needs to read the institution's guidelines for the project. However, even a careful perusal of these criteria may not be sufficient. While eighty-six per-cent of those surveyed felt that project guidelines were clearly communicated by the educational institution, fourteen per-cent disagreed with that statement. One graduate, who had done Doctor of Ministry work at two different institutions, felt that at one school the guidelines were clearly articulated, while at the other school they were not. It is the responsibility of each student to seek sufficient information to determine the project type or types

acceptable at their particular school. At the Liberty
Baptist Theological Seminary each Doctor of Ministry student
receives a Doctor of Ministry Student Handbook which details
the Seminary's expectations for the project[93]. The
Seminary is very generous in the latitude given to students
who are preparing projects. The handbook states that the
project ". . . should emerge from the student's ministry
context and be related to his support seminars. The
specific research form is dependent upon the nature of the
thesis project as determined in consultation with the
candidate's mentor"[94].

In addition, there are four criteria related to the
project which a successful candidate must be able to meet
before final approval can be given. He must be able to
". . . show that the thesis project is supported by an
appropriate theoretical basis, and describe and defend the
project's design and implementation". Also, he is to
". . . evaluate the value of the project for ministry; and
communicate new understandings of ministry to peers in the
profession"[95]. At Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary the
Doctor of Ministry committee has chosen to allow the
institutional guidelines for the project to remain broad,
therefore giving the student more flexibility. The

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[93]Ibid.

[94]Ibid., 11.

[95]Ibid., 12.

Seminary, at least at the time of the writing of this paper, prefers to permit the student and mentor to work out the details. In this instance it is important for the student to be sure to find a mentor who is willing to permit the type of project which the student is considering. Also, as noted earlier, the project is to be ". . . related to the support seminars". This means that students should have determined a topic soon after their admission to the program, so that they can tailor their coursework to complement their project.

Another helpful step in this process would be to make a trip to the library, where the previously completed Doctor of Ministry projects are housed. The careful inspection of these works will allow the student to determine the type of project which has historically been approved at the institution. Based on this the student may anticipate that a similar type of project would be acceptable. If available, students may wish to browse through abstracts of projects which are representative of other institutions in order to get a better feel for the various types of projects.

At the Liberty University Library the bound copies of Doctor of Ministry projects are found in the Reference room with the other theses and dissertations. In addition, there are several hundred projects on microfiche which are located in the periodical room. They can be accessed through the

library's card catalog, or a list of the projects can be
obtained from the author's "A Research Supplement for Doctor
of Ministry Students"[96]. A subject listing for these
projects is also available in the same volume.

Recognizing Essential Topic Elements

The next, and one of the most helpful ingredients in
choosing a successful topic is the ability to recognize some
of the qualities which are characteristic of such topics.
This section will examine seven elements of successful
topics.

As was previously mentioned, a very essential quality
of any potential topic is that it conforms to the
institutional requirements. If the topic you are
considering does not meet the criteria of the institution,
and if you are not able to negotiate an exemption in regard
to that particular criteria, then another topic should be
chosen.

Another quality of a successful topic is its research-
ability. By looking closely at the potential topic one must
evaluate the type of research which will be necessary. Two
questions then need to be answered before the topic can be
considered. First of all, is this topic researchable for
the individual candidate? Will the potential for the
expenses of the research be beyond the financial limit which

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[96]David L. Barnett, A Research Supplement for Doctor of
Ministry Students, Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary, 1990.

was determined in the previous chapter? Even more importantly, is it within what Madsen refers to as the candidate's "range of expertise"[97], or what Mauch describes as one's "technical competence"[98]? In other words, does the candidate possess a sufficient amount of previous knowledge of the potential topic to effectively research it? Further, will it require a type of research that one is either already familiar with, or with which one could readily acquire sufficient skill for the purposes of the project? For instance, the project may require the development of sophisticated testing instruments, and the candidate may not already have and cannot obtain sufficient expertise to develop such instruments. In either of these instances the candidate would be wiser to choose an alternate topic.

The second question to ask in regard to research-ability is whether or not the research is generally feasible. Is the candidate going to be seeking the kind of information that will not be readily accessible to a researcher? Someone may choose to research the reported income of the ten wealthiest evangelists in the United States, but would have to determine if there was indeed a realistic chance that these people would open their finances

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[97]Madsen, Successful Dissertations and Theses, 23.

[98]Mauch, Guide to the Successful Thesis and Dissertation, 51.

to the candidate's scrutiny for the purposes of the project. One must recognize personal limitations related to the research process and judge potential topics accordingly.

A third quality is that of originality. No matter how high your personal interest in a topic, if it has been covered in a similar manner in other works, then it should not be considered as a topic. The only exception to this is when a candidate is able to demonstrate a uniqueness in their approach that will allow them to make an original contribution with this topic. This does not mean that there cannot be any similarity between two topics, but there must be a distinctive element which sets one apart from the other. Originality by itself will not insure a successful topic, but it is certainly a requirement for any topic chosen.

Candidates must ask whether or not the topic is truly achievable within the time frame which they have previously set for themselves. There would of course be the potential of expanding the time frame to allow for a particular project topic, though it may also be advisable to simply seek a different topic.

Another element that is desirable in a good topic is that it will make a contribution to ministry, and once again there are at least two considerations. First of all, will it make a contribution to the field of Christian ministry as a whole? The idea here is whether or not this will meet not

only the needs of the candidate's personal ministry, but also the needs of those in similar ministries. If the proposed topic will not contribute in any way to the knowledge of the field of Christian ministry, then it should not be considered.

A second consideration relates to the contribution which the project will make to the individual ministry of the candidate. This is particularly important to consider when the church, or other ministry, is supporting the candidate's degree efforts by providing financial help, providing additional time off for coursework, or by allowing the church to be used as a research experiment. The greater the ministry's involvement in the educational pursuit of the candidate, then the greater this consideration should weigh in the mind of the candidate.

Another criteria of a good topic is whether or not it has the potential for publication. At some institutions this is a required criteria regarding the quality of the project. Whether or not it is actually required, it is certainly something which the candidate should keep in mind. This could provide the extra incentive needed to continue on in the project process when times of discouragement occur.

A final criteria of a good topic is the degree of interest which this topic generates in the candidate. One of the worst things that can happen in the process is for the candidate to lose interest in the topic before nearing

the project's completion. Each person should be aware that they will need to live with this topic for a significant amount of time. On occasion it may be that their interest in the topic is the only motivation for continuing. The project process is already difficult enough, even if things go very well for the candidate. Therefore great care should be taken to choose a topic that is interesting and motivational to the one who makes the commitment to it.

Identifying Topic Sources

At this point the candidate should have a general awareness of the characteristics of a good topic, and should be ready to begin the consideration of potential topics. This can be a frustrating process, but the candidate who makes good use of the topic sources which will be outlined in this section should find this a very satisfying phase. At this point it is important to remember that the goal of this step is only to narrow the list of potential topics down to three or four possibilities that can then be subjected to the topic rating process, and a viable topic chosen.

One of the primary sources of successful topics is the candidate's personal interest. As noted earlier, it is vital that the topic be one that can maintain the researcher's interest throughout the lengthy process. Therefore the candidate's own personal areas of interest are a logical place to begin the topic search. It may be that

over the years there have been some personally challenging

questions for which one may have wanted to seek solutions.

Or it may be that in the course of other academic research,

perhaps for a master's thesis or some similar effort, other

potential topics were uncovered. Or, it may be related to

the individual's ministry. In other words, as candidates

look at their current ministry from their own perspective

they may recognize a potential topic. There are a number of

possibilities for potentially successful topics in the area

of one's own interests.

Another good source for potential topics is the

candidate's educational institution. It is quite possible

that professors in the school may have some suggestions for

likely topics. Candidates should not commit to a topic

simply because a faculty member has an interest in it, since

it still needs to fit the criteria for a good topic and

should be of great interest to the candidates as well as to

the professor. However, there are some positive motivations

for cultivating topics from this source. It means that the

professor, if their interest in the topic is genuine, may be

willing to serve as the main advisor for the project. They

may also be able to provide assistance with sources for

research when the candidate begins his investigation of the

project. Topics developed from this source have the

potential to be mutually rewarding for all those involved.

Still another source for topics is the candidate's own

ministry setting. As mentioned previously, it may be that the candidate, based on his personal observation of the ministry, is already aware of areas which could serve as successful themes for a research project. In addition, it may be that representatives within the ministry itself may also have some ideas for a project that they would like the candidate to consider because of the potential value such a topic would have for the church. The candidate would do well to solicit and to give serious consideration to these ideas, particularly if the ministry is supporting the candidate's participation in the degree process. The greater the support offered by the ministry, the greater the consideration which should be given to their ideas. It is entirely possible that they will not have any preferences, but they will still value and appreciate the fact that they were asked for their input.

Current magazines and journals may prove to be fertile sources for topics. They will provide the candidate with an idea of the current trends in professional ministry. These types of topics can often be good choices because of their contribution to the field of Christian ministry.

Related to this source for topics would be the perusal of titles of other Doctor of Ministry projects. These may be found in Research in Ministry[99], an annual reference

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[99]Research in Ministry, (Chicago: American Theological Library Association).

work published by the American Theological Libraries

Association, and which contains the titles and abstracts of

Doctor of Ministry projects done in the year represented by

the volume. Also, as was referred to earlier in this

chapter, Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary students may

find a listing of all Doctor of Ministry projects which are

in the University Library listed at the end of this author's

"Research Supplement for Doctor of Ministry Students". (This

volume is available from the Director of the Doctor of

Ministry

Bear in mind that the candidate's project cannot be a

duplication of another project, and should have something

unique to its design which will distinguish one research

project from another. But this does not negate the

possibility of a potential topic being suggested through a

careful perusal of these titles and abstracts.

Rating Potential Topics

At this point the candidate should have identified

three or four potential topics and be prepared to utilize

the Topic Rating Chart (Appendix 4) to determine the best

choice. This chart lists ten different considerations which

are taken from the criteria and sources discussed earlier in

this chapter. These are listed in the rating area of the

form.

In the next column there is a potential score which

has been given to each of the ten items to be considered.

For instance, the area of "personal interest" can be scored as high as fifteen points, while the area of "personal finances required" cannot rate higher than seven points. Space is then provided for the candidate to score each of three potential topics in each of the ten areas. It will probably be most profitable to rank each category for all of the topics, then proceed to the next area. This will allow the candidate to better weigh the topics against each other. For example, one would begin by evaluating their "personal interest" for topic one, then for topic two, an then for topic three. Then one could proceed to the area of "institutional interest" and score each of the topics, and so on.

When completed, this exercise should allow the candidate to have a fairly clear idea of the topic with which they have the best chance of preparing a successful project. In the event that two topics rate evenly, the candidate would have the choice of reevaluating those two, or taking both of them on into the next stage of the process.

Refining the Topic

The candidate is now prepared to take the topic which has scored the highest in the previous phase, and to begin the process of refining and narrowing the focus of the topic. This will be accomplished by conducting a review of research literature pertaining to the topic. This is the

first of the literature reviews which the candidate will
perform in the process of completing the project. During
the proposal stage a second, and very comprehensive
literature review will be done in an effort to gather every
pertinent piece of available information. In contrast, this
phase's review is designed to gather a representative view
of literature related to the topic. A discussion of the
principles involved in a successful literature search is
presented in the earlier chapter on library research.

The candidate's goal in this review is to gain enough
exposure to the proposed topic to be able to understand it
thoroughly. By broadening their understanding of the topic
the candidate may now refine and narrow the focus of the
topic. The candidate should now be able to express the
topic in a single statement describing the purpose of the
project. For example, a possible topic expressed at this
point of the process would be stated something like the
following: The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the
relationship between sermonic organization and
congregational comprehension.

Presenting the Topic

At this point the candidate is ready to prepare the
topic for presentation. Methodologies for this vary
somewhat from institution to institution, but basically this
will consist of a brief, written summary of the topic which
is presented to the Doctor of Ministry committee or another

representative of the program.

At Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary this presentation is scheduled to take place sometime prior to the candidate's completion of the two orientation seminars[100]. The topic should be neatly typed on a single sheet. The candidate should include a brief description of the topic and his rationale for choosing this topic. He may include what he perceives to be the potential value of this topic on his personal life and his current ministry. Once prepared, this should be submitted to the director of the Doctor of Ministry program for approval. At this time the director will either accept the topic, reject it, or assist the candidate in further developing the topic so that it meets the program's requirements.

In addition, the candidate will now need to either choose or to be assigned a faculty advisor to serve as their mentor and to assist in the remainder of the project. Depending on the institution, the student may be assigned a project committee of two or more faculty members. In these instances one member will typically serve as chairman and will fulfill the role of chief advisor, while the other members serve mainly as readers.

In some instances institutions may allow qualified non-faculty persons, or faculty members from other

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[100]Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary, Doctor of Ministry Student Handbook, 12.

institutions, to serve on the committee. Usually these individuals serve as readers rather than as the main advisor. This can be particularly helpful if the candidate does not live in close proximity to the seminary.

Selecting an advisor, or mentor, is a crucial point in the project process and much has been written regarding this all important relationship between the candidate and the advisor(s). This is the individual who will assist the candidate throughout the project process, yet his role can often be very difficult. He is responsible to assist the candidate in the project's preparation, but he is also responsible to insure that the type and quality of work meets the standards of the institution.

If Mauch is correct in stating that the objective in choosing an advisor is ". . . to obtain the best, most competent, most astute research advice and guidance"[101], then what qualities should a candidate look for in the one whom he desires to have on his project committee? Several qualities are important to keep in mind in this search. First, the advisor needs to be qualified in an area related to the topic. This will allow him to accurately assess the quality of the candidate's work. The greater the degree of the advisor's expertise regarding the topic, the greater he will be able to give research advice and direction to the candidate.

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[101]Mauch, p.38.

It is also imperative that the advisor have a genuine interest in the topic. Just as interest is a key factor in motivating the candidate, it will also encourage greater participation by the advisor if he has a high degree of interest in the topic.

Madsen points out that it is important to pick someone who has ". . . the trust and respect of his colleagues"[102]. If the advisor will be chairing the candidate's project committee, it will be to the candidate's benefit that the advisor be able to exert influence on other committee members. This will only be possible to the degree that the advisor is indeed respected by other faculty. Faculty who may not be able to participate as advisors for the candidate's project may be able to recommend someone whom they feel would do a credible job.

What is the individual's reputation among other students? How have other students who have worked with this individual progressed with their projects[103]? Other students will have a good grasp of the factors that are important to them as students and can evaluate a prospective advisor's effectiveness in these areas.

Once the advisor(s) has been chosen, the candidate will want to meet with him in order to allow the advisor to relate his expectations for the process. Determine whether

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[102]Madsen, p.14.

[103]Mauch, p.38.

there are any dates or guidelines which the advisor wants to
see met, which may be in addition to the institutional
deadlines. If the candidate is utilizing a computer, then
he will want to determine the print quality which the
advisor expects in the draft copies. Does the advisor
prefer to receive the draft a chapter at a time, or do they
prefer to receive it all at once? Generally speaking, what
times in the advisor's schedule will not be good times to
meet with the candidate? Will the candidate be able to
telephone the advisor on a regular basis, or will only
written communications and face-to-face meetings be
preferred? These are the types of questions which need to
be answered early in the process to insure a good working
relationship.

CHAPTER 6

PREPARING THE PROPOSAL

The proposal is undoubtedly the biggest obstacle encountered by the majority of students in the preparation of their project. The results of the questionnaire distributed for this paper demonstrate that forty-seven percent of the respondents considered the proposal to be the most difficult part of the process. Not only is it the most difficult part, but it is also the most critical. A poorly done proposal means that the remainder of the project will require much more effort. On the other hand however, a well done proposal will mean much smoother sailing for the candidate throughout the rest of the project. The purpose of this chapter will be to demonstrate the importance of the proposal, to describe the essence of the proposal, to examine each of the four major components of the proposal, and then to discuss its formal presentation.

The Importance of the Proposal

The candidate may ask at this point why it is that so much emphasis is being placed on the proposal. In answering this, one will need to consider four aspects of the rationale for a well developed proposal. The first aspect,

as Madsen observes, is that the proposal ". . . forces the
student to adopt a coherent, systematic procedure, which is
essential to any scholarly enterprise"[104]. In other words,
a well done proposal will mean that the student has already
interacted with the material well enough to understand it.
Also, the greater the candidate's ability to master and
organize the subject material at this stage, the better
prepared he will be to interact with the material in the
later stages of the process. A well prepared proposal
communicates to the faculty that this candidate is indeed
ready to complete the project and to finish the degree. On
the other hand, when a poorly prepared proposal is submitted
it communicates to the faculty that this student is not
prepared.

Secondly, by forcing themselves to organize the entire
project, or to at least think through and write down the
manner in which they propose organizing it, the student will
conclusively determine whether or not their topic is
potentially successful. Sternberg states that it is the
preparation of the proposal ". . . by which one decides
definitely on the viability of a topic"[105]. As dis-
heartening as it may seem to conclude that a topic simply is
not viable, how much better it is to be able to determine

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[104]Madsen, <u>Successful Dissertations and Theses</u>, 36.

[105]Sternberg, <u>How to Complete and Survive a Doctoral Dissertation</u>, 72.

that at this point rather than later in the process. This organizational aspect, once accomplished, gives the candidate the sense that they are well on their way to completing the project.

Thirdly, there is a very real sense in which the proposal serves as a contract for the project process[106]. This is the candidate's opportunity to clarify exactly what it is that they intend to do within the parameters of the project. Conversely, it is an opportunity to express what they believe the project is not designed to do, and should not be expected to do. The language of the proposal needs to be carefully examined and the candidate needs to guard against making broad statements that may be interpreted as the intent to do something which they do not intend to do.

Before the acceptance of the proposal there may be the need to do some revisions or clarification. This is so that the advisor, as the representative of the educational institution, can make sure that the necessary items will be covered within the project. The better that the intentions of the candidate and the expectations of the institution are clarified during this stage, the more successful (and less stressful!) the rest of the project will be.

The fourth aspect that the candidate should keep in mind is that the proposal will be, in effect, a mini-

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[106]Ibid., 73.

project[107]. Much of the work which will be a part of the proposal will be included in the project itself. Therefore, the greater the effort expended at this point, the less the amount of work which will remain to be done.

Description of the Proposal

Whereas the topic stage serves as a brief description of the potential topic idea to the appropriate committee, the proposal stage is where a very detailed description of the entire project is formally presented for approval. Essentially, there are three considerations which the candidate needs to keep in mind as they consider the proposal. Stated as questions, these thoughts would be: How long should the proposal be?; What are the necessary ingredients?; and What are the time constraints?

Though the compilation of a very thorough proposal should be the goal of every candidate, the various length requirements for the proposal by the educational institutions suggest that they may not always share this goal. For instance, some institutions only require a minimum of two pages for the proposal, while others may require a proposal in the range of twenty to forty pages. The average minimum required length is just over eleven pages. Interestingly enough, when it comes to evaluating the perceptions of the candidates towards the required

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[107]Ibid., 79.

length of the proposal, an overwhelming majority (ninety-three percent) felt that the proposal length required by their institution was appropriate.

A comparison was done between the required lengths for the proposal and the required lengths for the projects themselves, in an effort to determine if a consistent percentage of the project length served as the required length of the proposal. Very little consistency was observed, however. At one end of the spectrum the required proposal length represented fifty percent of the total project length, while at the other extreme the proposal length was only five percent of the project length. It would seem reasonable to expect, and many institutional guidelines fall into this range, that a well prepared proposal will be somewhere between ten and twenty percent of the length of the project. Therefore on a project which is required to be 100 pages long, the proposal should be from ten to twenty pages in length. This is a rule of thumb to follow when length requirements are not stated. Candidates should always check to see if the institution has guidelines regarding proposal length.

The proposal, as a detailed summary of the entire project process, contains five main ingredients: an introduction, a statement of the problem, a statement of methodology, statement of limitations, and a review of the literature. The terminology for each of these ingredients

may vary somewhat between institutions. But, generally speaking, each of these elements will need to be included in the proposal.

It may be helpful to think of each of the components of the proposal as answering a question. The introduction answers the question: "Why should this project be done?". The statement of the problem, or what is sometimes referred to as the research question, answers: "What is the purpose or goal of the project?". The statement of methodology answers the question: "How do you propose to accomplish the purpose?". The statement of limitations answers the question: "What are the precise expectations for what the project will and will not encompass?". The review of literature component answers "What research has already been done on this topic?".

The third consideration for the candidate to contemplate regards the time constraints related to the proposal. In most, if not all instances, the educational institution will determine these constraints. Generally speaking, the proposal will need to be presented at least one year prior to the anticipated date of graduation. While this may seem like a long time, it would be unwise for a candidate to consider trying to put together the entire package in an abbreviated period of time.

Components of the Proposal

The first major component of the proposal is the

introduction which, as already mentioned, addresses the question: "Why should this project be done?". More often than not the introduction will contain a description of events leading up to the problem itself, or to the candidate's awareness of the problem. Long describes this step as ". . . a formal version of the process you went through in choosing and developing your topic"[108]. One must ask themselves, What is the history or background that has led to my recognizance of this problem? This is the point where the candidate will want to describe the need or significance of the problem. This is the writer's opportunity to provide the rationale for why this project needs to be done.

The next component of the proposal is the actual statement of the problem, or what is often referred to as the research question. This is where the candidate gives a statement or two succinctly describing the purpose of the project. This is the candidate's opportunity to express the goal or purpose of the project. A possible example might be, "The purpose of this project is to determine congregational attitudes towards expository preaching." Or possibly, "The goal of this project is to investigate the relationship between a consistent devotional life and individual perspectives towards personal suffering."

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[108]Thomas J. Long, Completing Dissertations in the Behavioral Sciences and Education, 72.

This is also the place in the proposal where the candidate will want to define any unique terminology which might be used. In the case of the first statement above the candidate may want to explain what will be meant in this paper by the term "expository preaching". These steps ensure that the entire audience will be on equal footing in regard to their understanding of the topic which is to be discussed.

The next component of the proposal is a statement of the methodology which is to be employed in resolving the issue raised by the topic. This is where the candidate describes the proposed design for their research. What additional questions need to be responded to, and what types of research will be employed in answering those questions? If research instruments such as surveys or questionnaires will need to be implemented, then the candidate should have prepared draft forms of these for inclusion in the proposal. They may be described in this section, and then submitted as appendices at the end of the proposal.

In other words, whereas in the statement of the problem the focus is on the "what", in the statement of methodology the focus is on the "how" aspect of the project. The candidate may in this section include a chapter by chapter summary of how they anticipate putting the project together.

In the next section of the proposal the candidate will

want to address the statement of limitations for the project. It would be impossible to expect the candidate to address every conceivable issue related to the topic. Therefore, there will always be some questions or issues which will not be discussed in the project because they are not essential to the solution. It is important that the candidate be able to identify some of these concerns, so that they might at this juncture of the project issue a disclaimer related to these concerns. For example, in preparing this paper it was determined that while matters of form and style were practical and relevant, they were not to be the focus of the paper. Therefore, in the statement of limitation, the author was able to explain that, as relevant as these matters are, they would not be addressed in detail in this project.

The statement of limitations carefully details the intended scope of the project, both what it is and what it is not, and therefore protects the candidate from being held responsible for issues not covered in the work. If an advisor feels that some of these concerns should be addressed, then the proposal stage is where these expectations need to be ironed out. This gets back to the issue of treating the proposal as a contract for the project. Once again, the candidate should not be expected to do something not stated in the proposal. Conversely, they should be held accountable for accomplishing what they

stated they would do in the proposal.

The final component to be included in the proposal is the review of the literature related to the topic. Sternberg views this as ". . . perhaps the single most important section of the dissertation proposal"[109]. In fact this aspect will probably be done prior to the other components of the proposal. It should be included at the point in the particular proposal where it fits most naturally, and may eventually be used as an additional chapter. Note that this review of the literature is only one of three that will be performed in the process of completing the project. The first, which was accomplished in the topic stage was mostly a survey, designed to give the candidate an overview of the topic, and to confirm that the same topic had not already been done by another Doctor of Ministry student. The third review will be an ongoing process which will last until the completion of the project, and is designed to allow the candidate to chase down hard to find materials. It is during the proposal stage that this comprehensive review of the literature will be accomplished. Instructions regarding the methods involved in a successful literature review are included in the third chapter of this paper.

The literature review will accomplish at least three

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[109]Sternberg, <u>How to Complete and Survive a Doctoral Dissertation</u>, 92.

things. First of all, it will provide the candidate with a comprehensive grasp of the topic. There will still be additional materials that will be uncovered in the course of researching the project, however the bulk of the research materials should be located and gathered in this stage. As Sternberg observes "There is nothing better than a long, complete, thoughtful review of the literature in conveying to faculty the image (and reality) of a student who means business . . ."[110].

A second factor of the literature review is that it will demonstrate that the topic is indeed an original contribution to the field[111]. Even though there may be related works, the candidate may confirm through the presentation of the literature review the uniqueness and originality of their topic.

Finally, the review will serve as the foundation for the all important bibliography included at the end of the project[112]. A very important aspect of a successful project is the candidate's ability to utilize and compile a bibliography of related sources. The groundwork for such a bibliography is accomplished through this review of the literature.

Still other, but less important, components of the

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[110]Ibid., 93.

[111]Ibid.

[112]Ibid.

proposal should also be mentioned at this point, namely a proposed title for the project, and a well thought out table of contents. This proposed table of contents should be presented at the beginning of the proposal, and should be very thorough, noting each aspect of what the candidate hopes to do over the course of the project. Certainly, this table of contents will undergo many revisions before its final presentation. But the candidate should be able to demonstrate that they have thought carefully through the entire project, and have organized it well.

Presentation of the Proposal

The candidate should have assembled by this point a document of sufficient length and which contains each of the aforementioned elements. (Once again, however, candidates are urged to locate any institutional information related to the proposal, and to follow the guidelines given there. These guidelines are designed for students who do not have the benefit of sufficient information related to the preparation of the proposal. For Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary students, the guidelines offered in the proposal handbook should be followed.) The candidate is now prepared to formally present the proposal to the institution for approval.

Methods for presenting the proposal vary from one institution to another. In some instances, the candidate's advisor will be able to approve, or require revisions to the

proposal. In other instances the proposal is reviewed by a committee. At Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary the candidate is required to submit a completed copy of the proposal to the Director of the Doctor of Ministry Program by April 1, one year before the anticipated graduation date. Then, as is done at a number of institutions, the student will make a presentation of the proposal to other Doctor of Ministry students, who are able to offer constructive criticism or other suggestions. This presentation is given during the summer modulars, one year prior to the candidate's anticipated graduation. Then, after making any necessary changes, the proposal is returned to a faculty representative for final approval. This format is helpful because it allows for interaction among peers, and familiarizes students who are not yet at the proposal stage with the project process and the expectations which accompany it.

A summary of the proposal process would then be as follows: First of all the candidate will need to do a fairly comprehensive review of literature to determine the available research which is related to the topic. When the candidate is comfortable with their understanding and command of the topic, and research related to it, they will need to form a statement of the problem, or it may be considered a statement of purpose. This should end up being little more than the refinement of the thesis statement

presented earlier with the topic presentation.

After preparing an introduction, which provides a rationale for the problem, the candidate then gives the statement of the problem. The candidate then composes a statement of the methodology which they intend to employ in the completion of the project. This will include a chapter by chapter account of how the candidate proposes developing a solution to the problem, or how they wish to fulfill their purpose. The candidate may then write a statement of scope and limitations, where they will list items which they do not feel need to be included in the project, and which they do not intend to fulfill.

In concluding the proposal the candidate will compose a summary of their literature review. A good draft copy of any research instruments should be included with the proposal, as well as a comprehensive bibliography. The candidate may then compile a proposed table of contents, and a title page. The style and form for the proposal should follow the same guidelines for form as are required for the project. The proposal is now ready for its initial presentation to the academic institution.

CHAPTER 7

WRITING THE MAIN BODY

By this time the candidate will have completed the majority of his research, the preliminary organization of his paper, and will be ready to begin the task of writing the main body of the paper. When anticipating the project process the candidate probably assumed that this would be the most difficult aspect. Indeed, six percent of those surveyed responded that the actual writing of the project was the greatest difficulty which they encountered.

However, if the candidate has done a thorough job of preparation during the topic and proposal phases, then a great deal of the difficulty is behind him. He may now begin the process of plugging his research into the outline he has already described in the proposal stage. A lot of energy and effort still needs to be expended, but the crest of the hill has been achieved and the candidate will now be journeying downhill.

Still, there are some considerations that will assist the candidate in the preparation of the main body. The goal of this chapter will be to present four stages of this writing process. These will include preliminary preparation, evaluation of institutional guidelines,

preparation of the project outline, and finally, the
production of the final copy.

Preliminary Preparation

As the candidate prepares for the big push towards the
completion of the project, a number of helpful items should
be considered. One of the first of these, if it has not
already been done, is the setting up of a writing area. The
qualities of a good writing area are that it be properly
furnished, easily accessible, and privately located.
Furnishings should include a large work area, sufficient to
spread research materials around in an organized fashion. A
great deal of time will be spent here, therefore a
comfortable chair and sufficient lighting are essential. If
the candidate will be typing or word processing their
drafts, this equipment should also be included. As a note
of interest, ninety-two percent of the respondents to the
survey stated that they had utilized a computer in the
writing of the project. Considering that computer prices
appear to be lower than they have been in the history of the
industry, and with the high quality of word processing
software available, and the ease which this technology
provides to the task in terms of editing, revising, spelling
and grammar checking, and even thesaurus', it is hard to
contemplate not utilizing one of these machines. A printer
that meets the institutional guidelines for print quality
will also be needed.

Accessibility is another key to a good writing area. While it should be far enough removed from other areas to insure sufficient privacy, it needs to be located so that it doesn't take a lot of effort to get there. There will be enough temptations to battle during the writing stage without having to struggle with trips to the writing location.

Finally, it should be located where the candidate is guaranteed the greatest amount of privacy. This means that it needs to be where interruptions will be kept to a minimum. This will be effected by the time of day which will typically be reserved for writing. An office which is very busy during the day may be quite suitable in the evenings and on weekends.

It will also be helpful if the writing area is located so that writing and research materials may be left there without being moved. If the kitchen table is being utilized, for instance, then materials will need to be spread out and picked back up every time the candidate desires to write. This will not be very conducive to the process. The goal in setting up the writing office is to remove as many of the obstacles to the writing process as is possible.

Survey responses indicated that eighty-six percent of those in the project process utilized their homes or their ministry offices as a writing office. Those utilizing

church or ministry space or equipment should be sure to
notify their respective ministry of their intentions and ask
for their approval, rather than assuming it to be one of the
perks related to their position. It is possible that lay
people will be very sensitive to this issue, and care should
be taken to avoid any misunderstandings.

Then the candidate is ready to gather his writing and
research materials to the office location. Other than his
notecards, books, and photocopies related to their research,
there needs to be a good dictionary, a thesaurus, and a
current copy of the style and form manual required by the
institution. Eighty percent of the respondents stated that
their institution required the use of Kate Turabian's "A
Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and
Dissertations"[113]. Now in its fifth edition, this is a
very comprehensive manual. Students who are required to use
Turabian's manual may also want to consider purchasing John
Sayre's "A Manual of Forms for Research Papers and D.Min.
Field Project Reports". This work summarizes the aspects of
Turabian's work which will more often than not be applicable
to the writing of the project.

The candidate will desire to set up a filing system of
some sort to assist in organizing his notes and research. He
will also want to set up a method of bookkeeping to account

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[113]Kate L. Turabian, A Manual for Writers of Term Papers,
Theses, and Dissertations, Fifth ed. (Chicago: University of
Chicago Press, 1987.

for all the expenses he encounters in writing the project.
If he is planning on hiring a typist to prepare his drafts,
now is a good time to make this selection as well.

A final preparation for this phase is to ready oneself
for the discouragement which will almost certainly be
encountered during the long months of writing. Motivating
verses may be placed on the office walls, and an encouraging
friend or spouse may need to be conferred with on a regular
basis. Plan for the valleys of discouragement to come, and
take whatever steps will be necessary to make it through
these times.

<u>Evaluation of Institutional Guidelines</u>

Next, the candidate needs to evaluate the project's
guidelines for his academic institution. If a guide or
handbook for the project is available it should be obtained
as early as possible. One should seek to determine the
style manual which is required and whatever time constraints
or deadlines are involved. It will be helpful to meet with
advisors to determine any additional time elements which
they may want to include. Try to determine the best meeting
times for the advisors, and ask for their preference in
regard to the submission of the draft copies of the project.
Would they prefer to see each chapter as it is written, or
would they rather wait until the entire first draft is
completed? Determine what types of paper and print are
required for the drafts. If utilizing a computer, ask

whether or not dot matrix print is acceptable for the early
drafts. If using one of the dot matrix printers, be sure to
avoid giving your advisors the typical draft speed quality
of a nine-pin printer. All copies submitted to the advisors
should be in letter quality print that is easily read. Even
if they do not require this, they will certainly appreciate
it. Find out if copies of the drafts are acceptable or if
each advisor prefers the original of each draft. Final
copies of the project should meet institutional require-
ments. If not specified they should be letter quality
print, either laser or typewriter quality, and should be
presented on twenty pound paper with a rag content of at
least twenty-five percent (many institutions require fifty
percent).

Preparation of Project Outline

Based on the outline described in the proposal, the
proposed outline for the entire project needs to be
prepared. This should include all major headings and as
many subheadings as can be determined at this point. This
will be one of the most important steps of the writing stage
and will save a lot of time and stress if done properly.
The idea is to map out as thoroughly as possible the essence
of the project before beginning the actual writing. One
should remember that there will always be some revision
taking place and that changes can always be made. The
writer is not bound to the initial outline. But the more

work that is spent on the outline, the greater the dividends it will pay throughout the writing process.

Care should be taken to develop the headings and subheadings so that they reflect a well organized pattern. One should be able to make smooth transitions between each of the points. There should be a logically sequential flow of thought between them. There should also be a grammatical symmetry in the way the headings are worded, that will demonstrate the aforementioned organization.

One is now prepared to determine where each portion of research materials and personal notes will fit into the outline. Materials may be marked in a manner that will correspond to their respective part of the outline. At this point one may recognize areas that are sparsely researched and will be able to do the additional research to beef up those areas.

Mauch suggest that as one prepares to write the first draft, he should make use of a project dummy.[114] This dummy is a blank model of the project and on each sheet a different heading or subheading is placed. A large notebook may be utilized, or a series of folders, with perhaps a folder for each chapter[115]. Then parts of the dummy may be rearranged, deleted or added to, and becomes ". . . the

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[114]Mauch, <u>Guide to the Successful Thesis and Dissertation</u>, 170-171.

[115]Ibid.

operational evidence that the draft is on it way to completion."[116] It was the experience of this writer that the dummy was a very helpful tool for conceptualizing the whole project, and its percentage of completion at any given time.

When writing of the first draft one must try not to be slowed down by efforts to find just the perfect word, or a catchy phrase. At this point one is trying to simply get the thoughts down on paper. Then spend quality time going back through the draft to insure that transitions are smooth, ideas are properly related, and the perfect word was utilized. Each portion of the paper should undergo at least one revision by the candidate before being presented to the advisors as a first draft. Ask oneself whether the arguments are related to each other, and whether there is a logical flow between ideas.

At this point the candidate will be prepared to present a first draft, whether of the first chapter or of the entire project, to the advisors. Remember that the advisor's role is twofold. First of all they are there to assist the student through the process, but they are primarily serving as representatives of the institution to insure that the style and quality of the project are consistent with the demands of the academic institution. Therefore, there will no doubt be areas that the advisor and

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[116]Ibid.

readers will want deleted, changed or added. Candidates should remind themselves that these requests are aimed at producing a project of which both the student and the institution can be proud. And they should not be discouraged or disillusioned by this type of assistance, realizing that the advisors have the same goals as the candidate in regards to the project.

Two final notes need to be mentioned at this point. The first is a warning to the candidate to consistently make copies of the completed portions of material. If a computer is being used both a disk backup and a hard copy of everything should be kept. If not utilizing the computer try to keep two copies of everything, preferably in two different locations. Too often, items are lost in the mail, or in an advisor's office, or through an equipment failure. Protect yourself from needless hours of additional work by making sufficient copies of materials.

Secondly, be sure that even the very first drafts of materials have been subjected to the form manuals and spelling checkers. To the best of one's ability, the drafts presented to the committee should be free of style, form, or spelling errors. And one should not wait until the final draft to make such corrections.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUDING THE PROJECT

Once the main body has been completed and revised, the
candidate may turn his attention to the matter of concluding
the project. This is where the final components which are
necessary for the project's formal presentation are
completed. Six of these components are needed, and it will
be the purpose of this chapter to describe each of these
final details.

Preparing the Abstract

One of the first of these final aspects to be
completed is the preparation of an abstract. The abstract
is ". . . a brief summary of the purpose and content of the
dissertation."[117] This abstract is placed at the beginning
of the completed project and allows readers to gain an
overview of the whole project. It serves other purposes as
well, as it may be sent to services which compile listings
of projects or dissertations. In the case of Doctor of
Ministry projects, these abstracts are often sent to the
American Theological Library Association for inclusion in

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[117]Long, Completing Disserations in the Behavioral
Sciences and Education, 135.

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their publication "<u>Research in Ministry</u>", an annual
publication which contains a listing of the projects
completed during the previous year.

The required length for abstracts varies from
institution to institution. Many institutions require only
a 100 word abstract, while some require up to 600 words. At
the Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary, the abstract needs
to be 100 words or less to accommodate the requirements of
the American Theological Library Association. The abstract
should also follow the format required by this association.
Abstracts submitted to University Microfilms for inclusion
in its Dissertation Abstracts need to be of 300 words or
less. In some instances institutions may require two
separate abstracts. One of these will be for one of the
abstract services, while the other, and usually a longer
one, is for the academic institution. In any case, the
abstract should contain the statement of purpose, and a
brief summary of the methodology and conclusions. The
abstract pages need to be numbered sequentially with the
rest of the project, however it should not be listed in the
table of contents.

<u>Preparing the Vita</u>

Another component often expected in the final project
is a vita. The vita is essentially a professional
biography, summarizing the candidate's ". . . educational

and professional background."[118] The vita should fit onto
a single page, and a couple of formats are possible, unless
the institution specifies a single format. In one format
there is a centered heading of VITA, followed by a paragraph
detailing the author's name, date and place of birth,
educational institutions and degrees, and professional
experience. Miller observes that "The Vita should not
contain personal information."[119] However, it is this
writer's opinion that a section for personal data should be
included. The second format makes the above categories into
headings placed at the left margin, similar to a resume.

Preparing the Copyright

Because the candidate's project will become a part of
the library's collection, and therefore will be available
for distribution among the scholastic community, it may be
considered a published work. With this in mind the
candidate needs to determine if they are interested in
copyrighting their project, thus protecting it from any
unauthorized use. Miller suggests that "If you think that
you will want to publish your work commercially, write
articles derived from its contents, or otherwise try to
profit from it, you should obtain a copyright

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[118]Miller, The Thesis Writer's Handbook , 75.

[119]Ibid.

registration."[120]

To register a copyright, the author needs to request the proper form from the Copyright Office of the Library of Congress. This form, along with a ten dollar registration fee and two copies of the project, must then be returned to this office.[121]

To indicate that the project is copyrighted, a copyright notice needs to be included in the project. This page should be inserted immediately after the title page, though some institutions may require it elsewhere, with the notice beginning four inches from the top of the page, and centered between the margins[122]. "The copyright notice consists of the word 'Copyright', followed by the year of publication and the copyright owner's name."[123]

Preparing the Final Format

Several other details need to be added to the project before it is ready for its final presentation. After the copyright page, or the blank page which is inserted if the copyright is not used, the candidate needs to include a project committee approval page. The format for this will

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[120]Ibid., 44.

[121]Ibid., 45. The address for requesting information is Information and Publication section LM-455, Copyright Office, Library of Congress, Washington DC. 20559.

[122]Ibid., 73.

[123]Ibid.

vary between institutions, but this is where the signatures of the project committee are included. Space is also usually provided for the grade which the committee assigns to the project.

An optional acknowledgement may be inserted following the approval page, and provides an opportunity for the candidate to express appreciation to those who provided special assistance throughout the preparation of the project. If a quote or other similar material is to be used to introduce the project, then it would be inserted as a frontispiece, immediately preceding the table of contents. All lists of tables, figures, abbreviations, or illustrations should be inserted after the contents. Please check the Final Format Checklist for a description of all pertinent pages, and their place in the project.

Preparing for the Oral Defense

The oral defense is the final process which the candidate will need to prepare for in the Doctor of Ministry program. Generally speaking, the oral defense, or oral exam as it is sometimes called, for the Doctor of Ministry program differs from the oral exam of the Ph.D. program. In the latter the focus seems to be on the candidate's ability to defend both his research and his conclusions. It is an event which has a reputation for striking fear in the hearts of those who undergo it.

While some Doctor of Ministry programs attempt to

model their oral exam after the Ph.D. approach, most programs are more satisfied with using this time to interview the student's involvement in the program as a whole. While the focus, at least initially, is on the written project, other aspects of the candidate's participation in the program are scrutinized as well. While the opportunity to defend the project is an important component of the oral defense, there may also be questioning regarding the candidate's philosophy of ministry, and the impact of the Doctor of Ministry program on their ministry. The candidate may also discuss areas of dissatisfaction with the program. It is during this process that the project is either accepted, rejected, or accepted conditionally, with certain revisions to be made prior to graduation.

Usually the candidate's project advisor, or the chairman of their project committee is responsible for scheduling the oral defense. While policy varies between institutions, the faculty representatives typically include all members of the project committee and the director of the Doctor of Ministry program. It is not uncommon for a two hour period to be scheduled for this process.

The candidate should ask his advisor for instructions as to what to bring to the defense. Normally the candidate is allowed to bring and utilize his own copy of the project, and he may be asked to provide copies for all others involved in the process. This should be a copy of what the

candidate considers to be a final draft of the project. In many cases, the candidate will need to make some type of revisions prior to the final acceptance of the project and he should not be discouraged by this. But he should not bring an unpolished draft to this presentation.

Again, this is where the determination is made as to the acceptability or unacceptability of the project. In some cases the project will not be rejected outright, but is accepted on the condition that certain revisions are made. In a fairly typical defense the format would be similar to the following: The candidate would be introduced to the members of the committee. After a brief presentation and summary of the project the questioning may begin, usually initiated by the chairman of the project committee. Questioning may expand beyond the scope of the project to the additional items noted above. After a reasonable period of questioning, the candidate leaves the room while the committee votes on the acceptance of the project. In essence, they are also voting on whether or not to confer graduate status upon the candidate. After a judgment is made, the candidate is ushered back into the room and informed of the decision. In some instances, a period of congratulations and refreshments may follow.

Presentation of the Final Copy

The candidate is now responsible to make any necessary

revisions, and have sufficient copies of the project bound
and presented to the academic institution's library. A high
quality paper of at least twenty pound weight, and twenty-
five percent rag content should be used. The typeface used
in the final copy should be of letter quality only. Dot
matrix copies are unacceptable. The candidate should do
whatever they possibly can to insure that everything in the
final copy is properly done. The candidate is making a non-
retractable contribution to the field of Christian ministry
and should only present the highest quality of work. The
candidate is advised to utilize the final checklist, which
is included in the appendices, for a detailed listing of the
necessary components of the final copy.

CONCLUSION

In summary, there are two observations that seem
appropriate to make. In regard to the philosophical
background of the Doctor of Ministry degree, one might
conclude that while a great deal of progress has been made
in the last two decades, there is still a way to go. As an
academic program, the degree seems to lack an identity that
is readily acceptable to the scholarly world. Yet some of
the qualities that would endear it to the academician would
wreak havoc on the degree's accessability by the ministerial
world at large. More simply stated, the characteristics
which make the program accessible for those employed in
full-time ministry, render it less than acceptable to the
academic world. Does the academic rigor of this program
truly compare to that of other professional doctorates? Is
it realistic to expect that men and women employed in full-
time ministry can simultaneously complete a rigorous
doctoral program? Perhaps these and other similar questions
are the type which need to be addressed by the Association
of Theological Schools and similar agencies. Until these
foundational questions are resolved, the degree will
continue to search for its niche in the academic world.

This identity crisis will continue to be reflected in the various philosophical approaches to the project.

On a more positive note, it is this author's belief that there are certain essential characteristics that are common to most projects, in spite of the varying institutional perspectives towards it. It is also his belief that this paper has indeed identified these characteristics, and has established a strategy that will assist many Doctor of Ministry candidates with the successful completion of their projects.

APPENDIX 1

INSTITUTIONAL LETTER

Dear Sir,

I am currently in the process of completing the Doctor
of Ministry program at Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary,
and for my dissertation project I am compiling a manual for
writing a successful D.Min. project. As a part of my project
I am accumulating information from a number of graduate
institutions across the nation regarding their individual
D.Min. programs. Essentially, there are three specific areas
of material which would be most helpful for my project.

First of all, I am interested in general information
related to your particular program. This would include data
describing your institutional goals and purpose pertaining
to this program, curriculum requirements, course
descriptions, and any other relevant material.

Secondly, I am looking for information related to the
dissertation project itself. I would be greatly in your debt
if you could assist me in this endeavor by providing any of
your institutional literature that would contain information
regarding the student's involvement with the dissertation
project. Specific data describing the institutional purpose
or aim for the project, guidelines for topics, choosing
advisors, time stipulations, and the oral defense, would be

especially helpful.

It would also be extremely helpful if you could provide additional information describing your most current enrollment figures (both total and FTE), the number of graduates from your program over the past five years, number of students at ABD status, and any other information that you might deem helpful. I am interested in determining the percentage of students who are completing coursework, but who are choosing to forego or delay completion of their project.

Additionally, I am interested in conducting a survey aimed at those who are either D.Min. graduates, or students currently working on their project. Would it be possible to obtain the names and addresses of a sample of students from your institution who would qualify for either of these two categories? I have enclosed a copy of the survey for your inspection, and I would be more than willing to share the results with your institution.

Please direct all correspondence to my home address at 126 East Otter Ridge Drive, Goode, Virginia, 24556. If you would like to contact me by phone, I can be reached during the day at (804) 582-2845, or in the evenings at (703) 586-6570. Thank you for whatever amount of assistance you are able to render!

Yours In His Service,

David L. Barnett

APPENDIX 2a

SURVEY COVER LETTER

Dear D.Min. graduate or current student,

Please pardon me for interrupting your busy holiday
season but I am in great need of your assistance! I am
currently a D.Min. student at Liberty Baptist Theological
Seminary and I am in the midst of completing my thesis
project. For my project I chose to write a manual of
strategies that will assist our institution's D.Min.
students with the writing of their thesis project. Part of
the research involved with the project is directed toward
those who have either completed or are currently involved in
the project process. This summer I wrote to each D.Min.
program in the U.S. and Canada and asked them several
questions regarding their program. At the same time I asked
them for the names of D.Min. grads or current students who
meet the above criteria. Your name was one of those provided
to me.

I have included a questionnaire in this mailing, along
with a self addressed envelope. My desire is to get as much
information as possible regarding the students' perspective
toward the final project process. I have tried to design the
questions so that the entire form can be answered quickly.

If you have the time for any additional comments regarding helps, hindrances, frustrations, or joys which you encountered during your project preparation, please feel free to include them on the back of the form. If you could then drop it in the mail at your earliest convenience I would greatly appreciate it! Thank you so much for your help!

Yours in His Service,
David Barnett

APPENDIX 2b

PROJECT SURVEY

1. What is your current status in the D.Min. program:
   a) graduate; b) completed all requirements except the
   final project; c) other _____?

2. Were your educational institution's guidelines for the
   project clearly communicated: a) strongly agree;
   b) agree; c) disagree; d) strongly disagree?

3. Did you utilize a computer in writing your project?___.

4. Did (or does) your educational institution offer a
   workshop to assist in preparing the final project?
   _____.

5. Did you do the majority of your writing at a) home; b)
   school; c) church office; d) library; e)
   other_____?

6. Was your most productive writing time a) morning; b)
   evening; c) late night; d) other_____?

7. How much time elapsed from the choosing of your topic to
   the completion of the project?_____

8. What style manual did you utilize?_____.

9. What was the most difficult aspect of preparing your
   project: a) choosing a topic; b) preparing proposal;
   c) research; d) oral defense; e) other____?

10. Please estimate the number of hours spent doing library
    research for your project:_____.

11. Which factor was most influential in your choice of a
    topic for your project: a) personal interest; b) a
    ministry need; c) educational institution's (or
    professor's) suggestion; d) other_____?

12. Would you describe your personal level of satisfaction
    with your project as: a) very satisfied; b) satisfied;
    c) dissatisfied; d) very dissatisfied?

13. Was your church (or other supporting ministry)
    financially supportive of expenses related to your

D.Min. studies? a) very supportive (paid for most or all expenses); b) mildly supportive (paid some expenses); c) not supportive at all (paid little or no expenses).

14. Please estimate the total number of hours spent on your project: _____.

15. Would you choose the same topic again?_____.
    Why?_____.

16. Would you consider your project's benefit to your current ministry as a) very beneficial; b) beneficial; c) not beneficial?

17. Please estimate the total expenses incurred related to the project (not including tuition)
    _____.

18. Were the majority of your research materials collected from your educational institution's library or from another source (please describe the other source - personal or church library, etc.) ?_____.

19. Were you satisfied with the degree of participation and assistance provided by your advisors or readers: a) very satisfied; b) satisfied; c) dissatisfied; d) very dissatisfied?

20. If you responded to question 19 with "c" or "d", please describe the primary reason for your dissatisfaction.
    _____.

21. If you could suggest one change to the project process, what would it be?_____.

22. Were the length requirements for the project proposal: a) too long; b) appropriate; c) too short?

23. Were the length requirements/limitations for the project itself: a)too long; b) appropriate; c) too short?

24. Did your oral examination committee accept your paper and defense during the initial examination, or were additional revisions/exams required prior to acceptance of the project?

IF YOU HAVE ANY ADITIONAL COMMENTS OR OBSERVATIONS PLEASE INCLUDE THEM ON THE OTHER SIDE OF THIS SURVEY!

APPENDIX 2c

QUESTIONNAIRE SUMMARY

In addition to the institutional letter, which was
sent to institutions offering the Doctor of Ministry degree,
a second instrument was also developed. This instrument was
a questionnaire which was designed to gain the perspective
of the individual student towards the project. This
instrument, consisting of twenty four questions, was mailed
to 285 students in November and December of 1991. Twelve of
the surveys were returned due to incorrect addresses. Of
the remaining 273 surveys, 156 (fifty-seven percent) were
completed and returned. In many instances one or more of
the questions were left unanswered. Therefore the reported
percentages were calculated using the number of actual
responses to the question. As previously stated, the goal
of the survey was to obtain the individual student's
perspective on various components related to the project
process.

The first question was designed to determine the
student's status, and asked them to identify themselves as a
graduate, a student with only the dissertation project
remaining, or other. Of the surveys returned, fifty-one
percent were completed by Doctor of Ministry graduates.

Thirty-one percent had completed all but the project and were currently at some stage in the project process. The remaining eighteen percent was made up of students who were at various stages in their program. Some were already working on their project and were able to answer most of the questions, while some had just begun the program and could provide only minimal input.

The second question asked if the student's educational institution had clearly articulated the guidelines for preparing a project. Students were given the choice of strongly agreeing, agreeing, disagreeing, or strongly disagreeing with this statement. Ninety-one percent of those responding agreed that their institution had successfully articulated the guidelines, while nine percent disagreed. It was interesting to note that one student, who had done Doctor of Ministry work at two different institutions, strongly agreed that one school had clearly articulated the guidelines, and strongly disagreed about the second school's presentation of their guidelines. This is one factor that will obviously vary a great deal between institutions and demonstrates that all Doctor of Ministry programs are not created equal.

The next four questions were more practical in their orientation. The third asked if a computer was utilized in the preparation of the project, to which ninety-two percent agreed that they had. Question four asked if the

educational institution offered a workshop to familiarize
students with the preparation of the dissertation project.
Fifty-eight of the respondents answered yes, while forty-two
percent said their school did not provide anything along
these lines. One would think that this is indeed a very
positive aspect of the program for institutions with such a
seminar, and an obvious weakness for those who do not.

The fifth question asked the student to identify the
place where the majority of the writing of their project was
accomplished. The biggest responses were the home (fifty-
seven percent), and the church office (twenty-nine percent).
Three percent did the majority of their writing at their
school, and eleven percent identified a combination of the
first two choices or some other place as their most
productive place. Then they were asked to identify the
general time of day when they were able to accomplish their
most productive writing. Over half (fifty-two percent) did
their most productive writing in the morning while thirty-
eight percent did their best work in the evening or late
night. Ten percent identified other times as best for them.
Some chose weekends, full days at a time, or week long
blocks of time dedicated to writing. These suggest that it
will be up to the individual to determine the periods when
they may best accomplish the task of writing, and this will
vary according to the person's temperament, type of
ministry, and family obligations.

Two queries sought to find out how much of an investment in time was typically spent on a dissertation project. Question seven asked how much time elapsed from the student's choice of a topic to the completion of their project. The goal of this question was to try to determine an average length of time for this process to be completed. Responses varied from a low of four to five months, to a high of six years. (In most instances each institution will have set a limit as to the maximum amount of time until the project must be done). The average time was a little less than two years. Then question fourteen asked the student to estimate the total number of hours spent on the project. The low response for this question was seventy-five hours, and the high response was 3,600. The average estimated time was 489 hours. It is important for students to recognize the time commitment they are making when they choose to do a project. In the instances of some of the very brief periods of time given in the responses, one must wonder as to the quality of work which can be done in such a brief period.

Question eight asked for the student to identify the style manual which they utilized during their project process. Eighty percent used Turabian, with the University of Chicago Style Manual, Campbell and Balou, and Strunk and White combining for eight percent. The other responses listed a number of less common manuals.

The next query was very important and asked the

student what they considered to be the most difficult aspect of the project process. They were asked to choose between the topic, the proposal, research, the oral defense, or some other aspect, as their responses. Thirty-eight percent felt that the preparation and presentation of the proposal, while twenty-five percent listed research as the most difficult aspect. Fifteen percent identified the choosing of a topic as their most difficult part of the process. Six percent considered the actual writing of the project as the most difficult phase. Other responses included the difficulty of completing the project amid the demands of the ministry, sufficient time to write, developing research instruments, money, and difficulty in getting the project into an acceptable form.

Questions ten and eighteen investigated the research aspect of the project. In question ten the students were asked to estimate the amount of time which they had spent doing library research related to the project. The library research was not further defined and was meant to be inclusive of any type of library specific activity such as literature searches, interlibrary loans, receiving reference assistance, reading, etc. The lowest response was twenty hours, and greatest response was 500 hours. The average time spent performing some type of library research was 137 hours. It is important for the student preparing to embark on the dissertation journey to realize that a significant

amount of time in a library will be an essential part of the

process. Question eighteen asked the student to identify

the source of the majority of the research materials which

they used for their project. They were asked if these

materials were located in the educational institution's

library, or if another source was used for these materials.

Fifty-five percent responded that the educational

institution's library was their major source, while an

additional twelve percent stated that it was a combination

of their personal library and the school library. Twenty-

one percent relied on personal libraries for their

resources, and seven percent utilized another institution's

library facility. Church libraries, public libraries, and

even a professor's library made up the other responses.

We might speculate as to why a higher percentage of

students did not rely more heavily on their seminary's

library for their research resources and there are at least

two possible explanations. The first of these is found in

the nature of the Doctor of Ministry program at many

institutions. Time spent on campus by the student is

typically very minimal, usually only one or two weeks per

course. Much of this on-campus time is consumed by the

course they are working on and little time is left to spend

on researching their project. It is simply more convenient

for them to utilize resources that are closer geographically

to them, such as other universities or public libraries. Or

they may feel that it would be easier to purchase the majority of the materials for their personal collection. The second possible explanation is found in the nature of the project. Because many of the projects consist of practical experiments within the context of a student's ministry, there may be very few materials available for their topic. Their need for library resources is minimized by their choice of a topic.

Question eleven asked the respondent to identify the factor which was most influential in their choice of a topic. Fifty percent identified their ministry, or a need within their ministry as being most influential, while thirty-seven percent said that it was their personal interest which compelled their choice. Two percent identified the influence of their educational institution as a primary factor in the decision. Eleven percent had various responses which included combinations of the aforementioned factors, and a single response identified a conference suggestion as the source for the topic.

Three questions were designed to determine the satisfaction level of students with their projects. Question twelve asks them to describe their personal level of satisfaction with the project. Ninety-eight percent stated that they were either very satisfied or satisfied with the project, while two percent felt that they were dissatisfied. No students responded that they were very

dissatisfied with the project. Question fifteen asked if the student would choose the same topic again, and the overwhelming response (ninety-one percent) stated that they would indeed choose the same topic again. Of those who responded negatively to this question, a number of the comments indicated that they would choose another topic simply because their area of interest has changed, and not because of dissatisfaction with the original topic. One negative response indicated that the topic had been too difficult to bring into focus, while others felt that their project did not accomplish what they wanted.

The next question asked if the respondent considered the project's benefit to their current ministry as very beneficial, beneficial, or not beneficial. Ninety-nine percent felt that the project was either beneficial or very beneficial. It appears that the overall rate of satisfaction was very high and that the overwhelming majority of students are pleased with their project and its impact on their ministry.

Two questions were designed to calculate the financial commitment required by the dissertation project. Question seventeen asked students to estimate the total expenses incurred, not including their tuition costs. The lowest response was zero, while the highest expense given was $17,000. This does not include a response that was given of $130,000! (Evidently this project involved the building of

an addition onto an existing church building). The average
expenses for the project were $1,876. It is interesting to
note that twenty-eight percent of the responses estimated
expenses of $2,000 or more, and thirteen percent estimated
that their expenses were $5,000 or more. The responses did
not detail what was being included in these figures, and
some of the expense may be more directly related to the
project than some of the other expenses. For instance, some
may have included the purchase of a computer and printer as
part of this expense, which would not be as directly related
as moneys spent to purchase research materials. However, it
is imperative that a student entering the project process be
aware of the possible expense involved.

The other question related to expenses, number
thirteen, asked whether the church or supporting ministry
was financially supportive of expenses related to the Doctor
of Ministry studies. The student was given the choices of
very supportive (paid for most or all expenses), mildly
supportive (paid some expenses), or not supportive at all
(paid little or no expenses). Thirty-one percent of the
responses said that the church had been very supportive,
while twenty-nine percent said their church was mildly
supportive, and forty percent replied that their church was
not supportive at all. Of those who did not receive much,
if any, financial remuneration from their ministry, several
added the comment that they had not expected or had not

asked for this type of support. This statistic is not meant

to cast an disparaging shadow on the involvement of local

ministries in the education of their clergy. But it is

important for those anticipating the project process to know

that it may well mean an additional financial burden on

them. Nearly seventy percent of those completing projects

will have had to bear the expense of some or all of the

costs related to the project.

Questions nineteen and twenty dealt with the student's

impressions of their advisors' involvement in the project

process. The first question asked if the student was

satisfied with the degree of assistance and participation

provided by the advisors. Students could respond with very

satisfied, satisfied, dissatisfied, and very dissatisfied.

Ninety-one percent responded that they were either very

satisfied or satisfied with their advisors. Eight percent

replied that they were dissatisfied, and one percent were

very dissatisfied.

The second question was directed towards those who

responded with either a dissatisfied or very dissatisfied

answer in the previous question. They were asked to

describe the primary reason for their dissatisfaction. The

responses to this question expressed concern that there was

little helpful feedback from advisors, and they were not

very readily available to students. Some of this sentiment

is probably a result of the distance factor which was

previously discussed. In the best of all academic situations it is probably difficult to maintain good, open lines of communication, and when a distance factor of hundreds of miles is introduced into the equation it compounds the difficulties.

Two questions, numbers twenty-two and twenty-three, addressed the student's satisfaction with the length requirements for the proposal and for the project. Students were asked if they considered the requirements too long, appropriate, or too short. Three percent felt the required length for the proposal was too long, and ninety-six percent felt it was appropriate. Only one percent felt it was too short. In regard to the project itself, four percent felt it was too long, ninety-five percent felt it was appropriate, and one percent felt it was too short.

Question twenty-four was an attempt to determine the percentage of students who made it through the oral defense process without having to do any revisions. The question asks if the oral examination committee accepted the paper and defense during the initial examination, or if additional exams or revisions were required prior to acceptance. Fifty-eight percent responded that no revisions were necessary, while the remaining forty-two percent stated that revisions were necessary.

One of the final questions was designed to uncover any major complaints or praises with the project process which

had not been uncovered by any of the other questions.
Students were asked that if they were able to make one
change in the project process, what would they change? As
one could imagine, a variety of responses were given.
Several mentioned a desire to see more time allowed for the
completion of the project. Another that was repeated
several times was the wish for more participation and
assistance from advisors. A couple mentioned the need for
assistance in the areas of writing, and in developing
testing instruments. Others urged that the project be more
practical and less academic, and one person expressed the
desire of many when they asked for a magical "personal
discipline" tablet for local church pastors! Several stated
that there were no changes that they would make to the
process.

APPENDIX 3

D.Min. Thesis Project

<u>TOPIC CHECKLIST</u>

_____ Determine institutional requirements.
        What type of project are they interested in?
        What is the institutional timetable for the
        project?

_____ General survey of D.Min projects.
        Research in Ministry (A.T.L.A.)
        Research supplement for D.Min. Students (L.B.T.S.)

_____ Develop list of potential topics.
        Possible sources include:

            Current emphases in ministry.
            Personal interest.
            Supporting ministry interest.
            Educational institution interest.
            Other dissertations or projects.

_____ Narrow list to 2 or 3 potential topics.

_____ Rate list of potential topics. (Use TOPIC RATING
        CHART)

_____ Choose topic.

_____ Conduct literature review.

_____ Refine topic.

_____ Submit topic to D.Min. Director for approval.
        This should consist of a one-page summary of
        the project and your rationale for choosing it.

_____ Select advisor.
        Who qualifies?
        Who is interested?
        Who communicates well with students?
        Who do other students recommend?

APPENDIX 4

D.Min. Thesis Project

TOPIC RATING CHART

RATING AREA	POINTS	TOP 1	TOP 2	TOP 3
Personal interest	(15)	_____	_____	_____
Institutional interest	(12)	_____	_____	_____
Supporting institution interest	(12)	_____	_____	_____
Fulfills institutional requirements	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Researchability	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Research sources available	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Meets proposed time constraints	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Original contribution to ministry	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Enhance personal ministry skills	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Within personal budget constraints	(7)	_____	_____	_____

FINAL SCORES

APPENDIX 5

D.Min. Thesis Project

<u>PROPOSAL CHECKLIST</u>

_____ Literature Review
        _____ Search for other D.Min. projects on the same
                topic.
        _____ Compile a bibliography of materials and sources.
                Religion Index One
                Religion Index Two
                Card catalog - Subject headings
                Subject Guide to Books In Print
                Other periodical indexes
        _____ Gather a significant amount of research material.
        _____ Study enough of the material to understand your
                topic.

_____ Develop draft copies of research instruments.
        Easy to answer?
        Convenient to return?
        How large a sample?
        Machine scorable?

_____ Write proposal.
        _____ Title page.
        _____ Table of contents.
        _____ Main body of proposal.
                Statement of the problem.
                Statement of methodology.
                Statement of scope and limitations.
                Summary of literature review
                (This portion should be a minimum of 6-10
                pages).

        _____ Rough draft of survey(s).
        _____ Bibliography. (4-6 pages).

_____ Submit to Dr. Freerksen by April first of the year
prior to graduation.

_____ Present to D.Min. students and faculty.

APPENDIX 6

D.Min. Thesis Project

FINAL CHECKLIST

This is a list of all of the components which need to be included in the final presentation.

    Title page
    Copyright page (optional)
    Signature page
    Abstract
    Dedication (optional)
    Table of Contents
    List of Tables (optional)
    List of Figures (optional)
    List of Illustrations (optional)
    List of Abbreviations (optional)
    Preface (optional)
    Main Body of Paper
    Appendices (optional)
    Bibliography
    Vita

APPENDIX 7

PROPOSED

DOCTOR OF MINISTRY THESIS

PROJECT HANDBOOK

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this <u>Handbook</u> is to provide assistance
for Doctor of Ministry students who are working on their
Thesis Project. After candidates are introduced to the
purposes of the project, there is a section describing some
general information related to the project. Candidates will
then be given a written orientation to the Liberty
University Library. In addition, practical suggestions will
be included for each of the major components of the project.
Appendices include an annotated list of recommended
readings, a topic rating chart, several helpful checklists,
examples of some of the various pages included in the final
draft, and an indexed listing of the Doctor of Ministry
projects contained in the library's collection.

PROJECT PURPOSES

For many, the thesis project represents the final
element of their formal academic training. As such, it
should make a significant contribution to the individual
student, to their own personal ministry, and to the field of
Christian ministry in general.

In the thesis project, the Doctor of Ministry
candidate must demonstrate a high level of competence in the
practice of ministry by being able:

1) To show that the thesis project is supported by an

appropriate theoretical basis (biblical, ethical,

historical, philosophical, psychological,

sociological, or theological);

2) To describe and defend the project's design and

implementation;

3) To evaluate critically the value of the project for

ministry;

4) To communicate new understanding of ministry to

peers in the profession.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

The specific research design of the project is

dependent upon the nature of the individual project. This

design shall be determined through consultation with the

project's mentor. The minimum acceptable length is 100

pages. The maximum acceptable length is 200 pages. These

standards apply only to the main body of the paper and do

not include the appendices or the bibliography. Any

exceptions to this will need the approval of the Director of

the Doctor of Ministry program.

The initial presentation of the topic will need to be

completed by the time the candidate has finished the two

orientation courses. Upon acceptance of this topic by the

Director, the formal project proposal will need to be

submitted to the Director by April 1 of the year prior to

the year of the candidate's anticipated graduation. This

formal proposal will be a ten to twenty page syllabus of the

thesis project, including an extensive bibliography. During
the summer of the same year, the candidate will make a
presentation of the proposal to other Doctor of Ministry
students and faculty.

By August 1, the first chapter must be submitted to
the Director. The candidate will present two copies to the
Director. These will be routed to the appropriate persons.
Prepared in conformity to the latest edition of Turabian's
Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and
Dissertations, the first chapter must be approved before the
candidate proceeds to other chapters. A complete first
draft will be submitted to the Director by November 1, with
a completed project submitted by March 1. An oral defense
will be held sometime in April. Two library copies will
need to be submitted by May 1.

INTRODUCTION TO THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

The Liberty University Library collections are
available for use by all Doctor of Ministry students.
Located directly across the street from the B.R. Lakin
School of Religion building, in the DeMoss Learning Center,
the library contains over 275,000 volumes of material. The
hours of operation are posted on the library's main doors,
or students may telephone (804) 582-2220 for information.

Because most Doctor of Ministry students are only on
campus during modular weeks, and because most of them do not

live in the immediate area, special arrangements have been
made to facilitate their use of the library. Materials may
be borrowed by mail for a period of four weeks, and may be
returned by mail. Students with a computer and a modem may
access the library's automated card catalog from the
convenience of their home or office. They may then call or
write in to request that books be sent to them. In
addition, they may contact the library throughout the year
to request computer searches for periodical information
related to their coursework. Students may call David
Barnett at (804) 582-2845 to request further information
regarding these services.

While on campus, students are welcome to utilize the
library's Inter-Library Loan services, and may schedule on-
line computer searches. In addition, there are copiers and
typewriters provided for student use. Reference librarians
are also available to assist students with specific research
questions.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS

TOPIC SELECTION

The most important decision to be made in regard
to the thesis project is the choice of a topic. Because of
this, it is important that topic selection be considered as
early as possible in the candidate's program. The Seminary
requires that a topic be submitted by the time the candidate

has completed the orientation seminars, thus allowing the candidate the opportunity of choosing additional coursework that will contribute to the project.

Topic selection is most successfully accomplished when viewed as a three-step process. The first step in this process is to identify potential topic choices. The goal of this step is to narrow the list of choices down to three or four viable topics.

First of all the candidate needs to familiarize himself with the Seminary's general requirements for the project, particularly in regard to the time constraints which are described. Any topic chosen must be completed in accordance with the dates given. Any exceptions must be approved by the Director.

A number of thesis types are acceptable as projects. A candidate may choose to do a case study, a program evaluation, a critical issue in the Church, or perhaps even develop a new program. By perusing the library's collection of thesis projects the candidate may familiarize himself with the type of projects previously done by previous graduates of the Seminary's program.

The second step is the consideration of the essential elements of a successful topic. In addition to meeting the Seminary's criteria, there are six other elements. The first element relates to the type of research which the topic will involve. Will it require the type of research

that is within the candidate's realm of expertise? Will the
research be within his financial budget?

Secondly, is the topic original? Either the topic
should not have been previously done as a project, or there
needs to be a distinctive element to the candidate's
approach that distinguishes it from earlier approaches.

Thirdly, one must determine whether it appears that
the topic can be completed in the required time frame. The
candidate needs to realistically appraise the topic from
this perspective in order to avoid stress and frustration
later on in the process.

Fourthly, will the topic make a contribution to
ministry? What kind of an impact will this have on the
realm of Christian ministry as a whole, and on the
candidate's own ministry in particular? Consideration may
even be given to topic suggestions from within the
candidate's ministry. Input from this source should
certainly be considered if the ministry is providing some
type of support for the candidate's academic work.

Fifthly, does the topic have the potential for
publication at some later date? This may indeed be a
consideration to keep in mind. While not a major criteria,
if all else is equal then this element should be considered.

The last, and perhaps the most critical element to be
considered is the candidate's interest in the topic. The
writer is the one who will need to live with this topic for

a long period of time. Therefore it is important to choose a topic that will remain interesting and motivational to the candidate.

The third and final step in identifying potential topics is to be able to recognize sources for successful topics. Where should the candidate anticipate finding some good choices? One of these sources, as mentioned previously, is the candidate's own personal interests. It may be that in the course of some previous academic work some potential topics were uncovered. Or, as an individual examines his personal ministry he may locate a need that might be suitable for a topic.

Another good source for ideas is among the Seminary faculty. It is quite possible that professors in the Seminary can provide some suitable topics. If they have a genuine interest in the topic, then they might be willing to serve as the mentor for the project. They might also be aware of sources for research information that the candidate might have difficulty locating.

The candidate's own ministry setting may serve as an additional source. Perhaps he has observed needs within the ministry setting that could serve as a topic. Or one may desire to solicit suggestions from the ministry's leadership as to topics which they would like to see done for the benefit of the ministry. Even if they do not have any

suggestions, they will value the fact that their input was solicited.

Current magazines and journals may also be good sources as they identify current trends and areas of interest in the field of Christian ministry. Topics from this source may allow the candidate to make a significant contribution to ministry.

Candidates will also want to peruse publications such as <u>Research in Ministry</u>, published by the American Theological Library Association. Located in the library's reference room, this annual publication lists titles and abstracts of Doctor of Ministry projects that were completed the previous year. Looking through this tool may suggest some topics to the reader.

Once several potential topics have been chosen, the candidate needs to rate the topics utilizing the Topic Rating Chart (Appendix 1) to determine the best choice. This chart allows the candidate to weigh each topic in ten different areas, taken from the characteristics and sources discussed earlier. When completed, this exercise will allow the candidate to have a fairly clear idea of the topic with which they have the best chance of preparing a successful project. In the event that two topics rate evenly, the candidate may either reevaluate them or take them both into the next stage.

At this point, the topic which scored the highest in the previous phase will need to be refined. A literature search should be conducted to allow the candidate to have a representative view of published works related to the topic, as well as a thorough understanding of the topic itself. By broadening his understanding of the topic the candidate will be able to better refine the focus of the topic. The candidate should be able to narrow the topic into a single, concise, purpose statement.

Now the candidate is prepared to make a formal presentation of the topic. Remember that this needs to be completed by the time the orientation seminars have been finished. The topic should be neatly typed on a single page that will include a brief description of the topic and the candidate's rationale for choosing it. It may also include the candidate's perception of the potential value of this topic on his personal life and current ministry. Once prepared, this will be submitted to the Director for approval. The topic will either be accepted or returned for further development. The Director will then assist the candidate in securing a mentor to oversee his thesis project. Only Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary faculty may be assigned as mentors. Later, a reader will be assigned to assist the mentor. A topic checklist has been included in the Handbook's appendices (Appendix B).

PREPARING THE PROPOSAL

The next major hurdle is the preparation of the formal proposal. This proposal is the stage in the project where the candidate submits a thorough and coherent outline of the entire paper. This is where a great deal of energy and effort needs to be spent in order to ensure a successful project. A well-done proposal will accomplish four goals. First, it will demonstrate that the candidate has interacted with the topic well enough to have a detailed understanding of it. Secondly, it will allow the candidate to conclusively determine whether or not the topic has the potential to be successful. Thirdly, the proposal will serve as a type of contract for the project, as it will detail exactly what the candidate will accomplish and what he will not accomplish. Finally, the proposal will serve as a type of mini-project. Most of the work done at this stage will be included in the completed project. Therefore, the more that is done in this stage, the less will need to be done later on.

The proposal will consist of six main ingredients. These are the introduction, the statement of the problem, the statement of limitations, the biblical/theological basis for the project, a statement of methodology, and a review of the literature.

The introduction addresses the question of why this particular topic is needed. It may include a summary of the

background which led to the candidate's awareness of the
problem, and his rationale for why this project should be
done.

This is followed by a statement of the problem, or
what is sometimes referred to as the research question.
This will consist of one or two sentences which will serve
to summarize the purpose of the project. This answers the
question of "what" the project will do.

At this point the candidate will want to define any
special terminology which will be used in the project. This
will assure that the writer and the readers are on common
ground in relation to the concepts being discussed. The
statement of limitations should also be included in this
section. This is where the candidate is able to describe
any issues which will not be addressed as a part of the
project. This disclaimer will protect the candidate from
misunderstood expectations on the part of eventual readers.

The next important section is where the author
describes the biblical/theological basis for the project.
The candidate needs to be able to demonstrate the
relationship between his topic and the biblical/theological
data which corresponds to it.

The statement of methodology is a lengthier section in
which the candidate will describe the proposed design for
the project. Here the candidate answers the question of
"how" the solution to the problem will be reached.

The review of the literature is a summary of the current literature related to the topic. Sometimes this section is included at the beginning of the introduction, due to the fact that the problem may have been identified as a result of the literature review. Generally speaking, however, the literature review seems to fit best after the other introductory material. Not only will this element provide the candidate with a solid grasp of the topic, but will also provide an opportunity to gather a majority of the research materials needed for the project. In addition, the review will demonstrate that the project is indeed an original contribution to the field of ministry.

These elements are all put together and presented to the Director by April 1 of the year before the candidate anticipates graduating. It should include ten to twenty double-spaced pages, of which at least five should be a project bibliography. If a computer is used to compose the proposal, then it should be printed with a letter quality printer, unless the student has already obtained permission from the mentor to utilize a dot-matrix printer. A title page and a detailed table of contents should be included. The title should normally be limited to fifteen words or less. These elements will certainly be revised throughout the process, but an initial draft should be prepared at this point. Again, the more effort which the candidate spends at this stage, the easier the rest of the process will be.

A proposal checklist is included in the <u>Handbook's</u>
appendices (Appendix C).

Then, during the summer modulars of this same year,
the candidate will present his proposal before a combined
audience of Doctor of Ministry students and faculty. Copies
of the proposal should be prepared for all present. The
candidate will have about fifteen to twenty minutes in which
to give a summary of the proposal. This will be followed by
a period of questions and suggestions. The purpose of this
presentation is two-fold. First of all, it provides some
feedback for the candidate at an early stage in the project.
Many of the observations from faculty and students may prove
to be very helpful. Secondly, it provides an opportunity
for those students not yet involved in the project process
to observe some of the things that will be expected of them
in the years to come.

WRITING THE MAIN BODY

The candidate is now prepared to begin writing the
main body of the project. The first chapter of the project
will be the introduction, which is very similar to the
proposal. It will include the background and rationale for
the project, the statement of the problem, the definition of
terms, and the statement of limitations. Depending on the
particular project, the literature review may be included in
the introduction, or may follow as the second chapter. The

same is true of the biblical/theological basis section,
except that it would follow as the third chapter. The next
chapters for most projects will describe the project's
design and methodology, its implementation, the results, and
a summary of the conclusions reached as a result of the
project. While every project may not include all of these
components, most of these will be a part of most projects.

Some other practical elements need to be kept in mind.
The left margin of the paper needs to be one and one-half
inches. All other margins need to be one inch. The right
margin should remain non-justified. Either pica or elite
type-pitch is acceptable. If candidates choose to mail
copies of the project to the Director, then they should be
sure to keep an extra copy, and send the other through
certified mail.

CONCLUDING THE PROJECT

The final stage of the project includes the
candidate's participation in an oral defense of his project.
This will usually be done during March or April. The
candidate will meet with the Director of the program, his
mentor and reader, and the Dean of the Seminary. During what
is normally a one hour session, the candidate will summarize
the project and answer any final questions. The project
will either be approved, returned for modification, or
rejected.

In addition to the oral defense, there are several other elements which need to be included in the final draft. First of all, the student will need to complete an abstract of the project. This will be a descriptive summary of the project, with a maximum length of 100 words. This summary is placed at the beginning of the project and allows readers to gain an overview of the entire project.

Also, the candidate will need to prepare a vita for inclusion into the final draft. The vita is a professional biography, detailing the candidate's educational and professional background. The entire vita is to be on a single sheet of paper.

Finally, an approval page, which is sometimes referred to as a signature page, needs to be prepared, providing spaces for the signatures of each of the mentor and the reader. This sheet will be included in the front matter of the final draft. Samples of each of these elements are included in the Appendix E of this handbook. The appendices also include a page which details all of the required items for the final draft, and their proper order (Appendix D).

The final draft needs to be prepared with a letter quality typeface, on paper of at least twenty-pound weight, and a minimum of 25% rag content. The original, along with one copy, is to be bound, and then presented to the library. The candidate may check at the secretary's office in the library for details regarding the binding. Copies may also

be required for the mentor and the reader. Remember that a non-retractable contribution to the field of Christian Ministry is being made, and only the highest possible quality of work should be presented.

RECOMMENDED READINGS

Badke, William B.   The Survivor's Guide to Library Research.
    Grand Rapids: Zondervan Publishing House, 1990. $7.95

        A current and very helpful volume that gives some
    very practical helps for finding research material in
    an academic library.   In addition, the book also gives
    some very practical advice on how to organize and
    write a major paper.

Davies, Richard E.   Handbook for Doctor of Ministry
    Projects: An Approach to Structured Observation of
    Ministry.   Lanham: University Press of America, 1984.
    $13.75.

        Written specifically for D.Min. students, but
    tends to be technical.   Very helpful for students
    contemplating project designs utilizing heavy amounts
    of behavioral research.

Davis, Gordon B. and Clyde A. Parker.   Writing the Doctoral
    Dissertation: A Systematic Approach.   New York: Barron
    Publishers, 1979. $7.95.

        One of the most practical volumes devoted to the
    writing of the doctoral dissertation.   Includes some
    good descriptions pertaining to the choice of a topic
and the aim of a proposal.

Miller, Joan.   The Thesis Writer's Handbook.   West Linn:
    Alcove Publishing, 1987. $10.95.

        Includes some information which is hard to find in
    other volumes, such as when and how to copyright your
    material, and a brief punctuation guide.   Also
    addresses many of the other issues involved in a major
    paper.

Sayre, John L.   A Manual of Forms for Research Papers and
    D.Min Field Project Reports.   Fourth edition. Enid,
    OK: Seminary Press, 1989. $6.50

   Basically summarizes the portions of Turabian's
style manual which are most frequently utilized in
projects.

Turabian, Kate L. <u>A Manual for Writers of Term Papers,</u>
  <u>Theses, and Dissertations. Fifth edition</u>. Chicago:
  University of Chicago Press, 1987. $7.95

   Required style guide for the D.Min. project.

APPENDIX A

D.Min. Thesis Project

TOPIC RATING CHART

RATING AREA	POINTS	TOP 1	TOP 2	TOP 3
Personal interest	(15)	_____	_____	_____
Institutional interest	(12)	_____	_____	_____
Supporting institution interest	(12)	_____	_____	_____
Fulfills institutional requirements	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Researchability	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Research sources available	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Meets proposed time constraints	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Original contribution to ministry	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Enhance personal ministry skills	(9)	_____	_____	_____
Within personal budget constraints	(7)	_____	_____	_____

FINAL SCORES

APPENDIX B

D.Min. Thesis Project

TOPIC CHECKLIST

_____ Determine institutional requirements.
        What type of project are they interested in?
        What is the institutional timetable for the
        project?

_____ General survey of D.Min projects.
        Research in Ministry (A.T.L.A.)
        Research supplement for D.Min. Students (L.B.T.S.)

_____ Develop list of potential topics.
        Possible sources include:

            Current emphases in ministry.
            Personal interest.
            Supporting ministry interest.
            Educational institution interest.
            Other dissertations or projects.

_____ Narrow list to 2 or 3 potential topics.

_____ Rate list of potential topics. (Use TOPIC RATING FORM)

_____ Choose topic.

_____ Conduct literature review.

_____ Refine topic.

_____ Submit topic to D.Min. Director for approval.
        This should consist of a one-page summary of
        the project and your rationale for choosing it.

_____ Select advisor.
        Who qualifies?
        Who is interested?
        Who communicates well with students?
        Who do other students recommend?

APPENDIX C

D.Min. Thesis Project

<u>PROPOSAL CHECKLIST</u>

_____ Literature Review
    _____ Search for other D.Min. projects on the same
        topic.
    _____ Compile a bibliography of materials and sources.
        Religion Index One
        Religion Index Two
        Card catalog - Subject headings
        Subject Guide to Books In Print
        Other periodical indexes
    _____ Gather a significant amount of research material.
    _____ Study enough material to understand your topic.

_____ Develop draft copies of research instruments.
        Easy to answer?
        Convenient to return?
        How large a sample?
        Machine scorable?

_____ Write proposal.
    _____ Title page.
    _____ Table of contents.
    _____ Main body of proposal.
        Introduction
        Statement of the problem.
        Statement of scope and limitations.
        Summary of literature review.
        Biblical/theological basis.
        Statement of methodology.
    (This portion should be a minimum of 10-20 pages).

    _____ Rough draft of research instruments.
    _____ Bibliography. (4-6 pages).

_____ Submit to Dr. Freerksen by April first of the year
        prior to graduation.

_____ Present to D.Min. students and faculty.

APPENDIX D

D.Min. Thesis Project

<u>FINAL CHECKLIST</u>

This is a list, in order, of all of the components which
need to be included in the final draft.

    Blank Page
    Title Page
    Copyright Page (Optional)
    Signature Page
    Abstract
    Dedication (Optional)
    Table of Contents
    List of Tables (Optional)
    List of Figures (Optional)
    List of Abbreviations (Optional)
    Preface (Optional)
    Main Body
    Appendices (Optional)
    Bibliography
    Vita

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE THESIS PAGES

(sample title page)

LIBERTY BAPTIST THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

A STRATEGY FOR A SUCCESSFUL

DOCTOR OF MINISTRY PROJECT

A Thesis Project Submitted to
Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree

DOCTOR OF MINISTRY

By

David Lee Barnett

Lynchburg, Virginia

March, 1992

(sample copyright page)

(sample approval page)

LIBERTY BAPTIST THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

THESIS PROJECT APPROVAL SHEET

_____

GRADE

_____

MENTOR

_____

READER

(sample abstract)

ABSTRACT

A STRATEGY FOR A SUCCESSFUL DOCTOR OF MINISTRY PROJECT

David L. Barnett

Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary, 1992

Mentor: Dr. James Freerksen

A review of current literature demonstrates that very little material is available to assist Doctor of Ministry candidates with their major projects. The purpose of this project is to illuminate Doctor of Ministry students regarding the nature of the project, its common elements, and an effective strategy for preparing a project. Based on surveys and questionnaires sent to seminaries and students, the project reviews historical perspectives and present institutional and personal perspectives regarding the project. It then reviews the elements which are common to most projects, and offers practical advice regarding the successful preparation of these elements.

Abstract length: 96 words.

(sample vita)

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APPENDIX F

D.MIN. PROJECTS IN THE LIBERTY

UNIVERSITY LIBRARY COLLECTION

This appendix includes an alphabetical listing, by title, of all of the Doctor of Ministry projects in the University Library's collection. The title arrangement was preferred over an author listing due to its ease of use in browsing for particular topics. Each entry includes the title, author, date, and call number. Call numbers beginning with the "Mfl" prefix are on microfiche, and will be located in the periodical room. Call numbers beginning with the "Dis" prefix are located in the Reference room, in a special section reserved for theses and dissertations. The majority of the projects were done at institutions other than Liberty Baptist Theological Seminary. This appendix concludes with a subject index to these projects.

1. A Comparative Study of Active and Inactive Congregants
    Perceptions of Church Membership In a Believer's
    Church. Jonathan Leroy Kanagy, 1981. Mfl
    BV820.K3.

2. A Comprehensive Stewardship Program Utilizing the Pony
    Express Plan in the United Methodist Church at
    Belle, West Virginia. Robert Milton Maring, 1981.
    Mfl BX8339.M3.

3. A Holistic Model of Parish Ministry With Older People.
    Robert Anthony Rost, 1980. Mfl BV4435.R6.

4. A Lay Leadership Training Program in Congregational
    Stewardship for Members of the United Methodist
    Church. Walter Lloyd Eversley, 1981. Mfl
    BX8339.E9

5. A Lay Ministry to Persons Experiencing Grief From the
    Loss of Loved Ones. James Chalmus Grose, Jr.,
    1983. Mfl BV4330.G7.

6. A Marriage Enrichment Program for Rural Parish
    Ministry. David Stanley Simmons, 1983. Mfl
    BV638.S5.

7. A Means of Improving Preaching Through Lay Evaluation.
    Bernard Clayton Meece, 1981. Mfl BV4211.2.M4.

8. A Minister's Guide in the Counseling Process to
    Formerly Married. Carl McGhee Worthy, Jr., 1984.
    Mfl BV4012.2.W67.

9. A Model for Lay Ministry Based on the Small Group
    Concept In a Congregation-Wide Setting. Curtis
    Ray Sylvester, 1984. Mfl BV667.S9.

10. A Model for Local Church Response to Disaster. Keith
    Allen Muhleman, 1980. Mfl HV554.4.M8.

11. A New Five Year Plan for Planting and Developing a New
    Church in Houston, Texas. Daniel R. Peterson,
    1985. Mfl BV652.24.P47.

12. A Police Recruit Family Program for the Anne Arundel
    County Police Department. William Kenneth Lyons,
    1981. Mfl BF575.S75.

13. A Guide for Older Persons and Ministry. Robert
    Clifton Mann, 1981. Mfl BV4435.M3

14. A Program to Attract the Unchurched Utilizing Social

Networks of Young Couples. Gary Allan Ricart, 1984. Mfl BV625.R52.

15. A Project Designed to Reclaim and Involve Inactive Church Members. Paul Frederick Thompson, 1984. Mfl BV825.2.T46

16. A Quest for Wholeness: A Model for a Healing Ministry. Stewart Philip Covert, 1980. Mfl BT732.4.C6.

17. A Self-Description With Analysis of the Management Styles of Independent Fundamental Pastors Across the United States. Lewis Ira Button, 1983. Mfl BV652.B8.

18. A Seminary Field Education Program in Pastoral Care With Institutionalized Older Persons. Lloyd Ellis Evans, 1981. Mfl BV4435.E9.

19. A Shared Approach By a Minister and Congregation in the Preparation and Evaluation of the Weekly Sermon. Frederick Eugene Hummel, 1981. Mfl BV4222.H8.

20. A Study Guide for Understanding Family Relationships From a Biblical and Contextual Therapy Perspective. Richard Henry Morrison, 1981. Mfl BV4526.2.M6.

21. A Study of the Determination of an Intentional and Discriminating Ministry of Pastoral Visitation. John Alexander Malcomson, 1980. Mfl BV4320.M3.

22. A Study of the Introduction of Healing Ministry into a Congregation. Lavonne Althouse, 1981. Mfl BV4337.A4.

23. A Study of the Counseling Function of Ministers. Harold Richard Lunn, 1980. Mfl BV4012.2.L8.

24. A Theology of Samoan Christian Immigrants in the United States. Ulisese Elisara Sala, 1980. Mfl DU819.A1S3.

25. A Workshop to Challenge and Enable Married Couples to Develop a Theology of Marriage Using the United Methodist Methodology. William Miles Fitzhugh, 1981. Mfl BX8338.M3F5.

26. An Analysis of the Gift of Faith in Church Growth. Elmer L. Towns, 1981. Dis BV652.25.T6A5.

27. An Analysis of the Healing Ministries Conducted in
    Three Contemporary Churches. Robert William
    Shaub, 1980. Mfl BV4337.S45.

28. An Empirical Study of the Reasons for Young Adult
    Partipation or Non-Participation Within Local
    Churches. James Smith MacMain, 1980. Mfl
    BV4446.M35.

29. An Episcopal-Roman Catholic Parish for the State of
    West Virginia: A Proposed Model. William Joseph
    Pugliese, 1981. Mfl BX5928.W4P8.

30. An Experiment in Preaching. Stanley Allen Bailey,
    1980. Mfl BV4222.B3.

31. An Experiment in Preparation for Ministry: Power and
    Its Implications for Ministry. Regina Jean Maria
    O'Brien, 1981. Mfl BV4011.6.O2.

32. An Instrument to Identify What Prospective Members
    Want to Know About the Church. Roland Frederick
    Fleck Roehner, 1980. Mfl BV820.R6.

33. An Investigation and an Analysis, Leading to a
    Reassessment of the Minister's Attitudes Toward
    the Time Spent in Leisure Activities.
    Richard Daniel Paul, 1980. Mfl BJ1489.P3.

34. Attitudes and the Establishment of Local Church
    Ministries With Persons Who Are Mentally Retarded.
    David Allan Highfield, 1981. Mfl BV4461.H5.

35. Building a Community of Faith. Curry Ned Vaughan,
    1980. Mfl BV652.25.V3.

36. Caring for Clergy in the Context of Their Families.
    Robert Clifford Peach, Jr., 1985. Mfl BV4380.P4.

37. Christ Centered Therapy: A Model for Pastoral
    Counseling. Edward Marvin Gunter, 1981. Mfl
    BV4012.2.G8.

38. Christian Funerals in the Light of American Attitudes
    Toward Death. Stanley Newell Fix, 1976. Mfl
    BV199.F8F5.

39. Church Discipline and Discipleship: A Training
    Strategy for Elders Designed to Assist Them in
    Reaching Out to Inactive Members. Andrew Richard
    Rienstra, 1983. Mfl BX6826.R5.

40. Church Growth and the Holistic Healing Ministry in Korea. Kisung Song, 1984. Mfl BV652.25.S6.

41. Church Member's Preferences Regarding Aspects of Content and Verbal Title in the Written Pastor's Message. Albert Hugh Dickinson, 1981. Mfl BV4223.D5.

42. Clergy-Lay Dialogue as a Method for Sermon Preparation and Evaluation: A Model for Preaching From Old Testament Stories. Darris Kenton Doyle, 1983. Mfl BV4226.D69.

43. Co-Producing Sermons with the Laity. Jerrold Wayne Swinton, 1981. Mfl BV4211.2.S9.

44. Conflict Management and Decision Making in the Church: A Workshop. Robert Eric Starkey, 1980. Mfl BV652.9.S72.

45. Creating A Successful Senior Adult Program. Norman L. Hedding, 1981. Dis BV4435.H4.

46. Culture and Church Growth: A Study on Cross Cultural Mission Affected Church Growth in Korea. Chang-Shik Lee, 1983. Mfl BR115.L8L8.

47. Death and Dying from the Perspective of the Caring Professions: A Curriculum Model for the Local Church. William Heil Griffith, 1975. Mfl BV4335.G7.

48. Defining the Proper Role of Pastor as Motivator in the Local Church for its Ministry. Rodney Kenneth Ruger, 1985. Mfl BV4012.R8.

49. Design of a Means for Evaluating Pastoral Counseling Education in the Lutheran Church. Howard Fred Aufderheide, 1985. Mfl BV4012.2.A9.

50. Designing, Delivering, and Evaluating Preaching which Mediates Biblical Truth through Personal Experience. John A. Huffman, Jr., 1983. Mfl BV4225.H8.

51. Developing a Local Church Operations Manual: A Model Process. Joe David Sergent, 1980. Mfl BV4401.S4.

52. Developing a Ministry that Encourages High School Students to Become Active in the Local Church. Edward A. Bernard, 1984. Mfl BV4447.B4.

53. Developing a Model for Gathering Information in a New
         Pastoral Appointment as a Preparation for
         Ministry. Raymond Marquees Rowe, Jr., 1981.
         Mfl BV652.4.R6

54. Developing a Model for the Practice of Personal Daily
         Devotions. Pete Sharber, 1981. Mfl BV4813.S47.

55. Developing a Program for a Culturally Inclusive Urban
         Episcopal Parish. Orris George Walker, 1980. Mfl
         BX5969.W3.

56. Developing a Strategy for a Radio Ministry in a Rural
         Setting. Donald Lawrence Kuehle, 1981. Mfl
         BV656.K8.

57. Developing Effective Ministerial Leadership for the
         Small Church. John G. Wightman. 1984. Mfl
         BX9884.A2W5.

58. Developing Pre-Marriage Relationships. C. Sumner Wemp,
         1983. Dis HQ801.W3.

59. Development of Personal Preaching Skills in Relating
         the Bible to Life. Johnny Russell Almond, 1981.
         Mfl BV4211.2.A4.

60. Discipling for Discipleship: A Handbook on
         Discipleship and Discipling with an Anabaptist
         Perspective. John Richard Martin, 1983. Mfl
         BV5411.M37.

61. Education for Ethical Living: A Model for Pastoral
         Ministry through Christian Religious Education in
         Ritual and Liturgy. James Neil Simpson, 1985.
         Mfl LC268.S5.

62. Effective Sermon Conclusions. David E. Dryer, 1988.
         Dis BV4222.D7.

63. Elmer L. Towns, A Biographical and Chronological
         Presentation of his Writings. Steven Richard
         Towns, 1988. Dis BV652.25.T74T74.

64. Enabling the Congregation of Bethany United Methodist
         Church to Make an Informed Decision on the Matter
         of Relocation. Roger Vernon Elliott, 1981. Mfl
         BX8385.R4E5.

65. Enabling the Wright Memorial Presbyterian Church to
         Select Two Lay Ministries for the Congregation.
         Richard John Manning, 1981. Mfl BV664.M3.

66. Enriching the Sunday School Program of a Congregation Through the Use of Puppetry. Frederick Albet Schoof, 1980. Mfl BV1535.9.P8.

67. Equipping for Ministry: A Project to Equip Christian Laypersons to Perform their Individual and Corporate Ministries. Terry A,. Clark, 1984. Mfl BV4401.C52.

68. Equipping the Laity to Provide Pastoral Ministry to the Sick and Bereaved. Louis Thomas Edwards, 1981. Mfl BV4460.E3.

69. Evangelism, Reluctance and Faith Development. Edward Kline Heininger, 1985. Mfl BV3793.H4.

70. Exploring Marriage: A Relational Workshop. Robert Charles Bjorklund, 1980. Mfl HQ734.B56.

71. Exploring the Need for a Specialized Ministry to Children of Ordained Ministers. Wayne DeWitt Kennedy, 1981. Mfl BV4396.K4.

72. External Reward Expectation: A Survey of Baltimore Annual Conference. G. Edward Grove, 1981. Mfl BV4011.4.67.

73. Grief and Theodicy: An Attempt to Determine the Usefulness of a Rational Approach Following Personal Loss. Aart Martin Van Beek, 1980. Mfl BV4330.V3.

74. Grief in the Loss of a Pastor: Implications for Interim Ministry. Beth Pendleton Clark, 1981. Mfl BV4330.C5.

75. Group Process in Retreat Ministry Focusing on Values Clarification. Emmanuel Nazareno Rogacion Balcruz, 1980. Mfl BX2375.A3B3.

76. Improving a Pastor's Ability to Identify and Become Effective in Unstructured Pastoral Interventions in the Local Church. David Forrest Nixon, 1980. Mfl BV4012.N5.

77. Increasing the Sharing of the Pastoral Ministry with the Laity at Christian Life Church. Gerald Allen Sadler, 1981. Mfl BV677.S3.

78. Infertility: A Guide for Pastoral Care and Counseling. Leslie Ann Vergin, 1981. Mfl RC560.I45.

79. Leisure Ministry: A Study of the Lake of the Ozarks
        Parish and its Impact on the Local Church. Ronald
        Leroy Faust, 1981. Mfl BV1640.F6.

80. Loneliness: A Crisis Confronting Many of the Aged as
        They Approach Biological Death. Gordon Neil
        Freeburg, 1981. Mfl BV4580.F7.

81. Marriage Enrichment through Group Process with Emphasis
        on Communication. Richard Henry Hosea, 1981. Mfl
        HQ1051.H6.

82. Methodologies for Ministries in the Criminal Justice
        System: A Thesis Project. William L. Simmer,
        1989. Dis BV4595.S5.

83. Ministering to the Spiritual Needs of Young Adults.
        Paul Robert Cooper, 1984. Mfl BV4446.C6.

84. Ministry of the Elderly: A Process to Help Strengthen
        the Local Church Through Intentional Planning
        Designed to Involve the Elderly in Ministry.
        Donald Paul Flick, 1981. Mfl BV4435.F5.

85. New Pastorate: A Methodology for Understanding a
        Congregation's Faith and World View Within the
        First Year. Frank Albert Stith, III, 1984. Mfl
        BV4320.S74.

86. Non-Verbal Language in Preaching: A Process for
        Understanding between Preachers and Congregations.
        Max Edwin Nuscher, 1980. Mfl BV4235.N8N6.

87. Parish Council Start-Up: A Process for Parish Council
        Development in a Military Chapel. David William,
        Hockensmith, 1984. Mfl BV652.9.H6.

88. Pastoral Care of Battered Women. Rita Lou Clarke,
        1985. Mfl HV6626.C52.

89. Pastoral Care Of Military Personnel In a Crisis-
        Transitional Setting Expressed through Visitation,
        Counseling, Preaching, and Small Group Program.
        Raymond Henry Dressler, 1980. Mfl BV2685.D7.

90. Pastoral Care of the Dying Through an Integrated
        Process Utilizing Direct Meditation. Joseph P.
        Dulany, 1983. Mfl BV4335.D8.

91. Pastoral Counseling with Married Couples When One of
        the Partners Wants the Marriage to Come to an End.

Frederick Rudolph Kompass, Jr., 1983. Mfl
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92. Pastoral Leadership of a Process to Design a Plan for
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93. Paul's Ethics and Feminism in The Light of I
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94. Person-Centered Preaching: Developing Small Lay Study
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95. Preaching in Parables: Communicating the Gospel
Through Contemporary Stories. Richard James
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96. Preparing Lay Leadership in First Christian Church,
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Howard Elvin Hanson, 1981. Mfl BV4401.H3.

97. Preparing Parents to Talk with their Children about
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98. Private Protestant Christian Schools as an Alternative
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99. Procedures for the Development of Administrative
Policies for the Pleasant Grove Baptist Church and
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100. Recruitment and Training of a Team of Lay Visitors to
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101. Revitalization of the Church School. Leroy Bailey,
Jr., 1983. Mfl BV1521.B3.

102. Samoan Cultural Values and Christian Thought: An
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Christian Understanding. Faafouina Iofi, 1980.
Mfl GN671.S2I6.

103. Spontaneous Evangelism: Developing an Enabling
        Process for a Program of Evangelism in a
        Theologically Aware Congregation. Frederick
        Arthur Styles, 1984. Mfl BV3795.S89.

104. Strategy for Growth in a Rural City Church: Orange
        Wesley Uniting. Leonard Arthur Thompson, 1984.
        Mfl BV652.25.T45.

105. Systems Approach to Parish Planning in the United
        Methodist Church, Sunnyside, Washington. Joseph
        Chung-Wook Lee, 1981. Mfl BX8481.S9L4.

106. Teaching the Integration of Theology in Pastoral
        Counseling with Particular Reference to the Egon
        Developmental Counseling Model. Norma Schweitzer
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107. Testing a Process for Making Local Church Ministry
        Planning Intentional. Robert Allen Ochsenrider,
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108. The "Concern Meeting" as a Pastoral Instrument of
        Conflict Resolution. William Ingram Philips,
        1981. Mfl BV4012.2.P44.

109. The American Catholic Church and its Role in the
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        BX1407.C5F6.

110. The Chaplaincy of the United States Army: A Manual
        for Assisting Clergy in Making a Meaningful Career
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        Program on a Wholistic View of Salvation for
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        Mfl BX6266.H3V3.

112. The Development of a Caring Ministry for Suicide
        Survivors. Robert Arthur Rasmussen, 1980. Mfl
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113. The Effect of Pastor-Deacon Relationships upon the
        Life and Ministry of a Small Southern Baptist
        Church. Warren Wells Bernham, 1980. Mfl
        BV4424.S6B8.

114.   The Evaluation of a Planned Strategy for Learning
       About a New Congregation. James Nelson Brewster,
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115.   The Explication of a Counseling Process as used in a
       Church Clinic. Wilbert Henry Graffam, 1980. Mfl
       BV4012.25.G7.

116.   The Formulation and Testing of a Teacher Training
       Program Dealing with the Faith Development of
       Children, Ages Four through Twelve. David Gilbert
       Heberling, 1984. Mfl Bv1533.H4.

117.   The Lamaze Method of Childbirth and Pastoral Care
       Opportunities. Harry Kocotos, 1981. Mfl
       RG652.K6.

118.   The Pastor as an Enabler: A Study of the Relationship
       Between the Pastor and the Congregation of Trinity
       Lutheran Church, Olney, Illinois. John Paul
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119.   The Pastoral and Critical-Prophetic Functions in
       Parish Ministry. Craig Stuart Paterson, 1980.
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120.   The Perceived Role of the Chaplain as Identified by
       Various Constituencies at Fort Stewart and Hunter
       Army Airfield, Georgia. Willard Irving Ghere,
       1980. Mfl UH24.G3G4.

121.   The Place of Preaching in the Deleware Street Baptist
       Church as a Means of Changing Congregational
       Attitudes Toward Ministry in the Community. James
       Edward Durham, 1980. Mfl BV4325.D8.

122.   The Police Chaplaincy, a Ministry of Listening.
       Thomas Joseph Aquinas Nortin, 1984. Mfl
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       Methodist Church of Canton, New York. John David
       Wolcott, 1981. Mfl BX8481.C3W6.

124.   The Role of the Minister in Providing Counseling
       Services to Employed Ex-Offenders. Helen
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125.   The Role of the Woman Pastoral Associate in Parish
       Ministry. Thomas Eastland Simmons, 1981. Mfl
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126. The Second Hour: Where Faith Seeks Understanding. Melvin Gilbert Williams, 1984. Mfl BV1488.W5.

127. The United Methodist Church and the Aging. Roger Marlin Stressman, 1980. Mfl BV4435.S74.

128. The Urban Black Church's Role in Community Mental Health Care. Anthony Frazier Lloyd, 1985. Mfl RC451.5.N4L5.

129. The Use of Graphics of Bible Characters in Teaching a Model of Decision Making. Donald Philip Haskell, 1981. Mfl BS571.A3.

130. The Use of Marketing Principles in Developing Programming Which Will Meet the Measured Interests and Needs of Young Married Couples with Children. Everett Dean Fager, 1981. Mfl BV4446.F3.

131. Toward a Theology of Preaching and Counseling: An Exploration of the Epistemology Common to Gestalt Therapy and Jesus' Proclamation of the Kingdom. Harold Morrison Cowart, 1980. Mfl BV4012.3.C6.

132. Transactional Analysis as a Tool of Ministry to Improve Decision Making in Church Councils. John W. Touchberry, 1983. Mfl BV652.2.T68.

133. Translating Member's Aspirations for Service into Purposes, Goals and Steps for a Ministry Owned by the Congregation. Donald Wallace Sandmann, 1980. Mfl BV4400.S3.

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135. What Laity Expect of Clergy: A Case Study. Stephen Leigh Sterner, 1980. Mfl BV660.2.S73.

136. When I was Hungry: The Church's Response to World Hunger. Charles Lee Bamforth, 1980. Mfl HV554.4.B3.

137. Why People Join: Research into the Motivations and Events which Lead Persons to join Local Churches in the North Indiana Conference of the U.M.C. Michael J. Coyner, 1981. Mfl BX8342.C6.

SUBJECT INDEX

Please note - Projects are identified by their number in the
     list, not by their page number.

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