

Aletheia Logos University

Knowledge Area Demonstration Four

Research

*This KAD with its Academic Components is
Completed in Partial Fulfilment
of the Requirements
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Doctor of Philosophy in

Pastoral Counselling

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Abstract for

Knowledge Area Demonstration Four

Research

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Breadth Section (3 Credits): Critical study and review of empirical research methodologies especially as it relates to research of selected areas in psychology and social psychology.

Depth Section (3 Credits): Study and review of major models in exploration of the research problem as it relates to social phenomena, with emphasis on the model of behavioural systems approaches to the development of cognitive and social functioning; emphasis on similarities and distinctions between theories and hypotheses; the development of key concepts to define and explain the phenomenon of study.

Application Sections (4 Credits): Preliminary Dissertation Proposal

**Breadth Section
for
Knowledge Area Demonstration
Four**

Research Methodologies

Most of the authors studied in this KAD had varied and, more often than not, conflicting opinions on the subject of research methodology. Some categorize data collection methods as research methods, while others categorize different types of research as research methods, and yet others categorize data analysis methods as research methods. However, one consistent view that emerged is that most research can be categorised as falling into one of two paradigms: viz. the qualitative or the quantitative.

The **qualitative** paradigm concentrates on investigating subjective data, in particular, the perceptions of the people involved. The intention is to shed light on these perceptions and, thus, gain greater insight and knowledge. On the other hand, the **quantitative** paradigm concentrates on what can be measured. It involves collecting and analysing objective (often numerical) data that can be organised into statistics. Each of these two approaches involves different ways of thinking about the world - and, hence, investigating it.

According to Newman and Benz (1998) **qualitative** research **designs** in the social sciences stem from traditions where the philosophy emphasizes the detailed description of the “meaning” of phenomena for the people or culture under examination. Often in this design only one subject, one case, or one unit is the focus of investigation over an extended period of time. **Qualitative** methodologists enter the fieldwork phase without a hypothesis; they describe what happens; and on the basis of observation formulate explanations about why it happens. They begin at the empirical level (data collection) and end at the conceptual level. It is important that the researcher begin with the nature of the research question. The decision about what data to collect, as well as what to do

with the data after it is collected, should be dictated by the research question. **The motivating purpose is theory building.**

Qualitative research tends to work with relatively small numbers of participants. They do not work with representative samples, UNLESS, the study aims to explore phenomenon that is relevant to more people than are actually involved in the study. Then representativeness can be an issue because the researcher may want to be able to generalize from the study.

Quantitative research, on the other hand, is sometimes referred to as *hypothesis-testing research*. Studies begin with statements of theory from which research hypothesis are derived. An experimental **design** may be established in which the variables in question are measured while controlling for the effects of selected independent variables. The subjects included in the study are selected at random to reduce error and cancel bias. The sample represents the population. After the pre-test measures are taken, the experiment performed, and the post-test measures taken, a statistical analysis reveals findings about the experiment or effects of the experiment. Findings that confirm or counter the original hypothesis are recorded. Theory revision or enhancement follows. **The intent is theory testing.**

Quantitative **designs** include experimental studies, quasi-experimental studies, and pretest-posttest designs where control of variables, randomization, and valid and reliable measures are required and where generalizability from the sample to the population is the aim. An important aspect of quantitative data collection is reliability. A measurement is reliable if it yields the same answer on different occasions. It relies upon representative samples. Participants in a quantitative study need to be

representative of the population being studied.

Although many of the authors agree that the research question will dictate what data to collect, as well as what to do with the data after it is collected there seems to be other important aspects to consider, one being, what type of research will the project involve? This really determines what approach or type of study a researcher will choose to answer the research questions. In the pages following this researcher has attempted to set forth as many research approaches as could be found.

An **Experimental Study** is that which tests causal relationships by observing the behaviour of the subject under conditions where some variables are controlled and others manipulated. The purpose of experimental research is to identify functional relationships among phenomena through staging the occurrence of certain outcomes under controlled conditions designed to force nature to provide a “yes” or “no” to a specific hypothesis concerning the phenomenon under discussion. Strictly speaking, the term experiment should be confined to those actions or series of actions where it is possible to do all of the following:

- Randomly assign the subjects of the experiment to either an experimental group (to which something is done) or a control group (to which the thing done to the experimental group is not done).
- Manipulate (do something to) the experimental group.
- Ensure that in all other important aspects, the factors affecting the experimental and control groups remains the same.

A true experiment must be distinguished by the three characteristics of 'random assignment', 'manipulation' and 'control'. By definition, experimental

research is always quantitative and always tries to be predictive. It can also be problem solving, analytical or descriptive.

As with true experimental research, the goal of **quasi-experimental research** is to test cause and effect by observing how subjects react to phenomena. It is, therefore, at least in intent, a **quantitative** approach. However, in quasi-experimental research full control is not possible because one or more of the three characteristics of true experimental research is missing. There are many different procedures that are used in quasi-experimental research. Two of the most common are:

Using a non-equivalent control group. In this model the researcher does not randomly assign subjects to a control or experimental group. Rather an experimental group is chosen and a similar group is selected as the 'non-equivalent' control group. The key differences between this model and that of the classic experiment is that subjects are not randomly assigned to each group and the researcher is, usually, unable to control all random variables.

Making a series of observations on a single group before and after the experimental change. In this model, the researcher makes a series of observations ('pre-tests') on a group of subjects to establish an existing pattern. The researcher then makes the experimental change and, again, observes the behaviour of the group over time (in a series of 'post-tests'). If there is a consistent and measurable change, it is considered reasonable to deduce causality. Causal effects of phenomena are investigated in a way similar to experimental research BUT full control is not possible (as, for example, is usually the case when the subjects are human beings acting in a social context).

Non-experimental research is the investigation of phenomena as they really are. No attempt is made to change the subject of the research in the process. Some form of survey or co-relational study would be a more appropriate method of data collection. Non-experimental research is always descriptive, often analytical, and can be predictive. It is not, itself, a problem solving technique, but it can, however, provide information and insights that facilitate solutions.

A **Survey Approach/Study** comprises sampling a larger population in order to draw inferences about that population because the resources are not available to study every member. If the sample is properly representative, i.e. if it is statistically likely that the important characteristics of the larger population are proportionally balanced in the smaller sample, then further statistical analysis can be used to draw inferences about the larger population. Surveys differ from experimental studies in purpose as they are oriented toward the determination of the status of a given phenomenon rather than toward the isolation of causative factors accounting for its existence. A survey study can identify present conditions and point to present needs. By providing the basis for plans for improvement, survey studies can be forward-looking and practical. However, they must do more than uncover data. The survey must begin with a definite problem and be oriented toward the eventual proof of valid generalizations. They must interpret, synthesize, and integrate the data so as to point to their implications and interrelationships.

Two primary concerns in all research that are particularly crucial in surveys is the problem of representative sampling of the population selected for investigation and the validity of the instruments or techniques used in gathering the data.

Surveys can be conducted by interview (face-to-face, telephone, or synchronous on-line text / email interaction) or by questionnaire. Each set of responses forms an equivalent unit in a large sample. Coolican (2004) suggests there are two sample types in survey work: the Panel and the Focus Group. Panel groups are much used by market research companies and can be asked for information on a repetitive basis. Focus groups are mostly use in qualitative research and usually have a common interest. They can provide valuable insight into a topic and may also provide a starting point for research into a specific area.

According to Mouly (1970), survey studies can take the form of either *descriptive studies* or *analytical studies*. Descriptive survey studies seek to count the frequency of defined characteristics within a population. From a large descriptive survey sample, hypotheses can be formulated or checked against further information from the same sample. Analytical surveys seek to investigate causal relationships between variable characteristics of a population. Analytical data can be used to test hypotheses and would be used in a quantitative study.

A Case Study involves an in-depth examination of a single instance of a phenomenon or a single member of a population (Yin 1994). For example, a single student, a single cohort, a single instance of curriculum innovation. It can be thought of as research in depth rather than breadth in that a deliberate choice has been made to examine large numbers of factors by limiting the number of cases investigated. Case studies need to be both comprehensive and systematic. That is, as much data as possible needs to be collected in a way that ensures as little as possible is missed. Even so, generalisations from a sample of one must be made, if at all, with extreme caution. Case

studies are best suited to either illuminating situations or phenomena in such a way as to suggest avenues for further investigation or to testing out previous findings in the field.

According to Yin (1994) a case study may be explanatory, descriptive, or exploratory. In general, case studies are the preferred strategy when “how” or “why” questions are being posed, when the researcher has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context.

On the other hand, Mouly (1970) describes the case study stating that it is closely related to experimentation from the standpoint of purpose. Since the case study is the application of all relevant techniques to the study of a person, a group, an institution, or a community, it consequently resembles almost other types of research in some way or another. As a scientific study it must follow the same steps and meet the same criteria as do the other research methods.

Willig (2008) states that the case study is not itself a research method, and is not characterized by the methods used to collect and analyse data, but rather its focus is upon a particular unit of analysis--the “case“. The case can be a situation, an incident, an experience, an organization, a city, a group of people, a community, a patient, a school, an intervention, even a nation state or an empire. The case study involves an in-depth, intensive and sharply focused exploration of such an occurrence. Case studies can consist of a detailed exploration of a single case or they can involve the comparison of a series of cases that provides the researcher with an opportunity to generate new theories. A comparative analysis of a series of cases can lead to the development of theoretical formulations. Analysis of the first case leads the researcher to formulate a tentative theory or hypotheses, which can be explored in the light of subsequent cases. The

emerging theory is modified with each new case in order to account for all instances associated with the phenomenon under investigation.

A **Memory Study** is a method of inquiry that was developed in the 1980's by Frigga Haug and her colleagues in West Germany as a new approach to the study of self and identity. It was then introduced to English-speaking readers in 1987, and it inspired Australian researchers in particular.

This research method allows the researcher to study the formation of identities in a way that acknowledges the importance of social structures as well as the participation of individuals in the process of socialization. Memory work is designed to trace the process of the construction of individual selves within a predetermined social space. It does this by working with memories of particular situations in a way that pays attention to detail rather than using biographical narratives or lengthy accounts. Its nature is collective. Participants analyze and theorize their memories collectively after individual memories are explored in detail and then compared with the other memories within the pool. The method involves a process of group work during which co-researchers remember, compare, discuss and theorize. It involves three phases: (1) writing of the memories; (2) analysis of the memories; (3) integration and theory building. Like grounded theory, memory work allows researchers to move back and forth between phases and to retrace steps. The work of the group continues until the topic has been exhausted, or until saturation has been achieved.

There are a number of theoretical and practical limitations in a Memory Study. One of the challenges that face memory work researchers is to clarify the relationship between the subjectively significant event that gave rise to the memory and the memory

that is subsequently written about. It doesn't seem to matter that what is described really happened in just the way it is recounted. Rather, what does matter is the extent to which the written memory captures the meanings that were invoked by the event at the time. The task of memory work is to uncover the earlier understandings in the light of current understandings because it is imperative that the researcher can clearly differentiate between earlier and current understandings. Memory work is left with the question of how to differentiate, systematically and theoretically, between *then* and *now*.

Some of the practical limitations of Memory research are the problems with group work. The emergence of group norms within the memory work collective is likely to influence both production and analysis of memories. Some memories will not be written because the group may deem them inappropriate or irrelevant. Some memories may be re-written after being discussed by the group. What is remembered and how it is remembered is not independent of the group's concerns. Lastly, the memory work interpretations are grounded within the groups that have generated them, even though memory work aims to generate insights into the ways in which selves are formed within sets of social relations. Therefore, knowledge produced through memory work can be generalizable because the social relations within which group members write their memories characterize societies rather than individuals.

The **Grounded Theory** approach was originally designed to allow researchers to trace how actions had consequences and how patterns of social interaction combined to give rise to particular, identifiable social processes. Grounded theory techniques for data-gathering and analysis are designed to allow concepts and categories to emerge from the data. Since it can be quite difficult to ask questions without making assumptions, the

researcher could use the research question to identify the phenomenon of interest by remaining at a descriptive level, rather than offering an explanatory account that requires testing against reality. Imposition of meanings onto the data is to be avoided at all costs.

Grounded theory was designed with sociological research questions in mind. The initial research question, being open-ended, should orientate the researcher towards action and process rather than states and conditions. It should not utilize constructs derived from existing theory. The whole process of grounded theory encourages the researcher to continuously review earlier stages of the research and possibly change direction, progressively narrowing the focus throughout the research process. As the researcher asks questions of the collected data, making comparisons and looking for opposites, categories will emerge, forcing the researcher to take a new look at the data and most likely elaborate or modify the original construct. As theories emerge, it is important to check them against reality by sampling incidents that may challenge or elaborate its developing claims.

Identifying categories, making links between categories, and establishing relationships between them is key to providing an explanatory framework with which to understand the phenomenon under investigation. Categories designate the grouping together of instances (events, processes, occurrences) that share central features or characteristics with one another. For example, references to ‘anxiety’, ‘anger’ and ‘shame’ can be grouped together under the category of ‘emotions’. These categories interpret rather than simply label instances of phenomena. Categories that emerge from the data are identified by the process of coding.

According to Willig (2008) grounded theory in recent years has been adopted as a

qualitative research method for psychological research, and it now features as a key method in psychology methods textbooks. However, its suitability as a qualitative research method in psychology is questioned. When applied to questions about the nature of experience, as opposed to the unfolding of social processes, the grounded theory method is reduced to a technique for systematic categorization. The result is a systematic map of concepts and categories used by the respondents to make sense of their experience. Such a map does not constitute a theory, even though it may provide a better understanding of the participants' experiences.

Phenomenological Studies, according to Willig (2008) appeals to psychological researchers because he believes any human experience can be subjected to phenomenological analysis. There are two major approaches to phenomenological research in psychology--the *descriptive* and the *interpretive*. Both are qualitative approaches.

Descriptive Phenomenological Studies rely on the concept that description is primary and that interpretation is a special type of description. It requires the researcher to adopt a phenomenological attitude in which all past knowledge about the phenomenon under investigation is bracketed (both lay or everyday knowledge as well as expert knowledge and theories). The focus of the research is the phenomenon as it is experienced by the research participant rather than the phenomenon as a material reality. There are several steps involved as well as several versions of descriptive phenomenology, all of which share the focus on description although they differ in the extent to which they foreground particular dimensions of experience.

Interpretative Phenomenological Studies, on the other hand, does not separate

description and interpretation, but argues that all description constitutes a form of interpretation. One can only understand the parts when an understanding of the whole is reached, but the whole can only be understood after understanding the parts. A circular movement from presupposition to interpretation and back again is necessary if understanding is to be achieved. Presuppositions are tested in the light of the evolving meaning of what the researcher is trying to understand. Therefore, the researcher works with and uses presuppositions and assumptions about the world in an attempt to advance understanding. There are several versions of this approach. **Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis [IPA]** is one version of the phenomenological method, and when produced by the researcher is always an interpretation of the participant's experience. IPA works with transcripts of semi-structured interviews where the questions posed are open-ended and non-directive. The sole purpose is to provide participants with an opportunity to share their personal experience of the phenomenon under investigation with the researcher. Whatever type of data collection method is used, IPA works with texts generated by participants, and analyzed one by one. It is an interpretation of the facts of lived experiences captured in language.

A Comparison Study may involve comparing either the same people as they mature over long periods of time or several sub-group samples (e.g. ages, class, sex, occupation) studied at the same time. A comparison study may also compare samples from more than one culture. Comparison studies can be *cross-sectional*, *longitudinal* or *cross-cultural* because they focus on groups within the population, either across time (longitudinal studies) or across sections of society (cross-sectional) or they look at differences between societies or cultures as a whole (cross-cultural).

Samples drawn from separate distinguishable subgroups within a population, i.e. different age groups, are compared in a *cross-sectional* study. In this type of study a researcher might take groups of children or adults from different age bands and compare them at the same moment in time. A researcher could also use this study to either compare across occupations, types of educational institutions, disability groups or study gender differences by comparing representative samples of females and males drawn from their respective populations. Developmental theories such as those of Piaget or Freud can be supported using cross-sectional data. However, a big disadvantage of cross-sectional studies arises due to the use of independent samples and is that of group equivalence. Can two or more groups be similar enough for fair comparison?

The *Longitudinal Study* employs repeated measures on the same group of people over a substantial period, usually a number of years, thus, surmounting the fair comparison problem that arises in cross-sectional studies. In this way, genuine changes in psychological characteristics over time can be observed or rather it may be established that certain characteristics remain stable. If shorter intervals are checked, major shifts in thinking may be observed. Sometimes, in order to give an idea of national trends, a huge longitudinal study can be carried out on a large section of the population, such as children. An example of such a study would be Davie, Butler and Goldstein (1972). This study followed almost 16,000 children from birth (one week in 1958) to the age of 11.

There are, of course, several advantages as well as disadvantages to both *cross-sectional studies* and *longitudinal studies*. Support for stage and other developmental theories can be achieved rapidly at one instant in time in a *cross-sectional study*, and it is

relatively inexpensive and less time consuming, whereas, a *longitudinal study* is time consuming and expensive and there is a long wait for the results. Also to its advantage is the fact that a *cross-sectional study* has a low attrition rate, whereas, a *longitudinal study* loses participants throughout the study over time. In a *cross-sectional study* participants cannot become wise to the tests which, in a *longitudinal study*, they may take more than once and may become too familiar with researchers so that they can learn and give what the researchers want to see. A glaring disadvantage in a *cross-sectional study* is the use of non-equivalent groups (i.e. seven year olds and nine year olds) that may confound the differences observed. Seven year olds may have weaker verbal abilities than the nine year olds when they were seven, thus making reading differences look greater than they actually might be. As well as that, it may be impossible to observe or detect maturational changes that confound the results. For example, difficult questions may be answered more easily by nine year olds than by seven year olds. In a *longitudinal study*, however, changes can be followed in the same individuals, thereby, better supporting stage-type theories because the differences between seven year olds and nine year olds are known and are not the result of non-equivalent samples.

Cross-cultural studies may compare samples from two or more cultures on some psychological variable(s). Broad cultural socialising processes or genetic factors are the causes to which differences found are attributed to. The independent and dependent variables of controlled studies are difficult if not impossible to compare across wide cultural gaps. Serious confounding is inevitable and sampling is crucial. According to Coolican (2004), the difference between INDIVIDUALISTIC societies (where people tend to be more person-centred when answering questions about social norms and moral

dilemmas) and COLLECTIVIST societies (where social rules and relationships take precedence over one's own personal needs) has clearly emerged from *cross-cultural* research. A researcher who ignores this distinction will run into great difficulties when trying to replicate western findings in other societies. There are clear advantages, however, to cross-cultural studies. These studies can (a) demonstrate universal development trends and effects; (b) show that a psychological effect is limited to the culture; (c) give insight into quite different cultural systems, beliefs and practices; (d) provide reassessment of 'home' society's norms in culturally relative terms; (e) provide rich data.

A **Historical Research Study** can be classified according to *approach* (arranging the facts of history to support a concept); *subject* (a biography, monography of a town, state, nation, civilization, or the history of ideas, institutions, or trends; or *technique* (based on documents or on relics).

Mouly (1970) summarized the purpose of historical research into two major categories, the foremost purpose being to gain a clear perspective of the present, and the second purpose being to arrive at an accurate account of the past. Present problems are understandable only on the basis of their historical background. Since most current events have a past history, it would be important to acquaint oneself with this history in order to fully appreciate their real significance. Historical research can provide a hypothesis for the solution of current problems.

Arriving at an accurate account of the past may involve nothing more than scholarly interest in truth—the desire to know what happened and how and why it was allowed to happen. A historian might not be satisfied with the mere discovery of truth,

however, but may imagine his primary responsibility to be the interpretation of the data in order to link the past to the present and to the future.

Historical research must meet the same criteria and generally follow the same procedures as other forms of research:

1. The identification and delineation of the problem;
2. The collection of data;
3. The establishment of the validity of the data;
4. The interpretation of the data from the standpoint of whatever hypothesis or theory the data will most adequately support. The data must be considered in relation to one another and synthesized into a generalization or conclusion.

A major disadvantage in doing historical research seems to be the collection of data and in some instances, verification of its accuracy. When numerous gaps in the primary evidence occur, the researcher has to rely on secondary sources, greatly limiting the research, even to the point that the research may need to be halted. However, if the researcher can effectively balance one secondary source against another, he may come much closer to the truth than if he relied on a single original source. Fully aware of the limitations of the data with which they have to deal, historical researchers have developed systematic means of evaluating such evidence--establishing the authenticity of the source as well as the validity of its content, also known as external and internal criticism, respectively.

Authenticity testing takes on many different forms, from exposing forgeries to detecting fraudulent data through the science of anachronism, or by dating documents through chemical analysis of paper, the water mark, or the ink. Erasures and alterations

in manuscripts can be detected by sensitive devices of modern science. Plagiarism, alterations of documents, insertions, deletions and even unintentional omissions are some of the more common problems encountered in establishing authenticity.

The establishment of validity of the content of a document or source is even more crucial to the discovery of truth than its authorship or genuineness. Transcription errors and inclusion of marginal notes as original content when copying documents by hand, and translation errors from one language to another are just some of the concerns when establishing validity of documents.

Having established the authenticity and validity of his facts, the researcher must then interpret the facts in the light of his problem. The first task is making sense of the facts gathered and synthesizing the data in relation to a hypothesis or theory. However, caution must be taken when the researcher uses analogy as a source of hypothesis or as a frame of reference for interpretation. It is generally possible to draw parallels between one historical event and any number of others. For example, a current administration can be compared to any one of previous administrations from one standpoint or another.

The goal of historical research, then, is to not only establish facts but to determine trends which the data may suggest and generalizations which can be derived from the data.

Ethnography as a recognized research method, according to Coolican (2004) stems from the social anthropologists' attempts to generate an understanding of a society from substantial experience of living within it. It was believed that by going among them a researcher might help curb preconceptions and help to develop empathy with the community from their own perspective. Participant observation was the particular data

collection of choice and the specific methods involved closely resemble those of grounded theory. In fact, according to Coolican (2004), Glaser and Strauss' model can be seen as a direct offshoot.

Harris (1968) defined ethnography as a qualitative design in which the researcher describes and interprets the shared and learned patterns of values, behaviours, beliefs, and language of a culture-sharing group. According to Agar (1980) as both a process and an outcome of research, ethnography is a way of studying a culture-sharing group as well as the final, written product of that research.

Although there are many forms of ethnography there are two popular forms of ethnography that Creswell (2007) emphasized: the realist ethnography and the critical ethnography. Critical ethnography is a type of study in which the researcher advocates for the emancipation of groups marginalized in society. A critical ethnographer will study issues of power, empowerment, inequality, inequity, dominance, repression, hegemony, and victimization. On the other hand, the realist ethnography is a traditional approach of study used by cultural anthropologists to reflect a particular stance taken by the researcher toward the individuals being studied. This type of research is an objective account of the situation, typically written in the third person point of view and reported objectively through participant observation at a site. A realist ethnography study reports objective data uncontaminated by personal bias, political goals and judgment, producing participants' views through closely edited quotations.

According to Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) the criteria for selecting who and what to study are based on gaining some perspective on chronological time in the social life of the group, people representative of the culture-sharing group in terms of

demographics, and the contexts that lead to different forms of behaviour.

Fieldwork in an ethnographic study involves going to the research site and collecting a wide variety of materials, while respecting the daily lives of the individuals being observed. It is imperative that the researcher is ethical in all aspects of the research, especially in presenting themselves and the study. The researcher begins by compiling a detailed description of the culture-sharing group, either focusing on a single event, or on several activities, spanning a prolonged period of time. The researcher then moves into a theme analysis of patterns or topics that emerge from the group and that signify how the cultural group works and lives.

Ethnography can be a challenging form of research in that the researcher needs to have a grounding in cultural anthropology and the meaning of a social-cultural system. In many ethnographies narratives are written in a literary approach that may limit the audience for the work and may prove challenging to the writer accustomed to traditional approaches to writing social and human science research.

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Book Annotation 1

Newman, I. and Benz, C.R., (1998). Qualitative-Quantitative Research Methodology: Exploring the Interactive Continuum. Illinois: Southern Illinois University Press.

The authors seek to abandon qualitative and quantitative research methodologies as two mutually exclusive or contradictory approaches. They first set out the history of educational research beginning as far back as 1844 and look at the progression of the qualitative-quantitative debate and how it influenced educational research. They present an interactive continuum model in this book to serve as a framework directed to the needs of both approaches.

Newman and Benz explore the research continuum on scientific grounds as opposed to a dichotomy. They believed that the notion of a continuum is the only construct that fits what they know in a scientific sense. They saw as equally important a theme that qualitative methods are frequently beginning points, or foundational strategies which are often followed by quantitative methodologies.

According to Newman and Benz qualitative research methods fall under headings such as *ethnography, case studies, field studies, grounded theory, document studies, naturalistic inquiry, observational studies, interview studies and descriptive studies*. Qualitative research designs in the social sciences stem from traditions where the philosophy emphasizes the elaborate description of the “meaning” of phenomena for the people or culture under examination. Often in this design only one subject, one case, or one unit is the focus of investigation over an extended period of time.

Quantitative research falls under the category of *empirical studies* or *statistical studies*. Quantitative designs include experimental studies, quasi-experimental studies, and pretest-posttest designs where control of variables, randomization, and valid and

reliable measures are required and where generalizability from the sample to the population is the aim.

Newman and Benz assume that science, as reflected in the scientific method, is the only defensible way of locating and verifying truth. They use the criteria for comparing the qualitative vs. quantitative dichotomy and the interactive continuum as their scientific bases. The authors are more concerned here with validity of research methods, rather than describing the methods and how one matches research questions with the research methods. According to Newman and Benz, the search for knowledge (or “truth”) is the purpose of research which is most effective when built on scientific methods. Design validity is more likely to be built into studies when the researcher is open to both paradigms rather than precluding one or the other.

According to Newman and Benz qualitative methodologists enter the fieldwork phase without a hypothesis; they describe what happens; and on the basis of observation formulate explanations about why it happens. They begin at the empirical level (data collection) and end at the conceptual level. The researcher must begin with the nature of the research question. The decision about what data to collect, as well as what to do with the data after it is collected, should be dictated by the research question. **The motivating purpose is theory building.**

Newman and Benz make mention that there are 14 qualitative methods in existence, yet throughout the book they only briefly discuss seven different methods including observational methods, grounded theory methods, case study methods, interviewing methods, historical methods, ethnographic methods, and phenomenological research methods. After each brief discussion of these methods, the authors digress on

ways to increase the validity of each method. They state that using multiple methods in research may enhance the quality of a research study, that the research questions should always dictate the method and finally that the totality of the methods is the design.

Newman and Benz outlined step-by-step procedures to use in critiquing research by applying their qualitative-quantitative interactive continuum.

The second half of the book is devoted to critiquing four different studies showing how the authors use the interactive continuum as a method of critiquing research studies.

Book Annotation 2

Trochim, W.M.K. (2006). Research Methods Knowledge Base.
www.socialresearchmethods.net

Trochim lays out in this book a “road map” to research. This book is essentially divided into two halves. In the first half of this book Trochim maps out the research process and the second half he devoted to research design. At this stage in my studies, because I am focusing on research methodologies, I have focused on Trochim’s research process and will review the second half of the book about research design as my study progresses.

Trochim began with the language of research introducing terms such as theoretical and empirical, indicating that most research is a blend of these two terms, comparing our theories about how the world operates to our observations of its operations. Other terms I became familiar with in his work was nomothetic (social research is based on the general case rather than the individual), probabilistic (based on probabilities), and causal (social research is interested in looking at cause-effect relationships). According to Trochim, if we want to change the world, we are interested in causal relationships—ones that tell us how our causes (e.g. programs, treatments) affect the outcomes of interest.

There are three basic types of questions that research projects can address: (a) Descriptive—describe what is going on or what exists, (b) Relational—when a study is designed to look at the relationships between two or more variables, and (c) Causal—when a study is designed to determine whether one or more variables (e.g. a program or treatment variable) causes or affects one or more outcome variables. Trochim discussed

the difference between a correlational relationship and a causal relationship. He digressed at length on variables—any entity that can take on different value or anything that can vary can be considered a variable.

Trochim devoted an entire chapter to the methodological area called Evaluation. Evaluation is a specific form of social research that utilizes many of the same methodologies used in traditional social research. Trochim presented an overview of what Evaluation Research is and how it differs from social research generally. Evaluation utilizes many of the same methodologies used in traditional social research. However, since Evaluation takes place within a political and organizational context, it requires group skills, management ability, political dexterity, sensitivity to multiple stakeholders and other skills that social research in general does not rely on as much. He defined Evaluation as the systematic acquisition and assessment of information to provide useful feedback about some object. Trochim discussed four major groups of evaluation strategies (a) Scientific-experimental models, (b) Management-oriented systems models, (c) Qualitative/anthropological models and (d) Participant-oriented models.

Trochim devoted a large portion of this book to Measurement—the process of observing and recording the observations that are collected as part of a research effort. He pointed out and discussed two major issues—the fundamental ideas involved in measuring and the different types of measures used in social research. Trochim explained the meaning of four major levels of measurement—nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. He then moved on to the reliability of measurement, including consideration of true score theory and a variety of reliability estimators. He considered four broad

categories of measurements and detailed each one: Survey research, scaling, qualitative research, and unobtrusive measures.

Trochim devoted many pages to discussing external validity, construct validity, construct validity threats, measurement validity types, multitrait-multimethod matrix, and pattern matching. Included in his discussion of measurement, Trochim defined reliability, meaning “repeatability” or “consistency”. He then explored in more detail what it means to say that a measure is “repeatability” or “consistent” by defining a measure arbitrarily labelled “X”. He discussed different types of reliability.

In Trochims discussion of measurement he devoted many pages to survey research. He believes survey research to be one of the most important areas of measurement in applied social research. He began by looking at the different types of surveys that are possible, dividing them into two broad areas: Questionnaires and Interviews. He then looked at how to select the survey method best suited to the situation, constructing the survey itself, addressing a number of issues including: the different types of questions; decisions about question content; decisions about question wording; decisions about response format; and, question placement and sequence in the survey instrument. Finally, Trochim turned to some of the special issues involved in administering a personal interview and considered some of the advantages and disadvantages of survey methods.

Book Annotation 3

Kumar, R. (1996). Research Methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

This book is written around the theoretical knowledge required to undertake each operational step in the author's 8-step model of the research process and follows the same sequential progression as needed to undertake a research investigation. For each operational step, the required theoretical knowledge is further organised, in different chapters, around the operational step to which it is most logically related. Kumar's 8-step model includes 1) formulating a research problem; 2) conceptualizing a research design; 3) constructing an instrument for data collection; 4) selecting a sample; 5) writing a research proposal; 6) collecting data; 7) processing data; and 8) writing a research report.

According to Kumar, formulation of a research problem is the most important step in the research process. It is the foundation, in terms of design, on which the whole study is built, and any defects in it will adversely affect the validity and reliability of the study. He, therefore, outlined a 7-step operational model for formulating a research problem.

In step 2, conceptualizing a research design, the author examined various study designs from three perspectives--the number of contacts, the reference period, and the nature of the investigation. The number of contacts comprises cross-sectional studies, before-and-after studies, and longitudinal studies. The reference period categorises the studies as retrospective, prospective and longitudinal studies. The nature of the investigation perspective classifies studies into experimental, non-experimental, and semi-experimental studies. Other studies he mentioned include trend studies, cohort studies, panel studies, blind studies, double-blind studies and case studies.

Anything that is a means of collecting information for a research study is called a research tool or a research instrument. In step 3, the author determined that methods used are either primary sources or secondary sources. He included three main methods of primary sources--interviewing, observation and questionnaires. Kumar also outlined attitudinal scales including the Likert scale, the Thurstone scale and the Guttman scale. In this chapter the author also addressed establishing validity and reliability of a research instrument. He outlined two approaches to establish validity of an instrument: (1) the establishment of a logical link between the objectives of a study and the questions used in an instrument and (2) the use of statistical analysis to demonstrate this link. He also digressed on three types of validity: face and content validity, concurrent and predictive validity, and construct validity.

In step 5, writing a research proposal, the author set out guidelines to provide a framework within which a research proposal should be written. He suggested that the contents be arranged under the following headings: preamble/introduction, the problem, objectives of the study, hypotheses to be tested, study design, the setting, measurement procedures, sampling, analysis of data, structure of the report, and problems and limitations. Kumar then carefully laid out what a good proposal would include in each of those headings, assuming that the reader had no prior knowledge of writing a research proposal.

The author examined ethical issues to be considered in step 6 when conducting research. He looked at ethical issues as they relate to (a) participants--collecting information, seeking consent, providing incentives, seeking sensitive information, the possibility of causing harm to participants, and maintaining confidentiality, (b)

researchers--concern regarding introducing bias, providing and depriving individuals of treatment, using unacceptable research methodology, inaccurate reporting, and the use of information; and (c) sponsoring organizations--concern regarding restrictions imposed on research designs and the possible use of findings.

Book Annotation 4

Yin, R.K. (1994). Case Study Research: Design and Methods (2nd edition). London: Sage Publications.

According to Yin, case study research is a comprehensive research strategy with the logic of design incorporating specific approaches to data collection and to data analysis. How that research strategy is defined and implemented is the topic of the entire book. Yin defines the case study method as an approach to studying social phenomenon through a thorough analysis of an individual case. The case may be a person, group, episode, process, community, society or any other unit of social life.

This book makes the argument that the continuing relevance of the case study method raises the possibility that its strengths and weaknesses have been misunderstood and that a different perspective is needed. This book tries to develop such a perspective, by disentangling the case study, as a research tool, from (a) the case study as a teaching tool, (b) ethnographies and participant-observation, and (c) “qualitative” methods. The distinguishing features of the case study method, throughout all phases of research-- problem definition, design, data collection, data analysis, and composition and reporting-- are the subjects of the chapters of this book.

At the beginning, Yin listed five different major research strategies in the social sciences: experiments, surveys, archival analysis, histories, and case studies. Each of those strategies has its advantages and disadvantages, and each is a different way of collecting and analyzing empirical evidence, following its own logic. To get the most out of using the case study strategy, Yin believed a researcher must know those differences. He, therefore, discussed the importance of three conditions in distinguishing among the five research strategies. According to Yin, the goal is to avoid gross misfits when a

researcher is planning to use one type of strategy but another is really more advantageous.

Yin then went on to cover the distinctive characteristics of the case study strategy, compared with other types of research. He concentrated heavily on the problem of designing and analyzing case studies, and throughout the remainder of the book, he covered all of the phases of design, data collection, analysis, and reporting.

Book Annotation 5

Coolican, Hugh (2004). Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology. London: Hodder Arnold.

This book is about research methods *and* statistics. Coolican categorized the study of psychology as scientific research and that all scientific research is aimed at finding out. He crudely formed two categories: finding out what happens and finding out why it happens. In formal terms we could refer to these two categories as Descriptive Research and Hypothesis-Testing Research, respectively. Descriptive Research would include an investigation aimed at finding out what is happening. These studies may provide an incentive to move on to then explain their findings, but the main aim is to gather data about what is happening out there. Hypothesis-Testing Research, however, may state a theory in a general way that requires evidence to support it and this will come from the origin of several hypothesis that can then be tested.

Since the distinction made between descriptive and hypothesis-testing research mirrors the historical development of the conventional scientific method as it is recognized today, Coolican demonstrates this development. He explains how psychologists actually do scientific research. He devotes seven chapters to the main features of a psychological investigation including the three ways to gather information about people: asking them, observing them and through many types of experiments. He explains each of these information gathering methods in great detail including all the different types of experiments, observations, and interviews one can use.

In the second half of this book Coolican detailed the use of statistics to organize data, and significance tests--testing differences between two samples, tests for categorical variables and frequency tables, correlation, multi-level analysis, multi-factorial analysis

and repeated measures.

Coolican devoted a chapter to qualitative approaches in which he summarized recent efforts to introduce into psychology a general new paradigm for research. He introduces the main features of several of the more popular qualitative approaches currently used in psychological research. They include: grounded theory, interpretive phenomenological analysis, discourse analysis, thematic analysis, ethnography, action research, participative research and collaborative research, reflexivity, and the feminist perspective.

Coolican advised a qualitative data-gathering project, first generally in terms of data sources, sampling, data gathering and analysis. He briefly outlined possible procedures in three major qualitative approaches: grounded theory, interpretive phenomenological analysis and discourse analysis. He appended an example of a qualitative article from the *Journal of Health Psychology* that I found to be quite interesting, not just in content but as an example of a qualitative research project report.

After both of the chapters devoted to qualitative research, Coolican listed further readings on the subjects covered as well as computer software packages used in qualitative data analysis and websites where these can be found.

Book Annotation 6

Mouly, G. J. (1970). The Science of Educational Research. D. Van Nostrand Company: New York.

This book is really about defining education as a science. Having done that Mouly proceeds to describe the scientific methods that can be successfully applied to the investigation of complex problems faced in education. Mouly begins with the evolution of science, establishing that quantification provides the precision necessary for classification in a more mature science and moves on to discuss the nature of science, but more specifically, the nature of scientific research methods. He believes that in its broad sense, educational research refers to any activity which is oriented toward the development of education as a science.

Since most authors agree on three basic categories of educational research at the time of Mouly's book, his discussion of research methods is limited and categorized into three basic categories: Historical, Survey, and Experimental. While the methods discussed entail obvious differences in purpose and approach, the significant aspect of the situation is their similarity as techniques of science, and, therefore, categorized as quantitative methods. Quantification of phenomena is generally considered essential to the progress of science, especially at more advanced levels.

In his discussion of historical research, Mouly states that the foremost purpose of doing historical research is to gain a clear perspective of the present, and a common motive underlying historical research is the desire of the scientist to arrive at an accurate account of the past. The three main tasks of historical research is (1) the collection of data; (2) the treatment and interpretation of the data; and (3) the derivation of conclusions and generalizations. However, since historical research is criticized for failure to meet

the criteria of science in all three of these tasks, he did not devote much explanation of historical research other than to briefly list documentary research, and bibliographical/legal research under the heading of historical research.

Mouly provides a lengthy discourse on the broad classification of survey research comprising a variety of specific techniques and procedures, all similar from the standpoint of purpose--namely, to establish the status of the phenomenon under investigation. Surveys must not only uncover data, but must interpret, synthesize and integrate the data and point to their implications and interrelationships. They must begin with a definite problem and be oriented toward the eventual derivation of valid generalizations. The outcome is best when the survey originates from a problem existing within the framework of theory and identifies factors and relationships worthy of investigation under more rigorously controlled conditions. Specific techniques and procedures that Mouly included in survey research were set out under four sub-categories: descriptive research, analytical research, school surveys and genetic research. He included in-depth explanations of survey testing, interview and questionnaire as research tools within descriptive research. Analytical studies seemed to be an important aspect of survey research, although I couldn't grasp why he did categorize it as survey research, even though it is closely related to descriptive research. For without analysis to provide a deeper insight into their basic nature, the adequate description of phenomena is relatively impossible.

In Mouly's time frame, since the development of multivariate analysis, experimentation became applicable to the more realistic problems which the field of education presents. He, therefore, happily includes the experimental research method in

this book. Its purpose is to identify functional relationships among phenomena through staging the occurrence of certain outcomes under controlled conditions. Experimentation can be considered a technique of deliberately staging a situation designed to force nature to provide a “yes” or “no” to a specific hypothesis concerning the phenomenon under discussion. In that chapter, the author describes the use of eight experimental designs. Surprisingly, the author describes the case study in this chapter, stating that it is closely related to experimentation from the standpoint of purpose. Since the case study is the application of all relevant techniques to the study of a person, a group, an institution, or a community, it consequently resembles almost other types of research in some way or another. As a scientific study it must follow the same steps and meet the same criteria as do the other research methods.

Last but not least, the author includes a chapter on predictive methods, beginning with prediction based on trends derived from past performance to association between variables as represented by the concept of correlation, to the choice of variables (both predictor and criterion), and on to statistical prediction (simple regression, multiple regression) and other forms of prediction such as canonical correlation, pattern analysis, and discriminant functions, clinical vs. actuarial, and ending with prediction of rare events.

Of particular interest is the 25-page appendix at the back of the book entitled “The Thesis and Dissertation.” Here the author outlines the mechanics of the research proposal, writing the report, defining the problem, reviewing the literature, and selecting the design.

Book Annotation 7

Willig, C. (2008). Introducing Qualitative Research in Psychology. Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

This book is an introduction to research methods that are most appropriate for qualitative research in psychology. Willig discusses key aspects of qualitative research design, including formulating the research question, selecting suitable data collection techniques, as well as ethical considerations and reflexivity. He introduces six approaches to qualitative research in psychology: grounded theory, phenomenology, case studies, discursive psychology, Foucauldian discourse analysis and working with memories. Willig discusses the procedures and techniques for gathering and analysing data for each of the six approaches. He identifies advantages and disadvantages and discusses ways of writing up the research.

To be able to evaluate research in a meaningful way, Willig believes the researcher needs to know what the research objectives are and what kind of knowledge it aims to produce. In order to compare methodological approaches with one another and to evaluate the extent to which studies using these approaches have met their own objectives, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of their epistemological basis and their methodological requirements. To that end, Willig raises three questions in relation to each approach:

1. *What kind of knowledge does the methodology aim to produce?*
2. *What kinds of assumptions does the methodology make about the world?*
3. *How does the methodology conceptualize the role of the researcher in the research process?*

This book also reproduces three research reports written by third-year psychology

undergraduates. These reports illustrate how research methods can be applied in practice. The first research project used qualitative research methods to define the study, but then the investigation began using quantitative research techniques. The study used the memory work method for collection and analysis of data. The second project used semi-structured interviews as a method of data collection and the grounded theory method for analysing the data. The third project used the observational method in its purest form.

Book Annotation 8

Smith, J. A. (2008) Qualitative Psychology: A Practical Guide to Research Methods. London: Sage Publications.

In this book Smith offers practical guidance to the student conducting qualitative research specifically in psychology. He covers the main qualitative approaches now used in psychology (phenomenology, interpretative phenomenological analysis, grounded theory, narrative psychology, conversation analysis, discourse analysis, focus groups, co-operative inquiry: an action research practice) and in each chapter outlines a step-by-step guide to carrying out research using that particular method.

The aim of this book is to help the researcher navigate through the different qualitative approaches in terms of both their underlying theoretical assumptions and their practical procedures. Smith introduces each approach by chapter from the perspectives of the international experts or key figures that either developed the particular approach or had extensive experience using, teaching and writing about it with the aim to provide the researcher with an understanding of the main features of each method.

Since each of the eight approaches that Smith identifies, have overlapping but different theoretical and/or methodological emphasis, Smith sets out to provide the researcher with enough information to know which type of particular qualitative method they are working with, what its theoretical commitments are, and how it differs from other qualitative approaches they might encounter. In each chapter that is devoted to a particular approach, Smith demonstrates the gathering and creating of data, analyzing the data, identifying common themes, or systematic patterns in the data, drawing conclusions from the data, and writing the report. For example, in the chapter discussion on phenomenology, Smith includes the descriptions of two participants and demonstrates

how the two participant descriptions can be separated, yet are so intimately connected that it is better to treat them together. Should one choose the phenomenological method, a different method such as grounded theory cannot be used nor combined with the chosen method, but the researcher must accept the limits of the chosen method. Appropriate instruments of data collection must be used to record what specifically the researcher wants to record. There must be a harmony among the raw data that is obtained, the method of analysis and the outcomes that are sought.

Book Annotation 9

Creswell, J.W. (2007) Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches. London: Sage Publications. (68-72)

In this book Creswell organizes the chapters to reflect the process of qualitative research that he uses beginning with the problem, examining the literature related to the problem, posing questions, followed by gathering data and analyzing the data, and finally writing the report. He begins with a discussion of a general approach to designing a qualitative study, then shapes this design as he outlines five approaches to qualitative research, including narrative research, phenomenological research, grounded theory research, ethnographic research, and case study research.

In addition to describing the five approaches, Creswell provides definitions of each of the five approaches, some history of the development of each approach, the major forms each approach assumes, and he details the major procedures for conducting each study as well as the major challenges involved. Creswell also presents outlines of the structure of each approach that might be useful in designing a study within each of the five types. Creswell devotes a chapter to examining five studies that illustrates each approach, followed by a chapter devoted to conveying the elements of writing a good qualitative research problem statement, a purpose statement and research questions tailored to each one of the five approaches to qualitative research that he examines in this book. He stresses the importance of a central question. Although many research studies do not mention a research question, the question is implied. However, Creswell suggests that for graduate research theses or dissertations, both purpose statements and central questions should be mentioned. Following the central question may be sub-questions, i.e. issue sub-questions that address the major concerns and perplexities to be resolved. He

gives examples of how this could be done in the different approaches.

Equally important to the researcher is the chapter on data analysis and representation. Creswell summarizes three general approaches to analysis provided by leading authors. He examines specific data analysis procedures within each approach and compares these procedures.

Creswell devotes a chapter to writing a qualitative study. He outlines the structure of each of the five approaches, including the overall rhetorical structure and the embedded structure. He then concludes the book by addressing standards of validation and evaluation by posing two questions: “Is the account valid, and by whose standards? How do we evaluate the quality of qualitative research?” Creswell reviews the specific standards of quality of qualitative research that exists within each of the five approaches to inquiry.

**Depth Section for
Knowledge Area Demonstration**

Four

*Case Study
Research Methodology*

The purpose of the Depth section of the KAD is for the researcher to use research skills to conduct **scholarly inquiry** relating to her **professional interests**; be able to understand **ethical and philosophical issues** and **research designs**; write a paper bringing together research **questions**, a **chosen research methodology** and a **research design**.

Developing the Research Question (Statement of the Problem)

In alignment with the researcher's pursuit of a degree in Pastoral Counseling and Psychology, this researcher will use the model of behavioralism to explore the research problem. According to Valerio (1995) behavioralism defines all behavior in terms of stimuli and response. The stimulus could be something of a religious or spiritual nature that resulted in an active response in spite of intrapsychic conflict. Since the revelation through the Murphy report of child abuse by Priests in the Irish Catholic churches there has been a huge surge of Catholics formally defecting from the Catholic Church in Ireland via the website www.countmeout.ie. The stimulus and response to be studied then could be individuals defecting from the Catholic Church. Formal defection is obviously the active response but, what was the actual stimulus? Was it the Murphy report? Did it stimulate outrage? Was it due to personal abuse suffered? Was it due to shame at being connected to the Catholic Church? Was it a response of anger at priests who were using their power over individuals? Was the Ryan report that reported abuse at Catholic Industrial Schools the stimulus? Did the countmeout.ie website provide an option to defect from the Catholic Church, that the individual never knew existed before? Why didn't people defect before www.countmeout.ie? What were the emotional issues,

the spiritual issues and sociological issues?

The intrapsychic conflict would be the internal struggle individuals faced before coming to the final response—formal defection. The study could reflect the emotional journey of defection, in terms of feeling the fear, facing the fear, but doing it anyway. What was the journey like? Was there an inner conflict or struggle with obeying religious traditions vs. rebelling against them?

Formal defection from the Catholic Church will come with its set of issues affecting individuals until societal changes occur. If defection continues, change seems inevitable, i.e. religion and state may become separate, individuals may experience freedom they never had before, people can let go of anger; society may change, i.e., they may have choices and options for schooling, religion, faith, freedom from oppression, freedom to question, to be assertive, to raise their children in ways they wish to.

Defection from the Catholic Church has occurred in massive numbers since October, 2009. Perhaps the impetus was the Ryan Report or the Murphy Report, but maybe this was only the catalyst that pushed people to do what they have wanted to do for years. It might have given justification (**psychological alibi**) to those already wanting to defect. The “countmeout” website seems to have provided a vehicle for people to exit the Catholic Church—to make it easier to defect. Perhaps there are thousands more who want to defect but don’t have the courage to face their fears. **What happens when the fear factor disappears? When the minority begins to grow into a majority?**

White (2009) declares that the aims and objectives of a study will identify the outcomes desired and point to the kind of questions that would need to be asked in order to achieve these outcomes. Determining what the aims and objectives are can be a

useful intermediary stage before forming questions. The aims and objectives of this study could be to learn about what motivated Irish Catholics to formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church and to study any themes (or stages) that may emerge when defection is studied chronologically, as the number of defectors increase. The objective is to develop/substantiate a theory that links the key concepts set forth in this paper.

There are so many questions that could be asked and answered so first of all the question that needs to be answered by the researcher is this, “What does the researcher want to learn from this study?” This researcher wants to learn what the determining forces were that precipitated the behavior—defection from the Roman Catholic Church. Therefore, this study could be based on the model of behaviouralism. Why did Irish Catholics formally defect in massive numbers from the Roman Catholic Church (RCC) at this point on the RCC time continuum?

Fischer (1970) argues that “why” questions seek interpretation of causes, motives, reasons, descriptions, processes, purposes or justifications and often yield less than object-oriented questions. Therefore, who, what, when, and where questions should be asked instead. Avoiding the use of why questions may lead to clearly specified research questions. Re-phrasing why questions focuses attention on the essence of inquiry, and the kind of data that would be required. “How” questions also leave room for ambiguity. Hamblin (1967) argued that all “W” questions can be reformulated unproblematically as “what” questions. Therefore, if reformulating the question “*Why did Irish Catholics formally defect in massive numbers from the Roman Catholic Church at this point on the time continuum?*” into a what question, it could look something like this: “*What were the biological, emotional, cognitive or social forces that motivated Irish Catholics to*

formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church?” This reformulated question does focus the attention on the essence of inquiry, and the kind of data that would be required to answer the question.

White (2009) also suggested formulating a statement of intent before formulating research questions. He suggested using the following format all in one sentence: I am trying to learn about...because I want to find out...in order to understand...

A statement of intent based on White's (ibid) suggestion might look something like this: "I am trying to learn about *massive defection from the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland* because I want to find out *the biological, emotional, cognitive or social forces that motivated Irish Catholics to defect from the RCC in Ireland*, in order to understand *why Irish Catholics formally defected in massive numbers from the Roman Catholic Church at this point on the RCC time continuum* ."

This statement of intent can then be translated into a fully formed set of research questions that can then be ordered and organized. Research questions should be explicit about the what, who, where, and when of the research.

According to Silverman (2005) there are four types of research questions:

exploratory (investigate phenomenon little understood)

explanatory (explain patterns related to phenomenon): Do any patterns emerge?
Are these patterns different from each group?

descriptive (describe the phenomenon)

emancipatory (engage in social action about the phenomenon)

Silverman (ibid) also states that qualitative research questions are open ended, evolving, and non-directional . He suggests that the researcher should start with 5-7

“what” and “how” questions that can then be reduced to a single overarching question and several sub-questions. In this research study the overarching question could be “*Why did Irish Catholics living in Ireland formally defect in massive numbers from the Roman Catholic Church at this point on the time continuum (2009-2010)?*”

According to Silverman (2005) this overarching why question would be an explanatory question that seeks to explain patterns related to the phenomenon--massive defection from the Roman Catholic Church. Do any patterns emerge? Are these patterns different from each group being studied?

Silverman (ibid) suggested that the researcher take the phenomenon (*massive defection from the Catholic Church*) in the central research question (*Why did Irish Catholics living in Ireland formally defect in massive numbers from the Roman Catholic Church at this point on the time continuum?*) and break it down into subtopics for examination. Sub-questions cover anticipated needs for information. They advance the procedural steps (procedural sub-questions) in the process of research. Sub-questions address major concerns to be resolved. They are intricately wired to political, social, historical and personal contexts and draw us toward testing out the problems of the case, the conflictual outpourings, and the complex backgrounds of human concern.

Sub-topics in this particular study could include: social influence, normative influence vs. informational influence, minority influence, religious defection, separation of church and state, freedom from religious oppression, or reactance theory.

Descriptive questions usually need to be answered before explanatory ones can be addressed. What, who, when and where are descriptive questions and how and why are explanatory. Therefore, in relation to the sub-topics, a set of descriptive sub-questions

could be asked, keeping in mind the purpose of every question and the relationship between them, as it will lead to a consideration of data collection and analysis. Equally important is to keep in mind the historical context of the phenomenon when forming the research questions.

Making comparisons explicit in the research questions ensures that appropriate comparators are included in a study and can aid the interpretation of the research. Making appropriate comparisons is an essential part of social research according to White (2009). One could organize the research questions by type: (1) Description, (2) Comparison, (3) Explanation.

A list of issue sub-questions could include the following: What influence did www.countmeout.ie have on Irish Catholics' decision to defect? What happened? Who was involved? How was the website publicized? What was the informational message of the website that appealed to Irish Catholics? What themes of social influence emerged during the publicity of the website? What influence did the growing number of defectors have on other Irish Catholics? What theoretical constructs help us understand the behavior? What were the emotional, cognitive, or social forces that motivated Irish Catholics to defect from the RCC in Ireland? What constructs were unique to this case study? What chronological themes emerge from gathering information about the case? How could these themes be interpreted within larger social and psychological theories? What fears or conflicts did Irish Catholics face when preparing to defect from the Roman Catholic Church? Did those fears lessen or diminish as the number of defectors increased?

According to Valerio (1995) concepts are clearly specified ideas derived from a

particular model. In this case, the model used could be the behavioural model. Models are ways of looking at the world which are necessary in defining a research problem.

Theories vs. Hypotheses

Theories, on the other hand, arrange sets of concepts to define and explain some phenomenon. Strauss and Corbin (1994:278) state that theory consists of plausible relationships produced among concepts and sets of concepts. Theory provides a footing for considering the world, separate from the world, yet all about that world. Theory provides a framework for critically understanding phenomena and a basis for considering how what is unknown might be organized.

Unlike theories, *hypotheses* are tested in research. Hypotheses are produced or induced during the early stages of research and can and should be tested, thereby assessing a hypothesis by its validity or truth.

According to White (2009), hypothesis is a prediction--a preconception of what might be true. Beyond just asking a question, hypotheses suggest an answer to one. They need to be tested against empirical evidence before they can be confirmed or refuted. While questions state what we are trying to find out, hypotheses predict the answer to that question. One could work backwards from a hypothesis to a research question. Hypotheses can be useful to guide the study into a more appropriate research design. Hypotheses are concerned with the relationship between variables and can be used wherever relationships between variables are examined.

According to White (ibid) theory can be used to generate ideas for research. White says a theory is an idea that is abstract, explanatory or testable. Theories should be explanatory. They should go beyond describing the “how” but should explain the “why”

and even predict how it might change. Theories should be empirically testable. By collecting and analyzing relevant data, we should be able to see how well the theory works. If it cannot be tested, it's of little use. Theories often seek to explain the relationship between two or more phenomena, with the goal of allowing us to make predictions about future events. Research questions should be linked to theoretical issues. How can theory be used to formulate questions? When the theory is presented before the research is done, it is called theory testing. Hypotheses are derived from a theory and subjected to empirical testing.

What key concepts (clearly specified ideas derived from the behavioural model) could be used to define and explain the phenomenon (massive defection from the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland)?

1. *Minority influence*, the degree to which a smaller faction within the group (Irish Roman Catholics) influences the group during decision making.

Their influence is primarily informational and depends on consistent adherence to a position (separation of church and state), as to the degree of informational social influence.

2. *Normative influence*, the tendency to conform in order to gain social acceptance, and avoid social rejection or conflict (Irish Roman Catholics—the national religion) vs. *informational influence*, which is based on the desire to obtain useful information through conformity, and thereby achieve a correct or appropriate result (defection). When "we conform because we believe that other's interpretation of an ambiguous situation is more accurate than ours and will help us choose an appropriate course of action, (defection from the Roman Catholic

Church) it is informational social influence. Informational social influence often leads not just to public compliance (conforming to the behaviour of others publicly without necessarily believing it is correct) but private acceptance (conforming out of a genuine belief that others are correct). Informational social influence is more powerful when being accurate is more important and when others are perceived as especially knowledgeable.

3. *Separation of Church and State* – (the www.countmeout.ie message) The Catholic Church's 1983 Code of Canon law, while not laying down general rules about relations between Church and State, considers that a religious and moral education in harmony with the conscience of the pupils' parents is an integral part of education, and obliges Catholics to try to secure its inclusion: "Christ's faithful are to strive to secure that in the civil society the laws which regulate the formation of the young also provide a religious and moral education in the schools that is in accord with the conscience of the parents" (canon 799).

4. *Reactance Theory* - When people feel that their freedom to choose an action is threatened, they get an unpleasant feeling called 'reactance'. This also motivates them to perform the threatened behaviour, thus proving that their free will has not been compromised.

Valerio (1995) suggested six different steps when attempting to theorize about data:

1. Use *what* and *how* questions—*what* verbal and behavioural and contextual resources are being used here and look for the detail of *how* they are being used;

2. *Chronology*--look at timing of people's behaviour or their use of time in their accounts;
3. *Context* – how is the data contextualized in sets of experiences? Answering an interviewer's question may be different from engaging in the activity which is the topic of the interview. How might there be versions of the phenomenon being researched? *Different emotional experiences and fears may have occurred in the early stages of mass defection. The more who defected, led the way for others to defect later that might have been more timid.*
4. *Comparison* – compare gathered data with other relevant data. If there is no comparative case, find ways to divide gathered data into different sets and compare each one. The comparative method is the basic scientific method. *This study could compare findings from earlier defection cases with findings from later defection cases. The researcher could look for themes that emerge, or differences that emerge, and the prevalent issues in earlier cases vs. later cases.*
5. *Implications* – when reporting, think about how discoveries may relate to broader issues than the original research topic. A very narrow topic (*how Irish Catholics experience formal defection*) may be related to much broader social processes (*how societies influence individual decisions*).
6. *Lateral thinking* –Explore the relations between apparently diverse models, theories and methodologies rather than erecting strong boundaries between concepts.

According to Creswell, J.W. (2007) a qualitative study begins with a statement of the research problem--introducing the problem or need for the study. Qualitative

research needs to provide a rationale for a study. **Why is it needed?** Establish the need by considering the “source” for the problem/issue, frame it within the literature and then encode and foreshadow the test for the qualitative approach to inquiry. The purpose of this qualitative study is to assess **(an issue)** massive defection from the Roman Catholic Church **(with an understudied group or population)** among Irish Catholics. This research will lead to a **better understanding of the way things appear** to others in Irish society and hence, may lead to further changes or improvements.

Selecting the Best Research Methodology/Design/Strategy

Establishing the need for the study or problem leading to it can be related to the specific focus of the approach to research (Silverman 2005). **The Purpose Statement** is the most important statement that shows interrelationship between design and approach, i.e. the purpose of this instrumental or collective case study is to **understand** the (central phenomenon of the study) massive **defection from the Roman Catholic Church** among Irish Catholics living in Ireland through the www.countmeout.ie website. At this stage in the research, the (central phenomenon) **massive defection from the Catholic Church** could be generally defined as “how the www.countmeout.ie message influenced Irish Roman Catholics to formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church”.

Silverman (2001) points to the Qualitative methodology for this type of research, using the Interview Method asking open-ended questions to small samples. When experience and motivation are what the researcher is looking for, then the interview method is the most appropriate. Also it’s important to appreciate how models shape the meaning and use of different methods. Given that the behavioural model will be used in this study, the interview method is once again recommended. This research will follow

an instrumental case study design by using the explanatory type of research questions to explain patterns related to the phenomenon, i.e. do any patterns emerge? Are these patterns different from each case?

According to (Yin, 1994) the case study method is an approach to studying social phenomena through a thorough analysis of an individual case. The case may be a person, group, episode, process, community, society or any other unit of social life. If the researcher was interested in focusing on the www.countmeout.ie website, a single case study design would be appropriate. Another single case study on this topic could focus on the process of Formal Defection from the Roman Catholic Church. Yet another angle for a single case study on this topic could be an intrinsic case study focusing on one Irish individual who suffered abuse at the hands of a priest and formally defected from the Roman Catholic Church.

Yin (1994) states that the case study is a comprehensive research strategy using the logic of design by incorporating specific approaches to data collection and to data analysis. Yin lists five different applications to case studies:

1. To explain causal links in real-life interventions
2. To describe an intervention and real-life context in which it occurred.
3. To illustrate certain topics within an evaluation in a descriptive mode
4. To explore situations when interventions being evaluated has no clear, single set of outcomes.
5. As a meta-evaluation study of an evaluation.

He also suggested five components of a research design for case studies:

1. A study's questions

2. Its propositions, if any
3. Its unit(s) of analysis
4. The logic linking the data to the propositions, and
5. The criteria for interpreting the findings

A case study may be explanatory, descriptive, or exploratory. The use of theory not only is an immense aid in defining the appropriate research design and data collection but also becomes the main vehicle for generalizing the results of the case study.

The role of theory is essential in the design phase of a case study. By using this type of statement: “*The case study will show why...*”, the statement presents the nutshell of a theory. Add another ingredient by adding another statement. *The case study will also show why...* The second statement presents the nutshell of a rival theory. As these two initial ingredients are elaborated, the stated ideas will increasingly cover the questions, propositions, and criteria for interpreting the findings—the five components of the needed research design. The complete research design, then, embodies a theory of what is being studied. The goal is to have a blueprint for the study which requires theoretical propositions. Theory development prior to the collection of any case study is an essential step in doing a case study.

Yin (1994) suggested several types of theories to study:

Individual theories—individual development, cognitive behavior, personality, individual perception and interpersonal interactions;

Group theories—family functioning, informal groups, work teams, supervisory-employee coordination, and interpersonal networks.

Societal theories—urban development, international behavior, cultural

institutions.

This research study could lend itself well to any of these three theories while using the behavioural model. For example, this case study could show why informational social influence was the motivating cause for Irish Catholics to defect from the Roman Catholic Church in massive numbers during 2009-2010. This study could also show why Irish Catholics want a separation of Church and State. A second rival theory could support that Irish Catholics at this time of publicized clerical abuse in the Roman Catholic Church are motivated to defect, proving that their free will has not been compromised (reactance behaviour theory)—free will to choose whether they want to be Catholic or not, since at birth baptism they had no choice.

Creswell (2007) suggests that a study can be explored through one or more cases within a bounded system such as a process, an activity, an event, a program, or multiple individuals. Creswell (ibid) views the case study as a qualitative research methodology in which the researcher explores a case or multiple cases over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information such as observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports and reports a case description and case-based themes. Multiple cases might purposefully be selected in this study to show themes (stages and/or patterns) that may emerge when studying defection cases chronologically. In order to best generalize, representative cases for inclusion would have to be selected in the multiple case qualitative study. Selection of representative cases chronologically could include 1 random case in the very early stages of www.countmeout.ie, another random case when the numbers reached 500, 1 more random case when the numbers reached 2,000, 5,000, 8,000, then 10,000.

If the study is a multiple case study, each study could be discussed separately, or with no separate discussions of each case but an overall cross-case analysis (Yin, 2003), posing a series of questions and answers based on the case study database. The replication approach for a multiple case study of this nature indicates that the initial step in designing the study would consist of theory development and then show that case selection and the definition of specific measures would be important steps in the design and data collection process. The researcher would need to select each case carefully following Yin's logic of purposive sampling because this multiple- case design would follow a replication, and not a sampling logic. The chosen cases would serve in a manner similar to multiple experiments, with similar results or contrasting results predicted explicitly at the outset of investigation.

According to Yin (ibid) case studies that are limited to a particular set of interactions, still allows a researcher to examine how particular sayings and doings (behaviour) are embedded in particular patterns of social organization. It is important to consider case study structures for building ideas. Chronological structure would be a good fit for this kind of study. The researcher could build a theory composed of identifying variables that are interrelated; using a suspense structure with an answer to the outcome of the case presented first, followed by the development of an explanation for this outcome.

Another approach that embeds rhetorical structure in a case study would be the funnelling approach which describes the context and setting for the case from a broader picture to a narrower one. First, a description of the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland, its power, historically and its importance in the Irish culture; followed by a description of

the Irish culture and the importance of tradition, rituals, politics, church and state, schools, hospitals etc. , followed by the decay and scandal of the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland followed by disillusionment of Catholics due to hypocrisy among catholic clerics and then a description of the birth and publicity of www.countmeout.ie followed by the individual cases. This kind of structure narrows the setting and seems to launch the study into a chronology of events that occur.

Creswell (2007) talked about maximum variation in a purposeful sampling strategy. It documents diverse variations and identifies important common patterns. The idea is to determine in advance some criteria that differentiate the participants and then select participants that are quite different on the criteria. When a researcher maximizes differences at the beginning of the study it increases the likelihood that the findings will reflect differences or different perspectives. Critical cases provide specific information about a problem. Selecting unusual cases in a collective case study would employ maximum variation as a sampling strategy to represent diverse cases and to fully describe multiple perspectives about the cases. Extreme and deviant cases may comprise a collective case study as well.

Determining how the evidence will be collected for a case study is considered part of the research design. Collecting the evidence must reflect a concern for construct validity and for reliability. As Yin (1994) suggested, the interview is one of the most important sources of case study information. Although interviews can take several different forms, including the focused interview and the formal survey, the most common type of interview is of an open-ended nature in which key respondents are asked for facts as well as opinions, and in some cases they are even asked for their insights into certain

occurrences. In this particular multiple case study, the open-ended interview would be the chosen format for data collection.

A sample of interview questions that could be used for this multiple case study is as follows. However, keep in mind that these questions would be refined once the theory propositions are defined at the beginning of the research.

Interview questions:

- What prompted your internal dialogue regarding defection from the Roman Catholic Church?
- How did you hear about www.countmeout.ie?
- What feelings did you experience when you learned about www.countmeout.ie?
- Did you experience any internal struggles before defecting from the Catholic Church? If so, describe them.
- What fears if any, did you experience about defecting?
- What feelings came in the aftermath?
- How do you believe your defection from the Catholic Church will affect your family and/or your social life?
- What do you hope that mass defection will achieve?
- What message do you hope to send to the Catholic Church by formally defecting?
- What thoughts or feelings do you have about the www.countmeout.ie message (“Take a stand for church-state separation”)?
- What was your foremost concern when you defected?
- Have you ever considered leaving the Roman Catholic Church prior to www.countmeout.ie?

- How do you feel about being baptized a Catholic as a baby without the right to choose?

The afore-mentioned theoretical propositions point to the relevant evidence that would need to be collected in this multiple case study. When the theoretical propositions are chosen and finalized, the interview questions can be revised so that the relevant evidence will be collected.

In this particular case study, the selected individual defectors could be the primary unit of analysis. The interview questions asked of the selected individuals would depend upon the theoretical propositions laid out in the beginning of the study in order to collect relevant data. Otherwise, the researcher might be tempted to collect “everything” which is impossible to do. However, if the researcher was to make the website the focus of the case study, then the website would be the unit of analysis, and the relevant evidence to be collected would be news articles concerning the website, recorded media interviews with the founders of the website, as well as personal interviews asking relevant questions.

Linking data to the theoretical propositions can be done several ways. Campbell (1975) described a promising approach for case studies called “pattern-matching”, where several pieces of information from the same case may be related to a theoretical proposition. The researcher could also describe two potential patterns and then show that the data matched one better than the other. If the two potential patterns are considered rival theoretical propositions, the pattern matching technique is a way of relating the data to the theoretical propositions. Hopefully, the two patterns would contrast sufficiently in order to interpret the findings in terms of comparing two rival propositions.

Yin (1994) suggested four main analytic techniques that can be used: pattern

matching, explanation building, time-series analysis, and program logic models. Yin (1994) also stated that pattern-matching logic compares an empirically based pattern with a predicted one. If the patterns coincide, the results can help a case study strengthen its internal validity. If this study were to be an explanatory one, the patterns may be related to the dependent or the independent variables of the study.

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Book Annotation 10

Silverman, D. (2005). Doing Qualitative Research: a practical handbook (2nd Ed.). Sage Publications: London, (Chapters 1-10).

Silverman provides a wealth of useful information in the first 10 chapters for the beginning researcher starting with what the researcher can and can't do with qualitative research all the way to writing the research proposal.

Silverman point out some of the pitfalls for beginning researchers and draws from his many years of experience to provide strategies to overcome these pitfalls. He focuses on three categories that beginning researchers fall into: (1) *simple inductivism* where the researcher assumes that no assumptions need to be made in studying the world because hypotheses will simply emerge. It ignores the theory-saturated nature of any observation; (2) *The kitchen sink gambit* mentality where the researcher attempts to study broad problems, using many concepts and methods as well as large sets of data so that the researcher has little depth because there is too much breadth; (3) *grand theorists* who build theoretical empires. They believe they need never trifle with mere facts.

Taking advantage of using qualitative data is one of Silverman's purposes in writing this clear and precise handbook. He offers some of the following strategies:

- Ask 'how', 'what' and 'when' and avoid using 'why' questions;
- Work with naturally occurring data wherever possible;
- Study the categories actually used by participants (and when and how they are used and with what effect);
- Study what is unremarkable, the routine and the 'ordinary';
- Recognize the interconnectedness of subjects' categories and activities in order to study how each is covered upon another.

In the chapter entitled 'Using Theories', Silverman discusses models, concepts, theories, hypotheses, methods and methodologies. He sets out how each term is used and

through the use of tables and flow charts gives the researcher insight into the relation between each. He then demonstrates how the researcher progresses from choosing a research model to building concepts, to framing theories that define and/or explain some phenomenon, to producing a hypothesis early in the research. Silverman then shows the researcher how to develop generalizations out of successfully tested hypotheses and thereby contributing to building theories.

Writing the research proposal is the subject of Chapter 10 that helps the researcher (a) to understand the key components of a qualitative research proposal; (b) to recognize the importance of clarity, planning and persuasiveness in writing the proposal; and (c) to understand that writing the research proposal must be *recipient designed* for a particular audience. Silverman lays out in a Table entitled “A Structure For A Qualitative Research Proposal” ten components the researcher should include in his research proposal.

Book Annotation 11

Smith, J. A. And Osborn, M. (2008). Qualitative Psychology: A Practical Guide to Research Methods (2nd Ed.). London: Sage Publications, 53-110 (4-5).

Smith and Osborn devote chapter 4 to an Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) approach to doing research, using the interview as the main data collection instrument. The aim of IPA is to explore in detail how participants make sense of their personal and social world with the emphasis on the role that the researcher has in the process of interpreting the meanings that particular experiences, or events hold for the participants. The authors provide the researcher with a detailed presentation of the stages involved in doing interpretive phenomenological analysis and offer suggestions to the researcher based upon what methods worked for them.

Because questions in IPA projects are usually framed broadly and openly, it therefore, requires a flexible data collection instrument. Even though the necessary data could be collected in a number of ways, such as personal accounts, and diaries, the best way is usually through semi-structured interviews. The authors, therefore, contrast the primary features of a semi-structured interview with those of a structured interview. The interviewer's role is discussed as well as the process of constructing appropriate questions. The authors introduce an interview technique known as *funnelling*, which allows the researcher to elicit both the respondent's general views and their response to more specific concerns. The interviewer starts with a broad question and in subsequent questions, narrow the focus for more specific issues. The authors' concern was that in conducting the interview in the reverse order could produce data biased in the direction of the researcher's prior and specific concerns. This information is quite helpful to any

researcher performing a single case study or doing an interview study using many participants.

In the subsequent chapter, the authors outline the basic premise of grounded theory, the strategies it includes, and its history within qualitative research. They introduce data collection strategies for generating useful data as well as describing the method of coding qualitative data, making comparisons with other data, and providing short-hand labels for segments of data. They explain how early data analysis shapes subsequent data collection. They also describe memo writing, and they outline criteria for evaluating studies conducted with grounded theory.

This researcher specifically linked these two chapters together to demonstrate that research methods and data analysis can be used in multiple types of research projects, more specifically grounded theory and an interview study. From the authors' perspective, interviews are the main source of data collection in both an IPA study and in grounded theory research. However, grounded theory can be used as an analytical tool in an interview study or perhaps a multiple case study. This would, of course, depend upon what questions the researcher wishes to answer or what puzzle the researcher wants to solve, i.e. mechanical, causal or developmental, or what concepts or theories the researcher wants to develop.

Book Annotation 12

Creswell, J.W. (2007). Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design: Choosing among five approaches. 2nd Ed. California: Sage Publications, 101-222. (6-10).

In five chapters (6-10) Creswell was quite adept in instructing the researcher how to introduce and focus a study, collect data, analyze and represent the data, and write up a qualitative study as well as apply standards of validation and evaluation to a study.

Throughout each of these steps, the author reviewed the similarities and compared the differences of five specific approaches to research, including narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography and case studies. As well as comparing and reviewing similarities and differences of the five specific approaches, Creswell gave explicit instructions on focusing the study, collecting and analyzing the data and writing up the study in each of his five chosen approaches. Throughout these chapters, Creswell relied heavily upon other authors' definitions and methods of doing the research, at times quoting entire pages from other sources.

Creswell determined that the purpose statement is the most important statement of an entire qualitative study. In fact, he created a "script" of this statement containing several sentences and blanks for the researcher to fill in. He then suggested several terms the researcher could use to encode a passage for five specific approaches to qualitative research. He also set forth a table (6.1) outlining words to use in encoding the purpose statement in these five approaches.

According to Creswell, central to introducing and focusing the study is the forming of a central research question as well as sub-questions. Creswell indicated that these questions provide an opportunity to encode and foreshadow an approach to inquiry. Creswell stated that whether or not the question was posed specifically in a study, it was

implied and could be easily extracted by an experienced audience. Creswell insisted that a research study could be reduced to a single overarching question and several sub-questions. He suggested that to get to the overarching question, it is important for the beginning researcher to state the broadest possible question about the research problem and then form several sub-questions because the sub-questions address major concerns to be resolved. Those questions should be intricately wired to political, social, historical and personal contexts and draw the researcher toward testing out the problems of the case, the conflictual outpourings, and the complex backgrounds of human concern.

In the matter of collecting the data, analyzing the data and representing the data, Creswell heavily referenced other sources of information, especially pertaining to data collection instruments, computer programs and analysis methods, and he used excerpted quotes, tables, figures and templates to demonstrate working with the data in each of five research approaches including narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography and case studies.

In the author's chapter on writing a qualitative study, he presented overall rhetorical structures for organizing the entire study as well as specific embedded structures, writing devices, and techniques that the researcher can incorporate into each of his five chosen approaches to inquiry. Once again he used a table of these structures to show the diversity of perspectives about the structures that reflect different data analysis procedures and discipline affiliations.

Creswell discussed validation, reliability and standards of quality such as strategies that emphasize using qualitative terms, the use of distinct terms, perspectives from postmodern and interpretive lenses, synthesis of different perspectives, or

descriptions based on metaphorical images. He termed popular reliability as the use of intercoder agreements when multiple coders analyze and then compare their code segments to establish reliability of the data analysis process, and he detailed a procedure for establishing an intercoder agreement. He also reviewed specific standards for establishing the quality of qualitative research within each of the five approaches outlined in this book.

Book Annotation 13

Stake, R.E. (1995). The Art of Case Study Research. London: Sage Publications.

In this book Stake focused on the *intrinsic case study*. He identified the case as a specific, complex functioning thing, a “bounded system”, an object and not a process, an integrated system. In an intrinsic case study, the *case* is dominant. Events and processes are not part of the study of Stake’s book. Instead he prefaced the first chapter by encouraging the reader to read his case study, “Harper School” in chapter 10 before even beginning to read the first chapter. Stake referred to the Harper School case study throughout the book to strengthen his examples of research questions, data collection, data analysis and interpretation, triangulation, and researcher roles one might play throughout the course of a chosen case study. Stake time and again reiterated that the real business of case study is in understanding the case itself—not for generalization purposes.

A chapter of particular interest was Stake’s chapter on Research Questions. In this particular chapter only did Stake wander onto the *Instrumental case study* which is used to understand something else--when it is instrumental in accomplishing something other than understanding a particular person, place or thing. In this case study the *issue* becomes dominant, and the researcher starts and ends with issues dominant. In an instrumental case study the researcher must use issue questions as primary research questions. Identification of issues draws attention to problems and concerns rather than towards the case. Issues draw out the problems of the case which are usually geared toward political, social, historical and personal contexts. Issue questions or statements provide a powerful conceptual structure for organizing the study of an instrumental case

study. According to Stake, issue statements may appear as cause and effect relationships, in which case the research question could be “Is the fact that teaching loads have increased from four classes to five affecting the quality of teaching?” If a problem is being represented, the question might be, “Are the teachers residing outside the community doing less than a fair share of the work?” In this particular case the issue becomes THE research question and is of more interest to the researcher than is the case itself.

Only in passing did Stake mention the *collective case study* as a form of study when the researcher is studying the effects of something. Several cases can be studied with important coordination between the individual studies which is known as a collective case study.

So, for the most part, Stake held the position that case studies are undertaken to make a case understandable in order to assist the reader in making naturalistic generalizations. He stated that the researcher’s account needs to be a personal, narrative account, a chronological presentation with emphasis on time and place in order to provide rich ingredients for vicarious experience. He believed that emphasizing time, place and person are the first three major steps in case study research.

Book Annotation 14

Creswell, J.W. and Clark, V.P. (2007) Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research. London: Sage Publications.

Creswell and Clark examine the research phases in designing and conducting mixed methods research, which they define as a research design with a methodology and methods. As a methodology, it involves mixing qualitative and quantitative approaches, including collecting and analyzing, at many phases in the research process, beginning with the initial philosophical assumptions to the drawing of conclusions. As a method, its focus is on collecting, analyzing, and mixing quantitative and qualitative data in either a series of studies or a single study. According to Creswell and Clark mixed methods research is based on the idea that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of the research problem than either approach alone because mixed methods offers strengths that offset the weaknesses of separately applied quantitative and qualitative research methods.

The authors describe four major types of mixed methods designs that the researcher can use in a mixed methods study. These four types include Triangulation, Embedded, Explanatory and Exploratory. If conducting a mixed methods study, the researcher would need to choose a design based on which design best addresses the research problem and the advantages inherent in each design. Creswell and Clark offer scripts to help the researcher design purpose statements that relate to the four different designs. They also provide examples of qualitative and quantitative research questions and add specifically worded mixed methods questions, as well as examples of types of questions for each of the four types of designs and their variants.

This book addresses the procedures for quantitative and qualitative data collection

and data analysis as well as mixed methods data collection and analysis procedures for the mixed methods designs based on concurrent and sequential forms of data collection. It also addresses validity in mixed methods research.

Finally, the authors address general guidelines for writing a mixed methods study. They also provide examples of structures that can be used to write a dissertation or thesis proposal for a mixed methods study, a proposal for federal funding and a mixed methods journal article. They include criteria for evaluating a mixed methods study.

At the end of the book, the authors append four different mixed methods studies written by university students that include a triangulation design study, an embedded design study, an explanatory design study, and an exploratory design study.

Book Annotation 15

White, Patrick (2009). Developing research questions: a guide for social scientists. Palgrave MacMillan: England.

This book examines research questions in thorough detail, beginning with the role of research questions, particularly in social research, to providing advice on how to avoid mistakes commonly made when formulating research questions, to the special place of hypotheses in scientific investigation.

White begins with the statement that theory can be used to generate ideas for research and they often seek to explain the relationship between two or more phenomena, with the goal of allowing us to make predictions about future events. Research questions should be linked to theoretical issues. White goes on to explain how theory can be used to formulate questions as well as discussing the importance of linking research to theory.

According to White the aims and objectives of a study will identify the outcomes desired and point to the kind of questions that would need to be asked in order to achieve these outcomes. They can be a useful intermediary stage before forming questions. He states that well formulated research questions should indicate exactly what data are required to answer them satisfactorily and what type of research design is needed to generate such data.

White provides a formula, so to speak, of how to narrow the focus of the research into one sentence by naming the topic about which the researcher is trying to learn, then by adding a clause that provides more focus and makes the inquiry more specific and finally providing a justification for the study. After that the statement of intent can be fully formed into a set of research questions that are ordered and organized and explicit about the what, who, where, and when of the research. They must include the answers to:

What is the focus of the project? Who is to be studied? Where is the research to be conducted? When will the research be conducted? White follows this by providing an example for the researcher to follow.

The relationship between research questions, research design and methods of data collection and analysis are examined with the emphasis on starting with research questions rather than using a “methods-led” approach.

White concludes this book with a chapter discussing several issues relating to the process of linking evidence and conclusions, including the nature of claims, data and evidence; the role of qualifiers; and the importance of alternative hypotheses.

**Application Section for
Knowledge Area Demonstration**

Four

Dissertation Proposal

A Case Study

The Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative case study, is to learn about the massive defection phenomenon of Irish Roman Catholics from the Roman Catholic Church (RCC) in Ireland through the www.countmeout.ie website because this researcher wants to find out the biological, emotional, cognitive or social forces that motivated Irish Catholics to defect from the RCC in Ireland_ in order to understand why Irish Catholics formally defected in massive numbers from the Roman Catholic Church at this point on the RCC time continuum. At this stage in the research this central phenomenon will generally be defined as “Why Irish Roman Catholics defected from the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland in massive numbers, beginning July, 2009-December, 2010 and why many more Irish Catholics who want to defect are choosing not to.”

Based on the model of behaviouralism, *this case study will show why Irish Roman Catholics chose to formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland, 2009-2010.* Irish Catholics at the release of the Murphy Report, publicized clerical abuse in the Roman Catholic Church, were motivated to defect, proving that their free will has not been compromised. When people feel that their freedom to choose an action is threatened, they get an unpleasant feeling called ‘reactance’. This also motivates them to perform the threatened behaviour, thus proving that their free will has not been compromised. This behaviour is called *Reactance Theory*. Catholic defectors are exercising their choice to be Catholic or not, since at birth baptism they had no choice.

This case study will also show why many more Irish Catholics want to defect but are choosing not to. According to website designer, Paul Dunbar, hundreds, if not

thousands, more Irish Catholics want to defect but continue to “go with the flow” in order to avoid family conflict or confrontation with the educational system. When people conform in order to gain social acceptance, and avoid social rejection or conflict, it is called *Normative influence*.

The problem

Defection from the Catholic Church has occurred in massive numbers since July, 2009. Perhaps the impetus was the Ryan Report or the Murphy Report, but maybe this was only the catalyst that pushed people to do what they have wanted to do for years. It might have given a psychological alibi to those already wanting to defect. The www.countmeout.ie website seems to have provided a vehicle for people to exit the Catholic Church—to make it easier to defect. On the one hand, the media would like to assign blame to the website creators for the thousands of defectors, assuming that those who defected were influenced or cajoled into defecting, while ignoring the possibility that thousands of Irish Catholics don’t want to be Catholic any more. The Irish culture is to assign blame to someone else for a behavior rather than believing one’s behavior is by choice. On the other hand, the website creators insist that many, many more actually want to defect, but don’t have the courage to do so (*normative influence*).

The www.countmeout.ie website was created by three web designers, Cormac Flynn, Paul Dunbar, and Grainne O’Sullivan. On the heels of the Ryan report Cormac Flynn decided to formally defect from the RCC but found it quite difficult to find the defection process that was defined by the RCC in 2006. Once he completed the process he wanted to make that process available through the website. He believes the website is aimed at lapsed Catholics who want to formally defect. He says there are essentially two

types of individuals who will defect--those who are not committed Catholics for whatever reason and want to make defection formal, and those who want to defect as a means of protest (*reactance theory*).

Paul Dunbar, aged 29, was a non-believer since the age of 15 and considered himself to be a lapsed Catholic. Because he was angry at the clerical abuse and angry at the Irish State and RCC union, he wanted to take the formal step of defection as a sign of protest (*reactance theory*).

Grainne O’Sullivan, website designer, defected because she wanted to make an ambiguous statement to the RCC and Irish State union and as a protest against clerical abuse published in the Ryan Report (*reactance theory*).

The main gap in the existing body of knowledge is the information/data available on those who defected and their reasons for defecting as well as those who expressed a desire to defect on the website, but would not, possibly due to *normative influence*.

The purpose of this qualitative study is to assess massive defection phenomenon from the Roman Catholic Church among Irish Catholics. This research will lead to a **better understanding of the way things appear** to others in Irish society and hence, may lead to further changes or improvements.

Main objective:

The main objective is to learn about what motivated Irish Catholics to formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church and to study any themes (or stages) that may emerge when defection is studied chronologically. The objective is to substantiate two theories that link the key concepts (*normative influence* and *reactance theory*) set forth in this paper.

Main research questions:

“What were the biological, emotional, cognitive or social forces that motivated Irish Catholics to formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church?”

What theoretical constructs help us understand the behavior?

What themes of social influence emerged during the publicity of the website?

What influence did the growing number of defectors have on other Irish Catholics?

What constructs were unique to this case study?

What chronological themes emerge from gathering information about the case?

How could these themes be interpreted within larger social and psychological theories?

What fears or conflicts, if any, did Irish Catholics face when preparing to defect from the Roman Catholic Church?

Did those fears prevent them from defecting?

What societal changes would need to take place in order to allay those fears?

Would more people defect if the education laws were changed?

Sub-objective:

The sub-objective of this study is to examine the relationship between emotional marketing and social response (stimulus and response) in order to understand how the website’s marketing could have influenced thousands of Irish Catholics in such a short span of time or how three website designers were able to influence or facilitate thousands of Irish Roman Catholics to formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland.

Issue sub-questions:

What influence, if any, did www.countmeout.ie have on Irish Catholics’ decision to defect?

What happened? Who was involved?

How was the website marketed?

What level of persuasion, if any, did the creators exact on enquirers?

How did the website message meet the needs of the masses?

Did the creators employ emotional marketing strategies?

The Study Design

This research will follow a multiple case study design by using the explanatory type of research questions to explain patterns related to the phenomenon, i.e. do any patterns emerge? Are these patterns different from each case? Given that the behavioural model will be used in this study, the interview method will be used to obtain the required information from selected survey participants.

Prior to the multiple case selections, two questionnaires will be conducted—one will be sent to individuals who contacted www.countmeout.ie but didn't go through the defection process and the other sample will be sent to those Irish Catholics who formally defected via www.countmeout.ie. Since all of these individuals contacted www.countmeout.ie they can be contacted via email by the creators of the website. The data collected will be in the form of a questionnaire sent to the participants from www.countmeout.ie. Participants will then return the questionnaire directly to the researcher via email to a designated email address.

The setting

Since the revelation through the Murphy report (published 21st July, 2009) of child abuse by Priests in the Irish Catholic churches there has been a huge surge of Catholics

formally defecting from the Catholic Church in Ireland via the website www.countmeout.ie which aired also in July, 2009.

According to an article printed in the *Irish Examiner* on 16th July, 2009, more than half of the Irish Catholic Church's 26 dioceses failed to respond to *Irish Examiner* queries about defection rates over the past five years. Out of the 11 diocese that did respond, most stated that they do not keep formal records of defections, and the most defections reported of any parish were 2 or 3 defections per year. Prior to July, 2009, there was not any known formal defection process in place whereby Irish Catholics could formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church. One of the website designers researched how to formally defect and then decided to publish the process so others could avail of the same service. He set up the www.countmeout.ie website along with two other Irish individuals who formally defected and who count themselves as agnostics. All three individuals are web designers and have never met each other.

One of the issues relating to the topic under study is whether or not the website creators are influencing individuals to defect from the RCC, especially since the website creators are agnostic. Are they trying to get others to renounce God and become agnostic? Their interview statements to the press via media coverage insist that they are aiming their website at individuals who are "lapsed" Catholics and are simply giving them the option to formally defect, yet their message to the press and also on the website is that they want separation of Church and State in order to change the educational system. At this point in time 92% of schools in Ireland are Catholic and the law of education in Ireland is that religious schools can discriminate against non-Catholic students, barring them from attending school if they are not Catholic. According to

RTE's Prime Time News show on 10 November 2009, "Is it time to say good-bye to Ireland's union of Church and State?", less than 1% of primary schools are non-denominational. Parents don't want religion forced upon their children in school. The Irish State must cease funding denominational schools because the religious ethos permeates the whole school day. According to the RedC Survey commissioned by the Iona Institute only 47% of parents would choose to send their children to Catholic school if given a choice. On-line parenting forms stated that many parents feel forced to baptize their children Catholic in order to get their children enrolled into schools. "The current school system is the last powerful bridge between young families and the RCC."

Measurement procedures

A case study database will be developed by collecting data through a questionnaire distributed via email to the study population. The study population is only known by their email addresses through www.countmeout.ie. The questionnaire will be an attachment to a cover letter emailed from the website directly to all www.countmeout.ie contact users. This kind of questionnaire is convenient, inexpensive, and preserves the participants' anonymity.

Once the questionnaires are returned to the researcher, participants that are quite different on the criteria determined in advance will be selected for the case studies. Selecting unusual cases would employ maximum variation to represent diverse cases and to fully describe multiple perspectives about the cases. The findings will be written in a report outlining the reasons for selecting purposeful cases for further study.

The database may also serve as a basis for future investigators doing research studies. The purpose of this research tool is to collect data from which to select cases to

study further, not for statistical generalization. However, in order for the database to serve as a basis for other research investigators, it will be important to use sampling logic when implementing the questionnaire. A case study database markedly increases the reliability of the entire case study and other investigators can review the evidence directly and not be limited to the written reports.

Sampling

The size of the defection population at this point in time is 10,000 individuals who defected through the www.countmeout.ie website since its launch in July, 2009. According to Yin (1994) any application of sampling logic to case studies would be misplaced since a case study would have to cover both the phenomenon of interest and its context, yielding a large number of potentially relevant variables. This would require an impossibly large number of cases--too large to allow any statistical consideration of the relevant variable. Therefore, a database of respondents to a questionnaire would be preferable in this study following the logic of purposive sampling. The number of website users who chose not to formally defect is unknown at this time. Once again, purposive sampling will be the sample logic used to collect additional information from this study group due to its usefulness to describe the phenomenon about which only a little is known.

Analysis of data

The analytic strategy in this study will be to follow the theoretical propositions that led to the case study, *reactance theory* vs. social response to emotional marketing. Linking data to the theoretical propositions can be done several ways. Campbell (1975) described a promising approach for case studies called “pattern-matching”, where several

pieces of information from the same case may be related to a theoretical proposition.

This researcher could also describe the two potential patterns and then show that the data matched one better than the other. Since the two potential patterns are rival theoretical propositions, the pattern matching technique is a way of relating the data to the theoretical propositions. Hopefully, the two patterns would contrast sufficiently in order to interpret the findings in terms of comparing the two rival propositions.

The analytic strategy for the second group of respondents, those who chose not to defect, will also follow the theoretical proposition, *normative influence*. This proposition will help to focus attention on certain data and to ignore other data as well as to help organize the entire case study and to define alternative explanations to be examined.

The structure of the report

The funnelling approach will be used because it describes the context and setting for the case from a broader picture to a narrower one. First, a description of the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland, its power, historically and its importance in the Irish culture; followed by a description of the Irish culture and the importance of tradition, rituals, politics, Church and State, schools, hospitals etc. , followed by the decay and scandal of the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland followed by disillusionment of Catholics due to hypocrisy among Catholic clerics and then a description of the birth and publicity of www.countmeout.ie followed by the questionnaire sample and the subsequent selected cases. This kind of structure narrows the setting and seems to launch the study into a chronology of events that occurred.

Problems and limitations

Some problems that could be encountered in this study are around securing permission from the website creators to contact the participants, as well as obtaining the sample itself through electronic mail.

As for limitations, the case study design may not be the best method to study this phenomenon as a whole, but this researcher has adopted the case study method because it can be used to study either one or a number of Irish Catholic defectors who are known, even if the sample itself cannot be obtained.

APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire to www.countmeout.ie website users

1. Are you an Irish citizen?
2. Are you currently living in Ireland?
3. How did you hear about www.countmeout.ie
radio ___ newspaper ___ internet ___ other ___
4. Did you formally defect from the Roman Catholic Church?
5. Did you ever consider defecting from the Roman Catholic Church prior to www.countmeout.ie?
6. Which of the following best describes your religious preference before www.countmeout.ie?
practicing Catholic ___ lapsed Catholic ___ agnostic Catholic ___ atheist
Catholic ___
Other ___
7. Do you have children?
8. If given the choice, would you send your children to Catholic school?
9. Describe your major reason for defecting or not defecting:
10. Rate your stance on the following scale of 1-10, 1 for strongly disagree and 10 for strongly agree: I would prefer Ireland to take a stand for Church-State separation.
1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5 ___ 6 ___ 7 ___ 8 ___ 9 ___ 10 ___
11. If your questionnaire is chosen as part of a multiple case study, may I contact you for an interview?
If so, please state your contact details where you prefer contact:
email address:
telephone:
postal address:

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Book Annotation 16

Feagin, J. R. et al (1991). A Case for the Case Study. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press.

The majority of this book is a collection of essays that provide a wide range of information on the nature and use of the case study in sociology and other social sciences. These essays basically report on several different case studies and furnish illustrations of how case study methods may be applied to the sociology. Each essay also illustrates the reasoning and research that went into the particular site for investigation.

The case studies that are reported on this book include the classic Middletown studies of Robert and Helen Lynd, two southwestern cities, namely Austin and Houston, David Snow and Leon Anderson's study of the homeless, R. Stephen Warner's case study of a single church in Mendocino, California, a wide variety of case studies in the field of crime, Christine Williams' deviant case studies of gender, and case study methods in the study of families.

The authors of this book devote a chapter to basic methodological issues relating to the use of the case study approach in social research. They argue that various kinds of in-depth case studies are a necessary addition to social surveys, especially when doing a comparison study, when analyzing human interaction, when studying broad historical processes, and when studying organizational patterns or deviances.

Book Annotation 17

Judge Yvonne Murphy et al (2009). Report into the Catholic Archdiocese of Dublin.
Dublin: Commission of Investigation.

This is a 680 page report, known as the Murphy Report, that was signed by Judge Yvonne Murphy and submitted to the Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform . This report is divided into two parts. Part 1 outlines the organizational structures of the Dublin Archdiocese, the Gardai, the Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) and the health authorities and covers the canon law and the procedures set out by the Roman Catholic Church (RCC) for dealing with complaints of sexual interference with a minor. Part 2 of this report outlines the cases of 46 priests who form only a representative sample of sexual abuse with minors.

Book Annotation 18

Ryan, Justice Sean (2009). The Commission Report. Dublin: Commission to Inquire into Child Abuse.

The Commission Report, better known as The Ryan Report consists of 5 volumes, Volumes I and II include The Investigation Committee Report on Institutions, Volume III includes the Confidential Committee Report, Volume IV includes The Department of Education; Finance; Society and the Schools; Development of Childcare Policy in Ireland since 1970; Report on Witnesses Attending for Interview; Conclusions and Recommendations and Volume V includes The ISPC, Expert Reports, Commission Personnel and Legislation.

The period covered by the Investigation Committee Inquiry is from 1936 to the present. However, most of the complaints came from the period between 1936 and 1970. Investigations were conducted into all institutions where the number of complainants was more than 20. Therefore, Volume I deals with Artane Industrial School in Dublin, Letterfrack Industrial School, St. Joseph's Industrial School in Tralee, Carriglea Park Industrial School in Dun Laoghaire, Glin Industrial School, Salthill Industrial School, and St. Joseph's School for the Deaf in Cabra (residential school), all of which were run by the order of Christian Brothers. This document revealed that physical punishment of these children continued into the mid-1990's and that staff were protected by management when physical abuse was discovered. Chapter 14 reports on the career of a serial sexual and physical abuser who taught children in the primary and secondary school sector in Ireland for 40 years. He was moved from school to school as his abusive behaviour was discovered yet ignored by the Dept. of Education. He was finally convicted of sexual abuse in the 1980s. Chapter 15 reports on Daingean Reformatory in

Co. Offaly, the only boys' reformatory in the State. Physical abuse of boys at this institution was extreme. Finally, Chapter 16 deals with the Marlboro House Detention Centre in Dublin where boys were remanded either pending sentencing or while waiting for transfer to an Industrial School or Reformatory.

Volume II continues the Investigation Committee Report into another 12 individual institutions, two of which were run by the Rosminian Order, one by the Presentation Brothers, one by the Brothers of Charity in Glanmire, Co. Cork, and eight of which were run by Orders of nuns that catered mainly for girls and boys under eight years of age.

Volume III is the Confidential Committee Report from the Committee that heard evidence from 1090 men and women who reported being abused as children in Irish institutions, relating to the period between 1914 and 2000, of which 23 refer to abuse experienced prior to 1930 or after 1990.

Volume IV reports on The Department of Education and its responsibility and Volume V concludes the Committee's findings.

Book Annotation 19

Red C (2008). Schools Research Survey. Dublin: Iona Institute.

The **Iona Institute** is a conservative Catholic organisation based in Ireland that was founded by David Quinn, a journalist and commentator on religious affairs, and launched publicly in 2007. The organisation's mission statement states that it is dedicated to the "strengthening of civil society" by advocating religion and heterosexual-only marriage. It posits that rising crime, family breakdown, drug abuse and other social problems are typical of a "weakened society" and that such a society will fail to recognise the importance of marriage and religion unless an evidence-based case was made.

RED C was set up in June 2003 to provide a new independent and free thinking research resource within the market place. Its mission is to provide a level of service and thought unrivalled by others, and to ensure that insight is generated from all of our surveys, through innovative research design.

This particular survey included 1,000 interviews conducted by phone using a random digit dial sample to ensure all households, including ex-directory were covered. 50% were male and 50% were female. The first question was this: Given a choice, which one of the following would you send your children to? (a) A Catholic school, (b) a state run school where all religions are taught, (c) a school in which no religions are taught or (d) a school run by another religious organization.

Of those with dependent children (369), 49% chose a Catholic school, while 39% chose a state run school where all religions are taught. Of those with no dependent children (641), 46% chose a Catholic school, while 36% chose a state run school where all religions are taught. Those under 35 showed a high preference for a state run school

in which all religions are taught.

The second question was: There are currently many different types of schools in Ireland, from Public, Private, non-denominational, religious, single sex and mixed sex etc. These two statements reflect two different views about the future of publicly funded schools in Ireland. Which ONE is closer to your point of view?

- (a) In order to promote social integration all children should go to the same kind of schools;
- (b) Parents should have the right to choose from a variety of schools for their children.

The overall performance preference is for parents to have choice in type of school for their child, with parents holding a stronger view on this also, as 26% chose (a) and 73% chose (b).

Book Annotation 20

O’Sullivan, Claire (2000). “Faithfully Departed” *The Irish Examiner XXI, VI*, 16th July.

This reporter wrote about four stories of people who had different perspectives on the Roman Catholic Church (RCC) and who shared reasons why they chose to defect or to stay with the RCC.

She precedes their stories with a summary of an Ireland that has been rocked by scandal after scandal of the RCC since the early 1990’s beginning with Bishop Eamon Casey who had an affair with an Irish-American and had a son, to the publishing of the Ryan Report, shortly after which a friend of hers said that in the weeks following the Ryan Report her friend spent so many afternoons crying in her car listening to the radio, distraught day after day. The author gives an account of the new countmeout.ie website set up to facilitate people to formally defect from the Catholic Church. According to one of the website creators, Paul Dunbar’s reason for establishing the website, “the Ryan Report was the final nail in the coffin, and I had to leave, but it’s not that easy to get information from the Church on how to do it.”

One story was told by Mary Doherty entitled “I don’t want to be a hypocrite”. She stopped going to mass at age 16 and in recent years resented having to attend mass and allow any priest the opportunity to proselytize. That resentment was amplified when she attended a Catholic wedding to “keep the peace” or when a baptism took place “to please the grandparents”. As an adult she decided to re-make the decision that was made for her as a baby. She hopes that by doing so she is in some small way taking a stand against the dark days of events described in the Ryan Report. She wants to send a clear message to the RCC that “you don’t speak for me.”

A second story entitled “Zoe won’t be making her communion” was about Emer Sexton’s youngest child who at 18 months was christened. However, says Emer, “I chose this for her, she did not make the decision for herself, so she should have the right also to unchristen herself at some future point if she wishes.” Zoe won’t be making her Holy Communion but will be sent to non-denominational school instead.

There were two other brief stories, one about a gay man who defected because he felt unsupported by the RCC and another who believes it’s better to stay with the RCC and work to improve the RCC from within.

Book Annotation 21

Smith, Jamie (2010). “Clerical sex abuse: Norbertines apologise for Smyth failures”, “Abuse survivors repeat calls for Brady to resign”, *The Irish Times*. 18 March, p. 4.

Fr Brendan Smyth was a priest of the religious order known as the Norbertine Community, which is a French-founded order with approximately 1,500 members world-wide and that has an Abbey of the Most Holy Trinity and St. Norbert at Kilnacrott, Ballyjamesduff, Co. Cavan, Ireland. Smyth was convicted in 1994 of sexual abuse perpetrated on many victims and has recently deceased. The first article is an apology from the Norbertine Community to the victims, their families, and to the many others who suffered as a result of their failure to remove the paedophile priest permanently from the exercise of his ministry. According to the Norbertine Community they have made restitution to 42 of these victims and have provided to others counselling and spiritual support. The Norbertines were aware of Smyth’s behaviour and had him undergo psychiatric as well as other forms of treatment. Nothing worked.

Smyth ministered under the direction of Cardinal Sean Brady. Based on the information provided by the Cardinal, Bishop McKiernan prohibited Fr. Smyth from exercising ministry in the diocese of Kilmore.

The second article on the same page, “Abuse survivors repeat calls for Brady to resign” is about clerical abuse victims who are calling for Fr. Brendan Smyth’s superior, Fr Sean Brady to resign. Brady knew of Fr. Smyth’s sexual abuse for 35 years and yet covered it up. This article quotes the words of three clerical abuse victims who want Cardinal Brady to resign.

This article is an example of the kind of news that has been coming forth in Ireland in a continual flood since The Ryan Report was released in 2009.