

# Changing Values, Attitudes and Behaviours in Ireland



# Changing Values, Attitudes and Behaviours in Ireland:

*An Analysis of European  
Social Survey Data in Ireland,  
2002-2012*

By

Michael J. Breen and Amy Erbe Healy

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## FOREWORD

In this book *Changing Values, Attitudes and Behaviours in Ireland: An Analysis of the European Social Survey Data in Ireland 2002 – 2012* the authors Michael J. Breen & Amy E. Healy set out to introduce readers to the European Social Survey in Ireland and to present an analysis of the Irish data and how these data compare to other European countries.

The European Social Survey measures attitudes, beliefs and behaviour patterns in more than thirty countries based on citizens' views and perceptions of key aspects of their home societies. The data generated by the survey, along with full protocols and specifications, are published on an open access basis. As a result, the European Social Survey is a freely available resource that is readily accessible to all stakeholders, including academics, policymakers, NGOs, voluntary organisations, government agencies and others as a primary resource for evidence-based decision making. The open access service (<http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/>) provides an interactive environment for exploring the European Social Survey dataset within a virtual social science laboratory, with relevant training tutorials on a range of substantive and methodological topics that assist users in maximising the potential of the data within their specialist fields of interest. The ESS was awarded the Descartes prize for Research and Science Communication in 2005, and European Research Infrastructure Consortium (ERIC) status in 2013.

The essence of this book is a thorough analysis of social scientific datasets arising from several waves of the European Social Survey, with a particular focus on the data for Ireland. The book shows how the survey has generated systematic attitudinal, behavioural and factual data for Ireland on a biennial basis. As is the case with all participating countries, the Irish national dataset is based on a randomly selected representative sample that allows not only exceptional insights into behaviours and attitudes within Ireland, but also meaningful comparisons with Ireland's European neighbours. This is possible due to the consistency of methodology, data collection processes and the consistency of the questionnaires used as survey instruments by the European Social Survey. This book testifies to the particular value of cross-national comparisons and time-series assessments that are produced from data that have been collected with a high degree of methodological rigour over space and time,

and it further demonstrates that the potential of this dataset cannot be overestimated in any assessment of changing national and European social paradigms.

Conducting high-quality survey research in the social sciences may legitimately be regarded as a recursive process that plays a formative role in society, allowing the views, wishes and expectations of citizens to effect change in the way in which society operates. In this context the European Social Survey forms a fundamental data source for social scientific research. This book places a particular focus on topics of religious and ethnic identity, politics and trust, social capital and social inclusion, and human values. Through seven short chapters the authors present relevant outcomes from the survey for each of these thematic areas. They describe, interrogate and critically analyse the data for Ireland within the context of Europe, and their findings are situated within the context of the existing literature and relevant social scientific constructs. The results provide incisive and insightful evidence-based conclusions in relation to socio-political, socio-economic and socio-cultural changes and trends in Ireland and in Europe since 2002 across the first six waves of European Social Survey data.

Prof. Michael G. Healy,  
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Mary Immaculate College.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## THE EUROPEAN SOCIAL SURVEY

The European Social Survey (ESS), which began its data collection in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, has its origins in the 1980s and is essentially the brainchild of two outstanding social scientists, the late Sir Roger Jowell and Max Kaase. Before the ESS, while many existing individual datasets were very strong and methodologically sound, a major problem existed in terms of cross-national comparisons and comparisons over time. While the development of the ESS addressed these issues, a cross-nationally rigorous methodology raised its own problems not least of which was the sourcing of sufficient funding to allow for a methodologically consistent, periodic and useful data set. Max Kaase, then a member of the European Science Foundation's Committee of the Social Sciences, proposed the development of a working group to examine the feasibility of creating just such a survey for Europe. That subsequently led to the creation of a blueprint document, which laid out the foundational elements of the European Social Survey along with a detailed specification. Critical to the blueprint was its understanding that the European Social Survey should be gathered regularly over time (time series), rather than as a simple one-shot attempt at gathering European-level data. Initially, the funding issue was overcome through the development of parallel funding sources: the work of the core team with oversight of the survey was to be funded by European Commission, while individual countries would cover the cost of the fieldwork from their own resources. And so the ESS was born.

On November 22<sup>nd</sup>, 2013 the European Social Survey was granted the status of an ERIC (European Research Infrastructure Consortium) with Belgium, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Lithuania, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Sweden and the United Kingdom as members, with Norway and Switzerland as observers. Subsequently, on January 31<sup>st</sup> 2014, the European Commissioner for Research, Science and Innovation, Máire Geoghegan-Quinn, handed over the official blue plaque to ESS ERIC's Director Rory Fitzgerald and to Professor Michael Breen, Chair of the ESS ERIC General Assembly, to confirm the ERIC legal status.

An ERIC is the legal framework for a European Research Infrastructure Consortium and has been designed to facilitate the establishment and operation of research infrastructures of European interest with the involvement of several European countries. Only EU member states, associated countries, third countries other than associated countries and intergovernmental organisations can be members of an ERIC. It is essentially a research treaty between the members in which those members commit to the funding and governance schemes of the ERIC. Thus, in the case of the ESS, the ERIC is a commitment by the members to fund the survey fieldwork in their individual countries as well as contributing to the core costs of the ESS administration and support services, thus securing the ongoing development of the European Social Survey.

Round 1 of the European Social Survey took place in 2002-2003 with 22 countries taking part. Table 1 below shows the participating countries in Rounds 1 – 6 of the ESS. Thirteen countries have taken part in all six rounds: Denmark, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. A further six rounds have taken place but, at the time of this writing data for Round 7 had not been fully released. Round 8 is currently being planned.

All of the data generated from the ESS are published on an open access scheme (see <http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/>). Along with the data, all of the protocols and specifications are published and available for academic review. The ESS's focus on methodological rigour was recognised and honoured in 2005 by the awarding of the Descartes prize, for "excellence in collaborative scientific research." Between 2002 and 2014, there have been some 1,242 journal articles, 395 working papers, 545 conference papers, 88 research reports, 73 theses, 31 books, and 419 book chapters using the European Social Survey data. As of January 2016, the ESS website reports more than 88,000 registered users of the data, some 6,842 of whom indicate usage as part of their ongoing doctoral dissertations.

Ireland has taken part in the European Social Survey since its inception. The funding agency has been the Irish Research Council and its predecessor until 2011, the Irish Research Council for Humanities and the Social Sciences. For each round of the survey, the IRC/IRCHSS has provided the funding for the European Social Survey to cover both the fieldwork and administration costs.

**Table 1.1 Country Involvement by ESS Round (Source: ESS Core Scientific Team, London)**

	Round 1 [2002]	Round 2 [2004]	Round 3 [2006]	Round 4 [2008]	Round 5 [2010]	Round 6 [2012]
Albania	•	•	•	•	•	•
Austria	•	•	•	•	•	•
Belgium	•	•	•	•	•	•
Bulgaria			•	•	•	•
Croatia				•	•	
Cyprus			•	•	•	•
Czech Republic	•	•		•	•	•
Denmark	•	•	•	•	•	•
Estonia		•	•	•	•	•
Finland	•	•	•	•	•	•
France	•	•	•	•	•	•
Germany	•	•	•	•	•	•
Greece	•	•		•	•	
Hungary	•	•	•	•	•	•
Iceland		•				•
Ireland	•	•	•	•	•	•
Israel	•			•	•	•
Italy	•	•				•
Kosovo						•
Latvia			•	•		
Lithuania				•	•	•
Luxembourg	•	•				
Netherlands	•	•	•	•	•	•
Norway	•	•	•	•	•	•
Poland	•	•	•	•	•	•
Portugal	•	•	•	•	•	•
Romania			•	•		
Russian Federation			•	•	•	•
Slovakia		•	•	•	•	•
Slovenia	•	•	•	•	•	•
Spain	•	•	•	•	•	•
Sweden	•	•	•	•	•	•
Switzerland	•	•	•	•	•	•
Turkey		•		•		
Ukraine		•	•	•	•	•
United Kingdom	•	•	•	•	•	•

There has been a rich dividend of publications and other research outputs from the Irish investment in the European Social Survey. The complete details of Irish outputs are given in Appendix A1. This includes those publications where the 1<sup>st</sup> author was based in Ireland (N=57). There are many, many others as well as those where the Irish data were included in the analysis (N=923) (list available from authors on request).

In this book, we set out to introduce readers to the core work of the European Social Survey under four headings, viz., religious and ethnic identity, politics and trust, social capital and social inclusion, and human values. Each chapter follows the same general layout. We list the questions that were asked on the particular topic in the European Social Survey, and explain general or historical backgrounds as it pertains to the questions. We then introduced the literature on the topic before developing an analysis of the Irish data. We follow this with an indication of how the Irish data compares to other European respondents. For consistency, we have limited the analysis of European data to those 12 countries that have provided data in all 6 rounds of the survey date. For ease of representation we categorise the European countries into five commonly used groupings: the Liberal group covers Ireland and the United Kingdom; the Nordic group is comprised of Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden; the Continental group is Belgium, France, Switzerland, and the Netherlands; the Southern group is comprised of Spain and Portugal, and the Transition group is constituted by Hungary and Poland.

A final chapter deals with the data from the rotating modules of the European Social Survey. Rotating modules are specialist modules which are added in each round of the survey and which address a particular topic of interest. Generally speaking, these topics have not been repeated and there is therefore only one dataset from any one round which can be analysed. We have endeavoured to provide readers with a snapshot of how the Irish data on each of the rotating modules fits in with the overall European picture as presented in the data.

For ease of use we have included particularly large tables as appendices at the end of the book. For the technically minded, we note that we have used post stratification weightings including design weights in our analysis. Population weights have also been used for the regional analyses. All tables and figures in the book are based on the authors' own analyses of ESS data unless otherwise noted.

Country sample sizes vary from round to round. These data are given in Table 1.2.

**Table 1.2 Sample size per region per ESS round**

<b>Region/ Country</b>	<b>ESS round</b>						<b>Total</b>
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	
Ireland*	2046	2286	1800	1764	2576	2628	13100
UK*	2052	1897	2394	2352	2422	2286	13403
Nordic	7541	7217	7078	7184	6499	7318	42837
Continental	7806	7606	7477	7430	6767	7175	44261
Southern	3240	3715	4098	4943	4035	4040	24071
Transition	3795	3214	3239	3163	3312	3912	20635
Total	26480	25935	26086	26836	25611	27359	158307

\*Liberal countries

## CHAPTER TWO

### RELIGIOUS AND ETHNIC IDENTITY

**Table 2.1 European Social Survey Questions in this Chapter**

- Q1 To what extent do you think Ireland should allow people of the same race or ethnic group as most Irish people to come and live here?  
(Allow many to come and live here (1); Allow some (2); Allow a few (3); Allow none (4).)
- Q2 How about people of a different race or ethnic group from most Irish people?  
(Allow many to come and live here (1); Allow some (2); Allow a few (3); Allow none (4).)
- Q3 How about people from the poorer countries outside Europe?  
(Allow many to come and live here (1); Allow some (2); Allow a few (3); Allow none (4).)
- Q4 Would you say it is generally bad or good for Ireland's economy that people come to live here from other countries? (0-10 scale, 0 = Bad for the economy, 10 = Good for the economy)
- Q5 Would you say that Ireland's cultural life is generally undermined or enriched by people coming to live here from other countries? (0-10 scale, 0 = Cultural life undermined, 10 = Cultural life enriched)
- Q6 Is Ireland made a worse or a better place to live by people coming to live here from other countries?  
(0-10 scale, 0 = Worse place to live, 10 = Better place to live)
- Q7 Do you consider yourself as belonging to any particular religion / denomination? (Yes/No)

- Q8 (If Yes) Which one?
- Q9 (If No) Have you ever considered yourself as belonging to any particular religion / denomination? (Yes/No)
- Q10 (If Yes) Which one?
- Q11 Regardless of whether you belong to a particular religion, how religious would you say you are?  
(0-10 scale, 0 = Not at all religious, 10 = Very religious)
- Q12 Apart from special occasions such as weddings and funerals, about how often do you attend religious services nowadays?  
Every day (1), More than once a week(2), Once a week (3), At least once a month (4), Only on special holy days (5), Less often (6), Never (7) [Recoded 1(1,2,3), 2(4) 3(5,6), 4(7)]
- Q13 Apart from when you are at religious services, how often, if at all, do you pray?  
Every day (1), More than once a week(2), Once a week (3), At least once a month (4), Only on special holy days (5), Less often (6), Never (7)
- Q14 Are you a citizen of Ireland? (Yes/No)
- Q15 (If No) What citizenship do you hold?
- Q16 Were you born in Ireland? (Yes/No?)

## Introduction

This chapter is composed of two distinct but related sections: national identity, which also deals with attitudes to immigrants and immigration, and religious identity, a traditional indicator of national identity but one which has seen the most profound changes over the last ten years, to the degree that the change itself is a key marker for the new Ireland of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Religious identity has been transformed by the process of inward migration but more so because of internal changes among the “native Irish”. The late Stuart Hall defined identity as a cultural construct. In terms of how the modern nation is imagined (*pace* Anderson, 1983), Hall selects

five critical elements: (1) the narrative of the nation, (2) the emphasis on origins, continuity, tradition and timelessness, (3), the invention of tradition, (4) a foundation myth, and (5) a pure original people or “folk” (Hall, 1996). He notes that constructed identities are “ambiguously placed between past and future” (op. cit., p. 615). Whatever about Ireland’s mythical past, the changes of recent years, most particularly since the new millennium, have wrought immense change on Ireland’s traditional self-understanding, on its ethnic make-up, and on its values systems.

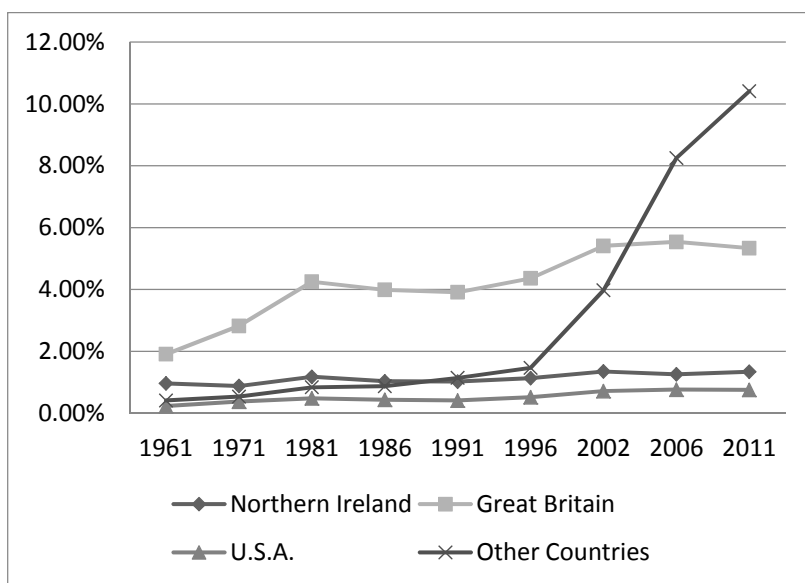
## **Historical Context**

The composition of the Irish population has changed significantly over the last 50 years, as seen in the data of Table 2.2. In 1961 just over 3.5% of the population had not been born in Ireland, and less than a half of one per cent were born in a country other than Ireland, the UK or the USA. By 2011, that picture had shifted dramatically: almost 18% of the population were born outside of Ireland, with nearly 10.5% born in a country other than in the UK or USA. Figure 2.1 shows the percentage of foreign born residents in Ireland from 1961-2011.

The breakdown by region, for the country of birth of the Irish population in 2011, is given in Table 2.3. Those from other parts of Europe (the EU27) make up over 12% of the population. Within the EU27, Poland is the largest with 2.55% of the 2011 population being born there. The total for the rest of world, outside of the EU 27, is less than 5% of the population.

Table 2.1 Country of Birth by population, Irish Census Data, 1961 - 2011 (in 1000s)

	1961	1971	1981	1986	1991	1996	2002	2006	2011
<b>Total Population</b>	2,818	2,978	3,443	3,541	3,526	3,626	3,917	4,240	4,588
<b>Rep of Ireland</b>	2,719	2,841	3,211	3,317	3,297	3,355	3,469	3,570	3,770
<b>Northern Ireland</b>	27	26	41	37	36	41	53	53	62
<b>Great Britain</b>	54	84	146	141	138	158	212	235	245
<b>U.S.A.</b>	6	11	17	15	15	19	28	32	35
<b>Other Countries</b>	12	16	29	31	40	53	156	350	478

**Figure 2.1 Foreign born residents in Ireland, Census Data 1961-2011****Table 2.2 Region of birth by number and percentage, Census 2011.**

Region	Number	Percentage
Ireland	3758511	83.06
EU27 excluding Ireland	555594	12.28
Other Europe	22427	0.50
Africa	54419	1.20
Asia	79021	1.75
America	47116	1.04
Oceania	8193	0.18
<b>Total</b>	<b>4525281</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Ireland was traditionally seen as having a white, Catholic population. Inward migration has altered that reality such that Ireland today is a much more multi-cultural society, though still predominantly white and Catholic. Data provided by the Irish Naturalisation and Immigration Service show both the number of asylum applications by country by year from 2000 to

2014 and the number of asylum seekers granted refugee status or leave to remain by country by year from 2001 to 2014. It is worth noting in this context that the numbers of asylum seekers and of those given leave to remain represent a tiny proportion of the world's asylum seekers fleeing persecution or war in their native countries. The data are shown in two sets of tables, Tables 2.4 through 2.6 and Tables 2.A.1 through 2.A.3. (These latter tables are very large and are in Appendix 2.) The tables refer respectively to the total number of asylum seekers (Tables 2.4 and 2.A.1), the numbers of asylum seekers granted leave to remain (Tables 2.5 and 2.A.2), and the numbers of failed asylum seekers granted leave to remain (Tables 2.6 and 2.A.3). Tables 2.4 through 2.6 show the top ten countries for each year in the respective groups while Tables 2.A.1 through 2.A.3 show the data by country by year for each category.

Between 2000 and 2014, 71,319 people applied for asylum in Ireland. Slightly more than half (50.25%) came from five countries: Nigeria, 21,782 (30.54%), Romania 7,155 (10.03%), Moldova 2,489 (3.49%), DR Congo 2,229 (3.31%) and Pakistan 2,186 (3.07%)

Between 2001 and 2014, approximately 6645 asylum seekers were granted leave to remain. Nine countries account for 3280 (49.36%) of this total: Nigeria 1598 (24.05%), DR Congo 450 (6.77%), Romania 213 (3.21%), Algeria 200 (3.01%), Zimbabwe 172 (2.59%), Moldova 169 (2.54%), Kosovo 161 (2.42%), Ghana 160 (2.41%), and Angola 157 (2.36%).

Finally, between the years of 2001-2014, leave to remain was granted to 6,645 failed asylum seekers.<sup>1</sup> Ten countries account for just over half of these, 3435 (51.69%): Nigeria 1598 (24.05%), DR Congo 450 (6.77%), Romania 213 (3.21%), Algeria 200 (3.01%), Zimbabwe 172 (2.59%), Moldova 169 (2.54%), Kosovo 161 (2.42%), Ghana 160 (2.41%), Angola 157 (2.36%), and Somalia 155 (2.33%).

The most recent Census figures in 2011 show foreign born residents as being in excess of 16% of the population. There is no doubt that that figure has risen over the last 4 years and will continue to rise, albeit possible at a slower rate, into the future. The change since 1961 is quite dramatic, when the foreign born total was less than 4%.

**Table 2.3 (next page) Top ten Countries of Origin for Asylum Seekers, 2000-2014 (Source: Office of the Refugee Applications Commissioner)**

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<sup>1</sup> The term "failed asylum seekers" is taken directly from the data supplied to the authors by the Irish Naturalisation and Immigration Service.

2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Romania	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Pakistan
Romania	Romania	Romania	Romania	Romania	Romania	Sudan	Iraq	Pakistan	Nigeria	China	Pakistan	Pakistan	Pakistan	Nigeria
Czech Republic	Moldova	Moldova	DR Congo	Somalia	Somalia	Romania	China	Iraq	Pakistan	Pakistan	China	DR Congo	DR Congo	Albania
Moldova	Ukraine	Zimbabwe	Moldova	China	Sudan	Iraq	Pakistan	Georgia	China	DR Congo	DR Congo	Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe	Bangladesh
DR Congo	Russia	Ukraine	Czech Republic	Sudan	Iran	Iran	Georgia	China	DR Congo	Afghanistan	Afghanistan	Albania	Malawi	Zimbabwe
Russia	Croatia	Poland	Somalia	DR Congo	Georgia	Georgia	Sudan	DR Congo	Zimbabwe	Ghana	Zimbabwe	South Africa	Algeria	Algeria
Algeria	Lithuania	Ghana	Ghana	Croatia	Afghanistan	Pakistan	DR Congo	Somalia	Georgia	Moldova	Algeria	China	Albania	DR Congo
Ukraine	DR Congo	Lithuania	China	Georgia	DR Congo	Somalia	Somalia	Moldova	Moldova	Cameroon	South Africa	Afghanistan	Syria	Malawi
Poland	Poland	Czech Republic	Croatia	Afghanistan	Moldova	China	Moldova	Sudan	Somalia	Georgia	Albania	Algeria	Afghanistan	South Africa
Sierra Leone	South Africa	DR Congo	Albania	Moldova	China	Moldova	Eritrea	Zimbabwe	Ghana	South Africa	Moldova	Iran	Bangladesh	Ukraine

**Table 2.4 Top ten Countries of Origin for Asylum Seekers granted Leave to Remain, 2001-2014 (Source: Irish Naturalisation and Immigration Service)**

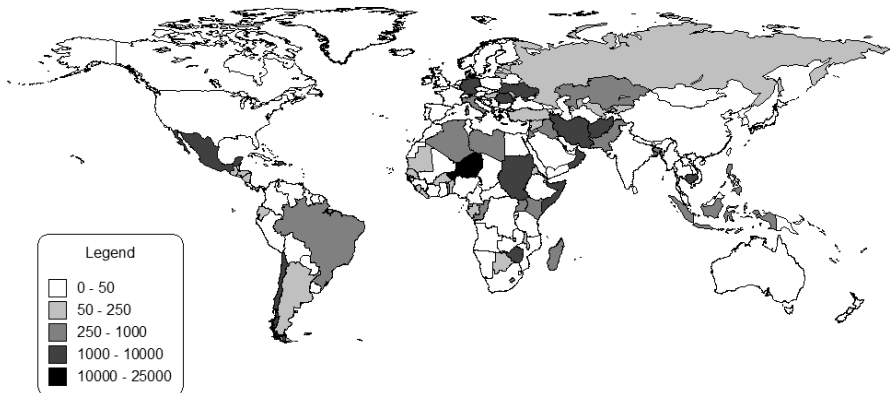
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
DR Congo	Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe	Nigeria	Nigeria	Somalia	Sudan	Iraq	Iraq	Iraq	Somalia	Pakistan	Syria	Syria	Syria
Kosovo	DR Congo	DR Congo	Zimbabwe	Somalia	Nigeria	Somalia	Sudan	Nigeria	Nigeria	Afghanistan	Iran	Egypt	Iran	Iraq
Angola	Nigeria	Nigeria	DR Congo	DR Congo	Sudan	Iraq	Somalia	Sudan	Iran	Nigeria	Afghanistan	Sudan	Pakistan	Iran
Nigeria	Russia	Russia	Moldova	Romania	Croatia	Georgia	Nigeria	Somalia	Afghanistan	Iran	Somalia	Afghanistan	DR Congo	Malawi
Iraq	Croatia	Croatia	Croatia	Zimbabwe	Georgia	Nigeria	Pakistan	Pakistan	Somalia	Palestine	Nigeria	Russia	Iraq	Pakistan
Somalia	Cameroon	Cameroon	Angola	Moldova	Iran	Iran	Iran	Iran	Sudan	Zimbabwe	Russia	Iran	Afghanistan	DR Congo
Romania	Angola	Angola	Somalia	Croatia	Zimbabwe	Afghanistan	Eritrea	Afghanistan	Pakistan	Eritrea	Belarus	Somalia	Somalia	Afghanistan
Libya	Romania	Romania	Ukraine	Ukraine	Rwanda	Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe	Eritrea	Zimbabwe	Moldova	Palestine	Nigeria	Belarus	Nigeria
Algeria	Kosovo	Kosovo	Russia	Sudan	Albania	DR Congo	DR Congo	Russia	Eritrea	Uganda	Zimbabwe	Belarus	Zimbabwe	Palestine
Czech Republic	Iraq	Iraq	Cameroon	Iraq	Eritrea	Kuwait	Kuwait	Palestine	DR Congo	Albania	Eritrea	Palestine	Mali	Zimbabwe

**Table 2.5 Top ten Countries of Origin for failed Asylum Seekers, 2001-2014 given grants of leave to remain (Source: Irish Naturalisation and Immigration Service)**

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Bulgaria	Bulgaria	Romania	Romania	Romania	Nigeria	Romania	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Nigeria
Algeria	Nigeria	Nigeria	Kosovo	Nigeria	Romania	Nigeria	Algeria	DR Congo	DR Congo	DR Congo	DR Congo	DR Congo	DR Congo	Pakistan
Romania	Algeria	Algeria	Algeria	Kosovo	DR Congo	Kosovo	DR Congo	Angola	Angola	Afghanistan	Somalia	Afghanistan	Zimbabwe	DR Congo
Albania	Kosovo	Kosovo	Nigeria	Russia	Kosovo	Bulgaria	Moldova	Zimbabwe	Somalia	Croatia	Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe	Ghana	Georgia
Angola	Iraq	Iraq	Iraq	Algeria	Algeria	Moldova	Kosovo	Moldova	Cameroon	Pakistan	Cameroon	Somalia	Pakistan	Ghana
Burundi	Bulgaria	Bulgaria	Angola	DR Congo	Ukraine	Ukraine	South Africa	Ghana	Zimbabwe	Somalia	Ghana	Pakistan	Cameroon	Kenya
DR Congo	Angola	Angola	DR Congo	Ukraine	Croatia	Algeria	Somalia	Algeria	Ghana	Albania	Afghanistan	Cameroon	Kosovo	Algeria
Ghana	DR Congo	Russia	Angola	Angola	Russia	DR Congo	Ukraine	Sierra Leone	Kenya	Angola	Sudan	Ghana	Iraq	South Africa
Guinea	Ghana	Belarus	Belarus	Belarus	Angola	Somalia	Sierra Leone	South Africa	Moldova	Cameroon	Croatia	Ukraine	Angola	Moldova
Kosovo	Moldova	Georgia	Sierra Leone	Sierra Leone	Belarus	Sierra Leone	Russia	Ukraine	Algeria	Zimbabwe	Iraq	Togo	Kenya	Cameroon

Figure 2.2 below is a map-based representation of the source countries of those who have sought asylum in Ireland between 2000 and 2014. It is not surprising, given the levels of conflict and deprivation in the source countries involved, that three regions predominate: Africa, the Middle East, and Eastern Europe. Within Africa, the highest numbers of asylum seekers come from Nigeria and the Democratic Republic of Congo; within the Greater Middle East, from Pakistan and Iraq; and within Eastern Europe from Romania and Moldova.

**Figure 2.2 Map of source countries of origin of asylum seekers, cumulative 2000-2014 (Data Source: Office of the Refugee Applications Commissioner)**



The Census data also cover self-identified religious denominational belonging. It is important to stress that such belonging has no necessary relationship to faith or church practice rates, a topic dealt with in the body of this chapter. The data from the Census are given in Table 2.7. In the historical context, it is worth noting the profound change in the Irish Catholic landscape over the ten year period of the ESS (2002-2012), in which the worldwide sexual abuse scandal played a significant role, a topic also dealt with elsewhere in this chapter.

**Table 2.6 Religious denomination as overall percentage of population, Irish Census Data, 1961-2011 (%)**

	1961	1971	1981	1991	2002	2006	2011
<b>Catholic</b>	94.86	93.87	93.06	91.57	88.39	86.83	84.16
<b>Church of Ireland</b>	3.69	3.28	2.77	2.53	2.95	2.96	2.93
<b>Presbyterian</b>	0.67	0.54	0.41	0.37	0.53	0.56	0.54
<b>Methodist</b>	0.24	0.19	0.17	0.14	0.26	0.29	0.15
<b>Jewish</b>	0.12	0.09	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.04
<b>Other</b>	0.19	0.21	0.31	1.10	2.28	3.27	4.72
<b>No religion</b>	0.04	0.26	1.15	1.88	3.53	4.39	5.88
<b>Not stated</b>	0.20	1.57	2.06	2.36	2.02	1.66	1.59

## Ethnic Identity

Carey (2002) points out that “little consensus exists on the theoretical underpinnings of national identity or the empirical exposition of the concept” despite this being a “major area of research across the social sciences,” and proposes three different conceptualisations of national identity, viz. the intensity and type of relationship towards the nation, the level of attachment to the nation and, citing McLaren (2002), the perceived cultural threat that European integration poses to the existing national culture (Scott, 2002, p. 339). McLaren (2002) outlines the significance of “perceived threat” as a core factor in understanding resistance to the whole European project.

Berg & Hjerm (2011) postulate that the notion of national identity is “notoriously slippery as it can denote both collective and individual relations to the nation”. In their research, they made a distinction between a civic form of national identity and an ethnic one (p. 396). Kunovich (2006) found that religion, specifically Christianity, is a highly salient factor in understanding individual and collective national identity:

While religious majority and minority status, the frequency of attendance, and their statistical interaction explain differences across individuals, the size of non-Christian populations—Muslims in particular—as well as the interaction between the size and diversity of non-Christian populations explain differences between European countries in the salience of Christianity for national identity (p. 451).