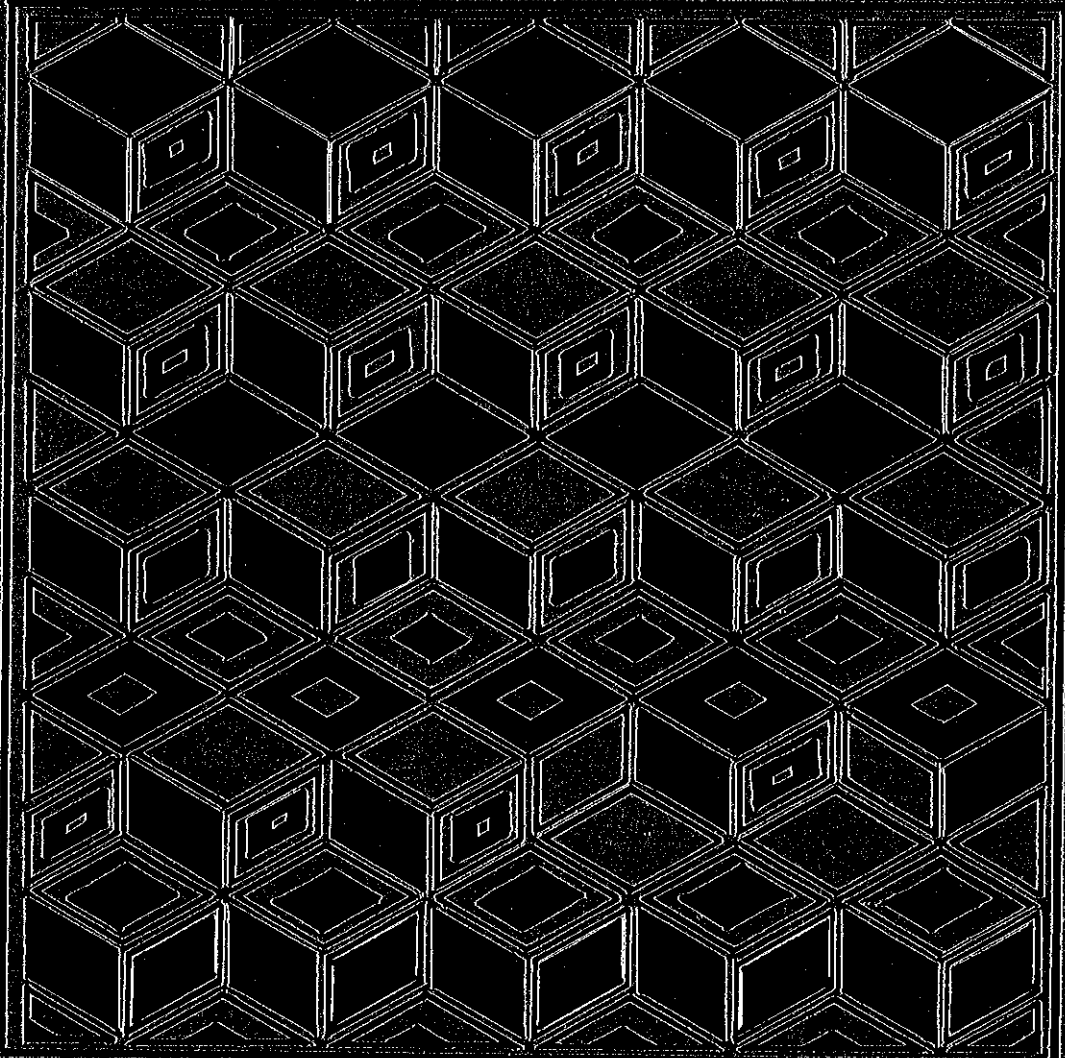
milieu '77



geography society maynooth

MILIEU

1977

MAYNOOTH GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY MAGAZINE

CONTENTS

		page
FOREWORD		7
EDITOR'S NOTE		9
SOCIETY REPORT		11
GEOGRAPHY GRADUATES UNION		12
Steve Shaughnessy	The Geography of War	13
seamus Ryan	Land Ownership and Rural Society in N.E. Roscommon (1641-1800).	19
Anne-Maria Dunphy	Cattle or Carrots?	29
J. O'Chronicle	The Development of University Geography in Ireland.	34
Gerry Duffy	The Nature of Urban Blight	36
Syl Roche	Continuity of Quaker Tradelinks.	39
Michael McEntee	The New "Terra Incognita".	42
Maria Shannon	Dunshaughlin Catholic Parish: A Community?	47
James A. Murphy	A Note on Rural Social Research	54
L. O' Queues	Mynooth, Yournooth, Whoosenooth ?	57
David Tearney	Colonialism, as a Process of Cultural Diffusion.	64
Vincent Allen	The Road to Kabul.	70
	BA Dissertation Titles 1977	78

FOREWORD

Since the great majority of B.A. graduates from this College pursue a teaching career it is only natural that our undergraduate students should have traditionally regarded teaching as the only occupational course open to them on graduation. However, it should be noted that the Bachelor of Arts programme is not specifically designed for any one kind of occupation. The subject combinations taken as part of a B.A. degree help the student to be aware of the literature of these subjects, poses questions about a range of problems in these and related fields and suggests some strategies for analysing and interpreting such problems. In short the Arts programme involves a training in one or more disciplines; it involves a concern for reflection, wide-reading, critical assessment of problems and finally emphasises a considered, impartial and well-structured interpretation on the part of the student of these problems and issues.

In this context, geography as a discipline places special emphasis on interpreting man's relationship to his natural and cultural environments and above all on the ways in which man has shaped and designed the earth's surface to cater for his needs. In analysing such questions, students are introduced to specific geographical skills and viewpoints. Such geographical training hopefully makes the student much more aware of his surroundings, of the human and physical landscapes of this island, of the place of Ireland within the broader European world and indeed of the complex interrelationships between different parts of the earth as a whole. Such training combined with an exposure to one or two other disciplines, will also help to prepare the student for teaching but also may provide him or her with the kind of critical faculties and initial expertise necessary for positions in urban and regional planning, in local or national government departments, in business or elsewhere. The undergraduate student should, perhaps, try now and again to see his B.A. degree in this broader academic and occupational arena.

It is therefore good to see that students of Geography in this College are forming a Maynooth Geography Graduates Union - all graduates and aspiring graduates are encouraged to become members. The objectives of this Union are to organise seminars/refresher courses to keep graduates abreast of recent developments in the discipline; to maintain contact - both academic and social - between graduates in Geography and between graduate students and the Geography department here; and to assist undergraduates in their choice of careers. The department of Geography will be delighted to participate in this Union - particularly as it offers us an opportunity to maintain contacts with former students while also providing us with valuable information on their career paths, which - it is hoped - will help us to better advise our incoming students. We wish the Union well.

William J. Smyth.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The aim of this magazine is to provide a forum for students of Geography to print their ideas or the results of their research for others who may be interested . Material is invited from any student who feels he has something to offer and I'm glad to report that the response this year has been better than any other year. Due to a change in the printing process we have been able to print more words per page and include almost all that was submitted. The publication date this year has been brought forward to coincide with the Congress of the Geography Societies of Ireland which is being held in Maynooth. We wish all who come an enjoyable visit, and hope that the range of articles in the magazine will be of interest.

The articles included in this year's issue reflect the intellectual awareness of Geographers in many different fields. Each one represents an approach to a particular field of study from the general overview in articles like 'Geography of War' and Terra Incognita ; to the application of particular techniques to more specific phenomena in articles such as 'Quaker Trading Links' and the 'Geography of Maynooth'. 'Cabbage or Carrots' focuses on the problem of land use following the exploitation of our bogs; and 'Dunshaughlin Catholic Parish: A Community?' problems of delineating rural community boundaries, both examples of the application of particular geographical tenhniques to real world situations.

As editor, I would like to thank all who submitted material for the magazine and encourage anyone who reads it to write something for next year's Milieu. This year's magazine is the result of the combined efforts of many people, firstly the committee listed below, with whom it was very enjoyable to work; the staff of the Geography Department who gave us every help and encouragement and our typist, Anne Healy for the excellent job she has done. I would like to thank our advertisers, the new contributers and especially those who have continued to support us in 1977. Finally a special word of thanks is due to Sean Casey who designed our cover again this year.

Editor	Seamus Ryan.
Layout	John Burns.
Advertisements	Noel Purcell
Help !!	Leonie O' Dowd.
	Donal Healy.
	Elizabeth Allman.

SOCIETY REPORT

Committee

Auditor	Fintan Diggan.
Treasurer	John Murphy (2nd Arts)
Secretary	Mary Rose Bogan (2nd Arts)
3rd Year Rep	Marguerite Crosbie, Noel Purcell.
1st Year Reps	John Burns, Grainne Milner, Moses A. Akindugbagbe.

Since it was founded in 1971-'72, the Geography Society has continued to expand both in membership and in the variety of functions undertaken, Over the years, the Society has endeavoured to invite to Maynooth College some of the top geographers in this country and from abroad to deliver lectures and to partake in seminars. In all this, the aim of the Society has been to bring to its members some awareness of the variety of fields that can properly be included within the realm of Geography. The hope is, that after experiencing the enthusiasm with which the guest lecturers have expounded on the results of their research into their own special topics, the members of the Society will be stimulated to develop their own special geographical interests and thus contribute to the further expansion of Geographical knowledge.

The Society got off to a very encouraging start at the Societies' Fair in the Aula Maxima on Thursday 14th October. Maps, magazines and information sheets were posted on the walls of the geography stand. The central feature of our display was a continuous slide-show, which included slides taken on field-trips during the previous year. The success of the venture was indicated by the large number of non-geographers who joined the Society, in addition to geography students.

Our first lecture of the year - "Is there an Irish tradition in Cartography" - was delivered by Dr.J.H.Andrews (TCD) on Wednesday 27th October. Dr.Andrews gave a very informative and well-illustrated account of the Irish contribution to the development of cartography over the years.

This was followed on Thursday November 11, by a lecture from Dr.J.Kuchler of the Free University of West Berlin entitled "The de-urbanisation of China". A packed Physics Hall was treated to the rare occasion of hearing a first-hand account of some aspects of Chinese society from a man who has actually spent a number of years living and studying in China.

The highlight of the first term was on Tuesday 30 November when the Society, in conjunction with the Geography Societies of UCD, TCD and the Geography Society of Ireland, hosted the Annual Joint-Societies Lecture of 1976-'77. The Lecture, entitled "Brittany and the Atlantic Margins of Europe", was delivered by our guest speaker Professor P.Flatres of the University of Rennes. The lecture was followed by a sherry reception for members and guests of the four societies who sponsored the event.

The programme for second term will end in March with a lecture by Mr. John Curry of the Agricultural Institute on "Rural Areas: Problems and Prospects."

For the final term, we have invited Patrick O' Carroll (UCC) to deliver a lecture on Friday 15 April entitled "Regional Delineation of Rural Ireland: Problems and Implications". This will be followed on Friday 29 April by the Society's Annual General Meeting.

In last year's issue of 'Milieu' it was proposed to set up a Geography Students' Past-Pupil's Union. I am delighted to be able to report that the response has been magnificent and that the Union is proceeding according to plan. Anyone who wishes to join may do so by submitting the membership fee of £1 to Seamus Ryan, Gerry Duffy or myself.

Congratulations must go to the 'Milieu '77' Committee for producing another high-quality magazine, in face of all the financial and production difficulties which beset such an undertaking. In particular, Seamus Ryan deserves the highest praise for the energy and enthusiasm with which he has carried out his responsibilities as Editor, to ensure that the students of geography have an opportunity of putting their ideas into print. I hope this magazine will be a source of inspiration, interest and enjoyment to all its readers.

Finally, I would like to take this opportunity of expressing my sincerest thanks, on behalf of the Society, to all the staff of the Geography Department for their whole hearted support and co-operation throughout the year, and to you, the students who make all the effort worthwhile by supporting our functions.

Fintan Diggin.

MAYNOOTH GEOGRAPHY GRADUATES' UNION

As you may have heard, it has been decided to organise a Union of Geography Graduates. Such a Union will endeavour to cater for those graduates who would like to continue their interest in academic Geography and maintain contact with their fellow students and the Geography Department. In December students who graduated with Geography in their degrees were circularised and invited to join, and participate in the organisation of the union. So far, almost 50% of graduates have replied and the letters of encouragement and offers of help have ensured that it will get off the ground and be a success. Each person who replied will get a copy of this magazine, accompanied by a full list of proposed activities for the months ahead.

If you are a graduate and have not joined yet, and agree with the above aims, why not support us? A re-union has been planned for Easter and preparations are being made for a field trip. Further activities will include seminars (and on the suggestion of a few people, possibly a foreign field trip).

If you are graduating in November, don't forget to join before you leave.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF WAR

Steve Shaughnessy

1. Model for geo-political conflicts.

The emergence of a "national consciousness" amongst a group of people, demarcated by political and physical boundaries, is the historical phenomenon which inaugerates the geographical setting of military conflicts. Every cultural system in the world has experienced such a development, and accordingly, local conditions - social, physical and cultural affect the significance and organisation of such a national group.

In the West, we tend to regard the experience of Western Europe in the period 1300-1700 as an absolute model for the spatial application of national consciousness. Nevertheless, the existence of "Indian nations" throughout North and South America, or the nations centering around the warlord of ancient China represent different but valid experiences.

Consciousness requires a common mode or common purpose for spatial interaction among the members of a nation. In the Indian world this could mean the community hunting season, which required the defense of a territory not only from other Indian nations (for economic reasons), but later from the old world immigrants whose hunger for space threatened the existence of Indian nations as independent cultural units.

The notion of common socio-economic interests is essential to our model. While the feudal lord was the leading benefactor of the community's labour, the continuation of the feudal system (later the nation state) was a prerequisite for the continued existence of all who shared in that society.

Morphogenesis, in an economic geographical system occurs through a basic change in one component of a geo-political unit. In the case of feudal Europe this meant that the surplus value of agricultural labour was utilised by a rising bourgeoisie class to promote the rise of trade, at first internally. This translation of value into commodities for exchange and circulation is the first indication that economic systems are not closed. The existence of an open system implies that interaction with a wider environment is not only probable, but necessary for the continued operation of the system. Thus, in the European example, the intensification of international trade links and later (at the end of the fifteenth century) the inauguration of long-distance trade were the causes of a morphogenetic change to merchant capitilist systems.

Initial scrambling for colonial connections was the primary cause of international conflict from the mid-sixteenth century to the mid-eighteenth century, among the European powers. The accumulation requirements of a small trading group (which eventually reflected in the entire socio-economic fabric of the nation) were the interests which were at stake. The abundance of natural resources, cheap labour (slaves), and potentially unlimited market areas were the geographic prizes and the victor's reward.

The modern era is only an intensification of these trends,. The morphogenetic mutations which each nation has undergone reflect the conflicting interests of the major "open systems" of the globe. The ideological canvasses, the cultural divergences, the oft-redrawn political boundaries all reflect the tensions of the dynamics of interdependence. The emergence of separate technologies in navigation, transport, banking, physics and the science of labour control all are products of the inert drive to compete, conquer and annex. The intensification of internal consumption patterns has definite geographic limits, and no artificial demands can overcome this. Thus, the need to go beyond geo-political boundaries (for open systems) inevitably ignites military conflict between the nations of the centre over their spheres of influence (Angola being the most recent example), and occasionally conflict and war between centre and periphery.

2. War as Interaction.

Based on the preceding model, war must be viewed as the geographical interactions between different groups whose conflicting spatial goals bring them into armed conflict. The objective of war would logically follow as the attempt to capture all or part of a competitor's sphere of influence through the destruction of his mechanisms for control of this sphere. A revolutionary war, on the other hand, can be generally described as a united rising of the spheral constituents (that is, one part of that sphere) against the exercise of control within that sphere.

It seems no small coincidence that the rise of modern warfare technology (e.g. iron-plated ships, airoplane, rapid-firing weapons, etc.) occured during the late nineteenth century, a period of relative peace, but also one of the intensification of colonial control among the "centre" nations of the world. The utilisation of this new technology in the Great War of 1914-1918 (the first to be credited with global or worldwide participation), is symbolic of its purpose. The destruction of the face of Europe was the consequence at the centre, but more importantly Germany's attempt to widen her geographical influence resulted the loss of her own peripheral territories. Again, in the Second World War, Germany's defeat led to transfer of spatial control of Eastern Europe to one power, and the spatial dependence of Western Europe on another.

The revolutionary war requires different tactics and generally has a different function. As opposed to the attempt to impose economic and cultural hegemony upon other nations it is the indigenous attempt to force off this dominance. The two-pronged Cuban revolution typifies this model. The strategy in rural areas was to attack (guerilla-style) military fortifications protecting the interests of plantation owners, (whose monocrop culture provided direct exports to North America and deprivation to the rural population). The low technological properties of the revolutionary forces are in marked contrast to those of the centre. Thus, the other section of rural strategy was to promote a revolutionary consciousness among the rural population, as agricultural labour was imperialsim's major source of wealth and hence control. The second internal reaction to this external omnipresence was in direct attacks in urban areas on banking and commercial sectors - the foreign mechanisms for spatial control. The final result was independence.

The vehicle of warfare, therefore, differs according to the player. The mechanisms of the centre rely on a highly automated, capital-intensive, cybernated war machine. Supersonic jets, missiles, the nuclear threat, and advanced personnel weaponry, along with chemical and biological are the result of a technological superiority which was partially gained from capital export made possible by centre-periphery control. Not

only is the periphery robbed of the capital to physically install such weaponery, but she is robbed of her manpower by the "brain-drain", which makes such development impossible. Thus, warfare which begins in the periphery is by necessity of the labour intensive type, and depends upon personal involvement (caused by personal and societal deprivation) rather than impersonal, advanced technology.

The consequences of such interaction are manifold. The most poignant are those consequences which are visible and are reflected in the physical environment. In the past, traditional warfare has usually meant devastation of communications links, industries, fields, and energy resources (e.g. 10,000 power stations were destroyed by the Germans in the Soviet Union in World War 2 and an area equivalent to the U.S.A. east of Chicago).

However, destruction to the physical environment reached new proportions in this century with three significant innovations. The scarred landscapes of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in 1945, and present-day sufferers of certain deseases in Japan (e.g. cancer of lungs, emphysema etc.) bear witness to the first, which is nuclear warfare. Both centres were populous and the destruction of innocent lives rather than industrial output was the tactic.

The use of nerve gases against soldiers in World War 1 was the grandfather of the technology sophisticated in the recent war in Indochina - chemical and biological warfare. The destruction of thousands of square miles of foliation and vegetation was the immediate environmental consequence. Starvation was the more immediate effect. In the long run, the generation of poisons through the food-chain and their intensification has caused the most serious harm to the human and ecological environment.

The third innovation, the bombing of dikes and hospitals and the use of anti-personnel bombs against civilians in Vietnam, was a deliberate attempt at genocide. Thus, the interaction of spatial systems and conflicting spatial purposes goes much further than space, per se, but can be directed against cultural groups.

Demographic disorder is another consequence of war. The low age (late teens/early twenties) of the majority of the combatants (generally the most serious hit group) is reflected in gaps in population pyramids. The resulting influence can be one of severe socio-economic repercussions. Not only is family-life disrupted, thus disrupting the organisation of familial space, but severe strains are put on the workforce - especially in social systems which frown upon female participation in the workforce.

Urban economic and regional patterns of interaction (socially and spatially) are disrupted more seriously in the losing nation. Even the victorious nation will experience changes in regional economic organisation. The real predominance of the Northeastern U.S.A. as an industrial region only took place with the war economy of World War 1, the further underdevelopment of the rural south mirrored the rising dominance of the north.

Internationally, the end of a war brings with it a reconciling of spatial relationships. The shifts in spheres of influence of the European continent in the aftermath of World War 2 has already been cited. Likewise the presence of revolutionary movements on the African continent has meant a restructuring of international links. The recrystalisation of economic hegemonies is a functional representation of the ultimate geographic cause of warfare and each international confrontation of the past 200 years has witnessed

such recrystallisations. Ultimately, all such transformations have occured within a centre/periphery context. Relations between centres are also affected by war. The harmonious relationship which existed between Moscow and Washington between 1942 and 1945, was based on a common goal: the destruction of Germany's social/spiritual control mechanisms. This being accomplished, changing goals (and a refocusing of spatial priorities) demanded that this relationship be severed and "ideological boundaries" be placed there instead.

This change of goals and spatial priorities was based in part upon the changes made to the economic systems of the United States and the U.S.S.R. in World War 2. Nearly 60% of the entire production capacity of the U.S.S.R. was directed towards the war effort in the U.S.S.R., and for the first time, government spending in the US. equalled 10% of the GNP by 1975 (as opposed to a peak of 1.6% previously). The surplus absorptive capabilities acquired by both governments for the war effort required that geographic penetration of external economics was a requisite for survival in the post-war years. The re-alignment of power blocs prompted the rise of ideological warfare as a protective device and insurance measure for the continued growth and spatial intensification of both systems.

The new links forged between the military, industry and government in the superpowers during that conflict, have led to a triumvirate of spatial-economic decision-makers in the aftermath. This development, one which was promoted by geographical warfare, provides the contemporary centre of spatial interdependence and conflict.

3. Internal Routes to Spatial Re-organisation.

The reconstruction or reorganisation of spatial systems (depending on whether it's the conqueror or the conquered) depends upon the mode of production and the goals ofeconomic recovery.

The realignment of Northern Europe in the wake of the Second World War was a direct response to the requisites of North American capital reproduction and accumulation. The rise of new urban systems and transport links were required in order that the circulation of capital might proceed, and the erection of a political system receptive to these needs of capital accumulation (i.e. foreign investment) were essential processes in this spatial reconstruction and redevelopment programme. Thus, the new international alignments assured the rise of a "democratic", capitalist Europe and enabled the U.S. to pursue her economic interests there and in the 'Third World' unhindered.

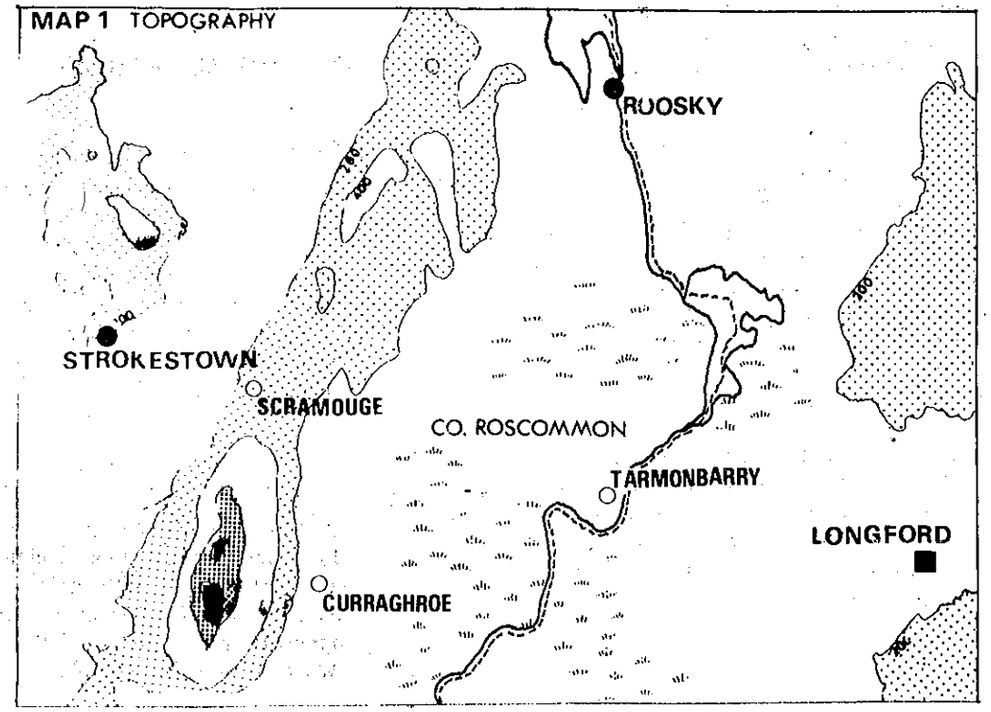
Technology is a component of economic systems and its application will be reflected in the economic geography of a nation undergoing reconstruction. The Chinese example is a graphic one in this department. The struction of Eastern China in the war with Japan and its stagnation in the revolutionary war prompted the government of the People's Republic to accept Soviet aid and technological transfer in the 1950's. However, it soon became obvious that this spatial interdependence through technology only gave rise to a Soviet hegemonic influence in China. Furthermore, the application of their capital -intensive technology was not at all suited to China's basic needs, which were full employment and a substantial rise in the standard of living.

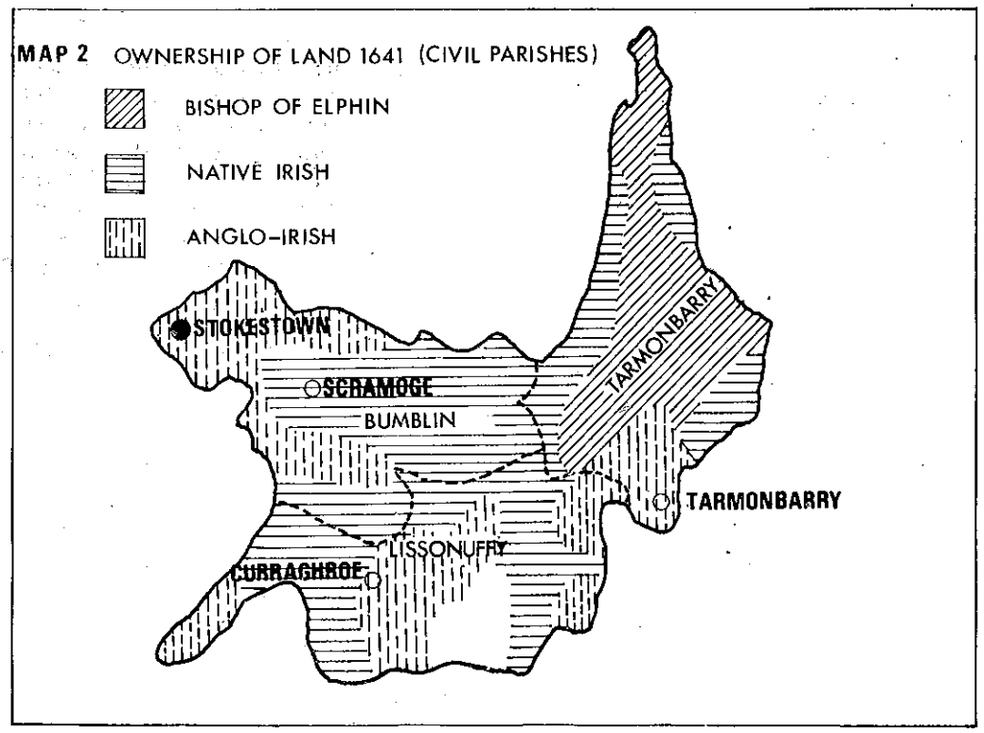
By breaking the political and technological ties, China was able to pursue a course of development (i.e. labour-intensive) more suited to her needs and at the same time sever her spatial/economic interdependence with the Soviet Union. Her transformation of the socio-economic landscape was then able to proceed unhindered

Complete devastation in war forces the government of the country in question to completely rebuild its economic landscape. In the case of Western Europe, we have seen how this growth followed previous lines, and was suited to interference by the United States.

Cambodia, while appearing as a savage to the West, provides an example of a nation which is rebuilding its landscape, avoiding the mistakes of geographic structure which have long hindered the possibility of territorial social justice. By forcing the swelled populations of her urban centres back into the countryside she has obeyed what should be the First Commandment of Geography. By agglomerating people, capital and services in space (or by permitting its continuance) she could not have solved the problems of economic geographic organisation which are caused by such a maldistribution. Her transformation made necessary by war, will enable a proper manipulation of her national resources, in a way suited to the needs of her people, not capital reproduction.

Thus the decision-making process in the aftermath of geographical conflict must be affected by the nature of the nation's external relations - the very same unstable situation which promotes conflict in the first place. The spatial interdependence between nations, or the deliberate lack of it, is the ultimate clue as to how the geography of war poses as the ultimate controlling mechanism for global superiority of spatial relations between political units and within them.





LAND OWNERSHIP AND RURAL SOCIETY N. E. ROSCOMMON 1641-1800

Seamus Ryan

Introduction:

This essay examines the evolution of landholding in a small part of Ireland in Co. Roscommon from the final obliteration of the Gaelic system to the emergence of the estate system in the pre-Famine period. It will show how a new landholding system was born in the mid seventeenth century and how it led to the creation of large estates, which in turn influenced the economic and social organisation of lands under their control.

Tobarnaskeagh, Co. Roscommon.

Tobarnaskeagh[1] is the name given to a small area in North-East Roscommon encompassing three civil parishes (Map 1). The eastern boundary is defined by the river Shannon while the western boundary is roughly delineated by a low ridge known locally as Sliabh Bán. Most of the land adjoining the river Shannon in Lissonuffy Parish is bog, with occasional islands of glacial drift. Bumblin and Tarmonbarry have most of the better land. The town of Strokestown is situated in the West of Bumblin Parish.

Seventeenth Century Tobarnaskeagh.

At the beginning of the seventeenth century, Ireland presented a picture of a country with two peoples, one native, the other foreign. Centuries earlier, Norman colonists had settled along the coasts and beside rivers, they had left the highlands, the deep woods, and the grasslands behind these woods to the Gaelic rulers and their people. The Tudor conquest of the sixteenth century had increased the overall area of English dominance through war and colonisation, much of the woods were cut down[2] but the job of colonisation was not completed. It was to take the administrators and map-makers of the seventeenth century to organise a picture of the country for the English Government so that the colonisation would be complete.

Tobarnaskeagh is one such area that was substantially wooded in 1600[3]. It would appear to have been largely inaccessible to the conquerer, being just across the Shannon, but this was to change. The new administration of the early seventeenth century began to collect information systematically about all parts of Ireland to complete the process of colonisation. Much of this information survives today in the Books of Survey and Distribution[4] (hereafter referred to as B.S.D.). The B.S.D. provides a basis for reconstructing the land ownership position at the beginning of the seventeenth century, and after the upheavals of Cromwellian and the Williamite Wars. These books have a complicated history, but briefly could be said to contain an assimilation of the material furnished in the 'Gross' Civil and Down Surveys of the seventeenth century They were the reference books of the clerks of the Quit Rent Offices in Dublin during the eighteenth century for deciding and organising payment of Quit Rents, in other words

They contain the basic information that is relevant to land-settlements in the seventeenth century.

The B.S.D. reveals information about civil parishes (and even townlands where these can be traced) under six seperate headings. These take the form of columns as follows:-

Column No.	Details
1	Proprietors' names (1641)
2	Denominations of their lands and sometimes a description.
3	No. of unprofitable acres for each separate piece of property.
4	No. of profitable acres.
5	No. of profitable acres disposed of under 17th century Acts.
6	Names of those who got land under these Acts.

In the compilation of these 'Books' the Civil Survey[5] was used for:-

(1) the names of the proprietors, and
(2) the land forfeit in 1641 and the names of the proprietors of unforfeited land.

The Down Survey[6] was used for the reference numbers in the parish maps (Petty's maps), (2) the place names, (3) and (4) the number of acres profitable and unprofitable and the acreages of bogs and waste.

With this valuable source, it is possible to reconstruct the situation immediately before the Cromwellian plantations from the information supplied in the first four columns. The names that appear in the first column are readily recognisable as Irish, Anglo-Irish or church lands. One or two instances occur where the names are obviously English and these are included with the church lands, because they comprise the only group that was left undisturbed by the plantations.[7]

Map 2 shows the extent of land occupied by the three main groups in 1641. It shows the general picture of ownership. Though not minutely accurate,[8] a certain trend is visible. The Bishop of Elphin owned most of the profitable land in Tarmonbarry. When compared with the map of the topography of the area, we see that as early as this, the Irish owned much of the poorer land, both bog and higher ground in the South East. The Anglo-Irish, on the other hand, held some of the better land in Lissonuffy and a wedge of the best land in Bumblin.

PROFITABLE LAND 1641 (in acres).

Parish	Irish	Anglo/Irish	Church
Tarmonbarry	186	214	1,684
Lissonuffy	825	554	1,032
Bumblin	1,554	964	691
TOTALS	2,565	1,722	3,407

UNPROFITABLE LAND 1641 (acres)

Parish	Irish	Anglo/Irish	Church
Tarmonbarry	4,073	22	133
Lissonuffy	1,491	171	
Bumblin	452	2,062	565
TOTALS	6,016	2,225	698.

Fig. 1. Profitable and Unprofitable Land 1641.

The figures in Fig.1 are the acreages given for each group in 1641 in the three parishes. They illustrate the distribution of profitable and unprofitable lands between the three groups. The Church and Irish interests had most of the land classed as profitable. On the other hand, looking at the tables for unprofitable land we see that the natives hold nominal rights over the vast majority of it and the newer English interests, here mainly exemplified by the Established Church, had its eyes firmly fixed on the better land.

It would seem that the Irish and Anglo-Irish taken as the representatives of the old order in 1641 are the dominant landholders, but the representatives of the new order to come, the Established Church and the English Settlers who had retained all their lands after the various plantations and settlements, were already in control of some of the best resources Tobarnaskeagh had to offer.

The Transplantation to Connaught in 1654[9] began the first large scale re-organisation of land-ownership in Tobarnaskeagh. Connaught and County Clare were singled out to receive the dispossessed of other counties, who were to receive satisfaction for part of their confiscated estates in Connaught. All lands were to be held by free and common socage[10] and not be feudal or Irish tenure. The plan for this transplantation exists in published form.[11] Roscommon was to receive transplanters from Meath, Kildare and Dublin. This did not work out in practice however, and it received the dispossessed from many counties, as well as transplanters within the county.

From these lists, we can discover who was sent to each of the three parishes in Tobarnaskeagh, where they come from, and how much land each received. Original grants for these people ranged from 800 acres to 33 for outsiders, while one native transplanter got grants totalling 2,604, in various parts of Roscommon. This transplantation only affacted landowners and did not cause any great population movement of the lower classes in any area.[12] But it did spell the end of Gaelic influence in previously autonomous parts of Ireland, and introduced a new element into the rural social mix of that time, an element that would come to dominate during the next two centuries. Previous to this, the new Commonwealth had made grants of land to many military officers in lands bordering the fringes of Connaught and Clare. One of these was Captain Nicholas Mahon, whose descendents were to dominate much of North East Roscommon in future years.

In the plantation over the years 1654-1659, seven individuals got grants of lands in Bumblin, eleven in Lissonuffy and one in Tarmonbarry.

AREA ASSIGNED TO EACH PARISH 1654-1659

PARISH	ACRES	UNITS
Bumblin	2,604	7
Lissonuffy	1,251	11
Tarmonbarry	240	1

Fig. 2 Source - Transplantation to Connaught.[11]

Some of the transplanters came from as far away as Waterford, while others who were considered to be of "English Interest" within Tobarnaskeagh were re-allocated lands in the settlement provisions. Fig.2 shows that Bumblin, the parish which previously had the most 'native Irish' and some of the better land, had the greatest number of acres allocated, while Tarmonbarry, which was largely dominated by the English interest, had only 240 acres planned for re-allocation.

As this was only a plan for re-settlement, the Census of 1659[13] is a useful guide for estimating how successful it was. The Census was conducted under Petty and is probably hopelessly inaccurate as regards population totals, but names of landowners were recorded in the townland where they lived. In the parish of Bumblin four of the original seven transplanters (Fig.2), three of the original eleven in Lissonuffy are found resident there and the one transplanter recorded for Tarmonbarry does not appear.

This is not an absolute measure of the success of thetransplantation, however, since a transplanter resident outside the parish would not be recorded. A more accurate estimation of the success and permanence of the transplantation is the final column of the B.S.D.[14] But one drawback that it has over the 1659 census is that the date of entry of the returns in this column is after the Acts of Re-Settlement and therefore, some of the original transplanters may have returned to their former estates. Bumblin had four landowners recorded who appeared in the original plan, two of whom appeared in the

Census of 1659. In Lissonuffy again, four more appear who were on the original lists and two of them appeared on Pender's Census.[15] The transplanter to Tarmonbarry does not appear. As an example, a 'Michael Sarsfield' of Meath was designated 435 acres in Bumblin parish in 1654 and in the Books of Survey and Distribution, final column, he is found to have 350 acres. Differences in measurements may account for the differences in acreage, but by 1680 he had established his claim and it was recorded in the Quit rent Books.[16] From this, we can see that the transplantation had a measure of permanance about it, but to understand the real results of this half century of land-holding chaos, reference must be made to that column in the B.S.D. that names the owners in 1680. Of the original owners in 1641, whose farms ranged in size from 100 acres to 600 acres,[17] not one remains in the Owners of Titles column in 1680. Only two names appear which would suggest the same individual, family or interest, - the Bishop of Elphin, a certain John Crofton in 1641, and a Robert Crofton in 1680 for the same lands. This is a measure of the effectiveness of the change in distribution of resources between 'Irish Interests' and 'English Interests' - between Catholic and Protestant - in Tobarnaskeagh in the seventeenth century. But the continuity of rural society was maintained regardless, because for most of the non-landowning natives it only meant a change of overlord and some slight change in relations with this overlord. If they had not been so before, the natives became tenants on their lands and it was the new elite who would point the direction of future developments in Tobarnaskeagh.

After the Cromwellian Plantation, and the Williamite Settlement, land-ownership passed finally into the hands of the colonial settlers. With this control of the land, all political authority at local level was concentrated in their hands. But the new land-owners fared badly in the early years; labour was scarce due to disease, famine and some emigration.[18]

1700-1840

By 1700, the new elite had established itself as the dominant class in rural Ireland. They were Protestant in religion, their allegiance was to England, their interest in the land was primarily commercial. In contrast to this, the populations which lived on their lands were primarily Catholic, without much love for the colonists, different in language and culture and practising a mainly subsistence economy. This dual society was to exist side by side for the next century and three-quarters under a political and economic system which perpetuated the division and was eventually to lead to the destruction of both societies.

The key element in the establishment and maintenance of this system was the ownership of resources. This new landlord class controlled the development of the agrarian economy through its legitimised ownership of the land under the principles of English law (some of them made especially for Ireland during the eighteenth century and thus determining the nature of agricultural activity for their own ends without much regard for the plight of their dependant masses).

The country-side saw great developments at the hands of this favoured minority over the next century and a half. The landscape underwent its greatest transformation since the forests were first cleared. The landowning family considered in the following discussion was one of the most enlightened in the country over the period and an examination of their history will exemplify at a small scale the effect of the estate system during 1700-1840 on the social, cultural and economic organisation of rural life for the mass

of the people and how the relations between landlord and tenant were the key elements in the operation of this system.

Estate of Nicholas Mahon, Strokestown.

At the end of the seventeenth century, twenty-five landowners are listed for the three civil parishes of Tobarnaskeagh. The size of their properties ranged from as small as 11 acres, for one individual, to as high as 1,606 for the Bishop of Elphin. Six of these twenty five landowners are known to have had lands outside this area, and in all but one case, these are the larger landowners of the whole group.

One of these landowners was the Mahon family of Strokestown. Captain Nicholas Mahon was a soldier in Cromwell's army in 1649 and received a grant of land along the borders of Connaught as part of Cromwell's policy of placing soldiers in key positions around Connaught and Clare. From the estate records he had a few townlands around Strokestown, a small village at that time, in the western corner of Bumblin Parish. From the B.S.D. in 1968 we see that he had 1,522 acres in these three civil parishes and considerable lands elsewhere. In an entry for the 8th October 1690, we find reference to land bought from a Michael Sarsfield, who owned land in Bumblin in 1659 and who was a transplanter from Meath in 1654. Although the acreage of land is not stated in the records, he was recorded for 340 acres in the B.S.D. and after the sale no mention is found of any Sarsfield in the area at any later date. Thus, the process of consolidation had begun by 1690. Nicholas Mahon was now the dominant landowner in Bumblin parish. There are no more references to land bought in the records after this, but comparison of the estate in 1780 and the townlands mentioned then, leads one to believe that he acquired the property of five other landowners mentioned in 1688. In 1725, a survey of the estate was made by a Simon Cottle and we find that it inculded 3,525 acres of profitable land, 1,284 acres of bog. His rent-roll for the same year was worth £776.18s.9½d. Over the following 120 years land was steadily added to his estate until in 1860 Nicholas Mahon's descendants in Strokestown had 29,000 acres. It is not without foundation then, that this period is called the period of the consolidation of estates. At the time of Griffith's Valuation[19] ownership of land in the three civil parishes can be seen to be concentrated in a half dozen people. Estates got larger and control of the means of production was in fewer and fewer hands. In the case of the Mahon family, they were more responsible in the operation of their estate than many other landlords. Their permanent residence was always in Strokestown and their estates were managed by a branch of their own family. The surviving folklore of the area is kind to them.

The Mahon rent-roll increased from £776 in 1725 to £3,178 in 1791 and £8,943 in 1825. Most of this money appears to have been re-invested in the estate; new houses for tenants were built, a road linking Longford and Strokestown was constructed in the late eighteenth century, with a new bridge over the Shannon. Flax-growing was encouraged during the eighteenth century[20] (one of the few areas of the country which grew it at this time). It was grown extensively throughout his whole estate up to the end of the last century. With the attendant activities of spinning and weaving, the tenants were better off than most in East Roscommon at the time of the Famine. The town of Strokestown was re-modelled by Mahon to make it one of the finest examples of an 'estate town' in Ireland. Throughout the pre-Famine period, regional variations in agriculture were functions more of the landlords' control of the principal resources than any qualities of the physical environment. By virtue of their control of the principal resource - 'land' - they dictated to a large extent the organisation of the rural economy.

The Population in Eighteenth Century Tobarnaskeagh.

Nothing concrete can really be stated about population size or distribution prior to 1749. But for that year the manuscript of a Census taken by the Protestant clergy of the Diocese of Elphin has been preserved and from information contained in it we can get a glimpse of the type of society that was developing in the eighteenth century under the landlord system.[21]

The Census was taken by the Protestant rector of each parish in 1749, in this case the rectors of Bumblin, Lissonuffy and Tarmonbarry. The parishes are divided into their various townlands and the name, religion, occupation and family of each household is given. Of those townlands recorded, most are on or near roads that existed at the time. The townlands not mentioned either had no inhabitants, or they have their inhabitants included in the nearest townland mentioned.

Given these drawbacks, some interesting insights into the organisation of the area can be gained, especially from the occupations listed.

CENSUS OF ELPHIN 1749, OCCUPATIONS.

Parish	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Bumblin	8	5	46	113	7	56	24	3
Lissonuffy	8	36	72	68	13	38	38	24
Tarmonbarry	8	0	30	0	81	13	13	19

(A) Gentlemen Freeholders, Farmers.
(B) Tenants.
(C) Cottiers.
(D) Labourers.
(E) Ploughman Herd, gardeners, Woodman, Mower and 'Welder'.
(F) Craftsmen, Weavers, Tailors, Stonecutters, Plasterers, Carpenters, Shoemakers, Shirner, Joiner, Birchburner Wheelright.
(G) Others, Carman, Yarnbuyer Constable, Merchant, Apothecary, Pedlar, Huckster, Shopkeeper, Saltmonger, Matchmaker, Lawyer
(H) Widows, Beggars, Spinisters.

Fig. 3. Census of Elphin 1749.

Problems immediately arise about this classification of occupations, in this case undertaken by the three diffenent enumerators, In column D, above, Bumblin and Lissonuffy have both sizable numbers of labourers listed, while Tarmonbarry has none. The interpretation of " Cottiers" and "Tenants" seems to be equally unsound, but overall the listing of other occupations, skills and trades is very interesting. A sizable proportion of the households were not directly dependant on agriculture to make a living. A wide variety of crafts were practised and a few services were available. It would be reasonable to suppose that most of those listed had at least a small patch of ground for themselves to grow potatoes. Presumably, in the case of a small tenant or cottier having a part-time occupation such as matchmaking, this was listed as his occupation and not his possible major occupation, farming. The occupations reflect the changing organisation of rural society under the landlord system. At the top we have a small

minority of proprietors and then the new classes in rural Ireland, the tenants and the cottiers. After those, the new occupations that were created with the introduction of better farming methods, the introduction of money and the initial rise in the standard of living for some tenants under the new regime. These would be ploughmen, gardeners, mowers, etc. With the change to a commercial farming economy, merchants, yarnbuyers, pedlars appear. Finally, the establishment of the new order under English Common Law led to the introduction of constables, lawyers and proctors. One class which is not listed as an occupation, but is included as part of each household is domestic servants and over all of Tobarnaskeagh these totalled 283, both male and female. These were employed mainly by the freeholders, but a considerable number were also employed by larger tenants and some skilled craftsmen, who were presumably quite prosperous.

Fig.4. POPULATION 1749, 1821, 1831 1841.

Parish	1749	1821	1831	1841
Bumblin	1,422	3,210	3,365	5,250
Lissonuffy	1,451	3,568	4,599	4,832
Tarmonbarry	780	3,110	4,048	4,279

The populations of the three parishes in 1749, are compared in the above table with the Census, which is itself very unreliable for 1821 and 1831. We can see that the 1749 Census is probably an underestimation of the total population. For the population listed in 1749, the average household size is 4.2, whole by 1821 it had risen to 5.0 and by 1841 it had reached 5.4 per household. The population was certainly rising rapidly at this time. 32% of the population in 1749 were less than 14 years, while a further 13% were over 14, but still classed as children. Taken together, this would mean that 45% of the population was probably less than 20 years. The marriage age was presumably low here, as it was in the rest of the country[22], and the consequent population pressure was to have serious repercussions for the land-holding system. Holdings were divided between father and sons[23] and much waste land was reclaimed as the pressure of population on resources increased.[24] As large tracts of Tobarnaskeagh are bog and high ground, much land was reclaimed and one can still see old field boundaries today where the land has once again reverted to waste.

Conclusion

The early years of the seventeenth century were characterised by considerable unrest in all parts of Ireland. The population had decreased and the old Gaelic Order was politically reduced. Several plantations had already been attempted but the social and economic organisation of the Gaelic system remained intact in most parts. In those parts where the Gaelic regime still survived, the economy was pastoral, and the whole way of life was little changed over hundreds of years. Tobarnaskeagh was no exception to this, with native Irish still holding most of the land in 1641.

The plantations radically changed the basis of the land-holding system and this change in time transformed the structure of the land-holding system, including enclosure,

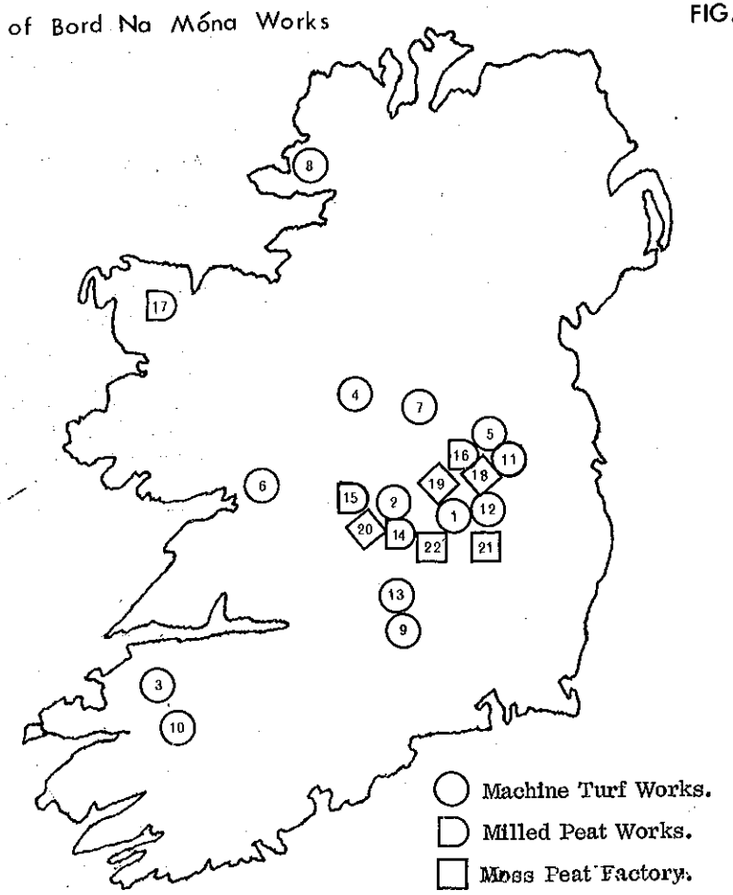
tenancy and the social organisation of rural society. This new system was imposed on the native population from outside. The presence of these new settlers in rural areas introduced a new force to shape the pattern of rural economic and social organisation. The style of life and the commercial nature of their farming practices introduced a new and more complex division of labour into the countryside. Employment was available for the native population with the widespread cultivation of tillage and the cultivation of flax. The vast estates which grew up like the estate of Nicholas Mahon became a stable all-embracing system covering the whole country. They brought stability of land occupation and ownership after the previous century of chaos.

Notes and References:

1. Tobarnaskeagh: the name is coined from an old clustered settlement in the centre of the area. The settlement has since disappeared and very few locals remember the name, but it is mentioned on many 18th century maps.
2. Orme, A.R., Ireland, Longmans, London 1970.
3. The Books of Survey and Distribution mention many townlands in the area that were wooded at that time.
4. Books of Survey and Distribution. Vol.1, Co. Roscommon. Edited by R.C.Simmington, D, Litt. Irish Manuscripts Commission, Dublin 1949. These were originally the records of the Quit Rent Office in Dublin and were in official use for a long period during the 18th century. This text for Roscommon readily discloses the patterns of landholding prior and subsequent to the forfeitures under Cromwell William.
5. Civil Survey, was begun by order of an Act, June 1654.
6. Down Survey, was begun by order of an act, Dec. 1654. Undertaken by the Surveyor General and Sir William Petty.
7. Fitzgerald is the most common Anglo-Irish name mentioned.
8. This map was constructed by writing in the owners from the various townlands from column 1 of the BSD Not all townlands recognisable today are mentioned, but despite this a certain trend emerged.
9. The Transplantation to Connaught, 1654, published by the Irish Manuscripts Commission. Originally came from the Ormonds Manuscripts. In it is found the names of those who got land in Connaught the barony and parish to which they were assigned and the acres granted to each. Information is also given on inhabitants in each parish who were relocated in other parts of the country.
10. McCurtain, Margaret, Tudor and Stuart Ireland, Gill & Macmillan, Dublin 1972.
11. Transplantation to Connaught 1654, op. cit.
12. Beckett, J.C., Short History of Ireland, London 1968
13. Census of Ireland 1659, edited by Seamus Pender. It provides useful information regarding settlement patterns and some information on landowners.
14. Books of Survey and Distribution, op. cit.
15. Census of Ireland 1659, op. cit.
16. Quit Rent Books recorded the money due to the Crown, by landowners. See note 4. BSD.
17. These measurements may be unreliable.
18. Manuscripts relating to the Linen Industry in Co. Ros-
19. Griffith's Valuation. Undertaken in the 1850's by Henry
20. Linen Industry in Roscommon op. cit.
21. Census of Elphin 1749, gives the names and occupations of every household in the diocese on a townland basis. It provides useful comparable data with the later 1821 census at civil parish level.
22. K.H.Connell, Peasant Marriage in Ireland. E.H.R. (1961-1962).
23. Freeman, T.W., Pre-Famine Ireland, London 1957.
24. K.H. Connell, Colonization of Waste Land, in Ireland E.H.R. 1950.

Location of Bord Na Móna Works

FIG.2



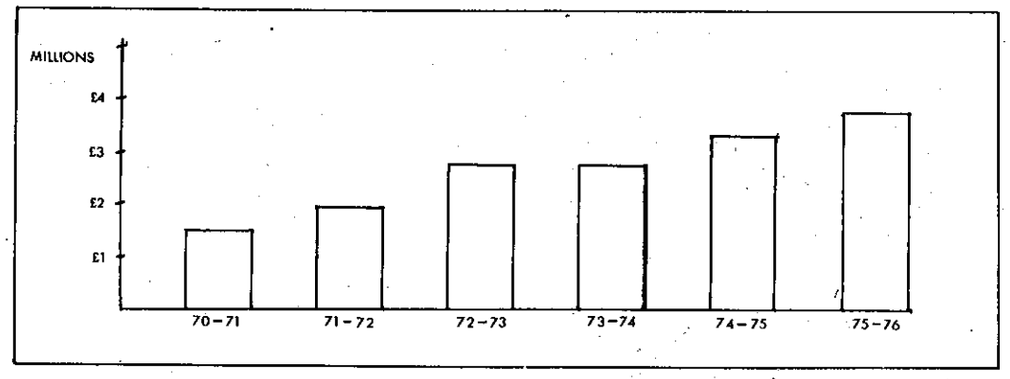
Machine Turf	Milled Peat	Briquettes	Moss Peat
1. Clonsast.	14. Boora.	18. Lullymore (factory).	21. Kilberry.
2. Turraun.	15. Blackwater.	19. Croghan.	22. Coolnamona.
3. Carrickcannon.	16. Derrygreenagh.	20. Derringlough.	
4. Mountdillon.	17. Tionnsca Abhainn Einne.		
5. Ballivor.	18. Lullymore (bog).		
6. Attymon.	4. Mountdillon (Milled Peat section).		
7. Coolnagun.			
8. Glenties.			
9. Littleton.			
10. Bearna.			
11. Timahoe.			
12. Ballydermot.			
13. Templetouhy.			

CATTLE OR CARROTS ?

Anne-Maria Dunphy

General Introduction to Bord na Mona and its operations.

Bord na Mona was established in 1946, by an act of the Oireachtas, to develop the country's peat resource. It provides peat fuel for use in the Electricity Supply Board's power stations, which provide about ¼ of Ireland's electricity requirements. It also produces machine turf and Briquettes for general, industrial and domestic uses and horticultural moss peat which is exported to a dozen countries including, Great Britain, the Middle East, the U.S.A., Canary Islands and Australia. About 80% of the annual out-put of Shamrock Moss peat is sold in export markets. (Fig.1.)



The Board operates on a commercial basis and receives no subsidy or tariff protection. The Board has estabilshed 22 production centres covering 135,000 acres of bog (Fig 2). In conjunction with this impact on the physical environment of the midlands, is the social impact which has been substantial. Whole villages have been built in the midlands (Fig. 3).

Name	County	Works	Houses
Coill Dubh	Kildare	Timahoe	156
Breachnach	Offaly	Clonsast	50
Kilconmac	Offaly	Boora	104
Lanesboro	Longford	Derryaroge	64
Derraghan	Longford	Derraghan	22
Clontuskert	Roscommon	Mountdillon	68
Rochfortbridge	Westmeath	Derrygreenagh	100
Ballivor	Meath	Ballivor	8
			Total 572.

It is one of country's largest employers, having a total of 4,300 on its permanent pay-roll; a further 1,400 are employed as seasonal workers during the peak production season.

In conjunction with its visible assets to the state economy, in terms of an economic fuel, and other products, Bord na Mona contributes substantially to the economy in terms of amounts paid out in salaries and wages (£13,591,000 in 1975/76), thus generating a considerable amount of spending power.

The overall life expectancy of the bog areas at present worked by Bord na Mona is about 30 years. Already a small bog at Lyrecrumpane, Co. Kerry has been cut out and transferred to the Department of Land for afforestation purposes. Gradually other bog areas are becoming available for reclamation,

Cutaway bog is machine sod-peat bog that has been 'bagger' cut to any depth. It is also milled bog in which a normal depth of 1.5 ft. of undisturbed peat remains. Cutaway, therefore is the term used to describe the medium available for future development when fuel production is finished.

In Ireland, peatland has traditionally been considered to have a low value for crop production, although it has been used for the production of vegetable and arable field crops throughout Europe and the U.S.A. for many centuries. In these regions peat is recognised as one of the best soils available for the production of main crop vegetables. Agriculturalists from abroad find it difficult to understand why peatland is not more widely used in Ireland for crop production and it is clear that no other country at the same stage of development and with a suitable climate for crop production has such a large reserve of potentially fertile soil.

Trials on the commercial production of vegetables, arable field crops, soft fruit and nursury stocks have been in progress at the Peatland Research Station at Lullymore, Co. Kildare, since 1967. These trials have shown that deep Peatland, provided that it is well drained and properly managed, is ideally suited for the production of onions, maincrop carrots, celery, autumn cabbage and cauliflower, potatoes, barley, crisp lettuce and a wide range of decorative shrubs and trees (Fig. 4). Promising results have also been obtained with sugar beet, early carrots, blueberries, strawberries and raspberries.

Figure 4

Crop	National Average	Agric. Institute
Onions	12 tons.	20 tons.
Spring Carrots	6-12 tons	8 tons
Main crop carrots	15 tons.	26 tons
Cauliflower	4 tons	7.5 tons.

To obtain the best results with agricultural and horticultural crops on peatland, a minimum depth of 3 ft. of peat is required. Once cultivation begins, peatland subsides

at a rate of 0.5 to 1.0 in a year, and in the interest of conservation all the "fen" peat should be conserved to make investment in machinery an economic proposition and to make long term planning possible.

Raw Peat is fibrous in nature and ploughing must be carried out for a number of years before the fibres rot and the peat clods fall apart to give a fine granual structure. Consequently, maximum yields will not be obtained until the soil has been cultivated for several years.

On the credit side, peatland has many advantages over mineral soil. Due to its friable texture and the absence of stones, peat soil is more easily worked, there is less wear on farm machinery and the harvesting of crops is a less troublesome operation. Peat has a high water holding capacity. Established crops rarely suffer from a moisture deficit and even during prolonged periods of drought crops continue to grow.

In Ireland untouched raised and blanket bogs have been successfully reclaimed for grass production. There has been much experimentation in reclamation and a logical step in the process of reclamation might be an extension of experimental work to the further stage of sowing more extensive areas of peat. This might create a source of new ideas for research on cutaway peat reclamation and serve as a training ground for pioneering developers in a new form of agricultural pursuit. This new agriculture with its concomitant industries may well become a future source of midland vitality.

The holding from 20 to 100 acres can be farmed profitably using intensive high cash crops. Large uninterrupted areas of peatland are common throughout the midlands and these are ideally suited for large-scale crop production. The main limitation in either situation is the availability of suitable market outlets and it is on the development of such outlets that the future use of the peatlands depends.

The absence of a vegetable marketing board prevents the co-ordination of a unified policy on horticultural production. This fact makes it very difficult for small enterprises to forge their way into the export market and it also makes the likihood of competing against each other greater. If Bord na Mona were to embark on large scale vegetable production an accessible market would have to be available, as would such basic information as quantity, quality and type of vegetable required by the importing country at any particular time.

The market is available, the only problem is to make optimum use of this resource. The English vegetable market could easily be exploited by Irish producers if undertaken in a co-ordinated fashion. Britain imports a large quantity of vegetables annually e.g. £20 million is spent on onion imports. These along with other fresh vegetables come mainly from Holland, and other Western European countries. With the pound in its current state of fluctuation, Britain would be most willing to make a deal of this nature, with a country having the same currency. with a few thousand acres of onions for instance, we could farm a monopoly of the "English Onion Market" !
Ireland imports about £5 million worth of fresh vegetables annually, exporting approximately a similiar amount. There is, therefore a sizeable home market awaiting exploitation.

An Foras Taluntais, who have considered the prospects of the Irish vegetable export market in more detail say that Ireland could obtain a market for at least 70,000 acres of horticultural produce.

The main obstacle which prevents Ireland from reaching its full potential as a vegetable producer would seem to be the lack of an overall co-ordinating body. A direct link needs to be established between the producer and the contractor who buys on the export market.

There is also an expanding, though limited, market for shrubs, (also grown very successfully on cutaway peat), especially in Britain and Northern Ireland and to a lesser extent on the Continent. The market does not expand at the same rate on the same scale as agricultural and horticultural markets because of the durable nature of the shrubs, and the limited section of the population which buys the product. One acre of cutaway bog can produce 40,000 shrubs annually and on average these are sold at approximately 70p each.

Grassland or Vegetables?

The basic consideration here is whether "Fen" peat is to be taken out of fuel production when 3 ft. of cutaway remain and produce vegetables or continue the fuel extraction process until only 18 inches remain and convert the remaining cutaway to grassland.

Cattle production has exerted a growing dominance in agriculture despite having lower and more unstable returns than most competing enterprises. It has become traditional for the Irish farmer to produce beef and he rarely considers the alternatives even in areas of the country better suited to another form of agriculture.

An Foras Taluntais have shown that vegetables e.g. onions, can yield £2,000 nett. per acre, the corresponding yield for beet being £50 per acre.
If Bord na Mona converts any sizeable area to vegetable production, it can be returned to fuel production should a situation arise where energy could not be produced as economically from any other source. At the present time electricity generated from peat is only slightly cheaper than electricity generated from oil. It could, therefore, be considered as an investment for the future to use as much peatland as is economically viable for vegetable production.

The following is the role in which Bord na Mona sees itself in the future:
" Under the heading of social obligations, it must first be considered that the bogs were a wasteland with no employment content whatever, until the work of Bord na Mona and its predecessor, the Turf Development Board Ltd., proved their use for the extraction of fuel and moss peat for soil conditioning."
The service of the capital invested in the developmental bogs and their very high employment content makes it essential that the bogs would be exploited to the full in the original purpose. This must result in the bogs being worked out to a cutaway for grass is the best guarantee for ensuring the value of these lands to the nation in the future. Thus, the best utilisation of the cutaway areas would lie in the production of and fattening of livestock, or livestock for dairying, utilising a mixture of summer grazing and sheltered wintering on silage.

Regarding the prospect of Bord na Mona processing the vegetables which it grows, we have to say that the commercial pilot growing operations (at Rochfortbridge) on 60 acres of cutover peat (6'-7') have proved so disappointing that it is unlikely that Bord na Mona would ever utilise cutaway or cutover bog for the growing of vegetable crops.

The Board is at present establishing a number of pilot commercial operations to determine the best utilisation of the cutaway and the techniques of draining etc., to bring the cutaways into their best state. The creation of grassland must fall to Board na Mona for a number of reasons. The ultimate management of these lands must be decided in the future after the viability of the activities has been established taking the good years with the bad, over a period of time." Mr.T. Collins, Secretary, Bord na Mona,(23/9/'76

In terms of employment content the balance seems to be tipped in favour of vegetable production. The rate of employment on grassland is 15 persons, while it requires 18-20 persons to cultivate 100 acres of nursery and vegetable stock.
This would meanthat if Bord na Mona carries out its plans and converts its total cutaway area to grassland, it could offer employment to 1,350 of its 4,300 permanent work force.

There may be some areas that could not be used profitably for either agricultural or horticultural products, but this is counterbalanced by the fact that the number employed on grassland may decrease as the acreage increases. 1,350, therfore, is the maximum that could be employed on cutaway grassland .

It has been mentioned above that it would be economically viable for Ireland to produce 70,000 acres of vegetables. This would give employment to Bord na Mona's total number of permanent employees, plus 8,300 approximately, additional workers. A project of this magnitude would have cumulative effects in other areas. It would create a demand for the machinery that is necessary for reclamation and cultivation of cutaway bog also for the maintenance of this machinery, pesticides, seeds, fertilizers; these together with processing industries could employ a further 3-4 thousand people.

It is very difficult, at the present moment, to see even a substantial rise in oil prices balancing the creation of 15,000 jobs. This would also leave half the area now controlled by Bord na Mona for fuel production and other smaller workable tracts (100-200 acre units) of the remaining 1.3 million acres of Ireland's central Plain.

In conservational terms, the same area that is used for peat production for 20-30 years will support agricultural or horticultural products for 150-300 years.

It is not very difficult to see that Ireland will be faced with a major problem of regional development in the midlands, towards the end of the 20th century when 135,000 acres of cutaway bog will become available for, as Bord na Mona sees it, grassland production.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY GEOGRAPHY IN IRELAND

G.O'Chronicle

Geography as a university discipline was relatively late in coming to these islands, compared with a much older tradition in Germany and France. Although the Royal Geographical Society had been in existence since 1830, the first university geography department in the United Kingdom was not established until 1887, when Oxford played the role of pioneer. This might appear surprisingly late, in view of the extent and age of the British Empire at this time. In any case, Cambridge (1888) and Manchester(1892) quickly followed Oxford's example and university geography spread rather quickly after this. The first honours course in geography was not introduced until 1917 (Liverpool). followed in 1918 by London and Aberystwyth, and in 1919 by Cambridge.

A new university discipline obviously has to look outside its own bounds for its first practitioners. British geography looked both to the natural sciences and history in this respect, and the consequences may be detected in an emphasis in early British university geography on the influence of the natural environment on the development of human culture over time. This tended to produce a focus on rural cultures which was quite out of place in a highly urbanised/industrialised country, and may indicate a strong French influence, especially that of Paul Vidal de la Blache.

One of the most influential geographers in this mould was H.J. Fleure at Aberystwyth, and it was a pupil of Fleure's - E.Estyn Evans - who became the first fulltime university geographer in Ireland when he took up a post at Queen's University Belfast in 1928. Although Belfast itself was a major industrial centre, Ireland generally presented a rich laboratory for a geographer of Evans's training, and it would be fair to say that he had a profound influence on subsequent geographic thought in Irish universities.

Evans was subsequently appointed to the first professorship of geography in Ireland in 1945 at Queen's. The first professorship of the National University was not instituted until 1959 at Cork, although a fulltime lecturer in geography had been appointed there in 1932 in a composite geology/geography department. In Galway, the original Queen's College, established in 1845, had a statutory requirement to provide a course in physical geography in the geology department from the beginning. However, the first fulltime geographer was not appointed until 1962, and a professorship followed in 1970.

In University College, Dublin, the first fulltime post was created in 1950, while a chair followed in 1960. In Trinity College, a diploma course in geography was started in 1931, and T.W. Freeman was the first fulltime geographer in the College from 1936, but a professorship did not materialise until 1966. Magee University College in Derry got its first geographer in 1951. The course here was linked to that at Trinity until the mid-sixties, when the College was incorporated into the New University of Ulster. This is centered on Coleraine, where the doors opened in 1967 with a professorship of geography from the start.

The 1970's have witnessed a further spurt in the development of geography in Ireland. The discipline was introduced to Maynooth in 1971. The elevation of the courses in the teacher-training colleges to degree status has produced a significant extension of the geography departments in these colleges. Geography has also been incorporated into the courses of the National College of Physical Education and the National Institute of Higher Education at Limerick, and the Ulster Polytechnic in Northern Ireland. The result has been a doubling of the number of university-level geographers in the last decade.

The inevitable impact which this rapid expansion will have on the traditional character of Irish geography is not yet clearly visible. What this "traditional character" is may be gauged from the papers which have appeared in Irish Geography, the annual journal of the Geographical Society of Ireland (founded 1934) which first appeared (as the Bulletin of the G.S.I.) in 1944. In its first twenty-five years, a full third of the papers have been devoted to geomorphology alone, while many more have been related directly and indirectly to physical geography generally. This affiliation to natural science, referred to earlier, is further apparent from the fact that in both Trinity College and Queen's University, geography is part of the Natural Sciences Faculty, while in Coleraine geography is part of the School of Biological and Environmental studies. In addition, in both Cork and Galway, the geography departments, although now part of the Arts Faculty in both cases, sprang originally from the geology departments. Although there has been a significant increase in the representation of social-geographic papers in Irish Geography since the late sixties, the physical dominance still persists, if the 1975 issue of the journal is anything to go by.

Another one-fifth of the papers in the journal have been historical in nature, which, as suggested earlier, is hardly surprising. As a result there has been a distinct dearth of work in Irish geography related to contemporary socio-economic issues, a feature which has not created any esteem for the discipline in many important circles. Indirectly, this may in part be due to the proportion of non-nationals working in Irish geography departments, which has always been high, in addition to the on-going legacy of early influences.

However, there has been a notable increase in the number of Irish-born geographers obtaining work in university departments here in recent years. Perhaps more significantly, many of these have received their post graduate training in North American universities, and have, as a result, come under influences different from those obtaining at home. While there is doubtless room for several approaches and several areas of emphasis within the discipline, it may be that there has been an unwarranted lopsidedness in Irish university geography. In this light, recent developments will hopefully lead to a more balanced, and hence healthier, geographic community in this island.

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THE NATURE OF URBAN BLIGHT

Gerry Duffy

The concept of blight has two meanings in modern town planning. These are:

1. Planning Blight
2. Urban Blight.

The first of these, planning blight, is a legal definition used largely in Britain to describe the situation that results from depreciation in the value of land or buildings as a result of planning proposals or planned developments (Hall 1974)[1]. This may occur in two ways. Firstly, it can result from the putting forward of alternative planning proposals for public discussion. In such a situation there is uncertainty about the future of all land affected by these proposals until a final one is accepted. Secondly, if a specific development is carried out so that the value of the property in its vicinity is decreased in anyway, planning blight also occurs.

Both of these, by leading to a depreciation in the value of the property lead to an abnormal rate of decay and thence blight.

Urban blight, on the other hand, is defined as the condition that "designates a critical stage in the functional or social depreciation of real property beyond which its existing condition or use is unacceptable to the community" (Berger 1967)[2]. The key which brings these two definitions together is the notion of depreciation of value, either economically, socially or environmentally to the owner or the occupier of the property or indeed to the community as a whole. The former is relatively easy to understand, as definite causal relationships can be established with decisions of the planning authority. Urban blight, however, is the result of a complex process of decay that characterises the growth and maturing of towns and cities.

There is some confusion surrounding the concept of urban blight which arises largely as a result of the variety of terms used to describe the same phenomenon. Urban blight tends to be used synonomously with obsolesence, decay, delapidation, dereliction, malaise and innumerable other notations. In Britain, obsolescence is the more favoured terminology and blight is used primarily in the context of planning blight. The Americans, however, accept the more broad definition of urban blight outlined above. There does, however, appear to be evidence to suggest that the interchangeable use of blight and obsolescence can be more appropriately used when referring to the condition of individual buildings whereas urban blight can best be employed to describe the composite or overall effects of a specific rate of obsolescence. In other words blight is the spatial effect of the rate of obsolescence in an area. The following example may help to clarify. Obsolescence may be present in a number of buildings in any area, but if their quantity is such that the overall effects on the quality of the area is negligible, blight cannot be said to occur. Thence obsolescence must be present at a significant rate before urban blight can be identified.

There are various types of obsolescence which either singularly but more often in combination, give rise to urban blight. Four broad categories of obsolescence have been identified and these are as follows:-

1. Structural Obsolescence
2. Functional Obsolescence
3. Environmental Obsolescence
4. Frictional Obsolescence.

Structural obsolescence refers to the physical condition of a building and includes factors such as age, durability, facilities etc. Functional obsolescence is determined by the suitability of the building for the function that occupies it - the less suitable it is the greater the functional obsolescence. Environmental obsolescence is present when the quality of the environment is lowered by features such as excessive noise, smell, congestion or lack of public facilities. Frictional obsolescence arises as the result of the unfavourable location of a building for the function that it serves and is due to conflict between incompatible uses.

The various other types of obsolescence that often appear in the literature can usually be included under one or other of the above categories. For example, obsolescence that is directly a result of traffic can easily be classified as environmental obsolescence, site obsolescence is similar to functional obsolescence and locational obsolescence is another way of saying frictional obsolescence. When one or more of the above categories of obsolescence is present in large enough quantities to be regarded as unsightly or unacceptable a condition of blight is said to exist.

It has become evident that there is an important subjective element in an identification of urban blight. The idea of "non-acceptance" is therefore extremely important to the concept, as it serves as a common factor to bind together the various types of obsolescence under the one umbrella of urban blight (Berger 1967)[3]. Non acceptance can be defined as that which reflects the views of society towards an unedsirable feature. In this case is the presence of obsolescence the undesirable phenomenon and comes about through the process of functional and social depreciation.

The concepts of functional and social depreciation have already been mentioned above in our definition of urban blight (Berger 1967)[4]. Functional depreciation is the result of a decline in a building's capacity to provide a service or alternatively, the demand for the service decreases. Therefore, the value or the 'usefulness' of that building to the function that occupies it will be lowered. Social depreciation, also described by Berger (1967) as loss of prestige, is due to either the continuing ascent of social values or the lowering of the service quality of the building or indeed to both. In other words, as social values increase expectations increase so that the building is no longer able to satisfy the demands made upon it. Functional depreciation leads to a situation where the financial returns from the property are so low that undermaintenance exists. As the functional depreciation increases still further, the actual value of the building drops sharply so that new maintenance eventually replaces undermaintence, and the end result is decay and structural obsolescence throughout the building. On the other hand social depreciation leads to the now acceptance of a particular use on a particular building, which in turn leads a decline in the actual value so that obsolescence again sets in. In the case of the latter, structural, environmental, functional and frictional obsolescence can all be present at the same time.

Where is one most likely to find urban blight? It is quite apparent that any of the four categories of obsolescence can be found throughout the entire city, but it is now widely acknowledged that the older inner city zone has by far the greatest amount of urban blight. Age of the building is obviously one factor involved here but it is by no means the only or indeed the most important. The lack of facilities such as bathrooms, indoor toilets, hot and cold water, plus age of the building, all contribute to structural obsolescence. But the key factor is undermaintenance or indeed no maintenance. While these latter elements are not a result of age, they nevertheless tend to be found in abundance within the older inner city. Functional obsolescence is usually confined to the inner city as well. This is because the structure of the buildings cannot accomodate the changing demands that are placed on it. The occurance of environmental obsolescence is closely related to both structural and functional obsolescence but the mobility of the older inner city street and road network to cater for high traffic flows is also an important factor. Again a high degree of frictional obsolescence is to be found in the inner city because of the lack of development control when these areas were being constructed in the first place. However, there is another important factor that gives rise to frictional obsolescence in the inner city, and this is the conflict between different functions for locations close to the CBD of the city. Therefore the CBD of the city expands into the surrounding zone, outbidding the existing uses for locations and forcing the latter out. In an expanding city, as practically all of our modern cities are, it is possible to identify lines of conflict between different use categories within the inner city and more especially on the periphery of the CBD.

It is clear that there is a considerable degree of overlap in the spatial occurance of the different categories of obsolescence and by in large, all four are more commonly found within the inner city. The inner city is also widely known as the transition zone (Burgess 1973)[5]. Apart from the widespread characteristics of urban blight throughout this zone, it is likely that the buildings were built sometime during the nineteenth century and are largely occupied by people with a low socio-economic status and small and declining industry. Therefore one could expect to find the following features in a typical area of urban blight: buildings that are defective because of dampness, bulging brickwork, sagging roofs, inadequate drainage or water supply, commercial activity that is restricted to cornershops and pubs, industrial buildings that are old and delapidated and unsuitable for the functions occupying them. The population tends to be old and it consists of the poorer and weaker classes plus the down-and-outs. The overall impression is of an environment that is repugnant to most people's social and environmental expectations.

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THE CONTINUITY OF QUAKER TRADE LINKS 1791-1813

Syl Roche

This essay is concerned with the spatial extent of the trade of two Quaker firms between 1791-2 and 1813 and tries to show their continuity of linkages.

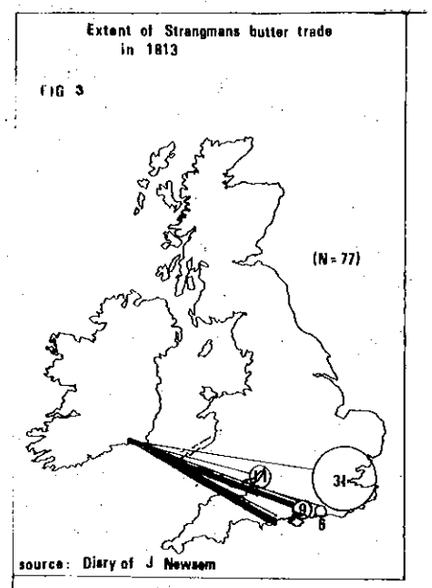
Quakerism in Ireland was an urban phenomenon (Fig.1) and this is emphasised by the intinerant preacher, Edward Burrough who states, "for our service lies only in great towns and cities[1]." The Quakers were a minority mercantile religious group with a "believers' church" that is, it ignored a formal hierarchy in church government. They were colonial, prudential and had an in-group mentality. Their radical elimination of 'magic' from the world allowed no other course than the practice of worldly ascetism[2]. The inwardness and simplicity of the Quaker 'culture' was manifested in their egalitarian mode of speech - 'thee', 'thou' or 'friend' and by the plain quaker garb which gradually became to them a "symbol of seperation from the world"[3]. Their relatively few numbers, less than 1% of the population, their ethnocentricity and their relative social isolation makes the Society of Friends a phenomenon in the social geography of eighteenth century Ireland.

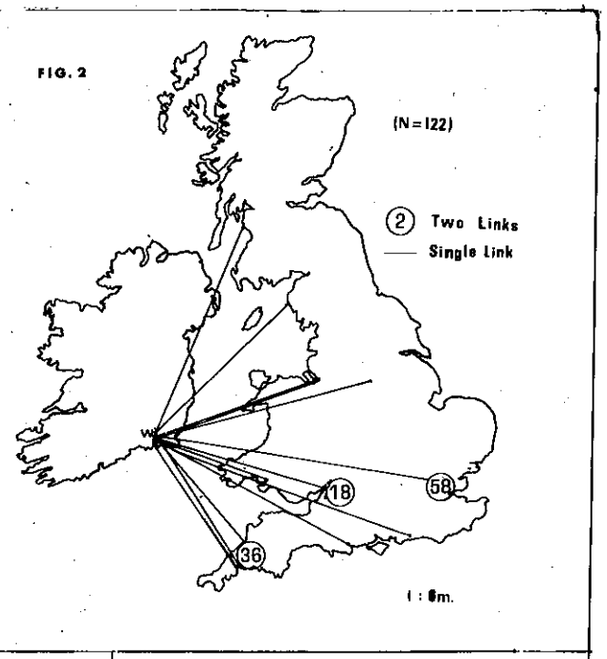
The influence of Quaker firms upon local economics was significant. Here it is proposed to examine the geographic impress of the firm of "Courtenay and Ridgway" upon the hinterland of Waterford and to speculate whether the South Eastern Quakers were a subsection of the South Western England non-conformist cultural realm (Fig.2).

The provisions trade started the 18th century under the mercantilist restrictions of the Cattle Acts. The wars of the early and mid-eighteenth century caused a dialectic of embargoes and relaxations detrimental to trading stability. The rise of economic nationalism led to the repeal of these restrictions with far reaching effects, in the general periphery of the provisions trade.

The Quaker firm of "Courtenay and Ridgway", based in Waterford, shared in this prosperity. The volume and extent of the firm's trade was large by contemporary standards. About 33% of the butter shipped from the port of Waterford passed through their hands and one-twelfth of the Irish total butter export in 1791-2. Due to the decline in the Newfoundland trade, it is not surprising that 63% of the firm's butter trade was to England. It seems that there is a degree of correlation between the firm's contact field (Fig 3) and the destination of exports.

51% of the firm's butter for the English market went to London and the firm had 48% of it's contacts there. While 38% of their exports went to South and South-West England, the firm had 32% of its contacts there. Bristol accounted for 8% of the exports and 15% of the contacts. It is not surprising that 47% of the firm's contacts were with Bristol and the South-Western ports. Bristol was a traditional importer from Waterford and also acted as a focus for the Quakers of the 'West Country'. The ports of Poole, Exeter and Plymouth redistributed Waterford's provisions to Newfoundland and also had





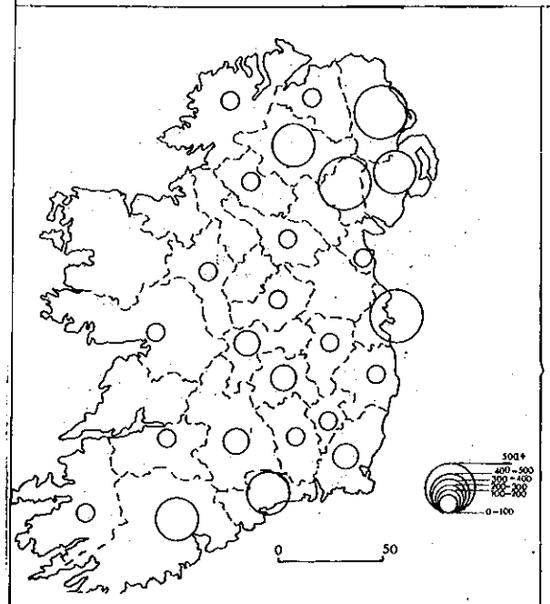
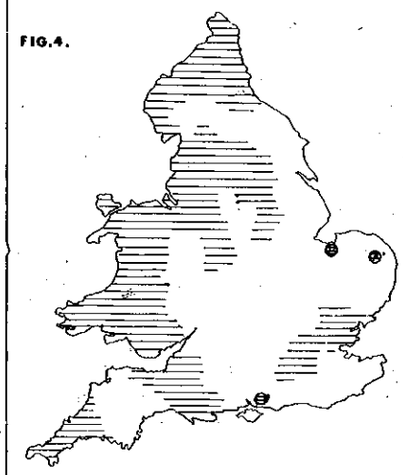


FIG 1 : SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION OF QUAKERS : 1871



mercantile bankers resident there.

The situation of Waterford was not unlike that of Cork or Youghal. Ships returning from the Newfoundland fisheries would call into Waterford, victual themselves and return to the South West ports of Poole and Exeter. In a sense, Waterford and the southern Irish ports acted as entrepots between Newfoundland and Southwest England.

The demand in England appears to have been largely for internal consumption; 20% of the butter exported to Bristol was redistributed inland to Bath and Devizes; merchants in Gosport, Salisbury, Andover and Farnham imported butter from Waterford via Portsmouth. 44% of the butter imported through Chichester was for the account of merchants at Arundel. Therefore, if one considers the inland redistribution of butter, the Quaker firm, by use of agents, presumably co-religionists, had a greater contact network than imagined.[4]

Having dealt with the overseas trade in butter of 'Courtenay and Ridgway", it is now proposed to deal with the internal supply pattern. Their purchases tended the river valleys, extending into Leighlinbridge on the Barrow, Tipperary Town on the Suir and Kilkenny on the Nore. The buying hinterland of the Quaker frim was due mainly to their distribution of agents usually linked by marriage, e.g. the Haughtons of Carlow.

The purchases from some of the large merchants were very considerable. In 1791-2, 47% of the total amount of butter purchased, i.e. 8406 casks, were from large merchants such as the Grubbs of Clonmel, the Haughtons of Carlow, the Sparrows of Wexford, Robert Rane of Tipperary and Lawrence Smith of Carrick-on-Suir. This fact lends credence to the hypothesis that the Quakers, even in trade, were ethnocentric, since the above mentioned traders were all members of the Society of Friends.[5]

It seems that there was strong continuity in the contact field of the Quaker butter factors. The Strongmen family dealt with the same areas as "Courtenay and Ridgway". This is probably due to the fact that both families were interrelated and a system of competitive co-operation in trade probably existed. Whereas in 1791, "Courtenay and Ridgway" had 48% of their contacts in London, in 1813, the Strongmen's had 40% of their contact there. Similarly the figures for Bristol show continuity, being 15% and 14% respectively, and there seems to have been an artificial rise in the number of contacts in South and South-West England, perhaps because of the Napoleonic Wars, from 32% in 1791 to 46% in 1813 (Fig. 4). The reason for the relative stability of contact between Waterford and London might be the Quaker yearly meeting at London. Whereas the stability of Bristol is perhaps due to the fact that it was en route to the Quaker school at Bath which many Southeastern Irish Quakers attended. The majority of the Strongmans contacts were Quakers, e.g. the Neave family of Poole, and Saunders Bros. of Bristol.[6] Butter exports fell with the close of the Napoleonic Wars from an average export of 121,000 in 1788/90 to 16,388 hundredweight in 1842-4.[7] Despite the slump, the Quaker firms of Courtenay and Son, Ridgway and Son and Hohn Pim Penrose still traded in Waterford in 1820.

This is merely one example of the continuity of trade linkages between co-religionists. With regard to the Quaker trade linkages in general, their mercantilist ethic and their tendency to trade with Quakers only, is apparent in all facets of the provisions trade in the 18th century as well as the yarn trade and corn trade.

Proceed to page 77 for references
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THE NEW "TERRA INCOGNITA"

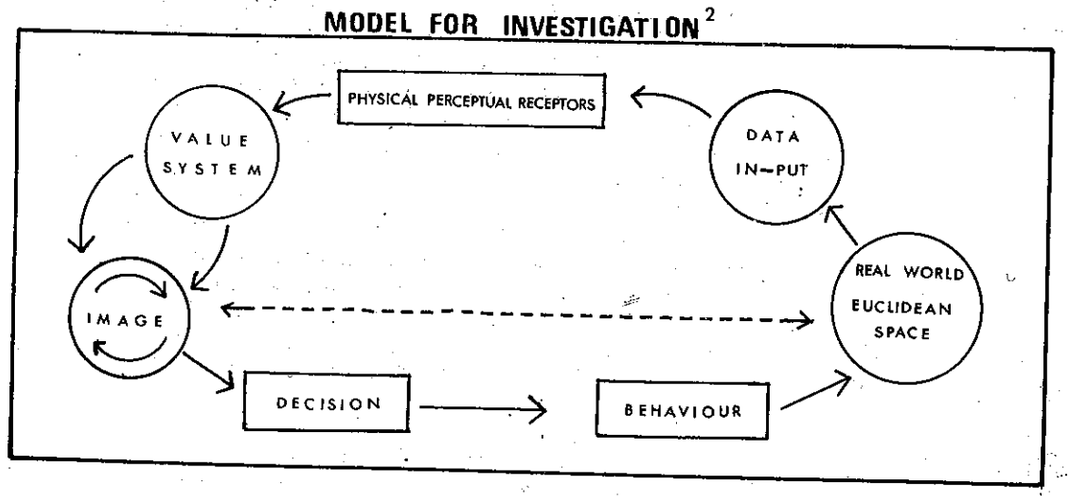
Michael Mc Entee

As early as 1818, William Blake could say:

" This life's dim windows of the soul
Distants the Heavens from Pole to Pole,
And leads you to believe a lie
When you see with, not thru' the eye." [1]

This basic conceptual fact has been restated at periodic intervals all through the last and the present centuries. The "Behavioural Explosion" of the last decade has been efforts at "operationalising" the approach. All texts are overloaded with conceptual statements and verbal technology. Myra Schiff has summarised the overall position well: "Although a great deal of research has been generated, the focus in general has been upon the developments of theory, at the expense of practice."
The real issue is not more theory but the problem of incorporating what theory we have into our whole advancing empirical methodology. Let us examine in this essay how the "Conquistadors" are faring in the "Terra Incognita ". To do this successfully, a broad conceptual scenario is essential. It is a standard against which we can order and review the field (Fig.1).

MODEL FOR INVESTIGATION [2]



Man has to be viewed as a complex information processing system. Subjective Geography must be able to invetigate at four levels in its operationalising efforts.

(a) How the image is formed, what value systems, personal factors etc., cloud or distort the image. How does the image change with time and place?

(b) How the image is internally structured, what elements comprise it and how do they interact?

(c) How are decisions arrived at in the light of the image?

(d) How does the image compare with the real world?

This approach is rather arbitrary, but is useful in an attempt to order and locate past and present research attempts, identify weak spots and targets for new research. It is useful as well in any attempt to trace areas of interdisciplinary work.

(a) The Formation of the Image.

Geography is largely at the mercy of psychology in this area. W.Bevan[3] a psychologist has identified two types of approach which have been adapted. The first view sees image formation as a "simple mediating process", a mechanistic 'coin-in-the-slot' model familiar to geographers as Environmental Determinism.

Bevan suggests that this view has been replaced by that of a "complex interactive process" opinion. Perception is seen as a function of four sets of variables, stimulus input, reception, and two "non situational" factors, motivation and fast stimulation. A more recent view is that of Fergus who argues for an information-cybernetic approach. Geographers have more readily accepted this than the rather complex Bevan model. In Urban Geography Meier studied Urban growth via a cybernetic model.

However, Geographers seem largely to have ignored the actual perception transmission problem and have argued backwards from the image to the real world instead of the other way about. This has some exceptions of course, but they are doubtful cases. Appleyard's study of "Ciudad Guayana"[4], a Venezuelan 'new town' was an attempt at the problem. He was able to identify the attributes of the new city which were becoming part of the mental images of the new dwellers. Sonnenfelds Arctic study[5] is perhaps the best effort at an investigation of Image formation. He took different groups of people, U.S. service men and natives, and gave them the same tests. Lucas studied perception of the boundaries of the wilderness by recreation. Perhaps the complexity of the field is caught by a sentence of David Lowenthals:

" Perception varies with person and place, but is always present: the environment is never seen or responded to simply as an amorphous undifferentiated phenomenon."[6]

I stated above that Geographers were tackling the problem backwards. A better approach is being taken by Nakemorw at the University of New York. She created a "Novel Environment" and then studied people's reactions. She saw this as an attempt to:

" ...go the right way in the right sequence..."

Geography is weak in this field of image formation. While properly the field of the psychologist, geographers who ignore the basis of all perception work at their peril.

(b) The Internal Structure of the Image.

This, the second stage of the model is well developed. Every second periodical has its quota of mental maps. Downs identifies this as the "Image-structuralist" approach. It was pioneered by Lynch's "The Image of the City"[7] in 1960 and followed up by his

disciples, Appleyard, Heinemeyer, Lee, Lucas and many others. It has been proved by far the most popular approach, though one feels that at best it is mere description. Perhaps it has its parallel in traditional geography with the Regional Concept.

Interesting work has been done, dealing with how the elements interact. Lee and others have studied instances and whether or not the image was a fixed or a fluid combination of elements depending on time and place. He has suggested, not that the image is fluid, but that a hierarchy of images exists depending on the behavioural use required. Most of the recent research contained in the new journal of this field entitled "Environment and Behaviour" has been concerned with this inter-elemental approach . The 1970 issues were all special issues dedicated to this structural approach. They were subtitled "Cognitive Representations of Man's Spatial Environment".[9] David Stea and Roger Downs have produced a new text entitled "Image and Environment". There is so much literature available in this field, but it is repetitive because it is simple. Unfortunatly real research into decision making has been neglected. Let us now examine efforts in this field.

(c) Decision-Making, and the Image

Roger Downs identifies two methodological avenues:

The Evaluative Approach.
The Preference Approach.

The Evaluative Approach seeks to assign values and weightings to the structural elements. The real focus is on the utility of various environmental states and how people would react to them. Different Environmental conditions are postulated, a farmer is shown a drought scene and asked for his views on it. One feels that here we are coming closer to the real subject matter of the approach which after all has its aim the understanding of "The Man-Environment Relationship". The principal work has been contributed by the "Chicago School" including White, Burton and Kates, and Saarinen.[9]

They have made use of good psychological concepts and methods and largely avoided the "ad hoc" methodology of the 'Image-Structuralists". Saarinen's study made use of open-ended technique and throughout, kept as his guideline the relationships between Image and Bahaviour.

The Preference Approach has been based on a methodology where people are asked to assess on a scale of preference, a number of possible locations e.g. U.C.D,, N.U.U., Q.U.B. Then these are factor analysed, and a map is drawn to reflect these preferences. Gould and White have produced mental maps while Wolpent has produced a model of preferences to explain migration.

This methodology is basically orientated to giving an understanding of spatial movement If we may take the journal "Environment and Behaviour" as a 'pulse' of recent research this area is not receiving much study in the U.S.A. Allan Pred in Sweden and Roger Downs in England seem to be the chief pioneers

(d) The Real World and the Image.

The comparison between the real world and the image seems to have taken the form of Environmental Associations as conceptualised by Lowenthal and Tuan. In "Progress in Geography," Volume 6, Yi-Fu-Tuan[10] makes elaborate discussion of the concepts of absolute and relative humanistic space while Lowenthal studied the assessments of various cities by various groups of people.

The major conclusion to be drawn from this over-view of recent work is that, as a field of research, it is still in its infancy. Olssan (1967) argues that:-

" The vigorous group engaged in this sort of research must now prove the practical usefulness of their seemingly good ideas by translating them from often cumbersome English into simplified, but operational and testable models."

If his advise were taken we would have less of the confusion now evident in the field. A more rigid co-operation and cross fertilisation is necessary to reduce some of the "ad hoc" methodology currently employed. Yet some Geographers seem to encourage this. " For the time being, it is more important, even at the expense of some error, to maintain and encourage a free flow of methods, concepts and reassuring techniques." Saarinen.
However, after glancing through the field one feels that there is a lot of smoke but little actual fire.

Basic issues are being avoided. To again take "Environment and Behaviour" as a pulse of the field, let us see where the main volume of the research 'issues' are (Fig. 2).

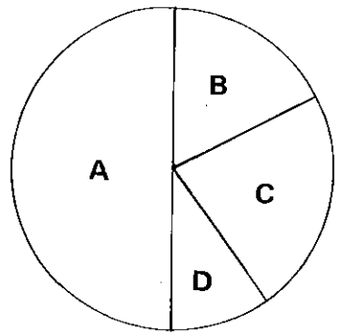
Fig. 2. Research Trends in "Behavioural Geography"[11]

A. Descriptions of Hypothesized Images.

B. Basic Perceptions and Formation of the Images.

C. Others.

D. Behavioural Impact of images.



Based on review of "Environment and Planning", Vol. 1-7.

It is very much open to question how valid one journal may be, but in this field characterised so much by "ad hoc" methodology and diverse effort, it must be taken as a rough estimate.

As said above the basic issues of Image Formation and Image to Behaviour are being avoided in favour of descriptive studies which, since they lack on basic theory, will always remain unique and antithetical to generalisation. Research must be directed towards correcting the imbalance. As Bevan rightly pointed out, you need:-

" A clear identification and definition of the functions that influence perception before you can attempt any understanding or prediction of perception and overt behavioural response."[12]

This may be a demand for powers of telepathy on the part of geographers, but that is the very essence of the behavioural approach, if not the entire spectrum of the Social Sciences.

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DUNSHAUGHLIN CATHOLIC PARISH: A COMMUNITY ?

Maria Shannon

Abstract. The aim of this essay is to analyse the empirical findings of a 25% random sample questionnaire, carried out in a Catholic parish in Co. Meath. August-September 1976.

Introduction:

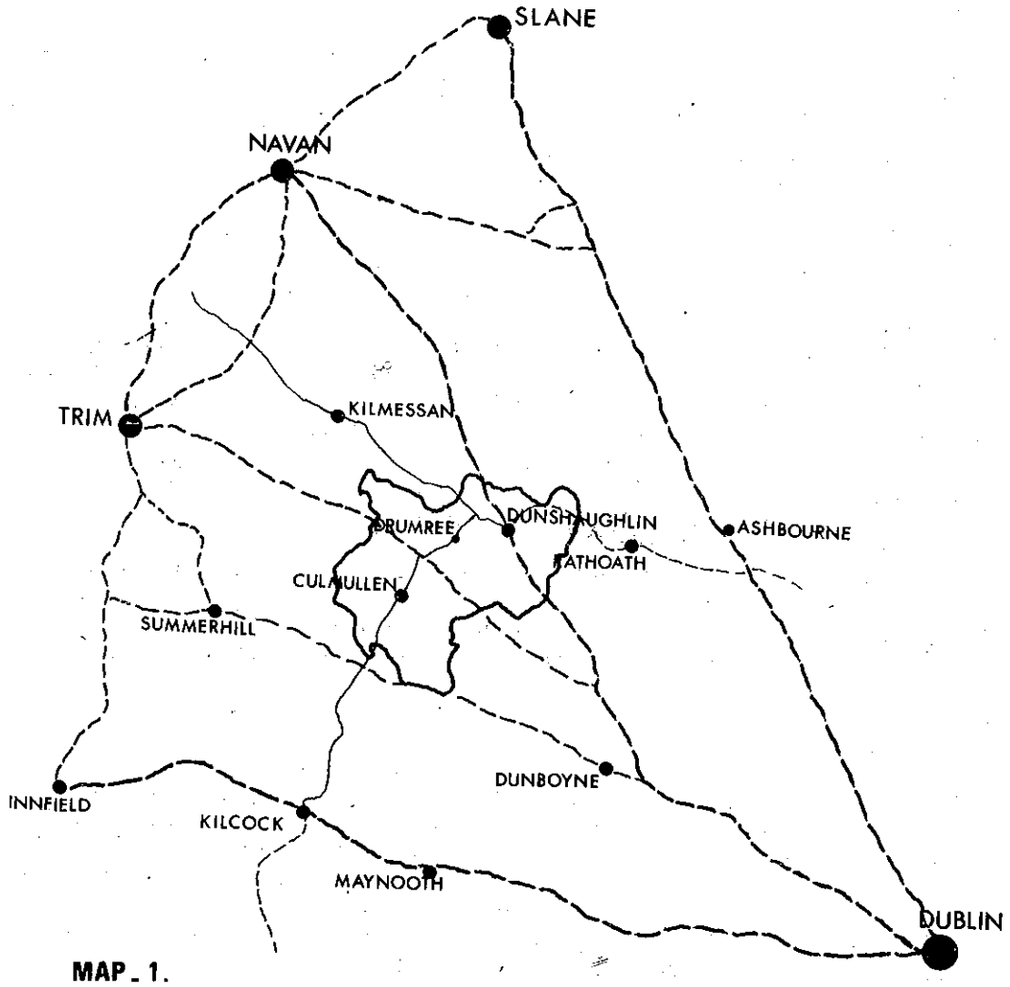
In recent years community studies have emerged as a field of growing significance in geographical research, and with the writings of Brody and Arensberg and Kimball the Irish social geographer has become particularly interested in the future of community life in rural Ireland. The empirical studies of our social landscape are diverse. Some dealing with the stagnation or decline of the 'traditional' Irish society which had strong kinship and neighbourhood networks, others concentrating on the capability of a particular area to captivate the more viable elements of our rapidly expanding cities and provincial towns, thus weaving into their social and economic structures the essential innovations of future growth.

However, predominance in such studies has been given to rural communities in the west and south of Ireland, while communities on the east coast, undergoing the varying influences of urbanisation from our capital, have received relatively limited attention. Into this latter area fits the Dunshaughlin Catholic parish, (Domhnach Sechnaill).

Study Area:

Dunshaughlin Catholic parish, situated in the rich undulating plains of Co. Meath, consists of 440 households of which 42 lie within the confines of Dunshaughlin town. The town is situated on the main Dublin-Navan road (Map 1.) and has the following services: two churches, (the Catholic parish church and the Church of Ireland), two schools (primary and vocational, a new community school is being built which will cater for 500 students), a bank, police barracks, fire station, post office, dispensary, a solicitor's and auctioneer's office, a branch of the county committee of agriculture, a hair-stylist, cafe, turf-accountant, butcher, four grocery stores, three hardware stores, one furniture store and three draperies, as well as two chemists, two garages, six public houses and a newsagent.

The immediate environs of the village contain a new residential area of 24 bungalows (mainly families, whose 'bread winner' commutes to Dublin every day) and a relatively recently built council estate of 16 houses. Situated four miles from the town, in the townland of Culmullin (see map) is the Catholic chapel-of-ease, with a national school which caters for 127 children of the neighbouring townlands.



MAP 1.

Lying mid-way between the two Catholic churches is the townland of Drumree, consisting of a disused railway station, a butcher's shop and a public house; the bridge at Drumree is thought by many of the local inhabitants to represent the social divide between the 'urbanites' of Dunshaughlin and the 'ruralites' of Culmullin.

The population of the Catholic parish increased by 2.5% in the inter-censal period, 1961-1966, but by 1971 it had increased by another 16.9% and Dunshaughlin, in that year, was the twelfth largest town in Co. Meath.[1] Though not dealing with parochial boundaries, it is alarming to note that the Co. Meath Development Plan, reviewed four years ago, envisages the population of the Dunshaughlin district rising by 58% to 19,000 in 1981;[2] inherent in the plan is the massive influx of migrants who will commute daily to their workplaces in Dublin, Navan and other centres.

The spatial entity of the Dunshaughlin Catholic parish hides many dualisms, but as space does not allow specification and elaboration of all of these, emphasis shall be given to the 'bridge of Drumree', that is, the social and economic behaviour of the heterogenous peoples on either side of that abstract divide. This is a study of the spatial behavioural patterns, more than a study of behaviour along social lines, taking the parish as one community.

The Bridge of Drumree:

Dividing the spatial entity of the parish into the hinterlands of the two Catholic churches emerged as a result of the observed attitudes of the sampled population. Firstly, shopping patterns (Table 1) the divide in the behavioural patterns of the two sections of the area is obvious and thus is one dualism which exists in the community.

Table 1. Shopping Patterns. Dunshaughlin Parish 1976.

	Locally	Dunshaughlin	Trim/Navan	Dublin	Others
Dunshaughlin	3.7	64.8	7.4	20.4	3.7
Culmullin	17.9	25.0	21.4	10.7	25.0

Thus, as can be seen at a glance, even for these lower-order commodities, Dunshaughlin is of limited significance for the people of Culmullin, and the majority of their purchases are made in Trim, Navan or Maynooth. If this tabel is viewed in conjunction with Map 1, it will be seen how much the road networks influence the directional behaviour of the parochial inhabitants.

Taking hardware as the next order of goods the same pattern emerges, although Dunshaughlin town increases in relative significance in both sectors, due to the presence of a large hardware store in the town, but not to such an extent as to overshadow the comparable divisions as in Table 1.

Table 2. Hardware Purchases. Dunshaughlin.

	Dunshaughlin	Trim/Navan	Dublin	Others
Dunshaughlin	68.6	11.8	13.7	5.9
Culmullin	28.0	36.0	16.0	20.0

The conflicting behavioural shopping patterns of the two sectors are most discernable when frequency of purchasing trips to the four centres, Trim, Navan, Maynooth and Dunshaughlin are cross-tabulated with Dunshaughlin/Culmullin- the importance of the road networks which form two thorough-ways through both ends, is more significant in relation to the following tables also:

Trim

	Weekly	Occasionally/Seldom	Never
Dunshaughlin	0.0	38.9	61.1
Culmullin	25.0	55.4	19.6

Navan

	Weekly	Occasionally/Seldom	Never
Dunshaughlin	22.2	68.5	9.3
Culmullin	14.3	51.8	33.9

Maynooth

	Weekly	Occasionally/Seldom	Never
Dunshaughlin	1.9	7.4	90.8
Culmullin	7.1	19.6	73.2

Dunshaughlin

	Daily	Weekly	Occasionally/Seldom	Never
Dunshaughlin	72.2	16.7	9.3	1.9
Culmullin	12.5	48.2	21.4	17.9

In order to demonstrate thatthis dualism of behaviour is not just endemic to shopping patterns, but exists and perpetuates itself in the social make-up of the parish a minimum number of social variables will be used;

Two divergent variables - Firstly, visiting of a holy well, (one situated in the town land of Warrenstown, on the borders of the Dunshaughlin/Culmullin divide), a dying trait of the traditional Irish society and secondly, public house patronage, a trait which has gained in significance and is an important part of our modern world. Table 4 shows that even in such informal social activities as indicated, the diverse social patterns of two distinct groups exist within the same parochial boundary.

Holy Well

	Yes	No
Dunshaughlin	13.0	87.0
Culmullin	37.3	62.7

Location of Pubs. Frequented

	Local	Dunshaughlin	Other	Never
Dunshaughlin	5.6	42.6	9.3	42.6
Culmullin	35.7	8.9	3.6	51.8

Frequency of visits to Pubs.

	Frequently	Weekly	Occasionally
Dunshaughlin	40.0	40.0	20.0
Culmullin	29.6	59.6	11.1

Conclusion:

The study of Dunshaughlin Catholic parish as a community reveals many dualisms in its social and economic organisations and as such the spatial entity of the parish may not be viewed as one viable unit, but as an area in which viable communities, or social entities exist. Perhaps, the last word should be left with the Dunshaughlin Community Council, who didn't perceive their parish as a 'community' and based their area on concentric circles from the town of the parish (Map 2).

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Note

A NOTE ON RURAL SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

James A. Murphy

This short article is intended to bring to notice one particular aspect of research on kinship and activity patterns in rural areas. The hypothesis concerns itself with the growth of a distinct rural culture as shown by these activity patterns, especially when the rural area is 'threatened' by urbanization . This article merely comments on that hypothesis and does not test it. For place references consult adjoining map.

In 1965 Martin, investigating the idea of communities based on small town nuclei in Devonshire, remarked: "What has to be emphasised in describing this area is that one sees the rural population as a simple whole." In Berkshire, in the village of Mortimer in 1964, Crichton found that in this commuter village 62.5% of residents had a journey to work of less than six miles. In the same year Pahl found that in Hertfordshire (see map), again in the metropolitan fringe of London, 55% of workers from Watton worked in the parish or adjacent parish, while a further 20% worked in the local towns of Hertford and Stevenage. Tewin had 28.5% working in London, but he attributed this to the percentage of managerial and professional workers living in a new housing estate in Tewin, called "Tewin Wood". On the other hand, in the out-of-town direction from Watton, Pahl found that Hexton was "peculiarly unchanged and isolated, although so close to Luton with its employment opportunities." This, he attributes to the ability of the local squire to provide alternative employment and so curb "the forces" emanating from Luton. In general the Pahl model is one of increasing urbanization with decreasing distance from the urban centre (London in this case). He does not allow for the possibility of a distinct rural culture. Perhaps, the people of Hexton preferred working in rural areas even though the choice presented itself? This we can only hypothesise.

Still in Southern England, MacGregor produced very significant work in this light for northern Somerset as recently as 1972. He states that as the village becomes less self-sufficient there is an increase in the social life of the rural community, but it remains specifically rural. He produces evidence of a dynamic rural model growing independently of urbanisation. He mainly dwells on participation in rural-based organisations as well as town-based rural-interest organisations, along with informal social behaviour. For example, he found that casual social life outside one's own village was mainly in neighbouring villages. It should be interesting to carry out the same work nearer to London. Perhaps the result would be along the same lines, though less striking. Consider the Irish situation for yourself.

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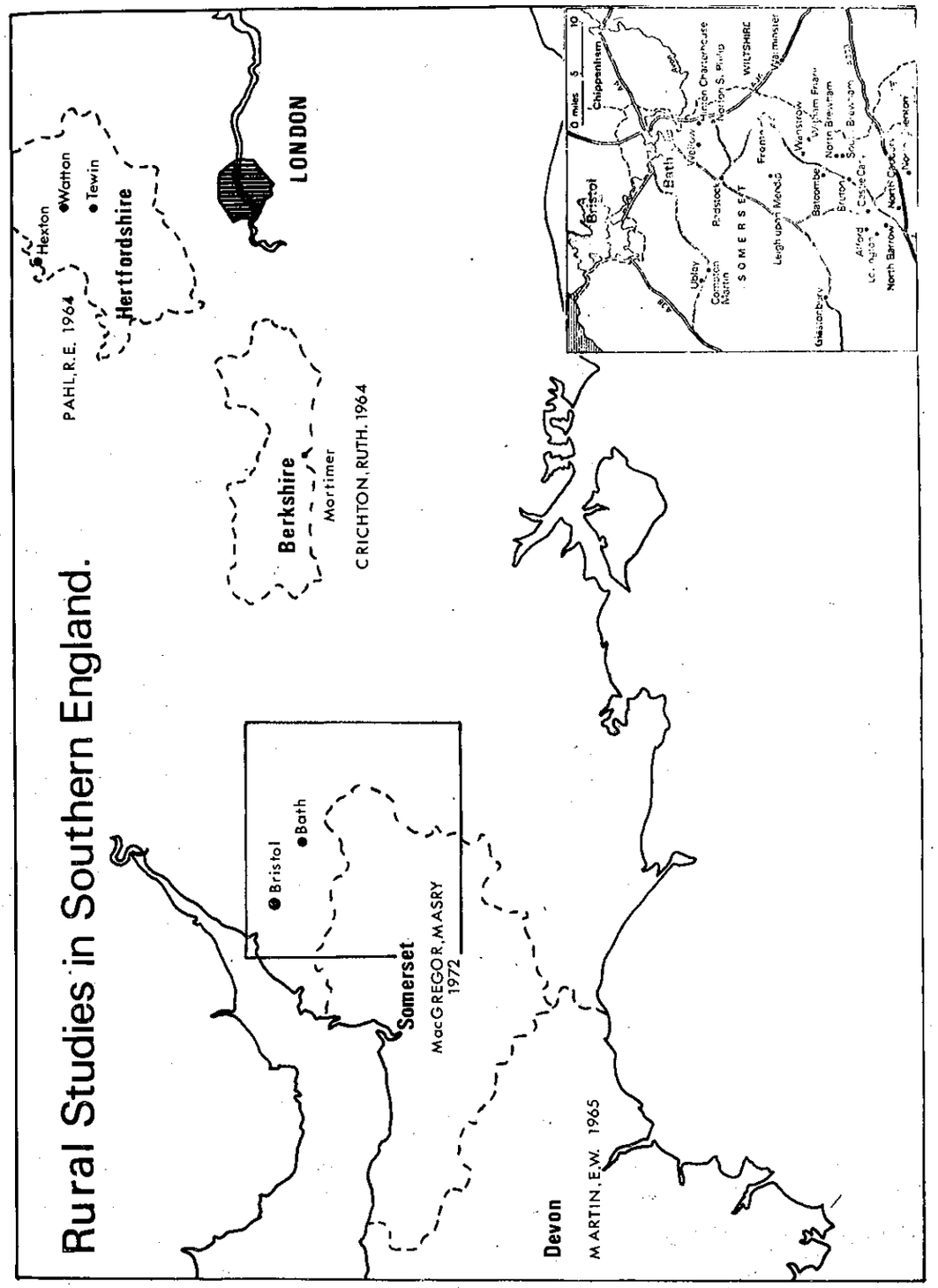
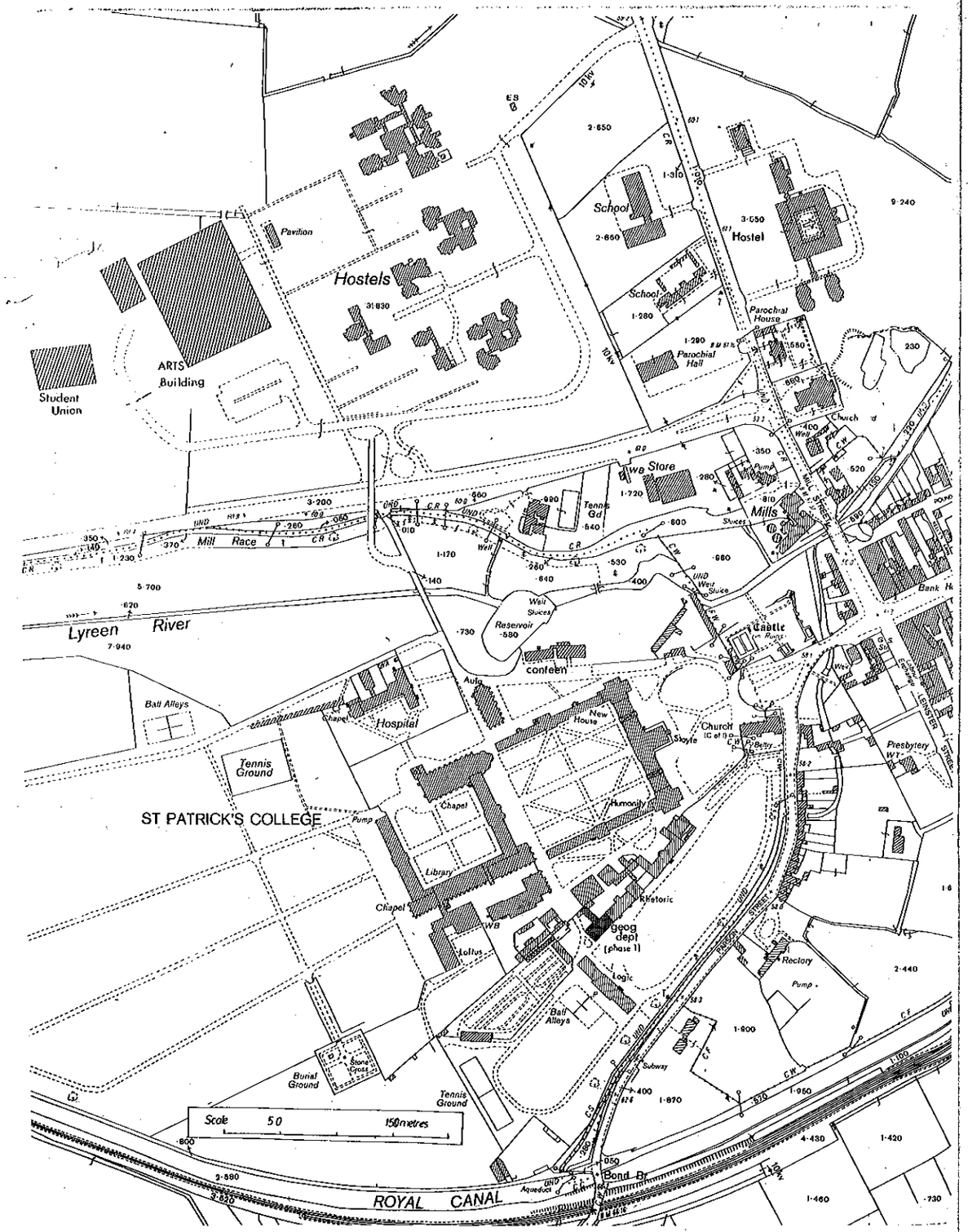




MYNOOTH, YOURNOOTH, WHOSENOOTH ?

L.O'Queues

Abstract

Geography is a device used to bring man down to earth, reducing him from the sublime to the spatial. It seeks order in disordered landscapes, assuming man to be a rational spatial being. Geography often makes mountains out of molehills. It looks for patterns where no one else would. Some say it is a science; others a refuge for reprobates. All of this has, perhaps, slight relevance to the following paper.

With the impending completion of the new Academic building and the student's Union, we are being confronted with problems of considerable geographical proportion. Even the most superficially trained geographer, glancing at Fig.1 can see that the whole campus of Maynooth is oozing with geographically portentous problems. In much the same way as the College community mirrors the tensions and behavioural problems of society in general[1], the Maynooth College campuscape is a spatial entity with characteristics such as distance, location, centrality. Fig.1, outlines the dimensions of a problem in spatial organisation to beat all problems in ditto. The following essay is intended to pinpoint some aspects of this problem, and to present some rather weak solutions.[2]

Let us examine some typical problems in spatial organisation on the campus. Firstly, you come tearing out of the library to get into lunch before anyone else. As soon as you pass the main doors of the Aula, you are faced with a triangle of faded grass. A concrete path slices through it, but in the wrong direction entirely (See Fig.1.). So what do you do? You shortcut your way across the triangle, intersecting the concrete path at an angle of 90 . Or, secondly you are heading from the Library to a Geography sermon in Rhetoric house. Again, you are confronted by one of these menacing spatial aberrations - the triangular patch of grass. Once more human frailty lets you down and you trundle across the grass bypassing the sign forlornly instructing you to keep off. Man's imprint on the landscape is brought vividly to life in muddy footpaths across grass triangles on the campus of Maynooth. Here, for generations to come, infra-red aerial photographs will show these well-trodden short-cuts taken by hungry students in the 1970's -just as they show the harepaths of Anglo-Saxon swineherds on the Sussex downs.

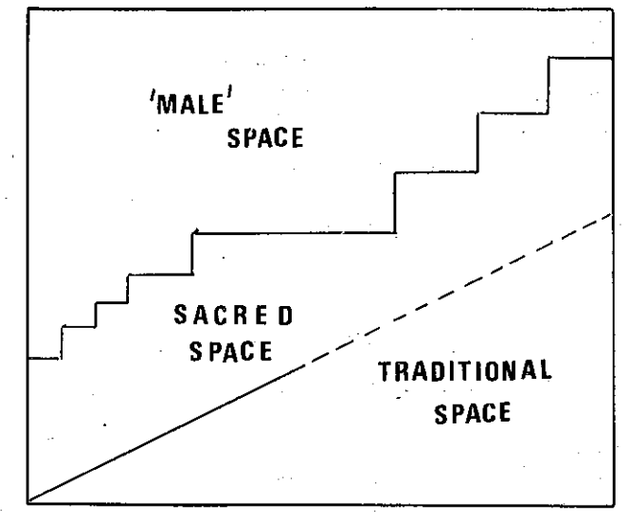
Having laboured the point to the utmost, therefore, here we have living examples of man in the process of actively overcoming the friction of space. We are constantly trying to get from A to B as quickly as possible - and this generally involves taking the shortest distance. But, alas, there are innumerable obstacles in the landscape restricting these euclidean endeavours - and these obstacles are generally inheritances from a time when such journeys were largely unnecessary. For example, if you want to go to Dunboyne or Navan, you must drive around Carton demesne, for which we are indebted to the Duke of Leinster, who built it in times of less mobility. And if you are walking to a Geography lecture in Rhetoric you must go around a grass patch, because the grass patch was there long before there were Geography lectures in Rhetoric.

We have therefore in Maynooth a problem in spatial organisation, in reconciling the new and increasingly complex mobility problems of the expanding population of the college with a campus that evolved in different times with different needs. And the problem is assuming horrific proportions as the planned extension of the campus takes shape. the location of the new buildings across the Galway road is clearly the fruit of minds more theological than geographical. You have, consequently, all the ingredients of a classical problem of spatial organisation -a landscape on which you find activity problems, networks, the journey to work, to doss etc. You have (sometimes) examples of locational decision-making. There must also be a smell of distance decay ..... If you are happily ensconced behind a pint in the Union Building just when the head of the geography department is posing rhetorical questions[3] in the building for that purpose - will you drop everything and run? (In which direction?)

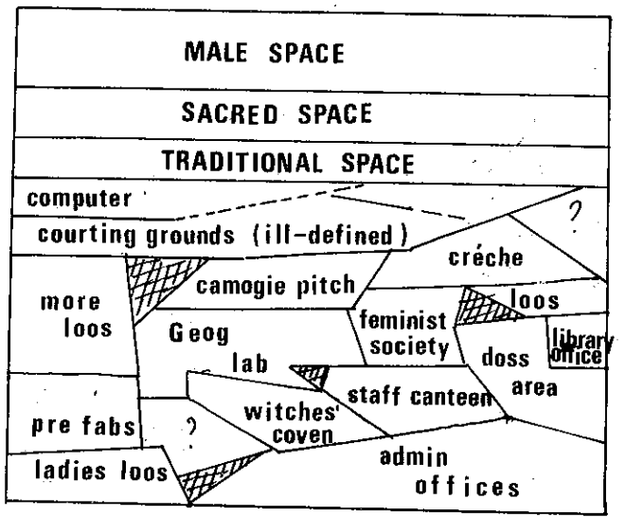
Spatial Problems - Phase One

Up to the present, spatial problems have been confined to adapting a nineteenth-century residential seminary campus to the needs of a twentieth century limited-faculty university. Since 1868, when the first invasion took place, there have been spatial adjustments everywhere. But the spatial problems of reorganising libraries, lecture halls, labs, canteens and grass triangles were greatly compounded by the heritage of traditions which naturally evolved in a seminary for Roman Catholic priests. These traditions have endowed certain places with considerable significance which obviously must escape the non-clerical intruder.[4] The Maynooth campus has sacred spaces as awkward as any grass triangle. The cloisters is an obvious example - daily violated by the lower caste with bags and baggage, denims and garish posters. Joe's Square[5] is a sacred space of grandiose proportions with triangles and quadrangles and elegant grass geometry designed to accomodate the peregrinations of bishops and professors of theology. Unfortunately, this too is being traversed by the noisy rabble going to classes in Physics, Callan or Music Halls, or shortcutting to student hamburgers in the pre-fab canteen or extern-staff beefburgers in the other canteen. Both canteens represent a spatial compromise in relatively peripheral locations on the edge of the campus. The pre-existing resident staff and student canteens are located in central positions on the squares. This spatial segregation is clearly a response to the demands of exclusion which are characteristic of sacred space.

In general, however, sacred space has retreated before the growing demands of the civil university, and at present is largely confined to first, second and third floor locations.[6] The physical layout of the whole campus was a hotch-potch of irreconcilable variables. There was a great problem of resolving contradictions inherited from the seminary. Tradition and celibacy in the seminary were spatially expressed in a most confounding fashion. You had "mixed" space, "male" space and "traditional" space, constantly under pressure from the Gentile intruders.[7] The early book of rules for students listed places that were out-of-bounds for lay students (especially women). But most of these were spatially unworkable. Fig. 2 is a model of the spatial retreat of the Gentile hordes since 1965. The nature of this intrusion is described in Table 1, and encompasses such capracious elements as mixed choirs, camogie clubs and babies.



1965



1976

Fig 2. THE CONTRACTION OF 'EXCLUSIVE' SPACE 1965 - 1976

TABLE 1 List of Gentile Intruders

Description	Approximate No.
non-resident students, mostly R.C. but also Hindus, Baptists, Presbyterians, Atheists, Thomists, Blacks, Whites and undernourished Dubliners	Too numerous to mention
Non-resident lay-staff, R.C., Presbyterian, sociologists etc.	c. 40.
Women (in skirts) (in jeans)	galore
Mixed Choirs	1
Mixed Dramatic Society	1
Geography Department	4 (at least)
Geography Society	1
Camogie Club	1
Assistant Bursar	1
BABIES	6+
etc.	etc.

(Source: Trustees)

As can be seen from Fig.2, the seminary has clearly retreated to the top floors[8].

Spatial Problems - Phase Two

The second part of this scientific analysis considers the possibility of a seminary resurgence in spatial terms. With the opening of the new block across the western road, there will be a relief of pressure on the old campus. A reassertion of sacred/traditional space should automatically follow. Unfortunately, however, the structural contradictions of the seminary-university alliance persist. Gentile will remain on the old campus. Logic House will almost certainly continue as a Gentile fortress enticing foreign elements through Joe's Square. And the old lecture theatres are likely to remain in use. Geography is entrenched in Rhetoric and threaten to expand from this bridgehead. Its proximity to the centre of power in the college is especially sinister[9]. Alternatively, the contiguity of the swimming pool might act as an intervening opportunity - although it is suggested that it would provide an ideal behavioural laboratory for the Department of Sociology[10]. The computer constitutes a a final mechanistic alien element in Rhetoric. It looks very much as if the southern margins of the old campus are lost to Gentility. (See Fig. 1)

There seems little doubt, however, that sacred/traditional space will consolidate around the central squares on the old campus. Although Joe's Square will undoubtedly continue in use as a thoroughfare for gentile masses[11], the entrances to the surrounding buildings are easily defendable, barricadable etc. Thus, the radical

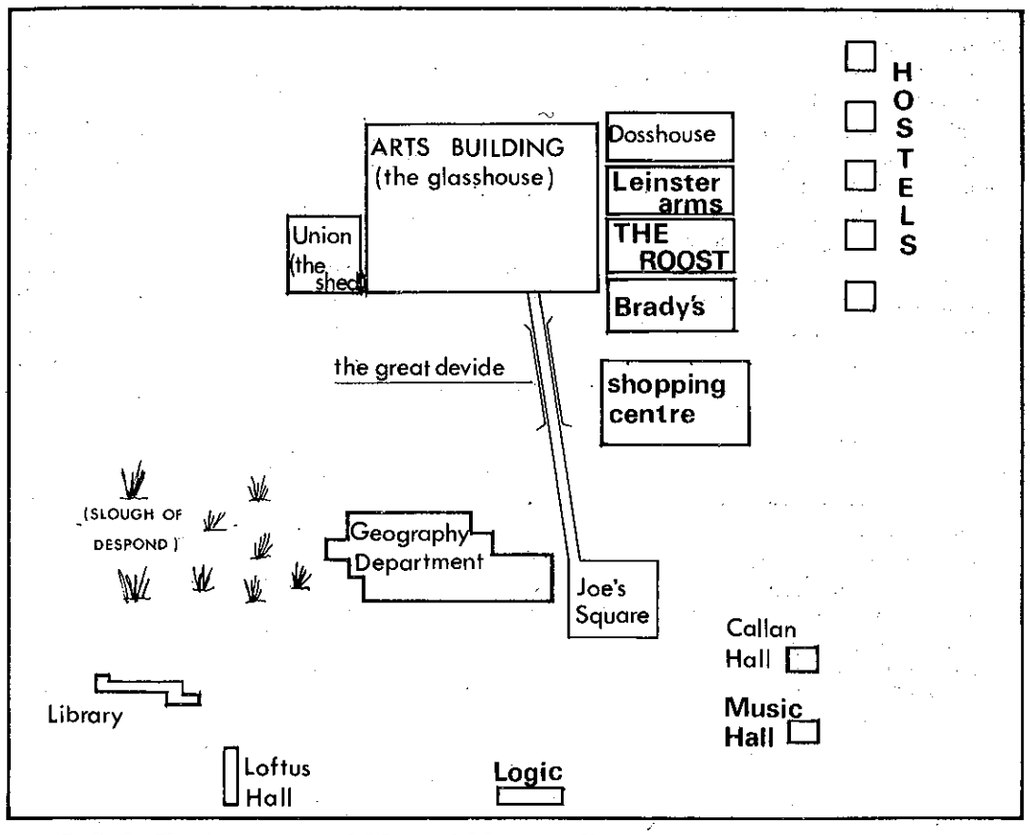


FIG. 3 Typical Mental Map of Maynoodle

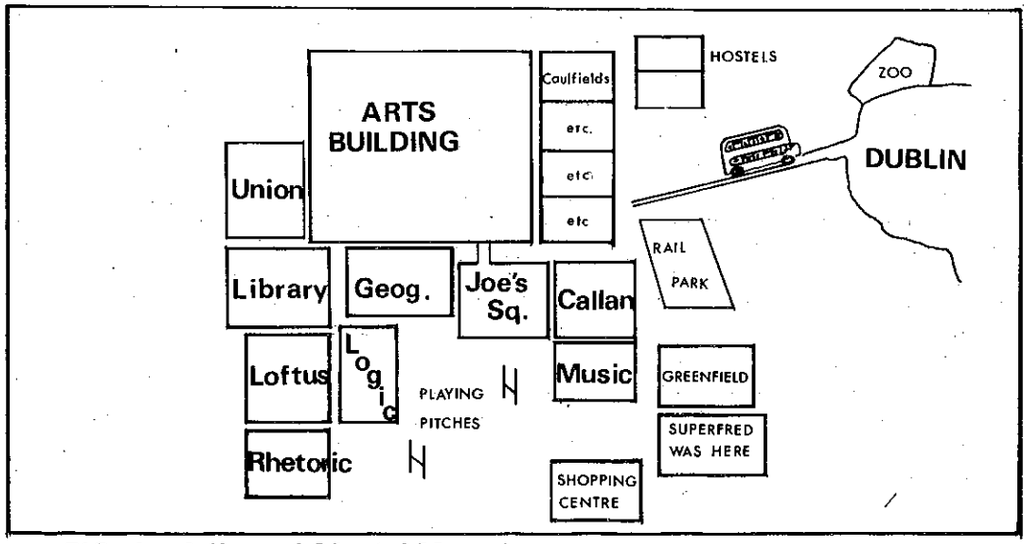


FIG. 4 Adjusted Mental Map

notices which occasionally appear hammered to the doors of Humanity House[12], and which are constantly ignored by the human herd passing through, will no longer be necessary.[13]

In spite of the possibility of nationalising some of the spatio-spiritual anomalies of the old campus, the opening of the new campus presents us with a whole new geographical scenario. The Problem of Alternatives - the pint in the Union or Rhetoric in Rhetoric - is a typical case in point. It can be reduced to a simple problem of reconciling the attractions of each (or either) with the distance between the two[14]. Some students of philosophy, however, might wish to solve the problem of distance as here outlined, by adopting de Selby's hypotheses that a journey is merely a hallucination, and distance largely theoretical[15]. These philosophers would, thus, assuredly find themselves permanently marooned across the road and no amount of alcoholic hallucinogens would transport them to the old campus.[16]

Overcoming the function of space will, therefore, undoubtedly constitute a major problem. An analogous situation existed in 1776 between England and her thirteen colonies across the water.[17] If we are to prevent a U.D.I. situation arising in the new Arts building - where students will be able to plot and plan in comfort - the links within the whole college community must be strengthened, and the disrupting distance factor must be minimised as much as possible. The old campus must retain strong attractive forces and the exclusiveness of sacred/traditional/male space should be played down.[18] The presence of geography, sociology and the computer on the old campus is obviously a factor of strength. Geographers could, for example, reduce the disturbing effect of space and distance by contriving to produce mental maps of the college campus. Mental maps have, among their other characteristics, the capacity to make some things seem closer than they are. Thus, for some, Brady's pub might seem to be very close; for others (eg. residents of the Convent of Mercy hostel) it is very distant.[19] Fig. 3 illustrates the principal features of a mental map of Maynooth.

Areas with which the subject is extremely familiar will feature prominently and out of scale on the map. Distance and scale, therefore, will be greatly distorted. Mental maps are maps of perceived reality.[20] And perception is so subjective that it is amenable to all sorts of misinterpretation and manipulation - you can be forced to perceive things in different ways. The concept of the mental map, therefore, has endless possibilities for reducing the effects of distance and adding cohesion to the spatially fragmented campus. In Fig. 3, for example, places with pleasant mental and physical associations appear prominently on the map. And unpleasant, uninteresting areas will occupy peripheral locations at a distance from the centre of activity. Thus, all the energies of the college authorities should be directed towards <u>increasing</u> the attractiveness of the peripheral elements. The library must be made a pleasant place, a joy to work in. The lecture theatres must be strengthened as nucleating centres - places of fun and challenging discourse. These will then come to occupy more central positions on the map. Alternatively, the geography department can indulge in some cartographic licence and simply re-draw the map with everything in the centre and distance reduced to insignificance (See Fig. 4) The latter elastic approach gives the mental map considerable propaganda value which may be useful in contracting the real distance between the new and the old sections of the campus.[21]

<u>Conclusion:</u>

Ever since 1968, when the College was opened up, Maynooth has suffered chronic spatial schizophrenia. Attempts to maintain a physical segregation of the resident community and the gentile herd were largely unsuccessful due to the basic geography of the campus. There has been a gradual, insidious expansion in the civil university through the agency of such superficially harmless elements as women's toilets, mixed doubles, and babies. Initially, the purpose of extending the College campus across the Galway road was to ensure the integrity of sacred seminary space. But the civil university monster has outgrown the new buildings, and some tentacles are already deep-rooted in the old campus. Ultimately, this entrenchment may prevent the psycho-social fragmentation of the campus. And it promises continuing ill-treatment for the grass triangles.

<u>Notes and References:</u>

1. See student strikes, staff schisms, hierarchiacl structures, governing bodies, rules and regulations, car-parking restrictions, breakdowns in communication, bishops etc., etc.
2. This modest assertion is intended to strengthen and add credence to the quite incredible solutions proposed towards the end.
3. For example: "And what happened when Islam jostled with Buddha on the slopes of the Himalayas? What did the Spaniards find when they clawed round the earth to Hispaniola? And what did Strongbow say to the Kerryman in Abbeyleix?"
4. The legacy of placenames on the campus harks back to an era of isolation and social self-sufficiency, when every nook and cranny was named. There was little Oxbridge elegance about these placenames, just plain homely labels like the Gun (for the Library and Chapel area), the Desert (area behind logic), the Graph (the long central avenue in the College Park), the List (the infirmary/hospital - reference to one's appearance on the hospital list), Shack's Arch (the President's Arch - in this case, endearingly called after a former president, a Hebrew scholar, thus nicknamed 'sheek', corrupt 'shack'!!!
5. Originally St. Joseph's Square.
6. See 'Long Corridor", Rhetoric, Pat's (St. Patrick's), Mary's (St. Mary's), etc. Logic House has surrendered completely to the invading masses.
7. See D.W. Meinig on the Gentile invasion of Utah; also Isaiah, 65.
8. The model is three-dimensional, if you have steroscopic vision, and believe it.
9. The powerhouse. (See Fig. 1).
10. This is a particularly Gentile institution, indulging in witchcraft amongst other things.
11. Not to be confused with black masses. Although there are significant numbers of Nigerian students in the college.
12. Written in red ink they proclaim: "Help the workers - do not make a passage through this hallway !"
13. This demonstrates again that notices restricting access through easily accessible space are ignored and might as well be written in Chinese. (See <u>The Mystery of the Grass Triangles</u> by Liam Greene.)
14. This problem may be quantified according to levels of satisfaction, and possible computerised. (Check the Superfred package). For example, one pint = one unit of pleasure,
    two pints = two units
    three pints = four units,
    15 minutes of leisure = 2 units
    Distance = 0.6 miles.
    There is some evidence, however, of the exponential increase in satisfaction levels with pints, in contrast to a marked levelling out of the curve of satisfaction as lectures progress. The solution might be to eliminate the distance factor entirely and have lectures in the Union Bar, Hic.
15. See de Selby as expurgated by Flann OBrien in <u>The Third Policeman</u>. This de Selby, is, of course, complete anathema to believing geographers.
16. There is a distinct possibility that they wouldn't be missed.
17. Well documented in <u>Hansard</u> 1776. Maynooth College was established nineteen years later. (Totally irrelevant).
18. For example, reduced to hallucinations of de Selby proportions.
19. On the other hand, for some invererate tipplers it is never near enough.
20. It would be very advisable to read about mental maps elsewhere.
21. Fig. 1 can then be discarded.

COLONIALISM AS A PROCESS OF CULTURAL DIFFUSION

David Kearney

The last century has seen a revolutionary transformation within the field of study of the discipline we know as geography. Geography in its initial stages was concerned with the study of the phenomena of the purely physical environment. Included here were studies of soil and rock formation, diffusion of vegetative forms etc.

Geography has, however, progressed to include the study of the cultural environment The cultural environment may be defined as the physical environment as it has been modified by human agencies. Geography still retains a very vital link with its initial physical phase, but knowledge gained from this particualr field is now used as a working basis for the new field of study where man himself is of paramount importance. In short, geography has become a social science.

The social sciences interpret man, not as individuals, but as a member of a large group. Man is considered by the social scientists, not as a distinct separate entity, but rather as a social organism who experiences the same basic wants and engages in the same basic activities as those with whom he must, by nature, surround himself. No man is an island. The social sciences stress the interrelationship and interdependence that exist between man and the other members of his society. Thus the activities of man cannot be treated in isolation. Human phenomena are all interrelated and interdependant. The social sciences attempt a comprehension, not only of the factors which influence man's activities, but also of the eventual effect of these common activities upon man himself .

Geography is an integral component of the social sciences. Geography's aim, like that of the others, is a greater understanding of human phenomena. It seeks to explain these in its own particular way and thus contribute to a universal knowledge of man, which is the ultimate objective of the social sciences. Geography tries to describe and analyse the relationship that exists between man and his social heritage (i.e. everything; ranging from the natural environment to problems of population, which man inherits as a member of society). The words of Winston Churchill ("We shape our buildings and afterwards our buildings shape us") point to the central concern of geography; to show man the repercussions of his activities on himself. Geography attempts to help man find himself, to place him within a time/space dimension.

There exists in geography, therefore, a projective or prophetic element. Geography cannot of course, predict the future, but it can postulate on future events, based on its knowledge of past and current trends.

Although closely related to the other social sciences, geography retains a distinctiveness in which the influence of its initial physical stage is demonstrated. More so than any other social science, geography is concerned with the arial nature of phenomena. It is the composition of its two central parts - of the natural/physical and the

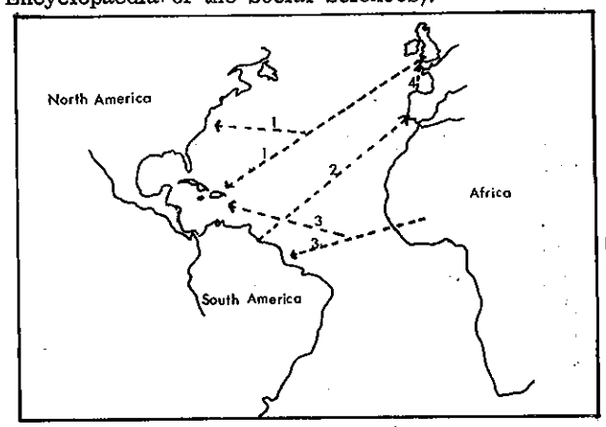
human/social, that is the man/environment relationship, which constitutes the destructive nature of geography. Geography emphasizes the nature and distribution of the relationships between the geographical environment and human activities and qualities.

Geography studies individual phenomena (such as soil erosion, overpopulation, cultural diffusion) not for their own sake, but rather that the knowledge gained from that study may contribute to man's awareness of his environment. To be practical, geography must of neccessity focus on certain individual phenomena but having examined them, it then attempts, or should attempt, a comprehensive integration of all the knowledge and ideas acquired in the course of that study, so that a fuller picture of the results of man's activities may be drawn.

Every society develops its own specific response to its environment, which is peculiar to it and which is expressed in the spatial organisation of that environment. The way a particular society moulds and modifies its physical environment is determined in large part by its culture. The cultural landscape is thus a reflection of the type of society which inhabits a particular environment. The geographer can map the spatial organisation (e.g. field and urbanization patterns) of a region and trace its origins to the society which is indigenous to it. In the same way, without knowing anything of the nature of a society, the geographer, using the information presented to him in the form of a map, can postulate as to the characteristic nature of the indigenous society.

However, presented above is an ideal type situation, where each society exists independently of all others with little interaction taking place. The picture is complicated, however, when, with ever-improving means of communication, interaction does occur and cultural diffusion begins to take place. In the terms of present-day technology, no society is an island. In this type of situation we see the borrowing of certain cultural forms, which may be reflected in the changing nature of the spatial organisation of the accepting culture.

Colonialsim is an extreme form in the cultural diffusion process. It is a form in which the initiative towards cultural diffusion lies totally in the hands of an expanding imperial centre. "Colonialism is the establishemnt and maintenance, for an extended time, of rule over an alien people that is separate from and subordinate to the ruling power" (New Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences).



The above map represents some of the economic linkages that were established through the activities of two colonial powers, namely Spain and England. What is important here for the geographer is not the actual mapping of the flow of goods themselves, but rather the effect of the flows upon the imperial power and the colonies. The colonies which had at one stage been peripheral, had now become an integral part of a world economy, centred on the colonial powers of Western Europe. Thus this map, with suitable extensions over time and space to incorporate the activities of the other colonial powers, represents a globalisation, or more correctly, a Westernization of world economy. The geography of colonialism must therefore be seen as an essential part in the study and understanding of the Westernization process.

Of course, the establishment of economic links is only an initial feature of the colonial process. The colonial power does more than trade with its new found colonies. To retain them as a source of supply of raw materials and as markets for its products, it must also govern them or, as is the case with the more subtle tactics of neo-colonialism, influence their government. A colonial type situation may therefore be defined as the domination of an alien minority, asserting racial and cultural superiority, over a materially inferior native majority. It is characterised by "contact between a machine orientated civilization with Christian origins, a powerful economy and a rapid rhythm of life and a non-Christian civilization that lacks machines and is marked by a backward economy and a slow rhythm of life, and the imposition of the first civilization upon the second" (Balandier, quoted in the New Encyclopaedia Vol 3, p.1). This observation, of course, excludes the activities of a colonial power like Japan which, while it failed to establish an empire based on military force in the pre-World War years, has today succeeded in establishing a world-wide empire based on its technology. Nevertheless, the central feature of the argument still remains; that the establishment of links between societies on a cultural level is consequential to the establishment of economic links.

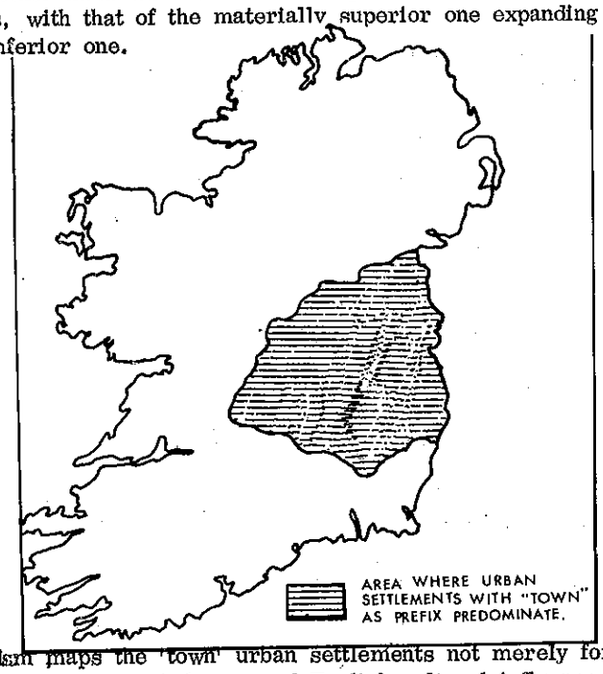
What therefore, are the results of cultural interaction, and how can the geography of colonialism help us to understand those results? As has been said above, every society develops or solves its own particular responses to its environment. Colonialism in practise means the introduction of new cultural solutions to the problems created by the physical environment. These new solutions may take the form of modifications of those already existing. Such was the case in Spanish America, where rapid Spanish takeover was largely due to the fact that they retained and strengthened the Indian institutions that coincided with those of feudal Europe, such as the tribute system and slavery.

On the other hand, the new cultural solutions may be revolutionary. Such was the case in sixteenth century Ireland, where the English estate and enclosure system represent a radical transformation of what went before.

To represent this diagramatically, the Spanish merely chopped off the apex of the Inca pyramid, which was the geographical expression of the native culture, replacing it with something that was Spanish and represented the ever-present control of the Spanish monarchy, while retaining the native Indian base. The English however, totally demolished the pyramid and from its rubble built the totally alien structure of the estate house.

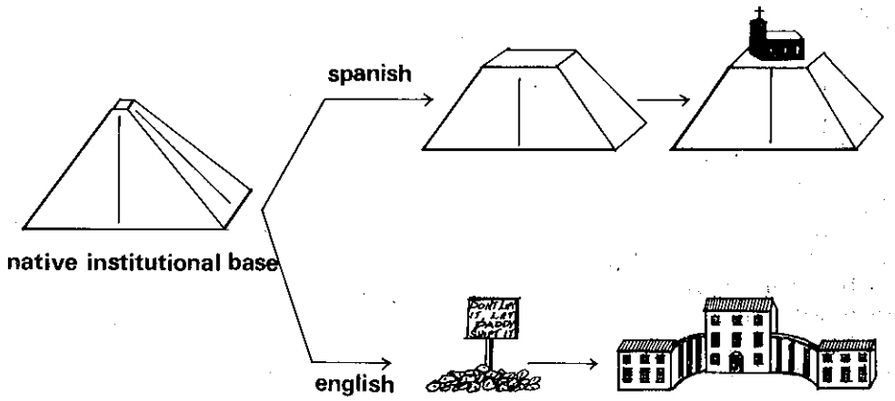
Spanish colonialism represented a fusion of cultures, a fusion which still retains a remarkable impact even today. This point demonstrates itself in the fact that, while Mexico and South America have adopted the Iberian languages and religion on a very wide scale, they still maintain that very distinctive flavour which is peculiar to Latin America and which is observable in such a cultural feature as form of dress.

English colonialism on the other hand resulted in the antagonistic confrontation of two very distinct culture groups, with that of the materially superior one expanding at the expense of the materially inferior one.



The geographer of colonialism maps the 'town' urban settlements not merely for their own sake, but rather that the most concentrated areas of English cultural influence might be highlighted as an extremum of a bicultural continuum.

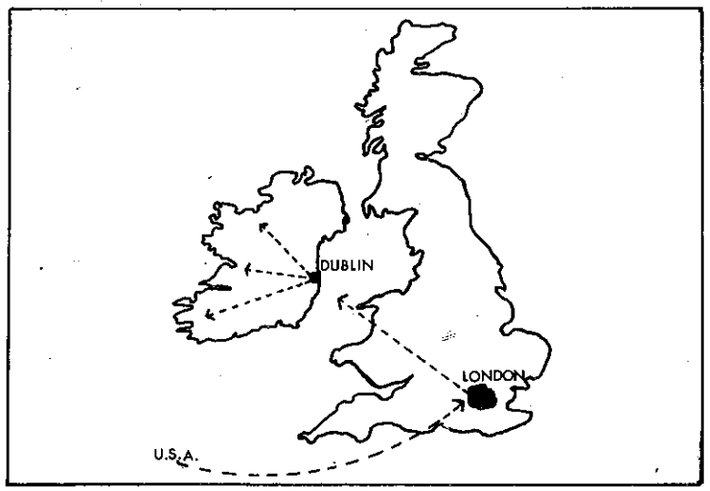
'Colonialism' is of course, an umbrella term, that is to say it incorporates many phases and dimensions. Some of these have been mentioned already, i.e. the economic



and subsequent cultural links that have been established as a result of the colonialist policy. Religion is a vital element of the culture of a society, and a mapping of the spread of the colonial religious institution and its impact on the environment (e.g. the establishment of new settlements), is vital to the understanding of the spread of the whole cultural ethos. Religion must be seen as a major initiating and instrumental force in the diffusion of culture through colonialism: the Spaniards went to America "for God and glory", their weapons were the sword and the cross.

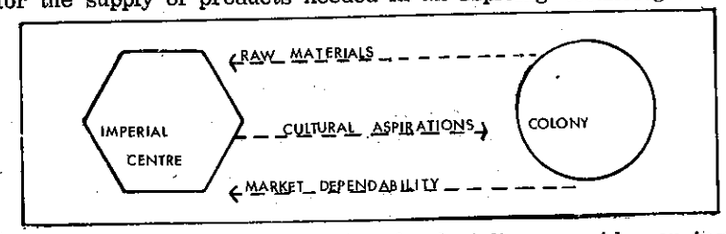
Colonialism also incorporates the notion of 'neo-colonialism'. This is the modern development of the concept, the distinguishing feature being that it exists without any apparent political domination. An example might be that of the United States domination over much of the non-Communist world. Such domination has been referred to as 'cococolonization'. The essential features of colonialism still persist however: the manipulation of the colonies by the imperial power, in this case the United States, in order to maintain the colonies as sources of raw materials for industrial processing and as markets for the ever-increasing output of American industrial technology.

The instruments of colonianism have changed however, and have become much more subtle in their nature. Such an instrument in the conditions laid down for the transfer of international aid for the developing colonies. Of more far reaching spatial implications for the geographer, who adopts a colonial approach, is the role of the city. Colonial domination today has taken on a more psychological flavour, example advertising induces dependancy on a product for which there exists no real practical necessity. In the same way, the city acts as a node of Western influence. The city is an extension of the neo-colonial power into the developing colony. The city as a centre of commerce epitomizes the gap that exists between the struggling economy of the colony and the affluence of the imperial centre. In this light, we can see the continuing role of Dublin as a centre of diffusion of a global-oriented ethos:



The role of the colonial city is "to incorporate the indigenous population into the economy brought and developed by the conqueror and his descendants. The regional city was an instrument of conquest and is still today one of domination" (Secretary General of the Latin American Centre for research in the Social Sciences).

The Geography of colonialism provides a thematic approach to the study of relative underdevelopment. It sees the cause of underdevelopment as rooted in the draining away of resources, both material and intellectual (the 'Brain Drain'), from the colonies to the imperial centre, and the increasing dependancy of the colonies upon the centre for the supply of products needed in an aspiring technological civilization.



On a more general level, the geography of colonialism provides an insight into the globalization of world economy, on both a temporal and spatial dimension. It highlights the breakdown of isolationism between world societies. Through its illustration of the changes which have and are occuring in the spatial organisation of the environment, the geography of colonialism has focused man's attention on the charges which occur as a result of cultural fusion.

The scope of the geography of colonialism is only as limited as the technology of the colonial power. The last two decades have seen the world itself taking the form of a colonial power. The expeditions to the Moon and later to Mars, represent the ever-increasing scale of colonialism. Already the Western sphere of culture is beginning to make itself felt on the Moon's spatial organisation. For example, when you're referring to the Moon's topography, you are talking in terms of such culturally-pregnant place-names as the Las Vegas Crater.

The Apollo spacecraft has replaced the creakdng Spanish galleon as the transporter of the colonial culture.

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THE ROAD TO KABUL

Vincent Allen

This is the record of a trip which I made from Clonakilty in Co. Cork to Kabul, Afghanistan. Having travelled through Europe, I arrived in Istanbul. Istanbul, the gateway from Europe to Asia, has the distinction of being the only capital city built on two continents. The old city is built on the west bank of the Bosphorus, on the European side, while the new industrialized city is in Asia. With a population of 2 million it is the chief industrial city and business centre of Turkey as well as it's leading port. But it is also a beautiful city of magnificent mosques and minarets and royal palaces, all of which contrast with the magnificent new suspension bridge over the Bosphorus, linking Europe with Asia.

Turkey is served by a fine network of bus routes, linking all its major towns and cities. The Aegean coast of Turkey is very much like that of Greece - some beautiful scenery with fine sandy beaches, wooded slopes and vineyards. The grapes grown here are not for home consumption, as Turkey is a Muslim country and the drinking of alcohol is forbidden. Instead they are exported along with the figs also grown in this area.

The Aegean coast is steeped in classical history, as this area was once a part of the Greek Empire. In this area the tourist industry is of great importance and this has had its effect on the development of communications and services. As one travels eastwards all of this changes. The roads deteriorate, the landscape becomes more deserted and less fertile, villages of mud huts appear. Those parts of Turkey not served by buses have to rely on the train service, the general standard of which was pretty low, but at 50p for a day's travelling one shouldn't complain ! It seemed that the railway was the only link with the outside world for the occasional village of mud huts which we passed.

Leaving the Mediterranean coast and heading for Erzurum, one passes over the Anatolian plateau, where even in high summer the shepherds wore their traditional long heavy cloaks. The main road link across Asia from Istanbul to Delhi runs through Erzurum. This was traditionally a trade route between Europe and Asia, but nowadays the camels have been replaced by juggernauts.

Tehran, the capital of Iran, is set at the foothills of low mountains which keep it reasonably cool. Here there are many beautiful mosques, while it is a very westernized city with fleets of yellow Hillman Hunter taxis racing around the streets. Travelling towards Mashhad, along the Caspian Sea, on a Friday, the Muslim holy day, we met many groups and families heading off towards the beaches and others having picnics by the side of the roads, in the typically European tradition. Mashhad is the second city of the Muslim world, and has a magnificent mosque. It is a very busy city, and the centre of the carpet industry. The carpets are produced by the nomadic tribesmen living in Iran, Afghanistan and Russia.

Herat was our first stop in Afghanistan. This town was founded by Alexander the Great in the third century BC, and it was here in the third century AD that Genghis Khan wiped out the entire population of one and a half million in revenge for the death of one of his governors. This third city of Afghanistan is quiet and peaceful. The women wear a long, all embracing, cloak with a veil and the men still wear the traditional "pyjama" suit of loose shirt and baggy trousers. The local taxi is a horse and carriage. Going from Iran to Afghanistan is like passing through a time barrier - our 300 mile journey to Kabul took three days due to the dearth of roads. In a truck we followed local animal tracks from village to village and through the Hindu-Kush mountains. In the low-lying deserts, the driver had to depend on the wheel tracks of other trucks to find his way. The Afghan government has found that it is easier and cheaper to build airports than roads, because of the difficult physical landscape. Kabul, like so many of the towns and cities we passed through, was divided into the old Afghan quarter with its mosques and bazaars, and the new European quarter, with the banks and embassies.

The way home led through the desert, twenty hot hours of it. The highly successful irrigation system developed by the Afghan nomads was destroyed by the Mongols in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and the present government is trying to replace it with the Helmand Valley Irrigation Scheme. My trip took me through Ankara, the modern capital, and Istanbul the ancient capital of Turkey and from there to Europe.

"First there were the Roman roads - the German 'autobahnen'..."

On which they, no doubt, used twelve horse power chariots.....

"England first began to break out of the Dark ages with the voyages of Marko Kolo (sic)".

"Portugal made the most progress at this time. They discovered the Cape of Good Hope, Alaska, and parts of Africa and America."

These guys sure got around. They probably also discovered Cork and parts of Ireland.

"... the neolithic age of economic development, that is the era since the time of the Industrial Revolution."

A major problem is the proliferation of vivid but imaginary history.

"Many of the coalfields were moved down from the valleys"

How low can you go .....

'Factories moved and sited themselves on the coalfields themselves".

'Whole industrial areas moved to new locations."

They really shifted about in those days. It is also useful not to betray a complete ignorance of what has been going on:

"The development of trade unions has given industries a better initiative in this Neotechnic age. They have provided the locator with the assurance of loyalty from his workers."

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Geography exams are not as easy to pass as you might think. In fact, they require an amount of forethought. There are a few basic requirements needed in order to pass geography exams:

1. For a start, it seems reasonable to suggest that a basic knowledge of "geographical" facts should be present:

"Although England was a relatively flat country, there were areas like the great Welsh coalfields of the North East...."

"USA with 195 people have a good high standard of living and thus have a higher purchasing power than China with 700 people."

Must have been a nuclear war we didn't hear about.....

"The principal dairy farming regions of the world are found in the North East half of N.America and in an associated zone which extends from Southern Finland to Northern Australia."

".... the Tennessee Valley in Britain."

"....the sugar deposits of Brazil."

Next thing we'll have salt growing on trees .....

"The principal example of a dairy farming region is the corn belt centred on Illinois."

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