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EDITORIAL

Each year Maynooth Geography Society, publishes its journal "Milieu". The aim of this publication is to give geography students a forum by which some of their work and ideas can be expressed in print. This years publication, therefore, is a collection of articles presented by undergraduate, past-graduate and post graduate students. The diversity of the subject matter displays the breadth of topics involved in the study of Geography. As a result the student is given a firm foundation in a variety of topics while still being given enough scope to specialise. Indeed many of the articles are the product of original research undertaken by individual students. Surely when education proceeds from the functional receiving of basic facts, though necessary, through to the explanation and development of ideas in the quest for greater knowledge, it has succeeded in its aims. With such vitality, diversity and originality, Geography in Maynooth College will never look back.

I would like to express my gratitude to all who submitted articles for publication, to Christina for the long hours of typing, and to the Geography Society for making funds available. I would also like to wish Mick Mc Kigney, who had the daunting task of filling the boots of Proinnais Breatnach, every success in the future. I hope all who purchase Milieu '88 find it an interesting and stimulating read.

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Foreward

The present issue of Milieu containing a range of articles by postgraduate and undergraduate students on topics as diverse as medical, cultural, population, and urban geography is a worthy addition to the files of a journal which has an unbroken publication record of a decade and a half. Its publication signals the end of yet another academic year, and one indeed which will be remembered as the beginning of the "cuts". Fortunately we have been able to maintain our geography programme without having to resort to excessive measures but nonetheless the effects of the economic climate are all too visible in a situation where an increasing student population is being serviced by frozen departmental resources. 1988 has also been marked by the death of Professor T.W. Freeman, the founder of the Trinity College Geography Department and the first professional geographer to be appointed to a university position in the Irish republic. His death marks the first break among the ranks of the pioneers of Irish geography and his passing is recalled with sadness but pride in his strong contribution to Irish Geography.

PROF SMYTH

AUDITOR'S REPORT

In the tradition of the Geography Society in Maynooth the committee arranged for guest speakers from far and wide to come and talk to its members. Another successful year began with the annual First year social. With a increase membership and an encourage turn out at the social, great happens were anticipated- and was any one disappointed?

Our Inaugural Lecturer was Dr. Cecil Houston of the University of Toronto, Canada who spoke on "Perestroika and Glasnost in the U.S.S.R." Dr. Houston delivered an enlightening lecture displaying his substantial knowledge on the topic.

The lives of the Cree Indians was next under focus in a lecture delivered by Dr. Sean O Cilin (U.C.G.) Micheal Bannon, University College, Richview, presented the next lecture on the agenda, entitled, "Office development and the Tertiary Sector", while the last speaker of the year was David Holland, Center of Regional European Studies, Birmingham, speaking of the changes in Eastern Block countries within the last twenty years.

The annual student conference was hosted by Q.U.B. in Murlough House in February. A strong Maynooth contingent, well equipped for any eventuality, were present. Papers were presented by Derval Donnelly, Johnny Doherty and Brian Mac Mullin.

Despite many difficulties along the way, the Society ends the year on a triumphant note with the publication of Milieu '88. This years publication being of the highest quality is a tribute to the hard work of the editor and all those who contributed articles.

In conclusion I would like to thank Dr. John Sweeney for his careful guidance throughout the year and also Harry Lee without whose assistance I could not have managed all the activities of the society. Finally I would like to thank all those who supported our activities and wish the in-coming committee every success with future events

Neil. A. Gordon

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MEDICAL GEOGRAPHY - A.I.D.S.

A comparative study of the epidemiology of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome in North America, Africa and Europe.

Epidemiology is the study of disease in relation to populations, and epidemiologically a population means a defined group, including both sick and healthy, about whose health some statement is to be made. Morbidity and mortality must therefore be examined - one of the basic concepts of this field of study being the population at risk. If findings in the "case studies" cannot be related to the defined population in which those cases arose, then it is not epidemiology. A process of inference (generalisation) from the study group to the target population is then undertaken.

Another task of epidemiology is the monitoring or surveillance of time trends to show which diseases are increasing, decreasing, or changing in their distribution. Methods of collecting data and recording diseases, especially in many underdeveloped countries of the Third World, are suspect because of misdiagnosis and inadequate record-keeping, which made exact figures difficult. In order to overcome this, rigorous standardisation and quality control of investigative methods demand major emphasis in epidemiology. If an apparent difference in disease rates has emerged, the first question is always "Might the comparison be biased?" The geographic scope and intensity of infection in Africa, Asia and South America is therefore difficult to assess precisely as infectious disease surveillance capability may often be limited because of weaknesses in the health infrastructure and inadequate resources.

Having outlined what epidemiology sets out to do, one of the most frightening diseases to emerge throughout the world within the last decade will now be examined in more detail: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome, A.I.D.S. The paper sets out to compare the different epidemiological patterns which have emerged in a global context with regard to the diffusion of the virus which causes AIDS (H.I.V.).

The World Health Organisation has described AIDS as "the greatest health problem of the twentieth century", and from the information and sources that are presently available, two classic epidemiological patterns have been recognised in the developed and developing world:

(1) In the developed world, transmission is currently most evident among active male homosexuals, promiscuous bisexuals and intravenous drug users. Because of the effectiveness of screening programmes and other measures, blood transfusions and clotting factors used in the treatment of haemophilia have virtually ceased to be a mode

for HIV transmission in these areas,

(2) In parts of the developing world (such as Africa and the Caribbean) heterosexual transmission is the dominant mode of spreading the virus. People who receive injections or other treatment with contaminated needles, infants born to infected mothers, and recipients of untested blood are also at risk of infection. The person-to-person transmission of HIV is dominated by the role of the apparently healthy, yet infected person ("carrier") who is capable of transmitting the virus. Such a person who manifests none of the classic symptoms, now associated with HIV infection, is called "asymptomatic". There may be 50-100 or more carriers for each recognised AIDS case. The "carrier" is not only at substantial risk of severe illness at a later date, but creates a public health risk because of the ability to infect others. Regardless of the area of the world studied, the modes of HIV transmission are fundamentally the same:

Sexual contact with an infected person.

Exposure to contaminated blood and blood products.

From infected mother to child.

"due to its modes of transmission (predominantly sexual), approximately 90% of cases in developed and developing countries are between 20 and 49 years of age" (p.13 - World Health, November 1986).

The world can be divided into three broad areas, according to their current HIV problem. The first group includes the developed countries which have been dealing with AIDS during the past several years. These countries recognise the public health importance of aspects of this problem. The second group of countries includes those that are apparently free, or nearly free, of HIV infection. These include both developed and developing countries who currently have the opportunity to take rational steps to protect themselves against the HIV pandemic. The third group includes many countries in the developing world which currently face an AIDS crisis. These countries must confront a complex HIV problem superimposed upon the already severe public health problems of the developing world.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Since the first recognition of the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) in the summer of 1981, it has had a profound impact on the public health sector of the United States medical community. The first published identification of the disease was in the Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report (MMWR), prepared by the U.S. Centers for Disease Control (CDC), located in Atlanta, Georgia. In June 1981 there were five people suffering from the symptoms; one month later in July 1981, 26; in June 1982, 355 cases had been identified; September 1982 showed

593 cases.

More than one million Americans are now thought to be infected with the virus. Once figures have been fully reported, the C.D.C. expects the number of deaths attributable to heterosexual infection - transmission to have doubled in 1986. Right now, heterosexual infection - among the sex partners of intravenous drug abusers, bisexuals or anyone who has the virus - accounts for 3.8% of the 30,000+ AIDS cases in the country, but that figure is expected to rise to 5.3% by 1991 (Smilig M. 1987:27). Newly published studies on these male and female AIDS patients and their partners indicate that the disease is bi-directional, that is, passed on by both men and women.

There are regional variations in the geographical location of people with AIDS - New York City having the highest concentration of sufferers, with the second highest incidence recorded in San Francisco, California. The virus is prevalent in other major cities in the United States, including Los Angeles, Denver, Atlanta, Indianapolis and Miami to name a few, although other parts of the North American Continent are seriously affected. These areas display high incidence of active homosexuals, drug abuse, prostitution and sexual promiscuity.

AFRICA

In Africa in contrast to the epidemiology of AIDS in North America, drug addiction and homosexuality are not considered major routes of transmission of the virus. The first documented cases of AIDS were among African prostitutes in the late 1970s, and it has now spread to some 30 African countries, mostly in what has been referred to as the "AIDS belt". Transmission in tropical Africa is primarily through heterosexual contact, with risk groups being identified as urban dwelling, wealthy, mobile, promiscuous heterosexual men, their wives and children, and women prostitutes. Only in South Africa is transmission more common among homosexual men than in other groups. Homosexuality is not as common in Africa, nor is intravenous drug abuse. Materno-foetal transmission is considered one of the major routes of infection, because many more women of child-bearing age are infected. Blood transfusions also transmit the virus and the screening of donated blood occurs only in the major centres. Poorly sterilized needles, syringes and other surgical instruments may also play a part in the transmission of HIV, and although it has not been confirmed, the ritual scarring of the body in certain initiation and puberty rites, tattooing and ear piercing could pose potential risks.

The incidence of infection with HIV increases rapidly with sexual activity and almost all patients with the infection are in the sexually active age range. The greatest concentration of infected people is found in urban areas, with most of the victims being young people in their late

teens to around forty years of age. With estimates of several million HIV-infected people in Africa, it is evident that the virus has created a major health problem in that continent. Nearly 25% of adult and 10% of pediatric inpatients in several hospitals in Central Africa are now HIV-seropositive.

EUROPE

The AIDS epidemic has hit all of Western Europe's larger countries. Many governments believe that the only effective weapon to prevent the spread of the disease is education: telling the public what constitutes safe sex and warning about sharing hypodermic needles.

In Europe, Switzerland appears to be the country worst hit by AIDS - 40 cases per million. One theory for the higher infection rate in Switzerland is that they have a kind of "crossroads" location, with many foreign visitors passing through.

The disease has come to Europe by a variety of routes. France and Belgium have close post-colonial links with black Africa; two-thirds of Belgium's cases are non-residents who are predominantly Africans. In the United Kingdom there have been 1,227 people with AIDS, to the end of 1987 and 8,016 who know that they are antibody positive. Yet in a personal letter from the Statistics Office of the Department of Health and Social Security, Hanibal House (London) I was informed that at least 40,000 people are thought to be infected with HIV in the United Kingdom.

The sharing of contaminated needles and syringes is a major cause of infection in some areas, e.g. in Edinburgh, half the city's 2,000-3,000 intravenous drug users are HIV-positive. There are fifteen government-backed experimental needle exchange schemes throughout the country where addicts are able to bring in their old needles and be given new ones in exchange, and 45 similar schemes throughout the U.K. supported by the Local Health Authorities.

In Ireland the AIDS problem seems to be mainly drug-related. Officially there are 36 AIDS cases here, 16 of whom have already died, but the number of people who have been diagnosed as being antibody positive (about 700) is thought to be greatly underestimated, with experts putting forward such figures as 3,500 possible "carriers". Other groups particularly affected by the virus in Ireland include homosexual/bisexual men, haemophiliacs, and babies born to drug-abusing mothers. On the basis of last year's figure of 21 cases, there will be 84 in 1988, 168 in 1989, 354 in 1990, 708 in 1991 and 1,416 in 1992 ... the rate may then level off (Irish Times Tue:9/2/88 -p.9)

Many of the Irish AIDS cases are being exported to London because Ireland has no long-term plan for dealing with the disease and does not seem to have the resources necessary to contain the epidemic. The availability and lower cost of heroin in England may also be a reason why many people emigrate, taking their problem with them. Homosexuals who go to England find support groups like the Terence Higgins Trust, willing to help them, whereas in Ireland being homosexual is still not very widely accepted by the majority of the population.

CONCLUSION

From a geographical point of view, there seem to be many different epidemiological patterns in the continents alluded to in this article, but throughout the world the same routes of transmission of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus remain the same:

sexual intercourse

blood and blood products

from infected mother to unborn foetus

If people can be educated in safer sexual practices, refrain from having multiple partners and remain faithful to one (monogamous) relationship, then perhaps the spread of HIV can be curtailed. Drug-addicts who share needles also need to be aware of the dangers of injecting drugs with another user's hypodermic. Women who are already HIV-positive should be discouraged from becoming pregnant, because their chances of passing on the virus to the unborn child are high, as well as developing the full-blown syndrome themselves.

At an international AIDS summit held in January 1988 in London, the experts did not see any prospect of a medical cure or vaccine on the horizon. Education and a change in behaviour pointed to as having an impact, at least in the short term. Even the drugs AZT (azidothymidine) and DDC (dideoxycytidine) which interfere with viral reproduction, and to some extent slow down the rate of progress of AIDS, have their drawbacks. The drug must be taken every four hours around the clock to be effective, and it can cause severe bone-marrow damage and anemia in some patients. Many people who have been taking AZT require weekly or bi-monthly blood transfusions as a direct result of the toxic drug. In the international declaration delivered at the end of the summit it was stated: "... by promoting responsible behaviour and through international cooperation, we can and will begin to slow the spread of HIV infection"

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THE RE-DEVELOPMENT OF DUBLIN: A THOUSAND YEARS DOWN THE TUBE

In "A Book of Dublin", published by the Corporation of Dublin in 1929, Bulmer Hobson claimed that the city by the Black Pool was founded c.836 by the Danes. This city underwent major development and redevelopment during the Eighteenth Century. Squares and greens were enclosed and were quickly surrounded by houses. The Wide Streets Commission, set up in 1757 by Parliament, cleared the area of the city near the Parliament Building. For example, their redevelopment of the Sackville Mall, 150 feet in width, and Westmoreland Street "moved" the focus of the city from the Castle to Carlisle Bridge. It was the golden age of Irish architecture. Dublin was one of the finest cities of Europe by 1800 when Parliament was closed and moved to London. The wealthy abandoned the city and she began to stagnate. Thus, while still the "Second City of the Empire", Dublin was declining by the time the millennium arrived in 1836. The houses of the wealthy were subdivided and rented out to working class families.

The city continued to decline until the advent of the Irish Free State. Much of the city centre had to be rebuilt after the years of war. O'Connell Street, for example, was redesigned. It was one of the last successful attempts at large scale planning in Dublin with no building out of proportion.

In the post-war era, with Ireland entering the modern industrialised world, the redevelopment of Dublin began in earnest. With growing prosperity and the rising importance of the tertiary sector, office development expanded. Property speculation was rampant as former residential areas were transformed into office developments. Georgian and Victorian houses disappeared as the mania of modern architecture took over. In the place of the Georgian and Victorian houses on the Dublin skyline appeared the likes of Liberty Hall, the Sony building etc.

All private sector developments have to be passed by the planning department of the Corporation. However the planning department are restricted for two reasons. Firstly, they can only suggest alterations to a planning application. Secondly, the Minister for Local Government can overturn any decision they made. Thus planning applications were often achieved with the aid of political interference. An Bord Pleanála has also been exclusively controlled through political appointments.

The planning department are responsible for drawing up a draft development plan for the city which is presently on display in the Irish Life Mall. It appears so complex, it has led to much confusion. Fortunately An Taisce have a simplified version on display in Merchants Arch. The

Taisce exhibition has accumulated 2500 complaints for the planners to deal with. The plan lacks proposals on air and water pollution. It completely ignores Dublin Bay. Included in the plan is the Inner Tangent Route which is designed to speed up the flow of traffic through the city. It is the only part of the plan which deals with the inner-city. "The road plans are the largest single factor contributing to the death of the city" (An Taisce). Already much of the inner city has been effected by the road network. The inner tangent route will extend the destruction. Many houses listed for preservation will have to be removed to facilitate the project.

The city Councillors must take much of the blame for the present chaos in planning Dublin. They are the "guardians" of the city. In spite of this, numerous listed buildings in their care have been neglected to the point that they have been demolished for reasons of safety. Many planning decisions made by the corporation are of a highly dubious nature. Successive Governments have not been helpful either. The Planning Acts have continually favoured the developers, never the conservationists.

According to An Taisce, some of the worst offences against the historic fabric of the city have been committed by public bodies. Office complexes built by Semi-State bodies have produced starkling results. The ESB decided to remove Georgian houses at 13 - 28 Lower Fitzwilliam Street to build new headquarters in the 1960s. Recently they announced that they intend to restore some other Georgian houses they own. Have they realised their folly too late? The Central Bank building in Dame Street is very different from that approved by the planners.

The Office of Public Works (OPW) seem to have been negligent in their protection of our National monuments. Hence, many buildings within their care have been bricked up and abandoned. Parts of Dublin Castle were allowed to deteriorate while the OPW built offices within the Castle grounds which appear out of character with its surroundings.

All the aforementioned have been involved in changing Dublin's streetscape. There have been very few defenders of Dublin. The influence of the Irish Georgian Society and other groups have been limited when confronted by powerful interest groups. Fortunately An Taisce is a prescribed organisation which, by law, must be consulted by the planners.

There is a little ray of hope. Six years ago the Corporation granted permission to the Royal Dublin Hotel to replace 42 Upper O'Connell Street which was the last Georgian house on the street. The planning permission lapsed and this month, on re-application, the hotel owners have been instructed to restore the house. However, last February, the Mater Hospital demolished three Georgian houses in Eccles Street.

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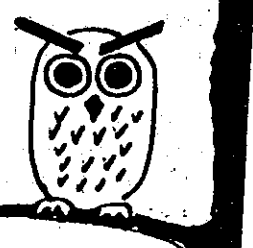
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13

And many hours later
 As darkness sloshed around
 The wet and weary weebegone
 And wandering crew came down
 And soaked the bus for those of us
 With sense and bone-dry knickers
 And lo! the last to land at base
 Was Mick with map in flitters.

~~~~~

And still his ghost is seen at night  
 On Brandy Path and Ridge  
 As he strives in vain cursing the rain  
 "Where is that bloody bridge?"

The Bard of Batterstown.

\*\* See MILIEU 1987, 37.

# IRISH TOURISM THE EUROPEAN MARKET- POTENTIAL FOR GROWTH

Traditionally Ireland's overseas tourist industry has exhibited extreme dependency on one major source market, namely the U.K. In 1982 almost 50% of overseas tourists came from Great Britain and if visitors from Northern Ireland are included, the proportion of U.K. visitors rises to almost 70% (Trends in Irish Tourism, 1982-1987, Bord Failte). The close geographical proximity of the countries, and the high incidence of British people visiting friends and relatives in Ireland accounts to a great extent for the dependency. In 1985, 57% of British visitors to Ireland cited visits to friends and relatives as their main reason for coming here. Eighty five percent of total British arrivals in 1985 were on a repeat visit to Ireland, again emphasising the strong kinships links in this market. North America has always been the second major source market where again the role played by visits to friends and relatives is very significant. However, comprising 13% of all overseas arrivals in 1982, it is a market of lesser importance in terms of visitor numbers. The Continental European market has always lagged far behind that of the U.K. and North America in its importance as a source market. Arrivals from Continental Europe have witnesses a steady increase from a very low base in 1960 - approximately 50,000 to 358,000 in 1979. With this trebling of numbers throughout the 1970s, the significance of this market has become much more marked. The early years of the present decade however, have witnessed a dramatic fall off in the number of visitor arrivals from the continent with growth only beginning to regain momentum in 1985. Visitor numbers from Continental Europe numbered 21,000 less in 1986 than in 1979.

The situation where Irish tourism finds itself overwhelmingly dependent on one foreign source market has serious implications for the health of the industry. Tourism is extremely susceptible to very many external influences, both localised and international, which can have immediate impact on tourist flows. In addition to this, the British market is largely based on the ethnic Irish market, one which is not the most remunerative in terms of visitor expenditure and arguably one which does not pose any real challenge to those involved in the marketing of Irish tourism. It is the purpose of this paper to examine the potential of the Continental market which in 1986 accounted for 14% of overseas visitor arrivals.

Europe is the world's leading tourist destination region. Major dominance of world travel is due in no small measure to the concentration of a large number of countries in a comparatively small land mass - the major source market for Europe is Europe itself. By virtue of its European location, albeit a peripheral one, Ireland has

access to a huge market of potential tourists. The volume of visitor traffic in Europe has rocketed in the last thirty five years and levels of absolute tourism have continued to grow almost everywhere. In 1950, tourist arrivals numbered just less than seventeen million, by 1985, the volume of inbound traffic had increased to almost 225 million. The Irish tourist industry is one exception where fluctuation rather than growth is the most applicable term. The period 1969-1982 saw the number of overseas arrivals grow by an average of only 1.2% per annum - a rate well below the average increase in tourist activity worldwide (International Tourism Quarterly 3, 1983). Arrivals peaked in 1985 when 2.36 million visitors were recorded, since then however progress has been uneven (I.T.Q. 3 1983).

The continental market is a case in point. Ireland has a very tiny share of the Continental market. Of all the E.E.C. countries Ireland is the least visited by people from other member states. "Europeans and their holidays", a survey completed by the Commission for the European Communities in 1986, demonstrated that for most Europeans, Ireland is a country yet to be discovered - only 6% have visited Ireland.

#### OBSTACLES TO GROWTH

The obvious question arises - why are so few Europeans visiting Ireland? Almost half of world wide international travel is between Western European countries, and yet the number of Europeans visiting Ireland, while having displayed a steady increase during the period 1960-1979, remains well below what might be expected. Why has Ireland's share remained so low? Answers to this question are less than obvious and efforts to forward an explanation unearth a wide variety of complex reasons. The market structure of Irish tourism is the outcome of many varied influences. Ireland's geographical location and the factor of spatial distance is an obvious influence. The extent to which other countries enjoy traditional linkages with Ireland, and the knowledge which other people may hold about our country are of very considerable significance. To quote an I.T.Q. author "in the long term, four factors determine the success of a tourist destination: its physical attractions, its accessibility from the main tourist generating regions, its facilities and the quality of its National tourist office both at home and abroad" (I.T.Q. 2 1983). Ireland's physical attractions are the basis for its tourist industry. Bord Failte's potential visitor surveys conclude that tourists are attracted here because of our scenery and unspoilt nature, our people and the relaxing and quiet pace of Irish life. This is the basic formula adopted by Bord Failte to sell Ireland abroad.

It is in the essential area of accessibility that the overseas sector faces its first major problem. The ease and cost of getting to Ireland is for potential Continental visitors a major factor in the decision making process. A recent Finnish tourism survey found that of twelve selected European countries, Ireland rated least favourably in terms of ease of access (Haahti 1986 11). The distance involved, and the fact that for most European holiday makers the car is the preferred mode of transport, means a relatively more expensive and more time consuming initial travel component. Since 1969 a readily identifiable factor inhibiting business has been the disturbances in Northern Ireland. For Continentals, a certain lack of knowledge about the geography of Ireland causes widespread belief that violence and terrorism are everyday occurrences right across the island. The erosion of competitiveness by high price inflation is another frequently forwarded factor in explaining Irish tourism's failure to broaden its market share more substantially.

#### INDICATORS TO GROWTH

Despite the existence of certain disadvantageous circumstances there is much evidence to suggest that very definite potential remains to be exploited in the continental market. The 1986 Commission of the European Communities E.E.C. survey shows that although on average only 6% of the nationalities of E.E.C. states have visited Ireland, 11% place Ireland among the three most attractive countries in the community. Among individual countries attraction to Ireland is even more prominent. Twenty percent of the French surveyed showed an interest in coming to Ireland compared to the mere three percent that have already visited here. In an examination of what potential holiday makers perceived to be the most attractive points about a destination two features: a) seeing marvels of nature and b) unspoilt countryside were without exception the choice of Continentals. These two criterium form the essential basis of the Irish tourism product. The role of those responsible for marketing Irish tourism on the Continent is of crucial importance. The image of Ireland actively portrayed abroad is not of an inaccessible peripheral appendage to Europe, but rather a romantically charming green countryside where the tensions and stresses of modern living are miraculously ceased away. With effective image creation the rainy Irish climate becomes less a miserable inconvenience than a safeguard against the horrors of mass tourism associated with sun destinations, and the marvelous asset responsible for our luscious green countryside. Bord Failte enjoy a high reputation for their work in marketing Ireland as a holiday destination on the Continent. They are however by no means the only organisation involved in the marketing of Irish tourism: tour operators, shipping lines, airlines and other concerns all undertake individual operations.

Assessment of the effectiveness and efficiency of Bord Failte and other concerns is very difficult to gauge as very many decisions can be involved in the holiday decision making process. Bord Failte consistently use tourist revenue as its "measured rod" of performance. However, it is arguable as to whether this is a satisfactory gauge or not. It is generally accepted that the work of National tourist offices both at home and abroad in generating initial interest, is quite considerable.

At present one of the most distinctive features of the European market is high percentage of young holiday makers - a total of 40% are under twenty five years while only 15% are over forty years (McEniff 1986). If the tourist product experienced on the first visit was perceived to be satisfactory, then among young visitors the likelihood of repeat visits is increased. At present the percentage of Europeans on their first visit is very high at 63%. Satisfaction ratings among Continentals are also very high, 94% of visitors in 1986 were either completely or very satisfied with their Irish holiday. This can be interpreted as a good indicator of future potential.

In assessing the contribution of tourist flows to any economy, it is not visitor numbers that are of vital importance, but rather visitor expenditure. British visitors, the largest group in the numerical terms have the lowest per person expenditure of any visitor group. The expenditure level of the U.S. tourist is the highest, while that of the Continental is also high. Expansion of the European market is therefore of obvious benefit to the Irish economy. A unique feature of this market, relative to the U.K. and North America, is the comparative insignificance of family and friendship ties as a reason for coming to Ireland. This indicates an expectancy for higher expenditure rates, as in the absence of friends and relatives with whom to stay, commercial forms of accommodation must be utilised. The fact that Continentals tend to prefer less expensive forms of accommodation, such as camping, caravan holidays and Irish homes, does not detract from the income that can be generated from expansion of this sector.

The socio-economic profile of Continental tourists indicates a very up market image for Ireland. Ninety percent are in the ABC 1 group. On average the European visitor stays longer in Ireland than either his U.K. or North American counterpart. Although average length of stay is declining in all markets, the European visitor spends an average of 14.2 days here as opposed to 12 and 10.9 days for the British and U.S. tourist respectively (Bord Failte 1986). A potential growth area in the Continental market is the 'additional holiday' sector. Increasingly, the trend is not so much for an increase in the number of people taking holidays to occur, but rather for the number of holidays taken to increase. The period July-september 1987 showed a dramatic increase in the

number of Europeans choosing Ireland as a destination for a second holiday or as a "long weekend", appears to be an area where very definite potential does exist.

## REALISING THE POTENTIAL

There are many indicators to suggest that the desire to visit Ireland among Continentals does exist. It now remains for that potential to be exploited and realised. The Irish tourism product, while having much to offer as an attractive holiday destination, must strive to offer the Continental better value for money. This involves improving the whole area of accessibility: The recently introduced Aer Lingus flight routes to mainland Europe, and the relatively new (1986) Air France service to Shannon, will greatly facilitate access to all parts of Ireland. The introduction of competitive fares on the Continental routes has helped put Ireland in line with other European destinations. Just how effective this will be in increasing tourist flows must pass without comment until the end of the 1988 season, but expectations for increased arrivals are high.

The image of Ireland as a whole on the Continent still tends to be continually linked with terrorism and violence. It is the role of Bord Failte and other concerned organisations to improve the safety image of an Irish holiday and to concentrate greater resources on the development of the Continental market. The high cost of living in Ireland need not necessarily be an obstacle to the development of tourism, so long as the quality of the service being offered merits the cost. Tourism research on Ireland shows that tourists are willing to spend money with the necessary stipulant that they consider the product to be good value. The upgrading of all services and expansion of facilities utilised by visitors is vital to the survival and expansion of the industry.

Ireland's image as one of the few remaining unspoilt countrysides in Continental Europe is the basis for a tourist product of great potential popularity in Continental Europe. The potential for growth is very promising and with careful management and inventive marketing it can bring much needed export earnings to our economy.

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## MANCHESTER '88

The troops made their way to Dublin Docks for the advance on the British Main, but when a roll call was taken the Mc Kennas were found to be Missing in Action. Some said poor Pat and the wife will be sadly missed - who was going to decide what we are going to do for the next five days? But contingency plans were put into operation - there were two members of the Geography Department present to take over the reigns, Pringle the Proud and Mad Mickey Bonnington (with the boots!!!). We boarded the B+I Leinster and set sail for Manchester. On arriving we observed the topography of the surrounding landscape, the emergence of Bungalisation and Suburban sprawl. After arriving at the destination two more casualties were noted. Where are they? - Out scouting for beverage distribution points, and finding out how hospitable the natives were.

One was rescued by a charitable nun who brought him safely to the Clarence. The Danish were encountered when the paddies got thirsty later that night.

Monday : Early but not alert the staunch Geographers set out to see the "interesting" parts of Manchester such as the City Hall, Albert Square, the Library and "Archies". After trekking around Manchester not looking conspicuous at all, the brave band made their way to Buxton in Derbyshire for lunch. It was after lunch that "Mad Mick Bonnington" came into his own and led us all on an assault of a mountain or as he called it, a small hill! Two members of the trip stopped into the "Duke of York" at the bottom of the hill, to survey the natives. When all were assembled at the bus, the surveys smelled of beer and the clipboards soaked in gin (I've heard this one before). On leaving Buxton, O'Reilly was crying 'cos he didn't get a ride on the "Buxton Express". On the way home Azdas was hit by the pillaging paddies. It was straight passed the clothes, food, hardware down to the off-licence for the cider, lager, Heinekin and vodka on whatever prickles ones fancy.

It is worth putting down in the annals that many members of the party survived on a liquified diet. Up in 32, the beer flowed and the crack radiated out. Meanwhile the consumption rate in the Clarence was unrivalled. Coming back (somehow) from Clarence everyone assembled for evening prayer in the common room, and we were all led by our Spiritual leaders, Sean and Ciaran but as the week progressed spirituality was replaced by more mundane activities. Ciaran tasted the night life while Sean developed a photographic fascination for mating birds. Bridin and the Banshees started working this night, and led by Bridin the Hibernian - Danish relationships were on the up and up again. But the lads led by Mr. D. beat the Danes in a "slainte or prost" competition. Then back to bed.

Tuesday : Up and away to Helmsore. Where? in Lancashire for those who can't remember where. On route we observed the landscape, urban development and redevelopment. Then at the mill/museum we were given a very interesting tour of the machines and saw them in action. For many the highpoint of the trip. Between spinning Jennys, mules in full swing, the noise the dust etc gave us all an idea of what life was like. Then off to Oldham in the afternoon but first dinner and sport with the bus driver from Westport, who was wondering what the auld place was like now- nostalgia took over while those capable decided to go to old Trafford. Social survey of the spacial distribution of football hooligans was undertaken. Comrades assembled once more in the common room where Mickey's moustache was attacked by Margaret. All week Mags said "thats a Mighty Moustache Mickey". The Brady bunch also helped in foreign relationship tonite. Spekanze Klaus, Max and Hans !! were all victims. Meanwhile the drunkarthon was in its second day up in number 32.

Wednesday: Many a zombie and mobile corpse was seen this morning. Corpses littered the bus to Liverpool, but Damien looked the best corpse of all. All in all a wonderful day was in store. Urban renewal, social problems, urban development, industrialisation and re-development of buildings were all pointed out to us. In the dock-centre the Bobbies kept watchfull eyes on the Paddies. Once more. With the completion of the tour it was back to the Clarence, where a raucous sing-song was in full swing, and an edgy landlady tried to keep the peace. Tadgh done his bit on the guitar while the lads maintained a cautious distance from what looked like a weight-lifting team. But Donal decided to help Lena (not Zavarone) and Ria in their quest for knowledge about Birmingham. At this stage wee Johnny was noted to be missing for two days (and two nights according to his room-mate) an expedition set out for him, and once captured he revealed, under torture, that he was in the T.V. room. Do you believe that? Not us, cos Danish post-grad, about post-1900 came looking for him the next day. Things fell into place!!

Thursday: This was a welcome lie in for Mr Doherty, after countless bottles of lucozade the trip proceeded on the bus to some bloody place that god forgot about, when he created the world. Once again we were all tooled up for a frontal assault on another bloody mountain. Our guide used the term "piss-off" once and decided against using it again as he thought he would have no-one left. After trekking around the countryside we were offered the option to go on further, or to go home via a short-cut - Yes Tom the bloody \$\*%#@!! decided to go the longer way home.

Back in Manchester, and into the Arndale centre where Donal got a lovely set of desert boots free of charge and Flash didn't leave empty handed either. Then to visit the Clarence for the last time. Before leaving our host gave us two pints of clear substance and while it wasnt water it was of Irish origin. Tonight was Hylands - not Fionnula's but wee Anne's turn to be nice to the Danes!! A government health warning comes with opening a bottle of

vodka in Anne's presence, as she says herself "I need a man and one with vodka is better again!"

Oh by the way Karen, we found out the type of aftershave the nice security guard wears - "Insignia". A little karate exhibition was given to Klaus and Hans by one of the Irish contingent - moi!!! Johnny's archaic women was led to believe that someone from Maynooth spent two tours of duty in the Lebanon- moi!!!! Tells ya how bright she was.

Fran was around tonight and was last seen leaving his two seats trying to demolish the front-doors of the hostel. There must have been an earthquake that night, as a number of fire-extinguishers seemed to explode, and Tadgh doesn't know anything about guitar music, Mr Security man!! - even though carrying a guitar at the time then the rest is blank, past 2.30 a.m.

Friday: An uneventful day of travelling to Holyhead. On the Ferry a quick whip - around collected £18 approx (flash did the counting) which bought the lads a token of our esteem. Pringle the Proud got a bottle of Drambuie, while Mick got a packet of razors along with a packet of laxatives but there was a bottle of Jameson in the bag also. (which Flash stole.)

Verdict: All in all a good package tour of the old industrial north and topographical aspects of the Peak districts - lovely trout were caught in the lords river!

Yours almost sincerely number 964251

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# THE EFFECT OF THE BY-PASS ON NAAS

The geographical location of Naas gives it a significance not achieved by county towns of a similar size. This significance arises from the intersection of Naas by road networks linking the capital with the towns and cities of South Leinster and Munster. This geographical location had become more a disadvantage than an advantage in more recent time. With the advent of modernisation in Ireland, industrial growth and entry into the E.E.C the volume of traffic and Irish roads increased dramatically. As a result for those travelling between the capital and the south of Ireland, Naas became a bottleneck. Traffic congestion and resulting delays became an every day occurrence. Thus out of necessity in 1983 the Naas by-pass was opened. Traffic is now diverted away from the town leading to an decrease in traffic congestion, a reduction noxious exhaust fumes and restoring to Naas the semblance of a quiet Irish county town.

As a direct result of the by-pass the town has become a much more pleasant place in which to live. The commercial life of the town has improved and there are now more parking facilities available and shopping is easier.

A survey was carried out in September 1987 by Anco to establish the effects of the by-pass on retail businesses in the town. 41 businesses were established in less than 4 years after its completion. The condition for setting up businesses were favourable as local trade was stimulated.

Table 7 shows an increase in the number of businesses established four years after the by-pass. The most significant increase occurred in the following categories: draperies and boutiques, restaurants and grocery shops. Local trade has developed because shopping has been made easier and more accessible to the people of the town and its hinterland.

Out of the 78 businesses established before the by-pass, 23 said that the by-pass had an effect on their trade, while 55 reported no change. Half of the restaurants and take-aways were affected. This is significant as they depended on external custom for a lot of their trade. Petrol stations were initially affected by the reduced incoming traffic, but they now manage to compensate this loss with local custom. The businesses which registered no change depend more on stable population of the town i.e. jewellers, newsagents, chemists, and were therefore not noticeably affected by a reduction in "passing trade". Out of the 23 businesses which were affected by the by-pass, the net effect was a reduction in staff numbers.

TABLE 7 - BUSINESSES ESTABLISHED BEFORE AND AFTER THE BY-PASS

| TYPE OF BUSINESS      | 4 YEARS               | 4 YEARS                      |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|
|                       | BEFORE BY-PASS<br>No. | 4 YEARS AFTER BY-PASS<br>No. |
| Public House          | 11                    | 2                            |
| Restaurants           | 8                     | 2                            |
| Retail Food           | 11                    | 4                            |
| Newsagents            | 6                     | 1                            |
| Jewellers             | 3                     | 2                            |
| Draperies & Boutiques | 14                    | 12                           |
| Chemist               | 4                     | 1                            |
| Petrol pump           | 4                     | 0                            |
| Others                | 17                    | 15                           |
| TOTAL                 | 78                    | 41                           |

TABLE 8 - THE EFFECT OF THE BY-PASS ON BUSINESSES

(Figures showing the number of businesses who felt that they were/were not affected by the by-pass)

| CATEGORY                         | NO | YES | NO CHANGE |
|----------------------------------|----|-----|-----------|
| Restaurants/<br>Take-aways/Hotel | 8  | 4   | 4         |
| Public House                     | 11 | 2   | 9         |
| Newsagents                       | 6  | 2   | 4         |
| Retail Food                      | 11 | 3   | 8         |
| Draperies/Boutique               | 14 | 3   | 11        |
| Jewellers                        | 3  | 2   | 1         |
| Chemists                         | 4  | 1   | 3         |
| Petrol Stations                  | 4  | 3   | 1         |
| Others                           | 17 | 3   | 14        |

Source - Naas By-pass Survey 1987



22A As the survey suggests, the general feeling among business people of the town is that the by-pass has made Naas a more pleasant town to live in and shop in. There are plans to build another by-pass at Kilcullen in the near future which will divert Waterford bound traffic. This will have the effect of reducing further the traffic flow through the town. It is hoped that this will further stimulate the commercial life of Naas.

#### Some vague impressions of Maynooth.

Maynooth? A place to live and work in...

Where is Maynooth? Somewhere on the western fringes of the Great City where the suburban sprawl dissolves into the rural repose of an inflated village; an in-between place, an neither here nor there place.

What is Maynooth? A small, one street town that people seem to pass through rather than stay in. But a town with two universities (one ordinary, one Pontifical), and a seminary. These three institutions more, or less occupy the same space. The university is the hidden fringe of this jumped-up village. You enter the narrow gates and it opens up into an extensive prospect: labyrinth and hidden garden. And of course there is the obligatory modern annex. From the all too busy thoroughfare of main street to this green and manicured space is no great distance, and yet it seems far. After all is this not the place of priests and prelates preoccupied with things beyond the laymans' world?

Certainly there is a different pace to the world "in here". On the one hand there is a pleasant quiet that is redolent of the monastic settlement. (But perhaps this is more a product of a cliched image than a realistic picture of what monasteries are all about?) Counter balancing this brooding quiet there is the more brisk and lively tempo of people coming and going, walking and talking; of animation and life. The town only has the beat of life when it is entrepot and reception to the college's students. Of course this is the way any university town is: the rhythm of student life becomes foistered on town life. (There is another rhythm to life in St. Patrick's college, Maynooth: that of the clerical community. This very much occupies its own time and space, and non-clerics seem but voyeurs to its cycles and beat. It's rhythm is not foistered on the town. But this is something about which my impressions are as vague as ignorance can be.)

So much for the place what of the work? In the beginning there was no light. I would cast my garbled ideas in a fast and fractured Northern brogue at a non-comprehending audience. Soon there was a steady stream of conscientious objectors to the door asking for refuge from, and explanation of, this unsolicited barrage of words. An armistice of sorts finally broke out towards the end of the first term and some peace of mind settled on both camps. (Or did we just all fall asleep?) The second year students were the first to be condemned to listen to this new upstart lecturer, and they should be commended for their patience and tolerance. The first and third years had to face a similar fate in the New Year of 1988. However, by then I had learned some tricks of the lecturing trade and things did not seem to go so bad.

The latter part of the first term was enlivened by a weekend fieldtrip to Dundalk and the Mourne Mountains. Day one was an examination of Dundalk Bay and in particular the great diversity of bird life there. In the afternoon we invaded the sometimes sleepy (and usually not so sleepy) village of Bessbrook. The old

## THE RURAL LANDSCAPE - POST WAR CHANGE

Agriculture in Western Europe has undergone major change in the post-war period. Food production was increased in order to reduce import bills and create a greater self-sufficiency. Agriculture became mechanised and intensified. As a result of this intensification the landscape suffered at the hands of the modernising farmer.

### ENGLAND: A CASE STUDY

In the immediate post-war period the Agriculture Act (1947) was passed by the English House of Commons, with the aim of increasing agricultural production while minimising costs. These aims were to be achieved with the aid of government incentives and production control methods. A "deficiency payment scheme" (Pacione 1984:79) was introduced whereby each year a guaranteed price was fixed for each type of agricultural produce. A quota system was also established and grants were paid for farm improvements. These agricultural policies were further reinforced when Britain joined the EEC.

Under the guidance of government agriculture became more commercialised, intensified, mechanised and less labour intensive. The landscape underwent change to meet the new demands placed upon it. Hedgerows were removed to increase field size, especially in the East of England, the more arable intensive area. Hedgerows occupied valuable land area, were an impediment to machinery, a home for pests and became difficult to maintain as the numbers employed directly in agriculture declined. Hedgerows have also become redundant in intensive dairying regions. Strip-grazing is now the general practice, therefore semi-permanent fencing is more effective, than the permanent hedgerow. With an increasing emphasis on silage production and the stall-feeding of cows, fields have become consolidated adding a further threat to the existence of the hedgerow.

Hedgerows have archaeological, historical and aesthetic value. They illustrate the system of landholding in the past giving us information on the lifestyles of our ancestors. Study of hedgerows can give us an impression of regional diversity. Hedgerows are also depositories of archaeological remains. However as many of the hedgerows have now been removed, much information has been lost. With the removal of the hedgerows the landscape has been transformed from a patchwork of small fields, with colourful boundaries into a monotonous homogenous continuum.

Along with hedgerows, trees and wooded areas in general have come under increasing attack. -80% of the trees lost in the East of England were destroyed between 1964-1979 (Countryside Commission p 1). The role of trees in providing shade for stock, and giving the landscape an aesthetic value, were no longer important as the economic gains from agricultural production increased. Little planting of trees is taken place, to replace those already destroyed. As a result the stock of deciduous trees, especially, has decreased dramatically. The vast majority of planting which is taking place has been for economic gain. Coniferous forests have been planted on land considered unprofitable for any other agricultural use. The regular boundaries of these green canopies have shown little regard for the contours of the landscape and thus often ruin many scenic views especially in upland and mountainous areas.

Therefore, in the post-war period the landscape of England has been destroyed by the advancement of mechanised intensive agriculture. The domination of agriculture has hidden other benefits, such as recreation, and tourist attraction, which the landscape offers. In more recent years through the action of Environmentalist and Conservationist there has been a heightening of awareness of the need to monitor more carefully the changes taking place in the landscape. But is this a little, too late?

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## POPULATION CHANGE AND IT'S EFFECT ON RURAL COMMUNITIES

One of the most interesting features of Irish Geography is its demographic structure and patterns that have evolved since the 1950's. Certainly Irish population trends which show a decline in the 1950's and 1960's and growth in the 1970's are unique within Western Europe. This fluctuation in population has had considerable effect on rural communities within the country.

Population decline gathered momentum throughout the 1950s. This was the result of massive outmigration, especially from the 20-30 year age cohort. (Table 1). This demographic change has a considerable effect on the social and economic of the community.

In the early part of the twentieth century rural communities were characterised by a close-knit neighbourhood cooperation network. This network broke down as the population of the rural areas declined. The traditional extended family was replaced by the nuclear family and communal farming practices were replaced by a more individualistic approach. The social activities of rural life, ceili, barn dances etc, also went into decay as the population dwindled.

With the demographic decay services, local crafts and industry declined. Due to the high proportion of outmigration from the 20-30 age group, the marriage rate was low (5.4 per 1,000 in 1950). As a result, fertility and natural increase remained low. Low fertility effected the number of school going children, and as the economic threshold was breached, schools were closed or amalgamated giving rise to spatial disruption. Other services, retailing outlets, public houses, Post Offices etc disappeared as their economic viability was threatened.

These demographic changes were reflected physically in the landscape. Houses were abandoned and fell into ruin, agricultural land displayed an appearance of under usage with a vast quantity of weeds, rushes and old grasses. Batchelors and spinster farmers were numerous.

As population decline was more marked in the Western region a spatial pattern of community change had evolved (Table 1). As a result Communities in the Western Seaboard in particular displayed most acutely the effects of demographic decay. The young and brightest emigrated leaving behind an ageing and dying community. The conflict between social and economic criteria became more acute.

The time period 1966-1980, but more specific in the period 1971-79, total population and change was +4.3. This was a huge increase when compared with the period 1956-1961 (-14.8) (table 2). Increases in population were experienced throughout the country, but particularly in the areas surrounding Dublin (Kildare +18.3, Meath +15.6 and

Wicklow +14.5). Population expansion was the norm throughout the 1970s achieved through natural increase and return migration. The dependency ratios of the 1950s and 1960s were lowered due to an increase in the numbers of the 20-45 age cohort.

Again this changing aspect of the population had its impact on rural societies. Many migrants returned home from England and Scotland with their families. The population threshold rose placing increasing pressure on services. Returned migrants had higher expectations bringing with them new ideas. Farming became more modernised, housing developments took on a more modern aspect, and more modern conveniences were introduced into the life of the community. These changes (eg the introduction of items like Television) further threatened and changed traditional rural activities.

Another important transformation in this period was the movement of former urban dwellers into residence in rural areas. In order to escape the congestion and pressure of urban living, these people moved into the more relaxed countryside. This was especially evident in the immediate environs of towns. The rise in the demand for housing facilities lead to a "bungalisation" of the countryside. With the intrusion and the different styles of housing, the aesthetic beauty of many rural areas has been irrevocably altered. Increasing pressure has been put on road networks. Group water schemes have been introduced, sewage and waste disposal has become a problem, and the conflict between residential and agricultural land-use has become more aggravated.

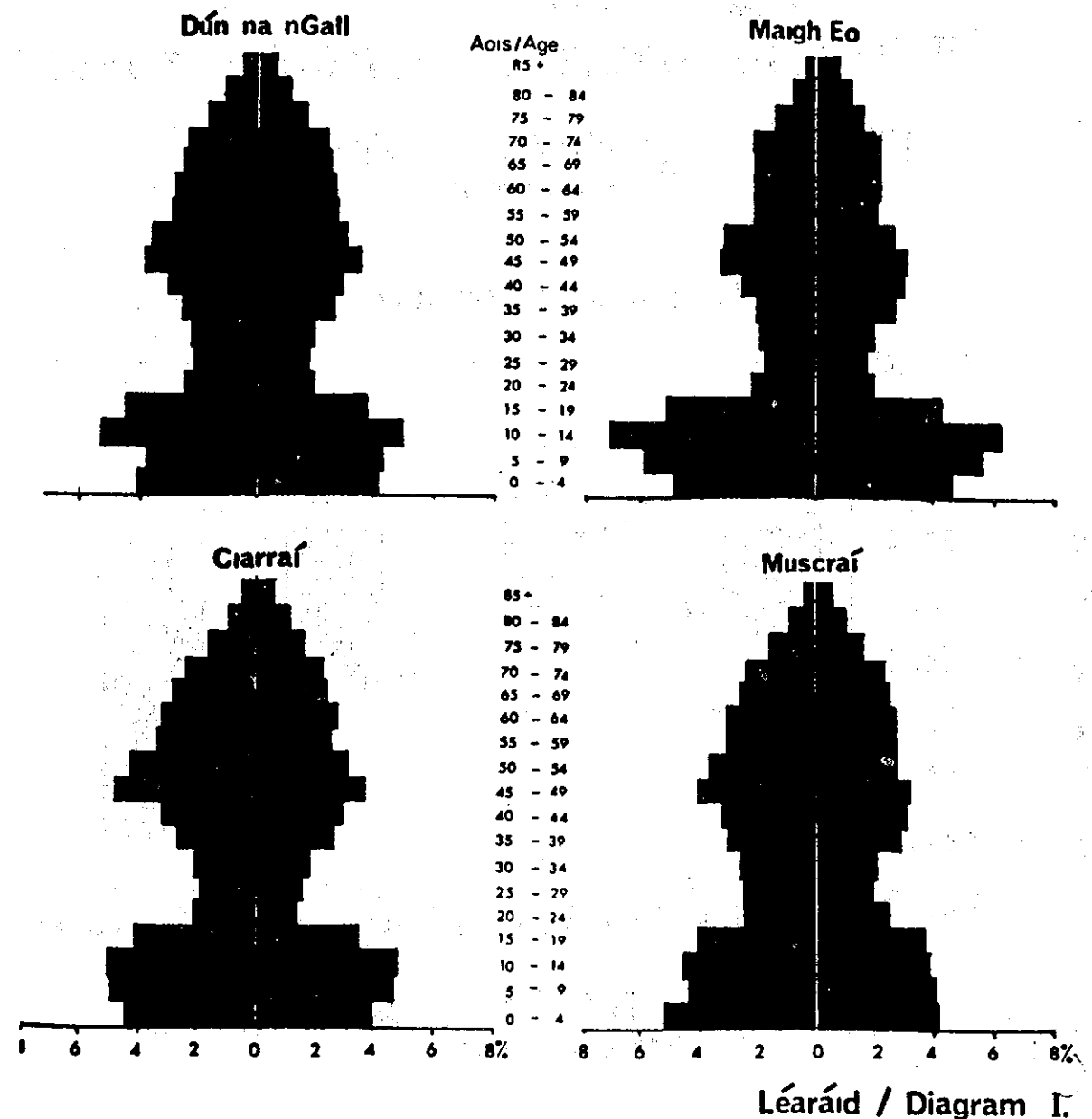
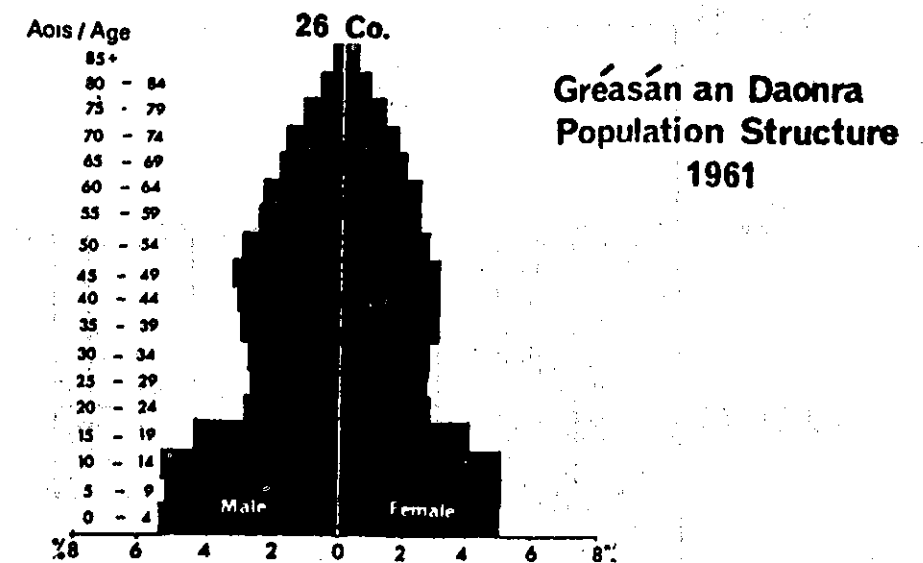
These new occupants of the countryside originate from an urban non-agricultural background and therefore their norms and ideas are different to those of the "natives" of the area. They are highly mobile and generally more affluent when compared with their agricultural neighbours. Their social activities have a more cosmopolitan aspect, with their interests more varied and widespread. Economically they contribute to the community by creating a need for services, both public and private. However they can often generate conflict with the "locals" as they try to mould the community into their own image - hence the almost derogatory term - "blow-ins".

Since the beginning of the present decade, outmigration is on the increase again. The young and often highly qualified people are leaving the country in search of suitable employment over seas. Ireland is experiencing a brain-drain with one of the country's most important assets, the "young-educated" disappearing. This new tide of migration is again going to effect the life and activities within communities both urban and rural.

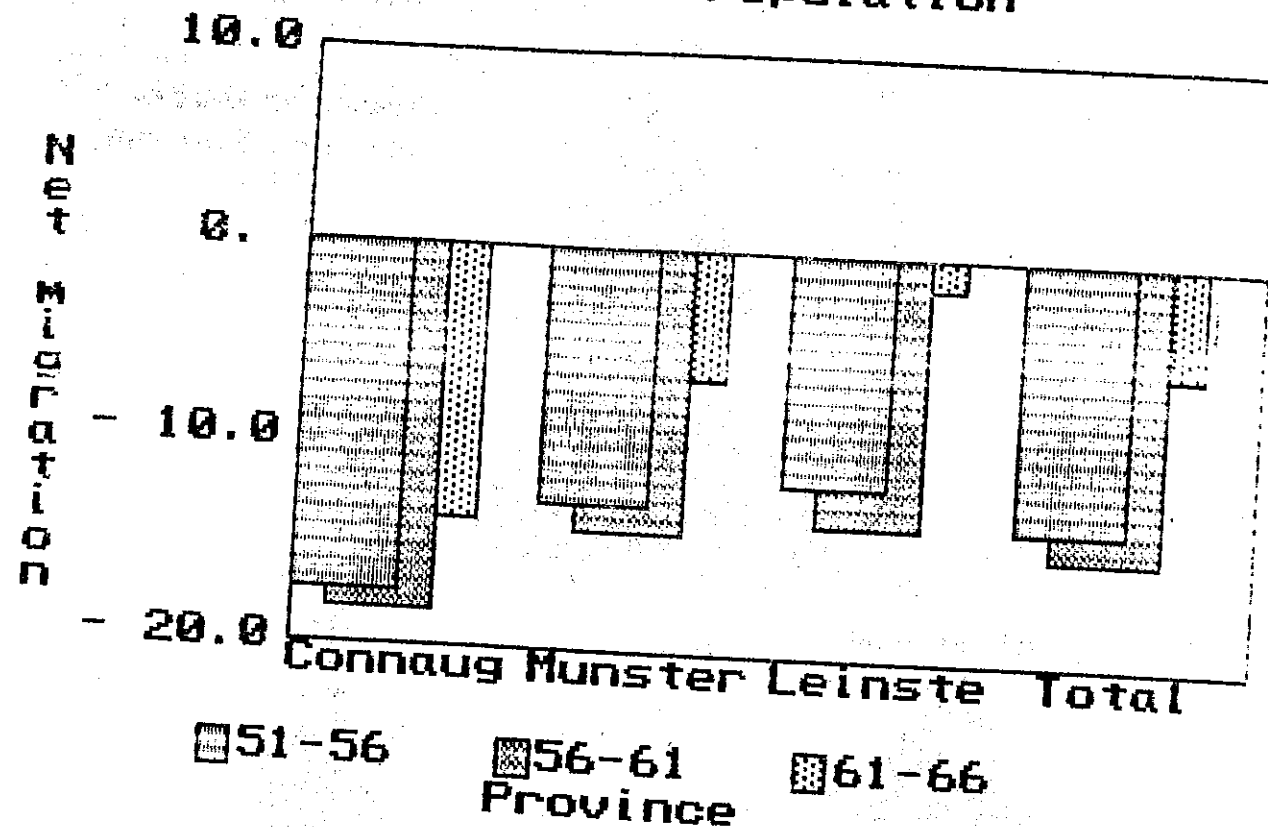
In conclusion, population change does not exclusively deal with natural increase, but also, with net migration. Decline in population was felt throughout the country in the 1950s and 1960s, particularly in counties Leitrim, Mayo, Donegal, Kerry and Clare. This decline has had adverse effects on rural communities, both demographically, causing population imbalance, socially, as customs and culture is threatened, and economically, as services are withdrawn. During the 1960s and 1970s due to improving economic conditions, population increased. Dependency ratios were reduced, the pressure on services increased and the social composition of the countryside changed. With continuing fluctuating population levels one can only expect the conflict and change to continue.

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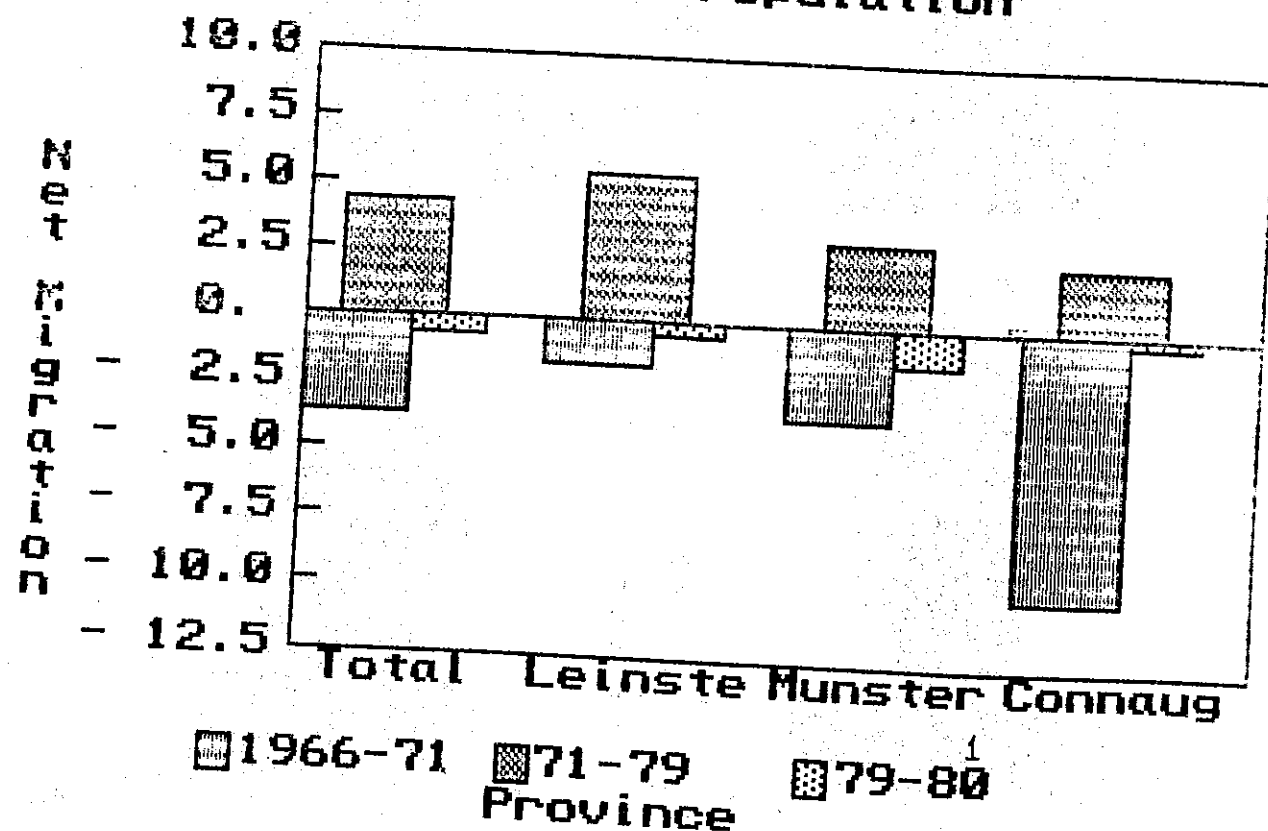
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# Per thousand Population



# Per thousand Population



## THE GEOGRAPHY OF IRISH SPEAKERS IN MODERN IRELAND

Dispersed along the Southern and western Coast of Ireland from Donegal to county Waterford, are residual Irish-speaking areas known accumulately as the Gaeltacht. Relics of a once viable and much larger cultural community, these regions now exist as "survival pockets" that preserve the distinctive language and culture of the Irish race. The population of Western Ireland a little more than a century ago, exceeded one and a half million, and the Gaeltacht covered almost one third of this. But disruptive incursions by the British, along with neglect and omission on the part of the home government, have reduced it to a shriveled remnant that covers only about 6% of the country's territory, and holds less than 3% of its population (Map 1).

No large scale moves were made to "Save the Gaeltacht" until 1956, when the government avowed that the community was on the margin of extinction. Thanks to a program to re-establish the Irish language and to nourish a stronger national identity, these areas have to be regarded as "Our link with the past and the repository of our cultural heritage" (Kearnes K. 1974). Now their preservation so binds the Irish government that an aura of crisis is evident. The gravity of the situation is under-scored by the caution that without further and more drastic intervention by the state "the Gaeltacht will have almost entirely vanished by the year 1990" (Kearnes K. 1974). It is definite that the struggle to save the Gaeltacht from extinction transcends the singular effort to save a minority culture. It has acquired great and conspicuous national significance, being promulgated as "one last slender chance....to undo the harm that has been done and to preserve for our children the very ethos of the state" (Kearnes K. 1974). To a large extent survival of the Gaeltacht has become synonymous with the power of retaining of the distinctive Irish National Character.

Despite the decline of the Irish language, Ireland has always treasured it, for it is our fore-fathers tongue in which much of the Irish Culture and tradition is expressed. But centuries of British guardianship and protection established Irish as the language of cultural and economic backwardness, while English was officially regarded as the language of progress and advance. With the arrival of independence, however, the attitude toward the mother tongue was reverted abruptly, as it was drawn on to foster pride among a people trying to carve their predetermined state. Because Irish obtruded as the one remaining distinct symbol in a country swallowed by British culture, it came to be particularly revered and venerated. It is in this historical context that the role of the Irish speaking Gaeltacht can be most clearly comprehended.

The analysis of the Irish language is based upon census data. When it comes to a minority language, the census data can be ambivalent. In this country the census has been based on questions, "Their ability to speak, write and read the Irish language." These questions are asked about every person over three years of age.

Another problem arising from this method, is that there is a vast qualitative difference in linguistic skills that cannot be examined in statistics, for example, whether one has the ability to converse about the weather or the ability to discuss on everyday topical and political matters. However in this census there is no distinction of quality in the spoken language. The number returned in the census data has increased from 540,000 in 1926 to 1.1 million in 1981, representing 19% and 32% of the population respectively. Out of 1.1 million, 58,000 lived in official gaeltacht areas, which represents a very small percentage. Most gaeltacht have an 85% population of Irish-speakers with two exceptions, Mayo and Meath. Through the work of the congested district board part of the population was transplanted from the west from poor land to the more fertile land in Co Meath. Between Maynooth, Kilcock and Athboy many settlers created a Gaelic speaking community in "Rath Cairn".

At present only 2% of the national population live in Gaeltacht areas, whereas in 1851, 33% lived there. Since then there has been a retreat in the Irish-speaking language. At present there is a larger concentration of people who speak Irish in Dublin and Leinster. This reflects the compulsory teaching of Irish in schools and making a knowledge of the Irish language a prerequisite for public service employment.

Depopulation has been the most persistent enemy of the Gaeltacht. While the population of Ireland has fallen by about 50% since its 1851 level of 6.5 million, that of the gaeltacht has decreased by about 95%, from 1.5 million to only 70,568 (Table 1). This precipitous decline is largely attributable to emigration, one of the most salient features of gaeltacht life (Kearnes K. 1974).

Historically, people were motivated to flee the gaeltacht by the economic consequences of potato famine, land reduced to infertility, delicacy of land tenure and general overpopulation. Some of these forces are still operative, but in recent years the foremost cause of emigration has been incontestably poor employment opportunities. A survey of the Galway Gaeltacht showed that 2/3 of secondary school children intended to emigrate. More than half of those who favored the action gave reason of employment, yet more than 3/4 said they would remain in the gaeltacht if work were available (Lucey D. & Kaldor D. 1969).

Another product of emigration is the higher than normal percentage of dependents. The dependency ratio for the gaeltacht is 449 per 1,000 as contrasted with 424 for 1,000 for Ireland. Citing the Galway Gaeltacht as a model, about 32% of the population are less than fifteen years old, 31% are between fifteen and forty-five, and 13% are more than sixty-five. All Gaeltacht areas suffer from this affliction, but in some places it has been devastating. A striking case in point is an isolated village of 300 people in Donegal, where there are fewer than a dozen people between the ages of 21 and 40 (Kearnes K. 1974).

Basic agricultural activities in the Gaeltacht comprise mixed tillage, dairy farming and the raising of sheep and cattle on commonages. Despite its importance in the economic life of the gaeltacht agricultural production is not encouraging. In fact 80% of the land is classified as non-agricultural or as marsh, bog or mountain. Among the factors that obstruct productive farming are generally poor soils, antiquated techniques of cultivation, and the small size of most plots (Comm. on Restoration of the Irish language: 1965).

The average number of agricultural acres (crops and pasture) per person is only 12.7, compared with 29 for Ireland. Most farms are small and inherently uneconomical: 68% have fewer than thirty-nine acres and half have fewer than fifteen acres. More than half of all farmers have no clear land title. Sixty-four percent are more than fifty years old; and slightly more than half of these older farmers have no prospective heirs, as a result of emigration. Given these facts, it is reasonable to assume that agriculture will continue to give way to occupations that offer greater remuneration and future security. With preferential grant aid from the I.D.A and through work of Udaras Na Gaeltacht efforts have been made to increase the industrial employment of the Gaeltacht and thus help stem the tide of emigration.

The Irish Government feels that the survival of the Gaeltacht is inextricably linked to success in restoring the national language. For exactly this reason the commitment has been made to prevent it from perishing. The most expressed open ideology and commitment upheld by the government toward its language is found in "The Restoration of the Irish language. Because of the importance of the language as the symbol of Irish culture a program has been contrived to restore its use. English will not be dismissed, rather a system of bilingualism will be established in which the two languages will be used each within its own domain. The plan depends on the survival of the Gaeltacht; as the commission on the Restoration of the Irish language admonished, should the Gaeltacht be allowed to perish, the "will" to preserve and spread the Irish language as a spoken tongue elsewhere would probably vanish with it".



As a result a program to revive the gaeltacht was launched in 1965 with the creation of Roinn na Gaeltachta which was empowered to stem the population by providing employment opportunities and essential amenities to improve living conditions, especially housing and to nurture a more favourable self image - a feeling of confidence and a sense of pride among the population.

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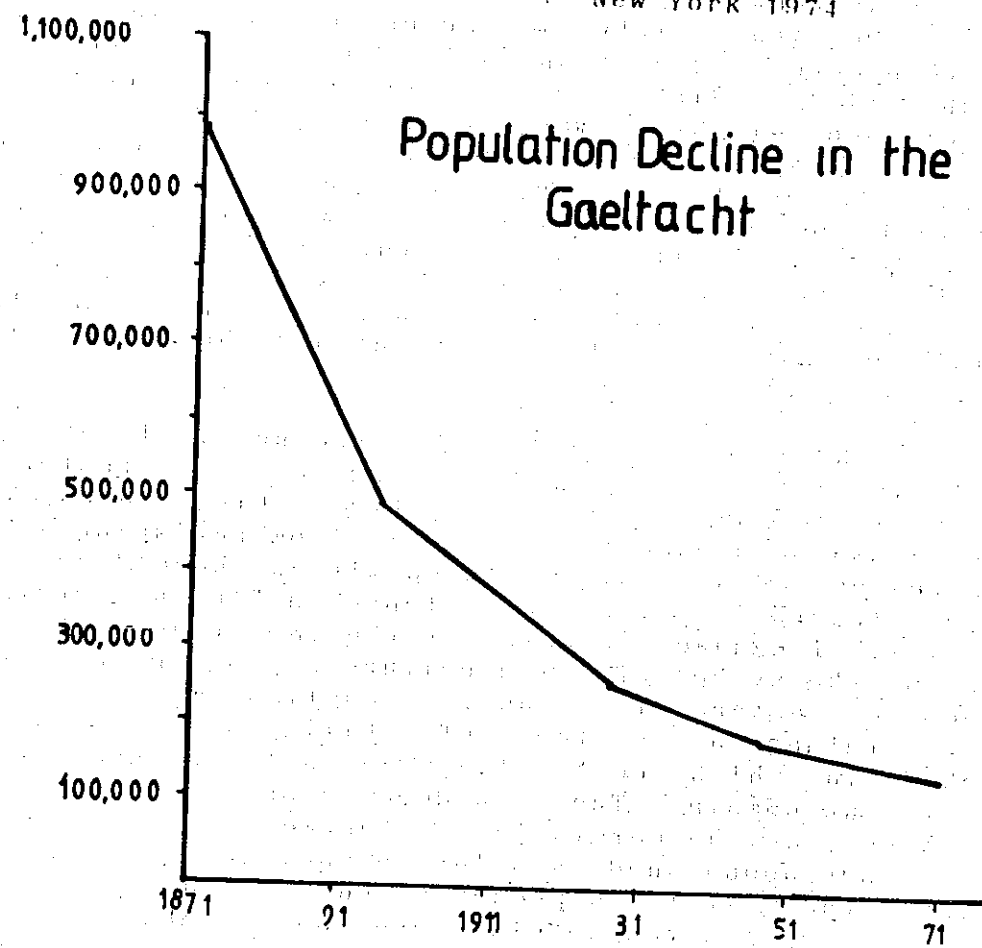
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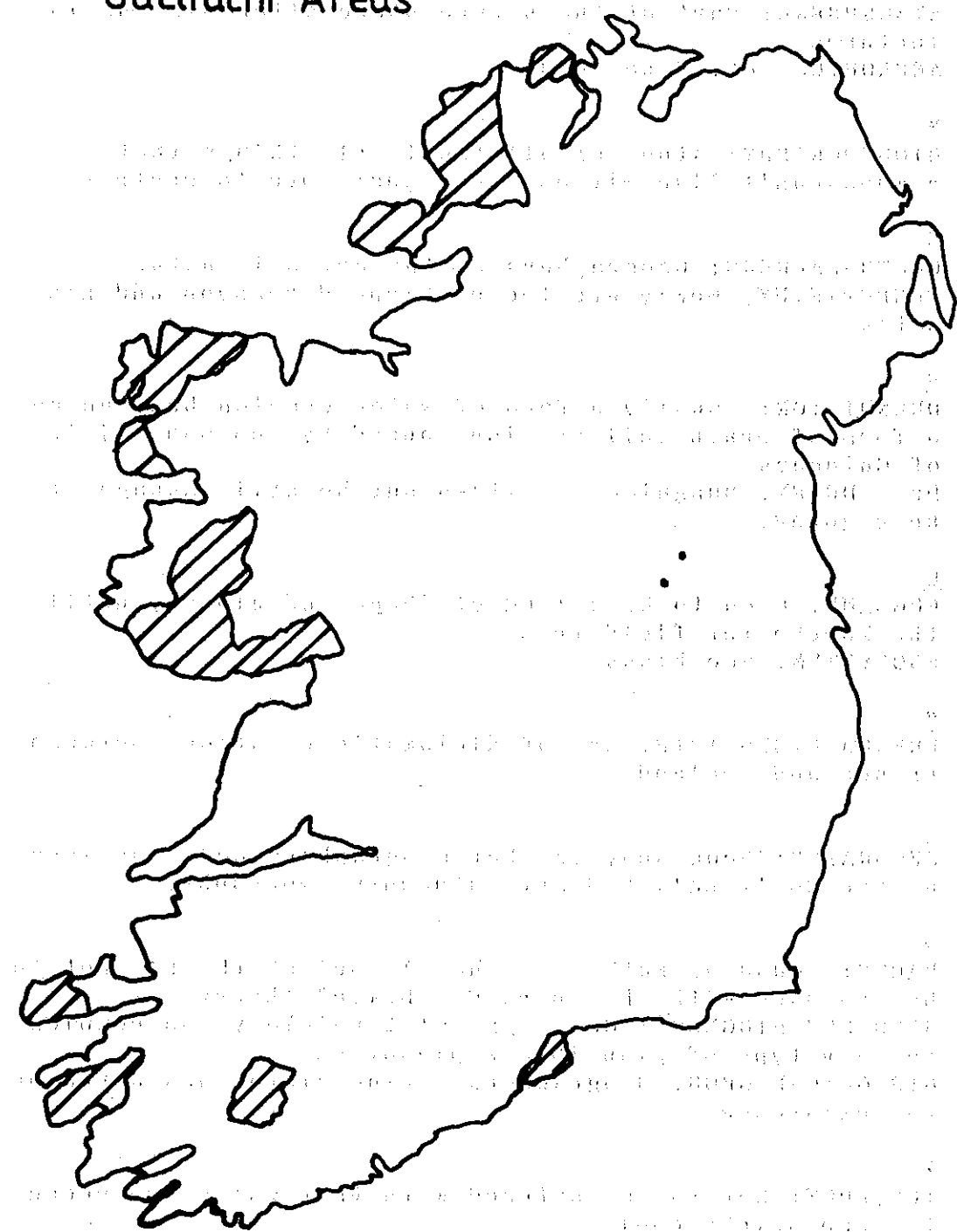
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## Gaeltacht Areas



# THE NEW MAYNOOTH DICTIONARY OF GEOGRAPHY

**A**  
A.I.D.S.: We never knew Emmett was a Rhesus Monkey.  
c.f Harte  
ATMOSPHERE: Part of the stratosphere often missing in lectures  
ANEROBICS: cf. Jane Fonda.

**B**  
BIOGEOGRAPHY: study of all the little things that humans can't live without, but just love to destroy.

**C**  
CARTOGRAPHERS: Geographers of the artistic nature.  
CONDOMINIUM: Newly erected by Richard Branson and his mates.

**D**  
DRENDITION: Usually a form of water erosion but can be a form of brain-cell erosion caused by too many pints of Guinness.  
Dr. DUFFY: Bungalow - Blitzed but he still manages to keep going.

**E**  
ENGLAND: Used to be a land of "hope and glory", until the Manchester field trip.  
EGOSYSTEM: See Flash

**F**  
FRENCH FIELD TRIP: End of diplomatic relations between France and Ireland.

**G**  
GEOGRAPHY: "Geography is what geographers do" - as long as you don't call 2nd Arts students geographers.

**H**  
HARTE: Founding Father of the "A. Drive" theory- not to be confused with the "Hard C. Drive" theory.  
HIGGLEDY-PIGGLEDY: Geographical terminology too complex for any type of plausible explanation.  
HISTORICAL GEOG: Geographers giving historians a reason for existence.

**I**  
ICE-FLOW: Not to be confused with that which is needed to keep drinks cool.  
INERT: State of mind before, during and after Geography

Practicals.

**J**  
JET STREAM: More frequently referred to as "Percy at the Porcelaine."

**K**  
KONDRATIEF CYCLE: Usual mode of transport of geographers.

**L**  
LECTURE HALL: Large dormitory.  
LONGSHORE DRIFT: Movement of material along a sea-shore - may be witnessed as students leave the Roost and attempt to walk home.

**M**  
MAYNOOTH: Host town to one of the best universities in Ireland - filled with people who adore students.  
M.U.M.M.S.: One of our lecturers keeping up family ties.

**N**  
NETHERLANDS: Unique country where children learn to swim before they can (ride bicycles) walk.

**O**  
OCEAN: Vast amount of water that is the only thing ensuring that we don't become completely American.

**P**  
DR. PRINGLE: Small, furry, unloved creature. One of our lecturers.  
POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY: Five hypothesis, four pages of notes, three basic principles per lecture, two nations, one island, and a partridge in a pear tree.

**Q**  
QUATERNERY: Length of a physical geography lecture on a Monday morning at 10 O'Clock.

**R**  
RAIN: Most common feature of the Irish climate during leisure time, least common whilst studying for exams.

**S**  
DR. SMYTH: God-like mortal who is head of the geography department - Beloved of all geography students.  
DR. SWEENEY: Not to be confused with "Sweeny Todd". Was fed dictionaries when being weened onto solid food - they are still his staple diet.

**T**  
TRADE WINDS: Not be confused with the air flowing from

Mr. McKigney's economic geography lectures.

U  
UNEMPLOYED: State of life without work - not to be confused with history students.

V  
VOLCANIC ERUPTIONS: No comment.

W  
Mr. WALSH: Lecturer who could take no more.

X  
XEROPHYTE: Plants that, unlike some students (and lectures) require very little liquid refreshment.

Y  
Yardang: Ridge formations in clay and silts running parallel to the wind direction - very similar to the ridge formation on lectures foreheads caused by the intense pressure of everyday life.

Z  
Zeugen: Very similar to the yardang, and the only geographical term found that begins with Z

# AIDAN'S

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### THE CULTURAL LANDSCAPE: REFLECTED IN THE HOUSE TYPES OF THE SOUTH MEATH/ NORTH KILDARE AREA.

In this paper, the intention is to study the house types of the nineteenth century South Meath /North Kildare area. As this was an important agricultural region, the house type under discussion are related to the particular agricultural enterprise. Within this agricultural sector the various members were differentiated by the size of the holdings they farmed, which reflected itself physically in the houses they occupied and their accompanying outbuildings.

The houses of the cottier and of the tenant farmer occupying up to about 60 acres, seem to have been one storey and often built of clay with a thatched roof. They have not survived to any extent into the present. The few that remain are so highly prized and sought after that they have a value far beyond that of the surrounding land and have come into the hands of the more affluent urban population; one sold recently fetching £ 55,000 outside Kiltale, Co Meath.

The tenant farmer with over 60 acres seems to have declared this fact to the world by building himself a two storied dwelling to the same basic design. Within this standard design there were a few variations, and the size of the farm seems to have decided the variation chosen to a very predictable extent.

My first example is of the house built by the 60-100 acre farmer. This was the basic two storied house having a rectangular structure with five windows on the front, three on the upper level and two on the ground level directly under the outer two top windows. The door is in the centre directly under the centre top window. Inside is this house originally there may have been six rooms, three downstairs, three upstairs each of the three exactly the same size. Originally there may have been a ladder along one wall going from the centre ground floor to the centre top floor. This is by now a narrow steep stairway. In the two end rooms there are usually two windows, one on the front wall and one on the back wall. The middle room often has no window at the back because the stairs blocks off this wall space. The windows are almost always sash type, usually, with a single large pane of glass in each half. Though the house is built of stone, the stabling may originally have been mud walled, thatched and single storied. By now the thatch has been long replaced and the mud wall too have been replaced by the cement block.

These houses generally stand exposed, without any ornamental surroundings. The best example of this type of house is to be found in North Meath, where the land was not quite as fertile and tended therefore to be given out in smaller lots.

100 The next and probably the most common type of house is that one found on the 100-150 acre farm. The frontal view displays a similar structure of the previously mentioned house type. However the depth has increased to allow for two rows of rooms to be built. The windows though still sash type now will have usually six smaller panes of glass in each half. The centre room will now be used purely as a hallway and the stairs rather than being tucked away, will be a feature of the hall, the stabling built of stone and the roof slated. The loft was important for storing corn where it would be dry and could not absorb ground moisture. Looking at all these tenanted farms it becomes obvious that a man was at least as much respected by the size and number of out-buildings as by the house in which he lived. The yard or yards became more a feature, being built close to the main dwelling house and forming with it an integral unit. The front of the house will now have a small area set aside for ornament with lawn, flowers and shrubs. It will have been built some distance from the road. The driveway was generally not fenced off from the surrounding fields, and ran to the rear of the house rather than the front.

The prosperity of the farm was displayed in the number of its out buildings. Instead of just one yard, there now was two. The inner yard contained extensive stabling for the horses, milking cows, calves, horse traps, fuel shed and living accommodation for a labouring boy or young man. All of these buildings were two storied and built in a square enclosing the yard. The older married workman often lived in small gate lodge on the farm.

The driveway generally ended at this inner yard. A gateway from this yard led to another yard, here, the cattle were kept, each one tied by the neck and fed the threshed corn that had been stored in the abundant lofts in the inner yard. The unthreshed corn was stored there also. This "Back Yard" would be again enclosed on four sides by stone walled slate sheds or "byres". This back yard was usually cobble stoned unlike the gravelled inner yard, because the small stones would enter the hooves of the stall fed cattle and make them lame.

These buildings were built onto the side of the house in matching stone and slate usually set back slightly to give an impression of a very large and complex unit. The wall was usually balanced on the other side of the house by an equally high wall - often topped with ivy - which enclosed a vegetable garden.

One or often two maids were employed to help with the housework. Sometimes even a "Governess" was employed to look after the children. In these large houses the kitchen was always at the back of the house and the dining room and drawing room were always overlooking the grounds at the front of the house. Therefore the distance from the kitchen to the dining area is often quite considerable. The kitchen is by now divided into at least three

compartments. One is the large working area where all the cooking, washing, etc. is done and also where all the staff eat their meals. There are usually two smaller rooms off this large room. One is usually called the "Dairy" where all the milk, butter, eggs, etc. were kept. This room was built facing north or north east and because of this was cooler. The second little room off the kitchen was the "pantry", where all the delph, china, table cloths, cutlery, etc. were always stored. In addition to the two little rooms off the kitchen, there often were two more small rooms. These would have been the maids bedrooms. Sometimes the maids bedrooms were on the second floor with access being gained by a stairway leading directly from the kitchen. These bedrooms would overlook the yards at the back of the house and it was part of the maids/governess job to look after the children at night time if they cried or were sick. The main bedrooms would always be over looking the front of the house.

To be able to build and maintain a house and farmyard of the size just described, a farmer would have to farm between 500/1000 acres of land. This was not that uncommon in the South Meath/North Kildare area at that time. In addition to these large tenanted farms there were freehold farms of a similar size. The tenant farms were almost totally, though not exclusively, tenanted by Catholics where as the freehold properties generally were Protestant owned. Though they might hunt with the same pack, buy and sell cattle from each other and serve on local committees, mix socially, their outlook was very different. The Protestant though nominally Irish would have been educated in England. From boarding school he may have gone to university or more likely the army, coming home only when the "Old Man was on longer able to run things". By this time he would have acquired a title such as Major or Colonel. Their houses are usually larger again with three stories instead of two and a basement or semi-basement. Unlike the Catholic tenant who kept his servants off the kitchen or at the back of the house, the Protestant farmer always housed them in a basement.

One usually enters one of these establishments by driving through a large gateway, often bounded by semi-circular stone walls with a pier at each end and two central pillars from which the gates are hung. Sometimes the walls are about 2.5 feet high on top of which is railing of wrought iron about 4 feet high.

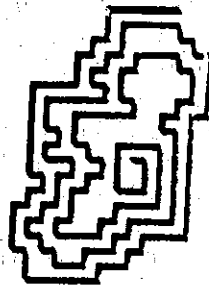
All the houses I have described so far were completed in one building operation. However in many cases the house type was modified as the farm size increased and the prosperity of the farmer grew. One such house is "Clonmahon House" in Summerhill. Originally built in 1840, the house contained the traditional two storey five window configuration, with the single storied outhouses. By 1860 the narrow stairs had to be changed to a central curving stairs. To facilitate this modification a small leanto had to be built on at the back about 1.5 stories

high. Two windows were then made in the gable end. About 1880 servants were being employed, so a larger kitchen, dairy and pantry was built on with one larger room overhead.

In conclusion the above is by no means a definitive description of the farm houses in the South Meath /North Kildare area, but it is, rather, a description of part of the cultural landscape of the area.

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## AN DOIGH AR MHAIR NA DAOINE I nGAOTH DOBAIR

Sé an cur síos a rinne Seán 'ac Fhionnaile ar shuíomh Ghaoth Dobhair na

"Ta' Gaoth Dobhair suite ar an taobh thiar thuaidh do Thír Chonaill, a aghaidh leis an Atlantach, agus a chúl ag fáil foscaíodh agus didean ó shraith sléibhte ag tuiseacht leis an Eargail. Taobh a'Leithead, ansin cuid sléibhte Dhoire Bheatha, siar ó dheas uaidh sin tá Cnoc na Foradh agus níos faide soir arís an Mhucais".(O sceal Ghaoth Dobhair).

Tugann an cuntas breá seo ar shuíomh na paróiste eolas an mhaith dhúinn ar an cineál áit atá i nGaoth Dobhair-áit lom ghaothaidh, ceantar le droch thalamh atá brúite istigh idir na sléibhte agus an fharraige mhór.

Caorán atá san chuid is mó do Ghaoth Dobhair agus is beag talamh oibre atá ann. De thairbhe chomh beag leis na páirceanna agus an eibhir chloch liath bheith ag gobadh aníos tré an chreafog bhocht thanaí, is féidir a thuigbheal go maith gur deacar aon dul cinn a dhéanamh ó thaobh talmhaíochta de.

Sa lá atá inniú ann níl mórán do mhuintir Ghaoth Dobhair ag bráth ar an talmhaíocht mar slí beatha. Tá an mhór chuid dóibh ag obair i dtionscail nó móna, le lascaireacht, na seirbhísí nó ar an Screabán.

'Sna blianta a chuaigh thart agus gan mórán tionsclaíocht sa pharóiste, cén dóigh ar mhair na daoine? Bhí na daoine ag obair leis an fheirmeoireacht agus iad ag iarraidh pigneacha a dhéanamh ar obair feirme taobh amuigh den Pharóiste.

Tugann Paddy "the Cope" Ó Gallachóir ó na Rosa, eolas dhúinn ar an dóigh a mhair muintir Ghaoth Dobhair agus na Rosa.

"The people of Gweedore and the Rosses could not survive for one year without their earnings from the Lagan and Scotland".(O 'My Own Story, Paddy "the cope"1923).

Bhí ar mhór chuid do na daoine fosta imeacht go hAlbain, agus chomh maith le sin bhíodh na paistí ar feadh tréimhsí dó sé mhí ar an Lagan. Gnáth obair feirme a bhíodh ar siúl i nAlbainn ag na fir agus ag na mná. Bhíodh an obair a bhíodh le deanamh ag na mná chomh cruaidh le obair na bhfear. Bhíodh orthu bheith amuigh ag tógail phreataí, ag tabhairt bia don éallach, agus ag tógail fodair.

Cuireann Patrick Mc Gill síos ar an abair chruaidh na mná ina leabhar "Children of the Dead End"-

"All day long women had to drag their hands and knees through the slush and rubble of the fields. The baskets which they handed after them were cased in clay to a depth of several inches, and sometimes when emptied of potatoes, a basket weighted two stones. Pools of rain water gathered in the hollows of the dresses that covered the calves of their legs. Sometimes they rose and shook the water from

their clothes and then went down to their knees again".

Na fíir i nAlbain bhíodh gach cíneal obair feirmeoireacht chomh maith le obair thógála ar siúl acu. San "Report on 'Agricultural Labour' in Scotland" luaitear faoin obair a bhíodh ar siúl ag na fíir ar na feirmeacha i nAlbainn.

"The Irish men arrive early in the year for potato planting, taking next turnip singling, then early potato lifting and lastly the corn harvest".

Bhíodh an chuid is mó de mhuintir Ghaoth Dobhair ina gconai i dtithe ar a dtugtar "Bothies" agus iad ag obair le feirmeoirí i nAlbainn. Sé an phríomh chúis a bhí le seo ná go raibh na feirmeacha chomh scaite agus an córas lompar chomh olc sin nach dtiocfaidh taisteal go dtí an obair at na feirmeacha. Cúis eile go raibh orthu an "Bothie" d'úsáid nó go raibh an córas seo tithíocht saor i naisce do oibrithe ar an bfeirm.

Caidé an cíneal áit a bhí san "Bothie Seo"? Foirgnimh a bhí iontu-sciobáil corr uair a raibh na leapacha go léir i mór sheomra. Da réir Paddy the Cope, bhí leapacha chochain agus plainceidí móra garbha d'olainn ag na daoine le luf air. Bhí áit tineamh ann agus ba ghnáth leis na h-oibhrithe an bia a dhéanamh réidh dóibh fhéin ann. Cuireann Paddy the Cope síos ar an Bothie mar:

Bothies were very disagreeable; to gain access to many of them you had to ascend by means of a round sparred ladder leading up from the byre or stable. With a fire and semi-darkness this place presented a very gloomy and decidedly uninviting appearance for any human being to sleep in".

Ach, caidé faoi na páistí? Ó bheadh na páistí déich nó dhá bhliain déag, bheadh orthu dhul ar an obair seo 'An Fhostach' ar feadh se mhí den bhliain. Go dtí an Lagan a rachadh na páistí seo idir ghasúirí agus cailíní. Bhíodh aonach ar an 12ú Bealtaine agus an 12ú Samhain i Leitir Ceanainn, Baile na nGallóglach agus ar an tSrath Bán. An "Rabble" a thugtaí ar an aonach fostaíthe seo.

Cuireann Patrick Mac Gill síos ar na h-aontaigh fostaigh seo:

"It was easy to know when the Omagh men came, for they overcrowded an already big market. Most of them were fat, angry looking fellows, who kept moving up and down examining us after the manner of men who seek out the good and bad point of horses they intend to buy. A big man with a heavy stomach came up to me... 'How much do you want for six months?' he asked. 'Six Pounds', I told him. 'Shoulders too narrow for that money' he said, more to himself than to me and walked on". -Patrick Mac Gill.

Sé an abair a bhíodh ar siúl ag na buachaillí óga nó amharc indiaidh an beo stoc de ghnáth chomh maith le gnaíth obair feirme. Na cailíní ar an dtaobh eile den sáil bheadh orthu obair an tigh a dhéanamh. Bhíodh smail an chruaidh ag na páistí seo agus de thoradh go bhíodh an t-áit páistí ar "An Fhostach" gach bliain d'fhág seo gan aon oideachas.

Is leir mar sin go raibh gach duine idir óg agus iosta ag obair go cruaidh le bheith beo i nGaoth Dobhair san áit chuaigh thart. Bhí na teaghlaigh mór agus an t-airgead gann.

Níl an saol cruaidh i nAlbainn nó ar an Lagan, bheagan airgid ann níos mó. Tá na feirmeacha i Mid Lothain, Roxburgh, N. Lanarkshire, Renfrew, Ayrshire, Lanark agus Ayr anois gan na hEireannaigh. Tá na gleasra úra sna pairceanna. Níl ar an hEireannaigh imeacht ag obair leis an 'bhaile' a choinneáil níos mó. Tá obair le fáil sa bhaile i nGaoth Dobhair. Tá muid i ré-úr agus is maith an rud é.



## THE LINEN INDUSTRY - THE EXPERIENCE OF Co. ROSCOMMON

By the end of the eighteenth century, Ireland had a highly developed Linen Industry with a strong export market. By 1758, it accounted for 80% of Irish exports to Britain providing employment throughout all of Ulster, Connaught and North Leinster, in addition to West Cork and parts of Kerry. At this stage Linen was a domestic industry, spinners and weavers worked in their homes and sold their produce at the market.

The rapid rise of the industry can in part be attributed to the English decision to remove the duties on Irish Linen. The government in both London and Dublin were anxious to encourage the growth of the industry and in 1711 the Linen Board was established to regulate and subsidise the industry. Money was granted to establish bleachgreen, knowledge of new methods were spread and prizes for outstanding work by spinners, weavers or bleachers were awarded.

As the demand for cloth increased, the Ulster Linen Drapers found that they had to attend more markets to purchase enough webs from the weavers. Linen and yarn was brought by pack-horse on cart to the big markets by dealers who travelled around the small town and villages in West Ulster and North Connaught. As well as purchasing linen and yarn, provisions such as oats and cattle were also purchased. As a result the economies of Ulster and North Connaught became interdependent.

Through the efforts of the Linen Board, attempts were made to establish the industry on a sounder foot in throughout Ireland. The success of their enterprises were hindered by the need to import and depend upon northern techniques, weavers and bleachers. A solution to the problem was sought through the introduction of prizes for the cloth best suited to the English markets. The aim was to attract into the trade traditional bandle linen weavers (bandle Linen was a coarse cloth which was used by the Irish tenant farmer and labourer for the manufacture of clothing). At first they were successful and many landlords subscribed to further prizes. However, with a slump in the trade in 1773, many of the weavers were unable to sell their cloth and therefore returned to weaving bandle linen, which could sell locally. This crisis marked the end of the attempt to commercialise linen weaving on a countrywide scale. (Crawford 1869 27).

The mechanisation of the industry and its contraction in to the core area of the Lagan valley resulted in a serious loss of income in peripheral regions. Serious threat also emanated from technical developments in the Cotton industry which meant that the price of cotton articles could undercut that of linen articles in both home and export markets. In North Connaught, it led to the total collapse of the industry. Weaving was now chiefly

confined to the making up of webs for use of the peasantry. The quality of the produce deteriorated rapidly and the looms fell into disrepair (Crawford 1872 43). Weavers returned to weaving bandle linen, which required little skill and commanded a lower price. However, even demand for this type of cloth decreased.

The linen industry played an important role in the rural economy of County Roscommon in the late eighteenth century and early nineteenth century. As the economy of the county was so closely tied to the economy of Ulster, both in terms of Linen yarn and provisions, the decline of the industry had serious repercussions. Within the county the industry was enthusiastically encouraged by some of the major landlords, under the guidance of the Linen Board. From examination of the papers relating to the Strokestown estate, it is clear how seriously they regarded the industry. Throughout the latter half of the eighteenth century, correspondence between the Strokestown estate and the Linen board in Dublin were numerous. A bleach green was established at Strokestown in 1773 and premiums were received from the Linen board both from bleaching and the production of linen cloth. The Strokestown market was carefully monitored with cloth only of specific length and breadth. The name and residence of the manufacturer had to be inscribed on the cloth admitted for sale. Each piece of cloth had to be measured and stamped by the Seal master. For neglecting to follow these guidelines the seal master was liable to face fines of between 10-40 shillings, while the manufacturer was liable to a fine of 5 shillings for attempting to sell faulty linen cloth. Strict guidelines were also imposed on the purging of yarn.

Some indication is also given of the amount of linen cloth produced, the prices paid and the wages earned by the weavers. In 1773 it is recorded that 20,000 yards of linen yarn were bleached in the bleach green at Strokestown. In 1791, accounts show that £25 16s 11d was paid by Patrick Mahon for 721 yards of linen cloth, (an average of 14 shillings per yard). In 1790 John Cooper paid £5 16s for weaving four cloths. (Ms 10 126).

The Pakenham Mahon family also rented out looms to tenants on their estate. From examination of the Mahon rent roll dealing with the townland of Cloonshannon (1810-1814) eighteen tenants were listed as paying a sum of 11s 4d per annum for the rent of a loom. These tenants were also paying rent for a conacre of land presumably for the purpose of growing potatoes.

Despite this evidence it seems likely that the quantity of linen cloth produced within County Roscommon was small. The cloth woven in this district were either brought by the Mahons themselves or sold at the markets of Longford or Granard. Weaving seems to have been confined mainly to the production of bandle linen cloth which had only a localised demand. From the late eighteenth century, there had not been any linen market within the county. Up

to this time one had existed in Boyle, but this closed, due to competition of the more extensive markets at Sligo and Longford. In 1760, an attempt was made by some London merchants to extend the industry in the county. A large factory was built as Castlereagh to which a number of weavers gathered. However, their skills were so poor, and consequently the quality of the produce so inferior, that the factory failed. An attempt to revive the later met with a similar failure (Linen Board 1817: 332). Therefore it appears that the efforts of the Linen Board, even with the enthusiastic support of the Mahon family, failed to establish the production of Linen cloth on a firm foundation within Co Roscommon.

However, while the County was not involved in the production of linen cloth the spinning of flax into yarn was extensively practiced. The Linen yarn was sold to the yarn jobber, who travelled from market to market buying supplies for the Ulster weavers.

The extension of the Linen industry into the countryside was seen as an opportune way of increasing rural incomes. However, spinning wheels were scarce and women often had to walk miles in order to obtain one. In 1796, the trustees of the Linen Board operated a scheme by which premiums were paid to those growing flax. A premium was awarded according to the area the claimant sowed in flax. Thus, for every rood of flax planted a free spinning wheel was obtained. As a result of this scheme, a claim for 3,341 spinning wheels were received from County Roscommon. The vast majority of the claimants were for one spinning wheel, signifying that the majority of the claimants sowed no more than one rood of flax. Fig 1 shows the distribution of claimants for spinning wheels in 1791. As can be seen the distribution was spacially selective with major concentration in both the mid-east and mid-west of the county. A number of reasons can be attributed to this concentration. Firstly we can see the influence of the landlord in action. The concentration in the mid-east of the County is likely to be due to the influence of the Mahon family whose estates included much of this area. The concentration of spinning wheel claims in the mid-west is likely to have been influenced by the Sandford family, who controlled much of the land in the area, and who were actively involved in promoting the Linen industry. However, perhaps a more important reason for these concentrations is linked the land quality and population distribution. County Roscommon had long been renowned for its grazier enterprises. Arthur Young in 1776 reports "A great part of Roscommon particularly from Athlone to Boyle, 30 miles long and 10 miles broad is sheep-walk... the farms rise to 3,000 acres, few are under 400-500 acres" (p215). Owing to the size of these farms the areas they occupied were sparsely populated. However on areas of less fertile land the population distribution was considerably more dense. These were the areas of small farmers where subdivision was rampant. Fig 2 shows the distribution of population in 1841. (1841 census is used

as the data is more extensive and accurate than the census material available for earlier years.) We immediately can observe a concentration of population in the mid-east which closely correlates to the concentration of spinning wheel claimants. The land here is less fertile and liable to flooding. The apparent sparcity of population in the mid-west is misleading. If we study the land quality map (fig 3) we can see that much of this region is blanket bog. As a result the habitation would have been restricted to the edges of the bog and therefore population density would be far more concentrated than the map (fig 2) suggests. This information gives us an insight into those involved in the spinning of yarn.

A great problem facing the yarn business was the irregularity of the bringing of the produce to the market. From the extent of the county and the number of fairs, amounting to 90 each year, it was impossible for the inspectors to detect and prevent fraud. These fairs attracted an average of 50 buyers exclusively for yarn. Mr. Peter Bernard, who undertook a tour of inspection of the provinces on behalf of the Linen Board in 1817, praised the efforts of the Sandfords in trying to regulate and improve the sale of yarn. An enclosed linen market had been established at Castlereagh, with a particular hour of sale appointed, and a system developed to achieve regularity in the examination of the yarn for sale (Linen Board 1817).

Masons Parochial Survey (1813) comments on the advantages derived from the spinning of yarn. With regard to the parish of Kilmore he comments that the people of the area dressed in a style superior to their station in life. This was particularly true of the females who were seen to be very fashionable in their dress. The money earned from spinning of flax allowed them to purchase ornamental clothing which ordinarily they would have been unable to afford.

The decline of the linen industry was signified by the decline in the amount of flax being sown, in the amount of linen being presented for sale and in a worsening of living standards. Wakefield (1812) comments, on the large amount of flax being cultivated, however by 1832, when Weld visited the county there was no more than a few patches of flax to be seen scattered thinly throughout the county. By this time sufficient yarn was not been spun to supply even the local demands.

Evidence accumulated by the Poor Law Inquiry (1836) gives us an impression of consequences of the decline of the linen industry. A Mr. Gaffney in the parish of Kilkeevan states "while the linen industry lasted, I never knew a man afraid of his landlord. If he was pushed hard for the rent, he could always get as many female hands as would spin enough yarn against the next market day, and then he might defy the landlord but all that has gone" (B.P.P. 1836 Appendix A :127). In the parish of Killenvoy,

Mathew Kelly a weaver states that he could earn no more than 8 pence per day from weaving, and this lasted for about 3 months in the year. In contrast, eighteen years previously he could earn as much as 3 shillings each day all year round. In the parish of Kilkeevan, it was reported that females ten years previously could earn 5 pence per pound of yarn spun. This had dropped to 2 pence by the 1830s, and even at this level, there was only enough employment satisfy one in fifty (B.P.P. 1835 Appendix A :127).

In the town of Boyle Weld (1832) reports that shopkeepers were complaining about the stagnation of commerce. They relate this stagnation of trade directly to the decline of the Linen industry which had greatly affected the spending power of the inhabitants of the area. At Roscommon fair he states "I observed several women, with bleached linens though seldom with more than a single piece, in their arms, which they sheltered from the showers of rain, under their scarlet cloth cloaks, but it was a painful sight to behold nearly the whole of these poor women after standing in the market from nine in the morning until near six in the evening trudging homeward with their linen unsold (Weld 1832).

Therefore looking at the accumulated information above some conclusions with regard to the linen industry in county Roscommon can be drawn. While there was little involvement in the weaving of linen cloth, the production of linen yarn seems to have been very important to the economy. The spinning of linen yarn was important as a form of supplementary income for the small tenant farmers. It was primarily a female occupation, thereby allowing the males to continue with their agricultural activities. The production of linen yarn seems to have been confined to the small farm areas of the county, where the fertility of the agricultural land was poor and where subsistence tillage was the main agricultural enterprise. The industry was important in that it led to an increase of living standards and consequently the value of land increased, resulting in higher rents and greater competition for land.

The linen industry in Roscommon was part of the integration of the economy of North Connaught into that of Ulster. It supplied the Ulster drapers with the raw materials attracting yarn jobbers south to buy supplies. Perhaps equally important was that these jobbers also bought food supplies. Therefore Roscommon became involved in supplying Ulster with necessary provisions. As the farmers of Ulster concentrated their energy on the weaving of linen cloth, the production of food declined. As a result Ulster became an important market for the grazier farmers of County Roscommon who supplied it with cattle and sheep. This is also true of other areas of North Connaught as documented in the O'Hara papers (Ms 20,397). The rising living standards in Ulster led to an increase in the prices being obtained by the grazier farms. Even the smaller farmer became involved in this inter-regional

trade. Corn, oats and wheat, especially from the area around Stokestown were transported northwards. The sale of eggs and bacon were also important.

Therefore, we can see that the linen industry in Roscommon was only part of the economy of that county, which in-turn was integrated into that of Ulster. As can be expected the mechanisation and consequent contraction of the linen industry in the early nineteenth century, had serious repercussions. Not only was an important supplementary income lost by the decline in the demand for yarn, but lost also was an important provisions market. Thus the decline of the linen industry had serious implications for the whole of the county, from the small tenant farmer, through to the larger grazier farmer and the major landlord.

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## DISTRIBUTION OF SPINNING WHEEL CLAIMANTS 1796 CO. ROSCOMMON

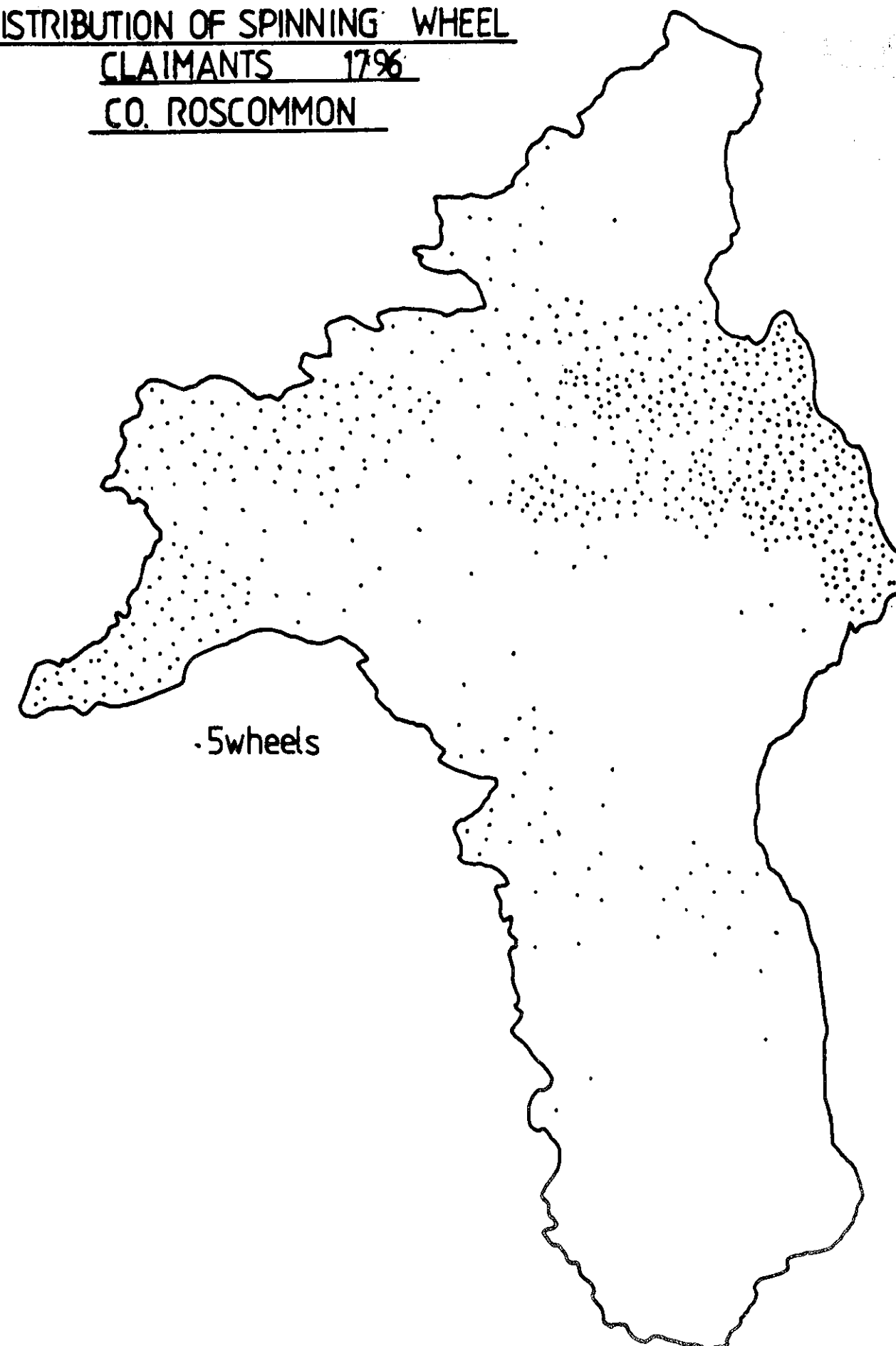


FIG 1

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION 1841  
CO. ROSCOMMON

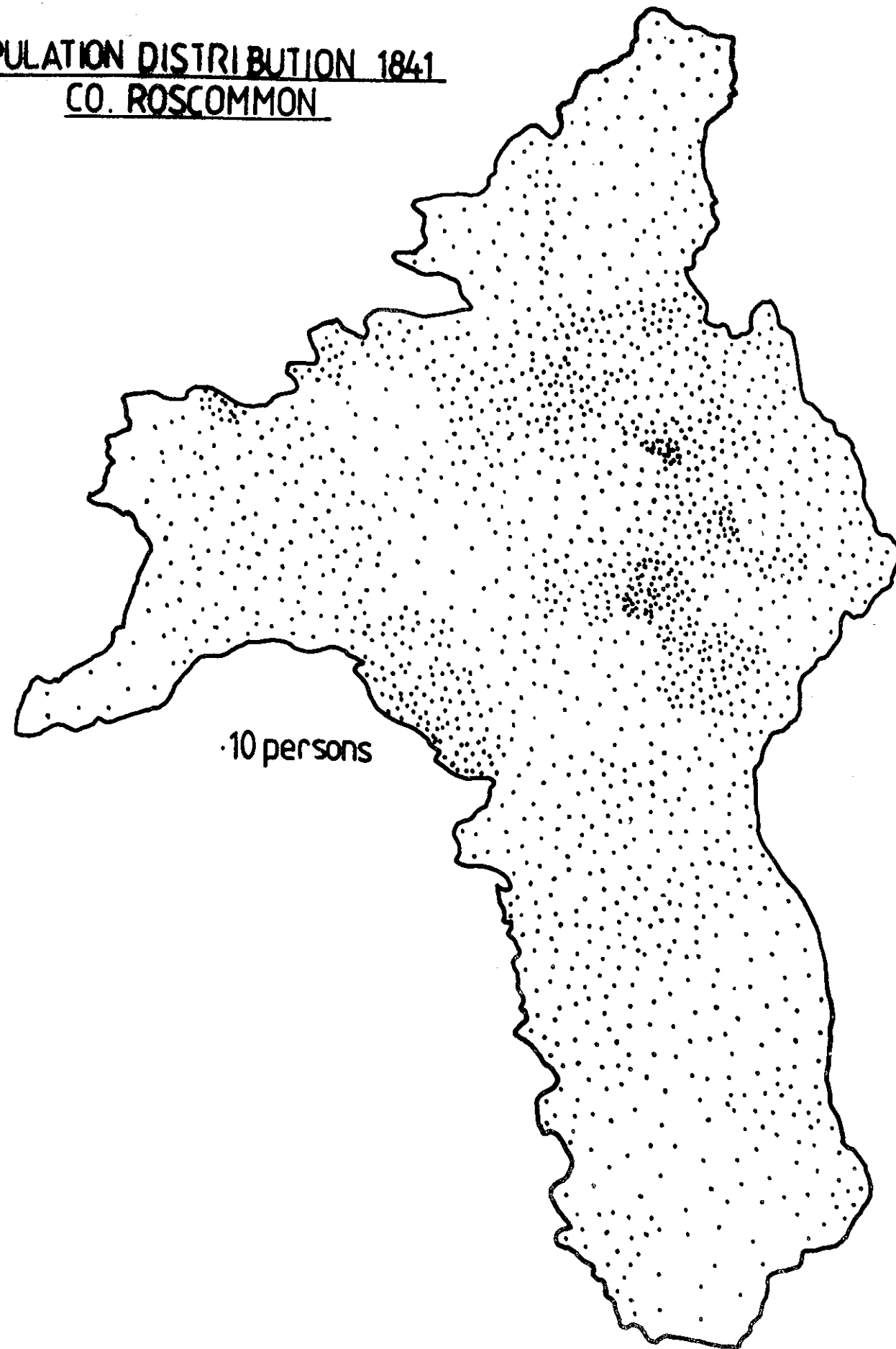


fig 2

CO ROSCOMMON  
GENERALISED LAND USAGE

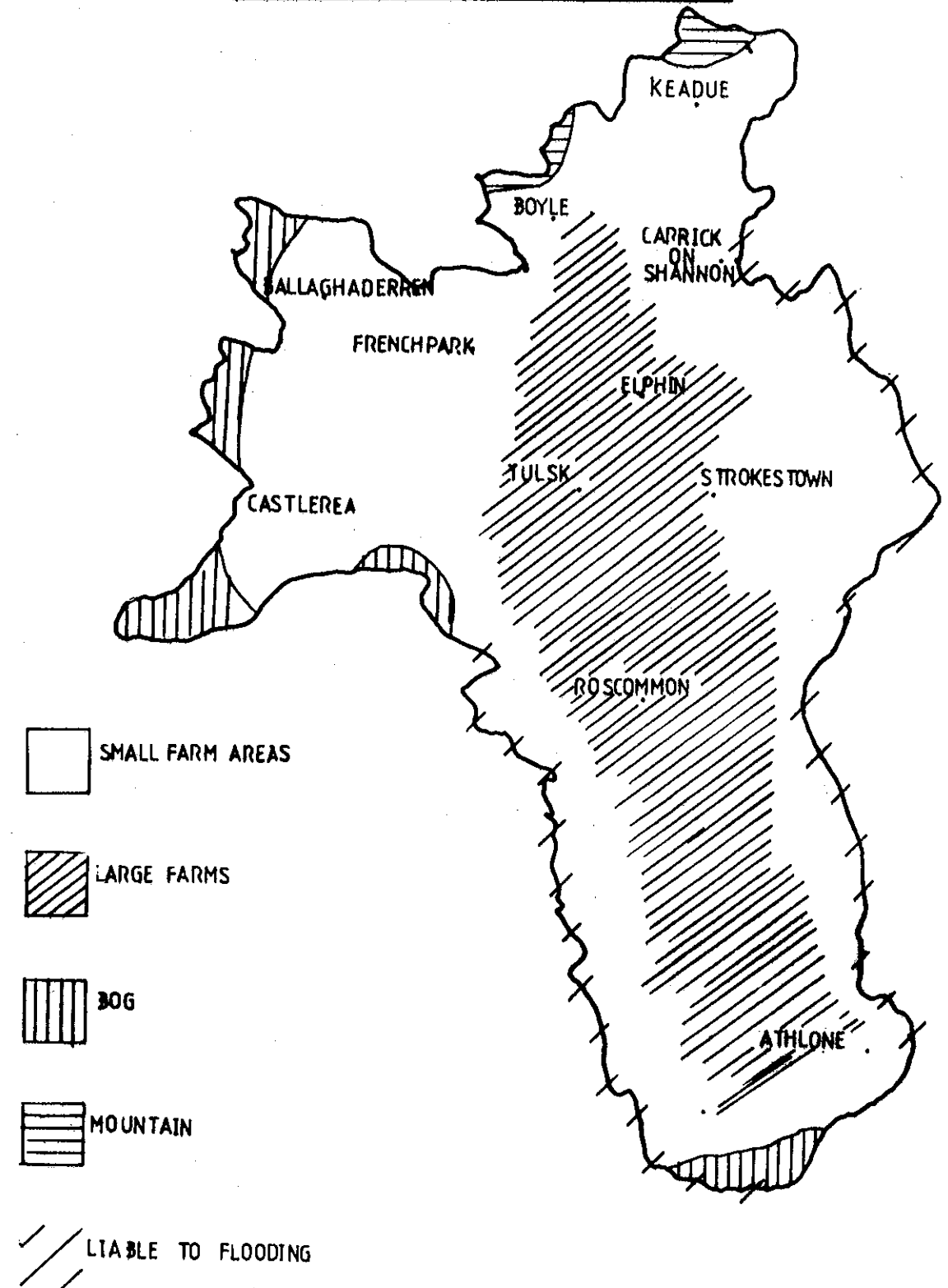


FIG 3



GEOG  
SOCIETY  
1888

