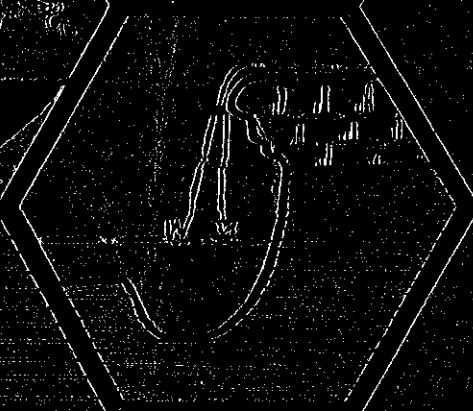
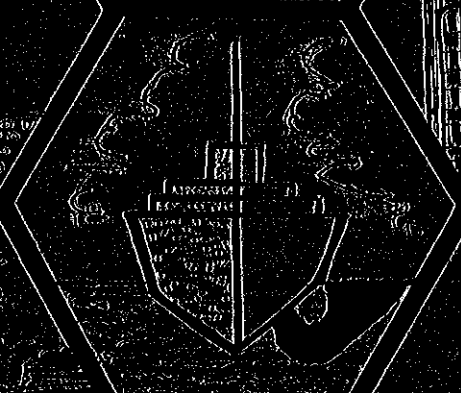
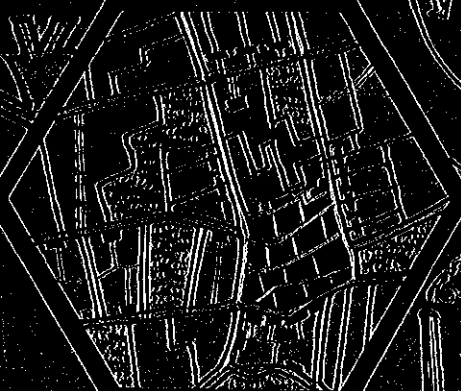
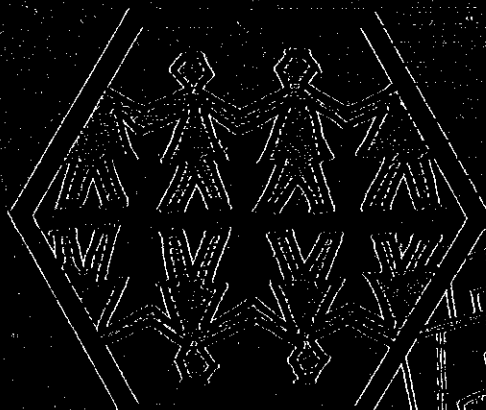


# milieu '75

geographical  
society  
inauguration



With love

from

Homer

#### FOREWORD

One might regard the title of this magazine - the first edition of the College Geographical Society - as in some respects and old-fashioned one. The notion of 'milieu' has been and can still be used exclusively with reference to the biophysical (physiographic, climatic and biotic) environment. To human geographers, however, it immediately conjures up an image of the famous early twentieth-century French school of la géographie humaine which was so influential in exploring the varying interrelationships between different societies and their physical environments. This latter emphasis also helped to enhance the development of idea in geography both in relation to the character and structure of 'humanised/cultural landscapes' and the importance of the regional approach in the discipline. The term milieu thus embraces the notions of ecology, landscape and region - three recurring major themes in geographic research and teaching. At first sight, it is perhaps less easy to extend the idea of milieu to incorporate the current dominant concern of human geographers with exploring the nature of and generalising about the spatial (or territorial) organisation of societies. However, this latter drive towards a more rigorous scientific approach and its greater emphasis on more concise general theories, can be interpreted as representing the reintegration and reorientation of the traditional interests of the geographer - focussing directly on relationships between societies and environments, their territorial consequences and the resultant regional structures that have developed on the earth's surface. The more recent impact of ideas and approaches from the behavioural/biological sciences on geographic research and teaching has likewise revitalised this concept of milieu. In contrast to any puritanical restriction of the scope of the field, the term milieu may be seen to embrace the fullness and diversity of the geographic tradition.

This inaugural edition also reflects the diverse interests and backgrounds of its contributors. The editor, particularly, and his enthusiastic band of fellow-workers, are to be congratulated in bringing together a number of contributions from both first-year students on the one hand to post-graduate students in geography on the other. It is also refreshing to note the interdisciplinary character of many of the articles - illustrating the jostling together of two or more academic traditions which often leads to new ways of looking at old problems or opens up fresh areas of enquiry. It is also good to see contributions both from departmental and other College staff-members; however, most important, this venture represents a creative and cooperative effort by a large number of students themselves. Despite the severe constraints of often heavy lecture-loads, a still relatively confined curriculum and the pressures for many of a not-too distant examination, they have succeeded admirably in demonstrating what should be one central feature

of university life. In participating in extra-curricular activities such as this, the students both as individuals and as members of the university community gain insights into many things which the lecture-hall and the library can never fully cater for. Naturally there have been problems and setbacks re typing, lay-out, rewriting et al but these are all part of the on-going learning process. As a famous Irish university student observed quite some time ago, "one has to sin to grow".

W. J. Smyth.

MILIEU' 75.

The magazine of the Maynooth University Geographical Society

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The Maynooth University Geographical Society has endeavoured, since its inception in 1971-72, to cultivate and maintain student interest in geography. It is proud to be able to publish its own magazine after only three years of its existence. It is intended that 'Milieu' be an annual publication. Its purpose is to cater for some of our student geographical writing, especially when this entails geographical research.

*Milieu* '75 includes articles of varying interests, as is fitting in modern Geography. Two of the articles, for example, examine the writer and his interest to the Geographer. Diffusion analysis creeps in in another article, while an examination of marriage distances considers, among other things, the relationship between social and economic space. A study of regional development shows the modern geographer's application to planning, while an article on neo-colonialism reflects the concern for adequate social and economic development in any area. Yet another article on the place of poverty in geographical study reflects the interest of modern geography in social problems. More subtle and lighthearted articles are also included in *Milieu*, along with a very practical survey of honey production in Ireland. The latter deserves credit since it is the work of a first year student. The other articles are written by second and final year students, last year's graduates and members of the departmental and other staffs. Opinions expressed are not necessarily the editor's.

The committee, who have given up much of their time while working towards this publication, should be thanked for their work. The committee wishes to thank the department for any advice given for this first publication especially to Dr. W.J. Smyth who solved some practical problems connected with typing. We thank the advertisers and donors of money without whom *Milieu* '75 would not be economically viable. Not least among those to be thanked, of course, are the contributors of articles, whether published or not, because of the time and effort they gave in the preparation of those articles. Sean Casey deserves special mention as the contributor of the name and cover design of the magazine. He and his friends did much work on layout also. Miriam Flanagan did much of our cartography work too.

I hope that all readers, whether or not they are students of geography, will be keenly interested in some, if not all, of the articles in *Milieu* '75.

The Geography society was founded in 1971-72 under the patronage of Patrick Duffy. The first student to hold the post of auditor was Pat Goff, and he was replaced in 1972-73 by Jim Murphy. During these early years the structure of the present society was formulated. Tom Collins was elected auditor in 1973, and under his direction the activities of the Geography society were significantly expanded, with our first Inaugural Lecture and Dinner Dance, and our first open seminar, on problems relating to contemporary Ireland. Our auditor for the current year is Seamus Ryan.

The aim of our society is to cater for the Geographical interests of both geography students and the student body as a whole. Since its foundation one of the principle activities has been the organization of evening lectures, where speakers from within the college and from outside are invited to talk on some topics within their particular fields which are of geographical interest. To date we have had a very impressive line-up of speakers, while in the current academic year so far five speakers have addressed the society with two more planned for the last term. Our first speaker last October was Prof. Gordon Davies of Trinity and he introduced us to the varied human and physical landscape of the Hawaiian Islands. Fran Walsh shared his experiences and observations of a journey through East and West Germany in early November. Later in the first term Ciaran Tuite opened up a new area of interest for us with his lecture on Urban Planning in North America. Our final evening lecture of the first term was given by Stewart Daultry of U.C.D. who expounded to great effect on aspects of Urban Residential Perception among first year Geography students in U.C.D. Early in the second term Dr. Flanagan of U.C.G. addressed our society with a most interesting account of his field work in a townland in North-West Mayo. This term we are looking forward to hearing an t-Athair Tomas O Fionnachta lecture us on his impressions of a recent visit to India.

The first societies' fare was held in the Aula Max last October and the Geography society stand was very prominent. With the aid of maps and slides we attracted many new members. In 1973 the society held its first social evening in the Geography Lab., and this event was repeated this year with a high attendance. Tea was supplied after all our functions by our catering officers, Margaret O'Brien and Mary Furey, to whom the whole society is greatly indebted for all the work they have done.

The society held its first inaugural lecture and Dinner Dance in February 1974. On that occasion the guest lecturer was Dr. T. Jones Hughes, Prof. of Geography in U.C. D. A sherry reception was held

beforehand for invited guests and afterwards a large number attended a dinner dance in the Hitchin Post. In February of this year we held our Second Annual Inaugural. For the occasion we invited Dr. J. B. Caird of Glasgow University to lecture to us on the evolution of the Scottish cultural landscape. Dr. Caird's lecture which was preceded by a packed sherry reception, took us over two hundred years of Scotland's history and he gave wide-ranging descriptions of Scotland's varied landscape. Following his discussion of the evolution of the landscape he dealt at length and to great effect with the character of the contemporary Scottish landscape, pin-pointing the areas where industrialization and urbanization were developing along the same lines as most Western Countries. After the lecture Dr. Caird and the president of the college, Ant-athair Thomas O'Fiach were our guests at our dinner dance in the Hitchin Post. Despite the large increase in price for the dinner dance from the previous year we had a large attendance and it was a most enjoyable night for all. Representatives of many other departments within the college attended and very enjoyable diversions were supplied by Paddy Duffy and John Daly.

The Society has endeavoured to establish as an annual event, seminars relating to contemporary problems in Ireland - social, economic or cultural. In 1974, the first of the series was devoted to developmental problems in the 'West'.

In February of this year, the second seminar was focussed on the implications of the exploitation of our Marine Resources. Almost one hundred attended the meeting and were very fortunate in having such an interesting and stimulating panel of speakers: Mr. Frank O'Brien of the Department of Oceanography, U.C.G.; Dr. Keith Robinson of the Geological Survey and Dr. John De Courcey-Ireland of the Maritime Institute. All three speakers were agreed on the completely inadequate manner in which our policy-makers and legislators have utilised our marine resources.

Mr. O'Brien emphasised the importance of oceanographic studies in accumulating information and data on the plant and fish life in the sea and the very limited state assistance for such work as presently carried out in Galway. Dr. Robinson explained the geophysicist's role in detecting petroleum deposits in the sea bed and outlined the gradual adaptation of the Government to the changing exploitation possibilities: There were five on the staff of the Geological Survey in 1960 - today there are twentyfive and a continuing need for more personnel. Are we in the middle of a Great Oil Bonanza? Dr. Robinson was not over-confident. "You don't," he said, "bore a hole and see the oil gush up anywhere". And many of the deposits are in extremely deep waters.

Mr. De Courcey-Ireland ranged widely over our failure to properly exploit our sea resource potential. Of the 221,000 tons of fish

caught in the Celtic Sea in 1974, less than eight thousand tons were taken by Irish boats. Most went to Russian ships. We have no proper courses or instructors to train our fishermen. We have no ocean-going tankers - although we are progressing in one area: we have one lone experienced woman sailor! Because we have no hydrographic survey, the sand banks around our coasts have been unexplored since the British left. Dr. De Courcey-Ireland pointed to the pioneering work being carried out by the Maritime Institute in many areas related to our use of our seas' resources.

All the speakers agreed on the inadequacy of proper legislation to control marine resource use and the total lack of proper financial and budgeting allocations. Their papers provided an interesting discussion which concluded one of the most useful and informative Geography Society events of the year.

Throughout the year our functions have been well supported by the student body and the credit for this goes to our Public Relations Officer, Pat Donelan, whose talents of poster drawing have served the society well for every function.

Our Xerox lending system was established in 1972 and is operated every day by student volunteers. This year the laborious task of organizing the system is the lot of Fintan Diggan, and on behalf of all those who use the Xerox would like to thank him for the many difficult hours he has given to it. All the other members of the society deserve great credit for the excellent effort they put into society work during the year, Gerrard Duffy, Treasurer, last year's auditor Tom Collins and our enthusiastic first year representatives Cathy Carroll and Marguerite Crosbie.

The Society is very pleased that Gerard Duffy, having represented the Geography students at the annual Congress this year, came second place with his paper on the Diffusion of an Innovation in County Monaghan. The society hopes that this standard will be sustained over the years.

Last November a committee was formed to organize the publication of a magazine. This magazine represents the culmination of long hours of work and countless meetings which contribute to this publication. As this is the first ever magazine many unfamiliar problems arose, but thanks to the energy and enthusiasm of the editor and his staff, none of them proved insurmountable, and we can now offer you our first magazine of articles by Geography students of the college.

*Seamus Ryan*

AUDITOR

Regional Development is a problem which has become important really only in the past thirty years or so since World War Two. Increasing affluence in the cities of Western Europe and North America, together with the accelerating drift of people from the countryside, particularly the poorer or lagging regions, has meant that a "crie de coer" has gone out from these areas for aid towards development.

Once it has been decided to give aid to underdeveloped or lagging regions the question then arises as to how that aid should be applied in order to derive the maximum benefit from it. It is here that the work of regional science students becomes relevant. One of the most controversial issues in the debate on the investment strategies in underdeveloped regions, both at the level of theory and of policy, has been that of growth centres.

The exponents of this theory argue that investment in the lagging regions should be concentrated in a few larger centres, rather than being widely dispersed throughout the region. This argument rests on two premises. The first is that "...concentration engenders both economies of localization and urbanization for the firm, economies of scale in infrastructure investment, and furthermore indivisibilities in the provision of many facilities serve as an agglomerating process. It is assumed that spatially polarised investment policies will maximise the inflow of exogenous capital and generate a productive environment in which an expanding export base will reduce the regional balance of payments deficit."

The second fundamental premiss of growth centre theory is that it is the most effective method of promoting higher levels of development over a much wider geographical area - clearly an important consideration for politicians. Berry has pointed out that "...growth impulses and economic development ...trickle down to smaller places and ultimately infuses dynamism into even the most tradition-bound peripheries".<sup>2</sup>

The present author has carried out research to evaluate the potential of a centre in the West of Ireland - one of the most underdeveloped regions of the E.E.C. - as a growth centre. The study attempted to answer two questions -

1. What, if any, is the growth potential of the centre - Castlebar?
2. To what extent does the centre trickle its growth down to its hinterland?

Part one of the study, therefore, involved an historical analysis of the growth and development of the centre since its foundation in 1240 when one of the Barry's from Buttervant built a castle there - hence the name Caislean A. Bharraigh. Henceforward, the development of Castlebar falls into three distinct phases -

1. The defensive or military phase - from its foundation to the middle of the 17th century during which time the settlement centred around the Castle and functioned as a defensive military outpost.
2. The commercial and industrial phase - from the beginning of the 17th century to the famine. In 1609 Richard Bingham, Governor of Connaught obtained a Charter for Castlebar which enabled it to hold an annual fair and a weekly mart. Thus was initiated the development of the town as a commercial centre.

The 18th century was an important era as far as the development of Castlebar is concerned. It was during this century that Castlebar acquired its function as a service centre for the surrounding rural hinterland. The century saw a flourishing in craft industries and in shops and retail establishments of various kinds. It saw the beginning of industry in the town. Young remarked that "... the town which belongs to Lord Lucan is greatly rising from manufactures."<sup>3</sup> At the beginning of the 19th century the industries in Castlebar included a brewery, a tannery, a soap factory, a candle factory, a tobacco factory and a brick factory as well as a very important linen industry.

After the 1820's manufacturing industry started to wane and poverty began to cripple the commercial functions of the town, the final blow coming with the famine.

3. The third phase in the development of Castlebar starts after the famine. Between the famine and the beginning of this century the town went through a period of stagnation, relying mainly on its service functions as a central place for its survival. The population declined from 6,373 in 1831 to 3,585 in 1911.

From 1911 the population has increased by 61.65% to 5,979 in 1971. This growth is attributable primarily to the development of the service sector of the Irish economy, since independence. The county hospitals, county council, P.& T. and E.S.B. all have their headquarters in the town. The centrality of the town, so important to its development since the 17th century has become even more important in the past ten years with the advent of the consumer society.

FIG 1

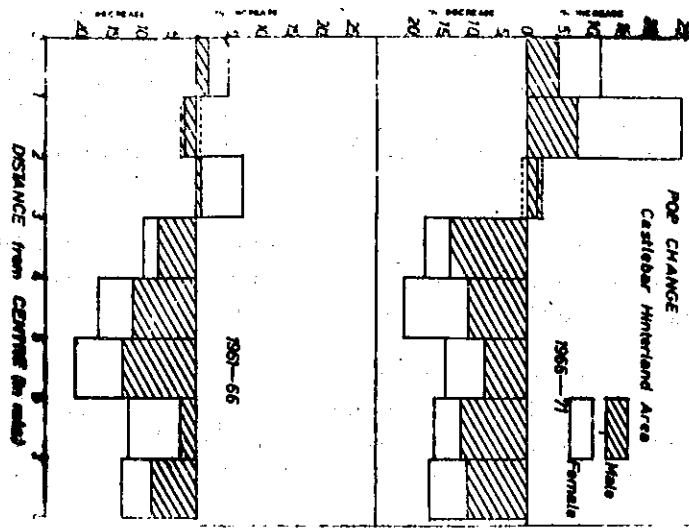


FIG 2

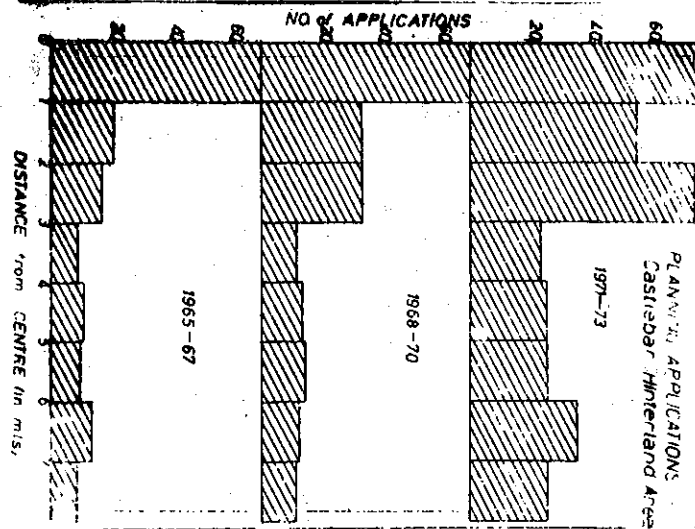
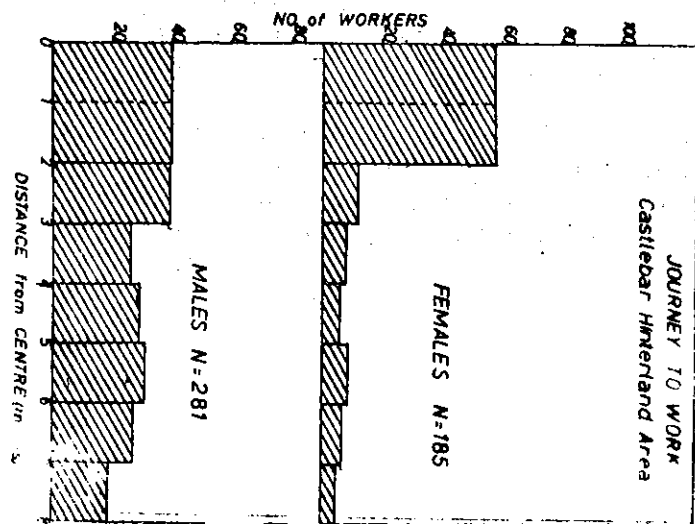


FIG 3



Despite the fact that Castlebar has been the fastest-growing town in Mayo during the century, industry has played very little part in this growth. Up to 1970 there were only two factories, together employing about 600 people. Castlebar ranked only third behind Westport and Ballina (in both absolute and relative terms) in the proportion of its work force employed in manufacturing industry in 1971.

In order to answer the question posed at the outset, one is forced to conclude that Castlebar's strength has always resided in service functions and that, therefore, its growth potential lies mainly in the service sector. Within this sector both at a national and international level, the office industry has in the past 25 years become one of the most powerful sources of employment. And within the office industry one of its most essential requirements is easy and rapid communications. Is it unreasonable to expect that a large part of the future growth of Castlebar, with the advantage of an Airport, lies in the development of an office industry, already initiated by the siting of the Department of Lands there?

Part two of the research project was designed to analyse the effect on its hinterland, of growth in Castlebar. In other words, to what extent, does the town as a growth centre trickle that growth down to its surrounding area. For this purpose three indices were used - population change in the census periods between 1961 and 1971; numbers of planning applications sanctioned in three three-year periods between 1965 and 1973, and finally the proportion of a sample of commuters-to-work from each of eight zones delimited in the study area.

As indicated, the area was zoned concentrically around the town centre, each zone being one mile wide. An analysis of the zones in relation to the three indices followed to try to identify the point or points on the continuum from the town centre to the outermost reaches of its hinterland at which there was a significant change in the growth pattern. The results of the analysis are summarised in figs (1) and (3) respectively.

When the aggregate townland population was computed for each of the zones, an interesting pattern emerged. There is a significant change from a pattern of population increase to one of decrease between the 3/4 mile zones. The first three zones show an average increase for the 1961-66 census period of 1.9% while the remaining five show an average decrease of 6.9%

A similar pattern emerges for 1966-71 census period. The average increase for the first three zones was 6.6% while the average decrease for the remaining five zones was 8.2%. There was therefore no perceptible change in the growth pattern from one census period to the next.

Analysis of planning application re-enforced the pattern of population change as is evident from fig (2). In the three-year period from 1965-67, 204 applications were sanctioned, of these 55.39% of the total occurred in Castlebar town, i.e one mile zone; 65.68% within a two mile radius and 74.01% within a three mile radius. Only 25.98% of all the applications occurred in the remaining five zones.

Between 1968 and 1970 the number of applications was 277. 51.62% of these occurred within a mile of the town centre; 63.89% within two miles and 76.17% within a three mile radius. Only 23.82% of all applications sanctioned occurred within the remaining five zones.

The pattern which emerges indicates that by far the greatest development is occurring within the three zones adjacent to the town centre, a pattern which does not appear to have changed from one time period to the next and which, therefore, re-enforced the pattern of population change.

The proportion of commuters to work was the third index of growth. A total sample of 466 commuters, made up of 185 females and 281 males was analysed. It was not possible, however, to make an analysis of the change which may have taken place over a period of time.

Of the 185 female commuters to work 62.7% resided within a two mile radius of the centre, 60.13% commuted from a distance greater than three miles. In the case of males, the pattern which emerges was slightly different. Out of a total of 281, 81 (28.82%) resided within a three mile radius, 144 (51.24%) commuted from within the zone between 4 and 8 miles from the centre while 25 (8.89%) travelled from beyond an eight mile radius. The basic pattern as can be seen for fig (3) then remains the same, i.e the area within a three mile radius of the centre is benefitting from the growth of the centre to a much greater degree than the remaining area. This growth pattern is shown in fig (4).

In conclusion, therefore, one is forced to agree with Moseley when he states that ".... severe doubts must be cast on the notion ..... that growth impulses..... trickle down ..... such impulses appear to have trickled up .....". In the Castlebar area the trickle up effect has not only been towards Castlebar but also to cities such as Dublin, Galway and indeed the cities of Britain and the U.S.A.

## STRATEGY FOR DECENTRALISATION OF HOUSING TO RURAL VILLAGES Castlebar Hinterland Area

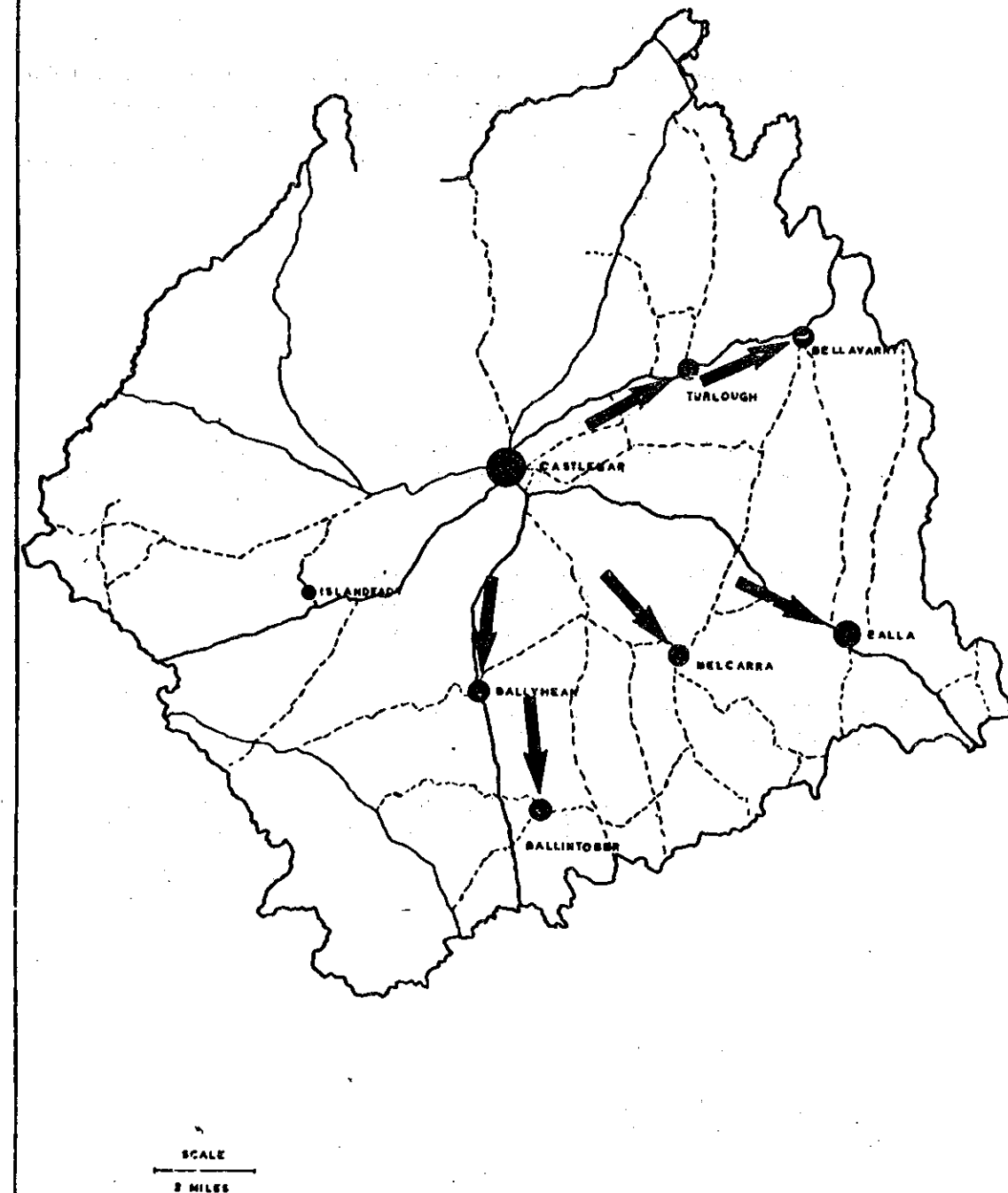


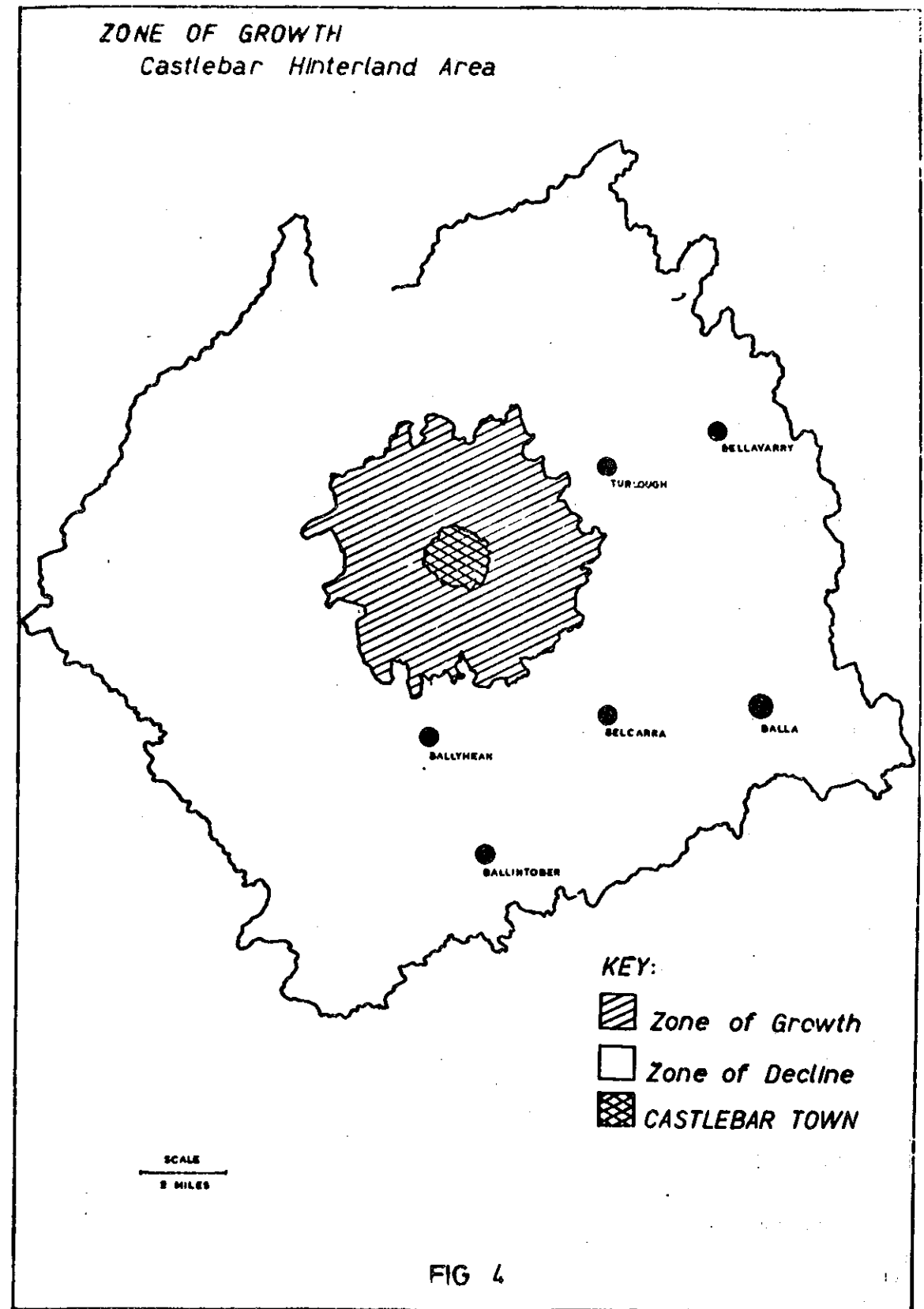
FIG. 5

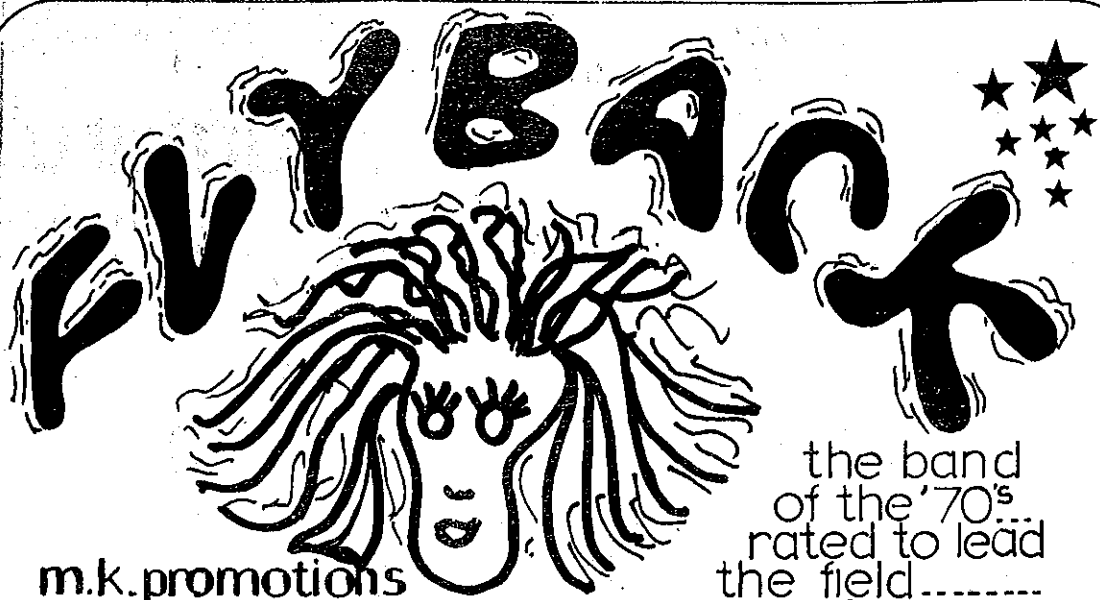


Finally, fig (5) suggests a course of development which the Castlebar area might take in the future - a development which should help to diffuse the growth of Castlebar down to its hinterland to a greater degree and help to avert the complete demise of the rural villages in this underdeveloped area.

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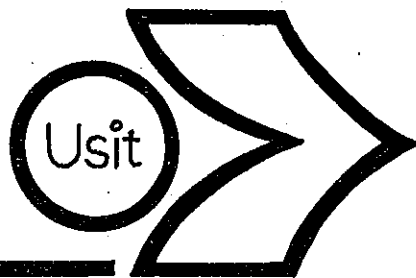
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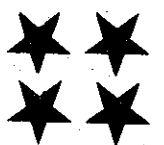
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*"It is not just a matter of eliminating hunger, nor even of reducing poverty. The struggle against destitution, though urgent and necessary, is not enough. It is a question, rather, of building a world where everyman, no matter what his race, religion, or Nationality, can live a fully human life, freed from servitude imposed on him by other men or by natural forces over which he has not sufficient control; a world where freedom is not an empty word and where the poor man Lazarus can sit down at the same table as the rich man". Pope Paul 1967 (1)*

One of the most amazing facts about poverty is its relative recenty. That is not to say that there were no poor up until 10 years ago. No, the poor were always there but it was not until the 60's that sociologists and geographers 'discovered' poverty. One of the pioneers in this field was Michael Harrington who in 1962 stated the "intolerable fact of poverty in America".<sup>2</sup> One might well ask why it took until 1962 to discover poverty. Harrington gives one very valid explanation when he says that the poor in America are tending to become increasingly invisible. The facts are there - here is a great mass of people, yet it takes an effort even to see them. Because of their weak position in society the poor have no power, no voice to make themselves heard. Because of moral connotations much poverty is kept hidden and with the development of poor areas through which non-residents very rarely travel or know anything about, the middle class citizen could easily believe that poverty does not exist except on a very small scale.

Another reason why the blind eye of society was turned on poverty is that people were blinded by prejudices, middle class notions and values, and old preconceived ideas created and perpetuated by capitalistic societies, believing that the poor consisted of a very small number of people who, through individual disabilities or lack of initiative and ambition, failed to make the grade. Politicians in America in the mid 60's maintained that the fault lay with the poor for being lazy or stupid and not taking advantage of opportunities. Questions regarding the system were taboo. This of course was to save the 'affluent society' from admitting that there was a flaw in their ideal economic system. When the existence of poverty become a 'fact' it became also an embarrassment in the light of the economic potential of the U.S.

Whatever the reasons, it is now an established fact that poverty does exist and that it is a major problem of our time. Depending on the definition of poverty you use, and the indices used, you can prove that America has 25 millions in poverty<sup>3</sup>, or 50 million<sup>4</sup> - or that there are 2½ million poor children in England<sup>5</sup>, or 24% of the people of Ireland live in poverty<sup>6</sup>. What may be said simply is that people in a supposedly

just society, often through no fault of their own, are living in severe poverty, with few prospects for a better life, and often little hope for the future. It is the duty of all those concerned with this problem not only to analyse and describe, but also to participate, in eliminating this problem.

Until very recently geographers showed little professional interest in contemporary social problems. Responding to the prevailing values of society, they have been far more concerned with studying the production of goods and exploitation of resources than with the conditions in which people live. This perhaps may be attributed to academic inertia and degree of caution, fearful of becoming politically involved.

*"Yea, tho I walk through the valley of the shadow of societies' woes, I will feel no conscience:  
For Brian Berry, thou art with me  
thy factor analyses and gravity models they comfort me  
Surely tenure and research grants shall follow me  
all the days of my life and I will dwell in the computer  
centre forever" <sup>7</sup>*

Thus wrote a Ph.D. candidate some years ago - not surprisingly. The situation unfortunately has not changed much since. The geographer now has many theories and techniques at his disposal. What he needs now is the inclination to study social problems, such as poverty, with the eagerness with which he examined physical and economic phenomena in the past. If geography is concerned with a real differentiation and the identification of spatial patterns, then the distributions in social problems may be very relevant to geographical study. If for example the inter-regional levels of social deprivation were described, their 'topography' could be as marked as the physical and economic surfaces to which we now attach such importance. The spatial distribution of social services in relation to the needs of the population might be just as significant as the location of retail centres and the arrangement of market hinterlands. Therefore, the completeness of geography seems to require consideration of a wide range of social conditions that have traditionally been ignored. Geography now has the techniques and the tools for such research, what is needed is a critical review of the scope and philosophy of the subject.

*"The structural reform which is needed in order to redress the glaring imbalance of power within society must be matched with an even more pervasive revolution within the minds and hearts of individual people". (Buttimer 1972)<sup>8</sup>*

Deeply-held values and old attitudes are slow to change. The belief that the private production and consumption of goods and services and the endless advance of technology towards some unspecified end are the most important aspects of national life, is still widespread.

The geographer should turn his attention to the problems presented by such a system, and be aware of the overall socio-economic reality. To do otherwise is to deny society any benefit of your special knowledge and understanding, which, in fact, that society provided you with in the first place.

As Hurst says:-

*"In the best of all possible worlds, with no man starving, no injustice, ... oppression, ... exploitation of one group of men by another, it would be an interesting exercise to study hierarchies of shopping centres, central place models, and pure city forms... to analyze the distribution of midget and gigmas: But we do not live in such a world, and it is not merely incorrect, but brutal, violent, devious, and self-deceived, to speak, write, or teach as if our greatest difficulties and most important challenges were divorced from the realities of life in our cities and in our society".<sup>9</sup>*

The geographer should not only theorize in a lecture hall but become involved in the problems of the real world which surrounds him. He should be very careful also not to supply the needs of the power elite only, but to adopt to the needs of society in general. Geography should be concerned with material well-being, with the human condition, with equity in resource distribution, with community development and with the harmony of man in his total environment. Within this framework the analysis of contemporary problems such as poverty can be undertaken. However, not only must the geographer detect and describe injustices and problems - he/she must also strive to correct them. As Losch says, - our real duty "is not to explain our sorry reality, but to improve it".<sup>10</sup>

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SEX IN GEOGRAPHY

Denis G. Pringle, Staff

Every Spring dark primeval forces exert a profound influence upon a certain section of the student population. Before long these students find themselves facing an overpowering need, a need which must eventually be answered to relieve the pent up emotions. I refer, of course, to the need of second year honours students to decide upon a topic for their under-graduate dissertations. This is undoubtedly an important decision for many and consequently there is no shortage of advice from those who have previously undergone this particular form of torture. The best piece of advice that may perhaps be offered is to choose a topic of particular personal interest, even though the geographical aspects may not immediately be apparent. Most things in life, whether they be clachans or public houses, have special aspects which are worthy of investigation. To illustrate my point, I will review just some of the ways in which one of my own favourite topics have been treated in geography.

The subject that I wish to deal with is 'sex'. Space does not permit me to define the term 'sex' in detail, but the subject is extensively dealt with in the literature. I will assume therefore that the reader is already familiar with the more important points<sup>2</sup>.

In geography, sex is usually the concern of population geographers, particularly when it results in births. The world's population is continually increasing with the result that there is a growing fear that we will eventually wipe ourselves out as a species because of overpopulation. This type of gloomy forecast is by no means new, but it is continually receiving more attention as the graph of the world's population rapidly disappears off the top of the page. Sex, however, is not solely to blame. While it is true that births do not occur without sex<sup>4</sup>, the world's population increase has been paralleled by a decrease in the world birth rate. The problem is that the world death rate is declining at an even faster rate. In other words, fewer people are being born, but even fewer are dying. The reason for the decline in the death rate is the rapid diffusion of modern medical technology. In the western world population growth has been controlled by a decline in the birth rate often using artificial contraceptives, but in the underdeveloped countries the birth rate has been slow to respond to the

change in the death rate. These are often the countries that can least afford an increase in population, and under such conditions the moral arguments in favour of (artificial) contraceptives must surely outweigh the religious and philosophical arguments against their use. These arguments apply not only to the third world, but also to much smaller deprived areas nearer to home. In fact, for some readers, they are home.

Demographers and population geographers also take a professional interest in sex in the form of sex ratios (i.e. the number of males in relation to the number of females). This might be expected to be 1 : 1, but in the Irish Republic there are only 991 females for every 1000 males<sup>5</sup>. When one examines these ratios in more detail it is found that the only parts of Ireland with an excess of females are the larger urban centres (i.e. Dublin CB, Cork CB, Limerick CB, Waterford CB, the Borough of DunLaoghaire and County Dublin). Presumably this is due to migration from rural areas, which retain a higher proportion of males because of employment in agriculture, to urban areas which offer more female employment (e.g. in offices, retail establishments, and higher manufacturing). The resulting sexual imbalance directly affects the marriage chances of the sexual majority. By moving to a city a spinster statistically reduces her chances of finding a husband, although paradoxically she also has more opportunity of meeting 'Mr. Right'. The decision of a rural spinster whether to migrate could be best decided by first looking in a mirror. As for men, one of the places to avoid at all costs is County Leitrim where there are only 857 females for every 1000 males.

Sex ratios provide an illuminating illustration of some statistical problems associated with devising indicators. At least three types of sex ratio have been used by demographers. These are calculated as follows:

$$(1) \text{ Sex Ratio 1} = \frac{M}{F} \times 100$$

$$(2) \text{ Sex Ratio 2} = \frac{(M - F)}{(M + F)} \times 100$$

$$(3) \text{ Sex Ratio 3} = \frac{M}{(M + F)} \times 100$$

where M is the number of males, and F is the number of females. In the ideal situation where the number of males and females are equal, the three ratios would have values of 100, 0, and 50 respectively. In other words, all three

express the same condition differently. This in itself causes no problems, but one might assume that all three indices are equally useful whereas there is a fundamental deficiency with the first ratio. Females alone are used in the denominator, consequently the first ratio has a range of possible values from 0 to  $\infty$ . The means of type 1 ratios calculated for a number of areas, therefore, will almost certainly be above 100, suggesting a female predominance. For example, consider two areas with equal population which are 75 per cent male, and 75 per cent female respectively. The values of sex ratio 1 will be 300 and 33, giving a mean value of 166, suggesting that overall there are 5 females for every 3 males, instead of only 3. Consequently this ratio would give a completely misleading result, which would be further intensified if used in a product-moment correlation. The second and third ratios are, therefore, much more preferable.

Further lessons on using statistics can be gained from another sex-based indicator; the illegitimacy rates. In Belfast it was found that the areas with the highest levels of illegitimacy are predominantly Protestant<sup>6</sup>. This does not necessarily imply that Catholics have a higher standard of sexual morality. Catholics, for example, may be less inclined to declare a child as illegitimate to the hospital authorities. There would also be more social pressure on a Catholic girl 'in trouble' (and also more opportunity) to stay with relatives in Britain, than upon her Protestant counterpart. Consequently, a bias may be introduced into the survey because girls migrating elsewhere for hospitalisation would not be recorded in the data collected from Belfast hospitals. Care is obviously required in interpreting the figures.

Having allowed for the problems associated with the source of the data on illegitimacy, further problems arise over how the problem should be conceptualised. Illegitimacy as a social indicator might be criticised on the grounds that it applies middle class cultural values to a predominantly working class population. The areas of social deprivation, it could be argued, are not those with the highest illegitimacy rates but those with the lowest, on the assumption that these areas have fewer women prepared to accommodate the extra-marital needs of their male neighbours!

Illegitimacy is not just a moral problem, it is also a major social problem. The social problem of illegitimacy

occurs after the birth of the child, not before. An illegitimate child usually faces life with a distinct disadvantage compared with other children. If it is not adopted it is often brought up by only one parent or in a strained family environment.

The lack of a 'normal' family background need not make the child a deviant, but its chances of making a success out of life are considerably reduced. The illegitimacy rate therefore is a more useful indicator of social deprivation than might at first be expected.

The objective of this essay is not to review all of the ways in which geographers have managed to include sex in their research, but to show that it is possible to include such a taboo subject under a respectable guise. In the future geographers will presumably look at prostitution, pornography etc. more openly, but at present the subject has to be approached in a devious manner in order to maintain academic respectability. The same approach could be used for any subject. Thus even if your special interest in life happens to be Manchester United or cauliflowers, a little ingenuity should suggest a respectable geographical research topic to include your own particular speciality. No matter what you decide to investigate, however, it is imperative that you should attempt to see beyond the obvious explanation. In this respect it is hoped that some of the interpretations provided in this essay will stimulate (or antagonise) the reader to be more discriminating in his interpretation of 'facts'.

#### NOTES

1. For example: Burton R. Arbuthnot F.F (Translators) *The Kama Sutra of Vatsyayana* Panther, 1974.
2. These are sometimes referred to as 'erogenous zones'
3. For example: Malthus, T.R (1798) '*An Essay on Population*' Reprinted 1960 Everyman Press.
4. One important exception has been documented: St. Luke 'The Gospel According to St. Luke', Chapter 1, verse 26 onwards. Reprinted in *The Holy Bible*.
5. Central Statistics Office, (1973) '*Census of Population of Ireland, 1971*', Volume 1, Table 3
6. Boal F.W, Doherty P? Pringle DG (1974) '*The Spatial Distribution of Some Social Problems in the Belfast Urban Area*'. Northern Ireland Community Relations Commission.
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The thesis of this paper is that contemporary underdevelopment - whether in Ireland or elsewhere - is largely a consequence of past and continuing economic and other relations between the satellite underdeveloped and the now developed, metropolitan states. These relations were, and are, essential parts of the structure and development of the capitalist system. These same relations contributed to underdevelopment in some areas, while contributing to development in others.

Through centuries of history, Ireland's economic development has been impeded by her relations with England. Not the least contributor to this impediment was the Act of Union in 1800. Consequent on this Act British products were dumped on the Irish market, drawing Ireland's capital and human resources to England. Her political independence and decolonization of 1921-22 have not given Ireland economic development and a capitalist society. Although most countries, like Ireland, have gained at least nominal independence, the colonial economic structure still prevails; they are still in the grip of imperialism. These countries are known as neo-colonies, the new form of imperialism as neo-colonialism.

Neo-colonialism is the modern way, to exploit any underdeveloped region<sup>1</sup>. It is fundamentally an economic process, supported by social and political institutions, and often enforced by violence as in Sharpeville in South Africa in 1960. Its purpose is to extract the maximum amount of wealth from an underdeveloped area and channel that wealth (after a 'pay-off' to neo-colonial elites and agencies of control) to First World corporations.

Although it is widely believed that the United States and other developed capitalist countries contribute more capital to the underdeveloped countries than they receive from them, the reverse is the case. In 1960, for example, John F. Kennedy remarked that capital inflow to the United States from underdeveloped countries in that year was 1,300 million dollars while capital outflow from the United States to the same countries was 200 million dollars<sup>2</sup>. Perhaps Americans have a right to earn interest on capital invested in these countries? It is a fact, however, that much of the capital on which America and fellow developed countries actually originated in those same underdeveloped countries, and belongs to the farmer only because they control it. In the colonial and neo-colonial areas of capitalist development foreign finance was, and still is, primarily an adjunct to stimulate the pillage of resources and the exploitation of labour. Private foreign capital has serious consequences for the economic development of a country and its regions. In the Irish context one of the most serious of these effects is that private foreign capital tends to locate only in the high-profit areas. This militates against

any policy of regional development.

Irish economic policy over the past twenty years has been such that her resources are being offered to all comers for ruthless exploitation. Incentives are even offered, to this end. It is suggested here that the time has come to seriously review our economic policy of the last twenty years. A move has been made in this direction with regard to the nationalization of our mineral resources. However, this is not enough. Even with total nationalization, if Ireland persists in exporting her minerals unprocessed she will be realising far less profit from them than if they were smelted at home. It has been estimated that the value of a good multiplies by anything up to ten in its processing. One of the most surest indices of an underdeveloped country is export of its raw materials. Ireland exports her mineral resources to German smelters; she exports her agricultural resources for processing by Irishmen in English factories, and, though situated adjacent to one of the richest fishing grounds in the world she has sold out her advantage to E.E.C. fishermen.

In the manufacturing sector, the type of industry being set up in Ireland will not serve as a base for self-sustained industrial growth. To create such a base the materials and equipment necessary for expanded production must be produced<sup>3</sup>. However, foreign industry in Ireland tends to be light industry. To further aggravate the problem, the prevailing tax holiday on exports militates against home sales of these products, lessening the chances of subsidiary industries developing.

Thus, through having primarily an export economy and lacking the heavy industry needed to generate economic growth, we are still subject to the pillage of developed metropolitan powers. By being incorporated into what is euphemistically known as the world market our economy has been converted into an appendage of the developed areas.

On the regional level, within the underdeveloped country, a similar model can be applied. Though modern imperialism does not make its colonies more prosperous, it enriches their poles of development; it does not ease social and regional tensions but aggravates them. In Ireland this theory is confirmed by the predominance of Dublin in the economic, social and cultural life of the country. Frank remarks that 'the privileged position of the city has its origin in the colonial period'<sup>4</sup>. Dublin is acting as the suction pump for all of Ireland's resources. It contains almost a third of the national population. Not only are most jobs found in Dublin, but the most lucrative ones. Sixty percent of Ireland's offices are situated in Dublin. Dublin and its surrounds buys the produce of the provinces at prices which the former dictate.

The development of the provinces is the direct corollary to the development of the Dublin region. The infrastructure of the provinces is acting

as a channel of resources, capital and people to the metropolis, instead of furthering their own development. Most of Ireland's heavy industry is concentrated in Cork, thus ensuring that the grime and pollution does not inconvenience the governmental industrial elite in Dublin. Dublin is the focal point of our communications network, where the fruits of the provinces converge. The poverty of Ireland's west is not due to its isolation. It is due to the direct exploitation by its regional, national and international metropolis. Thus, not only is Ireland's national economic underdevelopment due to its satellite-metropolitan relations with other developed countries, but our regional underdevelopment is also due to this problem.

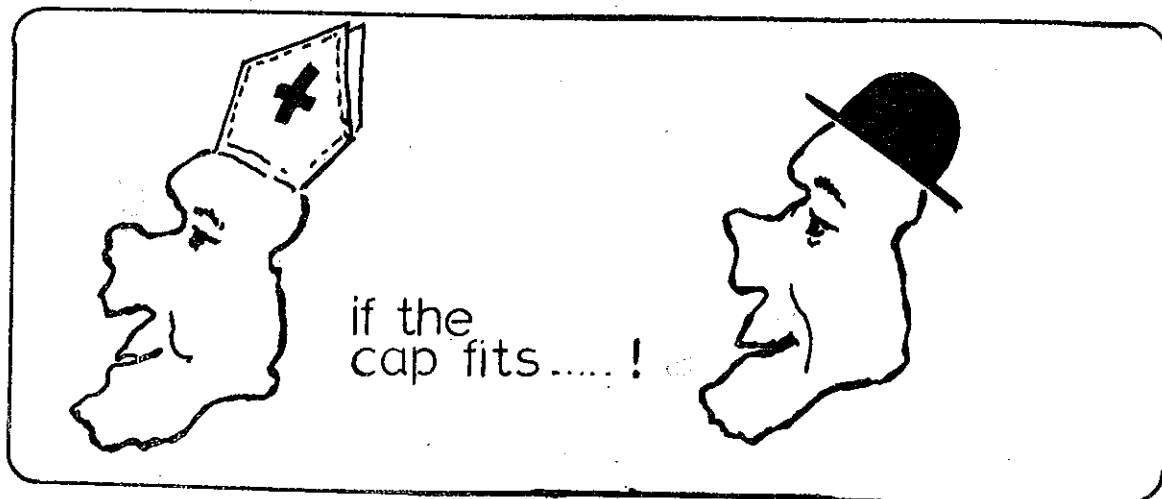
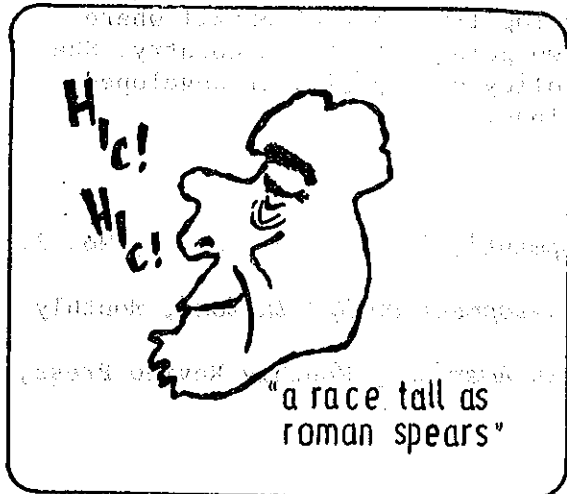
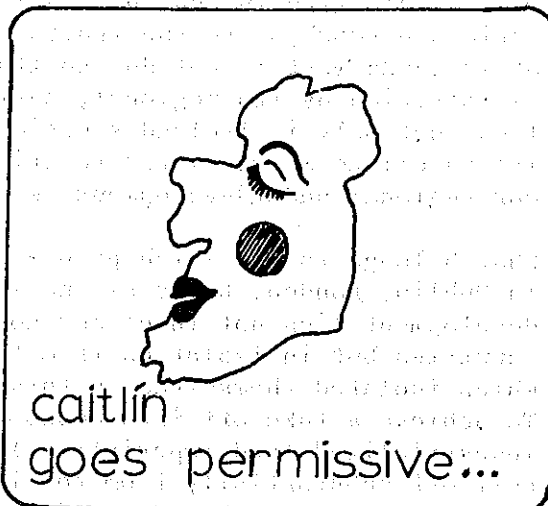
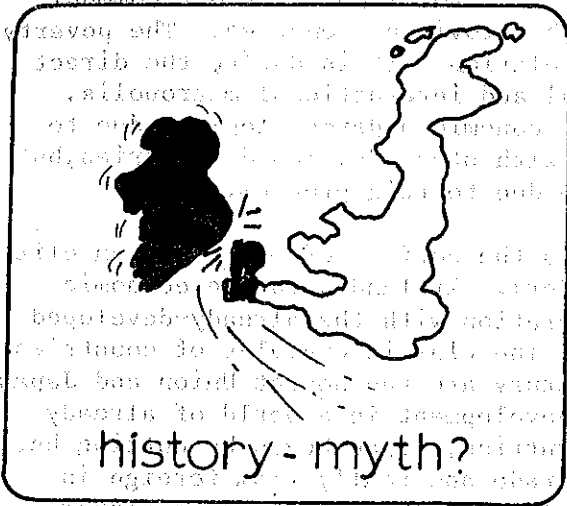
What belongs to the Irish people fills the coffers of metropolitan elites in Dublin, London, Brussels and New York. Ireland's future economic development lies not in closer co-operation with the already-developed countries but in isolation from them. The classic examples of countries which isolated themselves in this century are the Soviet Union and Japan. To achieve a take-off into economic development in a world of already industrialized (and imperialized) countries, Japan began by cutting herself off substantially from foreign trade and totally from foreign investment and control. Ireland's development lies in the same method. She must not allow a situation to develop like that of Brazil where every foreign dollar invested means two going out of the country. She must realize that Free Trade is the policy of imperialist developed countries and is of benefit to them alone.

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Tá an Ind tamall maith o bhaile - chaitheamar ár n-uaireadoirí a chur seacht n-uaire a chloig arb aghaidh nuair a shroicheadar Bomboy 13 u Samhair 1974. An bhochtaine an chéad rud a bhuaill mé - seantáin de bhoscaí agus de dhuilleoga có-cóchnó ar feadh an bhóthair ón aerphort. mar ní cheileann an Ind a bochtaine féin; seileáin bhrocacha uisce agus dóibe i measc na seantán agus foghachar nó bó ocrach thall is abhus.

...Na mílte daoine ag siúl na mboithre in éidí áille ioldathacha. Gan aon duine le feiceáil ag obair. Gan póilín ná saighdiúir in aon áit. Creastacht, béasa agus socracht in iompair gach duine. Ní fir agus na mná ar leithrigh - ní shúilann fuí fear agus a bhean cois ar chois ach an bhean cúpla céim ar chúl an fear. An córas aichmeach (caste system) a fhágann an crut sochma ar saol poiblí, is dóigh liom, d'ainneoin ocras agus diomhaointis. .. Siopaí beag bia, glasraí, arbhair, go hannamh ag fáil... Creideamh a rialaíonn an saol, mar a dheireann Wagner níl sa Hindúchas ach Socheolaíocht, de bhaor a gcreidimh ní itheann na Hindúigh, formhór an phobail is é sin, feoil nó ní mharaíonn siad eallach nó ba. Fágann sin go bhfuil 150 milliún d'eallach agus 50 milliún buabhall san Ind - a dhá oiread de stoc bainne agus atá sar Eoraip Thiar, ach níl ach an Tríú cuid de bhainne na hEorpa Thiar á thál acu. D'íosfadh an Machmadach mairteoil ach ní íosfadh sé muiceoil. Chathródh na Machmadaigh le fadhb an bhreis stoic ach tá faormhór na Machmedach anois sa Phacastáin agus i Bangladesh. Creideamh faoi deara críochdheighilt na hInde; chaith na Machmedaigh scaradh ó na Hindúigh. Níl ach an beagán Críostaí san Ind-13 milliún as 550 agus leath acu sin i stát beag Kerala. Ag taistéal i Kerala dom bhuaill mé le pobail iomlána Caithliceach-iascairí a lán acu. Tá sórt eagla ar stáitairí go bhfuil siol críochdheighilte eile na Chríostaíocht. "Dúchasú and chreidim agus an liotúirge" fragra na hEaglaise ar an eagla seo. Tá stáit na hInde chomh difiriúil le chéile is atá tíortha na hEorpa-a teanga féin ag gach stát agus cló fisiciúil na ndaoine difiriúil chomh maith. Tá aontas ann-aontas an chultúir Hindúigh. Ach ceadaíonn Hindúchas an-ilghnéitheacht, fuí san adhradh; tá Síra faoi mheas theas ach Vishnu thuaidh. Tá aildireacht Drayideach a na teampaill theas ach a mhalairt thuaidh. Tá an Ind an-saibhir ach an saibhreas roinnte go holc. Chonaic mé alán de na boic ag raiseanna Bangalore. Tá an ithir saibhir o nádur ach tá sí a bochtú cheal leasú; dóitear an cac bó mar bharr tíre - chonac é a dhíol i gceart lár Delhi agus á iompar ar a gceann ag na mná tí. Tá an saibhreas intleachta leis a chailliúint. Fágann an córas iarchóitíneach oideachais fonn ar an tucht gairme oilte (dochtúirí) bailí leo as a dtír féin in ionad fanacht agus fóirithint ar a muintir. Ag taistéal dom a eitleáin, i dtreanacha, i mbusanna agus mbáid óna Himalayes thuras go Kanya Kumari theas, ó Bombay ar an mhuir Arabach go Madras ar Bhá Bengal i dtír seachtaine, d'fhoghlaim mé níos mó faoin gcoinníoll daonna ná mar a fhoghlaim mé in aon chúpla bliain de mo shaol. Beidh cuntas reatha ar mo thuras i leabhar beag liom atá le foilsiú go luath-'o chorr na Móna go Bangalore'.

John Sims: 1st year

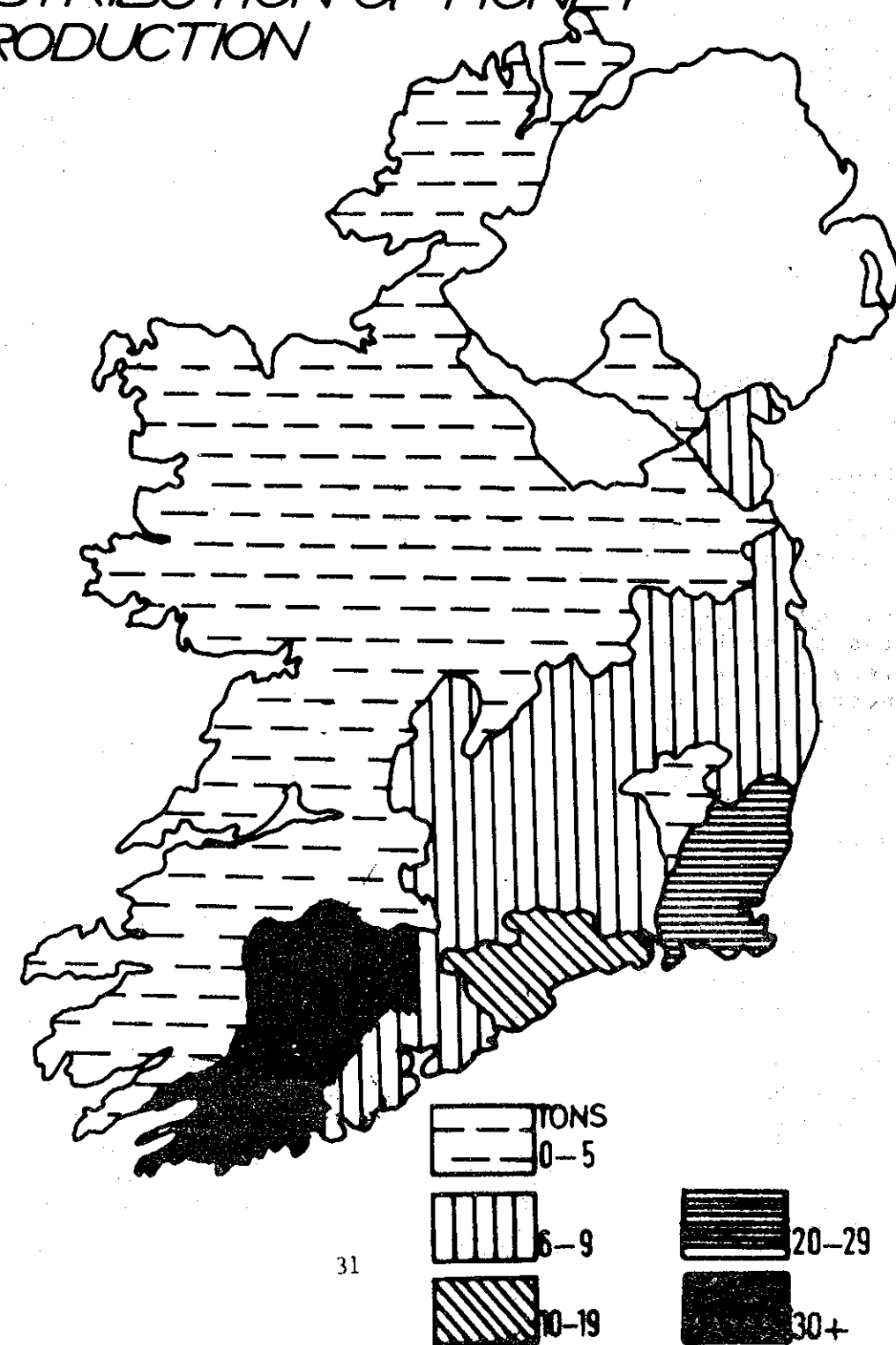
What about the honey industry in Ireland? Does honey have any relevance to geographical study? I got a bee in my bonnet about this question last Summer, and did a little research on the topic. Honey production in Ireland has been very slight until recently. Only now have people begun to experiment in efficient stock yields and suitability of certain strains of bees for this country. Despite the fact that it is still in its early stages, the honey industry has great potential for expansion.

HONEY PRODUCTION DISTRIBUTION

When we look at a map of commercial honey production in Ireland we can immediately see the insignificance of the Northern half of the country. The counties with highest production are Wexford, Waterford and Cork. Many factors have influenced this based distribution of commercial honey production. Among those factors are the following:

- (a) Climate: It is generally accepted that the climate of Southern Ireland is milder than that of the North. When we examine a rainfall map of Ireland we notice also that the counties of Cork, Waterford and Wexford have a low relative rainfall. Because of these two related climatic factors these counties have a longer nectar flow, essential for a higher yield of honey. So climate effects the distribution of honey production.
- (b) Topography: It is a well-known fact that clover does not grow on mountain tops, and that we do not find hawthorn in bogs! This eliminates honey production in the areas where such conditions predominate - for example it contributes to low honey production in the West and North of the country. It seems that lowland facilitates honey production best.
- (c) Soils: Bees seem to be most fruitful on acid Brown Earths and Brown Podzolic soils. This is evident when one compares the soil map of Ireland with the map showing distribution of honey production rates. The soil complex yielding the highest amount of honey is soil complex eight. This is mainly due to the fact that it has a temperature of 60°F, which is necessary for nectar flow. Soils of complex eight and nine have very few limitations in agricultural production. Maximum honey production is shown in South East Wexford, Southern Waterford and South of a line running through Dungarvan, Mallow and Youghal. That Donegal produces any honey is due to soil complex eight in the East of the county. Lough produces more honey than the surrounding counties because it has some acid brown earth soil. Since maximum honey production areas correlate well with the distribution of acid

DISTRIBUTION OF HONEY PRODUCTION



brown-earths and podzolic soils in the country, it seems that soil quality has a definite influence on capacity for honey production.

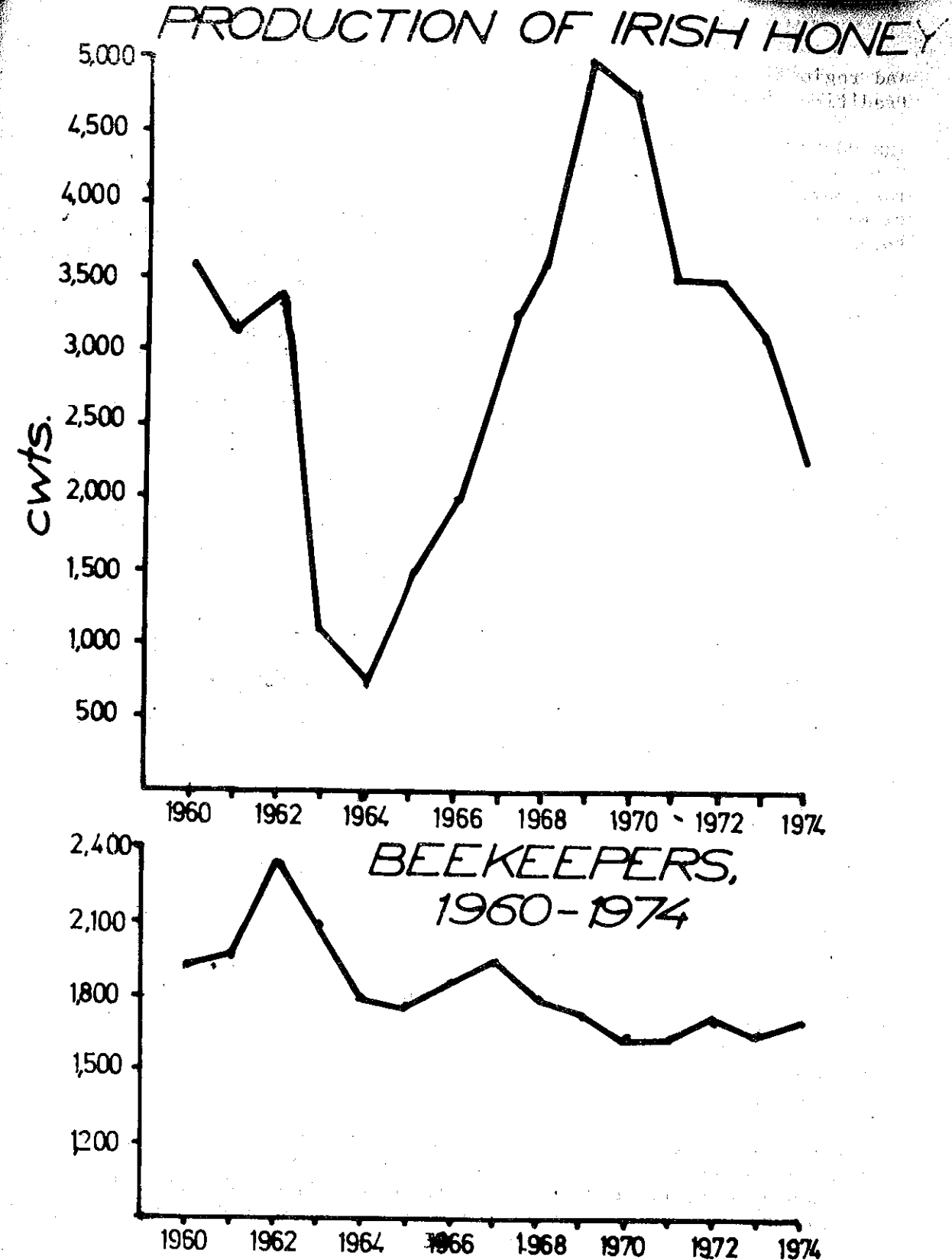
Physical phenomena alone do not dictate the distribution of honey production. There are many social or behaviour aspects which have an influence. The location theory states 'that not all agricultural entrepreneurs, to speak in the language of Thünen, obtained equal results from their operation and this is due to various individual reasons'.<sup>1</sup> Pred also points out that 'personal qualities frequently greatly overshadow the influence of natural and economic conditions in determining agricultural land-use patterns. This is, indeed, the case with honey production like any other part of agriculture.

(d) Tradition: It is true that honey production was notable in the southern counties of Ireland in the past, even though we have no positive documented proof of this. We have only to look at town names for a guideline. Take, for example, the name Cluan Meala which means the Meadow of Honey. Probably honey production originated in southern Ireland and diffused from there. A partial explanation of the predominance of the south in honey production can be had from a statement by Pred - 'a person becomes more and more inclined to accept an innovation the more often he comes in contact with other persons who have already accepted it'.

(e) Education: Levels of education influenced the distribution of beekeeping in two ways. Firstly, many people know very little about beekeeping and therefore they do not keep bees. Lack of such education is evident outside the south. Secondly, as is evident from my own survey, ninety per cent of the people who keep bees are white-collar workers. The latter are noticeably concentrated in the South, East and Midlands, and it is this group which is involved in honey-production in these areas.

(f) Finance: Financial reasons may inhibit people from keeping bees. A result of this would be a biased distribution of beekeepers in the country, located more in the East than in the small-forming West. It costs at least £35 a stock to begin an apiary. This initial cost may be too high for a small farmer.

These are among the more important factors influencing the distribution of honey production. It is becoming more evident now that a study of honey production can be very stimulating for the geographer. Gillmor<sup>2</sup>, states that "regional diversity has arisen through the influence of physical conditions, especially those of topography, soils and climate, regional differences in farm size, availability of markets



and regional variations in historical and human factors such as tradition, initiative and co-operative tendencies."

#### THE HONEY PROCESSING CENTRES

The honey processing centres are where honey is prepared for market. These centres in Ireland are Rowans, Chivers, Avonmore, Slaney Valley, Boyne Valley, Lynche's apiory and Denton. The Slaney Valley centre is situated in the centre of Wexford's honey-production area. This is due to the proximity of home supply, which relieves the company of transport costs. Lynche's and Denton are situated in Portlaoise. Both have apiories, but buy most of their honey for processing. Tacriso produces over six tons annually for these two firms. Boyne Valley has its centre in Louth, where it gets most of its honey, with the complement from Wexford and the South. Chivers and Rowans get their Irish honey from the South, and from Dublin where they are situated. Avonmore produces Irish honey in Ballyraggert, County Clare. They have now taken over the North Clare Honey Company which they use for packing. This, however, is strange since they import up to eighty percent of their honey. This imported honey has to be transported to Clare, then packed and again transported for the overseas market. Rowans, Chivers, Slaney Valley and Boyne Valley process eighty percent foreign honey because of the lack of sufficient production of Irish honey.

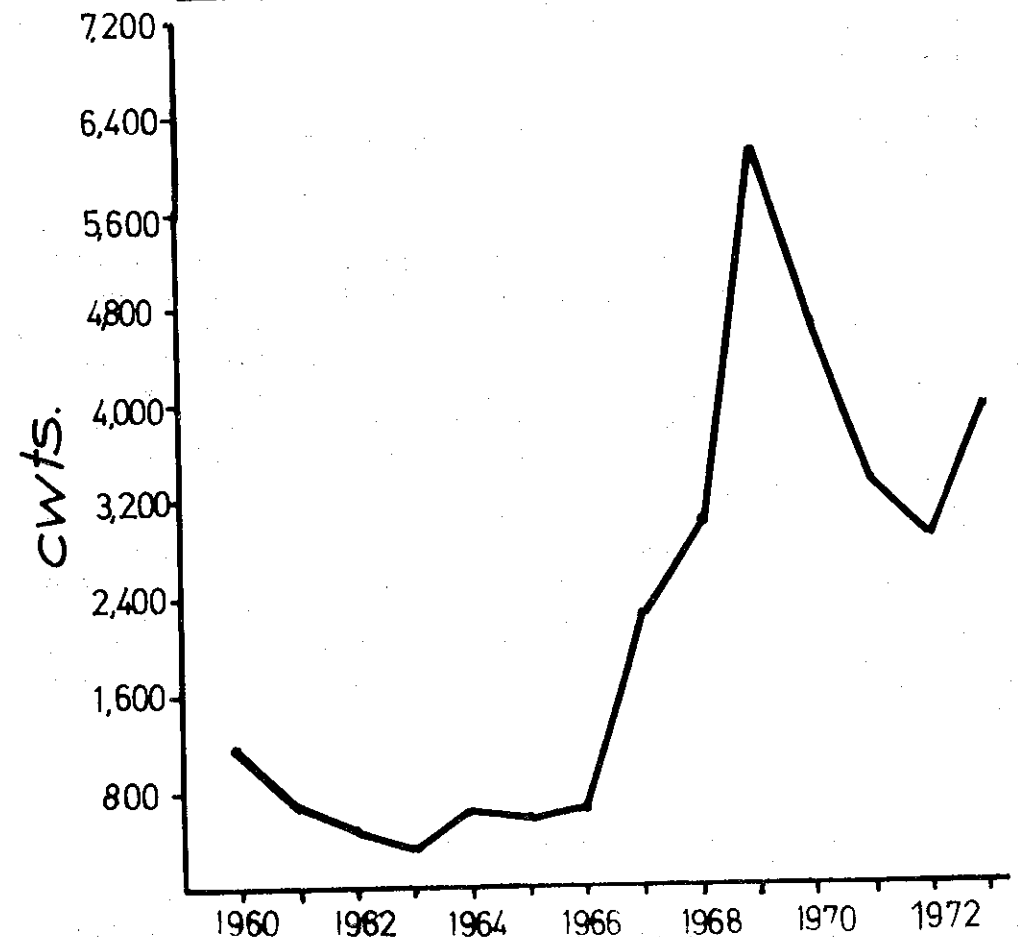
One significant thing to be noticed about the honey processing centres is that the honey processing is generally only a 'side-line' activity for the companies concerned. For example, Avonmore is more noted as a creamery, and Chivers more noted for jelly and jams. This shows that, although the honey industry may be improving, it is still only a very small industry in Ireland.

#### IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

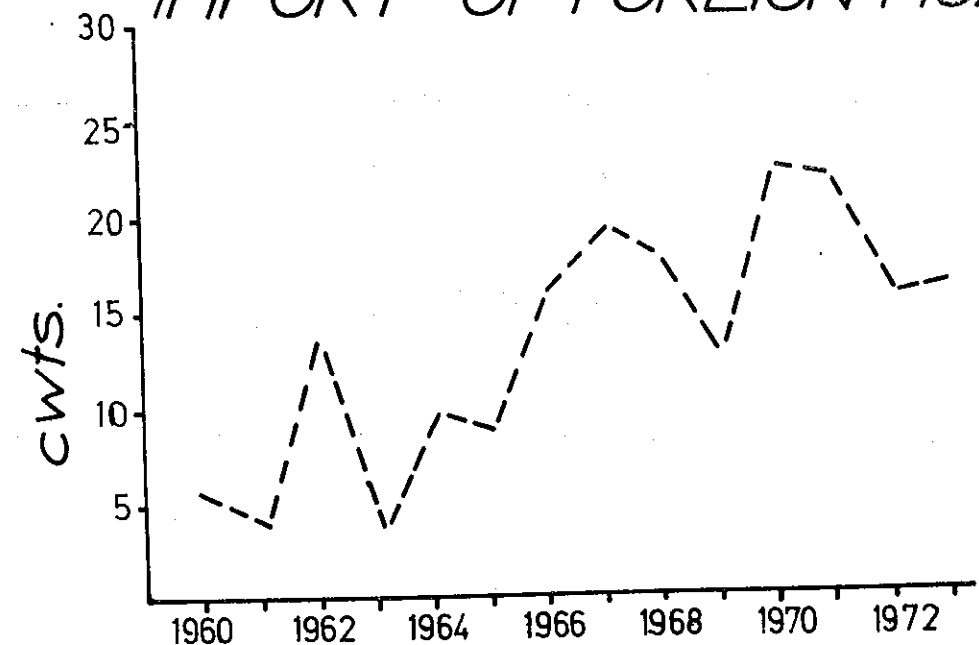
In 1975 we imported a record amount of honey, valued at almost £365,000. In 1960 we imported 5453 cwt. of honey and this increased, with some fluctuations over the year, to 21,355 cwt. in 1971 and 25,776 cwt. in 1972. In the same period we only exported a mere 747 cwt. in 1960, falling to 245 cwt. in 1963, rising to 6,853 cwt. in 1969 and falling again to 2,655 cwt. in 1972. After 1967 the significant increase in honey exports was due to the establishment of new markets in the United States and other countries. Until then the outside market was dominated by Great Britain and Northern Ireland, due probably to the traditional Anglo-Irish ties.

Fluctuations in imports are due to changes in the level of consumption of honey and the level of exports. At present we import from countries like Great Britain, Northern Ireland, Greece, Spain, Hungary, Romania, Israel, China, United States, Canada, Mexico, Argentina, Australia and.

### EXPORT OF IRISH HONEY



### IMPORT OF FOREIGN HONEY



New Zealand. In 1971 we re-imported some of the honey we exported.

CONCLUSION

First of all, the honey industry has really only developed since 1960. Its slow development is not just a matter of lack of market because consumption is increasing annually. Though it is only a small industry at present, the growing interest should result in expansion in the near future. One factor inhibiting the growth of this industry is the low yield per stock at the moment, due to some extent to the short season of nectar flow. However, in Cork a recent experiment produced 120 lbs. per stock, compared to 40 lbs. elsewhere. This is a sign of the potential which the industry has, which points to a bright future. However, the danger of poisoning bees from insecticides and other chemicals is increasing too. To improve the industry it is suggested here that, through incentive schemes, honey production should be concentrated in the counties of Cork, Waterford and Wexford. The industry shows the marked bias in its present spatial distribution and deserves further geographical investigation.

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\*\*\*\*\*

Paddy field - an Irishman's graveyard in China

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Rough grazing - a goat on Croagh Patrick

.....

Vegetation Terms - agreement reached between I.F.A. and Sugar Company.

.....

Basin cultivation - morning wash

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Introduction

The word 'hinterland' in relation to any town usually refers to an area from which people have everyday or very frequent contact with the town. However, a town may be said to have a greater 'area of contact' from which people visit the town less often, but regularly. One of the geographer's tasks is to measure both the hinterland and wider area of contact. Finding an index which give a true picture of both is a difficulty. One index little used in Ireland heretofore for such a study is Marriage Distance. This paper attempts to delimit the changes in a town's contact areas over time. The town chosen is Enniscorthy, and the study area, County Wexford; the time, 1911-1970.

Three broad areas are dealt with. The first is an attempt to justify the use of marriage distance as an index of changing areas of contact. The second attempts a description of marriage patterns found in the study area. The third suggests processes responsible for, or correlated with the changes in marriage patterns. Each of these areas will be dealt with in the limited space available here. Any conclusions which may be drawn from the study will then be stated.

Marriage Distance as an Index

Ogden (1973) defines marriage distance as "the distance between the residences of the bride and groom at the time of their marriage". This index has been used by geographers for a variety of studies. Ogden recognizes three different groups of users. In the field of genetics, authors who used marriage distance include Dahlberg (1920's) and Wright (1943) as well as Peel and a group of French demographers including Sutter. A second group of studies, using marriage distance largely in an urban context, has given attention to the construction of mean or community information fields to be used as a basis for the simulation of diffusion processes. Examples of such studies are those of Morrill and Pitts (1967), Marble and Nysten (1963) and Abler, Adams and Gould (1972). Each of these studies are to some extent related to Hagerstrand's simulation models which deal with the transfer of information. Though marriage distance is but one of the indices proposed here, a paper by Shannon and Nysten (1972) gives strong support to the idea that marriage distance is a valid substitute for data on the location of social contacts. A third group of studies using marriage distance as a base has been concerned more clearly with social and economic relationships both in urban and rural contexts and with the structure of the marriage field per se. An important emphasis here is on the inherent differences between urban and rural areas and the differing evolution of their contact fields. Rural studies with a social background include Perry's

study of twenty seven rural Dorset parishes (1969), Anderson's early work in the U.S.A. (1934) and Morel (1972), as well as Blayo (1970) in France. It is interesting to look at some of the studies which used marriage distance as a base. Perry (1968) used it to study 'non-migratory population movement for such purposes as recreation and social intercourse'.<sup>2</sup> He concerned himself with the everyday mobility of the working-class inhabitants of twenty seven West Dorset parishes for the period 1837-1936, a century. Because of its particular setting in time, Perry took his study as that of the ending of the isolation of the English countryside and the larger part of its population. Perry's sample area was wholly rural. Although he used marriage registers, local newspapers, directories, census returns and published material as his sources he claims that marriage registers 'are the best, probably the only comprehensive, material for such a study of rural isolation and mobility'.

*"Marriage is not commonly undertaken without regular and frequent meeting of the two parties during several months of courtship. P. Laslett's assertion that 'before the coming of the bicycle and paved highway there was a fixed distance from the labourer's cottage beyond which a full day's work was out of the question - it took too long to get there and back', can be applied equally well to social activity, in which context illiteracy, long working hours and low wages were additional impediments. Thus some indication of the extent to which each parish (specifically its working-class inhabitants) was in touch with the outside world can be derived from its marriage registers."* 3

Perry concluded his study with the assertion that there was a substantial and rapid breakdown of rural isolation in the last two decades of the nineteenth century. He was interested to find, for example, that, although in the decade 1837-46 as much as eighty-one percent of all marriages were intra-parochial, by 1927-36 this figure had been reduced to thirty two percent intra-parochial marriages.

Another study by Ogden (1973) found that the rapid erosion of rural isolation, the growth of urban settlement in general and the widespread and often speedy movement of population to towns has led to the profound modification of the social and demographic structures of rural areas.<sup>4</sup> Although his study was concerned with systems of social contact and population mobility both in time and space as related to the general evolution of age at marriage and celibacy rates, he used marriage distance in an attempt to assess the changing nature of

contact and mobility in human groups in the context of severe rural depopulation, and to throw light on the gradual disruption and urbanization of formerly very closely-knit peasant communities. He concentrated on the form of the spatial contact field and its historical evolution. His study area was the Eastern Massif Central of France. Marriages inside the commune he referred to as endogamous. He found sixty percent of the latter in 1840. However, by 1960 only about twenty percent were endogamous. Like Perry, he found that marriage distance increased rapidly at the end of the nineteenth century. Ogden notes that 'while distance is the key determinant of the location of marriage contacts the further calculation of the range of individuals within which contact takes place is an important complimentary measure'. Ogden's use of marriage distance in showing, for example, how long-distance rural-urban contacts evolved, had great success.

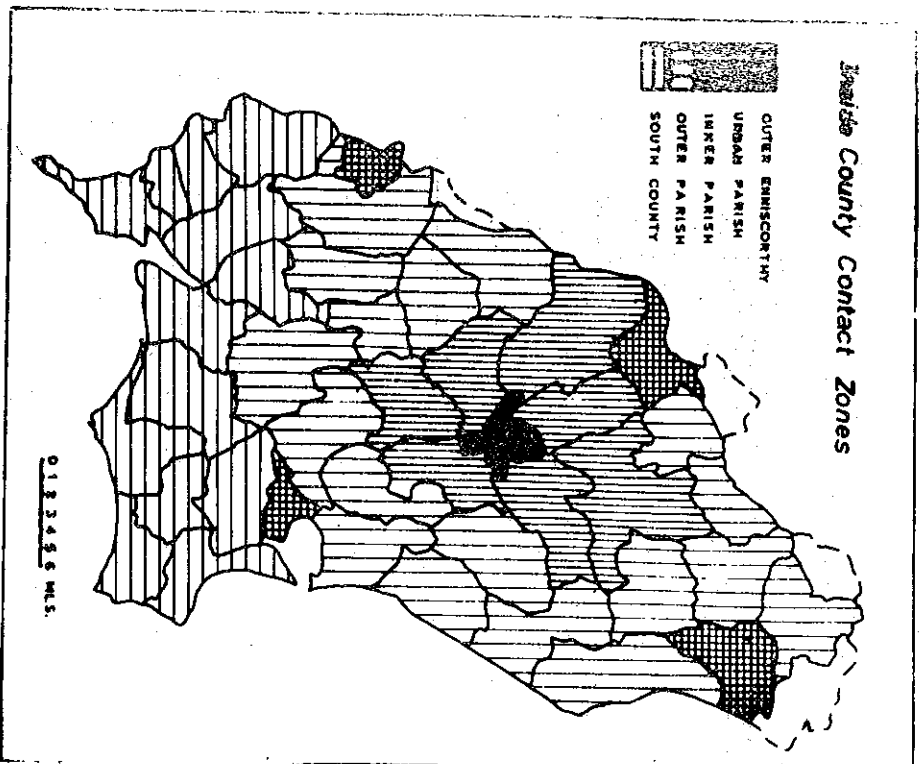
Both Perry's and Ogden's studies were basically concerned with the erosion of rural isolation between the last century and this. A glance at their papers has established the utility of marriage distance as an index of an increasing contact zone of any area. The present paper endeavours to study the latter for a town, Enniscorthy, situated in rural Ireland. Because of the limitations on material in the registers used in this study, it was found necessary to begin as late as 1911, and then continue for six full decades to 1970. Marriage distance was the index used for the measurement of Enniscorthy's contact zone for the following easily-identifiable reasons:

1. The availability of the marriage registers.
2. The same index was used successfully by others in the study of decreasing isolation of areas.
3. Marriage distance is reliable as a surrogate measure of deep-felt ties and often constant contact, with the town under observation.
4. This seems to be a good index to replace the use of a number of indices in delimiting the areas of influence or contact of a town.

#### Marriage Patterns Described

The years 1911-70 covered in this study are divided into six 'periods' one decade each, e.g. Period one refers to 1911-20. Catholic parish units are used instead of constant physical distance from Enniscorthy because of the nature of the source material in the registers. The area of contact for the town was divided into contact zones (see map1). The 'Outer Enniscorthy Zone' is the name given to the area inside Enniscorthy parish which excluded the town proper. The 'Inner Parish Zone' is the name given to the group of parishes encircling Enniscorthy parish. The parishes with an urban nucleus were designated the 'Urban Zone'. It was found that a group of parishes South of a line joining New Ross and Wexford had very little marriage contact with Enniscorthy and this group of parishes was designated the term 'South





MAP 1

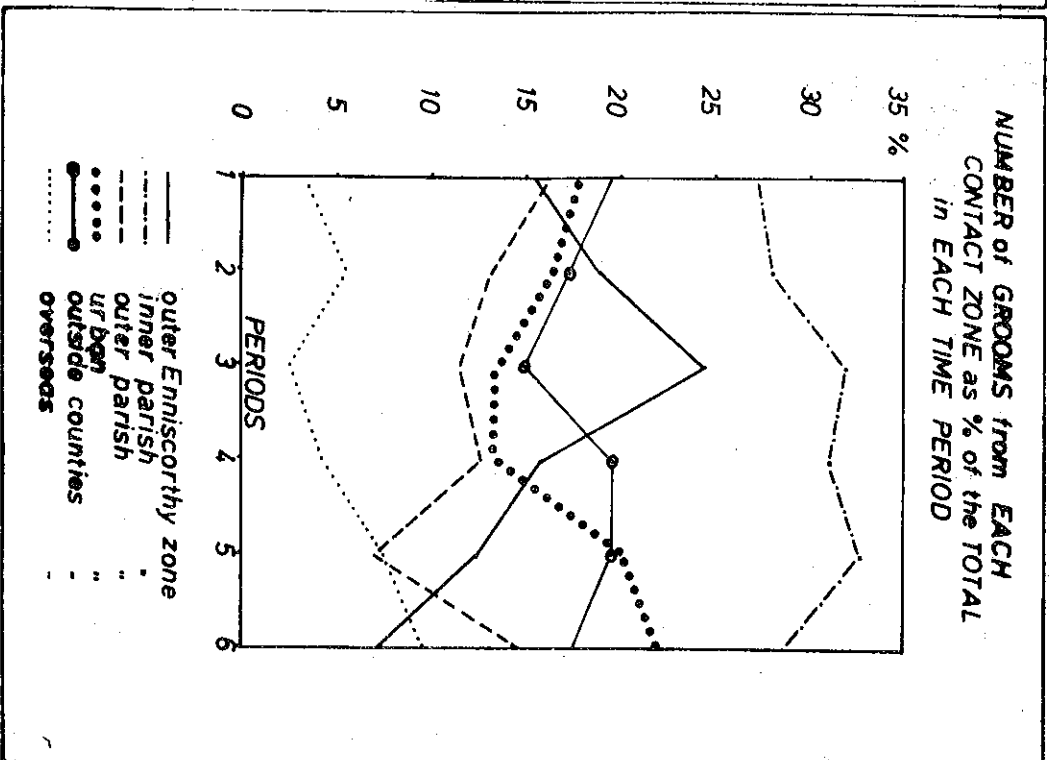


FIG 3

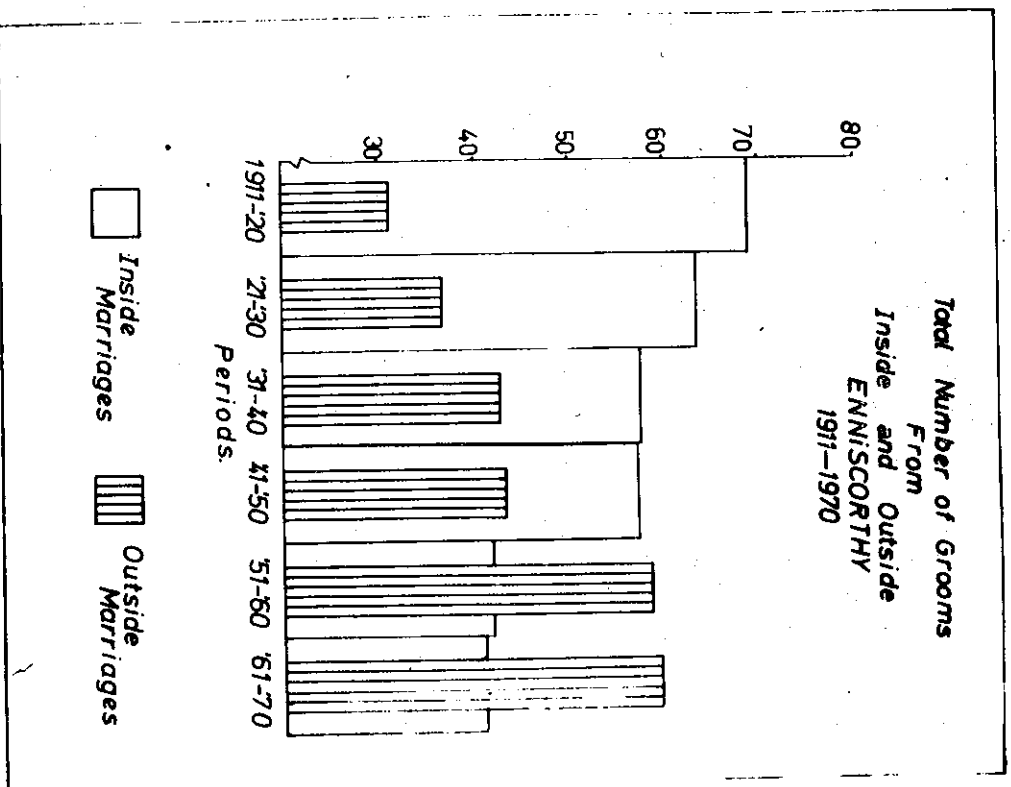


FIG 2

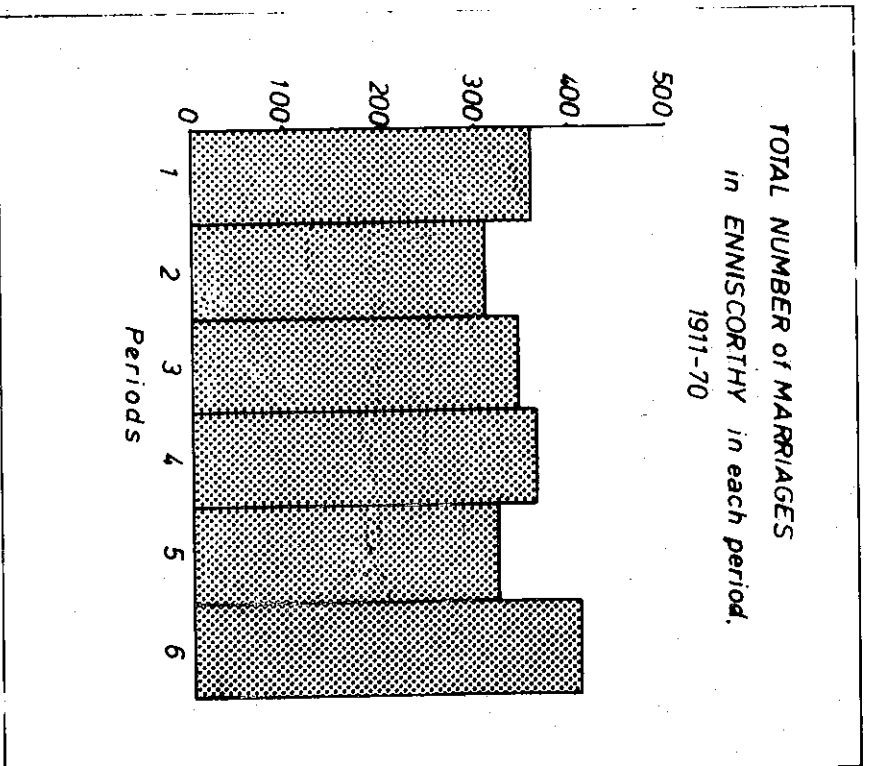
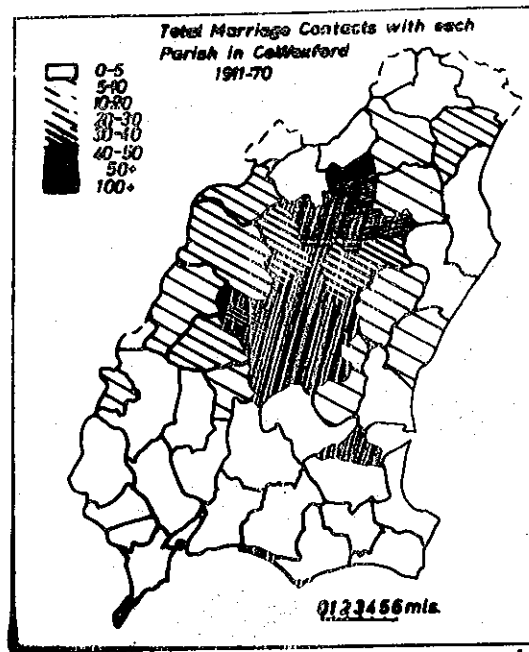
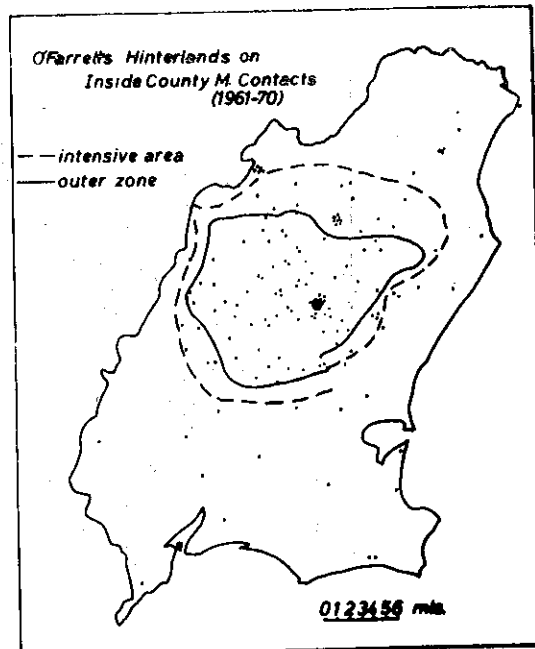


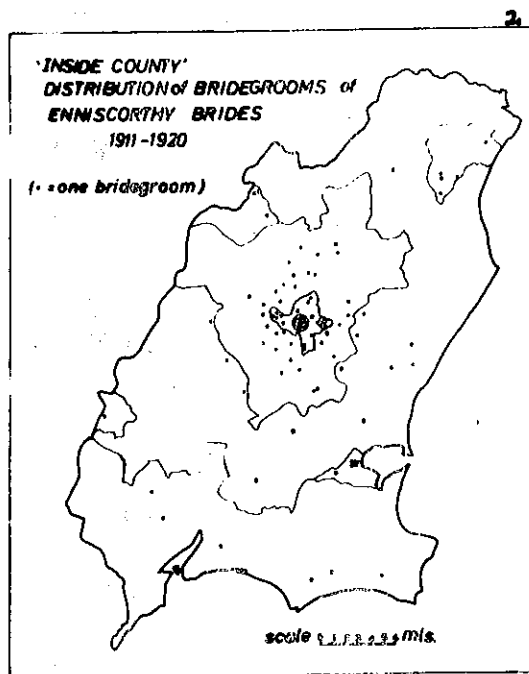
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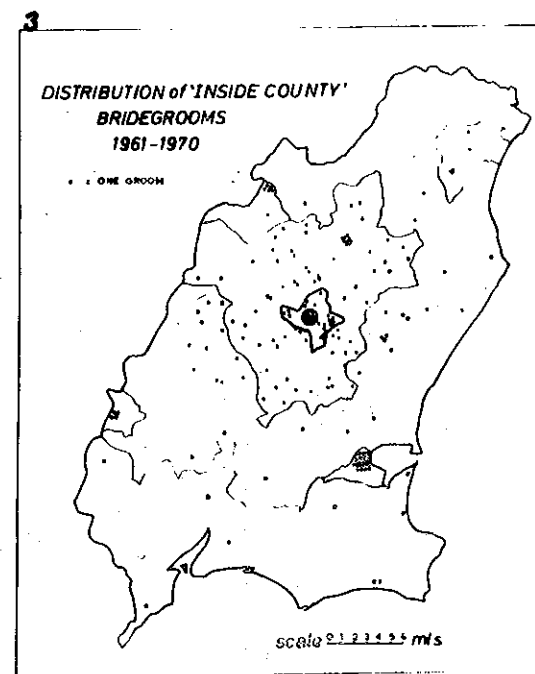
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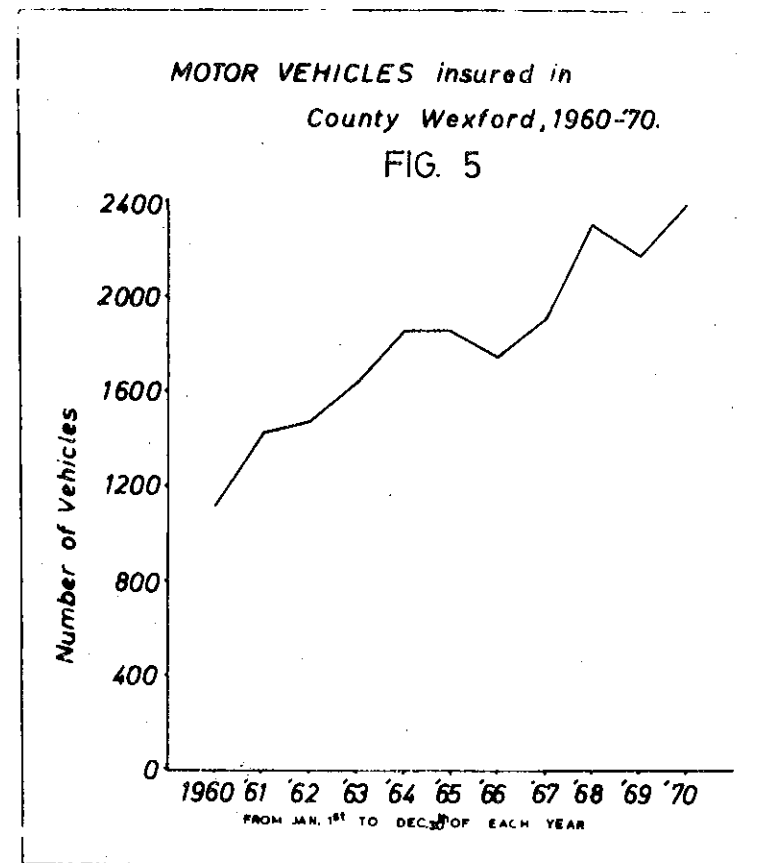
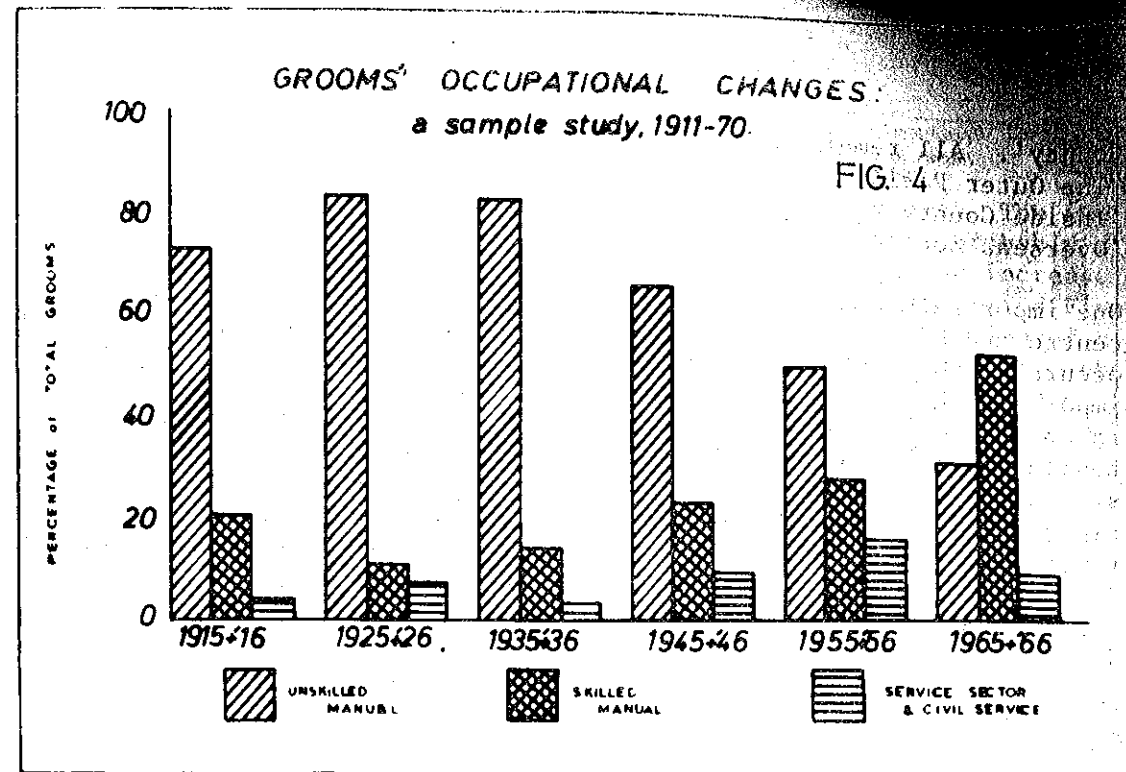
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2.



3



County'. All remaining parishes in County Wexford are referred to as 'The Outer Parish Zone'. All the zones of contact mentioned here are 'Inside County Zones'. However, the 'Outside County Zone' and the 'Overseas Zone' will be referred to as well.

One important thing to note here is that Enniscorthy is a service centre and has been for some centuries. No change of urban function occurs in the town in the years under consideration, 1911-70. Another important thing to note is that which is shown in figure 1, i.e. there is no significant fluctuation in the total numbers of marriages being contracted in Enniscorthy over the six time periods. However, the most significant feature which emerges from the marriage data is the rapid expansion of the number of marriages between females from Enniscorthy town and males from outside the town i.e. "outside marriages". Figure 2 shows the number of both inside and outside marriages, i.e. the grooms coming from inside or outside the town, for the six time-periods. Whereas Period One shows a mere 31% outside marriages, Period Six shows 59%. There is a concurrent decrease in inside marriages from 69% in Period One to 41% in Period Six.

Apart from the general increase in the number of outside marriages, there is also an increased distance of the groom's home from the town between 1911 and 1970. Maps 2 and 3 show this fairly clearly. Figure 3 shows the number of grooms from each contact zone as a percentage of the total in each time-period. Space does not allow us to treat each contact zone separately, but only in relation to the other contact zones in any time-period. If, then, we take Period One as starting point we notice a slight increased proportion of grooms in Period Two from the Overseas Zone. More significant, however, are the increases in both the Outer Enniscorthy Zone and the Inner Parish Zone in Period Two and Three. Outer Enniscorthy shows the greater increase in contacts in the second period, while the Inner Parish Zone shares in the significant increase in the third period. It seems significant too that the four other zones show decreasing proportions of marriage contacts for the same time-periods. However, Period Four, 1941-50, shows increased marriage distance beyond the Outer Enniscorthy and Inner Parish Zones. This is seen in the increased proportion of contacts for the Outer Parish and Outside County Zones. A slighter increase in Overseas Zone contacts is becoming evident, though this becomes more prominent in the fifties, Period Five. It is quite noticeable that the Urban Zone, inside County Wexford, did not increase its proportion of marriage contacts with Enniscorthy town in Period Four, although the Outside County Zone did. This appears to reflect a situation where the Outside County Zone was absorbing female labour from Enniscorthy more than the other towns of Wexford were. Nonetheless, the fifth period witnesses a very rapid increase in the proportion of Urban Zone marriage contacts, along with the Overseas Zone.

It seems important to note the increased contact with the Urban Zone

during the fifties, a trend which continues in the sixties. The increased contacts from the Overseas Zone in the fifties is probably a reflection of the emigration trend during that period. The increased proportion of marriage contacts with the Overseas Zone in Period Five continues into Period Six. Apart from the increased proportion of contacts in the Urban and Overseas Zones, the Outer Parish Zone also shows a great increase in its proportion. As distinct from the second or third periods, for example, Period Six seems to show a much more mature stage in the evolution of a pattern of marriage distances from the town. Generally speaking, then, an analysis of proportional marriage links per contact zone over the years 1911-70 reveals a clear pattern of increasing marriage distance.

Although there is not space to deal with either the parishes or the contact zones separately, it is worth noting the fact that the South County showed very little marriage contact with Enniscorthy (see map 4). It seems to reflect the absence of much contact between the South County and Enniscorthy. The baronies of Forth and Bargy, in the east of the South County, formed an indigenous unit in the last century and earlier. It was one of the first-settled English-speaking areas of South Eastern Ireland. The group of settlers were Kentish and they developed a distinct dialect of their own. Because of their distinctiveness, the inhabitants formed a rather enclosed coastal community. There are survivals of this sub-culture in the Forth and Bargy region still extant. This helps to explain why there seems to have been very little contact between the South County and Enniscorthy town. However, the registers showed an increase in marriage contacts in the sixties, which seems to reflect decreased isolation of the area.

#### Towards an explanation of the Marriage Patterns.

Marriage registers were relied upon for source material and no detailed survey was as yet carried out to ascertain what processes caused the changes in the marriage patterns. However, a number of processes seem to be important. The development of Enniscorthy as a service centre from 1911 to 1970 may be significant from three points of view - the development of the service centre itself, the relationship between the extent of the town's service hinterlands and the contact zones at any time, and the distance people travelled to work in the town. Another element which may be significant is the population structure of the urban and rural districts at any time. Levels of formal education, along with occupational change, may also have influenced the increase in marriage distance.

With regard to the development of Enniscorthy as a service centre it is only necessary to say that its overall growth, especially in relation to the wholesale sector, along with its emergence as a mart centre and a centre for seasonal (and some full-time) employment for people from

the countryside, strengthened the reciprocal relationship between town and rural areas, with increased contact between them. O'Farrell studied Enniscorthy's trade hinterlands in 1968. Looking at map 5 we see the relationship between social and economic space, between O'Farrell's hinterlands and the marriage contact area of Enniscorthy (within County Wexford) for the same decade. The relationship here seems to be fairly direct. Hence the significance of the town as service centre in relation to its groomshed. In the same map 5 we see the relationship between O'Farrell's 'labour supply area' and the outer reaches of Enniscorthy's marriage contact area in the sixties.

Although it cannot be stated that there is a definite casual relationship between population changes and probability of marriage contact, it was found that population changes in the Enniscorthy Urban and Rural Districts may have influenced the outward development of marriage contacts in this study. It was found, for example, that the town's population only changed slightly from 1911 to 1970, that there was a continued rural male surplus in the 20-35 age group concurrent with a continued urban female surplus, along with a pyramid structure which suggests migration or emigration of population in certain periods. These factors suggest a correlation between population (size and structure) and the probability of marriage contact in this sample area.

However important population structure may be to marriage contacts, mobility is a very important factor in the areal extent of such contacts. Data on motor car licensing could be obtained for county Wexford only for the years 1950 to 1968. Figure 4 shows the increase from 2,061 cars licensed in 1950 to 9,667 in 1968. The increased private car ownership implies a significant increase in mobility through the fifties and sixties. This may have had a direct influence on the increased marriage contact with the Outer Parish Zone, the Urban Zone and the Outside County Zone during the same decades. Allied to the growth in mobility is the increased aspiration for further travel among people. One process which may have influenced this increased aspiration is formal education. In this context it is only necessary to say that it was found, for example, that the numbers of first grade students in Enniscorthy Christian Brothers school increased by 239.5% between Period One and Period Six;

Finally, a significant complementary process to increasing levels of education is occupational change. A sample was taken of grooms' occupations for two years of each decade in this study, from the state registers. Figure 5 is a resulting graph. This graph shows a general increase in skilled manual occupations after the first three periods, concurrent with decreases in unskilled manual occupations. The number of grooms employed in the service sector and in the civil service also increased. It was found above that, as outside marriage contacts increased, so did the groomshed (i.e. the spatial area from which grooms

came). Accordingly, the widening of the groomshed seems to be directly related to increasing groom occupational status.

The factors and processes mentioned here in relation to increased groomshed and increased marriage distance are simply correlated with the marriage data. An infinitely more complex problem is the establishment of casual relationships, a matter for further study.

#### CONCLUSION

We have examined the use of marriage distance as an index, especially of decreasing isolation of an area. In the sample area for this study it was found that, as the number of marriages between Enniscorthy females and males from outside the town increased, so did the groomshed. This can be safely taken as an indication that Enniscorthy is now the centre of a greater area of contact than it was in 1911. The same maybe said of any town in Ireland. With regard to any Irish town coming out of its nineteenth-century shell, so to speak, using marriage distance as an indication of increasing area of contact seems to bear satisfying results.

However, any modern geographical work is incomplete without some explanation of spatial patterns found. To this end the present paper could only correlate an amount of data, leaving a more detailed and complete explanatory and casual analysis of the marriage patterns to further study.

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## STEINBECK AND AMERICAN GEOGRAPHY

Steve Shaughnessy U.S. Student  
Although the title of this article might seem to indicate a general overview of American geography, it is far from that. What it is, is an attempt to show how John Steinbeck, the American novelist, was more effective at delineating geographical problems in America than the professional geographers themselves. Undoubtedly, the novel which reflects the heart of Steinbeck's work best, is "The Grapes of Wrath". In this novel Steinbeck shows the futility of a people who were dehumanized by a force they could neither comprehend nor reckon with. In short, "*The Grapes of Wrath*" is unwittingly one of the most effective books ever written on the social geography of rural America. If we are to be part of a living and dynamic discipline, then we must explore this novel as a geographical treatise, one which has great relevance for all human geographers.

The first part of the book is devoted to creating a clear picture of the Oklahoma environment of the 1930's and some of its inhabitants. More specifically, we are introduced to a family of Oklahoma tenant-farmers who have a deep commitment of the local environment, and a religious involvement with their own piece of infertile land. The Joads, like many other rural families, were torn from this land by an inhuman business elite, whose only interest was in maximizing their profits by the commercialization and mechanization of the tenant-farms in the "Dust Bowl" region. While these farms were at least barely viable when individually operated, by 1960 a sizeable proportion of the commercial farmland was totally useless - the soils last remaining minerals were reaped by men who knew little more than their financial statements showed, let alone proper agricultural practices. At any rate, it becomes obvious that when the Joads were forced from their land and onto the road - a vital part of their lives was lost forever. "This Land, this red land is us; and the flood years and the dust years and the drought years are us. We can't start again..... (p.95)". In these sentiments we are aware for the first time that the forthcoming journey, their migration, is futile. They would become migrants against their will, and never again would the land be the centralizing force in their lives. "The family met at the most important place, near the truck. The house was dead, and the fields were dead, but this truck was the active thing, the living principle (p.108)". This line, more so than any other, summarises the real tragedy of rural America on the move.

Steinbeck went to great lengths in describing the intricacies of the importance of the family unit in rural America. Like the rural families so well analyzed by Kavanagh in Ireland, the American rural family of the 30's was a patriarchal, male-dominated unit. There was a great importance attached to the presence of the family name on the land.

When the time comes to leave, it is not surprising that Granpa, who is the titular head of the family, is reluctant to leave. "You go right on along. Me - I'm stayin" I give her a goin ' over all night mos'ly. This here's my country .... it ain't no good but it's my country..... I'll jus' stay here where I b'long (p.121) (end quote)". While Ma Joad is the one who keeps the family together, it is young Tom who is highly respected by all family members and becomes the leading decision-maker. It was Tom who forced Granpa to leave with the family, but it is not surprising that Granpa dies shortly after the journey begins.

In the course of the family's journey westward, Steinbeck tells us of a whole county on the move and he examines the lives and experiences of a simple, rural people, who are forced into unwanted and alien roles. Each night 40 or more families huddled together as one - visions of golden times in the Californian paradise was a dream they all shared. "They were not farm men any more, but migrant men. And the thought, the planning, the long staring silence that had gone out to the fields, went now to the roads, to the distance, to the West (p.215)" Steinbeck goes into great detail describing the social relations between these various "families of the road" and also the changes in intra-family relations over time. One interesting change is the increasing dominance of older female family members, once they are away from the farm, away from tradition.

The perceptions which the Joad family had of California were implanted in their imaginations by unethical, economically-motivated Californian landowners. These landowners painted a picture of an idyllic state in order to encourage so many migrants to come to California that job demand would rise high above the number of available jobs. In this situation where jobs were scarce, men were reduced to the level of animals and would work at anything that was offered, at starvation wages. Many died of hunger and disease, others of demoralization. "While the Californians wanted many things, accumulation, social success, amusement, luxury, and a curious banking security, the new barbarians wanted only two things - land and food; and to them the two were one (p.257)". The migrants were the slaves of a tiny elite class, they were vulnerable pawns in the cut-throat chess game of life. They were forced to keep moving, never allowed to settle. A short conversation between two migrants emphasises the meaning of this:

"Well Sir, we'll be sorry to see you go,  
said Willie, "Your folks are good folks"

Tom lighted his cigarette "I've been thinking about it a lot. Jesus Christ, I wish we could settle down (p.394)"

When we finally reach the end of this "true to life" novel, the Joads are near total defeat.

Their dream of settling down will never be realized. The family unit, their last remaining stronghold - can not withstand the bitter changes brought on by their futile migration. The family is shattered by death and separation, and more symbolically through the still-born birth of Rosasharn's baby. All the odds were against them, even the environment, the climate, turned against them by immobilizing their truck, their means of migration.

However, Steinbeck's novel has an unwritten sequel. The response to the "Grapes of Wrath" was so phenomenal - one would expect that the conscience of America was stimulated enough to take positive action. This was not the case, and what did happen would provide enough material for a text on Behavioural geography. The great majority of Americans ignored the intolerable situation in California, and even up to the late 1960's and early 70's, hundreds of thousands of migrant Mexican farm workers were subjected to the same hellish conditions that overwhelmed the Joads. With the ideals of young Tom Joad, Cessar Chavey began to organize these workers in the late 1960's - and against astounding odds, the power of the few is beginning to crumble against the needs of so many. "Woe to him that is alone when he falleth, for he hath not another to help him up.....if two lie together, then they have heat; but how can one be warm alone? And if one prevail against him, two shall withstand him, and a three-fold cord is not quickly broken (p.462)"

It is appalling that the conditions which Steinbeck abhorred so much, were so slow to be changed and are still not completely rectified. The most unfortunate aspect of the plight of the migrant farm workers was/is the apparent ignorance of the Association of American geographers of the situation. Is it because American universities are greatly financed by the same corporations that own many of the commercial farms in the United States? Or is it because American geographers are afraid of taking a stand on an issue which might contradict the rationale behind the U.S' glorified free-enterprise system? Whatever the reasoning behind their unwillingness to oppose the proponents of inhumanity in America, American geographers (with rare exceptions) have proven that in the U.S, anyway, Geography is a discipline for the elite. Until American Geographers choose en masse to abandon their four-walled environment, and tackle such problems as Steinbeck has so vividly presented to us, geography in the U.S will be nothing more than an academic playground.

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"The Small Industries Division was set up in 1967. This division deals with the setting up of small industries."

"The farm size in Ireland can generally be described as small, medium, and large."

"Large scale commercial farming is not usually found on a farm under 20 acres."

Perhaps in this category could be put the following:-

"He (Ptolemy) was a famous geometrist (sic), he divided the circle into 360 degrees."

Oh, how easy it was to gain fame in them days!

This might also qualify for the present category:-

"In India the people forbid themselves to eat meat, so the animals are never killed. Think of the effect on the cattle trade."

3. The "Typographical (T)error" Syndrome.

This is the most common feature of all, and it also tends to appear most often in the best scripts, as victims are writing so fast that they commit all sorts of blunders, and then write so much that they haven't the time to go back over what they have written. Thus one is presented with a host of misspellings and other quirks:-

"The potential area for oil include the Porcupine Sea Blight."

"Cartography has now reached a sostificated standard."

"Wheat harvesting employs hugh combines and harvesters."

"...subsident farming..."

(One has heard of small farmers going under, but...)

"These were, respectfully, the..."

(Maybe this was a gesture of extreme politeness or deference towards the examiner, but somehow one doubts it.)

"In Ireland during the 17th century due to its religion the fish industry became almost distinct."

At present the main areas of redistributive farming are the USSR., Soviet China."

One can immediately think of 800 million people who might object vehemently to that. And then there was this gem:-

"He believed that man was a pissive agent..."

4. The "Guess-who-stayed-up-the-night-before-studying?" syndrome.

These victims find it very difficult to think or express themselves clearly. Of course, there are also those for whom this is an inherent problem, but examiners are compassionate to the end:-

"Navan lead/zinc is mined locally due to lack of weight loss."

"Coal is composed of a number of materials such as limestone, iron ore."

"If heavy industry is located in an area there will be an influx of men. Women will enter the area. Thus there will be a need for light industry. In ballyfermot many young girls are employed as machinists, and at other light industry - Jacobs located their factory in Tallaght."

"The impact of ideology on the spatial structure of the world's economy has made a very significant impact on the structure of the world's economies."

"Various explorers such as Vasgo de Gamba (sic) and Christopher Columbus learned the hard way about certain 'unknown' and 'vitally informative' means of criteria which set Geographers on their way to discovery in these areas in order to facilitate travel and open up further areas for discovery. These events set geographers on their way towards discovering further information."

"... the prairies of Canada and North America."



This victim may have arrived in time for the exam but could hardly be described as punctual!

"A family works its own plot and then sells it in an outside market."

"Consumption of food is light, as it is not encouraged." (One has heard of dieting, but this is ridiculous!)

"In such areas, subsistence agriculture thrives at a very low standard."

"In the paddyfields in China over 1,500 mandays are required per person per hectare per year."

(If you can't figure that one out, you shouldn't be here!)

"In the 7th century agriculture was brought in."

#### 5. The "Sophisticated Error" syndrome.

These victims may be divided into subgroups. Firstly there are those who ascribe unsuspected attributes to people and things no doubt unintentionally:-

"At the beginning of the year a conference to determine the laws of the seas took place in Caracas. Ireland sent delegates from RTE and other important officials."

This level (of office function) includes what are called planned visionaries e.g. TD's."

"It is because of affluence that the demand for bananas and other luxuries are made."

Then there are those whose leanings towards an interest in politics display themselves in the strangest ways:-

"The IDA was set up at a time when the Irish economy was in a very bad states."

"Maps are a proportional representation of the earth's surface."

#### 6. The "Waffler" Syndrome.

These victims can usually be readily identified by the regularity

with which "etc." appears on their scripts. But the following really takes the biscuit:-

"... when such men as Strabo and others..."

#### 7. The "Misplaced" Syndrome

These are the people who simply shouldn't be taking Geography:-

"Pastoral nomadism takes place in parts of Africa - in the area above the Rio Grande where there are deserts and steppes."

#### 8. And finally, there are those who can be just plain amusing:-

"From the very beginning of time, man has always needed some tool, in the earlier stages of development this tool helped him to come to grips with his environment."

.....  
Metallurgy - love on an iron - bed.

..... Soil Creep - an earthworm

Sub-Tropical - under the weather.

.....

Arctic Circle - a group who suck mints

..... Basic rock - skid row L.P.

Cold front - frigid date.

.....

Erosion platform - a bad pair of sneakers

..... Leeward - in the direction of  
Cork

Cycle of erosion - an old bicycle

(Jim Corcoran)

## THE TWO-NATION THEORY AND THE IRISH BORDER

Michael Ward, 2nd. year

It is understood by the Two Nation's Theory that there are two distinct communities in Ireland, one Protestant and the other Catholic, which are fundamentally and culturally different and, therefore, constitute separate nations. Let us examine this theory, with special reference to the Irish border.

Having been born an Uster Catholic and reared in a fairly mixed religious community I find it difficult to accept the simpliste theory that there are two quite separate nations in Ireland, using the commonly defied sense of the word 'nation'. Neither could I agree with the equally simpliste counter-theory that Ireland is one nation with a single neo-Gaelic, Roman Catholic culture to which all citizens, North and South, must conform. The fact is that Irish society, North, South, East and West, is one of mixed cultural inheritance and mixed origins, comprising Gaelic, Anglo-Irish Ulster Scottish and English.

For centuries, the links between Scotland and the Ulster coastline have been close, each being colonized by the other at different times. However, the crucial element is that the large-scale Ulster plantation of 1609 occurred after the reformation, so that the colonists were inhibited from cultural assimilation with the native population because of their religious connections. The seventeenth century struggle between colonists and natives was marked by atrocities on both sides, the memory of which provided the settlers with myths and legends to bolster their moral. The Protestant peasants were conscious of the fact that their title to their land was by right of conquest and that this was not accepted by their former owners. Keeping alive from one generation to the next a memory of violent attempts by Catholics to displace them from the land during the seventeenth century, these Protestant peasants feared and hated their Catholic neighbours. On the other hand, Catholics, who continued to make their living on poorer land, nursed a grudge against those who had displaced them from land which they held from time immemorial. Thus a strong barrier to assimilation was set up so that it is not surprising that the reciprocal bitterness persists three and a half centuries later.

In this timely perspective we can see clearly how the situation developed and that the division in the country is not purely religious, although the latter played a part in its development. The real difference between Protestants and Catholics in Northern Ireland are psychological. They are based mainly on fear, misunderstanding and mistrust. Because the two communities did not assimilate this mistrust became institutionalized over time. However, Protestants in North-East Ulster and throughout Ireland make up just one of many sectors of the Irish population.

Leaving aside stereotypes, it is evident that the total population has much in common. A Southern Catholic knows what a Northern Protestant

means by extoling the merits of the defenders of Derry. He can appreciate the significance of this event for the other person, although he sees it in different terms. The twelfth of July procession in the North is much the same as that of St. Patrick's day in the South. Both are political-religious events. Again, the practical divisions between the two communities in Ireland, the orange versus green affair, is peculiarly Irish, apart from minor survivals of the same problem in Canada, Glasgow and Liverpool. In Ireland, unlike Britain, politics both North and South remain frozen in a pre-ideological state. Because one section of people demand civil rights for all, it should not be supposed that section belongs to a different nation. Many cultural and economic organizations in Ireland ignore the border and function on an all-Ireland basis. The Irish Congress of Trade Unions and sporting organizations like the G.A.A. are examples. It is even more important to notice that the Protestant and Catholic churches are themselves organized on an all-Ireland basis. Therefore, it can be said that there is an underlying sense of one-ness which has survived fifty years of partition.

However, since the establishment of the border in 1922 many artificial barriers have been set up between North and South. When the Irish Free State came into existence our official Irish traditions were narrowed to the exclusion of Anglicized elements. For example, the Irish language became a compulsory part of Irish examinations and entry to the public civil service. This meant that the Protestant tradition was discriminated against in the running of an independent Irish Free State. Another unhappy development since the foundation of the state has been the influence which Catholic teaching and the Catholic hierarchy were allowed to have in legislation, at the expense of other denominations. The 1937 constitution and 1954 Mother and Child Scheme are examples. In the 1937 constitution, for example, the dissolution of marriage between two people was formally legislated against. However, it is also fair to say that Northern legislation has been influenced by Protestant opinion at the expense of the Catholic, retaining antiquated laws to entrench their position, as, for example, the Multiple Business Vote. None the less, their attitude of the Northern Protestant community can be understood when we realize that they felt threatened by the sometime Rome rule in the South, along with the operation of the Ne Tamere Decree.

However, much Ulstermen may stress their distinctions from other Irishmen they rarely speak of themselves as a separate nation. Their first duty is to the Protestant way of life and the constitutional and economic links with Britain are in their minds the sole guarantee for the preservation of their identity. This attitude will, in my opinion, change over time. However, we in the South have first to show Ulstermen that they form a very important part of the Irish nation. To do this we shall have to look critically at our constitution, reviewing it

to suit all Irishmen. It is important to note here the results of a survey by Rose which show that not all Ulster Protestants were united in a common aim with regard to the border problem. Professor Rose found that before the troubles began 29% Protestants felt they were British subject, 22% Ulstermen alone and 20% felt they were merely Irish.

Then what about the border itself? It seems that no matter what way one chooses to discuss this question of location of the border, one has to conclude that it is either in the wrong place or that it is not needed at all. For one thing, if you take the view that the Ulster Protestant population constitutes a separate nation, then you must concede the fact that the 'two nations' are not so clearly spatially separated. The border becomes totally irrational when we take the view that there are not two nations in Ireland. Even the argument that the North and South are economically incomparable is falling down. The reasons for the latter include the fact that there is no room now for extra trade protectionist policy for the North on account of membership of the E.E.C. and its Free Trade Area. Along with this the South is becoming more industrialized since 1922. Any other economic differences between North and South are the result of comparative advantage, and differences of this nature can be found in any country. Social welfare payments in Northern Ireland which have long surpassed those of the South, are now falling in relation to Southern payments, especially since the advent of the last Government in the Republic.

In conclusion, it seems to me that the concept of a mono-cultural Nation-State in Ireland does not suit the Irish dimension. Those who pursued this illusion in the Republic have been the real partitionists for they have reinforced the old barriers. I believe that only the men of violence can keep Ireland divided. However, in the end common sense will prevail and a newer and better Irish nation will take shape.

.....  
 Microgeography - a lecture from Fran Walsh.  
 .....

Natural vegetation - a beard. Raw material - a group of first years  
 .....

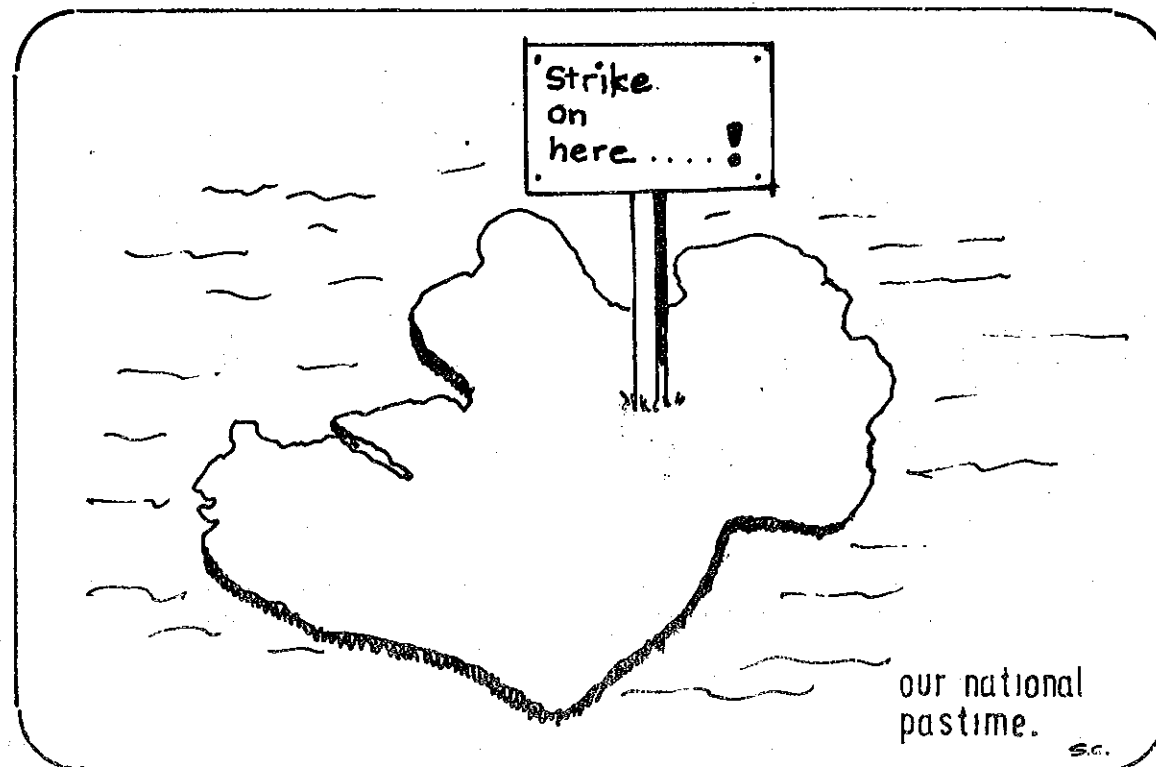
(JC)

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## THE DIFFUSION OF AN AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION IN COUNTY MONAGHAN 1950-70

Gerard Duffy, 3rd Year

Following the work of Hagerstrand which began with the publication of 'Innovation Diffusion as a Spatial Process' (1952)<sup>1</sup>, diffusion studies have attracted the attention of quite a number of geographers especially in the United States.<sup>2</sup> Even before this work on diffusion analysis were published, e.g. Sauer<sup>3</sup> and Stanislauski<sup>3</sup>. The importance of these earlier geographers of diffusion is mainly that they identified the spatial aspects of the diffusion process.

Hagerstrand and his disciples are important, however, from the fact that they have produced a model using Monte Carlo Simulation techniques and based on probability theory, which furnishes us with a relatively good "spatial" explanation for the diffusion of innovation. Other important studies here have been those of Bouden<sup>4</sup>, and Brown<sup>5</sup>. A more recent study is 'The Diffusion of an Innovation in an Urban System' by Cohen<sup>6</sup>. This latter study, however, is part of the Hierarchical approach to diffusion and for the purpose of this paper, may have little relevance.

This paper will consider the diffusion of a single innovation—milking machines—in the County of Monaghan between the years 1950 and 1970. The aim is to identify the degree of change that is taking place in agricultural practices and economics in the county during the years 1950-70 by tracing the diffusion of an important agricultural innovation in this time period. It is also intended that some attempt should be made to suggest possible explanations underlying the diffusion patterns.

Nearly all of Hagerstrand's work and much of the subsequent studies have been more concerned with the theoretical aspects of diffusion. The aim here, as suggested above, is more empirical. Most people would agree that the diffusion of innovations and changing agricultural practices and economics are interrelated. The time period chosen for this study is significant for the major innovations and changes in farming that have taken place both at the national scale, and in County Monaghan specifically between 1950 and 1970. The county has undergone major changes in the degree of technological application to agriculture and changing farm economics over this period. Evidence of this change and the degree of its importance can be observed quite clearly from the fact that 72.88% of the total productive land in the county in 1950 was involved in a tillage economy. In 1970 this had dropped to 19.8%, representing a decline of 53.08%.

Evidence of the increasing rate of mechanisations and labour saving techniques in agriculture within the county is the introduction of appliances such as the milking machine. The latter increased in absolute numbers, from eleven for the whole county in 1950 to 898 in 1970.

The milking machine was a major innovation, and as such merits selection

"Early majority" one would, therefore, expect the growth curve for milking machines to represent an early stage in the diffusion process. This indeed, is the case (see graph). It can, therefore, be assumed that it is highly possible, if not probable, that when the milking machine has been adopted by the majority of farmers in the county, the growth curve will then continue the "tailing-off" characteristic.

Secondly, the curve does not go through the origin. This again is simply due to the fact that by 1950, eleven milking machines had already been purchased by Monaghan farmers.

It can be deduced from this curve that the nineteen-fifties represent a period of very restricted adoption. By 1960, only 2.14% had adopted. This is only slightly less than Tarrant's 25% figure for the state of innovators. Therefore, for this entire ten-year period (1950-1960) only the true innovators had actually adopted. Around 1960 stage two is reached, i.e. the stage of early adopters. By 1965 7.19% had adopted which is slightly over half of the 13.5% given by Tarrant as representing the second state. Therefore the years 1965-70 have witnessed a rapid increase in the number of milking machines in Monaghan, rising from this figure of 7.19% in 1965 to 18.6% in 1970.

It can be concluded then that the growth curve for milking machines in Monaghan appears to show a marked similarity with the theoretical growth curve and by using the classification scheme of Tarrant an understanding of the stages of development is obtained.

### The Spatial Diffusion of the Milking Machine

In his study in Southern Sweden, Hagerstrand made four descriptive observations the diffusion process.

1. The innovation is initially accepted only by a few.
2. Diffusion of the innovation grew out from the centre but it was not regular i.e. it had a spatial bias.
3. As the diffusion process evolved further, there was a build-up at the original centre.
4. Secondary centres emerge as sources of further diffusion.

With regard to the spatial diffusion of the milking machine in Monaghan these same characteristics can be observed. The spread of the milking machine has been wrapped up in a series of 5 maps at 1950, 1953, 1960, 1965 and 1970. These time intervals are dictated by the data available in the Central Statistics Office. The number of adoptions has been mapped as a percentage of the total potential adopters in each District Electoral Division.

in any study of diffusion of agricultural innovations. However, when indicators were being chosen, account was taken of the degree to which the chosen innovation would reflect, by the consequence of its adoption, a more fundamental change in agricultural practice. The milking machine represents an increasing degree of specialisation in dairying as well as increasing cow numbers.

In the case of Co. Monaghan using this indicator in innovation diffusion is particularly useful because this county had no strong dairying tradition in the past. This position is now changing. Relative to the county as a whole, the ratio for Monaghan compares very favourably. The National average is of the ratio 1:7.79 i.e. for every 7.79 males over 18 employed on Irish farms, there is one milking machine. The corresponding figure for Monaghan is of the ratio 1:8.27 which is only slightly lower. When one realizes that five of the seven Irish counties which score a higher ratio of milking machines per capita (over eighteen males) than Monaghan are in the Golden Vale, the very heart of our dairying industry, one senses further the significance and the growth of Monaghan's dairying industry. These counties are Cork, Tipperary, Waterford, North Kerry and Limerick.

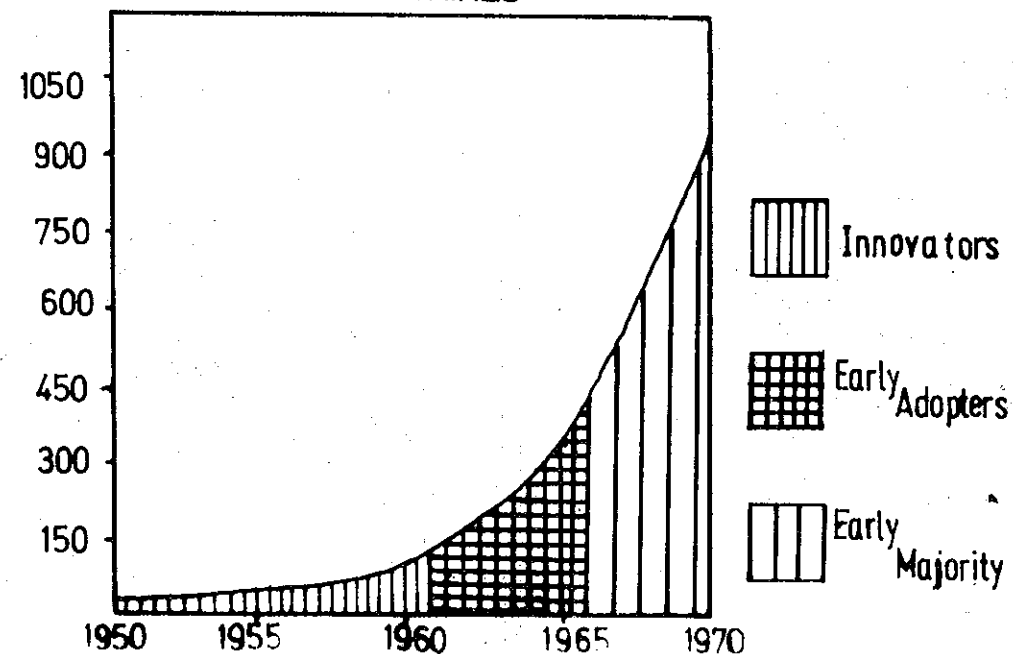
#### Diffusion Over Time And The Growth Curve

An important aspect of the diffusion of an innovation over time is the application of the logistic or growth curve theory. This theory states that if the accumulated number of adopters (sc) is plotted against time (t) the result will be a curve. The growth curve for an innovation can vary for a number of different reasons and because it is a model, its application to a real world situation can show many anomalies. However, the growth-curve obtained for the diffusion of the milking machine in Monaghan is remarkable for the degree to which it appears to resemble the features of the theoretical curve (see graph).

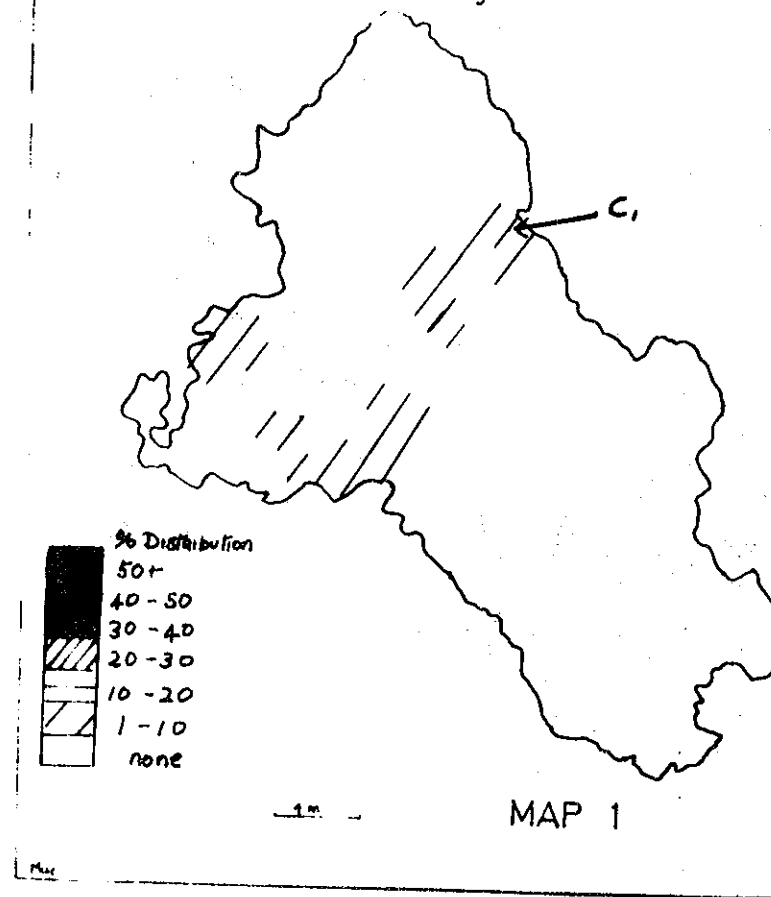
#### The Graph

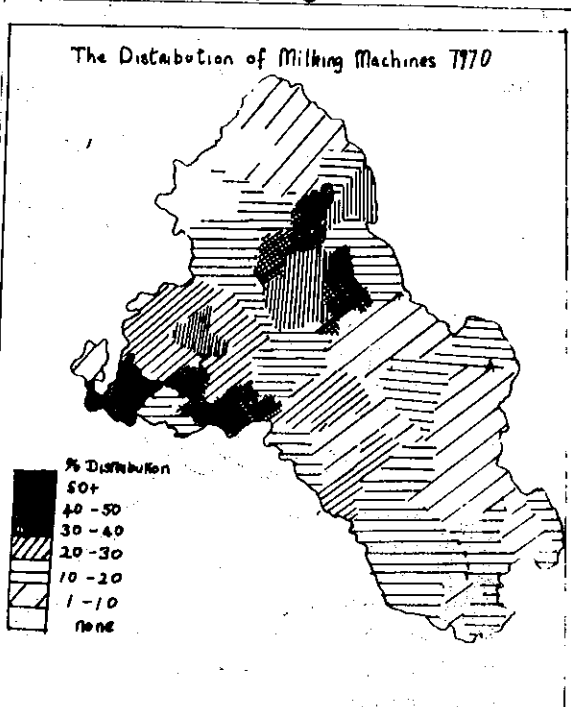
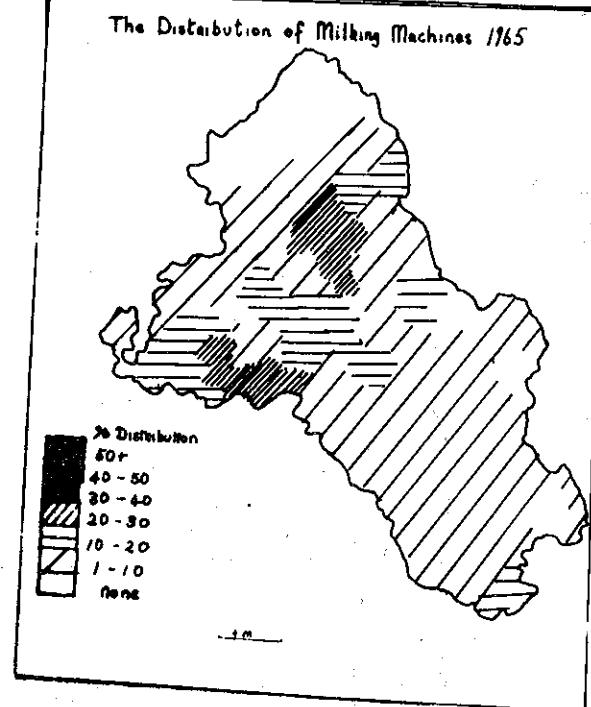
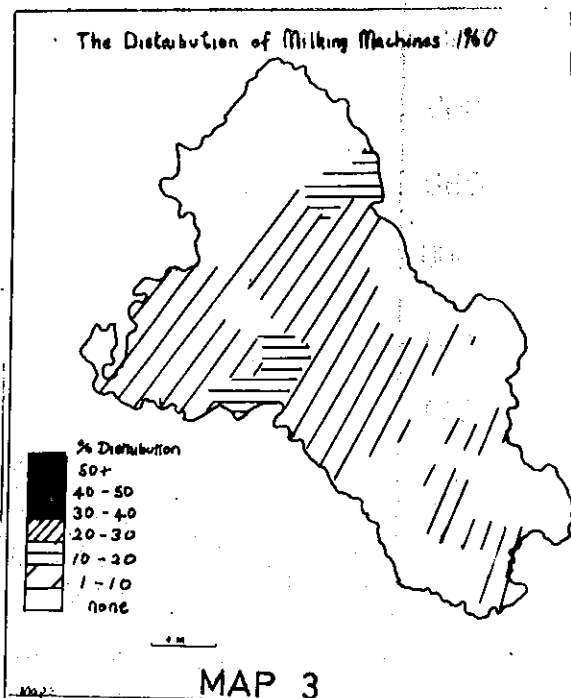
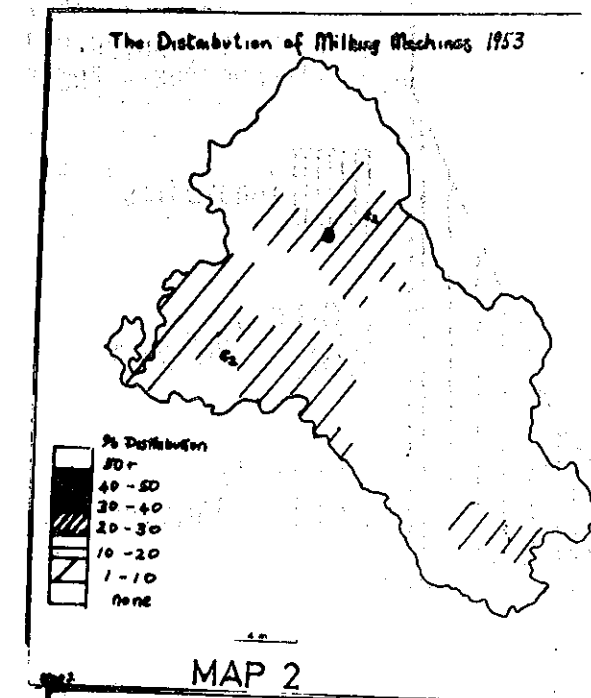
At a first glance, it may appear that the similarity is not as pronounced as I have suggested. The most noticeable difference is that the 'tailing-off' of the curve does not occur. The explanation for this is simple. The theoretical curve applies to an innovation that has begun at zero acceptance and has gone through the entire process until every potential adopter has adopted it. This latter is referred to in the literature as the saturation point<sup>1</sup>. But in milking machine acceptance in County Monaghan, only 18.6% of the total potential adopters have in actual fact adopted. For this calculation, it was assumed that farmers with less than 15 acres would not be likely to adopt. Under the classification system suggested by Tarrant he groups all potential adopters into five categories (1) Innovators (Pioneers) (2.5%) (2) Early adopters (13.5%) (3.) Early majority (34%) (4) Late majority (34%) and finally (5) Laggards (16%). Adoption of the milking machine in Monaghan is at the stage of

### MILKING MACHINES



The Distribution of Milking Machines 1950





### Map Commentary

Map 1 : This map shows the emergency of two centres of origin, which shall be referred to as  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  (as shown on map. In both cases they show less than 10% of the saturation level.

Map 2 : The spatial extent of diffusion from  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ : Diffusion from  $C_1$  has been remarkably regular except to the South West i.e. towards  $C_2$ .  $C_2$  like  $C_1$ , has diffused regularly but does not move towards  $C_1$ . Indeed there appears to be some diffusing barrier here which stands out as a line of demarkation between these two centres. On this map also, the emergency of a secondary centre (sc) is observed. This centre is completely detached in space from the original centres.

Map 3 : Here, the diffusion outwards from the original centres,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  continues as it does also from the secondary centre (sc). A marked Southern spatial bias is evident here is diffusion to the North West does not occur. Diffusion from sc also has occurred. Furthermore continuous build up has occurred at the original centres (see map).

Map 4 : By this stage nearly all the county has experienced to a varying degree the spatial spread of the diffusion process, except in the North West and two other smaller outlying areas in the East and South Coast of the country. Build-Up occurs at both  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  but also at sc. In the case of  $C_1$ , the centre of maximum concentration has moved slightly since 1960. It is also evident that much of the area surrounding  $C_1$ , is still only in the category 1 - 10%. This is less true of  $C_2$ . Evidence of a Southerly spatial bias can be seen from the greater concentration of adoption progressing Southwards into the heart of the country.

Map 5 : This map shows a much more complicated picture. Build-Up at the two original centres continues. The core in the case of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  has moved somewhat. Greater concentrations have quite clearly been established around these centres. The county as a whole shows a major increase in acceptance. Very few areas have by now been unaffected by the diffusion process. Outside the general core area the greatest concentration is South of the centre (see akkow on map). Greater concentrations have also spread outwards from the sea although no evidence of further build up is detected by the map.

It can be seen from this series of maps that the spatial diffusion of the milking machines in county Monaghan appears to resemble quite strongly the diffusion process described by Hagerstrand.

If you apply this diffusion pattern to the idea of changing farm practices and economies, a number of deductions can be made.

1. With regard to the adoption of a technological innovation namely the milking machine, there is a definite spatial orientating stretching in a SW to NE direction across the country. Within this belt there are core areas. It can be assumed that as far as the milking machine is concerned, this belt is the most progressive in the country.

2. It can also be assumed that this area represents a changing farm economy based on a greater degree of specialization in dairying.

It is not known why this spatial pattern emerges. However, it is likely that correlation with such phenomena as farm size, farming age structure, marital status and quality of land would yield a partial explanation.

#### CONCLUSION:

In this paper an attempt has been made to distinguish the more progressive agricultural regions in the county of Monaghan by looking at the diffusion of the milking machine overtime and space. With regard to the growth-curve theory, the one obtained for milking machines in Monaghan appears to be very similar to the theoretical one. Apparent anomalies can be explained by the stage at which the diffusion process finds itself.

The spatial aspect of the diffusion of the milking machine again appears to substantiate Hagerstrand's own findings. However, it has been found that the 'core' shifts about somewhat but it remains in the same general area.

Finally, the spatial extent of the diffusion of milking machines identifies one major area in the county that can be assumed to be the most progressive region with regard to this innovation. Following from this, it can further be assumed that this region represents changing farm economy, namely a move to a greater degree of specialization in dairying. However, a number of important questions can be raised at this stage from these findings.

1. Firstly, how important is farm size in shaping this pattern?
2. Secondly, is the religious question significant?
3. Thirdly, it can be asked how important is the location of co-operatives and urban centres?
4. And, fourthly, to what degree must demographic trends be considered?
5. How important are topographical features?
6. And finally, what is the influence if any of cross-border contacts?

These are but some of the important questions raised here. They are questions which on-going research will attempt to answer.

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## THE POET AS SOCIAL GEOGRAPHER

Sean Casey, 3rd Year

Social geographers, since the 1950's have stressed the fact, that to understand the character of a landscape and the forces that shape that landscape, one must understand the subjective views of the inhabitants of that place, their aspirations, beliefs and values. It is in this area of study, the intangibles in the landscape - the inner life of a community - that the social geographer can benefit from the poets' vision.

The poet is, par excellence, the sensitive man in his community, he has his finger on the pulse of society. His gift lies in his ability to enter into the minds and hearts of men, to see with their eyes, to feel with their feelings, to understand their motivations and passions. The poet is somewhat apart from the rest of men, in that his penetration of vision and his power of articulation enables him to state clearly what most of us only vaguely feel, or dimly comprehend. He has the power to discern the patterns and interrelationships that give order and coherence to the seemingly unrelated series of events and activities that give his community its distinctive character.

Patrick Kavanagh, poet, and sometime small farmer, lived and worked for 35 years of his life in the drumlin landscape of his native County Monaghan. He is thus doubly qualified to articulate the comedy and tragedy of rural life, the pull of irregular fields, the love/hate relationships between the peasant and his stoney grey soil. Much of his work, in his middle period (1930 - 1950) is a consideration of themes which are of major interest to the rural social geographer in their studies of rural social change.

In the poem, 'Shancoduff' Kavanagh equates his low squat black hills with the Alps and the Matterhorn. He sees his few rushy acres in a time scale that goes back to the Old Testament. The strangers in the landscape, 'the cattle drovers' who take shelter in "the Featherna Bush", see the same landscape in a very different light:-

*"Who owns them hungry hills  
That the water hen and snipe much have forsaken?  
A poet? Then by heavens he must be poor"*

The proud possessor of these black hills overhears the strangers gibe, and cries:-

*"I hear and is my heart not badly shaken?"*

In these few lines Kavanagh says much about the peasant's perception of his resources; he is a man far removed from the economic maximiser of classical economic theory. Like the alien strangers in the Shancoduff landscape, planners who try to impose their economic-centred

solutions on rural social problems, without giving due consideration to the peasant's socio-religious attachment to the land, stand in grave danger of *"badly shaking the peasants heart"*

The constant use of townland place names e.g. Mucker, Inniskeen, Glassdrummond, Drumcatton illustrates Kavanagh's perception of the Irish peasant's powerful attachment to his native place. For Kavanagh the naming of a place is a love-act, for - as in the old Testament - to name a place is to claim it as one's own. For the peasant the townland is his county, the parish his nation, and the county his universe:-

*"We borrowed the loan of Kerr's big ass  
To go to Dundalk with butter,  
Brought him home the evening before the market  
An exile that night in Mucker."*

The key word here is *exile*, a term which at once gives us an idea of the peasant's social field, and the intense social interaction that takes place (or has taken place in the past) in rural society at townland level.

The peasant is prepared to shed his blood for his land, and defend his farm boundaries with "blue cast steel", should the need arise. In his poem, "Epic", Kavanagh equates a local row over - "A road of rock, a no mans land" - with another row of the same year, "the Munich bother" which led to the outbreak of the second world war. This juxtaposition of the local row and the Universal war, illustrates the importance of the family farm: the farmer considers his few acres as his territory, his kingdom:- *A local row. Gods make their own importance.* Endless disputes over farm boundaries and *rights of way*, in these areas of fragmented holdings and long memories, fill the local newspapers from week to week, and may possibly account for the high concentration of solicitors' offices in these *zones of conflict!*

In his long poem 'The Great Hunger' (1942) Kavanagh gives his most detailed exploration of the major social, economic, and spiritual problems in the small farming community. Patrick Maguire, the central figure in the poem, is the archetypal type of the rural Irish bachelor. He is a man who accepted his Mother's advice and made a field his bride. Maguire convinces himself that:-

*Children are tedious in the hurrying fields of April;  
When men are springing across wide furrows  
Lost in a passion that never needs a wife*

Such ideologies, reinforced by a warped sexual morality, established the pattern of non-marriage and late marriage, so characteristic of rural Irish demographic history since the famine.



The reluctance of the parents to sign over the holding to their children is another of the social themes in *The Great Hunger*. Maguire remained faithful to his Mother until she died:-

*At the age of ninety one  
She stayed too long, wife and Mother in one  
When she died  
The knuckle bones were cutting the skin of her sons backside  
And he was sixty five.*

Maguire's household is typical of the improverished areas in rural Ireland: ageing parents, surrounded by their *middle-aged children* with no prospects of marriage. In such an appressive climate the aspirations of the inhabitants sink lower and lower, houses fall into disrepair, land is under-utilised, and the incidence of alcoholism and mental disturbance is the highest in Western Europe.

Maguire has moments of insight when he realises the tragedy and poverty of his condition:-

*He returned to his headland of carrots and cabbage  
To the fields once again  
Where eunuchs can be men  
And life is more lousy than savage*

This imagery is contrasted with the fanciful urban perception of the rural way of lief:-

*A peasant has no worries;  
In his little lyrical fields  
He ploughs and sows  
He eats fresh food;  
He loves fresh women  
He is his own master  
As it was in the beginning*

The sharp difference between the urban perception of rural life and the harsh reality of the struggle to eke a subsistence out of the stony grey soil, is one possible reason for the bitterness of the present clash between trade unions, and farmers unions, on such issues as food prices and income tax.

Of course all is not tragedy or poverty in the rural community, and Kavanagh celebrates the positive values of rural life in many of his poems:-

*Through the mist-chill fields I went  
With a pitch fork over my shoulder  
Less for use than for devilment*

*The threshing mill was set up, I knew  
In Cassidys haggard last night,  
And we owed them a day at the threshing  
Since last year. O it was delight*

The communal and social aspect of work that is depicted in this extract from *Tarry Flynn* was, for long, one of the more positive values in rural life. However, increased mechanisation - despite its many decided advantages - is breaking down the close neighbourhood interaction of the past and replacing it with a self-contained farmer, whose only contact with his neighbour is likely to be "a doff of the cap after mass on Sundays".

These are but a few of the themes in Kavanagh's work that are of interest to the social geographer. This is not to say that Kavanagh was merely a social commentator, his vision goes much deeper than that - to the very meaning of existence, the finding of God at the heart of the Universe. Kavanagh was, above all, a realist in social matters, setting down faithfully what he perceived with his poetic vision; a vision that is often more penetrating than that of even the most sensitive and skilled social scientist-social geographers included.

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Industrial Archaeology - Maynooth College

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Multi-cycle Landscape - bicycle manufacturer's dream.

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Migrant - a person who leaves during a lecture from Fran Walsh

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Metropolis - guards on the French underground

(JC)

GEOGRAPHY DISSERTATIONS FOR B.A. HONS. IN MAYNOOTH

1973/74

- Bennett, J. Aspects of Education and Regional Planning in the Midlands.  
Brown, V. Gorey, an Urban Study.  
Coakley, B. An Accessibility study of Maynooth.  
Corley, P.J. Regional Development and Growth Centres - a case study, Castlebar.  
Cunnane, J. The Geography of Pilgrim Circulation in Ireland.  
Flood, S. The Port and Harbour of Dundalk.  
Goff, P. The Geography of Soft Fruit Production in County Wexford.  
Murphy, J.M. Enniscorthy's Contact Area: A Study of Marriage Distance.  
Reilly, P.J. Ardee - A Locational Study.  
Smith, B. Agriculture in East Cavan.  
Weafer, A. The Region as an Administrative unit.

1974/75

- Collins, T, *Changing Farm Structures in the Nenagh-Silvermines Area.*  
Daly, J, *The Estates of the Duke of Leinster.*  
Duffy, G, *Spatial Diffusion of Agricultural Innovations in Co. Monaghan.*  
Dunphy, J, *Agricultural Villages in South Kilkenny.*  
Gallagher, M, *The Evolution of Settlement Patterns in Achill.*  
Kennedy, J, *The Impact of the Estate System on the Landscape of the Parish of Silvermines.*  
Leahy, M, *The Geography of Poverty in Rural E. Galway.*  
Murphy, B, *The Spatial Organisation of Educational Institutions: A case study - (Spatial and social accessibility to post-primary schools in Offaly and N. Kildare.*  
O'Brien, M, *Spatial Mobility and Education.*  
Ryan, S, *The Problem of the Re-organisation of Land Holdings Patterns in areas of severe depopulation - A case study from N. Roscommon.*  
Wacks, B, *Religion as a significant factor in the Social Geography of a Border County.*  
Wolfe, T, *Geographical Analysis of the Decline of the Irish Language in the West Munster Area.*