MILIEU

"... the wise person looks into space,
and does not regard the small as the little,
nor the great as the big, for he knows
that there is no limit to dimensions."

Lao-tse.

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FORWARD

Some Opportunities & Obligations

The number of geography students has risen steadily over the years in the Department of Geography. In the current academic year, there are 340 students of geography. The admissions to the College generally have been increasing constantly; the youthful nature of Ireland's population promises continuing expansion in third level education and one of the 'best educated' young populations in Europe. What is Maynooth's role in this, situated as it is on the edge of the most demographically vibrant region in the country? It has been pointed out on this page in previous years that most of our geography graduates pursue teaching careers. Is Maynooth, therefore, to be mainly a teacher training institution? Or does it have alternative possibilities in the future?

With the promise (or threat, depending on our preparedness) of continuing pressure for places, Maynooth has both an opportunity to rethink its role in third level education and an obligation to contribute meaningfully to the future Irish community. Maynooth is probably in a better position to establish new educational parameters than other institutions which are bound by years of doing things the same way (admittedly Maynooth has its own unique encumbrances). There is an urgent need for some considered, well-balanced planning of the future development of the University at Maynooth: up to the present we have been limping along from year to year, adding one/two staff members to this/that department, knocking down a wall here, putting a telephone there. The new Arts Building is only adequate for the space needs of half the Arts Faculty.

It may be time to realise that the futures of the students who will enter Maynooth, and implicitly the future of Maynooth itself, will depend on alternative developments to the traditional NUI faculty structures. In this regard, the College should examine its strengths and build upon them. One example which suggests itself is in the area of the human sciences.

The departments of Geography, Sociology, History, Education, Economics & Psychology provide a strong base for a School of Human Sciences, whose graduates would have potential in many fields besides teaching. Most students recognise that a primary three year degree course is no longer a sufficient full qualification; another year or two are necessary to obtain further qualifications. There is, therefore, considerable scope for the development of post-graduate studies in Maynooth. These would be specialist courses, with a strong vocational orientation. Most of them should be interdisciplinary and many could be funded from outside sources.

The future of these developments and of others, will depend on a much greater emphasis on research in the college community. Some years ago the establishment of a research centre was proposed; it now lies in the limbo of a filing cabinet somewhere on campus. Undoubtedly staff-student ratios severely curtail research time. But there must be a positive research policy in college - concerted attempts to encourage and publicise research work. The Department of Geography will soon publish the first in a series of Occasional Papers aimed at providing a platform for the publication of research work in human geography. There is considerable social need for research in the community at large - there are many problems in town and countryside in Ireland. European and other universities regularly send people to Ireland on research projects which could equally well be undertaken by Irish workers. Unfortunately, Irish authorities often exhibit little faith in university research proposals. There is a need, therefore, to prove ourselves in the research field - not as individuals pottering around in the groves of academe, but as a centre with a professional, socially responsible research policy.

The College has opportunities and obligations and the fulfilment of both depends on the immediate foundation of a development plan embracing the next ten years. The Department of Geography hopes to contribute as much as possible to the future of Maynooth.

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The publication of student magazines may be taken as an index of the level of morale among students - reflecting their interest in and commitment to a particular discipline by the publication of research results and essays. It might also, of course, reflect the organisational abilities of the editor and committee! Whichever it is, Milieu 78 is welcomed. For the past four years Milieu has provided a popular medium for the publication of student research projects, one of the most fundamental aspects of university training in geography. It has maintained high standards over the years and hopefully it will continue to thrive in whatever new academic milieux are created in the College in the future.

P.J. Duffy
April 1978

EDITORIAL

Rather than give an account of each article presented in Milieu this year, I would prefer to let them speak for themselves. This year the staff decided to particularly aim at getting Milieu firmly entrenched as a regular feature of student activities, not just geography second and third years, but all students.

This year all the articles except for Denis Pringle's were from students of a wide distribution between 1st year and H.Dips. We felt this was a clear indication that Milieu was reaching the often neglected 1st years.

It is hoped that this trend will continue, and that Milieu will become as much a reference work for students to see how their counterparts are handling that awesome subject, geography, beside a feature of interest that comes out every Spring.

I owe many thanks to many people who helped me produce this edition, particularly Patricia Egan, Mary Rose Bogan and Fran Walsh. I also must thank the many students who contributed to Milieu this year, and particularly Brigett Coyle, who wrote the excellent article on Multinational investment which having asked her to specifically do, she has done most competently.

Above all, I hope that other students besides geographers will find some of the articles intriguing or at least amusing.

MILIEU COMMITTEE 1978

Editor Margaret Wagner-Harrington

Sub-editor Patricia Egan

Staff John Whorisky
Tim Nyhan
Ann Bogan

Geography Society Report 1977-78

The Geography Society tries to present a series of lectures each year which are of interest to geography students, and to students in general. We were very lucky this year with our choice of lecturers from Universities and other places.

First on our list of functions for this year was a lecture given by Dr. W. Nolan from Carysford College. He gave an interesting and well attended talk on the novel "Knocknagon" by Charles Kickham and it's relevance to the study of the Society in which it was written.

The annual Societies' Fair took place in the new surroundings of the S.U. Hall on November 10th. The Geography Society displayed various maps, slides of field trips and some rocks. We received a good number of members for the year.

Later in November we had a talk on Transport in Dublin by Dr. Killen from T.C.D. He explained many things - including the reason why the 66 isn't always where it should be. In November Dr. S. Caulfield from the Archeology Department of U.C.D. discussed the topic of Stone Age Man in Mayo.

Our annual inaugural lecture took place on December 13th. This year we were very fortunate to have Professor T.W. Freeman, Manchester, who has written so much on Ireland, as our guest speaker. He spoke on "Unity in Ireland - a geographer's view". This was followed by a wine reception in the staff diningroom. The following morning he gave a seminar to various students on other aspects of Ireland. This was our final function for the first term.

In the second term we had three lectures. The first was Dr. Phil O'Keeffe of Cork University who gave a very stimulating lecture on Natural Disasters. He left us wondering how natural they really were. Thanks to Colm Regan for giving us the opportunity of having Dr. O'Keefe.

Prof. Damien Hannon E.S.R.I., author of "Rural Exodus" and main worker on rural Ireland, gave a lecture on 23rd February. He discussed the rise and fall of the Middle Peasantry in Ireland. This was one of our best attended lectures for the year.

March 1st, feast of St. David, saw Welshman Dr. Barry Brunt of U.C.C., giving a lecture on Cork as a growth centre. Everyone agreed that this was one of the best lectures held by the Society for the year.

Dr. M. O'Cinnéide, U.C.G., was supposed to give a lecture on March 15th but, unfortunately, was unable to come. We had also arranged a seminar on job opportunities for the Geography Society this term. It, too, had to be cancelled. We hope to have it in the final term - if at all possible.

Finally, on behalf of the Society, I would like to thank all who made our functions possible during the year. Special thanks to Fran Walsh who kept us in touch with Department views on the Society activities. Thanks also to Dr. Duffy, Mr. Pringle & Miss Healy for attending lectures, wherever possible. Thanks to Helen Wybran, Society's secretary, for her work in arranging dates for our lectures.

On my own behalf I would like to thank the Committee for all their help and work during the year. Thanks also to all the people who managed to spare an hour or two from the Gurn to come to our lectures. 'Bye and Good luck.

Mary Rose Bogan (Auditor)

Class Representatives 1977-78

Auditor	Mary Rose Bogan
Secretary	Mary Smith
Treasurer	Ann Murtagh
P.R.O.	Ann Bogan
3rd Year Reps	Geraldine Brady, Ann Sheridan
2nd Year Reps	Bernie Sheridan, Mary McKelvey
1st Year Reps	Claire O'Brien, Jim Walsh

The Dilemma of Multinational Investment:
Case Study: Ferenka

International companies are not a new phenomenon, they have been in existence for many years. Indeed international investment in the form of colonialization has existed for many hundreds of years, but today, unlike in the past, international companies have a very unique characteristic - that is the practice of "central control".

No matter how large a multi-national compani is and how many subsidiary companies it may have located all over the world, those companies are co-ordinated from the centre. Many deny this fact and maintain each subsidiary is run as a separate enterprise. In reality subsidiary companies must work within a framework established by an overall group plan drawn up at headquarters. The implications of this is that a subsidiary is not judged by its separate performance but rather by the contribution it makes to the group as a whole. This may mean, for example, that a subsidiary which makes a constant loss, but whose existence prevents a competitor from moving into one of its parent company's more profitable markets, may be making a more valuable contribution to the group than a subsidiary recording a consistent profit. On the other hand if a large subsidiary is in financial trouble it may be decided by central control to close down smaller subsidiaries, strip assets, to help out the larger one. The net result of this is that a subsidiary is more conscious of it's performance in relation to the head organisation rather than to the host country. Of course central control is vital so as to maintain strength in the face of increasing competition from other multi-nationals.

Because multi-nationals play a crucial role in the industrial and economic life of many nations, the implications of "central control" can have a very unstable effect on the host country. Unfortunately the host country is often dependent on foreign investment to provide jobs and in many cases only the multi-national, because of it's massive wealth and experience, can afford to have key technological know-how

and manpower. This was particularly so in the oil and mining industries, until many countries insisted on full or partial nationalisation of such industries, so that the role of the multi-national changed from investor to contractor.

In Ireland foreign companies provide over 50% of employment in the industrial sector and it appears as if the multi-national is still very much an investor. This is why the sudden closure of a company like Ferenka in Limerick can be so tragic. It's closure cost the country 1,400 jobs and at a time when unemployment is close on 100,000 this is a lot of jobs indeed.

It is worthwhile taking Ferenka as a case study of the involvement of one multi-national company in Ireland. Ferenka is part of a Dutch company ENKA, which in turn is a subsidiary of the massive multi-national AKZO. Based in Arlem, Holland, AKZO operates in 45 countries throughout the world. It is the 37th largest company in Europe and produces a wide range of products. The following diagram, by courtesy of the Irish Times, illustrates AKZO's Irish interests.

ENKA was attracted to Ireland by the very high investment grants. They received a grant of £26million, £6.5 million of which was received in capital grants from the IDA. They also received an additional government training grant of £1 million. There were other attractions too - the closed shop agreement with the Irish Transport & General Workers Union and the proximity of Limerick Port. A major additional incentive must have been the tax exemption scheme which allows for tax-free profits on exported products. This scheme in fact contravenes EC Regulations and is likely to be done away with in the near future. All in all it appeared very advantageous for ENKA to establish the new company in Ireland.

Ferenka was located in Limerick and began production in 1972. It produced brass plated steelcord which is used in the manufacture of radial ply tyres for private cars, trucks,

earthmoving equipment and aircraft wheels. Unfortunately since it began production, Ferenka was very unlucky: it had lost £16 million plus a further £3 million during the most recent strike. The capacity of the factory was 16,000 tons of steelcord per year but 10,000 tons was never exceeded in any one year. This was not only due to labour disputes but also to the unforeseen recession which badly hit the motor car industry leading to a steep drop in the demand for steelcord. Even though demand for steelcord gradually rose so that in 1976 the work force at Ferenka was 1,400, the figure at which it remained until it closed, Ferenka still claimed to have lost £2 million due to inadequate demand for it's product.

Then of course it's parent company AKZO was having a tough time. AKZO's last good year was in 1974. Since then it has been performing poorly, the recessionalso affected it and in 1975 led to a drop in almost £200 million in AKZO's turnover. Much of this loss came in the ENKA Glanstoff Division of which Ferenka is a part. In the company as a whole employment dropped from 103,000 in 1974 to 87,800 this year. The major job losses occured in the textile, fibres and yarns division. In 1970 this division represented 62% of the group's total turnover. By 1980 it is expected to only represent 40%.

Profits have continued to fall and the latest figures show that in the third quarter of this year alone AKZO lost £14.5 million.

Not everything was gloomy, though, particularly in the steelcord industry. Another AKZO/ENKA factory in Oberbruch Aachen in West Germany had full order books for steelcord (this plant is mainly a man-made fibre factory). The steelcord section employs less than half of the workforce but it is apparently becoming an increasingly important section, and during the strike in Limerick, according to a spokesman in Oberbruch, the plant had increased it's production to the point that it is now operating at maximum capacity. Since its closure on Monday 2nd, 1977, the IDA and Government officials have been attempting to save, or at this stage recreate, 1,400 jobs, by encouraging other steelcord manufacturers throughout the world to substitute for ENKA. So far this has not worked.

The other possibility of "going it alone" raised in the Dail by Garret Fitzgerald, appears almost impossible. Apart from ENKA supplying 8 major customers for steelcord, the major ones being Goodyear, Pirelli, Dunlop & Firestone, there is the problem of technology. The steelcord industry is technically "highly innovative" and only the giant multi-nationals currently have the technological back-up to meet its demands. Added to this would be the need to finance the modernisation of the Limerick plant to bring it parallel to other steelcord plants throughout the world. ENKA had in fact been involved in negotiations with the IDA for all or part of the £11 million which this updating would cost and, in negotiations with the Minister for Industry, Commerce & Energy. ENKA, it is suggested, was "manoeuvering" for an additional £6 million to cover expected losses before the company could be expected to reach profitability.

Four months later there is a steelcord plant in Limerick lying empty and unproductive, while very many of those unemployed, because of its closure, are still searching for jobs. Some may blame the Marine Port & General Workers Union, or the Irish Transport & General Workers Union with whom Ferenka had a closed shop agreement, a very questionable practice anyway, some may even blame Irish workers' attitudes in general - one way or the other it appears the decision to close Ferenka was taken by AKZO in the context of the overall group's plans and resources. AKZO certainly are not the losers - the losers are the unemployed and the IDA.

Perhaps the IDA in their genuine desire to create jobs by encouraging foreign investment, can do this by obtaining, by law, some commitment to the country, by the foreign investor in return for generous conditions and Capital Grants.

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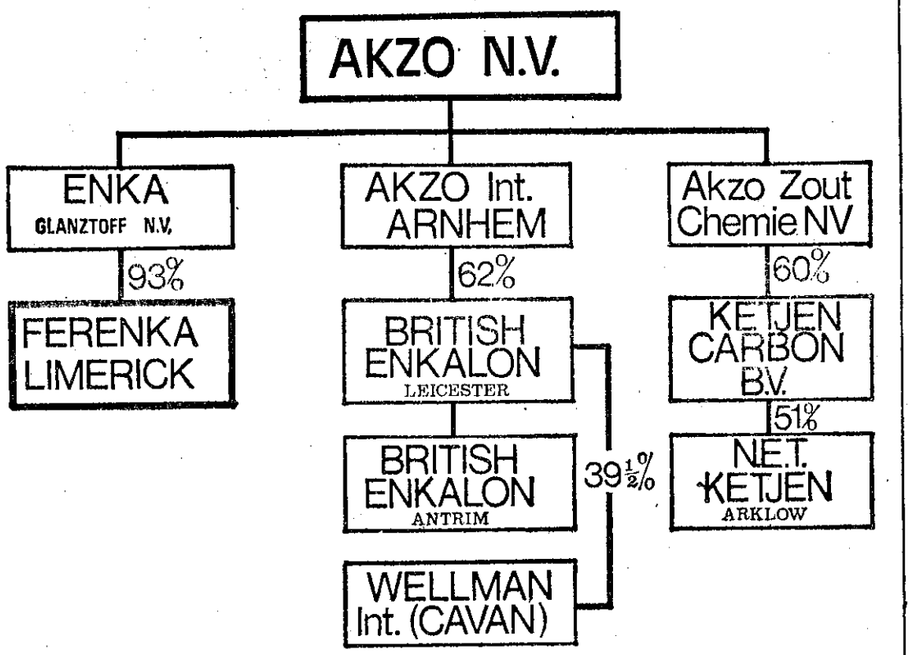
Akzo's Irish interests



AKZO N.V., the ultimate parent of Ferenka which is to close down with the loss of 1,400 jobs is a world-wide group having more than 100 subsidiary or associate companies under its wing. In Ireland, apart from its 93% stake in Ferenka — the Industrial Development Authority has the other 7% — it has an interest in British Enkalon's man-made fibre plant in Antrim and Wellman International (Cavan), the Mullagh, Co. Cavan, manufacturer of synthetic fibres. And as the diagram shows, it also has an interest in N.E.T. Ketjen, Arklow. It manufactures carbon black. Nitrigin Eireann Teo. holds the other 49%.

Regional Planning in Ireland

"Planning is an administrative instrument intended to provide a rational basis for decision making, primarily to allocate scarce resources but also to ensure that the services necessary for development are provided, that development proceeds in an orderly manner and that decisions are not taken on the basis of vague ideas of general progress" (P.N. O'Farrel see references). Regional planning is concerned with attempting to realise predetermined results for specific spatial units. In 1974 the Institute of Social Studies in the Hague - a leading institution in terms of planning, after completing a study in South West Ireland made the following comment "It is obvious that Regional Planning does not exist in South West Ireland nor for that matter in Ireland as a whole". Now, three years later, this hardhitting remark is still applicable.

Regional planning is indispensable due to the existence of Interregional and intra-regional socio-economic inequality. This inequality which is manifest in both locational and structural disparities is influenced by numerous factors. Commencing far back with the better quality of the land on the eastern part of the island, with the vicissitudes of wars, expropriation, over-population, famine and other factors a situation now exists where there is a significant difference between the dynamism and prosperity of most of the country in comparison with conditions in the western seaboard counties and other areas in Connacht & Ulster. Of fundamental importance to the issue of regional policy is that Ireland is in a unique position in the context of European Economic Community regional policy as the entire country has been designated as a problem region. It was designated as such because despite significant regional disparities within Ireland, these internal inequalities are not as great as the disparities which exist between Ireland and the rest of the Community e.g. the average personal income per head in Ireland is only 40% of the Community average. Therefore what is regional policy for the Community is national

policy for Ireland. Inevitably Ireland's approach of paying "little more than lip service to the concept of regional planning" as remarked by the Institute of Social Studies in the Hague, must be altered.

Regional policy in Ireland at present is a meagre two page statement issued in June '72 shortly before the Referendum to decide whether to enter the European Economic Community or not, and a clause in the IDA's terms of reference that it is in charge of regional industrial development. Moreover in the Green Paper on Economic & Social Development for the period up to 1980 there is no specific reference to regional policy. A comprehensive regional policy consistent with a national development policy to improve our relative position in the EEC is necessary. In the formulation of a comprehensive policy the welfare of people and social institutions must be of primary concern. The economic institution should not be permitted to become pivotal - other major institutions e.g. the educational system becoming supportive of it and the success or failure of a people being measured in quantitative economic (productive) terms. The concern with raising income levels and improving the social position of people should form the bedrock of regional planning goals. However, as happened in Ireland in the past the achievement of one should not be at the expense of the other where regional per capita income levels were raised due to large scale migration from the region concerned.

To redress the existing regional imbalance the Government introduced various regional planning policies. These policies have had limited success. Five stages may be distinguished in the development of regional policy in Ireland. The first stage was marked by the introduction of a regional industrial grants policy for the undeveloped areas in 1952. The second phase was initiated under the Local Government (Planning & Development) Act 1963 which required all counties, county boroughs and urban districts to draw up development plans.

Later the country was divided into nine planning regions and teams of consultants were engaged to prepare development plans for the Dublin & Limerick regions. The third stage was the integration of regional plans within the constraints of national aims by Buchanan. The fourth stage occurred in May '69 when the Government set out its main economic and social goals in regional planning in a major statement of policy. The fifth stage has just commenced with the establishment of a Dept. of Regional Planning & Development under the Ministery of Prof. Martin O'Donoghue.

The limited success of planning to date is largely due to faults in the approach to planning and in the planning process. The planning process has 3 major stages - firstly formulation of goals and objectives. Secondly, selection of tactics, finally implementation of plans. Faults in the approach to, and process of, planning are interconnected.

The approach to planning is predominantly deductive - reasoning is from the general to the particular - broad policies are formulated at a central level and are communicated downwards through organisations with centralized control. Standards are developed by national planning groups or foreign exports or derived from national experience. The limitations of predominently deductive planning are gradually being recognized. To overcome these it has been suggested that decision making should be decentralized by either relocating public service institutions (as done with the Dept. of Lands) or by the establishment of regional authorities perhaps at the provincial spatial scale. The latter it is suggested should have certain devolved functions mainly of an administrative nature whilst central Government in Dublin would formulate policies. However, this form of decentralisation wouldn't promote the success of regional planning as centralization is more apparent than real - a hierarchy of decision making bodies exist e.g. the role of the County Development teams in the context of the IDA.

Further decentralisation in the form of provincial planning authorities has inherent problems - regions may compete one against the other in lobbying the Government for preferential treatment in the spatial allocation of investment capital, success may ultimately be more dependent on political pressure than on efficiency. An alternative to either of the above forms of decentralisation would be to give more decision making power to Local Authorities - County Councils, Urban District Councils, whose members should in turn play an active role in community associations.

To alter this approach to planning a change in emphasis from predominantly deductive planning to predominantly inductive planning is necessary. In inductive planning reasoning is from the particular to the general. Local experiences, local attitudes, infrastructure or services, local practices and resources are identified and efforts are made to co-ordinate and develop them. Endeavours are made to enable local people to participate in, and to undertake development for themselves. The objective is to improve what is already available amongst the population in different areas, also to create an atmosphere to facilitate new local initiative. The spatial unit for planning purposes should be relatively small e.g. District Electoral Division. Planning at this local community level would negate the argument that planning hitherto has been too much oriented towards physical aspects, people and communities being fitted into plans rather than plans being tailored to suit communities or based on their development. Furthermore, it would augment community participation in development or worker participation in the operation of enterprise. Many communities have already organised development associations, either ad hoc bodies or based on branches of national organisations e.g. Muintir na Tire. Apart from these there is no organisation of a formal local nature between the ordinary man or his community and the County Council. There is urgent need for community organisation.

Inductive planning would, contrary to the belief of its opponents, lead to greater inter-regional development, intra-regional development, and greater national development, rather than intensifying isolation and intercommunity divisions. If the planning process was based on the following suggestions it would be in accordance with the inductive approach. The first stage in the planning process could be based on a situational analysis undertaken at District Electoral Division level. In this way, in agriculture for instance, one would become aware of the resources of each community in land, crops, livestock and manpower. One could estimate the productivity, the return on capital (in land, stock etc) income from agriculture, in relation to population etc. This would facilitate the establishment of realistic targets of improvement for each community. Furthermore it would illustrate the assistance needed to enable the community to reach these targets, the local organisations necessary and indeed the possibility of any improvement being effected. Goals and objectives identified, formulated and specified on the basis of this situational analysis should be discussed with the local people before devising plans. If the national Authority accepts the plan in accordance with criteria such as its potential for the development of the community, the region and the country as a whole, it could then be implemented.

This grassroots approach to development would require reinforcement by the educational system. Currently, the nucleus of the regional development problem is the selective migration of persons in the 16 to 25 year old age group from relatively peripheral rural areas to urban areas. A study by Damien Hannon of the decision making process in selective migration illustrated that migration is essentially stimulated by the frustration resulting from the inability of the local community to provide the opportunity to fulfill their incessantly increasing aspiration levels. These aspiration levels are influenced to a large extent by the nature of the educational system.

A community oriented educational system would help stem inter and intra-regional migration. This would lead to greater independence and confidence in the potential of the local community as the migrants are the potential "brainchildren", their migration reduces the "motive power" of the community. The Irish have an inbuilt tendency to "want to have or possess rather than use" and to depend on others to take the initiative. This latter attribute of 'dependence' was highlighted by the meagre 16% of our population noted against joining the European Economic Community in the Referendum concerned. With regard to the former attribute people tend to invest their savings in banks etc. which pay a meagre rate of interest on deposits. It would be more beneficial to both the individual concerned and the community if he/she invested part of his/her savings in local projects. A survey of 3 parishes in Donegal has revealed that among them, they have £2 million deposited in financial establishments. The investment of this money would further overall national development by reducing the amount of capital investment required to be done by the Government. This capital investment relies mainly on foreign borrowing which undoubtedly has adverse effects, both social and economic. In 1977 the State had to pay out about £410 million in servicing its debts; that represented about £130 per head of our population, and accounted for about 28% of total tax revenue.

This modified emphasis to the approach and process of planning will inevitably lead to the emergence of a number of development centres as some communities for certain reasons e.g. proximity to mineral ore deposits, will develop faster than others, but something will be done for every community.

References:

Regional Development by Dr James Deeny

Regional Development in Ireland: Problems of Goal Formulation & Objective Specification by P.N. O'Farrell.

A Reappraisal of the Growth Centre Concept by P.N. O'Farrell.

The Geography of Soccer by U. Knighted & Al. Luvial

Dedicated to all who make mountains out of molehills.

Hypothesis & Model

The basic methodology used in this analysis involves a model. The model is a concept used by geographers when they want to be really on the ball. The model to which I refer is the "Duf-Wal-Prin-Hel!" model (hereafter referred to as the "DWPH"). Like all models the value of the DWPH is in the comparison between it and reality i.e. what's on the ground. This particular model is based on the concept that four heads are better than one. As Superfred would say -

4 1
many hands make light work
too many cooks spoil the broth

Assumptions:

This model makes a number of assumptions -

a) each head belongs to a different body and can therefore act independently of the others
b) a big head is better than none
c) that all it's actions are either higgledy-piggledy, or other
d) all actions must take place on an isotropic plain (whatever that means)
e) the spatial distribution of the variables involved is invariably hotch-potch with leanings towards the left (red)

The relevance of this model for the geographical analysis of association football may not be obvious at first! Neither may it be obvious at the end ...! However, the value of the exercise is to show that the relationship between the methodology used and the subject under analysis is an inverse ore i.e. a rolling stone gathers no moss.

Method

Substituting 11 for 4
we get 11 heads 4
a stew boiled is a stew spoiled.

Arising out of a conflict between variables which occur due to the presence of assumptions (a), (b) & (c), there is the introduction of the third factor which acts as a catylyst in the process. The factor is commonly called the referee i.e. geographically speaking, an "erratic". In times of stress he is also called other names, denoted in popular literature by "* ...* etc". When this happens there is a suspension of the process known as 'play' until the grounds for a stable equilibrium are reached. Due to the dynamism of the process, this equilibrium and also atmospheric stability are quickly displaced.

Another factor must be considered.

In terms of geographical mobility, soccer can provide numerous examples e.g. going in the opposite direction to which the opposition expects as quickly as possible (without bumping into any erratics or physical features en route).

Temporary migrations to the other land ... another man's grass being always greener ... are common. However, due to the attachment to the home ground and hostility in opponents territory, these movements are generally short (if not sweet ... bullseyes ...).

'Play' is often seen to be centred along a particular route with a marked preference for using various sub-central nodes (often called strikers or wings). The C.B.D. is approached in this manner. Nearing the centre, there is a certain amount of congestion with an obvious emphasis on competition as 'push' and 'pull' factors come into play.

Conclusion

The application of the DWPH model to a better understanding of the geography of soccer doesn't really work - in fact - it doesn't work at all.

This is not due to any inadequacy in the model; neither is it due to any particular inadequacy in the subject. Therefore, we deduce that the inadequacy lies somewhere else. As the honourable man with the wellies might say ... it doesn't really matter ... forget about it ... all's well that ends well.

Assuming that all actions are 'other' (i.e. not higgledy-piggledy) and the meanderings in the direction of the C.B.D. are successful, the use of 11 heads rather than 1, the inability of the guardian of the stockmarket to repel the flow of an excessive labour force. A goal is achieved and the variables are momentarily, spatially differentiated (i.e. they retreat to their patria).

At this stage in the analysis it is necessary to take a critical look at the surface on which the process takes place. With reference to assumption (d), the presence or absence of this desirable feature depends, like so many things, on the weather. During times of excessive precipitation the playing surface tends to take on the appearance of a bedraggled duffle-coat. The constant appearance of ox-bow lakes (bovine players find this stimulating), turloughs, corries, sink holes (putting our feet in it!), coupled with the pressure of 46 drumlin-soiled boots on 46 hairy legs - (22 legs + 22 legs + 2 legs = 46 legs 46 boots) tends to worsen the situation.

The constant pressure on the "man's green grass" tends to remove vegetation by the end of the season. However, re-afforestation occurs during the summer. To return to the model, we replaced 11 for 4. This substitution could be carried further, saving energy. This would involve a changing of all soccer teams consisting of 11 players to 4 geography lecturers. This would give the geography lecturers the opportunity to catch up on fresh air and exercise (not claiming they need it) and it would also allow the 11 players to catch up on all the crucial information they had missed due to the correlation between time alloted to geography lectures and games of soccer.

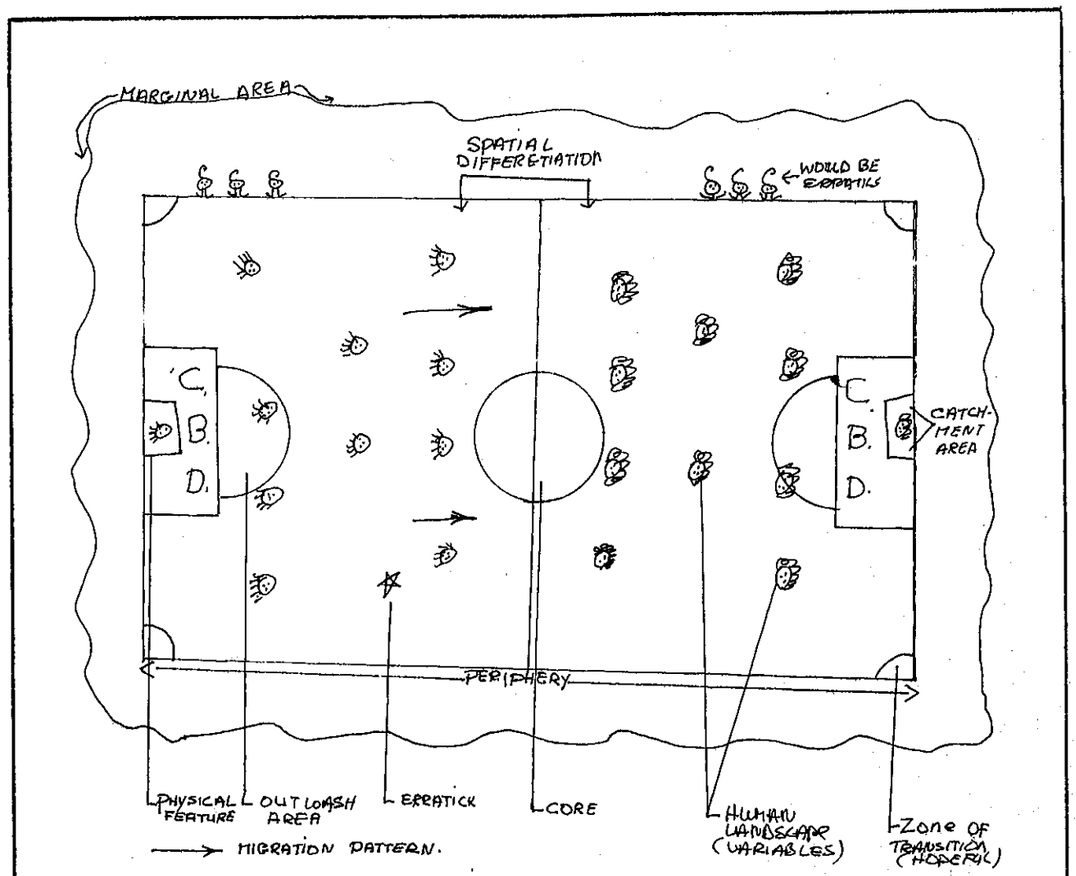


FIG I - A zenital projection showing features mentioned in the text and spatial distribution thereof.

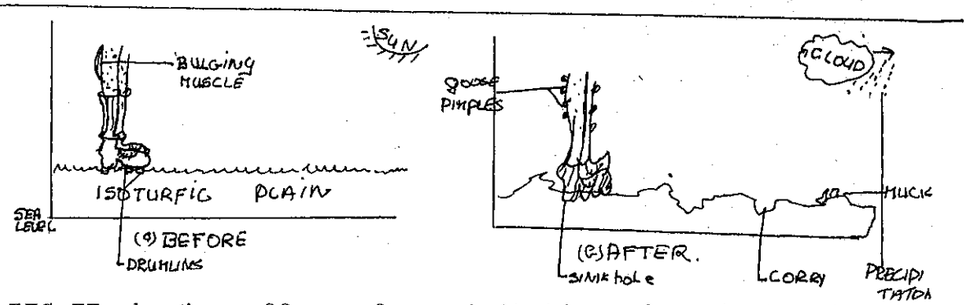


FIG II showing effect of precipitation of an isotropic plain and lunar landscape.

Go Forth & Multiply

Adam & Eve were alone in the garden. Suddenly the message is bellowed forth - "Go forth and multiply". Now, this being before the reign of bureaucracy when only written communication is acceptable, inconceivable chaos and confusion followed the announcement of this message. Did he say fourth or forth? Multiply? Multiply what? Go fourth and multiply - impossible since there are only two! After much deliberation contemplation and synthesis of opinions, the forefathers of humanity eventually settled on the following interpretation of the Lord's command - the man said "Go forth and multiply" meaning "go out into the world and multiply yourselves". This pithy statement uttered to the first human beings (apologies to Darwin) at the beginning of time incorporated some of the most fundamental laws of geography which are still applicable today.

Firstly it acknowledged the dangers of underpopulation. With only two people in Eden much of the apple crop would be wasted. Not only would there be an insufficient labour force to harvest all the apples but also, much of the crop would be wasted since, try as they might, Adam & Eve could not possibly eat all the apples! Thus additional labourers and consumers were necessary to avoid mass wastage of resources.

However, being the all-seeing being he is, the Lord realised that the consequences of this population growth could be tragic if confined to the Garden of Eden. Eden contained a finite number of apple trees and could therefore support only a limited population. If the fruits of all this multiplication were to congregate in Eden, serious problems of over population would result e.g. unemployment, starvation, disease and friction. Thus, acknowledging the finitude of resources the Lord introduced a mechanism for alleviating the stress caused by

population pressure - he ordered mankind to "go forth", thus introducing the concept of migration. In order to maintain the crucial balance between population and the availability of resources some sectors of the population will have to spread out over a sufficiently wide area.

Thus it was that in this one statement the concepts of over population, underpopulation, migration, and the relationship between resources and population were first introduced.

The term high birth-rate is a relative one, being relative over space and time. Today in Ireland a family of four or more would be considered large whereas in India it would be considered small. Ireland in the early 19th century would also have considered this as a small family. The relativity of the term is related to the standard of development and therefore the standard of living in a country. In underdeveloped countries mortality rates are high, life expectancy is short and usually no welfare state exists. Parents are therefore dependent on their children for security in their old age and for the continuance of the family so they are forced to have large families, many of whom will die - India has an infantile mortality rate of 146/1,000 as compared to 19.6/1,000 in the U.K. Unrestricted multiplication in such cases may seem necessary but the other side of the coin is also noteworthy - if the birth rate was reduced there would be less pressure on resources, less famine and disease and consequently a lower mortality rate.

In the days of Adam & Eve it was unnecessary to place any restrictions on the multiplication of the human race as nature ensured that the death rate remained sufficiently high to maintain the resource-population balance. But today, with developments in medicine and science, this natural order has been distorted. To quote one example, between 1945-50 the death rate in Ceylon dropped from 21./1,000 to 12/1,000, almost entirely due to the control of malaria by First -World intervention. This drop in the death-rate was not accompanied

by a corresponding drop in the birth-rate, thus intensifying the problems of overpopulation already existing. In such cases where extra-natural forces are at work, "go forth and multiply" would require certain qualification. In practice however this has not happened to any appreciable extent. Family size is very much a social phenomenon related to status, beliefs, religion and is therefore difficult and slow to change.

Resource exploitation is undoubtedly improving due to scientific and technological developments. However, this process tends to be confined to countries which have already reached a satisfactory standard of living and resource development, in that they are generally able to keep abreast of their population growth. However in other areas (III World), where developments in the use of resources are most urgently needed,progress is extremely slow and the most primitive techniques are in operation. To quote an extreme example - the United States is considering the development of lunar resources while in much of the Third World urgently required irrigation has not yet been introduced. This underdevelopment of resources is largely due to problems inherent in overpopulated countries - underemployment, low educational standards, lack of capital. It is in the area of resource development of Third World countries that the developed countries should intervene, thus enabling a basis for further development - agricultural and industrial - to be established.

At other times and in other places governments do all in their power to encourage 'multiplication'. One instance of this would be the situation in many European countries after World War II when populations were depleted due to war losses. A baby boom was experienced in Europe in the 1950's and although by the 1970's it had given many countries a young working population, it also gave rise to problems for which many countries were unprepared e.g. education, unemployment, and which occupy the priority list for most European governments today.

Thus we see that although the statement "Go forth and multiply" may have been fully acceptable in the days of Adam & Eve, in a modern context it can only be considered as ambiguous since its validity varies over time (in accordance with the level of development in countries) and over space (Third World versus First World).

A Third Year Arts

Do Regions Exist?

As new developments in the scientific world and in the field of general economics make themselves felt on the world of geography, its becoming obvious, as in the case of most disciplines, that geography is still developing. Hence the views and opinions of those geographers who direct the development of the subject are often in conflict. And nowhere is disagreement more vehement and lack of absolute definition more apparent than in the question of regions and regional geography.

Indeed the origins of the conflict lie in the disagreement over which direction geography is to take. Few deny that the geographers' job is the projection of an abstract concept into tangible reality, and that observation is the preliminary to all geographical exercises, but the conflict arises over what way to approach the concept and how to process the tangible reality. Those with an interest in economics, for example, wish to view geographical space in terms of organized markets and national landscapes, while others would move towards geological considerations or human impact. Obviously this tug-o'-war of disciplines in which geography finds itself cannot hope to have an outcome for geography's broad aim to understand the character of a place in space cannot be boiled down to any particular separate area of economics or geology or anything else for that matter. Into this stormy arena, the concept of a region, depending heavily on the notion of geographic space, has been advanced. The geographer's space is a coherent and universal concept based on analysis of an element on the earth's surface at a given moment. And this space embraces all aspects of itself and the inter-relationships of these aspects. The utter confusion of these inter-relationships presents a problem for the geographer who wishes to boil it down to a tangible reality. To aid him in his task the concept of a region has been formulated in an attempt to find order in diversity.

Unfortunately there are those who would object that regions are formulated and would argue that they exist anyway. The fallacy of this argument is evident and its clear that any region

may be tentatively defined as an intellectual human creation enabling us to order the earth's particular places within a meaningful general frame or frames. The importance of the word 'human' in the definition is significant as history shows us that the division of space into regions grew and grows more complex as man makes a greater and greater impace on his environment. This evidence would also help to refute those who argue for the pre-existence of regions in space before the human era. The concept of a region then has been incorporated into the geographic discipline under the broad title of regional geography.

The defining of regional geography has been even more unsuccessful than attempts to define 'region'. A useful one has been advanced however in claiming that it is the study of combinations of elements forming a geographical space; few deny that this is basic to geography but by what criteria do we define or delimit geographical space? This has given rise to much argument and there are as many answers as people to give them. However this need not deter us for the moment. Having already stated above the intellectual origin of the concept of region, we can see that the concept is based on static space i.e. space at a given moment in time. Furthermore the concept of region is built on that concept of homogeneity in static space. This relates to the size of the region under consideration, its complexity from an environmental point of view and the degree of precision required in our particular study. Thus homogeneity is a necessary element in the concept of region. Three types of homogeneity have been recognized and two will concern us especially -

1) absolute homogeneity - form existing in a totally uniform way e.g. the obvious homogeneity we derive from the overall density of population in an area
2) relative homogeneity - even distribution of a single element irrespective of all other environmental variations e.g. cotton farming's homogeneity in Southern States of USA.

A region in view of this homogeneity factor can be seen as an area of any size (the question of a real division into regions will be looked at later) that approaches homogeneity in terms of the criteria by which it's defined. The choice of criteria is fundamental in regional geography, an aspect we'll understand more readily when we investigate the division of the world into regions.

We have so far established that regions have location in space, area and that some degree of homogeneity of relevant criteria exists. Coupled with these 3 factors, and already alluded to in a previous paragraph, is the factor of interrelationships within a region. Previously we referred to a region aiding the geographer in finding order in diversity. Well, these interrelationships form the diversity. For example, human population density is linked to economic structure of an area which is in turn linked to mineral and agricultural wealth etc. - the series is indeterminate. Sadly, due to the influence of scientific developments on the discipline, some geographers insist on practically disregarding these interrelationships within an area and, instead, study different elements in isolation. Obviously this is an unacceptable approach but one that may seem valid in view of the trend towards specialization. With all the attention to detail, its so easy to overlook the obvious. In any case, these interrelations form the basis of the criteria used to define a region, especially in cultural geography. Thus taking interrelationships in isolation, called the discontinuous spatial approach, may be helpful but the larger view of a region as a spatial unit should never be lost sight of. And, in choosing the criteria for establishing a region, on the basis of homogeneity, interrelationships or more often a mixture of both, our aim should be the identification of the most cohesive group of distinguishing features, where variation within a group is less than that between any two neighbouring groups.

The formation of a region, then, is really spatial generalization. However, having got this far, more difficulties arise. One of these is the question of boundaries - where does one region end and another begin? The indecision over this question is reflected in the myriad of different regional

divisions various geographers have assigned to the world, particularly from a cultural geography viewpoint. Since so many heterogeneous things make up a region and each region is an interplay of forces, it's first of all difficult to recognize any homogeneity and, secondly, even more difficult to discover where this homogeneity ends and something different begins. Natural features nor human cultural patterns are not as neat and as clearly cut as we would wish for in analysis. One pattern does not just end abruptly - rather one fades into another. Some researchers have suggested that a buffer zone of transition is the answer but then we have two boundaries to define instead of one. This difficulty is a great asset for those who refuse to recognize regions at all. However, if we are to see any order in our shattered g eographical experience we must accommodate this difficulty and generalize - thus in most fields of geography regional boundaries are highly arbitrary.

An attempt to divide the world into regions will illustrate the question of regions a little more clearly. We shall attempt this from a cultural criteria i.e. the way people live. This sort of region is called a cultural realm. Of course each person's way of life is different from anothers but as well as being an individual, each person or most can be recognized to be part of a more general group or to add to the confusion, many general groups e.g. an Irish student in Maynooth is not only an Irishman but a European, a Westerner, probably Caucasion ... etc. From the confusion, however, we can construct arbitrary divisions by sorting the many diverse segments of the earth into a fairly simple and meaningful framework of broad cultural realms. In doing this a few guidelines must be observed:

1) We must clearly state the criteria of defining the realms e.g. religion, language: this is difficult since traits which are good indicators of one culture may not be so good in case of another one: in view of this we shall attempt a division of the earth not in such explicit terms of religion or language but rather in a broader 'way of life' terms.

2) One must provide a dateline for the presentation i.e. the division must be, as it were, photopicture of the world since cultural patterns alter continuously and what's true for a century ago may not be at all relevant today.

3) One must refer to the scale of the investigation i.e. the degree of precision required and the extent of the investigation.

4) Some form of regional boundaries must be recognized either as zones, lines, shutter belts ...

At this stage reference must be made to the two main forms of region used today and we shall choose between them in our attempt.

1) Formal or uniform regions: they are defined by a likeness or homogeneity of specified features.
2) Modal or functional regions: they are conceived of as spatial entities in terms of organization or linkages, commonly functioning around a central node through a network of circulation, e.g. the catchment area of a school, a parish ...

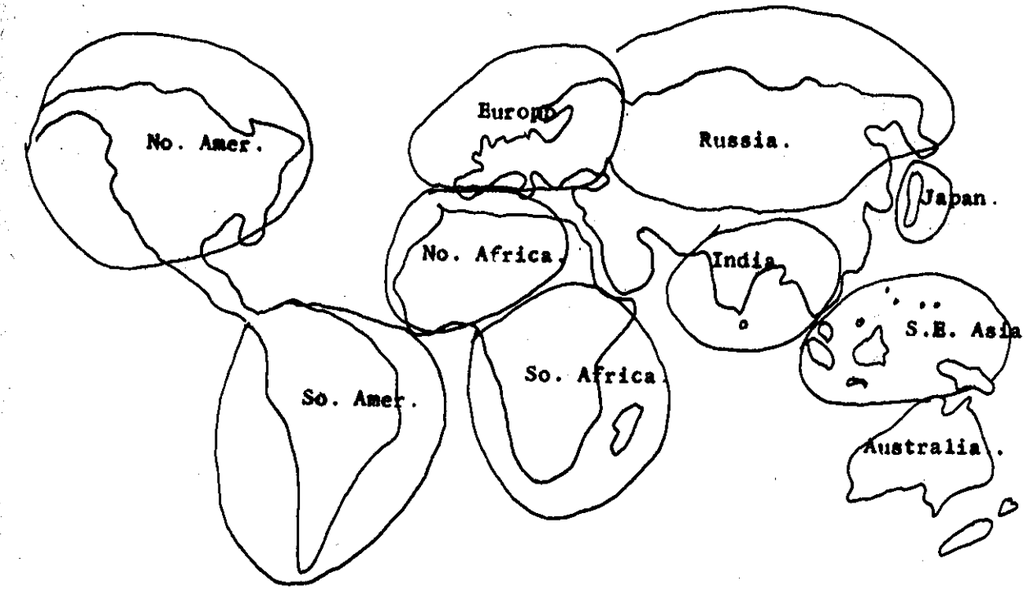
Our concern shall be with the former type. Yet the influence of the second type is evident too when we see how western culture originally had Italy as it's node, a fact borne witness to today by the religious significance of Rome as a node. In the regions we hope to deal with, there will be a common awareness among the inhabitants of an historically grown mixture of life and land, a consciousness of a common bond which sets off one territory from its surroundings, and usually incorporating a high degree of functional coherance with formal homogeneity. Seemingly, in this case, formal and nodal attributes of regions will be mixed. This awareness or consciousness is called internal coherence, a common characteristic which allows rational inspection and comprehension of a cultural realm. Thus, we are not looking for some sort of chain of causality but hope to succeed rather by viewing human society as a many-handed organizer of it's habitat and environment. The fact that its not the same man adjusting to the physical

environment as the dominant independent variable but rather that each society projects it's own common set of meanings and goals on the habitat, confirms that cultural realms do exist in a more paradoxically concrete way than physical or climatic regions exist. If two groups are placed in identical environments the chances are that each will view it with different values and end up with quite distinct cultures. Such considerations as climate, soil etc. are not the most ultimate geographical factors in a society but rather the shape these factors assume in the mind's eye and the willingness of the mind to do something with them.

There are eleven realms in all, their boundaries are highly arbitrary and the validity of some of them as regions is questionable. One case is Japan. Here we have a country in the S.E. Asian tradition which has taken on Western European culture in a very big way and thus presents the geographer with a classification problem. Similarly, one might question the validity of any distinction between N. America & Europe - my division is based on the vastly different historical traditions which each has inherited.

Ultimately no division into regions will please everyone. However, the necessity of regions to enable us to find order in diversity cannot be denied and, the longer we keep in mind the general basics, while studying regional and specific areas of the globe, regions will remain an invaluable, even essential, tool of the geographer, regardless of the field he may specialize in.

Thomas O'Connor: 1st Arts



CRITERIA: Race and broad cultural pattern differences

DATELINE: 1970's

BOUNDARIES: Highly Arbitrary

Changes in Protestant/Catholic farm ownership in a border area

This study focuses attention on a small area straddling the Monaghan-Fermanagh border in the Parish of Clones, 3 miles north of Clones town (See Fig. 1 map). It is a district of predominently small farms and drumlin type soils with poor drainage that is characteristic of the drumlin region. The first 75 years of this century has been a time of change in landholding in this area. The usual pattern of family continuity on holdings found in most small farm areas was not characteristic here. The main cause of this is that there has been a remarkable decline in the local Protestant population. Of the 67 farms in the area in 1900, 50 were owned by Protestants: today there are 44 farms of which only 9 are Protestant owned.

Farm size & distribution by religion, 1900 & 1975 (Table I)

In 1900 the majority of farms were under 15 acres: 37 or 56% were in this category. Today these would be considered uneconomic. There is not a great deal of difference in the distribution of farm sizes by religion, except that virtually all farms above 30 acres were Protestant owned. Quite dramatic changes can be observed, however, in the 1975 section. Not only has there been a large reduction in the number of farms (33% between 1900 & 1975 with the majority of farms now in the 15-30 acre category) but the decline in Protestant ownership is clearly seen. Also not only has the number of Catholic owned farms doubled but their average size has also more than doubled. Of the 67 farms in 1900, 58 or 86.5% have no continuity at all with present owners and 9 or 13.5% have maintained family continuity through to 1975. Only 5 or 7.5% of farms in 1900 have maintained direct family continuity by 1975 i.e. inherited from father to son (Note: several farms have been amalgamated over the 75 years). The ba sic reason for these figures is related to the decrease in the number of Protestant farm owners: 39 or 78% of Protestant owned farms in 1900 now being owned by Catholics.

The Evolution of the pattern of Catholic ownership (Fig. 2)

It can be observed that there has been a gradual increase over the decades, in the exchange of farms, reaching a climax in the 1950's with 10 transactions. The decline in the 1960s and 1970s was due mainly to the fact that there were so few Protestant farms left.

Origins of new Catholic owners

Most of the new Catholic families by necessity came from outside the area under study. The indigenous Catholic farmers were mostly small farmers and were not well off.

Origins of Catholic owners at original transaction

S.Fermanagh	Local	Clones District	Monaghan (rest of)	Ireland (rest of)
15	6	4	3	3

The large influx of S.Fermanagh farmers can clearly be observed. These figures refer to the place of origin of those farmers who actually bought the farms from the Protestant owners. Since this process took place over a period of 75 years, it is both interesting and appropriate to know the origins of the present day owners of these farmers.As a result of amalgamations since the time of original purchase from Protestants, the number of Catholic owners of these holdings is now 26.

Origins of present day Catholic owners

S.Fermanagh	Local	Clones Town	Ireland (rest of)	Scotland
12	10	1	2	1

The importance of South Fermanagh is still evident of the 10 owners classified as locals, 5 of these were sons of farmer immigrants to the area. These figures show that there has been a major influx of completely new families into the area. Altogether there are 33 owner occupied farms in the study area, (11 are vacant properties), 22 of these are owned by people born outside the area.

The spacial pattern of landholding 1900-75 (Fig. I)

The maps vividly show that there has been quite a remarkable decline in Protestant land ownership in the southern side of the Border. While one could barely observe any form of territorial precedent for a potential boundary on the 1900 map, one can clearly observe the dividing role of the Border on the 1975 map. What the maps show is that somehow a Protestant Unionist government encouraged stability among Protestant farm owners. In sharp contrast to this in the north is the position at present of Proetstant ownership on the Monaghan side of the Border. The townland of Tiernahinch Far, for example, shows the most dramatic change of all. In 1900, the entire townland was Protestant owned with 11 Protestant families. Today the town -land is entirely Catholic owned.

The fate of Protestant farm families

With amalgamations 31 Protestant farms became Catholic owned over this period of 75 years. One may ask why should such a phenomenon occur? An examination of what happened to individual Protestant farmers after their farms were sold may give us some insight into the processes at work. Of the 31 Protestant families who sold out, 13 went to Northern Ireland, 9 died out, 6 remained in the Republic of Ireland, 2 emigrated to the U.S. (one in 1932, the others in 1943), another emigrated to Canada in 1929. Of the 6 who sold their farms and remained in the Republic, 5 of them retired, none had children and all have died since selling their land. Thirteen emigrated to Northern Ireland, most since 1945. It should be remembered that the majority of incoming Catholic families came from South Fermanagh. However, a very important fact to note about this apparent cross-border exchange of farm owners, is that there was a distinct difference between the two movements. For the emigrating Protestant family there was a complete uprooting from the old area - entire families left. In contrast, the Catholics left their families and friends in their own areas and bought their own farms in the South. Many of them were newly married couples. There was no large scale exodus of Catholics from Northern Ireland as there were Protestants from the Republic. Nine Protestant farms were sold because

their owners had died without direct heirs, allowing Catholics to move in virtually unopposed. This last factor - terminal Protestant households - may be the root cause of the Protestant population decline. The 5 owners who retired can also be classified as terminal Protestant households, therefore of the 31 Protestant-to-Catholic transactions, 14 were a direct result of terminal Protestant households. To date no sound hypothesis has been propounded which could totally explain the phenomenon of Protestant population decline in the Republic since independence. This present suggestion does not claim total explanation but it generally reflects local trends. There seems to have been a demographic weakness in the Protestant community of the area. For the past 100 years or so there has been on average about 1/3 of all Protestant households in the terminal household category. This was acceptable because the large Protestant population in the area, around 1900, was able to absorb any holding which became vacant. The indigenous Catholic farmers being a minority and usually relatively poor could not afford to compete with their Protestant neighbours. However, a change of attitude seems to have occurred among the Protestant farmers during the second decade of this century. The political situation was very fluid; there was the possibility of sectarian war between Protestant Unionists & Catholic Nationalists. It appears in this area that while the Protestant farmers were prepared to remain in the area, they did not feel secure enough to buy new farms. However, the relatively high number of Protestant holdings becoming vacant because of the death of terminal households continued. Since the Protestant farmers were not buying land, opportunities arose for Catholic farmers to do so. The influx of new Catholic farmers began. A few Protestant farmers foresaw what was happening and left mainly emigrating to North America. By 1945 most Protestants realized that their dominant position in the community was being continuously undermined. A large majority of the farms which changed to Catholic ownership before 1945 was the result of these Protestant owners dying out. After 1945 the general exodus began (Fig 2). Twelve of the 13 families which emigrated to

Northern Ireland did so since 1945. Of the 50 Protestant owned farms in 1900 only 9 remain, 5 of which are owner occupied and only one of which has good prospects for future continuity. Even so there is very little chance of any of these farms being bought by Catholics. Protestants are now very determined to maintain the little foothold that is left. Neighbouring Protestant farmers, from Northern Ireland, are the main instruments for maintaining the foothold.

.....

Although the loss of almost an entire Protestant community is something to be regretted as most were typical, diligent, hardworking, Godfearing Protestant families, some favourable developments in the area can be related to the recent Protestant population decline. The demographic structure of the early 20th century, which showed signs of aging and stagnation, was revitalized by an injection of new life with the introduction of new Catholic families (many of them were young newly-married couples). Thus today there is a healthy demographic structure in the area, unlike many similar rural areas in Ireland - 26 or 3/4 of farm households have siblings of less than 25 years in age and therefore show good potential for future continuity. Twenty four or 72% of households have children less than 15 years old: in fact 3 households have 8 or more children in this category. 12% of households in the study area are terminal, there would no doubt have been a larger percentage of terminal households in the area - more in line with the national average of about 33% - had these changes not taken place. Because of the nature of Protestant to Catholic change in ownership, few farms could be inherited and therefore had to be purchased, so that today there is a percentage of farms purchased by present owners in line with many progressive European agricultural countries; 26 or 59% of the present day farms have been purchased by the present owners. Also because of the above reasons, most farm holders have proper legal titles to their farms, unlike many farmers in Ireland.

Relative stability in family ownership of farms has been characteristic in the recent past: 30 of the 33 owner occupied farms are owned by families who have been in the area for more than 10 years. This represents a relatively high state of stability, at least in an area that has been a prolonged period of upheaval in family farm ownership.

Pat Holland
(Dutch)

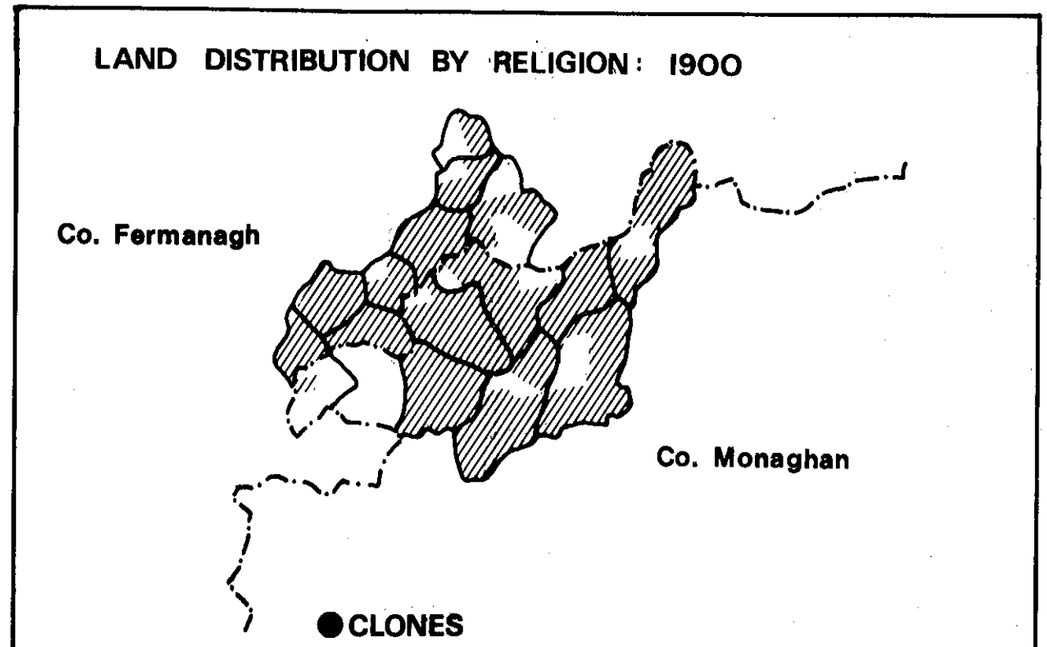
Table I Farm Size & Distribution by religion in 1900 & 1975

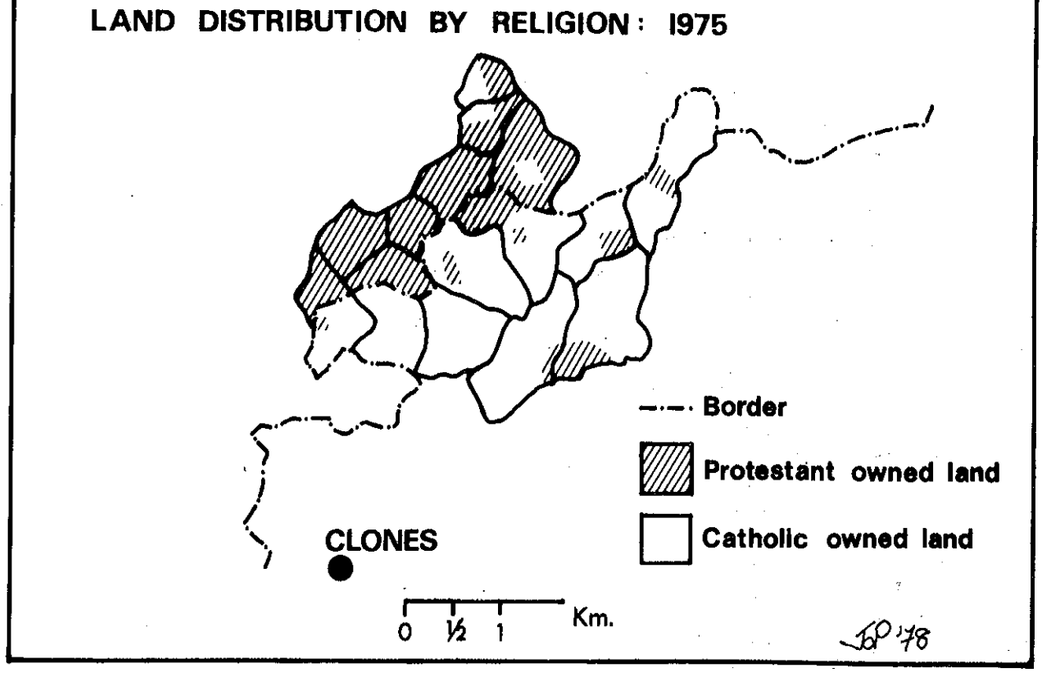
	Acres 1-15	15-30	30-50	50-100	100+	Total
Farms in 1900	37	19	7	2	2	67
Protestant	25	15	7	2	1	50
Catholic	12	4	0	0	1	17
Farms in 1975	10	22	6	5	1	44
Protestant	2	5	2	0	0	9
Catholic	8	17	4	5	1	35

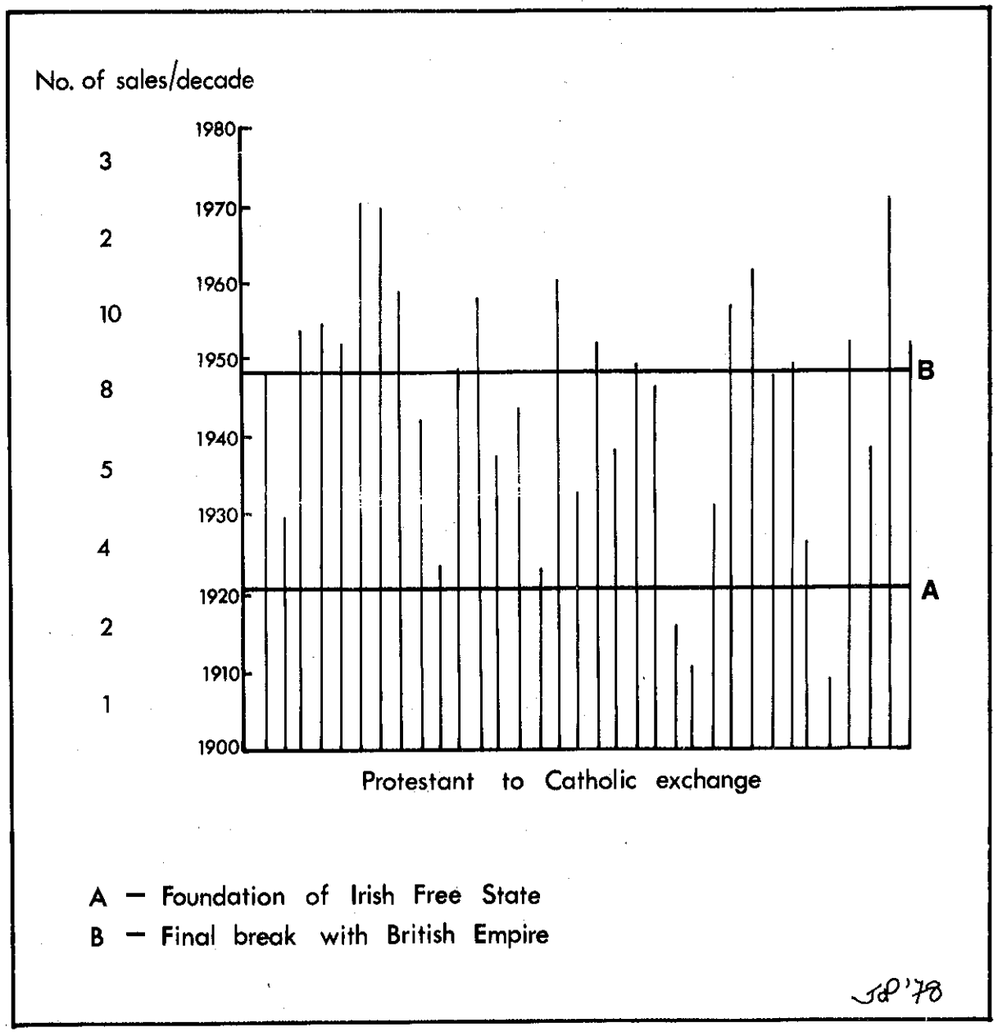
Table II Continuity of ownership by farm size & religion 1900-1975

Distribution of farms in 1900	Acres 1-15	15-30	30-50	50-100	100+	Total
had: Protestant - Catholic:	19	12	5	2	1	39
Catholic - Protestant	0	1	0	0	0	1
Change in ownership:						
With direct continuity[1]	3	2	0	0	0	5
Protestant owned:	1	1	0	0	0	2
Catholic owned	2	1	0	0	0	3
With indirect continuity[2]	3	1	0	0	0	4
Protestant owned	0	1	0	0	0	1
Catholic owned	3	0	0	0	0	3
Protestant owned continuity[3]	5	1	2	0	0	8
Catholic owned continuity (not in above)	7	2	0	0	1	10

1. = i.e. Father to Son
2. = i.e. inherited (not by son)
3. = held by same religious group but not by same family







Year in which individual Protestant holdings changed to Catholic ownership..

Changing Landholding Structures on the Pakenham Estates

The structure of Irish landholding has always been determinant in shaping the social, cultural and economic life of the country and many of the structural problems of Irish agriculture have their origin in the early 19th century. So it is of relevance to study how these structures evolved and why they did, and what were the underlying forces shaping this evolution.

Ireland in the early 19th century was a land of a few large proprietors, a large number of small proprietors and a mass of people who owned no land, except what they leased from the other two groups and it was the interrelationship of tenant, landlord and land that was to play such a vital role in shaping the structure of Irish landholding. The Pakenham estates whose papers I have studied, are interesting because, although they owned some 20,000 acres, this was divided into 3 plots of 12,000, 3,000 & 5,000 respectively. Furthermore they were situated in two counties - Longford & Westmeath - and it is interesting to note the varying results of similar policies on different estates.

Land in Ireland at the beginning of 19th century, could be held in two manners, by lease or at will, and the changes that occurred in these two types, both internally and from one type to the other, were vitally important in shaping, or at least faciliating the reshaping of the landholding structure. In 1800, most of the land of Ireland was held from the landlord by lease, but it was a peculiar type of lease. Most of the land was not leased to the tenant, but to a middleman, who in turn sub-let the land to the actual tenants. A fine example of this can be seen from A. Young's figures on the Killucan Estate (i.e. the 12,000 acre estate).

Irish Acres		Let	Rent	Now Worth (1779)
276		1736	75	250
410		1736	112	410
424 150	bog	1736	70	240
600 400	bog	1736	118	600
150		1736	49	140
122		1736	41	100
270		1736	95	270
330		1736	100	100
377		1773	334	334
60		1739	16	40
383		1749	150	300
655 1500	bog	1749	225	700
303		1750	121	300
325		1750	236	320
457		1756	186	400
	Total		1831	4504

As can be seen, most of the leases had survived from 1736 a period of 43 years. The reason for their long duration is that these were granted for lives, usually three, and many leases contained a young child's name and so could go on for two generations. The chief reason for this policy was the desire of the landlord to extricate himself from the bother of collecting rent, from a tenantry whom he saw as ignorant and illiterate, and whose language he didn't even speak.

By 1800, however, its disadvantages were evident to all, and particularly the landlord, who even by 1779 was losing a substantial sum of money. From 1807-15 with the continuing war on the Continent, the price of grain rose sharply and as a result so did rents.

Socially too, it was counterproductive, and faciliated subletting and subdivision of farms. Thus J. Kincaid, agent of L.Longford notes that when an old lease expired of 700-500 acres at Killucan in 1849 there were no less than 25 landless farmers on one townland alone. As a result of these factors, a change of policy occurred and as old leases fell in, mostly in the 1815-45 period, a new type of lease was granted. The first major change was in the extent of land leased and the type of person who renewed a lease. The leases now granted were for farms of 16-40 acres and these were now granted to the actual occupiers of the land. Equally, their length of duration got gradually shorter In 1812 Wakefield notes that L.Longford's usual lease was for 21 years and two lives, while surviving leases at Tullynally Castle indicate that by the 1820's the typical lease was for 14 years and two lives concurrently. By the time of the Devon Commission, as even more significant change had taken place, and the whole policy of granting leases was stopped. Evidence for this development comes from J. Kincaid who states that in one tract of land which had just come out from under an old lease, not a single new lease had been granted, to the tenants, and another witness notes that L. Longford had not a single leaseholder on his property. Furthermore this trend was not unique to the Pakenham estates but was going on throughout most of the better organised estates in Ireland.

The immediate effect of this policy was to give the landlord control over his estates. On the other hand, Wakefield condemned the failure to grant leases by landlords, believing that leases were the means of granting security of tenure, so essential if farm improvement was to take place.

Yet another witness before the Devon Commission notes that those tenants without leases were generally the more inclined to improve their holdings and L. Longford himself had in operation an extensive system of premiums and aids to help his tenants develop both their agricultural techniques and to develop waste lands.

The reason for this divergence of opinion may lie in Wakefield's failure to grasp the full complexity of the Irish situation. In England population pressure was less due to the industrial revolution but in Ireland leases instead of faciliating land development, facilitated sub-division and sub-letting among tenants due to population pressure. An obvious solution was to include clauses in a lease forbidding sub-letting, but in fact the Pakenhams had been doing this since 1780 without avail. Furthermore, few landlords at the time would break a lease on the grounds of allowing in cottiers.

Of greater importance to tenant security was the method by which the land was let. Most land was let by proposal to the highest bidder but in the Pakenham Estates, as in many of the better managed estates, the land was let by valuation, which was fixed by a professional land valuer.

So having examined the growing influence of the landlord over his estate, what effect has this on land structure? In all their estates, as old leases fell in, the farm organisation was restructured. All excess landless-cottiers were removed (though they were given compensation) and many rehoused in the towns. More important was a dramatic reorganisation of the farm structure. J. Kincaid notes that when an old lease fell in some of the agricultural tenants who had substantial farms elsewhere and resided elsewhere, but who had tracts of land in that old lease, lost that tract, which was joined to others.

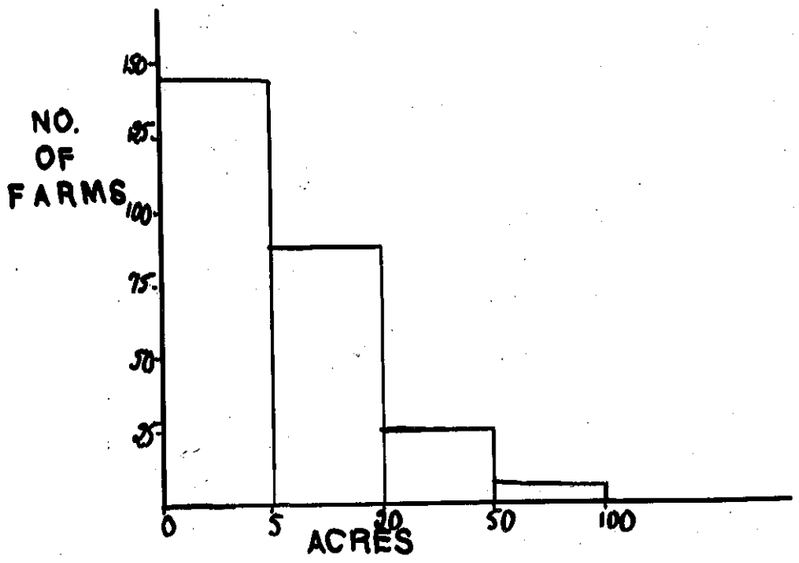
Killucan					Longford			
	No. of farms	% of total	Total acreage	% of Total acre-age.	No. of farms	% of total	Total acre-age	% of Total acreage
0-5	113	36%	158	4%	146	55%	302	15%
5-20	124	40%	1213	28%	87	33%	727	35%
20-50	55	18%	1506	35%	25	9%	735	35%
50-100	15	5%	989	23%	6	3%	305	15%
100+	4	1%	400	10%	-	-	-	-

As can be seen from the above figures, there is a wide divergence of results in terms of farm structure between the two estates, but in both cases the 20+ farmers own 68% (Killucan) and 50% (Longford) of the land respectively, while on the Longford estate 55% of the farmers hold farms of 0-5 acres, while only 36% of the farmers on Killucan are in this category. So while large farming dominates on both estates, the degree of consolidation varies greatly, despite the fact that the same policy was applied to both estates. So we must look outside landlord policy for reasons for this structural divergence and the explanation appears to lie in the underlying economic forces at work at this period. Longford at this period was, economically at least, closer to the west of Ireland, than to the east, or at least formed a transitional zone, but the east part of Westmeath was part of the economic zone of Industrial Britain, and was highly geared towards a market economy. On the other hand, Longford was closer to the subsistance form of economy which characterized the west of Ireland at this period. Throughout this period with rising British population, the increasing demand by British merchants in Ireland was for cattle, and more and more farmers in this market zone turned to cattle rearing, a more extensive form of farming. Evidence for this comes from both Wakefield, Lewis and the Devon Commission. As a result the economic forces making for consolidation were greater on the Killucan estate than on the Longford one.

So overall it would appear that while changing landholding policy by the landlord was influential in determining the structure of land units that emerged, their role must not be over-emphasized and the underlying market forces and the degree to which the area was susceptible to them had a vital role in determining the new wmerging structure, a structure that was to survive to a greater or lessor extent down to the present day.

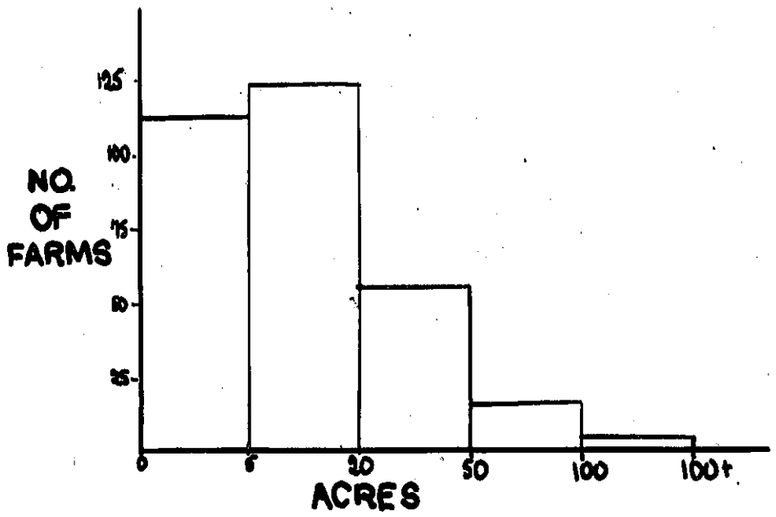
R. Masterson

LONGFORD ESTATE
FARM STRUCTURE 1830



— T.A.B

KILLUCAN ESTATE
FARM STRUCTURE 1830



— T.A.B

"The Port of Dublin - it's past, present and future"

Once upon a time, this city fell in love with the sea - the affair is still alive and sparkling!

A typical day in the port begins when the fishing boats come into the port. Fish flap on wet dedks, fish flop in the weighing scales. Look where you will, a hundred steps cannot be taken without raising the dust of history; and what a history! Grandiose, eloquent, sinister and yet always captivating.

As a Dubliner, Dublin port is a part of me as it is part of hundreds and thousands of other Dublin people. It grew up around me. As I look at it today, it has changed rapidly from the ancient land of the Norse to the modern land of the European. Allow me to take you on a journey down through the history of the port and emerge in the future time.

The history of the port can be traced back to Bronze Age times when Dublin Bay was used to ship gold and copper mined in the Wicklow mountains to Britain. The origin of Dublin as an urban entity began in the 9th century when the Norsemen established a fortified settlement on a low hill close to the south bank of the River Liffey - today, this spot is found outside the Olympia Theatre. The construction of this "long-phort", a term used by Irish annalists, is recorded for the year 841 A.D. Because the Norse were merchants and sea-faring peoples, Dublin's position was best suited to their needs. The river Liffey itself pays tribute to Anna Livia Plurabella, the force of life in James Joyce's "Finnegan's Wake" and "Ulysses".

In the Battle of Tara, 980 A.D., Maelschechnaill, the Irish King, defeated the Vikings of Dublin. After the Battle of Clontarf, 1014, the Viking population became less warlike and lived in greater peace with their neighbours.

All changed with the Anglo-Norman invasion. When Henry II held court in Dublin from 1171-2, he handed this area over to the people of Bristol for colonization.

King John in 1209 allowed berthing facilities to be built - Merchants Quay and Wood Quay. The next important step was not taken until 1708 when a committee of Dublin Corporation was entrusted with the responsibility of establishing a Ballast Office. It was the first port authority empowered to maintain and develop the Port. It benefited greatly, also, from the making of the Great South Wall. Before this the Liffey divided into multi-channels as it entered Dublin Bay, thus causing many ship-wrecks. The wall was built of great blocks of Dalkey granite which were dovetailed into each other without cement. Later on, in 1820, George Halpin built the North Wall and the port was thus opened to very large ships. An extension was added to this wall between 1871 and 1884.

Development continued and the port grew larger. In 1905 a 100 ton crane was erected which is still in use today. Between 1950 - 1972 many extensions were added, and many famous landmarks were built e.g. Alexandra Quay (1950), Fertiliser Jetty (1968), British Seaway Terminal (1969), 680' high smoke stack of the Poolbeg Generating Station (1970), B&I Terminal (1972). It is clearly seen that from the beginning of the 20th century the history of the port has been one of expansion and modernization. This caters for the continuous increase in the volume of trade. The development must continue if the citizens of Dublin and the nation as a whole are to benefit from this growth.

The port is an essential service to the country. 99% of Ireland's international trade is carried by sea and over 60% of general cargo passes through the port. It is also a very important financial asset to Dublin city because approximately 12,000 people are employed in it. Its community is unique and indeed the port has been a source of pride and interest to them. On account of the number employed, it possesses various industries, all related to the port.

Would further development be hindered on the belief that the volume of port traffic would contribute to the city's traffic problem? No, because port traffic comprises of only about 7% of the total city traffic. The development of the linear train concept will tend to divert some of the port container traffic from road to rail.

And what of the future? There is need for new job opportunities to cater for the natural increase in population, to replace those lost through increasing productivity and technological change, to cater for migration from rural areas and to assist in the achievement of full employment in the State. The number of vessels arriving at the Port are increasing as are the number of port industries increasing. However, the number of livestock exports are decreasing e.g. 311,678 in 1974 and 175,127 in 1975. Projections made for traffic from the port by 1985 indicate that it could be of relatively large proportions. Indeed, the new Liffey crossing will possibly improve the road schemes. Also, it will be necessary to strike a balance between the amount of employment in the port and the amount provided elsewhere in metropolitan Dublin, the number one consideration being the cost of transport from home to workplace. It cannot be overstressed the important part the port plays in the economic, social and political life of the country, how vital is its role and the degree of responsibility placed in the Port Board.

The end of our journey has come. I hope that by giving an account of the port's past, present and future that I have portrayed its character, grandeur and fruitful heritage. Perhaps it is appropriate to end with the lines of Donagh Mac Donagh:

"The Dublin of old statues, this arrogant city,
stirs secretly and proudly in my blood".

Claire O'Brien: 1st Arts

A Slippery Subject

Hillary Barr 3rd Arts

Historically the seas around Ireland have been renowned as rich fisheries. However native efforts to exploit them have been bedevilled not alone by natural factors but by unsettled domestic conditions, foreign interference and indeed penal enactments. In the 19th century for example, the industry suffered from wide fluctuations not only in the value of catch landed but also in numbers employed in the industry.

No. of fishermen in Ireland

1830	50,000
1845	100,000
1880	25,000

The startling decline after 1845 can be attributed to deaths and emigration resulting from the Great Famine.

During the first half of the 20th century some progress was recorded, but the industry continued to suffer recurring economic problems. Catches were subject to wide fluctuations and markets were uncertain. Private investment in the fishing industry was negligible and hence there was little or no added value to landings.

Since the Government's Publication of it's White Paper on Fisheries (1962) and the establishment of An Bord Iascaigh Mhara [B.I.M.] as a development agency the Irish sea fishing industry - although still small in comparison with other EEC countries - has recorded considerable growth [BIM had existed since 1952 when it had taken over the functions of the Irish Sea Fisheries Assn - established 1931 - but it was mainly directed towards increasing the catching power of the industry].

The main objective of BIM was to develop the industry both at sea and on land in order to maximize it's contribution to the G.N.P. and indirectly, as a multiplier effect, to create prosperous coastal fishing communities.

Importance of fishing in the National Economy

	1965	1969	1974	1975
Landings £ m	1.7	3.0	9.0	10.5
Landings as % of GNP	0.17	0.20	0.32	0.30
Exports £ m	2.0	3.6	13.0	14.9
Exports as % of GNP	0.20	0.24	0.46	0.42
Total contribution of fishing industry expressed as % of GNP	0.35	0.43	0.85	0.75

Source: BIM 25th Annual Report 1975.

Since the establishment of BIM there has been a considerable growth in the quantity of sea-fish landings. Between 1963 and 1967/8 landings almost doubled to close on 50,000 tons and in the following 4 years the quantity increased by 35,000 tons to the 1972 peak of 85,000 tonns. Thus in just a decade the quantity of sea fish landings had almost tripled. However since 1972 the quantity of fish caught has in actual fact declined - in 1976 the figure was 80,000 tons.

How important and how valuable are herring to the sea fishing industry? Between 1972 - 75 Pelagic fish i.e. herring, mackeral, sprat and pilchard, accounted for 5/8 of the total annual catch in Ireland, of which herring accounted for almost half. In monetary terms herring account for 40% of total value of Irish seafish landings. The quantity of herring landed more than doubled since 1967, amounting to almost 50,000 tons in 1972. In the same period the value of the same catch rose from £0.5million to £2 million. Subsequently, however, the quantity of herring landings has levelled off and it declined to less than 30,000 tons in 1975 and it declined yet again in 1976 to 22,000 tons. Because of rising prices, however, the value of herring landings continued to rise up to 1974 when they amounted to £4 million. Thus while the impact of declining catches has up to recently been disguised by rising prices in 1976, not only

was the quantity down by almost half - 44% - but the value also fell by 22% relative to the peak value of 1974.

Fishing as an economic activity varies widely over space. In Ireland the degree of exploitation of fish depends on a number of variables. Fish stocks themselves vary over time and space as well as in value. There are marked variations in the distribution of fish on the Continental Shelf. The availability of fish depends on the distribution of plankton [the minute organisms on which fish depend for food], the reproduction and growth rates of different species, also by fish migrations and more recently by man's rate of exploitation. The degree of exploitation will depend on the structure of the fishing fleet and the distance which the fleet has to travel from the port to the fishing grounds. Since Ireland lies adjacent to the rich fisheries on the Continental Shelf particularly in the West & North West, it is no surprise to find 3 of the top fishing ports in the country (state i.e. Eire) located in Co. Donegal i.e. Killybegs, Burtonport & Greencastle. The value of sea fish landings at these ports in 1975 amounted to £2.134.00. Of the 3 ports Killybegs is the largest and is in fact the most important fishing port in the State. The value of the catch in 1975 was £1.432.494 [Howth, the second most important port in the State, had a landed catch worth £737,195].

Although historically Killybegs has always been an important fishing port, to what can its present growth and status be attributed? Of a number of factors we can pick two as being particularly important. Firstly in 1958 the Irish Government commissioned a Swede, Carl J. Bjuke to "... a project of improvement of Fishery Harbour Facilities to accommodate a fishing fleet larger in number, size and output than at present employed". Bjuke visited every fishing harbour in the State and reported on each of them as to what the potential of the port was, the amount of money, if any, which should be spent on the ports. He designated several ports as "major fishing ports" within the State - two of which were in Donegal, Killybegs & Greencastle. It is interesting to note, however, that the Government when considering Bjuke's recommendations disregarded Greencastle altogether as a major fishing port.

Today Killybegs is a State owned harbour and this is a second reason for its importance today. It's accession was finalised in An tAcht um Larionaid Chuanta Iascaigh 1968 [The Fishery Harbour Centres Act 1968]. Through the generous grants offered by BIM in the Marine Credit Plan for the purchase of new and second hand boats and the improvement of harbour facilities by Oifig na nOibreacha Poibli in conjunction with BIM, Killybegs has grown at a phenomenal rate in the past 15 years. Not only has the fishing fleet expanded but through careful planning and incentives by BIM Killybegs has attracted 7 processing factories, 2 engineering firms, a net making firm and a sail factory. In addition it contains a BIM boatbuilding yard and a fishmeal factory.

No. of boats over 15 tons in Killybegs

1939 - 0	1969 - 31
1951 - 11	1973 - 45
1957 - 23	1974 - 44
1967 - 26	

Processing is a vital constituent of a port and of a fishing industry for 3 important reasons:

1) It generally serves to preserve a very perishable product: this allows it to be used for a longer time after catching and to be transported over greater distances and so widens the market.
2) It reduces the weight of the catch and this reduces effective transport costs.
3) There is a direct economic importance in processing in the value that is added to the product.

What is in store for the sea fishing industry in the future? As we have seen above fisheries in Ireland have been on the decline since the peak year of 1972. If the sea fishing industry is to return to the road of expansion, how is the present decline to be halted? The answer depends on both our external relationship with the EEC and on internal agreement in an industry which is becoming increasingly fragmented. The sea fishing industry is

becoming bureaucratic. There are too many different organizations - each of which varies in the degree of scorn which it has for the others. There seems to be little co-ordination between fishermen's representatives and Government Departments - clearly seen in the past few years in the continuous arguments between Government policy and that of the Irish Fishermen's organization [IFO]. Not only is there a split between IFO and Government but there also seems to be a split within the Government itself. Official fisheries policy at present depends on whether a particular party is in power or in opposition - the one in opposition promising more than the one in power [have we heard that somewhere before??]. A fragmentation has even arisen among the fishermen. The fisherman is one of the few people who does not pay income tax and because of this he does not readily qualify for all the benefits of the "Welfare State" - he doesn't receive a pension, nor a sickness benefit nor an accident benefit nor a death benefit, nor does he receive holiday pay (that is if he gets holidays). Because of this discrimination a Union has been attempted to be formed among the deckhands of fishing vessels. Unfortunately this attempt has been met with scorn from the IFO - an organization which really represents the elite of the sea fisheries industry i.e. the skipper/owner.

Externally, our relations with the EEC are, to put it mildly, 'not good'. We are told that because we are part of a community we must act accordingly. Therefore, as far as the exploitation of the waters around the Irish coast is concerned the Irish must abide by the decision of the European Economic Community. We must share our fish resources with other countries who have already over-fished their own inshore fishing grounds. Would we be permitted to go into the North Sea and avail of North Sea oil and gas? Should we be allowed to be bullied by the Danes and more particularly the Dutch and French, to whose great disadvantage it would be if the EEC countries were banned from fishing in Irish waters?

Quantities of fish taken by European countries in sea areas contiguous to the Irish Coast 1973 (in metric tons)

	1	2	3	4	5
Denmark	1.107	-	-	-	-
France	71.167	8.047	12.726	7.216	65.624
W.Germany	18.939	-	-	5	301
Netherlands	34.304	-	748	209	15.337
England & Wales	8.510	31	13.760	52	192
Scotland	204.662	1.889	2.045	-	-
Ireland	26.772	-	29.733	8.196	15.416

Source: BIM Report 1975

1. N.W. Coast Scotland & N. Ireland
2. Rockall
3. Irish Sea
4. W. Coast Ireland: Porcupine Bank
5. S. Coast Ireland

If Irish Fishermen and Government officials can come together and agree on one policy that will be beneficial to everyone, especially fishermen in the Irish State, and if they can place a credible case before the EEC, then there might be an Irish future for a fishing industry which has, since entry into the EEC, been on the decline.

The Northern Ireland Convention Elections - 1975

Dennis G. Pringle

The people of Northern Ireland went to the polls on 1st May 1975 to elect 78 representatives to a Convention to discuss the future constitution of the province. Elections were held in 12 multiple seat constituencies using the single transferable vote method of proportional representation. Each constituency elected between 5 & 8 representatives depending upon the size of its electorate.

The result was a landslide victory for 'loyalists' over the 'moderates' who favoured 'power sharing'. The UUUC (an amalgam of 3 'loyalists' parties: Official Unionist; Vanguard Unionist; & Democratic Unionist) won 46 seats (an overall majority of 14) and polled 54.1% of the valid first preference votes. The SDLP (Social Democratic & Labour Party) were second with 17 seats and 23.7% of the votes. Despite fielding two successful Protestant candidates, the SDLP are generally regarded as a Catholic party. The other moderate parties suffer from similar images which tend to reduce the number of votes transferred between moderate parties : the UPNI (Unionist Party of Northern Ireland) is generally regarded as a Protestant party, whereas the Alliance party, although non-sectarian, is considered by many people a middle-class party. The other major contenders, the NILP (Northern Ireland Labour Party) and the Republican Clubs represented the 'left' in the Convention election, but despite advocating non-sectarian policies they are generally regarded as Protestant & Catholic parties respectively.

The percentage of votes for each party by constituency is given in Table 1. The figure in parenthesis is the number of seats won. The consistantly high vote for the UUUC is notable. In 11 out of the 12 constituencies the UUUC had the highest percentage poll, and in no fewer than 8 constituencies they received more than half of the votes. This consistency is reflected in the very low coefficient of variation for the UUUC (16.1%) compared with other parties. A high coefficient

indicates a large variation in the percentages of votes received between constituencies. In the case of the SDLP the high percentages are generally found in the west of the province reflecting the religious nature of the party's support. The Alliance Party appeared to do better in urban areas, possibly reflecting the party's middle class base. Alternatively, the poor support for Alliance in rural areas may indicate that rural people are more conservative and therefore more likely to vote along traditional sectarian lines.

The correlation between the voting patterns for each party may be gauged from Kendall rank correlation coefficients (Table 2). The SDLP have a negative correlation with each of the other 3 major parties. These in turn have positive correlations with one another. The high negative correlation between the SDLP and the UUUC is a reflection of the religious nature of both parties' support. The even higher negative correlation between the SDLP and Alliance would suggest that Alliance received a mostly Protestant vote, but closer examination suggests an alternative explanation. Table 1 shows that the 3 constituencies in which Alliance did best (i.e. South Belfast, North Down & East Belfast) were also the areas where the SDLP did worst. These areas have a very low percentage of Catholics and it may be that the removal of a direct sectarian issue encourages people to see the conflict in terms of moderates against extremists. The same reasoning could also be applied to the negative correlation between the SDLP and the UPNI, although more probably this simply reflects the different spatial distribution of Protestant and Catholic moderates.

Table 3 shows the number of candidates standing and the number elected (in parenthesis) in each constituency. The most noticable feature once again is the consistency of the UUUC - nowhere did more than half of the UUUC candidates fail to get elected. They also had the highest overall success rate - 73%. The success rate of the other parties declined with both the number of seats contested and the number of seats actually won, showing that the parties with more guaranteed support are able to conduct a more efficient election campaign. The lack of success by the Republican

Clubs, compared with the number of candidates put forward, suggests that they seriously overestimated their support.

The seats per vote ratio represents the number of seats won by each party for each 1% of the total first preference poll. The expected (i.e. 'average') seat per vote ratio is 0.78. Only Alliance and the UUUC gained proportionately more seats than first preference votes, indicating that both parties benefited most from the transfer of votes. The success of Alliance, compared with both the other two 'moderate' parties, suggests that moderate voters prefer to transfer to Alliance rather than across the sectarian divide to the other 'moderate' party. The high seat per vote ratio of the UUUC is partly a reflection of the fact that transfers within the UUUC were more organised than between the moderate parties where the voters did not receive as much specific instruction in this sphere. Another important factor is the number of candidates standing. Parties with only one candidate standing lost all of their votes if the candidate was eliminated, whereas there were always enough UUUC candidates in each constituency to ensure that votes never had to transfer outside the UUUC unless the voters specifically wanted them to. In other words, large parties stand to gain most from the transfer of votes.

The 1975 Convention elections highlight yet again the religious/nationalistic nature of Northern Ireland politics. The massive mandate given to the UUUC clearly indicates the extent of the opposition to a United Ireland - only 27% of the electorate favoured 'republican' candidates. The extent of the UUUC victory, however, was also partly due to sectarian disunity in the moderate opposition. UPNI voters, for example, often appear to have transferred to UUUC candidates in preference to DSLP 'moderates'. The UUUC consequently won 60% of the seats with only 54% of the votes.

The elections also emphasized the advantage of larger parties over smaller ones, even in the context of proportional representation. The implication is that smaller parties might

be better advised to amalgamate rather than retain separate identities. However, sectarian issues again serve to drive a wedge between groupings with similar ideological views. This is particularly true of the 'left wing' whose dismal failure, despite the industrial nature of many constituencies, must partly be due to the fact that socialism is often subjugated to nationalistic issues (e.g. Official Sein Fein, British & Irish Communist Organisations, etc.).

In conclusion, voting in Northern Ireland is still very much along sectarian lines. This has, if anything, become more pronounced since the 'troubles' began in the late 1960's (cp. Boal, Buchannon,1969). Also the introduction of proportional representation, designed to help the smaller more moderate parties, has only tended to strengthen the position of the traditional unionist monolith. No major change in representation is therefore envisaged in elections in the near future.

Reference:

Boal F.W., Buchannon R. (1969) "The 1969 Northern Ireland Election" Irish Geography 6 (1), 78-84.

TABLE I. Percentage of valid first preference votes and seats won by each party by constituency.

	UUUC	SDLP	Alliance	UPNI	NILP	Rep.Clubs
N. Antrim	66.2 (5)	17.0 (1)	9.5 (1)	7.8	-	-
S. Antrim	59.6 (5)	12.6 (1)	12.4 (1)	14.0 (1)	-	1.0
Armagh	55.3 (5)	28.7 (2)	5.1	4.6	-	6.1
E. Belfast	58.5 (3)	2.5	15.6 (1)	11.8 (1)	9.1(1)	-
N. Belfast	54.0 (4)	23.0(1)	6.3	8.2 (1)	6.0	1.3
S. Belfast	57.4 (4)	6.4	21.9 (2)	11.0	3.3	-
W. Belfast	35.6 (2)	37.9(2)	9.2 (1)	-	-	-
Derry	48.4 (4)	37.2(3)	7.7	4.1	0.5	2.2
North Down	65.0 (4)	6.9	17.6 (2)	10.6 (1)	-	-
South Down	41.6 (3)	38.9(3)	5.1	11.6 (1)	-	2.8
Fermanagh/ S.Tyrone	52.0 (3)	40.1(2)	2.8	2.4	-	2.8
Mid-Ulster	48.6 (4)	35.0(2)	6.0	4.0	-	6.4
Northern Ireland	54.1 (46)	23.7(17)	9.8 (8)	7.7 (5)	1.3(1)	2.2(0)
Coeff. Variation	16.1	57.2	56.2	45.8	68.1	57.3

TABLE 2 Kendall tau correlations between first preference votes vor the major parties.

	UUUC	SDLP	Alliance	UPNI
UUUC	1.00	-0.58	0.35	0.41
SDLP	-0 .53	1.00	-0.68	-0.53
Alliance	0. 35	-0.68	1.00	0.35
UPNI	0. 41	-0.53	0.35	1.00

TABLE 3 Candidates contesting and seats won by each party

	UUUC	SDLP	Alliance	UPNI	NILP	Rep. Club
North Antrim	7 (5)	3 (1)	2 (1)	2(0)	-	-
South Antrim	8 (5)	2 (1)	2 (1)	2(1)	-	1 (0)
Armagh	5 (5)	3 (2)	2 (0)	1(0)	-	3 (0)
East Belfast	6 (3)	1 (0)	2 (1)	2(1)	2(1)	-
N. Belfast	5 (4)	2 (1)	2 (0)	1(1)	2(0)	1 (0)
S. Belfast	6 (4)	1 (0)	2 (2)	2(0)	1(0)	-
W. Belfast	3 (2)	4 (2)	1 (1)	-	-	3 (0)
Derry	6 (4)	3 (3)	2 (0)	1(0)	1(0)	3 (0)
North Down	5 (4)	1 (0)	3 (2)	3(1)	-	-
South Down	4 (3)	3 (3)	2 (0)	2(1)	-	2 (0)
Fermanagh/ S.Tyrone	4 (3)	3 (2)	1 (0)	1(0)	-	1 (0)
Mid-Ulster	4 (4)	4 (2)	2 (0)	1(0)	-	3 (0)
N. Ireland	63 (46)	30 (17)	23(8)	18 (5)	6 (1)	17 (0)
Success rate	73.0%	56.7%	34.8%	27.8%	16.7%	0.0%
Seats/Vote	0.85	0.72	0.82	0.65	0.77	0.00

B.A. Dissertation Titles 1978

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