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How Has Supranational (EU) Policy Shaped the Local in Ireland?

A Case Study of South East Cork Area Development (SECAD)

Matt Williamson

CARL Research Project

in collaboration with

SECAD (South East Cork Area Development)

CARL
COMMUNITY - ACADEMIC
RESEARCH LINKS
University College Cork, Ireland

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CARL seeks to:

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- provide their services on an affordable basis;
- promote and support public access to and influence on science and technology;
- create equitable and supportive partnerships with civil society organisations;
- enhance understanding among policymakers and education and research institutions of the research and education needs of civil society, and
- enhance the transferrable skills and knowledge of students, community representatives and researchers (www.livingknowledge.org).

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Introduction

How Has Supranational (EU) Policy Shaped the Local in Ireland?

1.1 Introduction

This research sets out to investigate how the process of implementing EU rural development policies in Ireland has led to the creation of new and highly dynamic territorial entities. Since 1987, Local Action Groups (LAG's) that crossed established bureaucratic, administrative, community and territorial structures such as the Catholic parish, Electoral Districts (ED's), Rural Districts (RD's) and county boundaries have become the key 'shapers' of these new territorial entities.

Much of the scope of this dissertation is predominantly historical, dealing with the period 1997 – 2007, so a context outside of the literature review is set out into which the main body of research will be presented. Concepts such as 'rural', 'community' and 'rural and community development' will be briefly explored before examining the issues and politics involved in rural restructuring.

1.2 Aim and Objectives

The aim of this research is to gain a greater understanding of how supranational (EU) policies have shaped the local in Ireland. This aim will be achieved through addressing three main objectives:

1. Investigate how EU policies led to a rescaling of governance.

2. Identify the relationships behind dynamic territory boundaries.

3. Explore how relationships of power interacted within and between actors.

4.

1.3 Rationale

There has been some research carried out looking at the rescaling of governance and new territorial formation within the EU. Although previous studies have looked at these phenomena, it has not been in the Irish context. The Irish experience of LEADER was looked upon by the European community as a huge success. It is important to understand why it managed to be so successful in delivering these programmes.

Less research was found on relationships of coopetition as a complex process that has informed, and continues to inform, the rescaling of governance and formation of territories. This research will only scratch the surface of these notions but can provide a basis for further studies.

Chapter 2 will provide a guide of the current literature available with regards to 'rural', 'community' and 'rural development'. Within this, issues of scales of governance, territory and the concept of coopetition will be examined. Chapter 3 will outline the methodology used to complete the research, including rigor and ethics. Chapters 4, 5 and 6 will present the findings and discuss the implications of these. These three chapters will examine the changing scales of governance, the development of new territories and networks of coopetition respectively. A final chapter 7 will conclude, setting out limitations to this study and stating how this inquiry can be used for further research going forward.

1.4 The LEADER Programme

LEADER is a French acronym for Liaison Entre Actions de Developpment de l'Economie Rurale, translating as 'links between the rural economy and development actions' (European Network for Rural Development). The LEADER I programme launched in 1991 and covered some 23% of the total surface area of Europe (LEADER magazine, 1992), mostly in southern Europe, but included Ireland. The LEADER programme sought to address rural development in a new and innovative way through bottom-up approaches. Rather than focusing on agriculture as a primary driver for rural economies, LEADER focused on social inclusion and community identity

by linking people with area and resources. This translates as using local enterprise and initiative with local resources to resolve local needs and issues. LEADER II programme replaced LEADER I in 1996. Unlike other countries in Europe that were divided into regions, Ireland was designated a single region. Although LEADER is implemented under the national Rural Development Programme, in each nation and region it is delivered by Local Action Groups (LAGs). LAGs were able to facilitate a concerted rural development plan designed to meet the needs of the area, working in partnership to enable animation of ideas with EU funding. Funding was awarded to LAGs based on strategy plans by the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRG) and the reformed European Structural Fund. This could then be distributed into community initiatives.

1.5 SECAD

South East Cork Area Development (SECAD) is one such LAG and operate in Co. Cork along with three other LEADER LAGs. Originally operating as ECAD, they will be referred to throughout the course of this research by their current name to avoid confusion. SECAD established as a limited company in 1995 and was granted a technical grant under the LEADER II programme in 1996. SECAD operate out of their headquarters in Midleton, Co. Cork. In the time period that is the focus of this research, SECAD operated in an area stretching from Glanmire to Youghal, encompassing Cobh, Carrigtwohill and Midleton, including the further rural communities that are serviced by these towns (see fig 1.1).

Local Development Companies in County Cork

North Cork

South Cork

Cork

West Cork

	Ballyhoura Development
	SECAD
	I.R.D. Duhallow CLG
	Údarás na Gaeltachta
	Avondhu Blackwater Partnership CLG
	Comhar na nOileán CTR

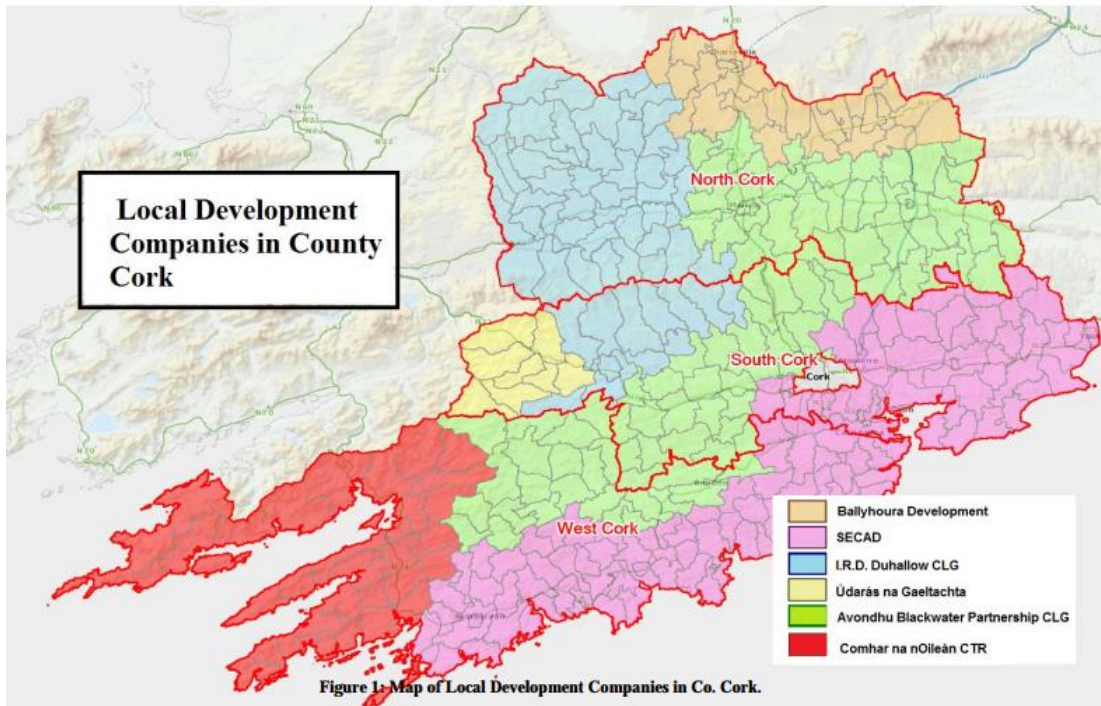Figure 1: Map of Local Development Companies in Co. Cork.

Fig. 1.1 The original operational area of SECAD circumnavigates the east boundary of the city. This map from 2016 shows subsequent growth of the LAG into Ballincollig and Carrigaline in 2014 and more recently into west Cork. (source: SECAD)

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 explores relevant literature to set out a historical context into which this research fits. Definitions of 'rural', 'community' and 'rural development' are established before looking at understandings of rescaling of governance, formation of territory and coopetition in relation to rural development. Relevant literature was sourced via UCC library and its online database of journals. Search terms used were rural development, rural geography, local development, regional geography, coopetition, partnerships in rural geography and rural governance. Further resources were found under direction from Dr. Ray O'Connor and his personal collection.

2.2 Historical background

Since the foundation of the state the idea of the Irish rural landscape has been deeply embedded in Ireland's identity (Brunt, 1988; Browne, 2004.). Brunt (1988) considers Ireland an "anomaly" among the other countries of northwest Europe following the Second World War. He suggests that from the 1930's Ireland adhered to a policy of conservatism and isolation whilst its European neighbours strengthened their economies through processes of modernisation and free trade. This, he argues, is in part due to a lack of resources combined with a desire to promote and develop an identity that was in opposition to that of being British (Brunt, 1988; Hourihan, 2015). Trade was 80% reliant on agriculture with only 7% of national trade based on manufacturing. Britain was Ireland's main trading partner and accounted for 87% of Ireland's exports (Brunt, 1988; Kennedy, 1993). Protectionist policies that disrupted trade from the 1930's had been driven by the de Valera-led Fianna Fail government that dominated Irish economic policy until the late 1950's (Brown, 2004; Brunt, 1988). According to O'Connor, (1997) rural development in the period between 1922 and 1958 was anchored in the parishes of the Catholic Church, with each parish being able to determine the needs of their community and

draw on local resources. Rural development tended to be reactionary, rather than working to medium- or longer-term strategies, and were coordinated by voluntary bodies, which had strong ties to the Catholic Church. O'Connor (1997) observes that because the state's focus was on national development the Catholic Church led and coordinated rural development strategies at local level, although he identifies key joint initiatives such as the rural electrification scheme and group water schemes as successful partnerships between the national and the local.

From the 1950's Ireland's rural employment went into decline as traditional agrarian practices became increasingly modernised and mechanised. The concurrent process of urbanisation and the default response to economic decline, emigration (Brown, 2004; Brunt, 1988; MacLaughlin 1994), resulted in population decline, especially in remote rural areas reliant on labour intensive farming practices.

The 1960's and 70's saw increased prosperity and economic growth, as more centralised policies placed an emphasis on modernisation and free trade to remedy Ireland's comparative under-developed economy (Brown, 2004; Brunt, 1988). A policy of industrialisation by invitation and a policy of dispersing that industry to all parts of Ireland brought sufficient economic development to very remote rural areas (Brunt, 1988). This period of growth was reinforced by Ireland's accession into the EC (EU) in 1973, and engagement with the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). This ushered in a new period in rural development. The CAP promoted specialisation and intensification of agricultural production. Brunt (1988) argues the CAP improved market conditions for farmers together with income potential. However, agricultural development and rural development were regarded as the same thing and synonymous with rural communities (Storey, 1999; Woods, 2005). In his 1997 paper, O'Connor submits that treating rural development as one and the same as agricultural development exacerbated social and economic marginalisation for non-farmers in rural areas. Cuddy (1991) points to declining numbers employed in agricultural activities whilst at the same time incomes of those employed in the industry increased by 9%.

Irelands open economy left the country exposed to global recession. Successive Fianna Fail and Fine Gael governments failed to control rising national debt and contain expenditure (Brown, 2004; Brunt, 1988; Kennedy, 1993; MacLaughlin, 1994) and gave rise to economic recession through much of the 1980's. As global recession descended, foreign investment in the form of factories was withdrawn, further perpetuating the socioeconomic marginalisation of rural areas dependent on such industries. It was under these circumstances that the LEADER I programme was introduced across Europe with the express purpose of delivering funds to local community initiatives. Rather than propping up agriculture, LEADER stimulated and diversified rural economies at a local level, matching local resources with local needs.

2.3 Defining Rural

The term rural is much contested and has a multitude of meanings, often depending on definitions specific to needs, as Woods explains: "There is, alas, no simple, standard definition" (2005, p. 3). Halfacree (1993), drawing on Le Febvrian theories of representation of space argues that there are four different types of definitions of rural - the descriptive, the socio-cultural, the land-use based (see fig. 2.1 and 2.2) and the socially constructed.
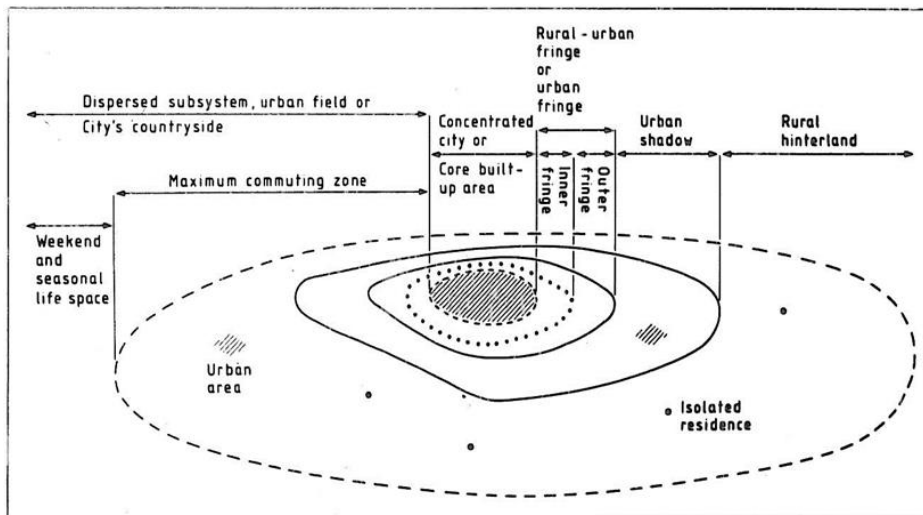
Fig. 2.1 Difficulties in defining 'rural' are under pinned by the fact that there are different types of rural areas.

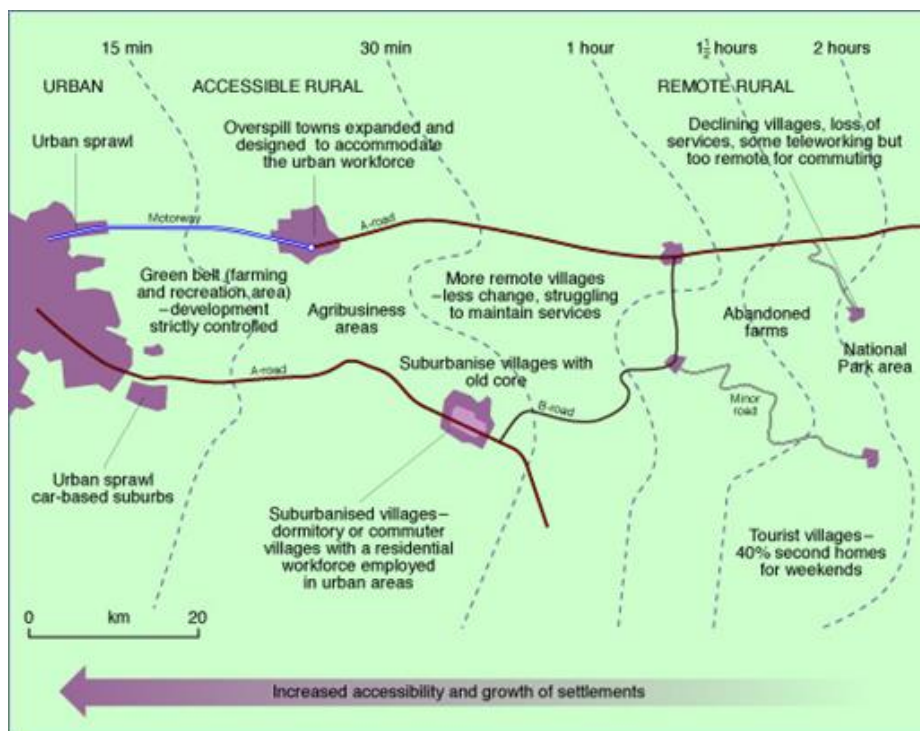Fig. 2.2 Most conceptualisations of rural areas attempt to identify a typography of rural areas based on distance from urban centres. This began with Bryant and is still prevalent in literature that explores geographies of rural to the present day.

However, Storey (1999) and Woods (2005) tend to adhere to the idea of a "culturally specific understanding of the meaning of rural" (Woods, 2005 pp.3). The term 'countryside' can be used synonymously with rural (Storey, 1999 & 2006; Woods, 2005), however this term infers the rural as a product consumed by the urban, seen more for its recreational pursuits and scenery. As such, rural geography can be understood as the study of rural spaces, including the people, places, society and economy that make up rural spaces. Traditionally, the focus of rural economies in Ireland has been primary activities, including farming, fishing and forestry. Woods (2009) argues that more recent perspectives within rural geographical approaches focus on the multifunctionality of the rural. This concept views rural activity as having a diverse range of functions, both economic and environmental. These two distinct functions of the rural can be both exploited and managed in a balanced way in order to maintain and sustain the rural. This multifunctionality corresponds to Bryants (1998) observations of a segmented rurality. In this he posits that different communities consist of different resources, economic activity and geographies. Looking at this in terms of scale, Bryant also contends that within each community, segments can be seen to align with different interests. This leads to different dynamics of power within in each community, where each community will then "experience different trajectories in the transformation of their space" (1998, pp. 261).

In *Rural Geography* (2005), Woods identifies that bottom-up rural development is community led "aiming to build the capacity of the community to regenerate its own economy" (pp. 149). He makes the case that community development is necessary to rural development to avoid social polarisation. Storey (1999) concurs, suggesting that ideas of cooperation and self-help are part of the rural tradition that can be drawn on through a bottom-up approach. Brunt (1988) points to Muintir na Tire as an example of this tradition. However, Varley (1991) counters this argument somewhat. He posits that bottom-up and top- down approaches should not be in opposition, rather suggesting that the state has a role in ensuring an environment in which community-led rural development can be accommodating overarching national and supranational initiatives. Woods (2005) sees the role of the state as a "facilitator" in a bottom up approach, whereas Varley develops his idea along a spectrum between being in opposition to the state and being integrated with the state.

Woods differentiates development from regeneration. He argues that development as a top-down approach is a process where "investment in infrastructure [is] the primary vehicle for delivery" (Woods, 2005, P. 146). In contrast, Woods sees regeneration as the bottom-up delivery of an integrated and endogenous approach. However, Storey (1999) makes no such distinction and rural development as a term is used to describe any progressive change in structures pertaining to the rural. Integral to both the rural and its development is the idea of the community, a concept that will be explored a little further on.

2.4 Community

According to Tonnies (1887, in Delanty, 2003), community can be defined in two unique ways: gemeinshaft and geselleschaft. Gemienschaft is a set of relationships based on locality, kinship or perceived kinship (Agostini & Merchant, 2019). Geselleschaft, on the other hand, can be viewed as relationships based on shared interests and not spatially dependent (Agostini & Mechant, 2019). Drawing further on Tonnies, Parks submits three definitions: "deep-rooted" ties to the land; locality and; social interactions (Bateman-Driskell & Lyon, 2002). Cohen (1985), however, argues that community is a representation of mental constructions. Drawing on Victor Turner's theory of symbolic community, Cohen (1985) sees community as a "relational idea" where social relations are independent of fixed locality. Instead, people are defined as communities by commonalities and what sets them apart as a group from other groups (Delanty, 2003). As such, Cohen (1985) argues that boundaries are interpretations of meaning projected onto the landscape by communities. In turn, the meanings of those boundaries and the social, political and even physical landscape within inform community identity. Importantly, Cohen contends, a community believe that people from outside the community would not interpret the same meanings. Peace (1986) argues that members of a community are the products of community socialisation, and that this will then inform individual's identities within that community. Community can be defined by "both what it is and what it is not" and "both produced by and producer of interpretations of identity" (Williamson, 2019).

Implied in the idea of community is the concept of boundaries. Boundaries can be many things, such as legal demarcations dividing nations into administrative areas (e.g. parishes) or lines drawn on a map to indicate a change of land use, from rural to urban for example. Cohen (1985) describes boundaries as the symbolic beginning and end of a community. These imagined lines contain and influence identity by separating one from another. Peace (1986) demonstrates in his study of a village that even within one community the physical features of the land influence and define community identity. As such, symbolic boundaries are more than perimeters defined by land ownership, but by individuals and communities defining themselves in relation to the physical landscape. Boundaries become "a symbolic line of that identity, separating 'us' from 'them' (Williamson, 2019).

Storey (1999) questions the idea of a 'natural' community, arguing that this is a deceptive notion that hides a more complex reality. He suggests that a community defined by spatial proximity may not have common goals. Peace (1986) argues that even within one village there are complex social divisions and hierarchies, each with their own agenda. Sioholt (in O'Cearbhaill, 1986) consolidates this idea arguing that "local initiative frequently originates in an environment of old territorial organisation". This presents a number of problems in the case of rural development. Both Storey (1999) and Woods (2005) argue that rural development stakeholders do not necessarily represent the wider interests of a community. Uneven distributions of power appear when different members of the community engage to different extents (Woods, 2005) narrowing the extent of representation (Storey, 1999). Ray O'Connor observes "the cult of the personality" (1997, pp 59) associated with rural development that he suggests led to an evolution of development processes rather than structured strategies. The consequence is an uneven geography of rural development. Different actors within and external to the community, each with their own set of agendas contribute to this spatial inequity. Actors may include more prominent farmers, landowners or corporations who wield influence through cultural hegemony (Storey, 1999; Varley, 1991; Woods, 2005). Storey (1999) adds to this, intimating that it takes a certain kind of personality to step forward onto committees or positions of leadership within a community, and that often it is the same people who appear on several different boards, adding to an imbalance in development. In his essay

"*On the Fringes*" (1991) Varley highlights that not all communities and community groups have the same ability to administer self-help. This may result on a greater dependence on state assistance and local voices have less chance to be heard. Those communities that are more self-reliant may express that success through a stronger community identity.

2.5 Governance and Territory

Tied to the notion of community and boundaries are the concepts of territory and governance. Goodwin identified "new structures of governance" that "shift away from the bifurcation of state and market" (1998, p.5). From this perspective, governance is understood as being more than governmental structures, but applies to a more unified approach by both governmental and non-governmental agencies. This blended approach has been manifested in partnerships. These form a new structure of governance that, as Edwards *et al* (2001) contend, has contributed to a rescaling of governance. Traditional scales and modes of governance, such as national and county council agencies, have seen their influence and responsibility diminish as supranational and local actors have increased theirs. Thus, the rescaling of governance can be seen to alter the dynamics of power within rural communities. Edwards *et al* (2001) draw on Woods to suggest that influence has shifted away from tradition formal and informal structures to new cross-scale networks. New and dynamic cross-scale partnerships of stakeholders and interest groups can operate to represent the broader interests of a spatially defined group at different hierarchical scales of governance (Edwards *et al*, 2001; Goodwin, 1998). Goodwin submits that inherent in the characteristic of the new partnership governance is a move from being "concerned with power to, not power over" (1998, pp. 10). The modus operandi of partnerships is to build capacity in which community can develop based on their resources, skills and needs. Goodwin (1998) notes a more coordinated approach from the new economic entities within territories of rescaled governance. The notion of coopetition posits that overall market opportunities increase when competitors cooperate in their pursuit of market share (Christ *et al*, 2017). Partnerships reflect this mechanism by which competitors operate in a cooperation that will benefit both.

With the emergence of LAGs working in partnerships on local scales, has in turn seen the emergence of new territorial structures within Ireland. Traditional territorial formation is "rooted" in historical and local understandings of community identity and underlying social political relationships of power and influence: "Partnerships inscribe the territory over which they operate" (Edwards *et al*, 2001, p. 293). This inscription occurs in terms of the spatial boundaries of community, encompassing social, cultural and economic identity of an area, transformed by rescaled systems of governance. Edwards et al (2001) see the processes of rescaling of governance and new structures of territory as inseparably entwined. However, the re-organisation of space and governance raises questions of legitimacy. Influence from the EU and LAG's to "steer action in certain directions" (Edwards *et al*, 2001) reimagines the authentic entity, where the new identity establishes a framework under which new areas of community development compete to build capacity (Ray, 1998). The rescaling of governance and new territorial structures also raise questions surrounding democracy and accountability. These new structures are imposed on the state by the supranational and governance is arguably administered and supervised by unelected individuals (Goodwin, 1998; Edwards *et al*, 2001).

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature which forms the basis for this research. It has set out a historical context of Ireland's rural development into which this research fits. Definitions of 'rural', 'community' and 'rural development' and concepts of rescaling of governance, new territorial structures and coopetition have been examined. Chapter 3 will set out the research methodology used in the collection and analysis of data.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines and explains the methodology used in the collection and analysis of data in researching how EU policies have shaped the evolution of systems of local governance and administrative territorial divisions of development agencies in Ireland. A two-strand approach was taken in this research project. Research was undertaken in the SECAD archives and this was combined with a qualitative approach. The reasons that informed this approach will be outlined in this chapter. In addition, this chapter explains how the case study group was selected and the methods and procedures in data collection and analysis. It shows how research decisions were arrived at and followed within the context of ethics and rigour.

3.2 Research Design and Systematic Method.

Research can be carried out by one of two methods that seek a systematic approach to answering a research question. Quantitative research approaches use positivist, imperialist measurements to collect and analyse data from an objective perspective (Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002). Qualitative approaches, on the other hand, seek to ascertain deeper, more subjective and richer understandings through research. Research collection is concerned with constructing a reality that is analysed through interpretation (Flick, 2007).

3.3 Research Method

The aim of this study was to increase understanding how EU policy has shaped the local in Ireland. A qualitative approach was selected to carry out this research, which were two-fold. On the one hand, qualitative semi-structured interviews were carried out with four members of SECAD to gain insights into the formation of the development group. The semi-structured nature of the interviews allowed several benefits for this study. Firstly, it allowed the interviewees the space to develop their answers by articulating their own thought processes. Although this could be construed as messy, it was thought that fuller and more in-depth answers could be obtained in this manner, given that many of the subjects covered were historical in nature this research method allowed the interviewees time to recall and solidify memories. Secondly, the open nature of the semi-structured interview allowed further probing into detail, encouraging the interviewee to expand on

points of interest. This was particularly helpful at times when responses had not been anticipated, conflicted with other information or required confirmation. Lastly, the semi-structured method allowed for the development of understanding in the research through the progression of the interviews. Broadly speaking, participants were asked to expand on their personal reflections on:

1. Structures and scales of governance under the LEADER initiatives.

2. How LEADER informed the formation and evolution of new territories.

3. The nature of relationships within and between LEADER groups.

However, in this approach questions could be rethought, amended or adapted and tailored to each interview depending on the direction each interview was heading.

The second approach to the research was through archival investigation. This has included board meeting minutes, financial records and development strategies from SECAD, LEADER publications and EU and Irish policies. The archives represent factual documentation from the time period being studied, which was imperative as the interviews were reliant on memory from over twenty years ago. SECAD have a comprehensive archive that dates from 1996 to present day. However, materials are stored in haphazardous and unorganised manner. Therefore, interrogating these sources proved extremely time consuming and resembled a voyage of discovery. Some days useful documents with valuable insights were found, other days nothing of note emerged.

3.4 Sampling and Participant Recruitment

Sampling is the means of selecting a group of individuals from a population who will participate in the research interviews. The interpreted data from the sample is used to test the research question (McLeod, 2003). Four interviewees were actively sought out as a non-random, purposive sample from the employer and employee

population of SECAD. Participants were selected on the basis of their individual roles within SECAD and their time served within the company. Each participant has been involved with SECAD since it became operational, or became employed very soon after, giving an accrued depth and understanding of operational knowledge and experience.

3.5 Rigour

Every effort was made when undertaking this research to maintain a strong account of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

3.6 Ethics

All aspects of planning and application of this research was carried out based on Beauchamp and Childress' (1994) underpinning principles of respect for autonomy, non-maleficence, beneficence, and justice for the participants.

In accordance with university ethics policy and GDPR, signed consent from each interviewee was sought prior to the recorded interviews taking place. Each interviewee has been given the opportunity to withdraw their consent. All data pertaining to identity remains strictly confidential. All interview recordings and transcripts are kept on protected devices and will be deleted upon successful completion of this module to ensure that participant's confidentiality is protected. Participant consent is documented in the appendix.

3.7 Data Analysis

Before critical anaylsis could be carried out on the interview data it was first transcribed then coded into themes. Archive data underwent the same process of coding according to content and theme. Using thematic analysis allows for a focus on context, which was considered appropriate given the nature of research techniques employed in collecting the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Coding consisted of reducing interviews to

a set of key phrases or words to extract common themes. Once the data was reduced a clear narrative for each theme could be defined and subsequent discussion analysed the data in context of the wider academic literature.

3.8 Limitations

The archival research was a time-consuming pursuit carried out in SECAD head office in Midleton. Five hours a week for a total of eight weeks were committed to. This included sifting through archives and conducting the interviews but excludes travel times. The archives themselves were kept off-site and so there was a reliance on SECAD to produce the required documents. Unfortunately, due to the passage of time, archives were fragmentary and poorly organised which added pressure to the time constraints of research.

Chapter 4

Scales of Governance

4 .1 Introduction

This chapter will focus on how, from 1987 onwards and the introduction of the EU's Structural Funds, new administrative and governance structures had to be developed in Ireland so that these funds could be

accessed. Therefore, in this period, Ireland moved from a model where professional state bodies operated alongside highly localised voluntary bodies in a very uneven power relationship to one where the EU demanded more of an equal partnership. Using a case study of SECAD, this chapter therefore looks at how local community organisation can facilitate empowerment through endogenous, bottom-up development that rescales established systems of governance.

4.2 Changing Scales of Governance

Through the development of partnerships that funnel LEADER funding into community projects it is clear that the formation of LAGs such as SECAD has impacted traditional structures that related to the governance of rural development initiatives. These traditional structures comprised a top-down, exogenous development at the national scale which was implemented through elected County Council authorities. Combined with this, local rural power structures function within informal socio-political networks through actors within communities.

Archival evidence shows that, in line with traditional modes of governance an informal board of directors established Enterprising East Cork that later became ECAD and subsequently SECAD. In this first iteration, the focus was very much on driving rural development through increasing farmer's incomes. However, as one interviewee (4) recalled:

"Their plan...was definitely going in the wrong direction in terms of financing and was fairly broad"

With the advent of LAGs in the mid 1990's this traditional governance structure was superseded. In order to access the funding made available through schemes such as LEADER LAGs were set up. These represented "an initiative coming from the community level" (interviewee 3). The EU scheme allowed for communities to apply for funding directly from the EU through the LAGs, thereby bypassing traditional structures and reducing the importance and power of County Councils in enterprise creation and rural development initiatives.

"LEADER gave a kind of structure into which the board and Ryan [CEO] and SECAD were able to operate at a more effective and efficient manner" (interviewee 3)

LAGs and their boards can be regarded in this sense as a new dynamic that operated in parallel to traditional structures that was able to shape community development according to their own strategies. This involved helping communities to shape their own directions through "community capacity building initiatives" (interviewee 4). SECAD have been particularly successful at this, seen through their strategy to develop "attracters" rather than "just spend[ing] this money and walk[ing] away and its done" rather to "give them a little seed" (interviewee 4). In east Cork, energy and funding has been devoted to training in areas identified by Rural Development Officers or members of the community as key to economic and social growth. This provides a foundation on which to develop business and services within the identified areas of growth. In this way, a trained workforce has become one of the main attracters for the area. Businesses and services that operate in these areas identified for growth are then more likely to be awarded small "seed" grants for development.

SECAD, then, acts as a facilitator of bottom-up initiatives, connecting people with ideas to the necessary funding or training required to realise and animate their objectives. This integrated, endogenous approach empowered and enabled communities to develop their own economic direction based on local resources, rather than a one-size-fits-all top-down approach. This relationship between the LAGs and the EU constitutes a rescaling of governance that omits local and national government to what appears to be a significant degree. Asked how this was received by the traditional institutions of power interviewee 4 reflected that:

"local authorities were kind of benign probably to SECAD... and the same in most state bodies... [they] were actually kind of scared of SECAD type, we were nobody and suddenly we're something, we're competing with them...showing up their shortfalls"

This implies that from the perspective of local communities and the wider public, national and local government did not have the right approach to correcting local-specific issues. On the one hand it shows a lack of understanding by the local and national government, possibly caught up in their own political hubris, of the

importance felt at a community level for these issues to be addressed. It also suggests that communities responded positively to the notion of self-help and autonomy over direction. On the other hand, it is important to remember that qualitative reflections can be skewed representations that require further research to gain a more balanced and objective position. This being said, interviewees 1, 2 and 4 talked at length of greater restrictions levelled at LAGs such as SECAD by national and local government, particularly since Phil Horgan's reforms in 2014 that have "put some extra restrictions on your operational level...which can lead to strangling". This certainly adds weight to interviewees initial qualitative views on the traditional structures of governance in.

As in any relationship, there is a two-way discourse between the EU and the LAGs. Asked how flexible the EU were in the development of policy by LAGs interviewee 2 responded "in some respects they're quite flexible... there's a lot more leeway within the European regulation". Interviewee 4 expanded in greater detail reflecting on an experience when EU regulation in setting up and winding down funds awarded would have negated the award itself:

"I was leading this delegation of senior officials to see what was going on [with LEADER] and we had this conversation and I gave them the example of my €50,000 and the crowd in Brussels had no idea that that's what they were after doing... and to be fair to them they've changed"

This shows an ability and willingness on the part of the EU to accept and respond to aspects of their policies that do not translate into practice, in this case, over-zealous bureaucracy, and make changes. Further, the implication is that the EU have put greater store into the corresponding results of their policies than in their bureaucratic systems. This has led to a "much more meaningful" engagement with community, that is "much more focused on delivery" (interviewee 4).

Similarly, LAGs such as SECAD have redistributed power within communities. The capacity for local individuals and community groups to animate their objectives through partnership has allowed for greater diversity in representation, as interviewee 1 reflects:

"we'd work with a range of quite diverse groups, community groups who are working to represent their area on a specific thing... we would work maybe with people who are experiencing disadvantage"

The implication of interviewee 1's statement is that many who benefit from the LEADER scheme are under-represented by and within existing community power structures. Institutions such as the Catholic Church may not represent cultural diversity, the GAA may not represent people with a disability. Prominent local actors can exacerbate or underpin this discourse in an effort to maintain status as power brokers in the community. "By trying to make sure all elements of the community are involved and included" (interviewee 1) SECAD has impacted traditional community dominant personalities, instead looking for cohesive community development through "allocation of funding based on merit" (interviewee 3). It could be argued that the rescaling of governance has restructured community politics to a meritocratic equity.

Governance operates not only on a hierarchical scale, but also horizontally, or cross-scale, constructed through networks of agencies working alongside LAGs and funding bodies within the EU other than LEADER, such as the Social Inclusion Fund. SECAD is a member of the Irish Local Development Network which offers a "place where we would try to encourage and develop policy and influence" (interviewee 2). SECAD, interviewee 4 revealed, also worked closely with East Cork Tourism in the early LEADER cycles to promote east Cork as a destination to benefit both agencies. This will be explored more in depth as a case of coopetition in chapter 6.

Both hierarchical and cross-scale systems of governance bring into question concepts of democracy and sovereignty. The rescaling of governance through the EU LEADER initiative has empowered LAGs such as SECAD, the result of which has been the disempowerment of more traditional hierarchical government. It could be argued that this redistribution of power represents a shift from elected officials and publicly accountable governmental institutions to that of unelected agencies.

4.3 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed ways in which new scales of governance emerged from the introduction of EU Structural Funds such as the LEADER II programme. Rescaling affected both official top-down national institutions of power such as County Councils and informal networks of community power, such as co-ops. It is clear that, although some of these co-ops and dominant individuals may have initially been involved in the setting up of LEADER groups, the EU model favoured the empowerment of community through bottom-up approaches. Additionally, LAGs such as SECAD form a horizontal cross-scale structure of governance enabling greater autonomy for communities, although raising questions surrounding democracy.

Chapter 5

New Territorial Structures

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter addresses the impact of new EU actors on the bureaucratic division and jurisdiction of the Irish landscape to enable the delivery of LEADER funding. New LEADER areas that facilitated community development specific to local needs, interests and resources required a smaller scale of management in order that community stakeholders could access funding. Using the case study of SECAD, this chapter looks firstly at the processes that informed these new territories before looking at how changing power dynamics within and between LAGs embedded these new territories within the socio-political and economic landscape.

5.2 The Development of New Territorial Structures

Intimately tied with the rescaling of governance, but sufficiently and significantly separate is the formation of new territories in Ireland. The construction of new scales of governance involved explicit discourse of scale of operation and how to define boundaries. It is clear in this case study of SECAD that uneven distribution of power, prominent actor's old territorial identities played a role in the formation of the LAG. Interviewee 3 intonated that the SECAD territory saw a two-stage development: firstly, formation and growth. Unlike the formation of the territory, the evolution, viewed from a regional perspective, stems from both strategy and a new rescaled relation of power.

In the case of SECAD, boundaries to the south and west were uncompromising; the coastline and the city boundary mark the extent to SECAD's territory. LEADER II funding was a rural-specific initiative, allowing Cork County to benefit from funding that Cork city could not apply for. The county border with Waterford supplied a convenient boundary for SECAD's territory to the east. However, competition with the emerging Blackwater development group (Avondhu Blackwater Partnership), the LEADER I established IRD Duhallow and a mid-Cork development group over territory transpired between 1995 and 1996.

Co-ops played a crucial and sometimes deciding role in the territory formation of LAGs in county Cork. Interviewee 4 recollected the "milk suppliers" created a "patchwork community... that made no sense" which formed the basis of the LAG territories. Co-ops were appointing staff to the boards of the rural development groups that then influenced the territory boundaries. This suggests that co-op customers and stakeholders would have shown loyalty to their co-op, opting to join whichever group their co-op was part of. Hence the example from interviewee 4 of Leamlara, that geographically would fall under the catchment of Midleton, joined the Avondhu Blackwater group because of political alignment.

According to interviewee 3, a former general manager for Imokilly co-op, Midleton:

"you would have had people like the Midleton Chamber of Commerce, you would have had people from like my cooperative, who were board members [at the co-op], who would be farmers"

This suggests that farmers and business people involved in the establishment of LAGs were responsible for the new territorial divisions. On the one hand both community business people and farmers are stakeholders in community and represent a cross-section of the community. On the other hand, this cross-section may not be representative the whole community and their interests do not capture the diverse needs of the whole community. It could be argued that territory is a space charged with political, social, economic and cultural dynamics. These dynamics are "rooted in preexisting discourses of place... and power" (Edwards et al, 2001, p.293), making new territorial boundaries somewhat inevitable. Much like the rescaling of governance, stakeholders conforming to similar interests raises questions surrounding democracy.

In 1995, talks were held between SECAD and Avondhu Blackwater to apply for LEADER II status together as each group had similar interests and issues. These talks broke down and two separate groups formed. Interviewee 4 speculates that:

"the lads here... were talking about the main focal points and they named maybe five communities or towns and four of those were in east Cork and one only in north Cork".

This points again to underlying socio-political dynamics that differentiate community identity. Any imbalance of power diminishes perceived identity and challenges established symbolic boundaries. Avondhu Blackwater's decision not to join SECAD suggests that shared interests not specifically dependent on locality were insufficiently strong to facilitate a merger.

However, once SECAD was established as a LAG, the rescaling of governance impacted the influences and actors of territory formation. Interviewees 3 and 4 suggest an internal power play between the CEO and the director of the board. The director of the board, on the other hand represents the traditional power and favoured informal networks with socio-political elites within the territory. The CEO represents the new structures of power, facilitating cohesive and inclusive, bottom-up development. By using and creating public space to develop a forum in which each community focus can develop ideas based on community needs and innovation shows a shift towards community self-determination.

Archival evidence shows that territory formation was also influenced in top-down decisions. LEADER funding refused to a mid-Cork group resulted in the amalgamation of that territory into the West Cork Development Partnership (WCDP). Although the mid-Cork group had the opportunity to choose between either WCDP or IRD Duhallow or split between the two, the EU's decision not to support a mid-Cork group represents a removal of the community's autonomy over their own identity.

Economic considerations are also revealed as significant factors in territorial formation. Interviewee 4 pointed out that "the challenge … was going to be how you were actually going to manage the scale". The first LEADER funding SECAD was awarded was £1.5 million, which equated to £25 per person in the catchment. From a practical perspective a smaller catchment size relative to funding, at least initially, permitted a greater spend per person and increased the potential for perceived success.

The subsequent delivery of SECAD's rural development strategy viewed from a regional scale shows an evolution in the formation of territories. A patchwork of relational winners and losers emerge in the landscape, in which some territories win out over others. Adopting a strategy to make a "little go a long way" (interviewee 4), SECAD utilised networking relationships to strengthen capacity. Interviewee 4 summised;

"only certain areas and certain people or bodies have capacity to survive... and those who have least capacity, who are most removed are now absolutely on the outside, left by the wayside."

SECAD's investment using a combination of LEADER and Social Inclusion funds directed into Family Resource Centres throughout east Cork represents a move to set east Cork apart and build on their capacity:

"there might be one in west Cork, there's one in north Cork and if you go up to east Cork there's one in Midleton, Youghal, Cobh, Carrigtwohill" (interviewee 4).

In this capacity building, SECAD managed not only to provide services to a wider community through multiple centres, but by adopting the philosophy of making a little go a long way has built a capacity that has seen a continual awarding of funding. Continuation of funding represents both survival and success and allows the

LAG access to less successful areas, that today sees SECAD in west Cork, Cork city and national environmental and windfarm contracts.

5.3 Conclusion

This chapter has looked at the key influencing factors in the formation of SECAD in east Cork. It shows that the initial formation of the area was through pre-existing networks of informal local politics and shared interests, which raises questions around democracy and the imbalance of power. EU initiatives such as LEADER saw new influential actors emerge in the process of the rescaling of governance, changing the dynamics of the established relationships of power. A subsequent evolution in the formation of territories led to a patchwork of winners and losers. A culture of coopetition within and between LAGs developed as each group sought to strengthen capacity and continued funding.

Chapter 6

Networks of Coopetition

6.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates how relationships of coopetition influenced the new dynamics of rescaled structures

of governance and territories. LEADER programmes operate on a basis of partnership that require a level of

cooperation between bodies. However, almost counterintuitively, these same bodies often need to compete

for funding. This chapter looks at how this phenomenon occurs at different scales under the LEADER

programme and how this dynamic has impacted and informed the relationships within and between LAGs and

their partners.

6.2 New Cultures of Competition, Cooperation and Coopetition

Partnerships such as seen in this era of rural development function to a large degree based on the concept of

coopetition. This notion posits that overall market opportunities increase when competitors cooperate in their

pursuit of market share (Christ *et al*, 2017). Coopetition therefore can best be understood as a mechanism

whereby two competing actors operate in a cooperative way that will benefit both. Coopetition can be seen

working both inside LAGs between community groups and external cross-scale networking between agencies.

Coopetition within corporations can be a sustainable, longer-term relationship, or shorter-term arrangements. Christ *et al* (2017) contend that, whatever the temporal agreement is, coopetition relies on commitment, relationship and communication management. Arrangements of coopetition represent a new dynamic in the emergent rescaled power structures of rural development, building on networking across sectors and national or supranational governmental agencies.

"We weren't on our own in LEADER, to be fair" (interviewee 4).

"There are networks that we would be part of" (interviewee 2).

The LEADER initiative affords the opportunity for coopetition between different rural development groups with distinct development arrangements to achieve common goal of increased economic diversity. Archival evidence shows one such relationship between SECAD and East Cork Tourism (ECT). East Cork Tourism had been an entity focusing on an integrated rural tourism approach to economic diversity and job creation, competing with SECAD for various EU and national funding schemes. However, they also competed for LEADER funding through SECAD and "were formally represented on the [SECAD] board" (interviewee 4). It could be argued that the relationship between SEACD and ECT was at once both tense and supportive at the same time. Interviewee 4 posits that "I wasn't bought into tourism on its own... it needs to be part of a formula". This suggests that SECAD saw the benefit of tourism to the area as a whole and endorsed it as a programme for development. Tourism was, and remains, an important element to the economic strategy of east Cork rural development. However, tourism could not support the entire economy of east Cork: "you can't put all your eggs into one basket" (interviewee 4). The role of SECAD to oversee a balanced and diverse economic development is fundamentally at odds with focused and sectoral approaches. Tourism, on its own, represents a weak model prone to collapse in times of economic downturn and therefore not sustainable. It also raises issues of inclusivity in terms of labour and resources; stakeholders either need to own land, property, knowledge or have access to facilities that can accommodate tourists and visitors. However, as part of a range of approaches, tourism is a strong attracter of visitors and their capital to the area. In making a comparison

with west Cork, interviewee 4 saw the benefits of tourism and add-on businesses such as food and craft that was "creating this energy" (interviewee 4). It is interesting to note that ECT was eventually amalgamated into SECAD's portfolio.

Similarly, there is an inevitable state of coopetition between the partners within east Cork. Diverse groups "work really strongly together" (interviewee 1) when everyone has a stake. However, this is done in isolation, each group striving individually for success, with everyone "doing their own thing" (interviewee 1). All participatory groups gain from investment funding at some level, be it personal or a greater sense of community improvement. However, each cycle of LEADER funding provides only so much capital. Archival research shows that applications made for funding undergo rigorous appraisal before going before the board. This implies that there was competition between partner groups to succeed in being granted funding, each group viewing their needs greater for community development.

The relationships between SECAD and state agencies show elements of coopetition, which was "based on... individual contact with individuals within the local authority, in terms of seeing how we could work together" (interviewee 4). This reflects a general impression in SECAD that after its formation, local authorities were unsure of SECAD's role and how a LAG fitted into the rural development landscape. This uncertainty has led to misinterpretation of intentions, certainly, interviewee 4 felt, from the local authority's perspective. In an attempt to address relating to the lack of facilities and public space in the east Cork area, local authorities were offered use of the new, purpose built SECAD offices and training rooms:

"But I think... that they left here thinking "those bastards have taken our ground", when I was trying to say: "here's an opportunity for us to work together"" (interviewee 4).

This being said, SECAD successfully managed a coordinated approach to funding and organising family resource centres with an individual from the Department for Social Welfare. Between the two agencies a strategy was developed to provide east Cork with a family resource centre in each town. Through this concerted effort, funding was awarded from both LEADER and the Department for Social Welfare to animate this community

support. This project strategy and funding was unique to SECAD, born from a network relationship of cooperation.

These disjointed relationships between LAGs and state departments are indicative of a dysfunctional- approach to LAGs by the state structures. "We had to work across these, whereas they don't have to work across each other, they just go up and down. We have to make sure that we find best where we fit" (interviewee 4). It is evident that coopetition in the relationships with state bodies existed, where cooperation or competition was decided by individuals within departments, rather than an over-arching relationship.

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter has explored how relationships within and between LEADER LAGs and external bodies operate in a state of coopetition. It has highlighted an apparent contradiction at the heart of the development process. These competing bodies can only thrive on cooperation, as this provides better outcomes for all. It is clear that coopetition is a reflection of the complexity in the relationships and power dynamics within and between LAGs and external partners. Relationships of coopetition have been both influenced by and are an influencing factor in the rescaled structures of governance and the dynamic territorial arrangements that underpin the development process. This chapter demonstrates that development strategies work best when co-operative principles are embedded in the highly competitive world of accessing EU funding.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This research set out to investigate how the implementation of EU rural development policies in Ireland has led to the creation of new and highly dynamic territorial entities and new systems of governance. The aim was to gain a greater understanding of how these new arrangements have impacted the social and political rural landscape. Specifically, this research has sought to:

1. Investigate how EU policies led to a rescaling of governance.

2. Identify the relationships behind dynamic territory boundaries.

3. Explore how relationships of power interacted within and between actors.

Research was based on a two-strand approach. Firstly, research was undertaken in the SECAD archives and this was combined with a second, qualitative approach. Semi-structured interviews were carried out with four purposively selected members of SECAD. Thematic analysis was used to code the qualitative data into three categories. These were defined within the subsequent discussion as:

1. Scales of Governance

2. New Territorial Structures

3. Networks of coopetition

This chapter will provide an over-arching assessment to these three areas discussed in chapters fou, five and six. Finally, the difficulties encountered in the course of this research and how they were overcome will be discussed.

7.2 Key Findings

Prior to the period of time studied in this research, Economic development was delivered by state agencies and adherence to the CAP. The LEADER programmes mark a departure from this arrangement to one of a coalition between the supranational and the local. The aim of the LEADER initiative was to boost rural economies through diversification, responding to the needs of an increasingly marginalised rural population following periods of severe economic crisis. The LEADER programme can be seen as a top-down bottom-up partnership that has, through bypassing state control, dramatically impacted the social and political landscape in Ireland.

It is clear that LAGs impacted traditional structures of governance. National governance through top-down approaches to rural development were replaced and undermined by supranational initiatives such as the LEADER programme. LEADER facilitated an endogenous and integrated bottom-up 'partnership' approach that empowered local communities. The introduction of LAGs as a mechanism to facilitate development demonstrates changes of governance at a local scale. Traditional means of local governance and development such as those implemented by the Catholic Church, informal networks of co-ops and "cults of personalities" were replaced by the more inclusive and coordinated approaches provided by LAGs. This rescaled structure of governance linked the local to the supranational, bypassing national and local government agencies. This represented a new dynamic of power relations in rural development.

The rescaling of governance inevitably had an impact on territorial structures. Rather than LEADER zoning Ireland into pre-existing regions that might have coincided with provincial and county boundaries (and therefore led to the use of established bureaucratic boundaries), the EU designated Ireland as one region. This

allowed community stakeholders to form LAGs that cut across older territorial networks. These networks were far more relevant because they aligned with evolving local identities, community networks and resources. They facilitated community territorial networks that were more specific to local needs. However, at a territorial level, this created a new patchwork of territories that did not fit within traditional boundaries. As such, it can be said that LEADER represents a successful blend between top-down and bottom-up approaches. The endogenous impact on development has been built upon and within areas that represent community identity through the exploitation of local resources. Boundaries were formed that were consistent with these characteristics, rather than bureaucratic designation. With the passage of time changing dynamics of power in relationships between the partnerships within LAGs created a culture of coopetition as each LAG sought to build capacity and this was expressed in the ongoing evolution - the drawing and the re-drawing of the boundaries – of these territories. This translated into an uneven landscape of winners and losers, where some LAGs prospered and others declined.

Partnerships played a key role in the formation of new territorial structures and the rescaling of governance. This can be seen in differing scales of operation: the relationship between the EU and the local, between the different LAGs and between stakeholders and community groups within LAGs. Partnerships offer the different actors a cooperative relationship where all worked towards common goals. This has been demonstrated to have an overall positive effect on capacity and successful outcomes. At the same time, however, the various actors must compete with each other, whether for funding, capacity or resource development adding layers of complexity to these relationships and power dynamics. Winners and losers are decided through this relationship of coopetition and this can be seen at different scales, contributing to the creation and continuation of new dynamic territorial entities in Ireland.

It is clear that the rescaling of governance, new territorial structures and relationships of coopetition that have been identified, examined and discussed in this research are complex in nature and deeply intertwined. EU policy mechanisms in the form of LEADER and other such initiatives have impacted significantly on the social

and political landscape of rural Ireland. A move away from top-down national policy based primary on industrial growth has benefitted the rural economy greatly through diversification. The empowerment of endogenous rural development has become deeply embedded in a relatively short space of time.

7.3 Areas for Further Study

Research into how EU policy has shaped the local in Ireland has led to new understandings of some of the processes that have been prominent, such as rescaling of governance, new territorial structures and coopetition. During this research journey new areas for further study have suggested themselves.

First, the process of rescaling of governance merits further investigation. As identified in this research a shift has occurred from traditional elected bodies to systems that facilitate autonomy of self-governance by community. This raises interesting questions of legitimacy, democracy and accountability of LAGs as unelected actors in territorial structures and rescaled governance (Goodwin, 1998).

Secondly, this research focused on the establishment of the LEADER II programme and the impacts that that had on Ireland. This has led to the research being set in a historical context. However, interview participants often spoke about changes and challenges the LAGs have encountered in Ireland since the Phil Horgan reforms in 2014. These reforms have impacted the way in which LEADER is implemented in Ireland and the redresses to some degree the shift to the disempowerment of traditional local government from a state perspective.

Lastly, there seems to be very little research around the role of coopetition between actors in rural development. For this research literature was drawn on from studies in business and commerce, that could be applied to the context of rural development. This could form the basis for an entire dissertation rather than having to be limited to one chapter.

7.4 Difficulties Encountered During the Research

This research has been interesting, stimulating and rewarding in many ways, but obstacles and limitations have presented themselves along the way. This final section will outline some of these.

Firstly, personal decisions to buy a house led to a situation whereby my family and I (my wife and three young children) found ourselves effectively homeless for a period of 8 weeks during the course of this research. The process of selling and purchasing that ran over the expected time frame as well as the intermediate 8-week period was the cause of much stress and consternation that impacted progress in research.

Secondly, the SECAD archives were unorganised, haphazard and often incomplete. Therefore, interrogating these resources proved time consuming and often resulted in days of fruitless work. Getting interviews at SECAD was also a slow process as research was dictated by the various work schedules and priorities of the participants. As such, the initial work timescale for this research was set back considerably.

Thirdly, as seen in section 7.3, given the complexity and reach of the LEADER initiative there are a multitude of ways to investigate the programme. Consequently, the temptation to explore various avenues of enquiry meant that containing the scope of the research became a task in itself.

Lastly, the Coronavirus/Covid-19 pandemic has also impacted progress on drafting this work. Shortcomings of home technology and lack of access to resources at UCC combined with restructured time management has led to frustratingly slow progress and limited access resources. It also abruptly ended any opportunities to cross check key findings with the key interviewees or the archives at SECAD.

However, all these difficulties represented challenges that had to be overcome. The final dissertation is testament to hard work and perseverance.

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APENDICES

Appendix A: Consent Form Sample

Appendix B – E: Signed Consent Forms

SAMPLE INFORMATION SHEET

AND CONSENT FORM

FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Social Research Ethics Committee (SREC)

The outline provided below is intended as a general model for how the information sheet should look. At a minimum, such a sheet must provide participants with details regarding the voluntary nature of participation, the right to withdraw (including time limits), confidentiality and anonymity, the nature and duration of data storage (in secure form, and for at least ten years), and whether there is potential for harm arising from participation.

This example is designed with postgraduate research student work in mind – therefore it makes reference to degree programmes, theses and supervisors.

Please read the Guidance Document for SREC Applications which may assist you in completing your Information Sheet and Consent Form.

INFORMATION SHEET

Purpose of the Study. As part of the requirements for my BA in Geography at UCC, I have to carry out a research study. The study is concerned with the impact of supranational policy on the socio-economic landscape of Ireland and, how aligning with EU policy, how new, dynamic regions have been created.

What will the study involve? The study will involve a series of qualitative interviews and archival research within SECAD. Interviews will be transcribed and analysed to extracted relevant information.

Why have you been asked to take part? You have been asked because your position and length of time with SECAD will provide specific information pertinent to my research.

Do you have to take part? Participation is entirely voluntary. If you choose to take part in this research you still have the option of withdrawing your participation, even after signing the consent form below. Once data has been collected a two week cooling off period will take place in which you may request withdrawal from the research and all data will be destroyed.

Will your participation in the study be kept confidential? Yes. I will ensure that no clues to your identity appear in the thesis. Any extracts from what you say that are quoted in the thesis will be entirely anonymous.

What will happen to the information which you give? [*Kept confidential from third parties (including workers' superiors, if relevant); will it be destroyed after a period? For example:*] The data will be kept confidential for the duration of the study, available only to me and my research supervisor. It will be securely stored on my phone and cloud drive. On completion of the project, they will be destroyed.

What will happen to the results? The results will be presented in the thesis. They will be seen by my supervisor, a second marker and the external examiner. The thesis may be read by future students on the course. The study may be published in a research journal.

What are the possible disadvantages of taking part? I don't envisage any negative consequences for you in taking part.

What if there is a problem? I do not envisage any problems, but please contact me to discuss this.

Who has reviewed this study? Approval from my supervisor has been saught in carrying out these interviews.

Any further queries? If you need any further information, you can contact me via email.

If you agree to take part in the study, please sign the consent form overleaf.

[Over…

CONSENT FORM

This consent form is designed with qualitative research in mind. Where quantitative methods are used, issues such as quotations and audio-recording do not arise.

I………………………………………agree to participate in [*name*]'s research study.

The purpose and nature of the study has been explained to me in writing.

I am participating voluntarily.

I give permission for my interview with Matt Williamson to be audio-recorded.

I understand that I can withdraw from the study, without repercussions, at any time, whether before it starts or while I am participating.

I understand that I can withdraw permission to use the data within two weeks of the interview, in which case the material will be deleted.

I understand that anonymity will be ensured in the write-up by disguising my identity.

I understand that disguised extracts from my interview may be quoted in the thesis and any

subsequent publications if I give permission below:

(Please tick one box:)

I agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview   ☐

I do not agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview   ☐

Signed: …………………………………….   Date: ………………..

PRINT NAME: …………………………………….

UCC
Coláiste na hOllscoile Corcaigh, Éire
University College Cork, Ireland

MATT WILLIAMSON

I, Nuala O' Connell ...agree to participate in ~~YOUR NAME~~'s research study.

The purpose and nature of the study has been explained to me in writing.

I am participating voluntarily.

MATT WILLIAMSON

I give permission for my interview with [~~YOUR NAME~~] to be audio-recorded.

I understand that I can withdraw from the study, without repercussions, at any time, whether before it starts or while I am participating.

I understand that I can withdraw permission to use the data within two weeks of the interview, in which case the material will be deleted.

I understand that anonymity will be ensured in the write-up by disguising my identity.

I understand that disguised extracts from my interview may be quoted in the thesis and any subsequent publications if I give permission below:

(Please tick one box:)

I agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview ☑

I do not agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview ☑

Signed: _Nuala O' Connell_   Date: 12/11/2019

PRINT NAME: _NUALA O' CONNELL_

consequences for you in taking part.

What if there is a problem? I do not envisage any problems, but please contact me to discuss this.

Who has reviewed this study? Approval from my supervisor has been sought in carrying out these interviews.

Any further queries? If you need any further information, you can contact me via email.

If you agree to take part in the study, please sign the consent form overleaf. [Over...

CONSENT FORM

UCC
University College Cork, Ireland
Coláiste na hOllscoile Corcaigh

This consent form is designed with qualitative research in mind. Where quantitative methods are used, issues such as quotations and audio-recording do not arise.

I, Richard Harney agree to participate in [name]'s research study.

The purpose and nature of the study has been explained to me in writing.

I am participating voluntarily.

I give permission for my interview with Matt Williamson to be audio-recorded.

I understand that I can withdraw from the study, without repercussions, at any time, whether before it starts or while I am participating.

I understand that I can withdraw permission to use the data within two weeks of the interview, in which case the material will be deleted.

I understand that anonymity will be ensured in the write-up by disguising my identity.

I understand that disguised extracts from my interview may be quoted in the thesis and any subsequent publications if I give permission below.

(Please tick one box:)

I agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview ✓

I do not agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview ☐

Signed: R. Harney   Date: 11-3-20

PRINT NAME: R. HARNEY

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Oct 2016

Appendix D

This consent form is designed with qualitative research in mind. Where quantitative methods are used, issues such as quotations and audio-recording do not arise.

I.................................agree to participate in [name]'s research study.

The purpose and nature of the study has been explained to me in writing.

I am participating voluntarily.

I give permission for my interview with Matt Williamson to be audio-recorded.

I understand that I can withdraw from the study, without repercussions, at any time, whether before it starts or while I am participating.

I understand that I can withdraw permission to use the data within two weeks of the interview, in which case the material will be deleted.

I understand that anonymity will be ensured in the write-up by disguising my identity.

derstand that disguised extracts from my interview may be quoted in the thesis and any subsequent lications if I give permission below:

(Please tick one box:)
I agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview
I do not agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview

Date: ....

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Appendix E

CONSENT FORM

UCC
University College Cork, Ireland
Coláiste na hOllscoile Corcaigh

This consent form is designed with qualitative research in mind. Where quantitative methods are used, issues such as quotations and audio-recording do not arise.

I...Laura Mason.......agree to participate in *Matthew Williamson*'s research study.

The purpose and nature of the study has been explained to me in writing.

I am participating voluntarily.

I give permission for my interview with Matt Williamson to be audio-recorded.

I understand that I can withdraw from the study, without repercussions, at any time, whether before it starts or while I am participating.

I understand that I can withdraw permission to use the data within two weeks of the interview, in which case the material will be deleted.

I understand that anonymity will be ensured in the write-up by disguising my identity.

I understand that disguised extracts from my interview may be quoted in the thesis and any subsequent publications if I give permission below:

(Please tick one box:)
I agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview   ✓
I do not agree to quotation/publication of extracts from my interview   ☐

Signed: _Laura Mason_   Date: ...13/2/20...
PRINT NAME: ...LAURA....MASON...........

Oct 2016   4

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