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Comparative Research of Rural Gentrification
in Derbyshire Dales, England

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Abstract

Rural gentrification is a phenomenon of change in rural areas caused by the inflow of middle-class people mainly from urban areas. To examine the phenomenon, this study captures the social class change and its impacts inside rural areas from the integrated perspective of social, economic, and cultural aspects. In previous studies, rural gentrification has generally been seen from negative aspects, as causing the displacement of lower-income and young residents due to the rapid increase of property prices, as is often the case in the gentrification of urban areas. However, positive impacts of gentrification, such as an increase of revenue and emergence of new culture due to change in social class structure, are effective for the development of rural areas, where the scale of economy is smaller than in urban areas. These positive impacts also lead to sustain village communities. This study aims to establish a stage model of rural gentrification which explores the process of and seeks to capture the impacts of rural gentrification to rural communities from the view of social capital. Additionally, Derbyshire Dales, which is located in the middle of England, is selected as a research area because it has seen a flow of population to rural areas due to its proximity to large cities such as Sheffield and Manchester.

First, demographical changes and changes in structure of social class were analysed quantitatively from the UK Census data in order to examine geographical distribution and the development process of rural gentrification all over the Derbyshire Dales. As a result, it was revealed that population movements were affected by factors

such as proximity to cities and existence of market towns. In addition to this, the preference of service-class people, who can cause rural gentrification, to quiet environments for living contributed to the geographical expansion of rural gentrification in Derbyshire Dales. Thus, Derbyshire Dales was divided into three areas, which are 'mature gentrification area', 'developing gentrification area', and 'establishment gentrification area', based on the difference of development in rural gentrification in the view of the proportion of service-class people and the situation of displacement of working-class people.

Second, the processes of rural gentrification were examined in each selected case village of those areas: Grindleford as a maturing gentrified village, Youlgrave as a developing gentrified village, and Monyash as an establishing gentrified village. Specifically, indicators related to rural gentrification such as social class distribution of residents, annual household income, and situation of housing refurbishments were selected from the data of the UK Census and questionnaire survey for the villagers. Then, those indicators were analysed from the cohorts, which are based on the length of residence in the village, in order to discuss the development of rural gentrification chronologically. Rural gentrification had progressed from the 1970s in Grindleford, and the symptom of rural gentrification had been observed in and rapidly progressed since the 1980s. On the other hand, in Monyash, rural gentrification has mildly progressed since the 1970s. Therefore, although the speed of the progress of rural gentrification was different among the villages, the characteristic four phases, which are 'mature

phase', 'developing phase', 'establishment phase' and 'emerging phase', were established, extracted from variations in indicators such as proportion of social classes and number of housing refurbishments as well as historical backgrounds of the villages and stage model of rural gentrification based on those phases.

Finally, the impacts of rural gentrification on the communities of the case villages studied are investigated from the perspective of social capital. Indicators related to social capital which are residents' social activities inside or outside the village, including communication with neighbours, participation in local social clubs, and frequency of going to pubs, were extracted from the data of the questionnaire survey. Therefore, the difference of social capital between cohorts based on social class was analysed. As a result, it was revealed that the character of social capital has changed from bridging to bonding as rural gentrification has progressed. Thus, social capital works more positively in the state of developing a gentrified village. Additionally, in the mature gentrified village, social capital tends to have characters of bridging, which strengthen ties outside of the village community.

As previously described, rural gentrification progresses from an emerging phase to a mature phase through a fixed process. In that process, the character of social capital changes from bridging to bonding, then returns to bridging. Such changes of social capital make impacts of gentrification positive or negative. The originality of this study is in the point of not only grasping rural gentrification in the form of a stage model, but also demonstrates the changes in character of social capital. That is to say that changes

in social class structure and positive impacts caused by an inflow of population which has not been discussed much in previous studies of rural geography and rural tourism are revealed in this study. Therefore, new information of this study contributes to restructuring communities and making them socially sustainable in the rural society under complication and diversification.

1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the study

In the last few decades, rural areas have changed dramatically. After World War II, agriculture in Western countries has been affected by productivism, which pursues efficiency and the increase of production, and which values economic prosperity. Rural areas which depend on agriculture also have been changed by productivism. The problems of depopulation and community decline arose because mechanisation in farming and functional differentiation between rural and urban led to the outflow of population into urban areas (Woods 2005). However, since the late 1970s, the concept of multifunctionality in rural areas was controversial as the reflection of productivism and rural areas came to be seen as areas with noneconomic, qualitative value. Therefore, the paradigm in agriculture and rural areas has gradually shifted to post-productivism (Butler et al. 1998; Cloke 1992; Ilbery 1998).

In a post-productivist era, some rural areas are not only outlets of population to urban areas, but inlets from urban and the other rural areas. Such an inflow of population socially, economically, and culturally changed the structure in rural areas, which were strongly bound to agriculture (Murdoch and Marsden 1991; Sutherland 2012). The increase of middle classes was especially seriously affected (Bourdieu 1984; Eder 1993; Benett et al. 2009). Middle-class individuals tend to live in rural areas to escape from urban bustle and pursue their ideal 'rural' lifestyle (Cloke et al. 1991; Heley 2014). These demographic movements of middle classes are captured as 'rural

idyll' (Bunce 2003; Dirksmeier 2008; Horton 2008; Little and Austin 1996; Matthews et al. 2000; Stockdale 2014), 'counterurbanisation' (Chaney and Sherwood 2000; Halfacree 2001, 2008; Spencer 1995, 1996), and 'rural gentrification' (Parsons 1981; Phillips 1993, 2004, 2005).

These three concepts are related to each other. 'Counterurbanisation' is the concept which captures the inflow of population and structural change in rural areas more 'purely' (Halfacree 2001) from a perspective of demographic change. 'Rural idyll' is the concept which captures people's aspirations to live in rural areas. On the other hand, 'rural gentrification' is the concept which includes the two previous concepts. Researchers consider that rural gentrification is a more political concept, because it involves winners and losers in rural areas. Thus, rural gentrification can figure one fact of rural areas. Today, the concept of rural gentrification is focused on phenomenon of rural areas in a post-productivist era.

It is critical for the rural change today to involve the discussion of rural gentrification. According to progress of globalisation, phenomena of gentrification are diffused in rural areas all over the world (Hines, 2010). However, researches about rural gentrification are limited to developed and capitalist countries, especially the UK, the US (Ghose 2004; Nelson et al. 2010) and Australia (Costello 2007). That is why it is valuable to research rural gentrification in other contexts, including post-socialist countries and Asia.

1.2. Aims and objectives

This study will explore and compare the processes and impacts of rural gentrification in different situations in England. Essentially, the phenomenon of rural gentrification will be captured in this study. After defining some terms, such as ‘gentrification’ and ‘displacement’, rural gentrification in research is examined empirically from census and quantitative data. Then, this study will assess the impacts of rural gentrification in the process. In this phase of research, the ‘stage model’ (Clay 1979; Hackworth and Smith 2001) will be used to explain this process. Further, to assess the impacts of rural gentrification, perspectives of ‘social capital’ (Lin 1999, 2001; Putnam 1995, 2000; Putnam et al. 1993) will be applied. Finally, this study will compare case studies in three different situations in the Peak District villages. To compare these different case studies, more generalised impacts of gentrification will be revealed. To reveal the phenomenon of rural gentrification is important for today’s rural areas, which are restructured dynamically.

2. Related Articles

2.1 Definition of gentrification

In the research of gentrification and rural gentrification, there are many definitions of these terms. Rose (1984) used the term ‘chaotic concepts’, and Hamnett (1991) described a ‘theoretical and ideological battle ground’, to describe that the concept of gentrification can be criticised easily. However, these critics obscure the fact that a multiplicity of processes is involved in and important to gentrification (Phillips, 2009). That is why I set three factors of gentrification on the basis of Phillips’s research (1993, 2002, 2009, 2014). Based on those three factors, this research will be explored.

2.1.1. Social structure change

The inflow of middle classes is an important factor in gentrification. These inflows occur not only in urban but also rural areas, where people have once moved out to cities (Cloke and Thrift 1987). Middle classes moving into rural areas cause rural gentrification, making their ideal rural lives come to fruition (Cloke et al. 1995, 1998; Urry 1995). According to diversification of middle classes, however, it is believed that an increase of ‘service classes’ is more important to capture the social structure change in rural areas (Hoggart 1997). Hoggart examined changes between 1971 and 1991 in the size of three middle-class groups made up of professionals and managers, namely the ‘service class’, clerical workers, and small-scale proprietors. He found that especially in

that period, the number of professionals and managers was increased. Thus, in my research, the increase of the service class in rural areas will be examined.

2.1.2. Refurbishment of houses

In the gentrification process, gentrifiers refurbish their properties' interiors and exteriors (Caufield 1989, 1994; Glass 1964). In rural areas, those refurbishments are reflections of gentrifiers' rural idyll. For example, typical refurbishments in rural areas are barn conversions (Phillips 2002). Further, the extension and establishment of conservatories are also important signs of gentrification. Thrift (1987) mentioned:

Members of the service class have a strong predilection for the rural ideal/idyll that lies at the centre of the valuesmore than other classes, they have capacity to do something about predilection.

Thrift's comment implies not only that service-class people prefer rural areas, but refurbishments in rural areas are also related to the increased presence of service-class people. In my research, the change of refurbishments will be examined both quantitatively and qualitatively in the view of the service class rural idyll.

2.1.3. Displacement

Displacement is the most negative aspect in gentrification. The inflow of service classes causes the outflow of working classes (Freeman and Braconi 2004; Smith 1996). Butler (2007) described that process as one in which ‘a winner is often at the expense of creating a loser’. However, this political process in gentrification is different from ‘counterurbanisation’. That is why it is important to capture displacement in rural gentrification research.

When these three movements are captured, gentrification is defined in my research. That is to say, rural gentrification is ‘the phenomenon of structural change in rural areas caused by inflow of service classes’.

2.2 Positive or negative gentrification

Generally, the phenomenon of gentrification has both positive and negative aspects (Lees et al. 2008, 2012). Although positive aspects are more important to sustain rural areas, in today’s rural gentrification research, positive aspects are seldom emphasised. In an urban context, Cameron (2003) defined ‘positive gentrification’ as the distribution of social capital from the rich to the poor in the process of gentrification, and examined a housing policy in Newcastle, ‘Going for Growth’. ‘Going for Growth’ is designed to attract middle classes living in suburban areas into city centres, and to revitalise run-down working class areas in city centres. However, he found that positive gentrification did not occur, because policy itself failed.

Therefore, successful cases of positive gentrification are not yet revealed. Further, in Cameron's research (2003), the policy factor is well considered, but internal factors such as community are examined insufficiently. In the rural context, the relationship between community and gentrification is especially important, because community takes deep roots into everyday life in rural settings. That is why I agree with Cameron's (2003) 'positive gentrification' and its definition as the increase of social capital. However, in my research, positive gentrification will be captured in a more community-based view.

2.3 Stage models of gentrification

The stage model of gentrification emerged from the 1970s to capture the process of gentrification. Some researchers attempted to establish the stage model of gentrification (Bourne 1993; Clay 1979). Clay (1979) produced one of the early stage models of gentrification on the basis of observations and data from a number of cities in the US. His model contains four stages, from Stage 1 'pioneer gentrification' to Stage 4 'maturing gentrification'. The model is as follows:

Stage 1

A small group of risk-oblivious people, who are often design professionals or artists, renovate properties for their own use by sweat equity and private capital.

Displacement does not occur often, because gentrifiers live in vacant houses.

Further, the area influenced by gentrification is small.

Stage 2

More and more such professional people come into the area. Some realtors who acknowledge the potential of the area emerge and begin to promote it. Some displacement can occur, but it is a slow change.

Stage3

Stage 3 is the heaviest stage of change. Not only individual gentrifiers but also developers intrude in the area. Some houses are bought for investment. Promotions by the media and realtors are developed, and displacement continues and strengthens. Physical improvements become more visible and property prices begin to jump rapidly. Tensions between old working-class residents and newcomers are serious. Motions of protestation against gentrification occur.

Stage4

A large number of properties is gentrified, and the middle class continues to come in. However, the middle class begins to include the business and managerial middle class. For the middle class, small, specialised retail and professional services begin to emerge. Homeowners as well as renters are displaced.

Clay's model is easy to understand and reasonable. However, it is too simple and not suitable for today's situation and other occasions outside of US cities, because it is based on Glass's (1964) classical gentrification. Today, gentrification becomes more diversified and complicated. For example, 're-gentrification' and 'super gentrification' cannot be captured by Clay's model, thus the long-time criticism of his model. However, that does not mean that his model is useless. Lees et al. (2010) says:

All of these critiques are valuable and important. Yet they also miss the point. Even as the simplicity of the early stage models gives way to the intricate plurality of contemporary contingency, the fundamental essence – the idea that there are discernible stages, phases, or alignments of particular causes and effects related to particular trajectories – has gained even more widespread acceptance. The details of everyone's account of a particular neighborhood will differ. But nearly everyone subscribes to the same assumptions and metaphors of stages: direction, speed, motion, momentum. For many people concerned with the past, present, and future of their neighborhood, the essence of early stage models is as relevant today as it was for residents debating the same issues 30, 40 or even 50 years ago.

Inspired by Clay's model, Hackworth and Smith (2001) established a new 3-wave (stage) model from research in New York considering rent gap. Their model is as follows:

First-wave

Sporadic gentrification: Prior to 1973, this process is mainly isolated in small neighbourhoods in northeastern US and Western Europe.

Transition 1

Gentrifiers buy property: In New York and other cities, developers and investors used the downturn in property values to consume large portions of devalored neighbourhoods, thus setting the stage for the 1980s gentrification.

Second-wave

The anchoring of gentrification: The process becomes implanted in hitherto disinvested central city neighbourhoods. In contrast to the pre-1973 experience of gentrification, the process becomes common in smaller, non-global cities during the 1980s. In New York City, the presence of the arts community was often a key correlation of residential gentrification, serving to smooth the flow of capital into neighbourhoods such as SoHo, Tribeca, and the Lower East Side. Intense political struggles occurred during this period over the displacement of the poorest residents.

Transition 2

Gentrification slows: The recession constricts the flow of capital into gentrifying and gentrified neighbourhoods, prompting some to proclaim that a ‘degentrification’ or reversal of the process was afoot.

Third-wave

Gentrification returns: Prophecies of degentrification appear to have been overstated as many neighbourhoods continue to gentrify while others further from the city centre begin to experience the process for the first time. Post-recession gentrification seems to be more linked to large-scale capital than ever, as large developers rework entire neighbourhoods, often with state support.

As Lees et al. (2008) explained, this model is one of the best recent attempts at explaining model gentrification and its particular fluctuations and mechanisms. However, Lees et al. (2008) also described that:

It is six years now since Hackworth and Smith (2001) designed their schematic history of gentrification in New York City, and well over a decade since the third wave of post-recession gentrification first began.

Hackworth and Smith (2001) produced the Fourth-wave after the Third-wave. In the Fourth-wave, gentrification is effected by national and global markets, and national policies become far more important than ever before. However, the Fourth-wave gentrification ignores low-income, working-class people, because these policies are designed for people with higher incomes.

3. Methodology

This study aims to reveal the process and impacts of rural gentrification from a socio-economical approach. Thus, statistical data from a national census were analysed for capturing the phenomenon of rural gentrification. In addition, a framework of social capital was applied to explore the impacts of rural gentrification on the village community.

3.1. Capturing social class

In order to capture rural gentrification, it is important to consider social classes, because gentrification itself is a concept involving change in the structure of social class in the neighbourhood. Generally, the gap of social class still remains in Britain today. However, it becomes more and more difficult to find differences between social classes apparently due to diversification in occupation and work styles. Therefore, in this study it proved a challenge to grasp social classes of residents systematically.

I extracted social classes from the UK Census data for statistical analysis. However, the style of classification is different between the UK Census before and after 2001, because the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC) has been available for use in all official statistics and surveys since 2001 (ONS, 2010) instead of former Socio-economic Groups (SEGs). Therefore, it is necessary to convert the data standardised in order to compare.

In this study, Wheway's (2011) classifications for SEG and Hoggart's (1997) and ONS's (2005) classification for NS-SEC are applied. Wheway (2011) classified SEG into three social groups: the 'service class', 'intermediate class', and 'working class'. As shown in Table 2, Wheway (2011) allocated SEGs to those three social classes based on census data instruction by ONS. Thus, he explained, '(The) SEGs were the best way to compare with the newer NS-SEC classification scheme used to identify social class in the 2001 GB census' (Wheway 2011). However, this does not mean that there is no problem with this conversion. Wheway mentioned that SEG 5.1 with ancillary workers and artists and SEG 6 with junior non-manual occupations tend to 'inflate whichever class category they are allocated', and this makes it difficult to compare directly from the NS-SEC data (2011). However, as he described, the accuracy of the conversion is said to be 87% by ONS (2005). We believe that that figure is enough to apply to this study.

On the other hand, we took an integrated classification of Hoggart's (1997) and ONS's (2005) classifications for NS-SEC. In Hoggart's study, he classified groups which were generally called the 'middle class' into three groups: the 'service class', who are professionals and managers, 'petite bourgeoisie' who are clerical workers, and small-scale proprietors and the ordinal 'middle class'. His classification is based on Goldthorpe's (1972, 1987, 1995) classification, which is 'widely used in pure and applied research, known as the Goldthorpe Schema' (ONS, 2010), and developed to NS-SEC classification. Therefore, Phillips (2007) integrated those classifications and

discussed social class distribution quantitatively in rural areas of Britain. The result of his study aside, Table 2 is his classification of social class for NS-SEC. Phillips (2007) identified 3 groups, the 'service class', 'intermediate class', and 'working class', and one sub-group, the 'petite bourgeoisie', in NS-SEC based on ONS (2005). According to ONS (2005), NS-SEC Classes 1 and 2, which are both classified as a 'service class' in the works of Hoggart (1997) and Phillips (2007) are described as follows:

service relationship: the employee renders service to the employer in return for compensation, which can be both immediate rewards (for example salary) and long-term or prospective benefits (for example assurances of security and career opportunities). The service relationship typifies Class 1 and is present in a weaker form in Class 2.

Moreover, NS-SEC Classes 5, 6, and 7, which are each classified as a 'working class' in Phillips's work (2007), are defined as follows:

labour contract: the employee gives discrete amounts of labour in return for a wage calculated on the amount of work done or time worked. The labour contract is typical in Class 7 and, in weaker forms, in Classes 5 and 6.

As for NS-SEC Classes 3 and 4, which are both classified as an 'intermediate class' in the work of Phillips (2007), are indistinctly defined by elimination:

intermediate: these forms of employment regulation combine aspects from both the service relationship and labour contract, and are typical in Class 3.

According to Phillips (2007), in addition to this argument, ONS itself warns that the aggregation of NS-SEC Classes 3 and 4 is 'not appropriate ... because the self-employed are distinctive in their life chances and behaviour', and it is necessary to 'accept the theoretical and measurement principles of NS-SEC'. Therefore, Phillips (2007) deprived the 'petite bourgeois', an NS-SEC Class 4 group, from the intermediate class, and which is also the same as Goldthorpe's 'petite bourgeois'. The petite bourgeois stands for 'Small employers and own workers', and is often identified as the 'traditional middle class', made up of mainly local farmers, in order to distinguish from the 'new middle class', who are the so-called 'service class' (Hoggart, 1997; Phillips, 2007; Savage et al., 1992).

Some researchers like Savage et al (1992) pointed out the importance of the existence of the petite bourgeois. However, in this study, I applied three group classifications in order to exaggerate the 'new middle class' individuals, who generally cause rural gentrification, for the convenience of discussion.

3.2. Questionnaire survey

In order to capture the impacts of rural gentrification in consciousness for rural living and lifestyles of residents, a questionnaire was distributed in the case villages. The questionnaire was composed of forty questions, which asked questions regarding outlook on the village, personal situation of communication and social networks, housing, everyday life, occupation, and personal data (see Appendix). It was conducted by visiting distribution and collection. In Grindleford, the survey was conducted from 6 to 13 July 2014, and received 92 answers, 40% of all distributed questionnaires. In Youlgrave, the survey was conducted from 15 to 26 July 2013, and received 152 answers, 36.2% of all distributed questionnaires. Then, in Monyash, the survey was distributed in October 2013 and received 38 answers, 36.5% of distributed questionnaires. The data from the questionnaire surveys are used in chapters 6 and 7 of this study.

4. Rural Gentrification in Derbyshire Dales District

4.1. Study area

In this study, we selected Derbyshire Dales District as a research area (Figure 2). Derbyshire Dales District is one of the districts in Derbyshire County, which is located in the centre of England. Near Derbyshire Dales District, there are large cities such as Sheffield, Nottingham, Derby, and Manchester. Besides a proximity to those cities, almost half of the area is designated Peak District National Park land, and is thus made up of a natural, preserved environment. That is why the Derbyshire Dales District is a good location for commuters who want to live in the countryside while working in the city.

4.2. Peak District National Park

Peak District National Park, established in 1951, is the first national park in Britain. The area of the park lies mainly in northern Derbyshire and partly in Cheshire, Greater Manchester, Staffordshire, South Yorkshire, and West Yorkshire. The park has an area of about 1,440 square kilometres. In British national parks, planning restrictions are set by the Park Authority, which manages the preservation of the park areas. Thus, the land of the park can be owned privately, and people may live inside the park. In the Peak District National Park, there are approximately 40,000 inhabitants.

The main current industries in the area are quarrying, agriculture, and tourism (PDNPA, 2001). Traditionally, lead mining and agriculture were the main industries in

the Peak District since the 16th century, and went into the golden age in the 17th and 18th centuries. However, in the 19th century, the lead mining industry started to decline because of veins drying up, an increase of production costs, and the importing of cheaper foreign stuffs. This caused a closure of major mines which held vast labour forces, as was the case with the Magpie Mine in 1925 and the Millclose Mine at Darley Bridge in 1939 (Bull, 2012).

Instead of lead mining, limestone and quarry had become important minerals in the area, and were used for building stone and making mortar since the middle of the 19th century (PDNPA, 2010). In addition to limestone, some gritstone was also quarried for housing uses. In 1925 near Buxton, before the mechanisation of quarrying, many workers who often lived in nearby villages were greatly needed to contribute to the mining industry. However, many workers in quarries today are lorry drivers who send products all over Britain, which is why many workers who lived in the villages were moving out from the Peak District. Although quarrying industries were also declining in terms of jobs because of a reduction in operations by strengthened natural resource planning and progress of efficiency, they still remain in this century. Illustrative of this reality is the existence of the largest quarry in Europe, near Buxton, and as of 2008, there are 47 active quarries in the area (PDNPA, 2010).

Today, tourism is quite a significant industry in the area (PDNPA, 2014). Before set as the national park in 1951, the area of the Peak District was a major tourism destination for urban residents as a beautiful landscape with good accessibility. The

development of tourism in the Peak District began in the Victorian era. Tourists had been increasing rapidly due to the construction of a railway, which provided casual access to the Peak District. However, at that time, open spaces in the Peak District were occupied by a small number of gentries, and were not open for walking around. In the Kinder Scout area in the Peak District, 1932 marked the Kinder Mass Trespass, an act of protest by a large crowd of ramblers who wanted the rights to access such open country fields. This incident had a political effect, leading to the establishment of national parks in the area.

Since the designation of lands for national parks, tourism has become a more important industry in the Peak District due to the development of leisure time according to structural changes in industries. Many tourists who want to escape from urban bustle have been coming into the area and enjoying walking on footpaths and trails. The economic impact of tourism in the Peak District National Park is 540.62 million pounds in 2013 (PDNPA, 2014). Those developments of tourism make the Peak District more famous and prestigious. That is to say that people's image of the Peak District is promoted by tourism.

This kind of promotion also affects the housing in the area. In the last few decades, people not only visit the area but have also started to live there based on the same motivation as that encouraging tourism. The area is near the large cities of Manchester and Sheffield, and preserves nature and a healthy environment as a national park. It therefore has great potential to cause rural gentrification in the Peak District.

4.3. Internal migration

In the last few decades, Derbyshire Dales District saw an intensive migration from all over Britain. Some areas become a destination for migrants. Figure 3 illustrates the proportion of incomers in the period between 1971 and 1981. A population increase of over 5% by incomers are seen in many Enumeration Districts (EDs) on the eastern side of Derbyshire Dales. The proportion is especially high in the former council house areas around market towns such as Matlock, Bakewell, and Ashbourne. Those EDs are in close proximity to the town centre and convenient access to the cities such as Sheffield, Chesterfield, and Derby. On the other hand, the proportion is still low in the western side of Derbyshire Dales.

In the period between 1981 and 1991 (Figure 4), the tendency of population increases by incomers in EDs around market towns was the same rate as that of the period between 1971 and 1981. However, in the northern and southern sides of Derbyshire Dales, the inflow of population into some EDs occurred at a rate of 10 to 15 percent. Moreover, a high proportion of EDs expand to the western side of Derbyshire District.

In the period between 1991 and 2001 (Figure 5), the expanding of areas that experience a high rate of incomers has continued. This means that more and more incomers flow in to the north and south sides of Derbyshire Dales. Especially significant is the fact that the proportions are marked at over 15% Output Areas (OAs) such as Great Longstone and Over Haddon around Bakewell. Further, in the western

side of Derbyshire Dales, including Hartington Middle Quarter and Moyash, an inflow of incomers is still progressing.

On the whole, more and more incomers move into the area. However, we should reveal whether such a population movement in Derbyshire Dales is related to social demographic change, which is a key factor of rural gentrification. Therefore, in the following sections, we discuss the demographical change by social classes.

4.4. Service class distribution

I compared the distribution of service class people in the area from 1991 to 2011 in order to capture the change of social demography. Figure 6 shows the distribution of service class people in 1991. From this figure, one can find that the proportion of service class individuals is relatively high in EDs which are located in the eastern side of the area. It especially seems that a high proportion of EDs are concentrated in the northeast area. This tendency is linked to the distribution of incomers and reflects that these EDs are good locations for residents who want to commute to cities.

In 2001, the situation has changed dramatically (Figure 7). The proportion of service class people increases in the whole area, especially in the west side. Considering that incomers increased in the same period, service class individuals migrated to the western side of Derbyshire Dales. On the background of the movement of service class people, it seemed that a change of preference for living areas exists among them. They

prefer to live in quieter and more rural areas in order to escape from the bustle in urban areas, even in market towns which are the centre of rural areas.

The tendency of the presence of service class individuals to increase was strengthened in 2011 (Figure 8). It is especially prominent in OAs on the southern side of the area and north of Bakewell. However, those OAs are relatively close to market towns and cities.

4.5. Working class distribution

The distribution of working class people is significant to capture ‘displacement’, which is one of the important factors of rural gentrification. Figure 9 shows the proportion of working class people in 1991. The EDs with higher proportions tended to distribute in the central and western areas of Derbyshire Dales, while EDs in the eastern side indicated lower proportions. This tendency reflects that those areas include more traditional, rural villages where quarries survived as local industry.

However, in 2001, the proportion of working class people in those areas was also decreased (Figure 10). Considering the increase in proportion of service class people, the decrease of working class people indicates displacement. An exact difference of census tracks between EDs and OAs exists. However, it is easy to note the possibilities of rural gentrification in those areas.

More recently, in 2011 the tendency of displacement progressed the proportion of working class people, with a rate in most OAs at under 30% (Figure 11). This indicates

that gentrification is progressing in all rural areas of Derbyshire Dales. Especially in the western side of the area, gentrification seems to be strict because of the massive displacement of working class people. However, in council house areas near market towns, working class people still remain. This seems to indicate that working class people like to live near their working places.

4.6. Summary

From the view of social demographical change, the situation of rural gentrification in Derbyshire Dales has been strict in the eastern side of the area from the 1990s. On the other hand, in the western side, the tendency of rural gentrification has been strengthened with the displacement of working class people in the 2000s, and seems to expand gentrified areas from east to west in Derbyshire Dales. This means that different stages of rural gentrification exist.

Figure 12 illustrates a distribution model of rural gentrification in Derbyshire Dales which is derived from socio-demographic change. The difference of census track disturbs the simple chronological comparing of tendencies of rural gentrification in the area. On the basis of expansion from the east to west, I designated three gentrification areas which range from established and intensified to generalised. The established gentrification areas are those wherein a population influx and the increase of service class individuals occurred relatively recently. The intensified gentrification area is one in which an increase of incomers has progressed, but the proportion of service class

people is becoming high. Finally, the generalised gentrification area is one in which the proportion of incomers and service class people has been high, and the displacement of working class people has progressed.

Therefore, in order to reveal different stages of rural gentrification more concisely, three case study areas were chosen. These study areas are Grindleford as a maturing area, Youlgrave for a intensified area, and Monyash as an established area. Thus, in the next chapter outline, these three areas will be explained.

5. Case Study Villages

5.1. Grindleford

Grindleford is a large-sized village located about 2 miles south of Sheffield (Figure 13). Grindleford is an agglomerated parish created in 1987 from the integration of 4 parishes: Stoke, Eym Woodlands, Nether Padley, and Upper Padley. However, the settlement itself dates back to at least the 13th century (Grindleford Women's Institute, 2001). The name of 'Grindleford' derives from a 'ford' where people may easily cross the River Derwent carrying 'gritstones' mined around the area.

Until the 19th century, Grindleford was a practical 'Peak Village' in which industry was characterised by agriculture, mills, and quarries. However, when Topley Tunnel, the second longest inland railway tunnel, opened in 1893 and started passenger services in 1894, the situation of the village changed (Grindleford Women's Institute, 2001). Tourists came there to see a beautiful landscape of woodlands and valleys,

because the railway linked the large cities of Sheffield and Manchester. Moreover, the availability of commute by train attracted people who built up their fortune in the steel industry of Sheffield. They wanted to live in the countryside, where a far better environment than industrialised cities was preserved, but they still had to work in the city. This explains why they built splendid houses in the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

The opening of the railway brought industrial benefits to the village (Grindleford Women's Institute, 2001). The amount of gritstones dug up increased, and they were carried from the quarry by train to all over Britain. This caused the population to grow rapidly. However, with the decline of agriculture and change of industrial structure, especially the decline of the steel industry in Sheffield after WWII, the population increase was stagnated. When the village was designated to the Peak District National Park in 1951, its close proximity to Sheffield, access to public transportation, and reserved nature began to attract commuters who worked in new industries. The population structure had changed from old industry gentry to new white-collar groups, but the character of the village as attracting commuters has not changed.

According to the UK Census in 2011, the population is 909, and Grindleford possesses 389 households. For commercial facilities, there are two public houses which are gastronomic and one gallery which sells landscape pictures of the Peak District. In addition to these facilities, one small community shop run by volunteering villagers which opened in 2014 is located in the parish church.

5.2 Youlgrave

Youlgrave is located about three miles south of Bakewell between Bradford Dale and Lathkill Dale (Figure 13). The usage of the name ‘Youlgrave’ is bit complicated these days, because they have many alternative spellings in that area. According to J. W. Shimwell, a former teacher at Youlgrave School and a local historian, there were over 60 types of spelling (Youlgrave Parish Website). Today, Youlgreave or Youlgrave is used officially. Both of these spellings stand for ‘yellow grove’, derived from lead mining which was an important industry in the village. Today, on Ordnance Survey, the spelling ‘Youlgreave’ is used. However, people living in the village usually say ‘Youlgarave’, and the Youlgrave Parish Council and Peak District National Park Association use this spelling. On the basis of local usage, I chose ‘Youlgrave’ for this study.

Youlgrave was established as an agricultural settlement. However, the development of the village was significant in the 17th century, because lead mines had been found around the village. Miners were coming into the village from all over Britain, and the population increased at a remarkable rate. The flourish of those industries had brought benefit to the village. In the golden age of lead mining, wealthy merchants and traders began to build large houses and different sorts of shops such as pubs, bakeries, butcheries, and co-operative shops were opened in the village. However, the prosperity from lead mining did not last very long. Because of the decline of lead mining in the latter half of the 19th century, as well as the explosion disaster that killed

8 men at the Mawstone Mine in 1932, all of the lead mines in Youlgrave were shut down by the middle of the 20th century. Instead of lead mines, limestone and gritstone quarrying had become important industries in the village from the end of the 19th century due to a housing boom in the Victorian era. In 1951, the population of Youlgrave reached its peak at 1,485.

After WWII, council house developments were prominent in Youlgrave. These kept working-class people in the village. However, the decline of the quarrying industry due to industrial structure changes displaced many workers who could not live in council houses. Thus, cottages for workers of quarries became vacant, and some of them were then changed to second houses and holiday cottages. On the background of this change, an increase of demand as a tourism destination due to the designation to the National Park system in 1951 was also related. In addition, in the 1980s, the 'Right to Buy' scheme under the Thatcher Administration which encouraged the privatisation of council housing stock made council houses affordable for urban residents. Therefore, the population structure has been changing in Youlgrave.

According to the UK Census of 2011, the population in Youlgrave is 1,018 and the household number is at 467. This means that Youlgrave is quite a large village in the Peak District area. In the village, there are currently three pubs with accommodations, a post office, and a grocery and butcher shop. Moreover, one youth hostel, which was originally a co-operative shop in the 19th century, is located at the middle of the village. Tourism-based facilities such as B&Bs and holiday cottages also exist.

5.3. Monyash

Monyash Village is a small village located 7 miles west of Bakewell (Figure 13). The history of the village started in 2000 BC as an important ceremonial point. This is illustrated by the large Neolithic stone circle, 'Arbor Low', which is located at the southwest edge of the village. Today's settlement was originally a farming community in medieval times, and developed as a marketplace which is one node of four important routes to Buxton, Bakewell, Derby, and Leek (Johnston and Johnston, 2010). From the middle of the 14th century, the village had prospered as a centre for lead mining in the High Peak area. Limestone quarrying was also a significant industry, as well as lead mining. Both industries produced housing stone and marble for public buildings (Johnston and Johnston, 2010). In that time, most of the villagers worked on the farm, mines, and quarries.

The lead mining industry in Monyash reached its golden age in the 19th century. The flourish of the industry led to a rapid population increase. In 1851, the population peaked at 473 with approximately 100 houses (Johnston and Johnston, 2010). However, as was the case with other villages in the Peak District, the population declined with the closure of lead mines in the latter half of the 19th century. Due to the industrial decline, many workers living in Monyash had moved out to other mining villages or cities in order to get a job. This generated abundant vacant dwellings in the village and became potential housing for gentrifiers later on.

Today, Monyash is a quiet farming village. However, the village is also a tourism destination in the Peak District National Park. This is why B&Bs, which were originally used as farm houses and holiday cottages, exist. In addition to the tourism destination, many incomers seeking good living spaces with natural environments and easy access to their jobs came from all over Britain to live in the village. This eases the decrease in population, and the village currently has a population of 294 with 128 households (2011 UK Census). There are no general shops in the village. For the commercial facilities, only one pub and one café stand in the centre of the village. The café was converted from a former blacksmith's workshop. The pub and café are good stopping points for tourists such as hikers and cyclists.

6. Process of Rural Gentrification in the Case Villages

In this chapter, I capture rural gentrification as a phenomenon in the three case villages of Grindleford, Youlgrave, and Monyash in Derbyshire Dales. In order to grasp rural gentrification, several indicators such as population, social structure, and household income were examined. To begin, I investigated demographic dynamics in the three villages.

6.1. Population and Household Change

6.1.1. Grindleford

Figure 14 shows the transition of population and households in Grindleford. Population change in Grindleford has been related to transportation to and industry in Sheffield. When the railway between Sheffield and Manchester opened in 1894, it became possible to commute to Sheffield easily. Due to this accessibility, the population increased rapidly in the early 19th century as shown in Figure 14. In 1921, the population once peaked at 740, but levelled off during both World Wars. The efflux of population due to war, as well as the decline of lead mining which started in the early 19th century, were both related. Therefore, the tendency of population decrease progressed after WWII and the population number was down to 644 by 1971. However, after that, the population increased again due to an influx from outside of the village.

On the other hand, the households increased constantly. It is remarkable that the number either increased or remained almost static in the period from 1951 to 1971,

when the population had decreased. This indicates that the population influx into the village was striking, and the possibility of development of rural gentrification began to be evident during that period, because rural gentrification often involves the intrusion of elderly couples whose children are already independent, or young couples who have not yet had children.

However, from 1991 to 2011, an increasing rate of households was far gentler than that of the population. This indicates that relatively large families flowed into the village, or former young gentrifiers grew to have their children. As for the former council house development, this is located at the western side of Grindleford. Those houses are affordable for young families, and indeed seem to be permanent settlements for raising families for young gentrifiers.

6.1.2. Youlgrave

The population in Youlgrave had been increasing until 1951, which saw the maximum number at 1,485 due to a flourish of limestone quarries from the 18th century (PDNPA, 2010b; Figure 15). After 1951, the population decreased constantly. Especially from 1961 to 1971, the degree of decrease was more rapid, and the number ranged from 1,442 to 1,265. This decrease of population was derived from both the decline and mechanisation of local quarrying industry, and continues in 2011.

Despite a decreasing population, the number of households increased after 1951. This indicates that the population inflow from outside of the village has been increasing.

Thus, the situation was similar to the case of Grindleford from 1951 to 1971. However, it must be noted that this decrease of population after 1971 is different from the case of Grindleford. The decline of local industry after WWII was serious in Youlgrave.

6.1.3. Monyash

The situation of population and household in Monyash is a bit different from the other villages (Figure 16). As for the population, from 1901 to 1991, the tendency to decrease was generally strong. It was especially obvious in the pre- and post-war periods. The reason for this decrease was due to a decline of mineral industry from the middle of the 19th century, as was the case with the other two villages, but the impact of mine closures was relatively small due to Monyash's farming land and small population size.

On the other hand, the households have remained at almost the same level until 1981. In Monyash, it is interesting that the number of households increased while the population decreased between 1981 and 1991. This indicates that not only the average household-size shrank, but also that the inflow of population had been clear in that period. After that, the population has increased in the same way as Grindleford.

6.2. Social class change

To comprehend rural gentrification, it is important to view the situation of social class (Guimond and Simard, 2010; Phillips, 1993). The concept of gentrification is

essentially defined as demographic change accompanied by the escalation of social class in the neighbourhood, and gentrifiers are generally middle-class individuals, especially service-class people who work in professional occupations. In addition to the intrusion of service-class people, local working-class individuals are displaced from the neighbourhood, and this is indirectly caused by such intrusions. In this section, I explore social class change and its relation to rural gentrification in the case of the three villages.

6.2.1. Grindleford

Figure 17 shows a transition of social class proportion in Grindleford. For Grindleford, the data of social class exists from 1991, because EDs corresponded to Grindleford parish areas in the UK Census before 1981, and this data is quite difficult to extract.

In Grindleford, the escalation of the social class by an increase of population was obvious from 1991 to 2001, while the proportion of the social class structure has not changed so drastically from 2001 to 2011. The proportion of service-class individuals increased dramatically from 1991 to 2001. Such an increase in the service class can be captured as a symptom of rural gentrification. Because chronological differences in census data exist, it is a bit difficult to determine the situation before 1991. Still, at least from 1991 to 2001, the tendency of rural gentrification had been strong.

On the other hand, the proportion of working-class people has remained at a low level through this period. However, considering the existence of affordable houses, population change seems to occur within the working-class population, and can involve their potential displacement.

In order to fully understand how gentrifiers, who are mostly middle-class individuals, cause gentrification, Figure 18 illustrates the proportion of the social class in Grindleford. Although the proportion of working-class people is relatively low through all cohort categories, it is relatively high in the cohorts of over 50 years and 5-10 years. Besides that, it is characteristic in Grindleford that working-class people are diminished in 40-50 years cohorts, but they exist in 5-10 years, 10-20 years, 20-30 years, and 30-40 years cohorts. Those differences of the proportion reveal the chronological, socio-demographic change.

That is to say that in Grindleford, the wave of rural gentrification, which was indicated by an increase of the service class and a decrease of the working class, occurred in the relatively early period of the 1960s, when 40-50 years cohorts were coming into the village. After the 1970s, the progress of rural gentrification had stabilised. However, that resulted in the decline of rural gentrification, considering the high proportion of middle-class people including those in the service class and the low proportion of working-class individuals in 10-20 years, 20-30 years, and 30-40 years cohorts.

In the 5-10 years cohorts, who were moving into the village in the 1990s and 2000s, the proportion of working-class people was quite high due to the existence of affordable houses which were built for young families. That tendency seems to contradict with the tendency of social class change, but indicates that the displacement of working-class people was stronger than the inflow of new working-class people during that period, especially considering the proportion increase of service-class people. Thus, in Grindleford, rural gentrification caused by socio-demographic change has progressed through some phases.

6.2.2. Youlgrave

In Youlgrave, the rate of service-class people has constantly increased from 6.7% in 1971 to 36.6% in 2011 (Figure 19). Contrarily, the proportion of working-class people has decreased from 81.0% in 1971 to 37.4% in 2011. Thus, an obvious displacement of the working class was found from this figure, revealing that the possibility of rural gentrification has been evidenced in Youlgrave.

However, changes in the proportion of intermediate-class individuals are characteristic in Youlgrave. The proportion once increased between 1971 and 1991, and then decreased in 2011. This swing in intermediate class proportion seems to be related to a change of structure of the intermediate class itself. The intermediate class includes own account farmers and often means retaining family farms (Savage et al. 1992). Before 1971, many farmers seemed to be included in the intermediate class. According

to an increase of incomers from urban areas in the 1970s, the proportion of intermediate workers other than farmers increased, because most of those incomers were from the middle class, and were working in clerical and administrative occupations or engineering occupations.

On the other hand, the progress of concentration in agriculture to create small numbers of larger farm units after WWII resulted in the decrease of own account farmers (Woods, 2005). The decrease of the intermediate class after 1991 has affected those agricultural changes in addition to a relativistic increase of service-class people. In Youlgrave, the structural shift of the main middle class from including intermediate- to service-class individuals has reflected the concentration of agriculture.

Those social, structural movements were illustrated in Figure 20, which shows the social class structure by the duration of residence. On the whole, the tendency exists that the longer the duration of residence is, the greater the proportion of working-class people. This indicates that the size of the working class was relatively high in longer-term residents, including natives. On the contrary, the proportion of service-class people is high in shorter-term residents, especially in the 5-10 cohorts. When the intermediate class is included in the middle class, the proportion including service class is increased as the duration of residents becomes shorter. This indicates that gentrification had progressed in the village, and the displacement of working-class people is found easily in younger or short-term residents from the decrease in the size of the working class.

6.2.3. Monyash

In Monyash, the change in social class was somewhat mild. During the period of 1971 to 2011, the proportion of working-class people has remained to some extent (Figure 21). On the other hand, the proportion of service-class people has slightly increased. Considering the population increase from 1991 to 2001, this increase is derived from the influx of service-class individuals from outside the village, considering the inflow of population revealed in Figure 5. Moreover, the displacement of working-class people due to the inflow of service-class people is not evident in the figure, and this is a characteristic of rural gentrification in Monyash.

As for the intermediate class, the proportion decreased rapidly between 1991 and 2001, although the proportion was relatively high through 1971 to 1991 (Figure 21). In Monyash, there have been some active farms (Johnston and Johnston, 2010). Thus, traditionally the proportion of intermediate-class individuals, which included own account farmers, seemed to be high. However, given the increase of service-class individuals and the remaining of working-class people as previously mentioned, the displacement of intermediate-class people has occurred instead of the displacement of working-class people.

Figure 22 reveals social class distribution in Monyash by years of residence. It merely functions as a reference, because the statistical population is small (n=32). However, Figure 22 easily shows that the proportion of service-class people tends to increase as years of residence are short without in 1-5 years cohorts. The high

proportion of working-class people in 1-5 years cohorts could be ignored when the intermediate class is seen as the middle class. That tendency of a high proportion of the service class is especially strong in less than 1 year cohorts, which are all service-class people in the figure. This indicates that rural gentrification has been progressing since around the 2000s, taking an increase of households in the village into consideration.

6.3. Income characteristics of residents

Income is also an important benchmark of gentrifiers as well as social class position, because it obviously illustrates living standards and consuming lifestyles (Stockdale, 2010). Stockdale (2010) defined migrants whose annual income (pre-tax) is over £25,000, which was based on the annual net household income in rural Scotland, as ‘potential gentrifiers’. Besides that, she also defined migrants as those ‘who had moved to their current address since 1981’ (Stockdale, 2010). However, this study aims to capture and exaggerate the process of rural gentrification in the period after WWII. Thus, in this study, the classification by cohorts of residential term is used rather than migrants/non-migrants classification, and people whose annual income is over £30,000 are defined as potential gentrifiers. In this connection, income price selection is derived from average annual income in England and Wales in 2013, which is approximately £27,000 (ONS, 2013). Therefore, income characteristics in each case village will be explored in this section.

6.3.1. Grindleford

The distribution of household income in Grindleford is displayed in Figure 23. It is remarkable that the annual income level is higher than £30,000 in most of the cohorts. Generally, the incomes of short-term residents who are expected to be young figure at a relatively low level, because incomes rise by years of service. However, the potential gentrifiers, who earn above £30,000 annually, account for a large part of short-term residence cohorts, which are less than 20-year residents in Grindleford. The fact is strongly related to the influx of service-class people, considering the increase of their proportion as previously discussed. Additionally, slightly low income levels in the more than 50 years cohort are due to the fact that most of them are old enough to become pensioners.

Therefore, a high income level in all residential-length cohorts, especially in the cohorts from 10 to 40 years, proves that rural gentrification has been developed from its early phase in Grindleford. Those rises of income level would improve the amenities of the village economically. However, another aspect is depicted from the figure with relatively low-income households, revealing that the small proportion in shorter-term residence indicates the displacement of local young households in the village. Taking into consideration such displacements, rural gentrification is in a state of maturity in Grindleford.

6.3.2. Youlgrave

In Youlgrave, the tendency of income distribution is similar to that of Grindleford (Figure 24). However, it is different in the sense that the proportion of households with incomes of less than £30,000 is generally high. This tendency is especially strong in over-20 years cohorts. On the other hand, without less than 1 year cohorts, the proportion of households with incomes over £30,000 is higher in shorter-term cohorts. For households with incomes over £75,000, they exist only in 1-20 years cohorts. Those differences in incomes reflect the inflow of young, upper-income individuals who are almost all service-class people, and further reveals the displacement of young people who work in local establishments, considering the population decrease from 1991 (Figure 15).

A high proportion of households with incomes less than £30,000 in more than 50 years cohorts indicates that native working-class people remain in Youlgrave. This fact is reflected in the socio-demographic distribution. This is also seen in households with incomes around £30,000 (which are potential gentrifiers), which are around and over 50% in 1-5 years, 5-10 years, and 10-20 years cohorts. From this distribution, rural gentrification in Youlgrave seems to have progressed in those periods.

6.3.3. Monyash

The distribution of household income in Monyash by years of residence is illustrated in Figure 25. From this figure, somewhat complicated aspects are observed.

The proportion of less than £10,000-income households is generally low, only existing in 30-40 years cohort. However, the proportion of households from £10,000 to £30,000 income is relatively high not only in 30-40 years cohorts, but also in 1-5 years, 10-20 years, and 20-30 years cohorts. Peculiar tendencies do not seem to exist in this case. Moreover, for the proportion of households with incomes over £30,000, the similar tendency does not exist.

However, cohorts that include relatively high-income households are dominant, while cohorts that include relatively low-income groups are dominant and emerge in turn from less than 1 year cohorts to 20-30 years cohorts. This shift seems to indicate that rural gentrification in Monyash is in a state of establishment, because relatively low-income households which are mainly composed of working-class people are remaining to a certain quantity.

6.4. Housing refurbishments

Refurbishment of houses is also a significant indicator of progress of rural gentrification (Phillips, 1993; 2014). This is because gentrifiers often modify their houses to express their ideal rural lives based on their own rural idyll. Phillips (1993) described that improvements of houses are used to 'identify a distinctive lifestyle and consumption practices as constitutive of gentrification'. Therefore, capturing refurbishments including renovations reveals rural gentrification, but also explores one part of consumption of rural lifestyles. In this section, the situation of housing

refurbishment as constituting rural gentrification is examined from the data on the questionnaire survey. In the questionnaire, residents were asked whether they had refurbished their houses from the time they had moved in, and about the kinds of refurbishments they had had. Thus, this questionnaire does not take chronology into account, but this shortcoming could be disregarded as this study aims not to reveal the precise extent of rural gentrification, but its processes.

6.4.1. Grindleford

The number of housing refurbishments by year of residence cohorts is illustrated in Figure 26. From this, the number of housing refurbishments appears overwhelmingly large in 10-20 years, 20-30 years, and 30-40 years cohorts. The exact number of households in those cohorts is large in amount, but it is suggested that rural gentrification in Grindleford has emerged in such a period.

For the types of refurbishments, it generally appears that the proportions of refurbishments show similar tendencies in each cohort. However, few residents had taken conversions from the non-residential category such as 'barn conversion'. Those conversions are seen as those that serve as expressions of the rural idyll (Brunskill, 2007). However, in Grindleford, the characteristics of the village have not been based on the agriculture from an earlier period due to the opening of the railway for commuters to Sheffield. The smallness of conversions reflects such a background of the village.

On the other hand, installations of conservatories and patios are also seen as expressions of a rural idyll. Those constructions are basically not needed for ordinal rural life, which is based on agriculture and even related to the aristocratic culture. In Phillips's (2014) research on the English countryside, he highlighted the importance of rural nature, of flora and fauna in gentrified villages.

6.4.2. Youlgrave

In Youlgrave, the number of refurbishments is large in 10-20 years and 20-30 years cohorts (Figure 27). The peak of the number in those cohorts indicates that rural gentrification in the village has progressed since around 10-30 years prior to this study. Those facts are linked to the changes in population and social class proportion. In addition to that, it is remarkable that the largest cohorts are more than 50 years cohorts. This is reflected in that they have a large amount of native people in Youlgrave different from those in Grindleford.

As for contents of refurbishment, the conversion from non-residential category is seen in the 1-5 years, 5-10 years, 10-20 years, and 20-30 years cohorts. Further, the proportion of those conversions becomes high in shorter-term residence cohorts. The existence of those conversions at a certain amount reveals that there have been abundant buildings including barns due to the decline of local agriculture, and further shows that rural gentrification has been progressing in the village.

6.4.3 Monyash

Figure 28 illustrates the number of housing refurbishments in Monyash. The peak of refurbishments is in the 10-20 years cohorts (Figure 28). This fact indicates that rural gentrification could have been progressing 10-20 years prior to this study. Further, in 30-40 years cohorts, the number of refurbishments is displayed in large amounts.

For kinds of refurbishments, in those cohorts, conversions from the non-residential category are obvious. Those conversions indicate a similar tendency in Youlgrave. Thus, in Monyash also, rural gentrification has progressed on the basis of an agricultural background. Moreover, installations of conservatories and patios as well as landscaping in gardens are obvious. This indicates that gentrifiers seek to realise and enjoy their ideal life in a rural setting in Monyash.

6.5. Process of rural gentrification

From the analysis of residential-length cohorts, it is revealed that rural gentrification in each village is in a different state of rural gentrification. In Glindleford, the situation shows the maturity of rural gentrification concordant with the rural gentrification model in Derbyshire Dales District. Since around 40-50 years ago, the tendencies of rural gentrification have emerged. The service-class population as well as individuals with annual incomes of over £75,000 have flowed into the village. They moved mainly from Sheffield in order to seek places to live, escaping from the urban bustle. They might be Clay's (1979) 'risk-oblivious people' who are gentrifiers in the first stage of

gentrification. Based on this background, the decline of the steel industry in Sheffield after WWII and the moving out of businessmen and rich workers offered a great housing supply. Incomers moved into such houses, which included luxurious Victorian houses. Those houses did not need refurbishments and further adequately expressed incomers' rural lives. This was represented by the number of refurbishments in Grindleford. Therefore, the early phase of the process of rural gentrification in Grindleford emerged in the 1960s.

In the 1970s, the process shifted to the next phase. The population and household number increase from 1970 illustrates a great inflow of gentrifiers. This is linked to the change of other indicators of rural gentrification. First, the proportion of service-class people was slightly decreased in the social class distribution. Besides that, in those cohorts, the proportion of over £75,000 annual income households was also decreased. Those changes indicate that gentrifiers themselves were different from those in the first phase of rural gentrification. That is to say that the gentrifiers in this period may have been following gentrifiers who were middle-class, but not professional individuals. However, they all preferred to express their lives in rural settings. Thus, these characteristics are also reflected in the number of refurbishments, which started to increase.

In the 1980s, the situation of rural gentrification progressed rapidly. The increase of the number of households in that period displays more and more incomers inflowing into the village. That is also evidenced in the situation of social class, wherein slightly

more service-class people seemed to move into the village during that period. However, considering annual income proportions, households who earned annual incomes of over £75,000 have been increasing a bit more than those of the former cohorts. Thus, the character of incomers did not change, but their amounts did. On the other hand, the proportion of working-class people decreased. This change indicates that the displacements had progressed, which shows generalised rural gentrification.

However, from the 1990s, the tendency of rural gentrification has slightly settled down. The displacement of working-class people has progressed much more before reaching a plateau. Moreover, the proportion of service-class people increased and remained at the same level between 2001 and 2011. For the income level in the village, more and more high-income households moved into the village. Those changes wholly display the generalised stage of rural gentrification has progressed in Grindleford.

Meanwhile, in Youlgrave, the tendency of rural gentrification emerged in the 1980s, when the population decrease was eased and the household rate increased rapidly. In that period, the proportion of service-class people was slightly increased, but almost half of the people who started to live in the village 20-30 years ago were service-class people. They appear to be 'risk-oblivious' gentrifiers as similar to those in Grindleford in the 1960s. The number of refurbishments is greatest in 20-30 years cohorts without more than 50 years cohorts, which figure is due to remain of old buildings by preservation act in the PDNP. Therefore, in Youlgrave, the first phase of rural gentrification occurred in the 1980s.

Then, in the 1990s, more service-class people flowed into the village based on their changing preferences for more quiet villages (Smith and Phillips, 2001). This is supported by the fact that approximately 50% of the annual income of 10-20 years residence cohorts is over £30,000. On the other hand, the displacement of working-class people had also progressed. The proportion of working-class individuals decreased both in the entire village overall and in the 10-20 years cohorts. This was the second phase of rural gentrification in Youlgrave.

From the 2000s, the tendency of rural gentrification has seemed to calm down a bit. This is captured by the proportion of service-class people in the village. The rate of increase has fallen, and the proportion of working-class people has almost not changed. However, those tendencies of weakening of rural gentrification are not seen in the situation of income level and housing refurbishments. For income level, the proportion of households earning over £30,000 in 5-10 years and 1-5 years residence cohorts is higher than in any other cohort. It is negligible in the less than 1 year cohort, because there is only one household in the cohort. Besides that, the number of refurbishments has remained at a high level if 1-5 years and 5-10 years cohorts are integrated. In addition to this, the number of conversions from the non-residential category is greatest in all cohorts, indicating the tendency of rural gentrification. Thus, since the 2000s, the tendencies of both progress and stagnation in rural gentrification have been mixed up. Therefore, in Youlgrave, the period from the 2000s is the third phase of rural gentrification.

In Monyash, the process of rural gentrification has progressed slowly. The tendency of rural gentrification had already been seen in the 30-40 years residence cohort of distribution of social class by cohorts. That is also seen in the annual income situation and number of housing refurbishments in the same cohort. As for annual income, households earning incomes of over £50,000 emerged. For housing refurbishments, not only the number of refurbishments itself but the existence of conversions from non-residential use indicated a tendency of rural gentrification. That is why the first phase of rural gentrification in Monyash seems to correlate with the time that residents of 30-40 years moved into the village, the 1970s.

In Monyash, that tendency became notable in the 2000s from the distribution of social classes, when the proportion of service-class people reached around 40 percent. However, in the cohort analysis from the 1990s, the tendencies of rural gentrification have been observed. In the proportion of social classes by cohort, approximately 50% of 10-20 years long residents are service-class people. Moreover, about 40% of them earn over £50,000 incomes. In addition to that, the number of housing refurbishments is most in that cohort, including the conversion of non-residential use. Therefore, the second phase of rural gentrification, which progressed more slowly than the other two case villages, is the period from the 1990s to 2000s in Monyash.

The processes of rural gentrification in the three villages are displayed in Figure 29. In the urban context, as Clay (1979) and Smith and Hackworth (2001) revealed, 3 or 4 phases of the gentrification stage exist for the process of gentrification. The precise

beginnings of rural gentrification were different according to the indicators which were previously discussed. Among the three villages, Grindleford reaches the most generalised phase of rural gentrification, and its variation is largest. Next, Youlgrave reaches to the intermediate phase of rural gentrification. Lastly, Monyash is still on the low level of gentrification because of its small amount of change and its instability. Therefore, in the Peak District villages, rural gentrification has progressed in those processes.

7. Social Capital in a Gentrified Village

This chapter explores how rural gentrification affects the village community and whether such impacts are positive or not. The framework of ‘social capital’ is applied in order to examine those changes. The concept of social capital is used in the various academic branches due to its high versatility. Before exploring the situation in the case village, the concept of social capital should be discussed.

7.1. Social capital

In the last few decades, many social researchers have emphasised social capital as an important notion for the health of community (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988, 1990; Lin, 1999, 2001; Putnum, 1995, 2000; Putnum et al. 1993; Woolcock, 2001; The World Bank, 2009). Social capital simply describes that the more people in the community act cooperatively and ethically, the more efficiently the society and economy of the community work. However, there are many definitions of social capital, and these differ almost from researcher to researcher. Putnam (2000) describes that social capital is defined by ‘social networks’ which have value, and that ‘just as a screwdriver (physical capital) or a college education (human capital) can increase productivity (both individual and collective), so too social contacts affect the productivity of individuals and groups’.

Social capital is mainly divided two types. One is ‘bonding social capital’ and the other is ‘bridging social capital’. Bonding social capital is a strong network within the

community, for example the vitality of a neighbourhood watch, membership of community social clubs, and the communication with the residents in the same village. Bonding social capital generally stands for close ties and dense networks within homogenous groups, such as same ethnicities, religions, kinships, communities, and so on. Then, bonding social capital strengthens cohesion and the relationships of people in the community. However, only good things exist in bonding social theory. Bonding social capital has strong internal direction, but a lack of external direction. An excess of such internal direction leads to negative aspects such as excessive NIMBYism for newcomers and their acts (Smith and Phillips 2001).

On the other hand, Besser and Miller (2013) refer to bridging social capital as 'relationship links between members of diverse groups' such as 'people who differ in religious and ethnic background economic situation, and length of residence'. In the context of rural villages, this explains the network with other communities, especially outside the village. To hold a welcome party for newcomers in the group and to find new friends in SNS are examples. Briggs (1998) described that bonding social capital intends 'getting by', but bridging social capital intends 'getting ahead'. In the context of rural community, Thissen (2009) mentioned that people with large networks are not only willing to take part in bridging activities, but also are more open to newcomers and ethnic minorities in the community and are more positive about their influence in politics. He revealed that such an existence of people who have large networks is crucial

for the rural community, and the accumulation of bridging social capital which they produce leads to success in a gentrified village.

However, many groups and communities experience simultaneous bonding and bridging social capital. Further, the relation between bonding and bridging changes in different perspectives and scale. For example, communication with friends outside the community is bridging social capital from inside the community, but friendship itself is bonding social capital. That is why we have to define the perspectives and scale when we use the concept of bonding and bridging social capital. In this research, bonding and bridging social capital are used in rural scales and from a rural community perspective.

Traditionally, social capital researches have emphasised the difference of bonding and bridging social capital (Putnam 1999). In gentrification research as well, in the view of social capital, it is important to use the concept of bonding and bridging consciously, because it is useful for the assessment of gentrification in determining whether it is a positive aspect or not.

7.2. Social capital in the case villages

In this study, I analysed the data from the questionnaire survey in order to capture social capital in the case villages. Specifically, the data of participation in social clubs in the village, frequency of contact to friends living inside/outside the village, and frequency of using shops or pubs were selected to calculate social capital. These indicators are generally quite important in the village life, because they are deeply

related not only to everyday life in the community but also to rural traditions which have made village life sustainable (Thissen, 2009; Fisher 2013). Therefore, to capture those indicators is to capture social capital in the village which makes village community facilitated. Additionally, classification by social class was consistently applied to exaggerate the difference between gentrifiers and ordinal villagers, because this chapter aims to depict a present state of gentrified rural village, not the changing process of it.

7.2.1. Social capital in Grindleford

Figure 30 illustrates numbers of close friends living outside Grindleford. From this figure, it is identified that service-class people tend to have more friends outside the village. Service-class people consequently have more chances to communicate with people outside the village because of their character in their professional occupations. In addition to this, almost all of them are incomers, and they had already made friends outside the village. However, they seemed to actively communicate. Those relation ties to the outside village community would be applicable to the sense of ‘bridging’ social capital.

The proportion of people who take part in any social clubs in Grindleford is displayed in Figure 32. In Grindleford, approximately 60% of people participate in social clubs wholly. However, the difference between social classes is not so strong, but only slight.

For frequency of using pubs, there is a remarkable difference between social classes (Figure 33). Service-class people tend to go to pubs less often, and the largest proportion category is 'once twice a year'. On the other hand, intermediate-class and working-class individuals go to pubs relatively often, with the proportion of at least 'once or twice a week' at around 20 percent. Despite the high proportion of frequent customers, the proportion of people classified to the category of 'less often than once a year' is also relatively large. Those passive customers of pubs in the working class translate not only to economic difficulties but also to displacement from the community.

7.2.2. Social capital in Youlgrave

The number of close friends outside of Youlgrave is illustrated in Figure 34. The tendency of upper-class individuals to likely make friends outside the village is seen as similar to the case in Grindleford.

As for the number of friends inside the village, working-class people tend to have more friends inside the village (Figure 35). On the other hand, people in the category of 'none' are seen in all kinds of social classes. Actually, the proportion is slightly higher in the working and service classes, which indicates the possibility that conflicts between both classes begin to emerge.

For participation in social clubs, interestingly, the higher the social class, the more people take part in social clubs (Figure 36). This means that service-class incomers blended in with the village community. On the other hand, this also is suggestive of a

problem of some working-class people feeling displaced from the village community, which is composed of service-class people who are mainly incomers.

The frequency of using pubs in the village is higher in the intermediate class (Figure 37). With this background, the peculiarity of there being three pubs in the village might be related. Thus, the proportion of the frequency category is higher in general. The service and working classes are almost similar, with regular customers who go to pubs at least 'once or twice a week'. However, the proportion of less often, in the category of 'once or twice a year' is high in the working class. This fact also indicates that working-class people tend to be displaced from the village community. In addition to this, considering the low-level proportion of those passive users of pubs in the service class, service-class people blended in with the existing community well.

7.2.3. Social capital in Monyash

In Monyash, the number of close friends outside the village tends to be higher in the service class, like in the case of the other two villages (Figure 38). However, the proportion of '5 or more' category people was higher than the other villages. On the contrary, in the working class, despite the absence of a '1 or 2' category, the '3 or 4' category and 'none' category exist with relatively high degrees. This displays that the extents of communication in working-class people tend to be limited.

For the number of friends inside the village, characteristics come into play in Figure 39. The total proportion of 'none' category people are high in all kind of classes,

especially in the service class. This depicts that social mixing within or between classes is not progressed due to the onset of inflow of population, which means that Monyash is in the state of 'established' a gentrified village.

The situation of participation in social clubs reveals an interestingly high proportion in the working class (Figure 40). The tendency is the same as that of Grindleford. However, it might be irrigable, because the difference in Monyash is quite slight and the population is small.

Figure 41 displays the frequency of using a pub in Monyash. The distribution of at least 'once or twice a week' customers are higher in the service class, different from the other two villages. On the other hand, using the style of pub in the working class is in a state of polarisation. The proportions of both 'on most days' and 'once or twice a year' customers are high. Those characteristics seem to indicate the displacement of some working-class people who find it economically difficult to go to the pub or who do not like the pub atmosphere very much. Therefore, there could exist some conflicts between service-class residents and working-class residents in using the pub.

7.2.4. Discussion

The situations of indicators of social capital in three villages were explored above. However, how do they connect with social capital in the village communities? Thus, in this section, those indicators are integrated into discussion. Before this discussion, however, relationship indicators and kinds of social capital should be clarified. Social

capital can be divided generally two types, which are 'bonding' and 'bridging', as explored above. The bonding social capital is related to things inside the community/village. On the other hand, the bridging social capital is related to things outside of the community/village (Thissen, 2009). Therefore, in this study the number of close friends living in the village was used as an indicator of bonding social capital. Then, the number of close friends outside the village was selected for bridging social capital. Participation in social clubs and frequency of going to pubs are indicators which have both characters of bonding and bridging.

In Grindleford, considering the situation of relationships inside or outside the village, bridging social capital is strong within service-class people. On the other hand, bonding social capital is indicated in working-class people. However, service-class individuals have the majority of the proportion in gentrified villages. Therefore, Grindleford is characterised as a bridging social capital village.

Then in Youlgrave, the situation is quite different. The character of bonding social capital is observed a bit more strongly in service-class and intermediate-class residents, because the proportion of 'none' category people in the number of friends inside the village is far smaller than that of Grindleford. On the contrary, bridging social capital is relatively large within the working-class group. Thus, considering its size of social class distribution as the same as that of Grindleford, Youlgrave is a bonding social capital village.

At last, in Monyash, the situation is very interesting. The bonding social capital is weak within service-class people as is the case in Grindleford, while in the working class, the symptom of bonding social capital seems to remain. For the bridging social capital, the proportion of people who have '5 or more' close friends outside the village is high in service-class and intermediate-class people. Those tendencies in Monyash are similar to those in Grindleford. Namely, Monyash is also a bridging social capital village.

Therefore, the transition of social capital in three villages is displayed in Figure 42. The degree of rural gentrification development is depicted on the horizontal axis, which is from sporadic to generalised. On the other hand, social capital, which is from bonding to bridging, is figured on the vertical axis. According to the maturing of gentrification, social capital once shifts to bonding social capital character. That point is the state of intensified rural gentrification to which Youlgrave belongs. This is because incomers who are mainly service-class people from urban areas once blended in with the existent community. However, according to progress of rural gentrification, which means more and more incomers coming into the village, the character of social capital returns to a bridging state. That state is exemplified in Grindleford today. Therefore, the relationship between rural gentrification and social capital develops along the curve.

8. Conclusion

Up to this point, we have described the process of rural gentrification applying to the stage models of Clay (1976) and Hackworth and Smith (2001) and the transition of social capital in gentrified villages. Thus, in this chapter, those two aspects of rural gentrification are integrated.

The stage model of rural gentrification was displayed in Chapter 6. As shown in the figure, there are four stages in the process of rural gentrification. Although villages experience a transition from an established phase to a generalised phase in order according to the progress of rural gentrification, the period of experience in each phase is different from village to village.

First, in Grindleford, the stage of rural gentrification reached the generalised phase, because the proportion of service-class people is quite in high degree. On the other hand, the situation of social capital is directed to bridging, which tends to communicate outside of the community. Those increases of service-class people caused an increase in bridging social capital. Namely, service-class people tend to have other communities outside the village as the number of close outside friends indicated. On the contrary, such an increase of service-class people weakens communications as the community of residents and progress segregates incomers and natives or social classes. In Grindleford, such problems are displayed as the absence of close friends inside the village and the displacement in use of pubs.

In Youlgrave, the stage of rural gentrification is in the state of the intensified phase. In the intensified phase, there is an increase of service-class people. However, the degree of progress, which is the proportion of them, is smaller than that of the generalised phase. In addition to this, in Youlgrave, the speed of transition was more gradual, and the transition itself started later than that in Grindleford. Therefore, it is enough time to progress social mixing with natives and incomers. That is why in Youlgrave, the character of bonding social capital within service-class people exists.

On the contrary, in Monyash, the stage of rural gentrification still remains in the state of the establishment phase. In this state, the proportion of service-class people is relatively small. Thus, communications of service-class people who are incomers tend to go toward outside the village, because of short duration of residence. Actually, in Monyash, the symptom of rural gentrification has been observed in almost the same period as that in Youlgrave. However, the amount of change in service-class people is smaller than that of Youlgrave. The situation in which service-class incomers tend to communicate outside the village continues to occur to the present day.

Therefore, social capital transition is related to the process of rural gentrification. According to progress of rural gentrification, social capital shifts from the state of bonding to bridging in gentrified villages. However, it is remarkable that the amount of social capital itself does not change by progress of rural gentrification in appearance, because a certain amount of people participate or use venues which can become indicators of social capital, such as social clubs and pubs in all three villages studied.

This indicates that an increase or decrease of social capital is cancelled out by changes in indicators due to the progress of rural gentrification. That is why rural gentrification and social capital in the village community are deeply related, affecting each other greatly.

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SOC2010 Code	Standard Occupational Classification 2010 unit group	Simplified NS-SEC
3121	Architectural and town planning technicians	2
3122	Draughtspersons	3
3131	IT operations technicians	2
3132	IT user support technicians	2
3213	Paramedics	3
3216	Dispensing opticians	3
3217	Pharmaceutical technicians	3
3218	Medical and dental technicians	3
3219	Health associate professionals n.e.c.	2
3231	Youth and community workers	2
3233	Child and early years officers	2
3234	Housing officers	2
3235	Counsellors	2
3239	Welfare and housing associate professionals n.e.c.	2
3311	NCOs and other ranks	3
3312	Police officers (sergeant and below)	3
3313	Fire service officers (watch manager and below)	3
3314	Prison service officers (below principal officer)	3
3315	Police community support officers	6
3319	Protective service associate professionals n.e.c.	2
3411	Artists	2
3412	Authors, writers and translators	2
3413	Actors, entertainers and presenters	2
3414	Dancers and choreographers	2
3415	Musicians	2
3416	Arts officers, producers and directors	2
3417	Photographers, audio-visual and broadcasting equipment operators	4
3421	Graphic designers	3
3422	Product, clothing and related designers	4
3441	Sports players	2
3442	Sports coaches, instructors and officials	2
3443	Fitness instructors	6

Figure 1. Example of Standard Occupational Classification

Source: ONS, 2010

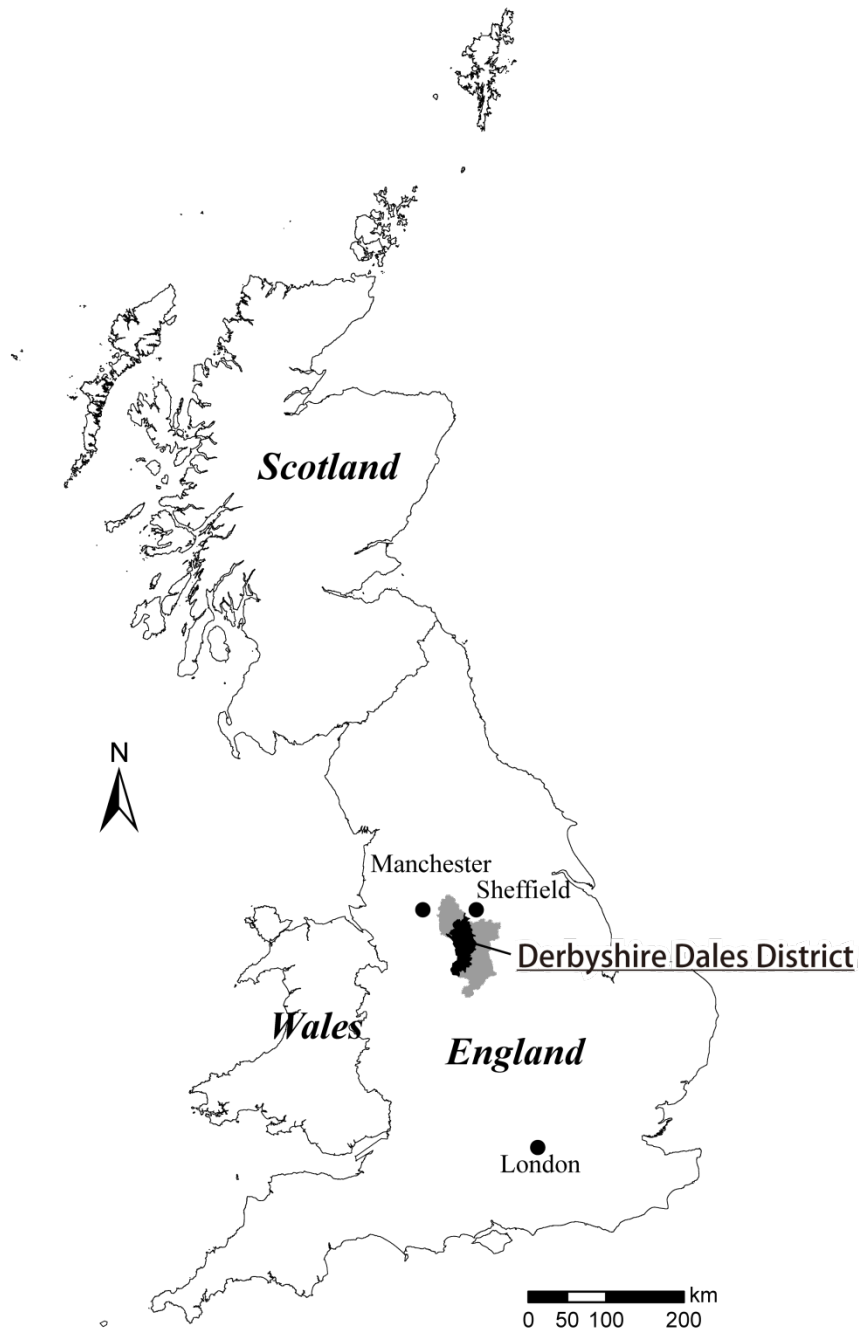


Figure 2. Location of Derbyshire Dales District

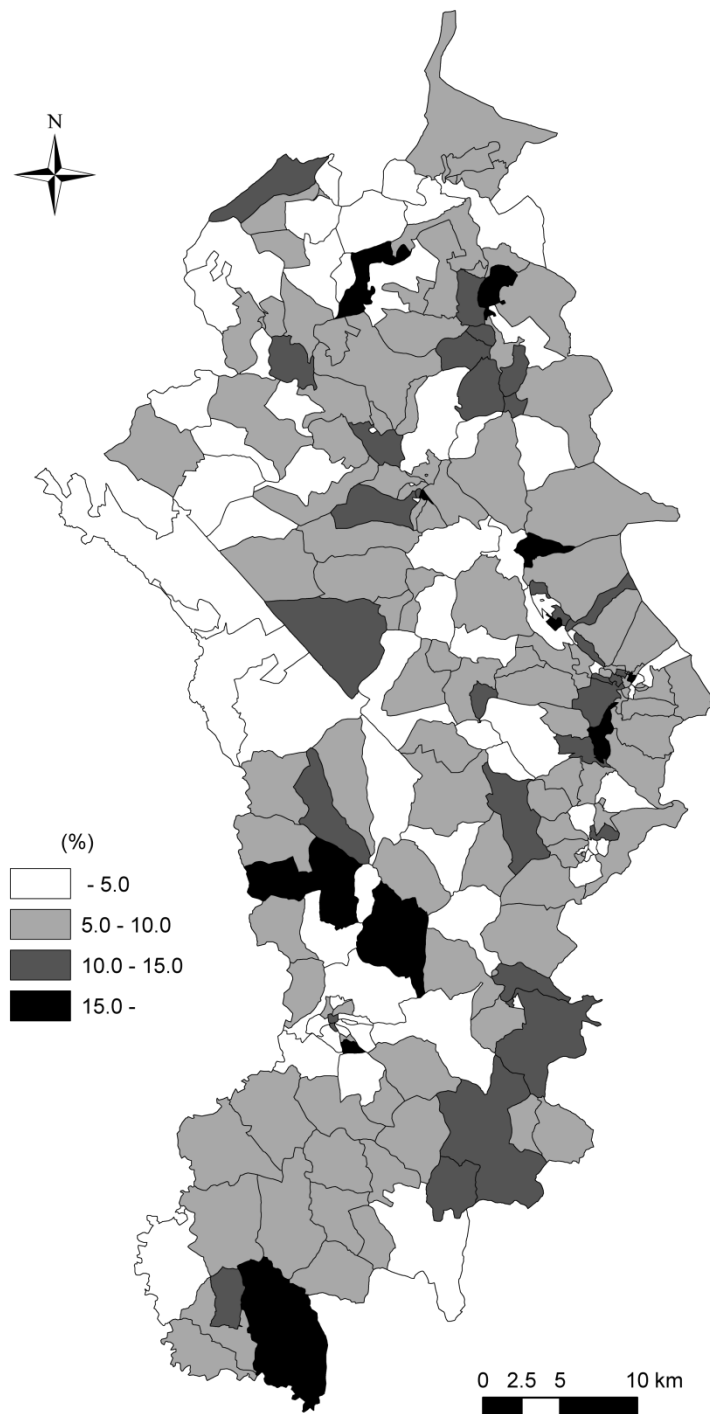


Figure 3. Distribution of In-migrants in Derbyshire Dales (1971-1981: ED)
 Source: UK Census 1981

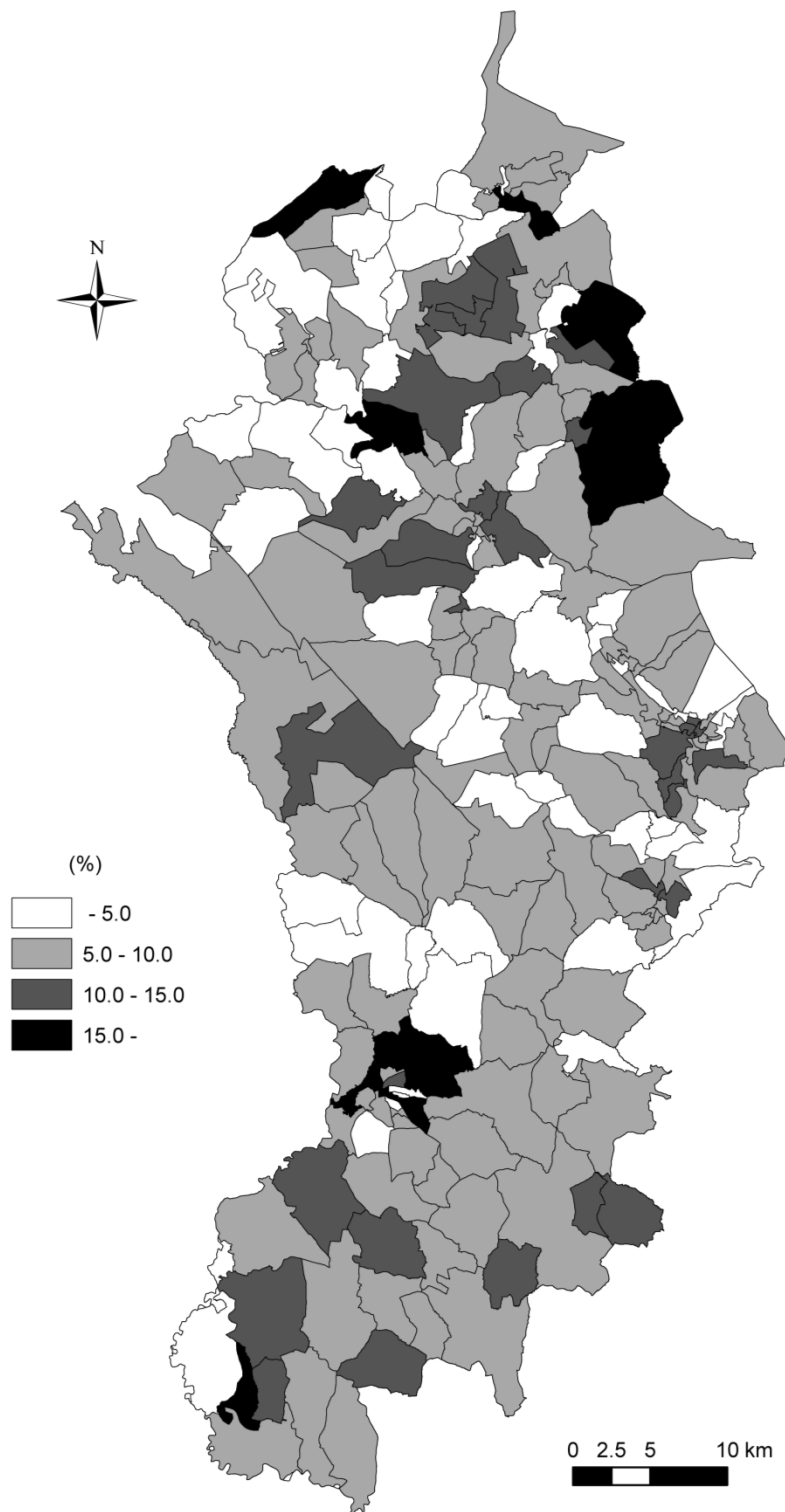


Figure 4. Distribution of In-migrants in Derbyshire Dales (1981-1991: ED)
 Source: UK Census 1991

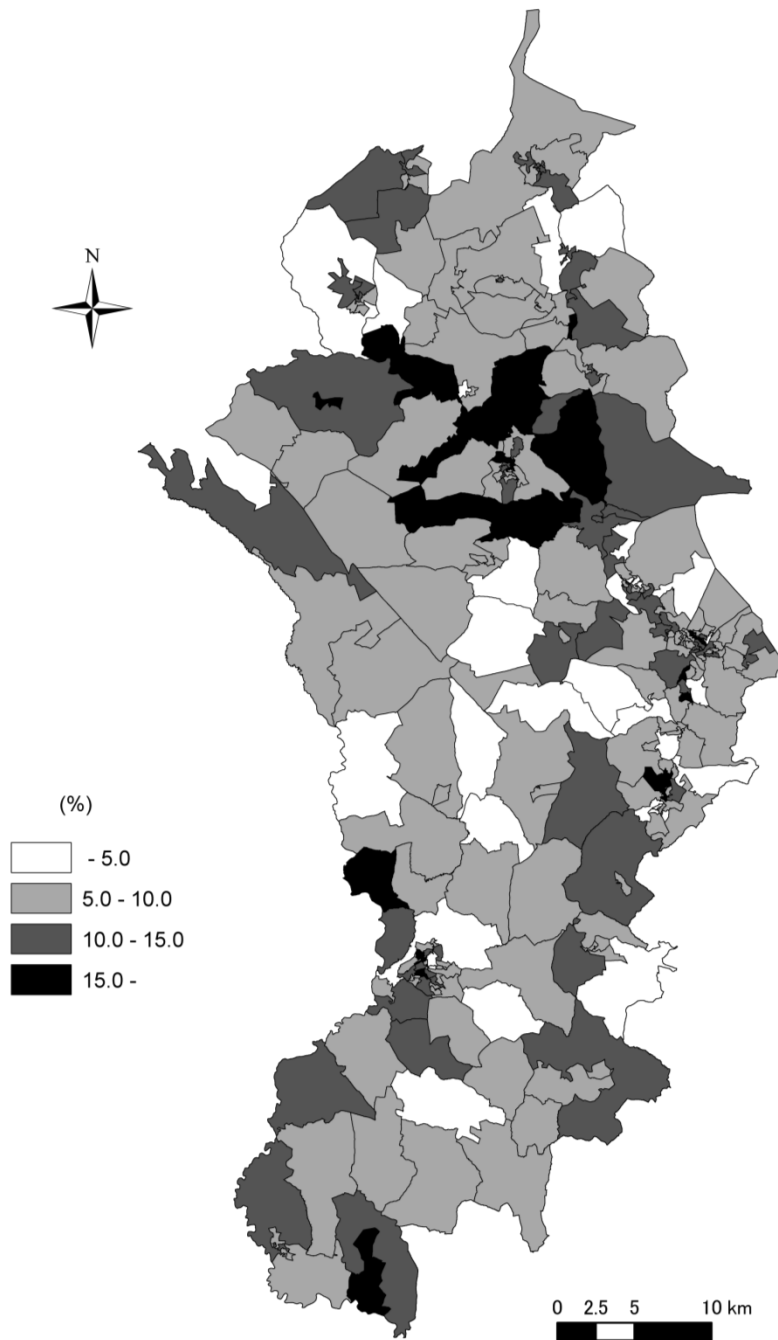


Figure 5. Distribution of In-migrants in Derbyshire Dales (1991-2001: OA)
 Source: UK Census 2001

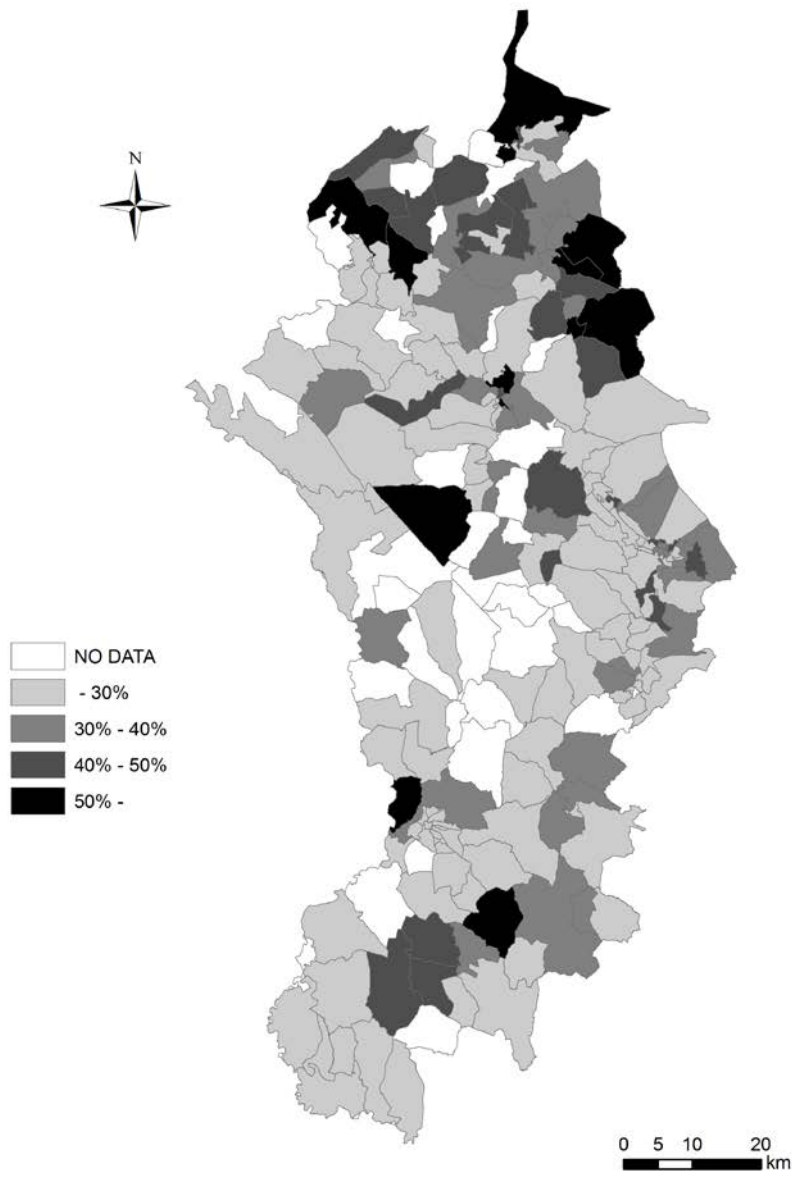


Figure 6. Distribution of service classs in Derbyshire Dales (1991: ED)
 Source: UK Census 1991

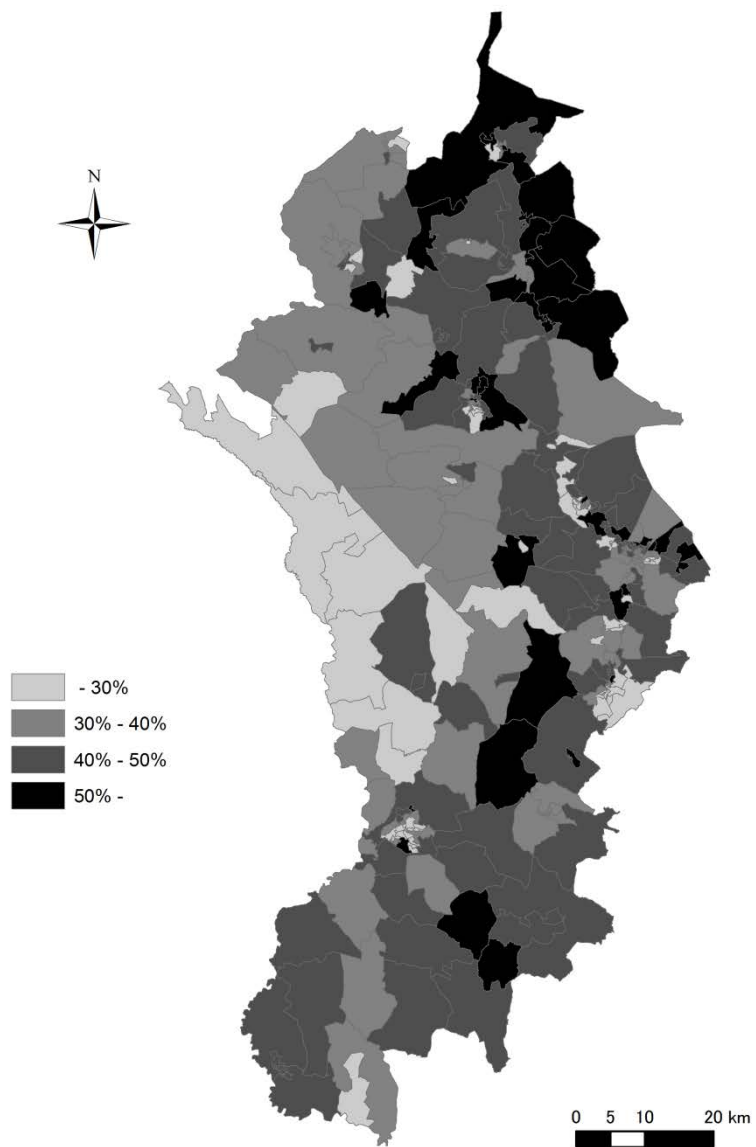


Figure 7. Distribution of service class in Derbyshire Dales (2001: OA)
Source: UK Census 2001

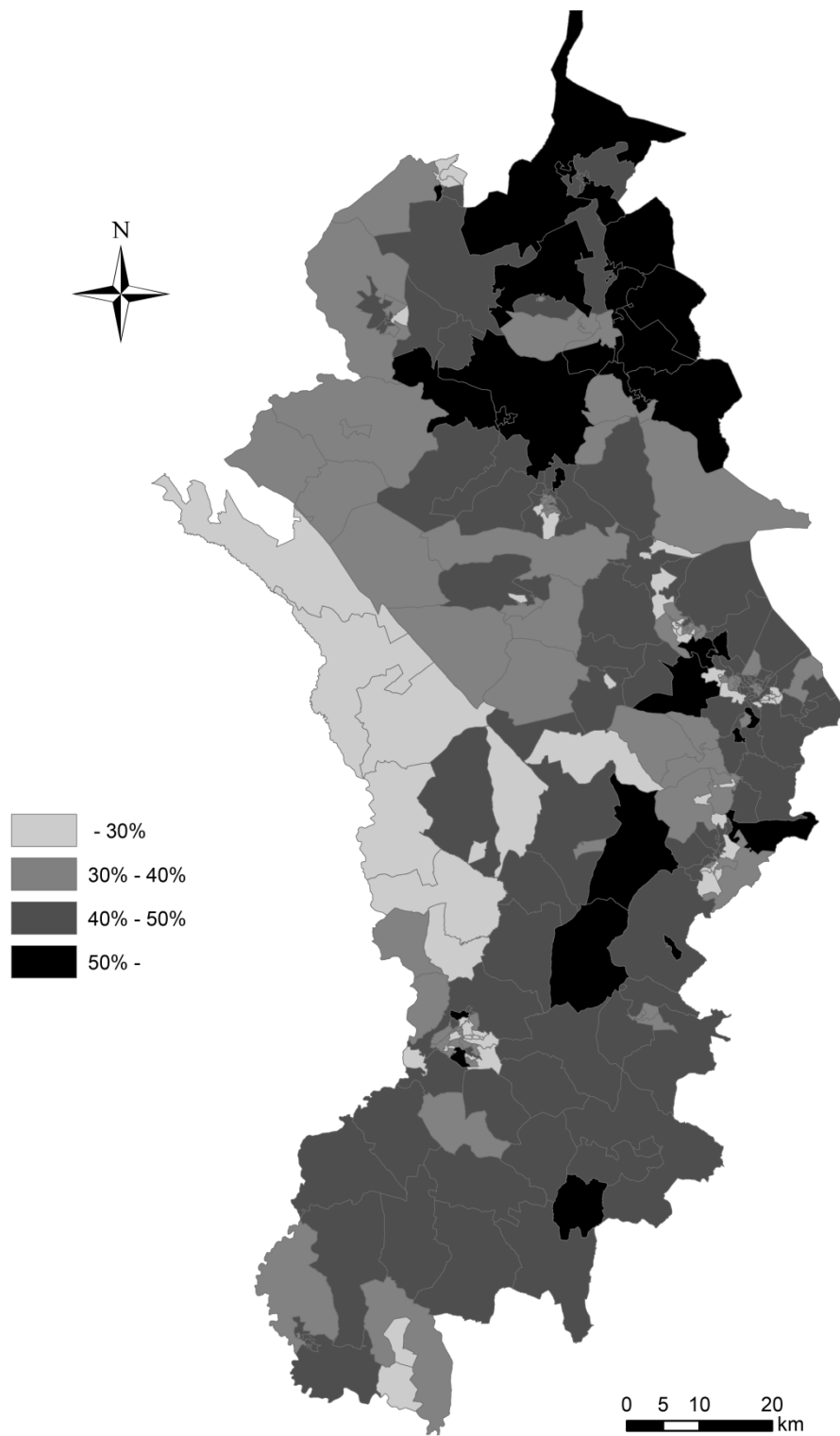


Figure 8. Distribution of service class in Derbyshire Dales (2011: OA)
 Source: UK Census 2011

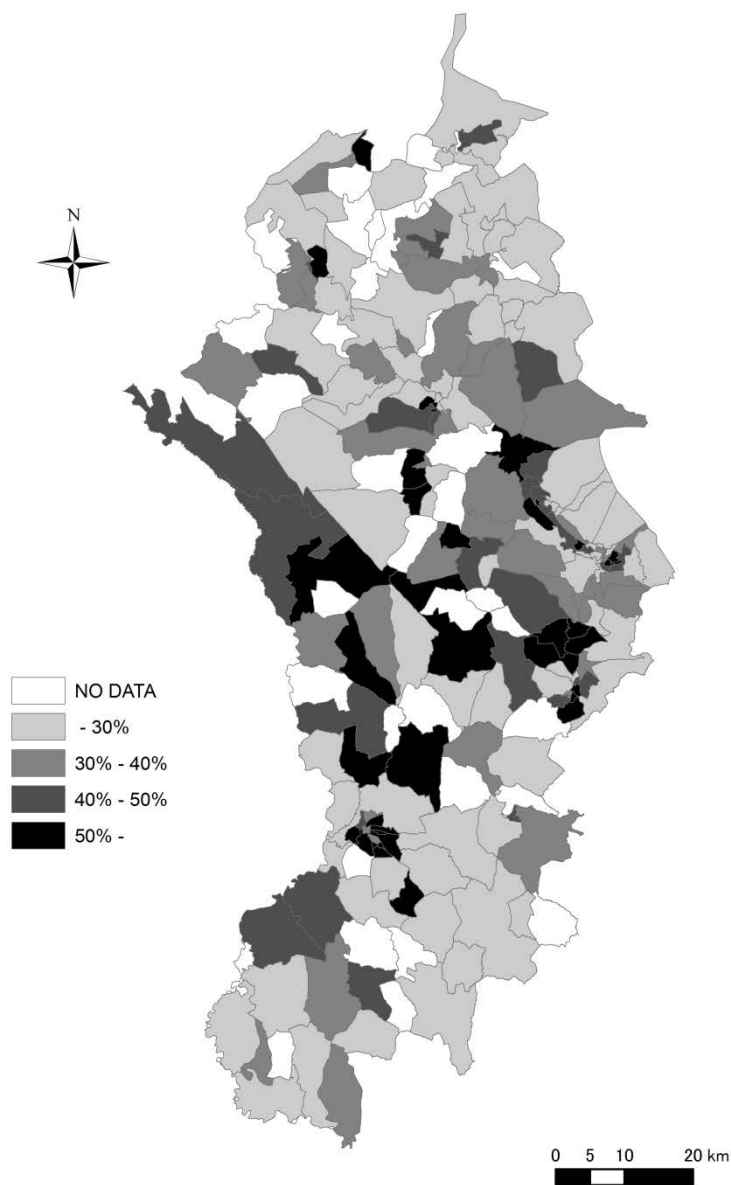


Figure 9. Distribution of working class in Derbyshire Dales (1991: ED)
Source: UK Census 1991

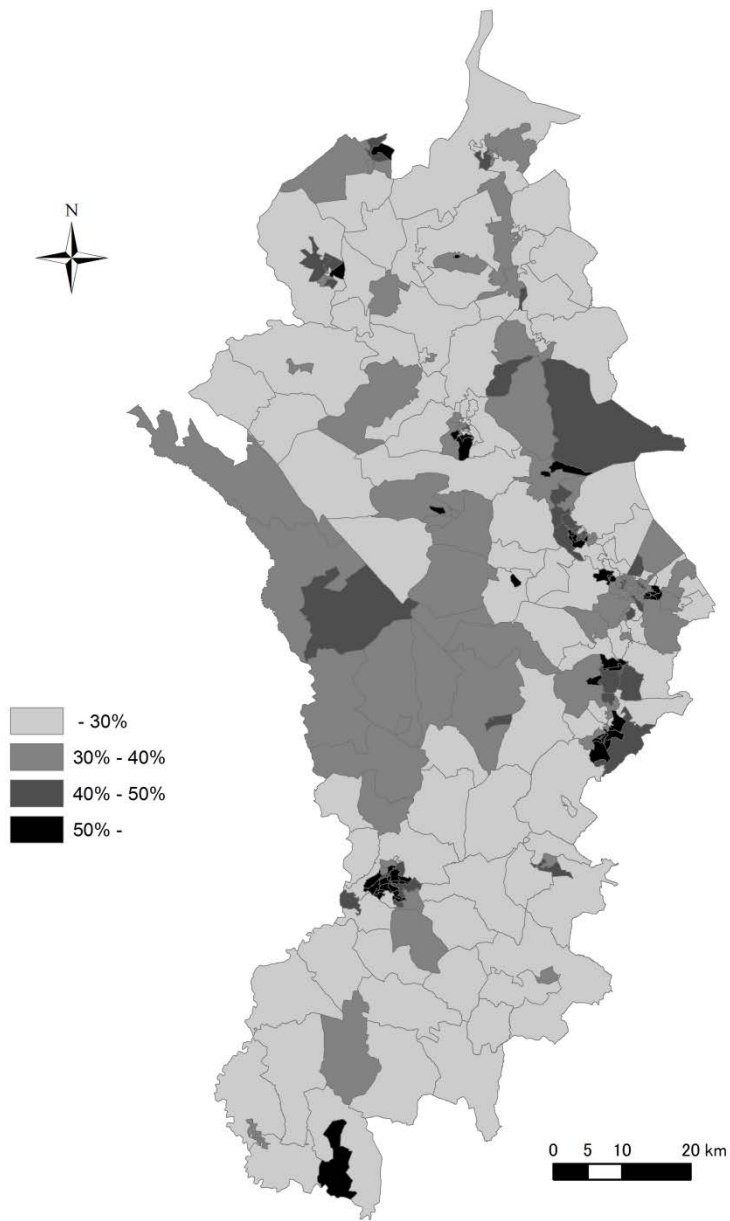


Figure 10. Distribution of working class in Derbyshire Dales (2001: OA)
Source: UK Census 2001

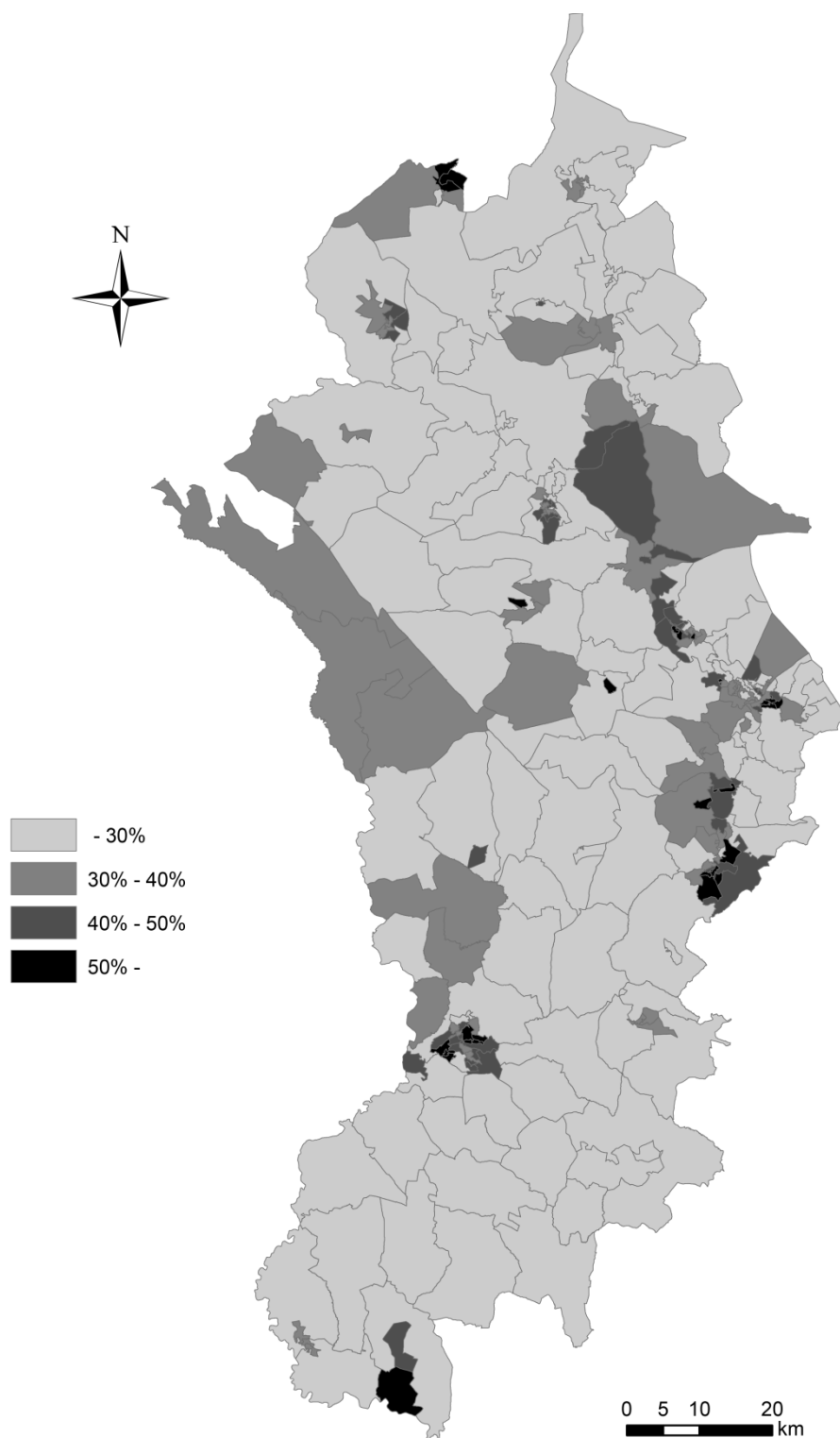


Figure 11. Distribution of working class in Derbyshire Dales (2011: OA)

Source: UK Census 2011

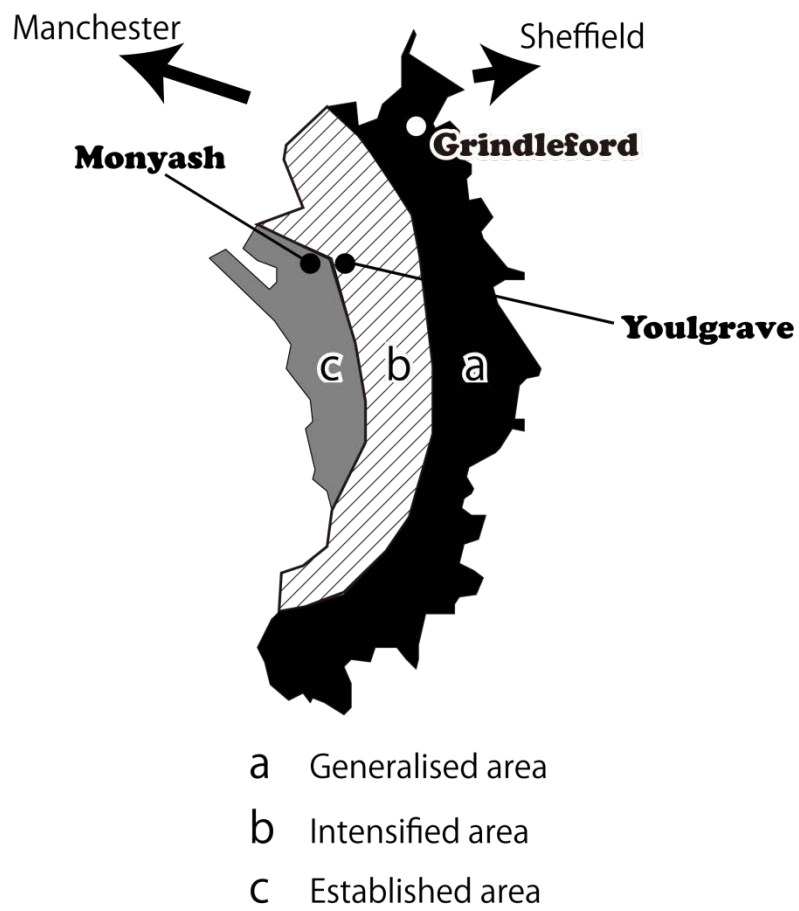


Figure 12. Gentrification model in Derbyshire Dales

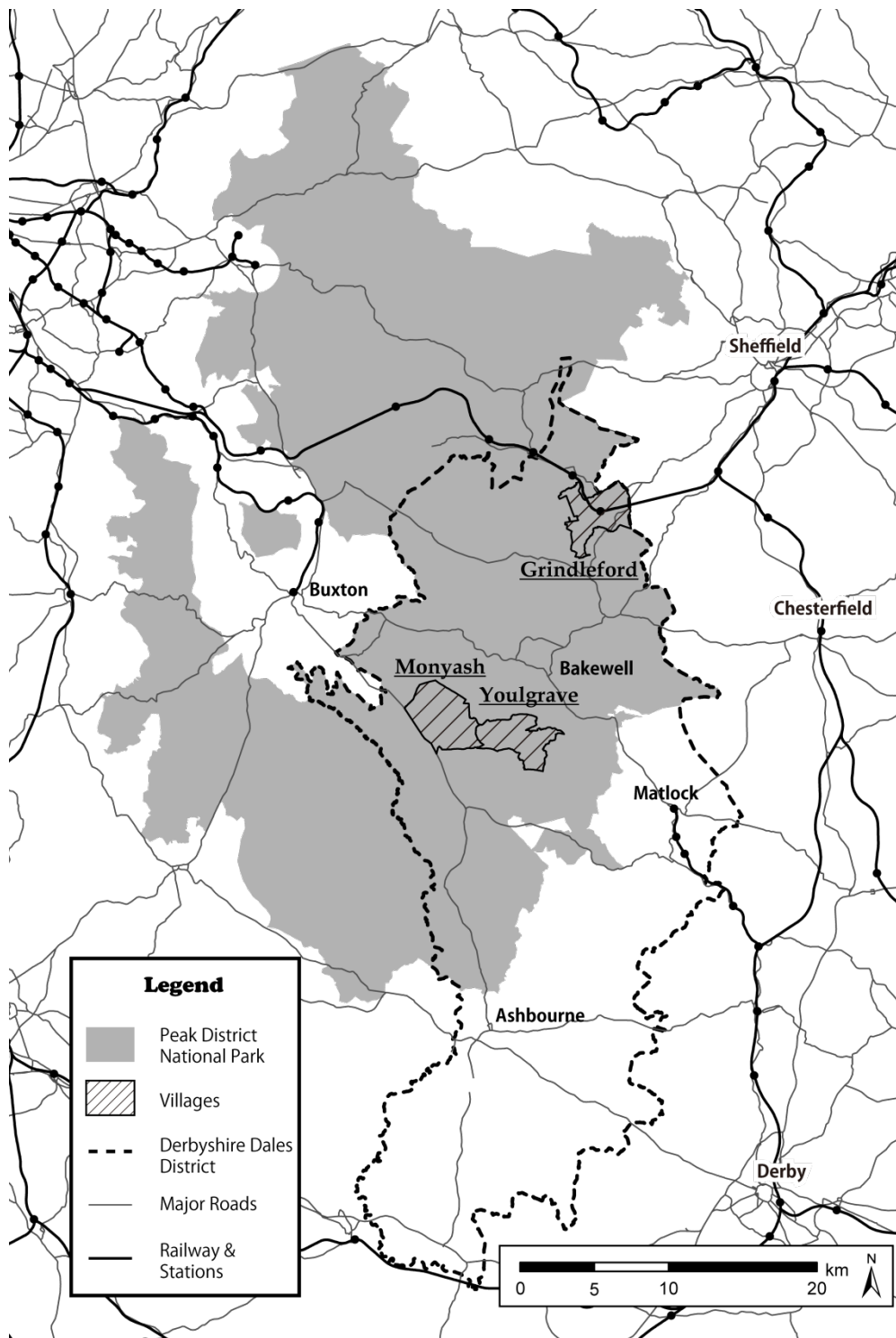


Figure 13. Location of the case villages

(Person/Household)

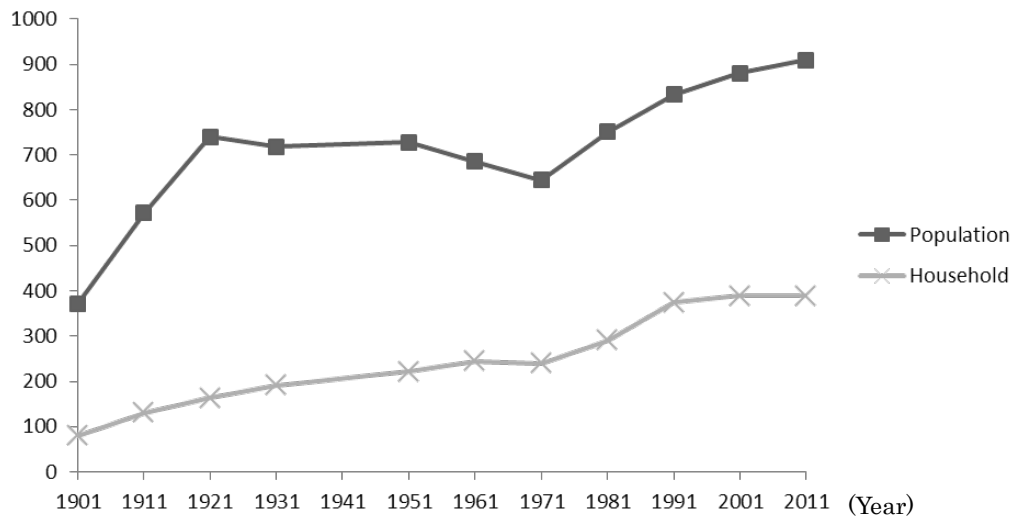


Figure 14. Population and household in Grindleford

Source: UK Census

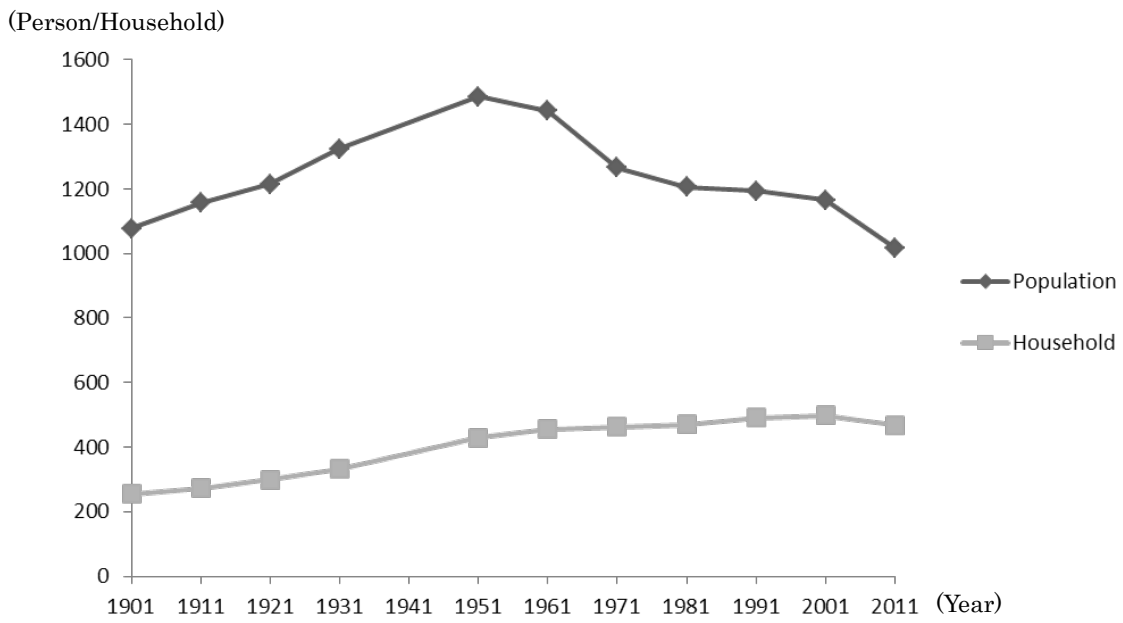


Figure 15. Population and household in Youlgrave
Source: UK Census

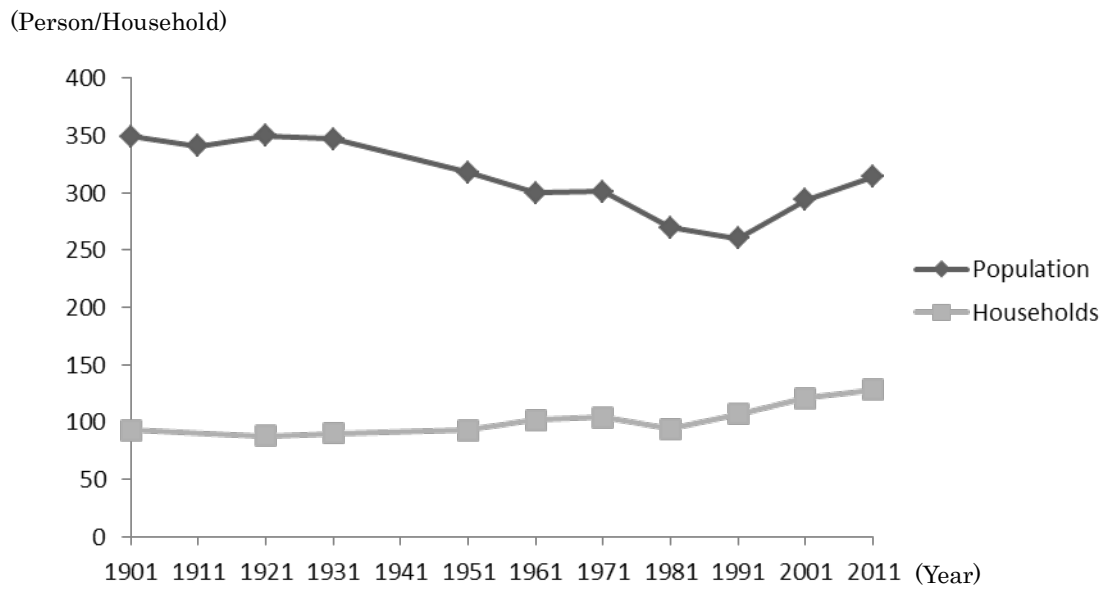


Figure 16. Population and household in Monyash
Source: UK Census

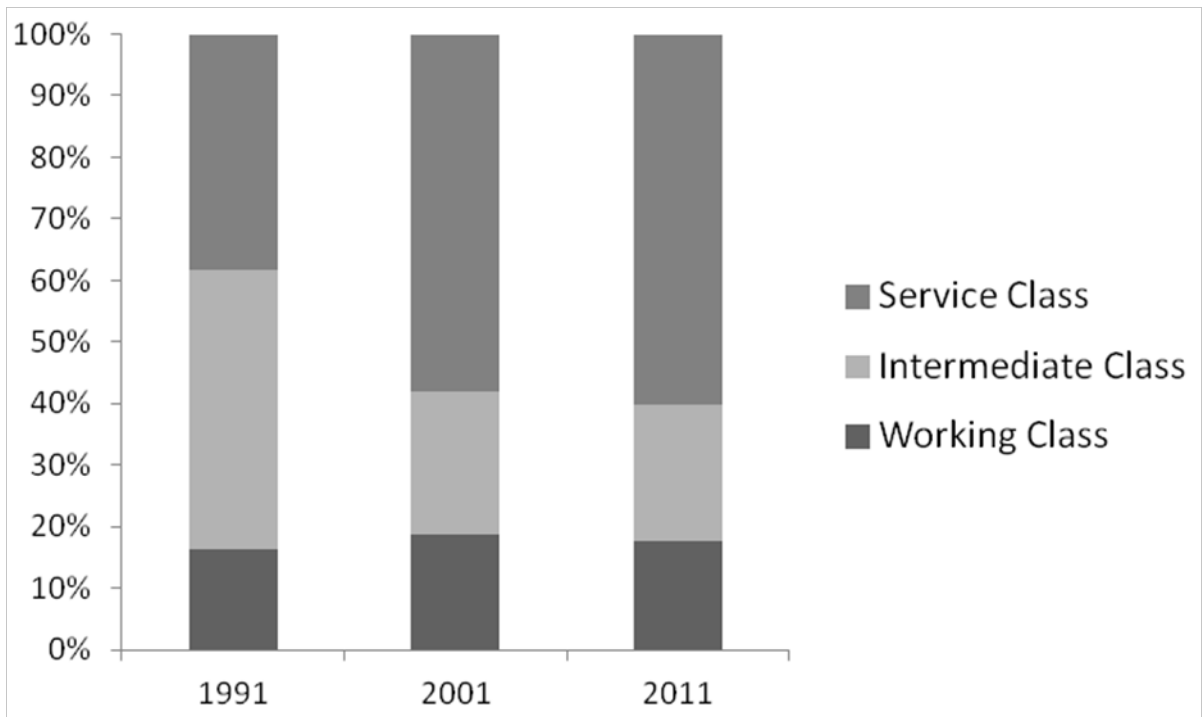


Figure 17. Social class change in Grindleford
Source: UK Census

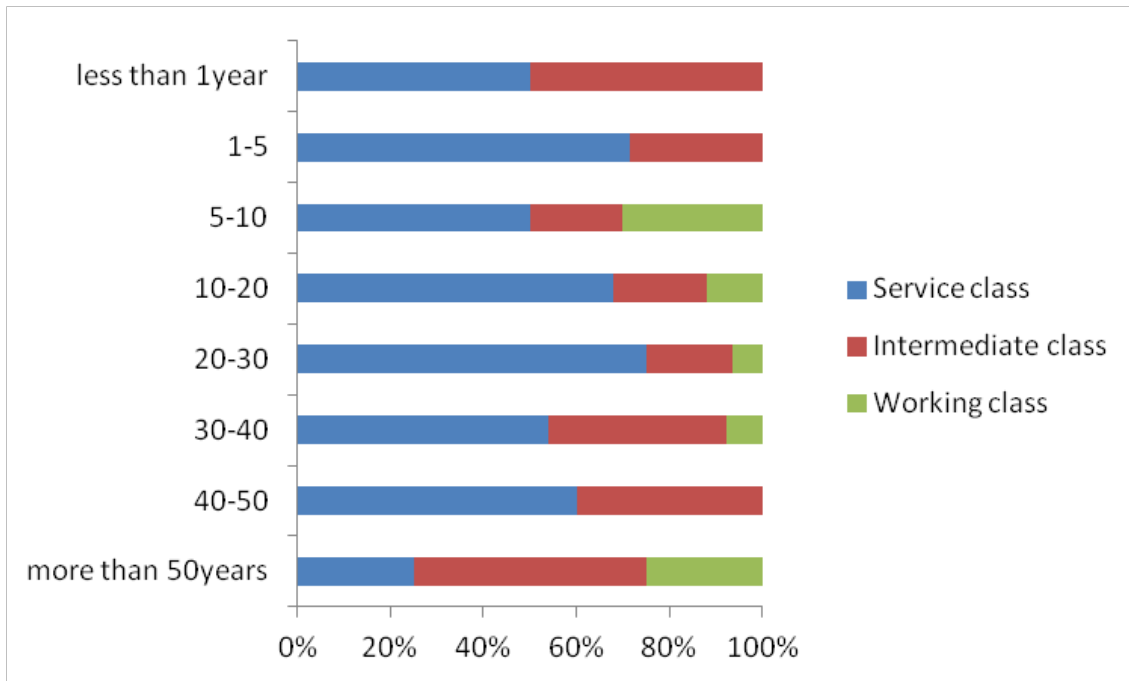


Figure 18. Social class distribution by length of residence in Grindleford

Source: Survey by the author

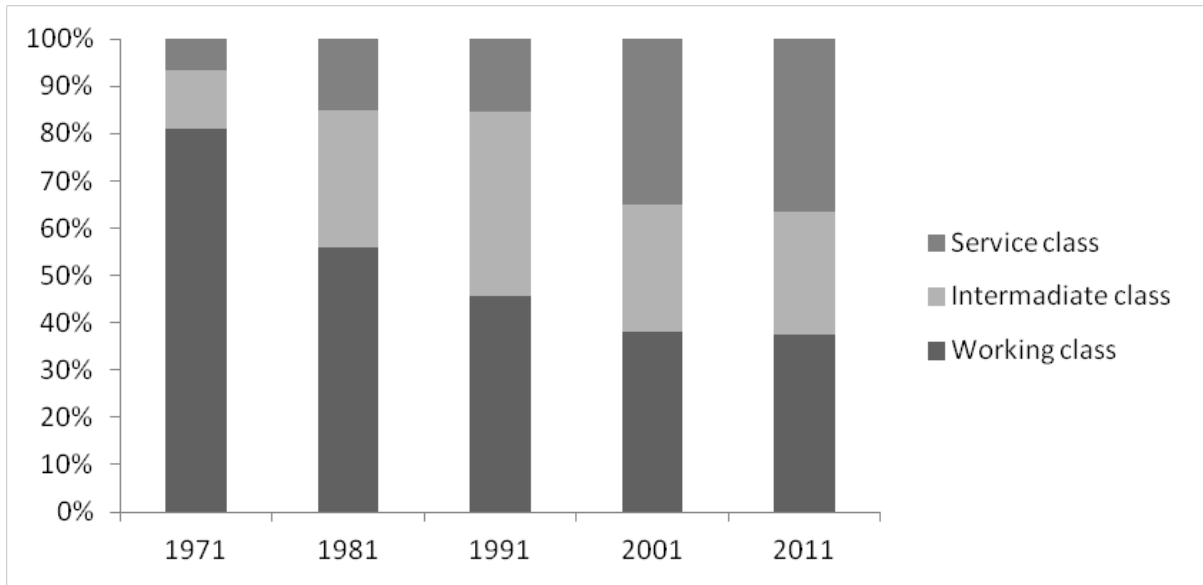


Figure 19. Social class change in Youlgrave
Source: UK Census

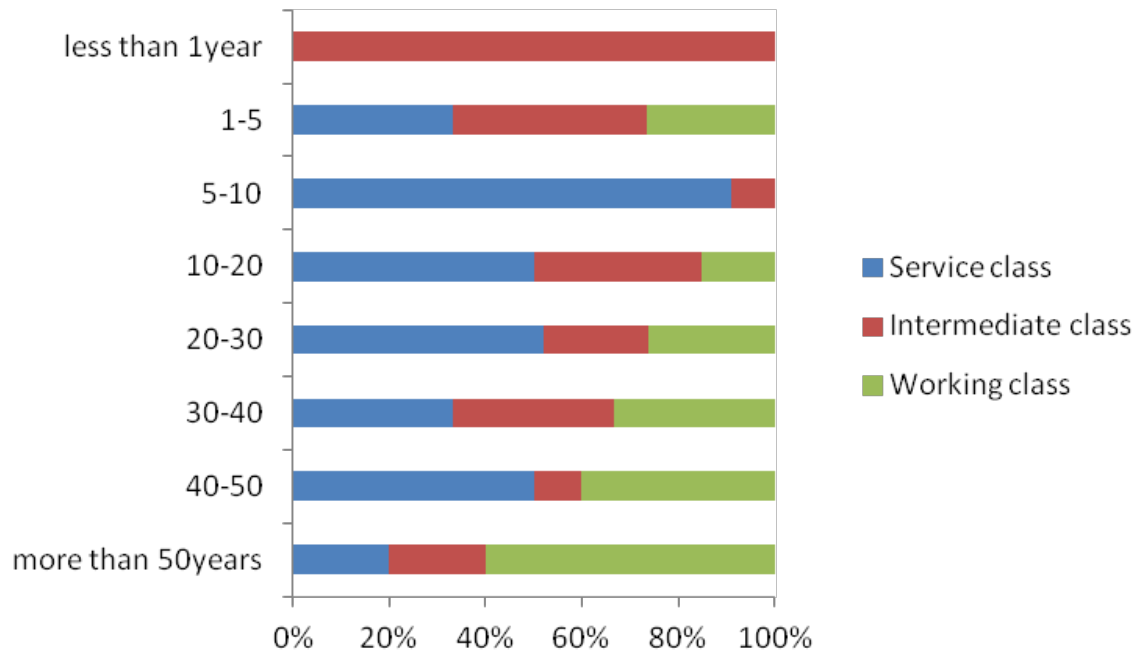


Figure 20. Social class distribution by length of residence in Youlgrave

Source: Survey by the author

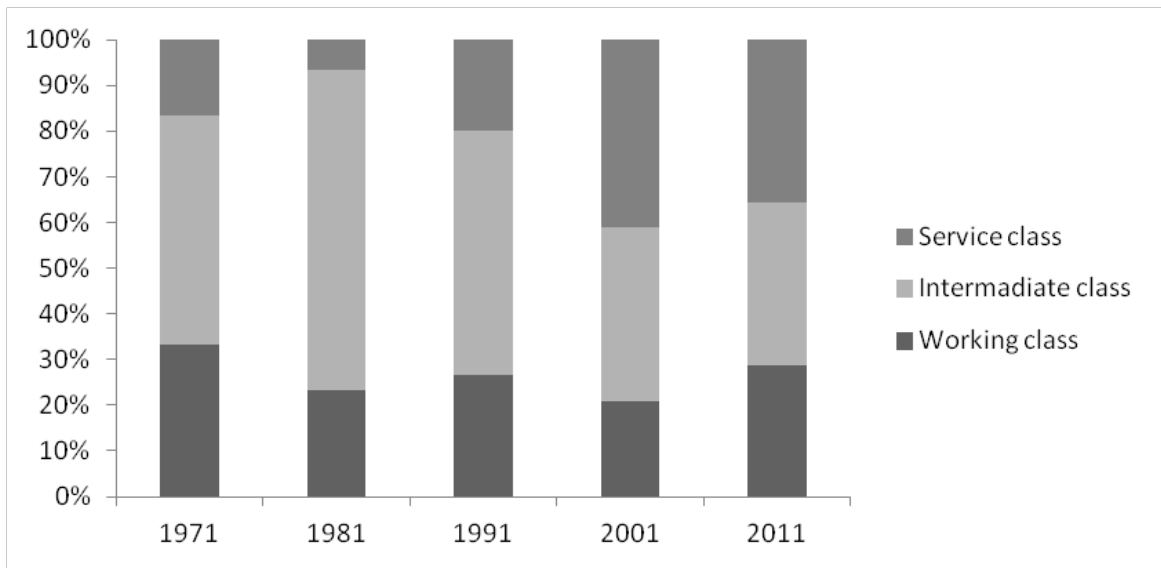


Figure 21. Social class change in Monyash
 Source: UK Census

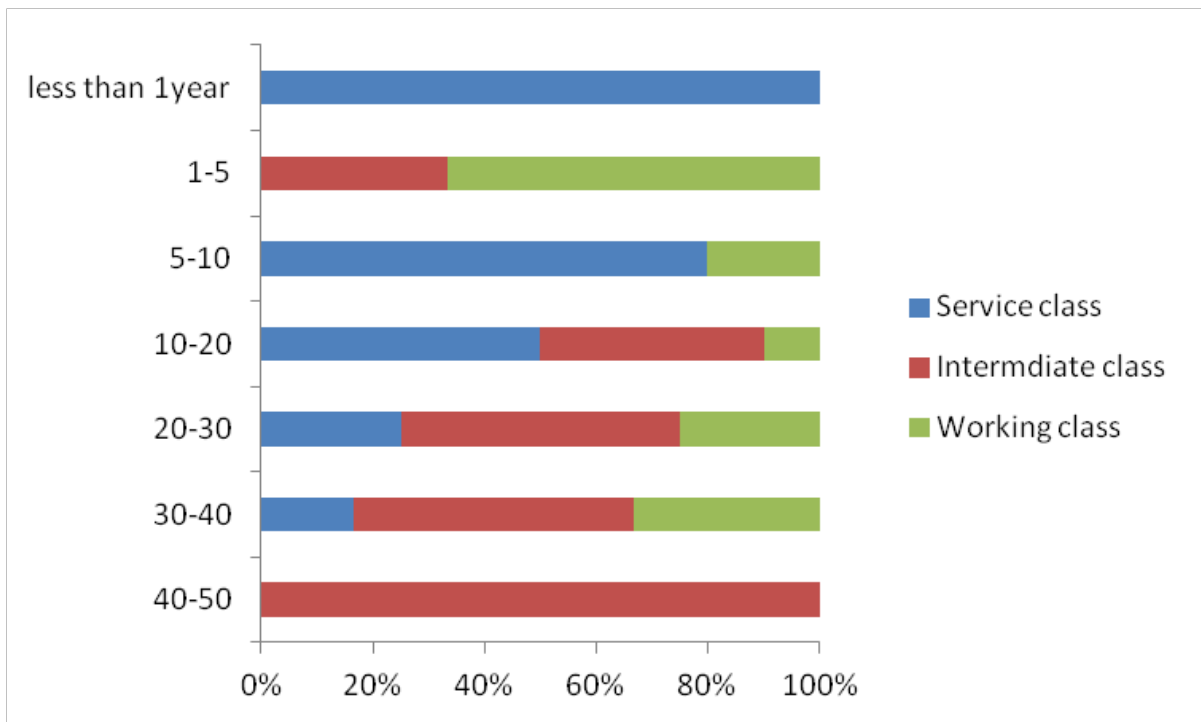


Figure 22. Social class distribution by length of residence in Monyash

Source: Survey by the author

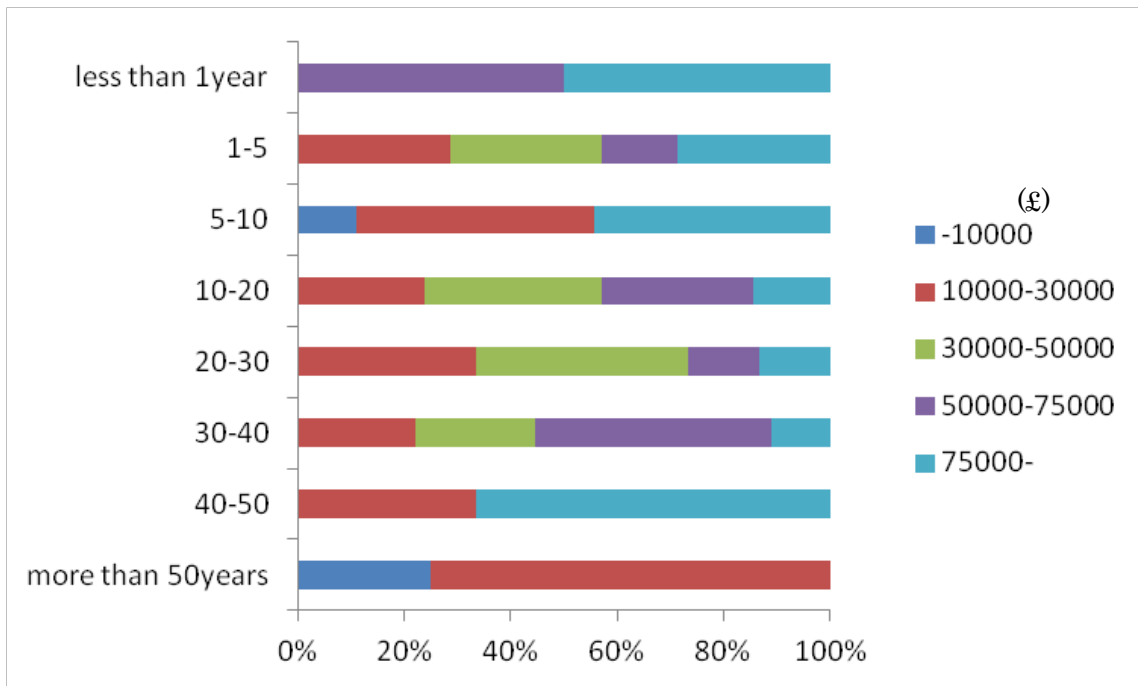


Figure 23. Distribution of annual household income by length of residence in Grindleford
 Source: Survey by the author

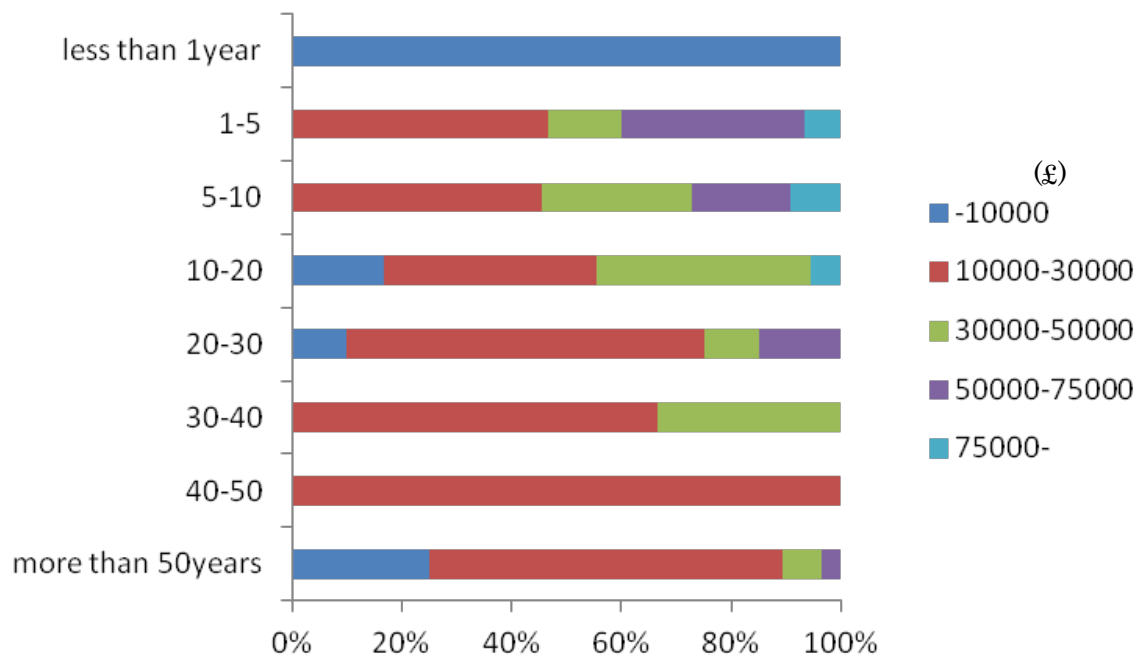


Figure 24. Distribution of annual household income by length of residence in Youlgrave
 Source: Survey by the author

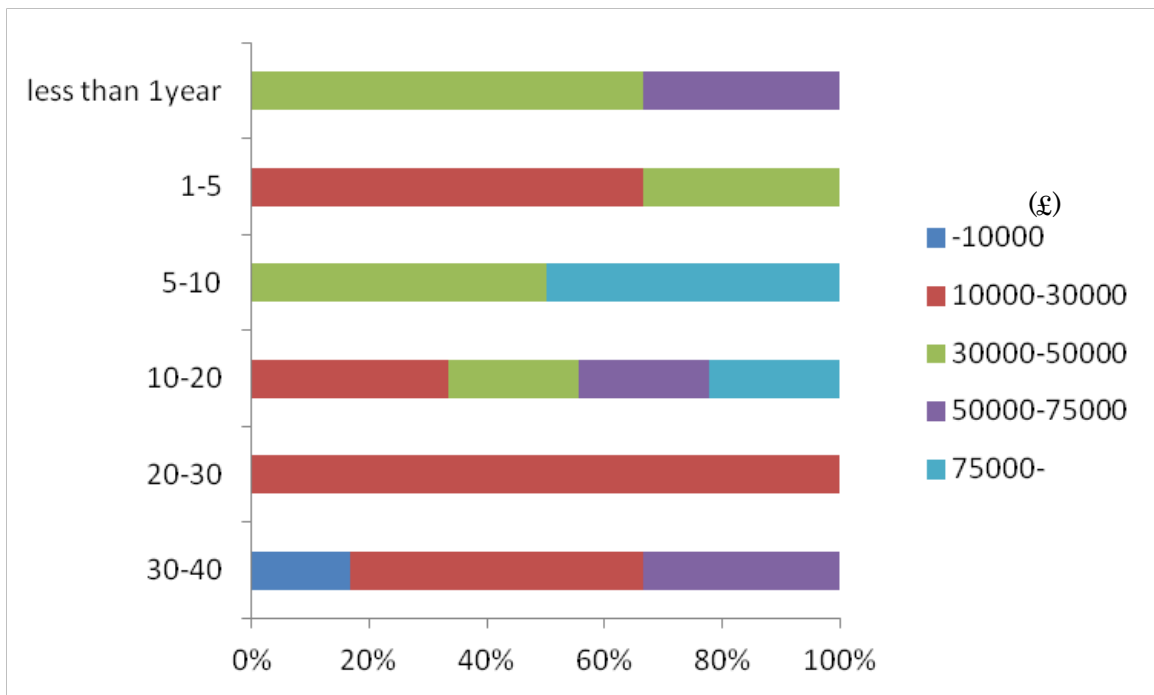


Figure 25. Distribution of annual household income by length of residence in Monyash
 Source: Survey by the author

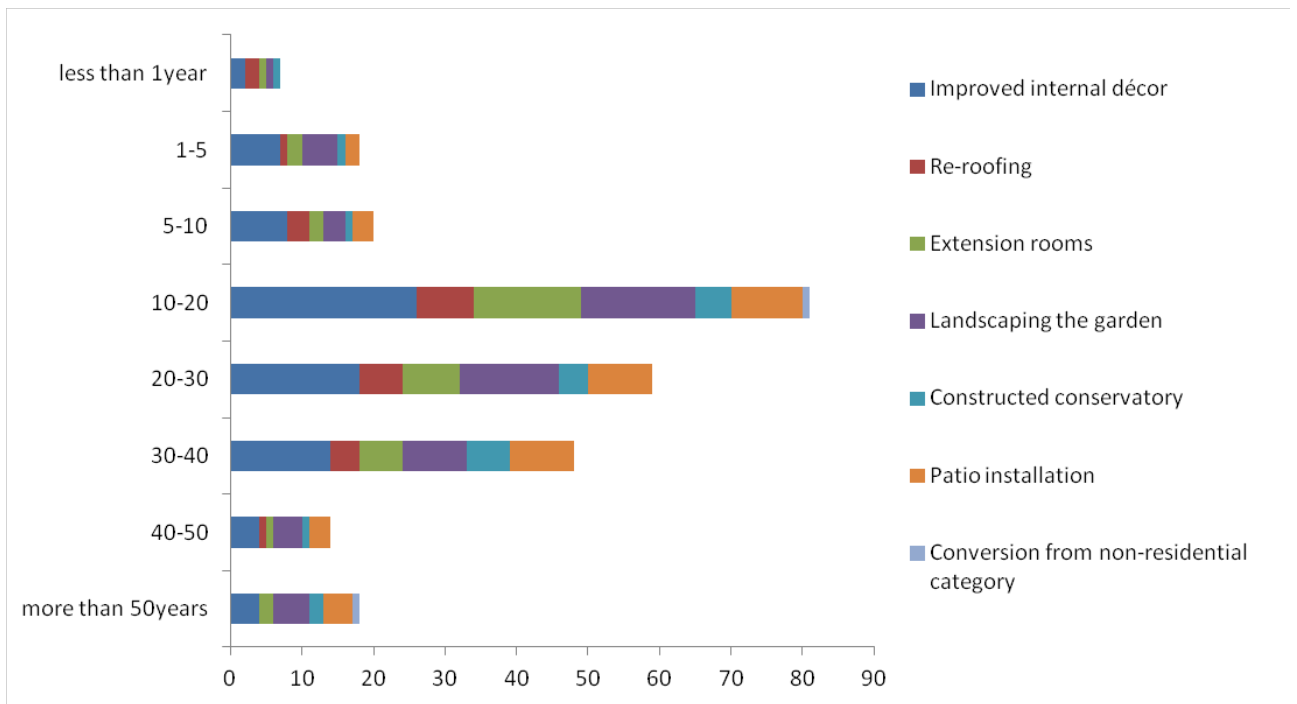


Figure 26. Number of housing refurbishments by length of residence in Grindleford
 Source: Survey by the author

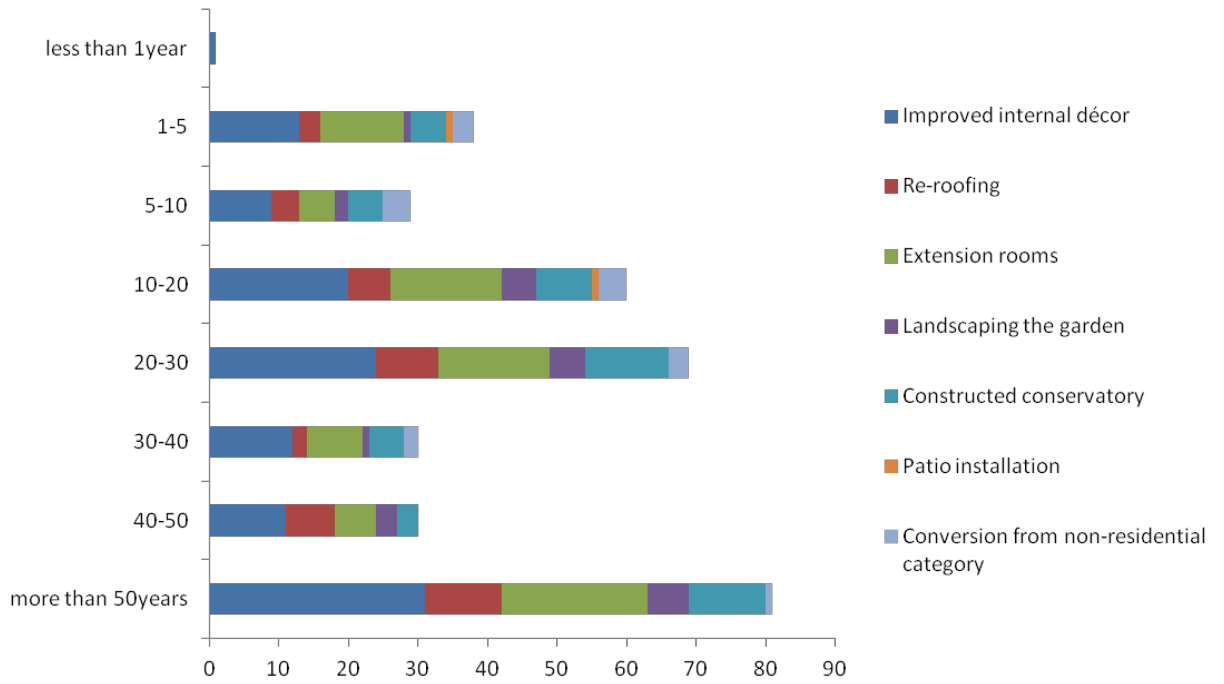


Figure 27. Number of housing refurbishments by length of residence in Youlgrave
 Source: Survey by the author

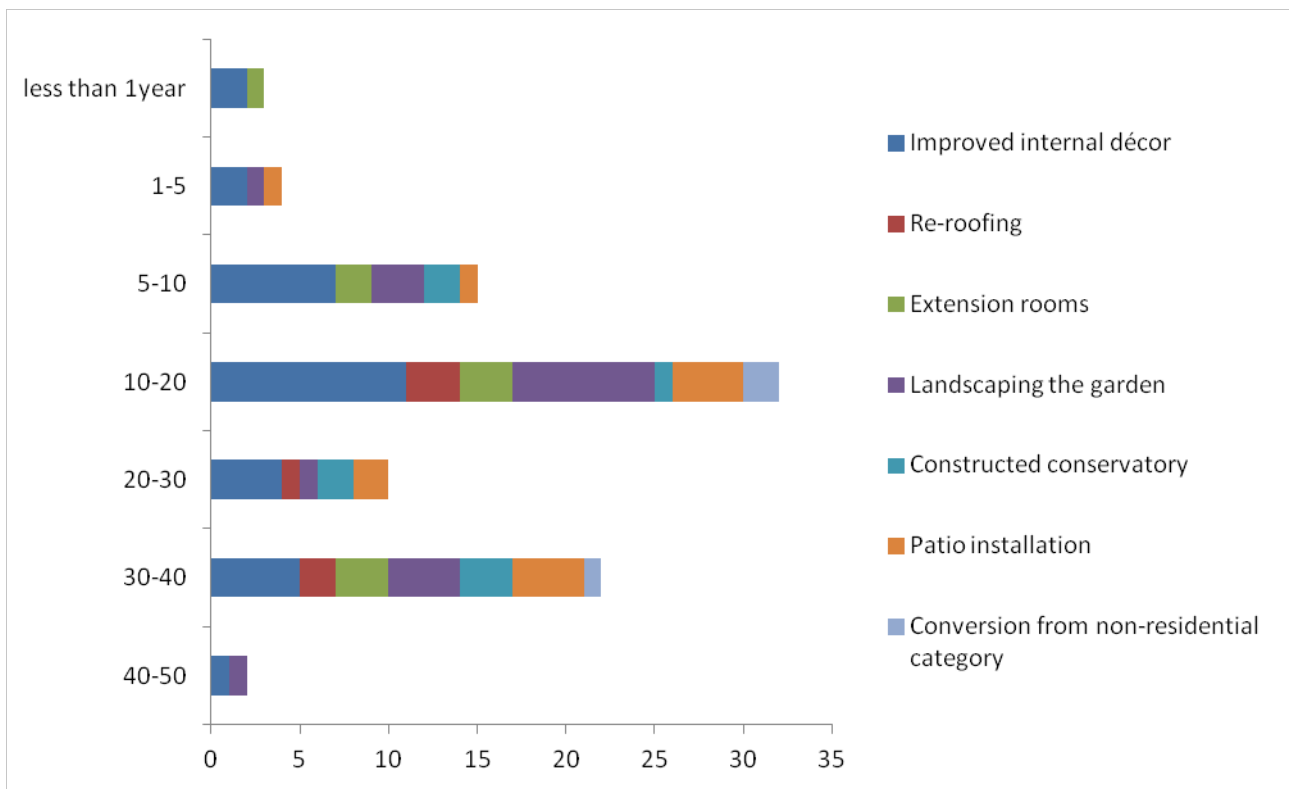


Figure 28. Number of housing refurbishments by length of residence in Monyash
 Source: Survey by the author

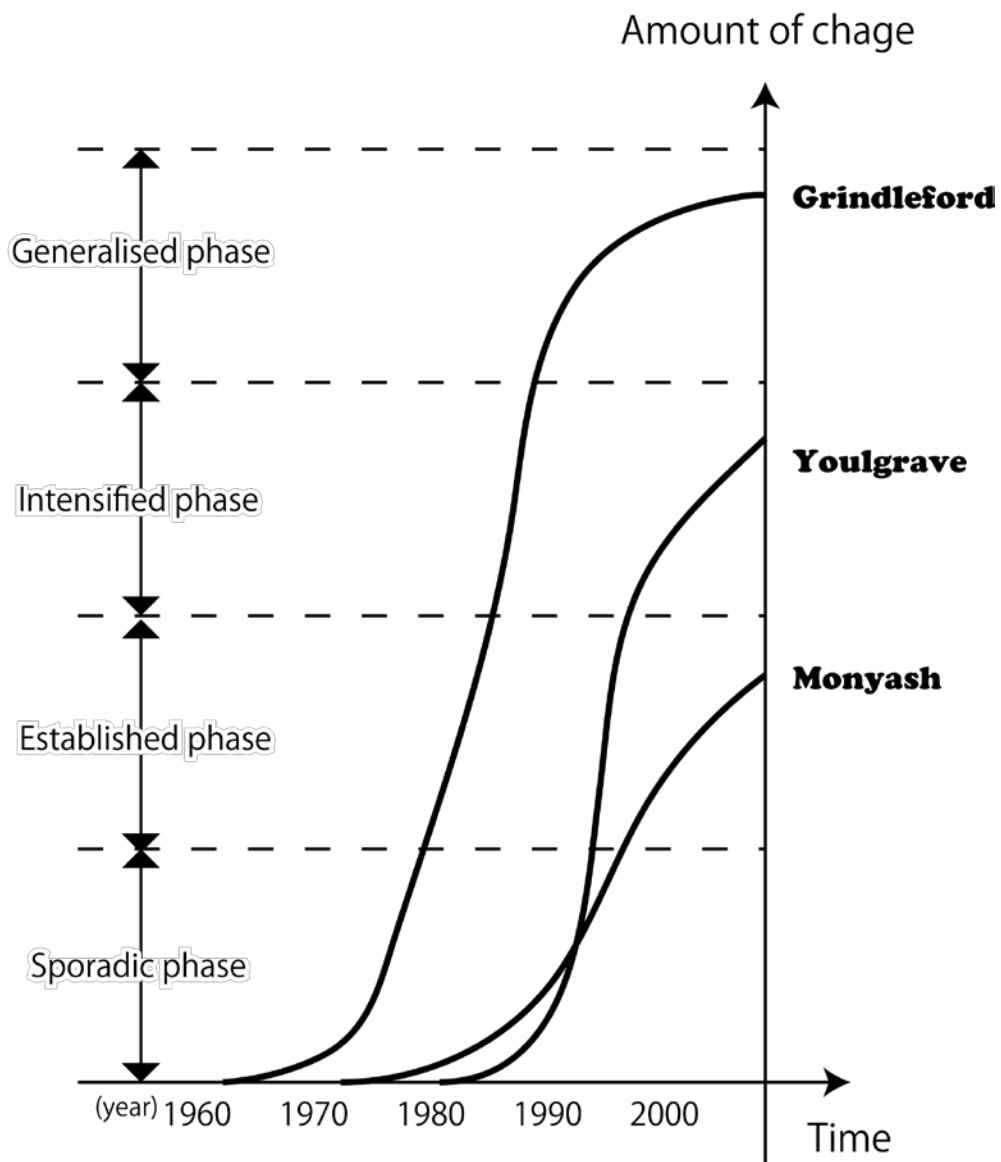


Figure 29. Stage model of rural gentrification in Derbyshire Dales District

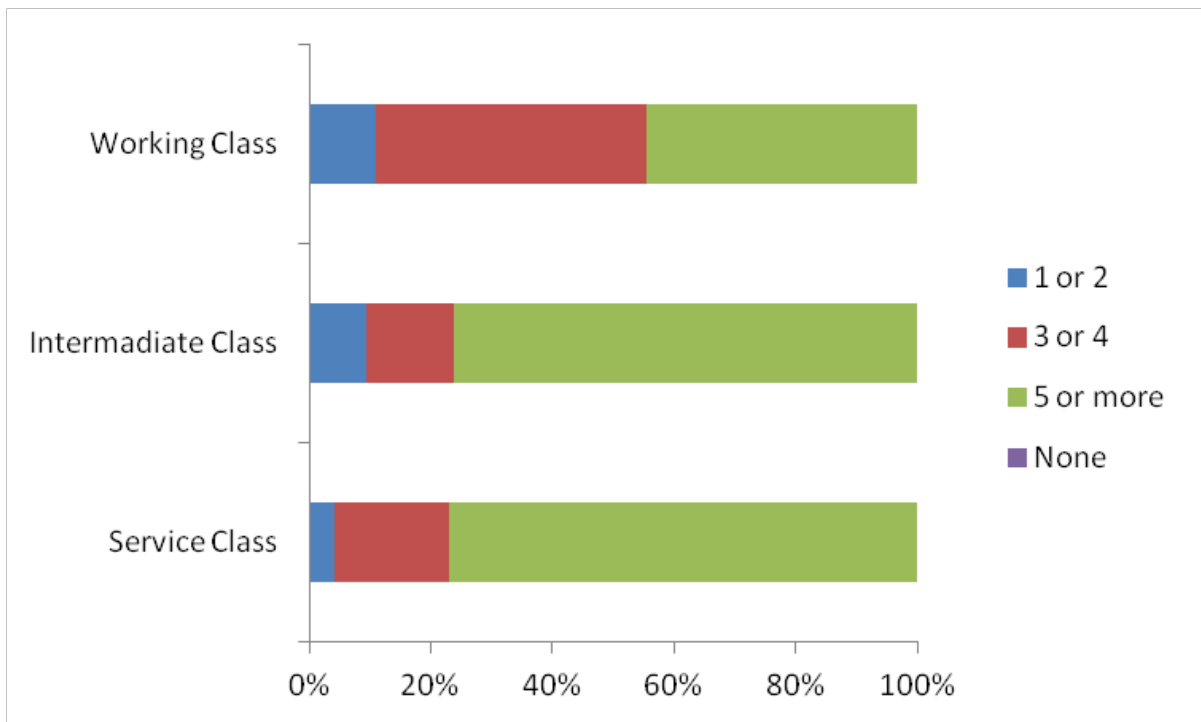


Figure 30. Distribution of close friends outside the village by social class in Grindleford
Source: Survey by the author

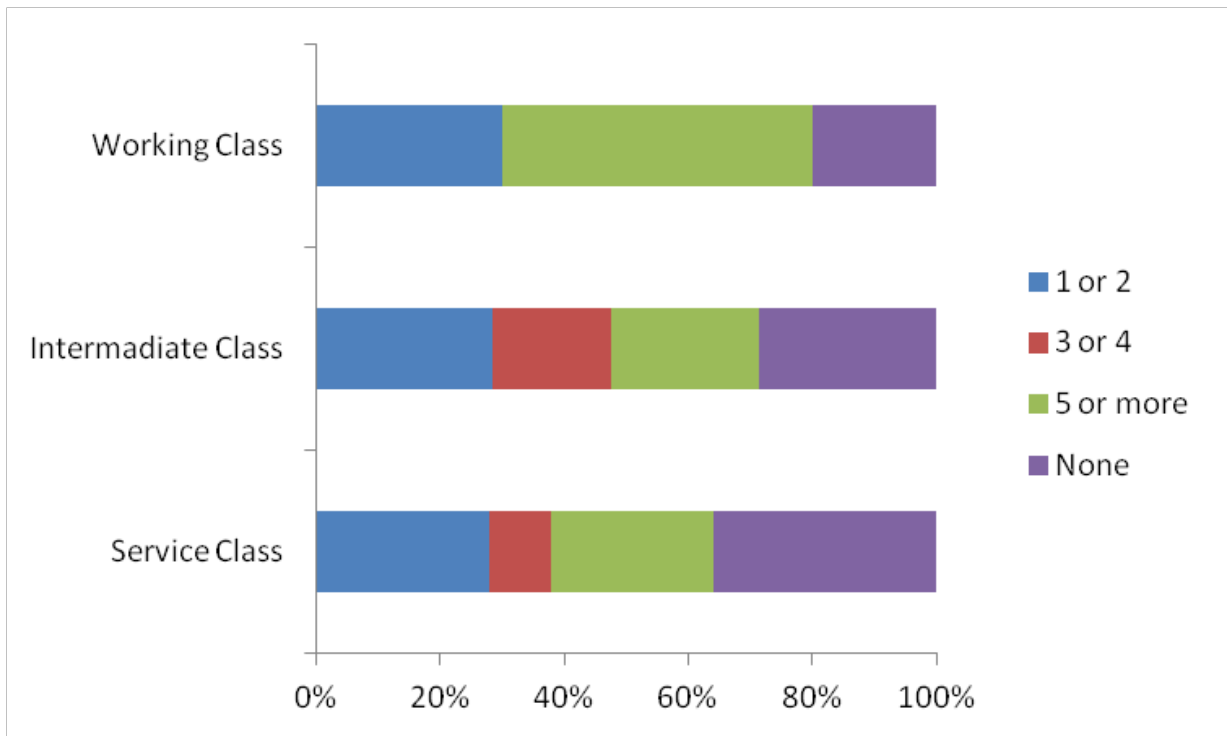


Figure 31. Distribution of close friends inside the village by social class in Grindleford
 Source: Survey by the author

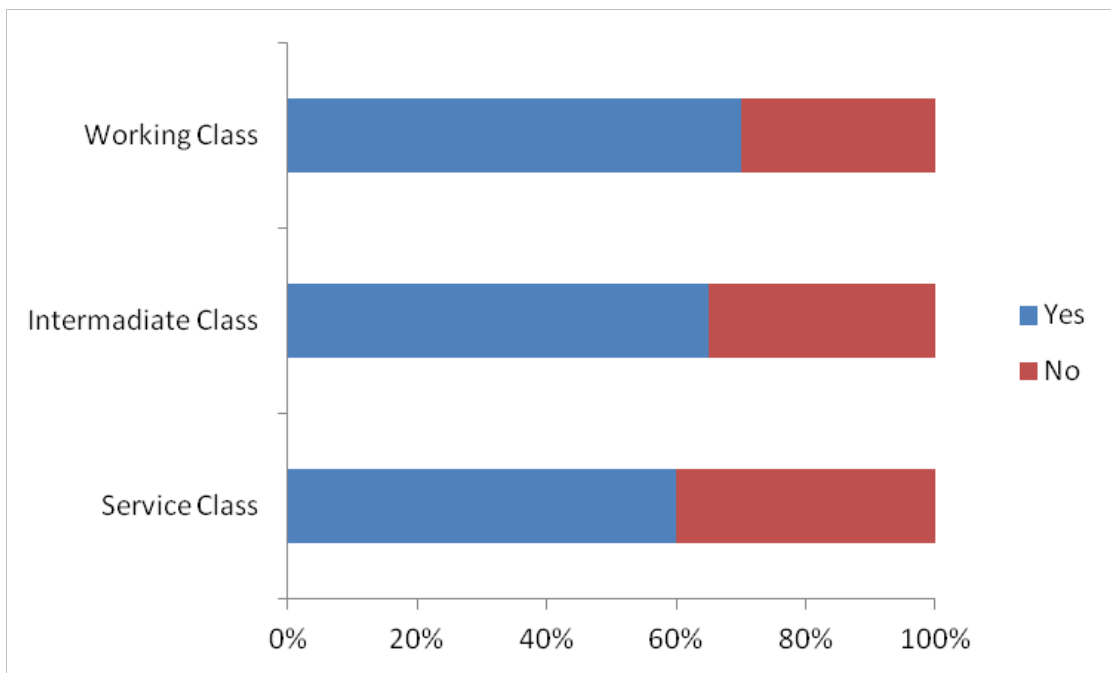


Figure 32. Distribution of participation in local social clubs by social class in Grindleford
Source: Survey by the author

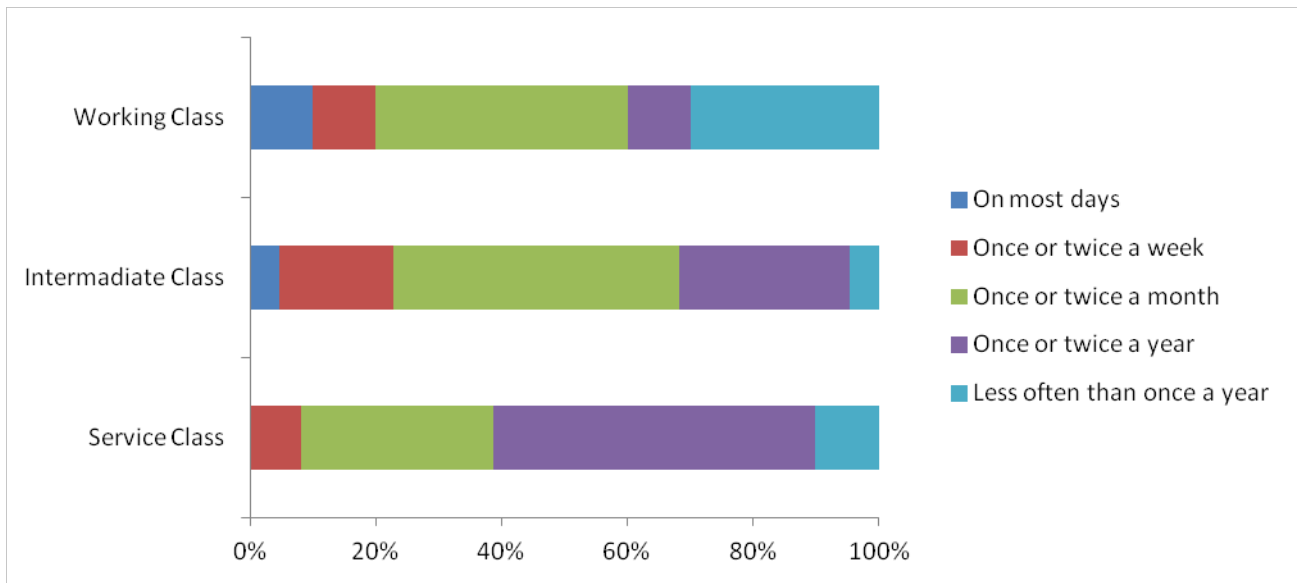


Figure 33. Frequency of using local pubs by social class in Grindleford
 Source: Survey by the author

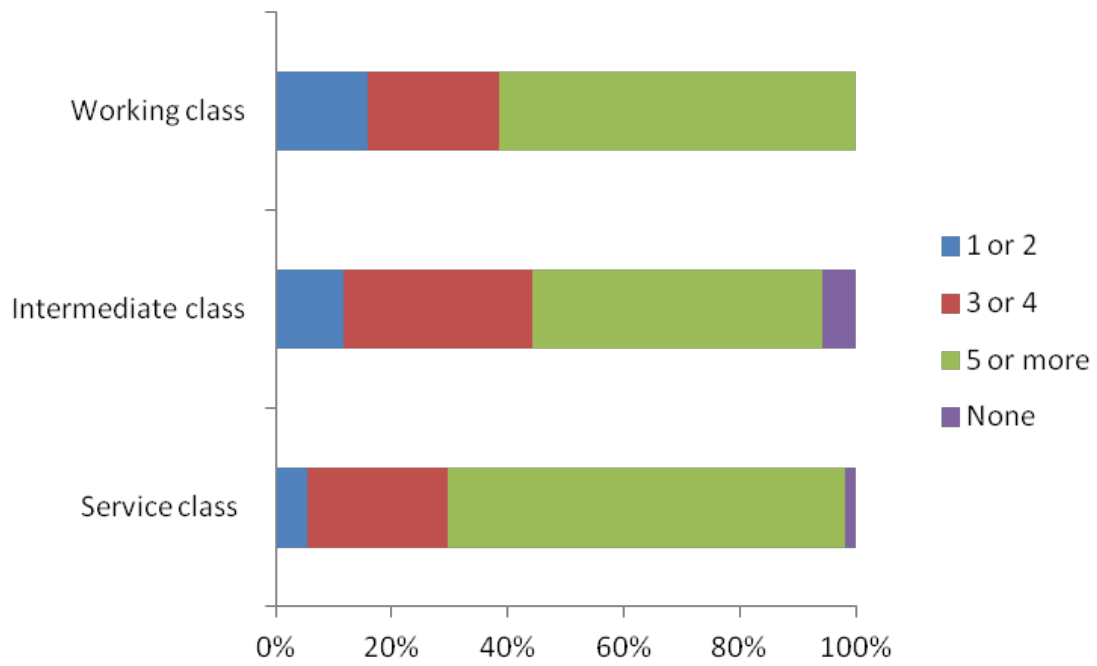


Figure 34. Distribution of close friends outside the village by social class in Youlgrave
 Source: Survey by the author

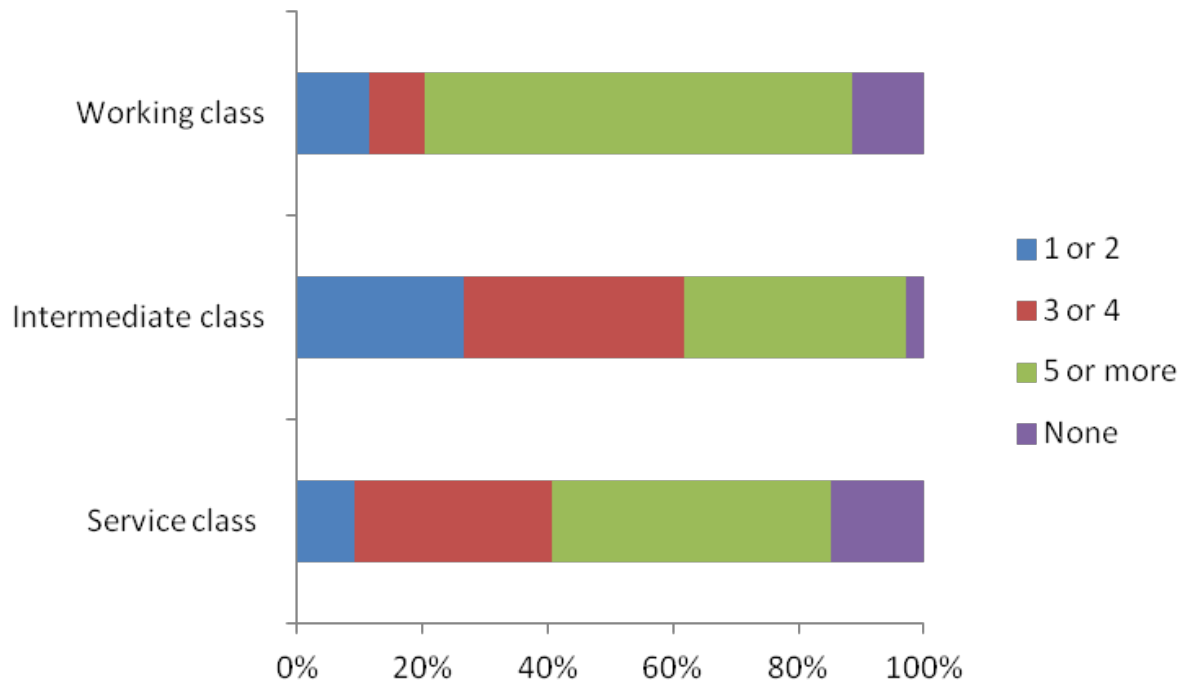


Figure 35. Distribution of close friends inside the village by social class in Youlgrave
Source: Survey by the author

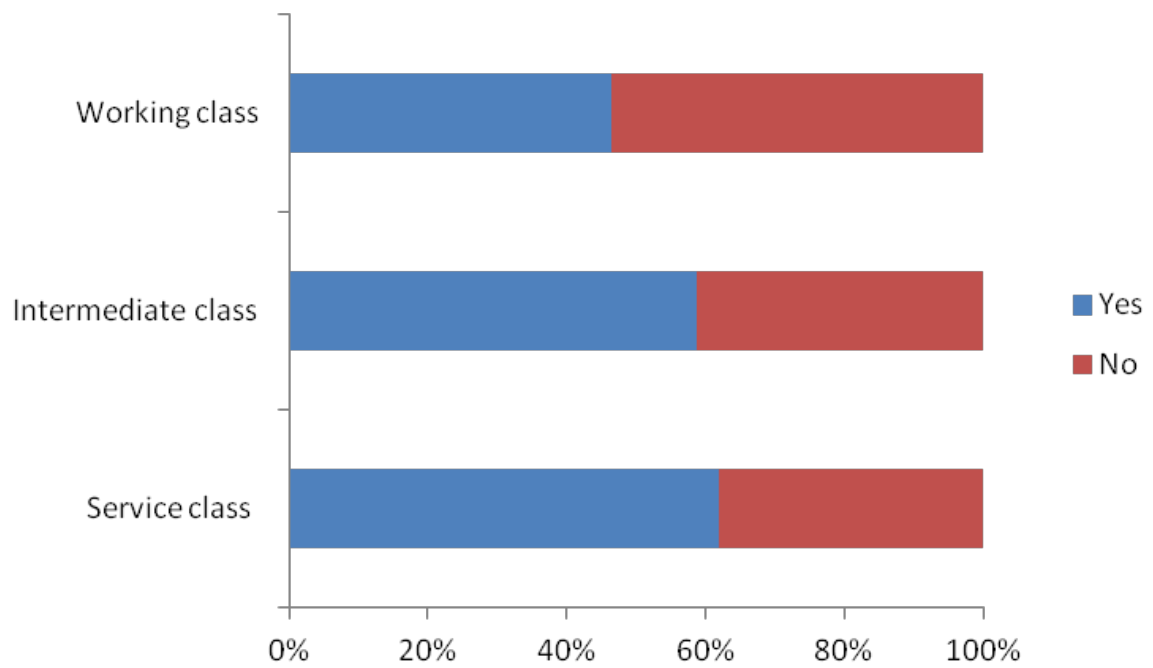


Figure 36. Distribution of participation in local social clubs by social class in Youlgrave
 Source: Survey by the author

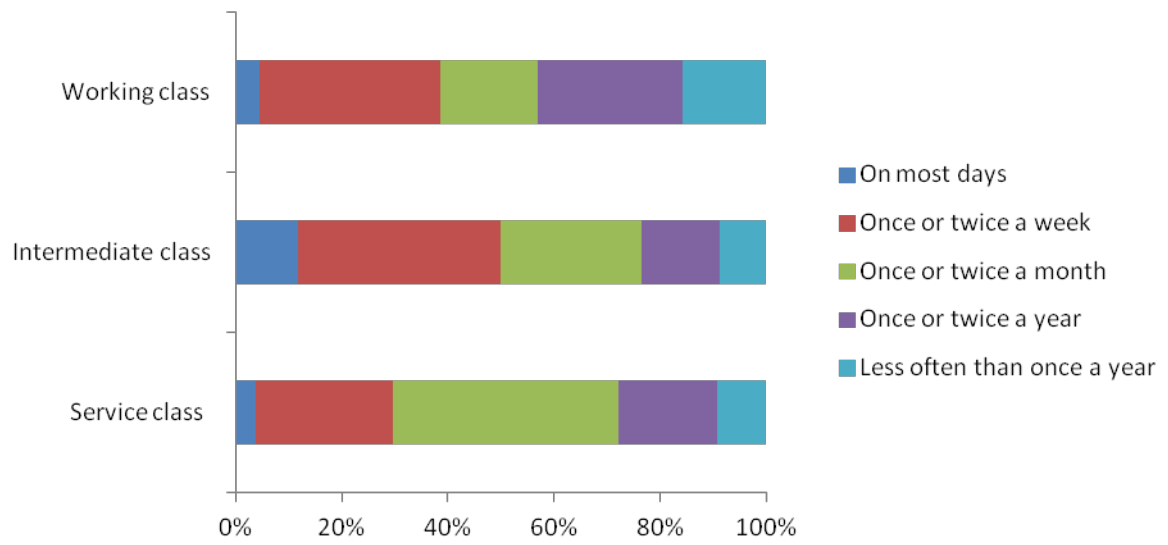


Figure 37. Frequency of using local pubs by social class in Youlgrave
 Source: Survey by the author

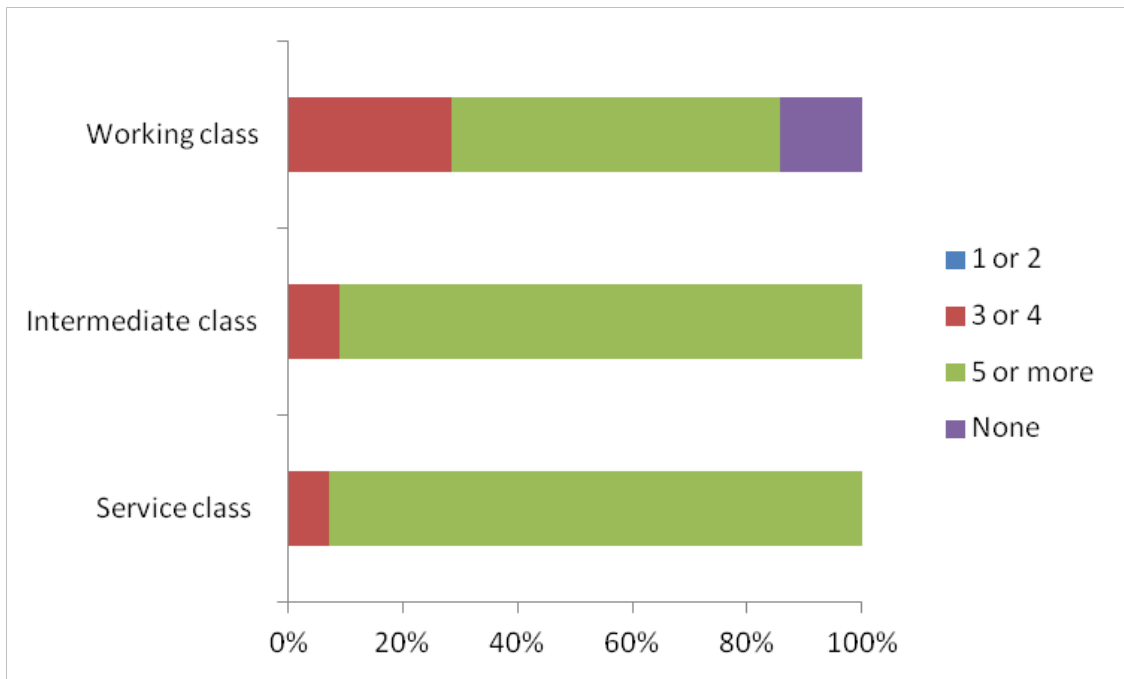


Figure 38. Distribution of close friends outside the village by social class in Monyash
 Source: Survey by the author

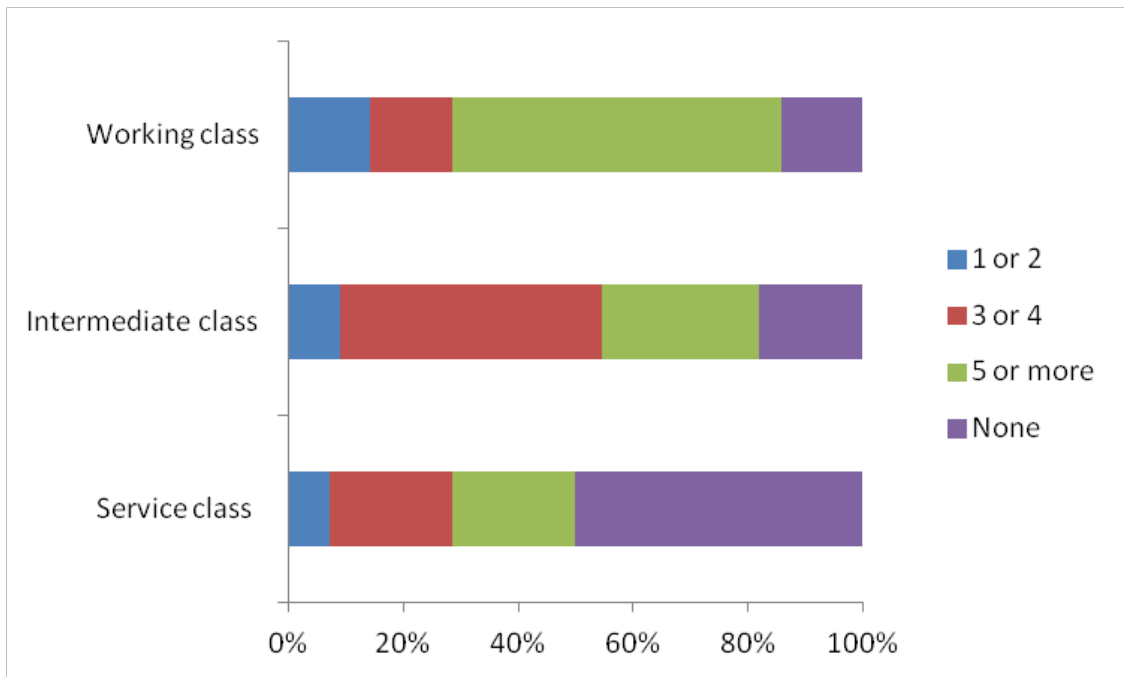


Figure 39. Distribution of close friends inside the village by social class in Monyash
 Source: Survey by the author

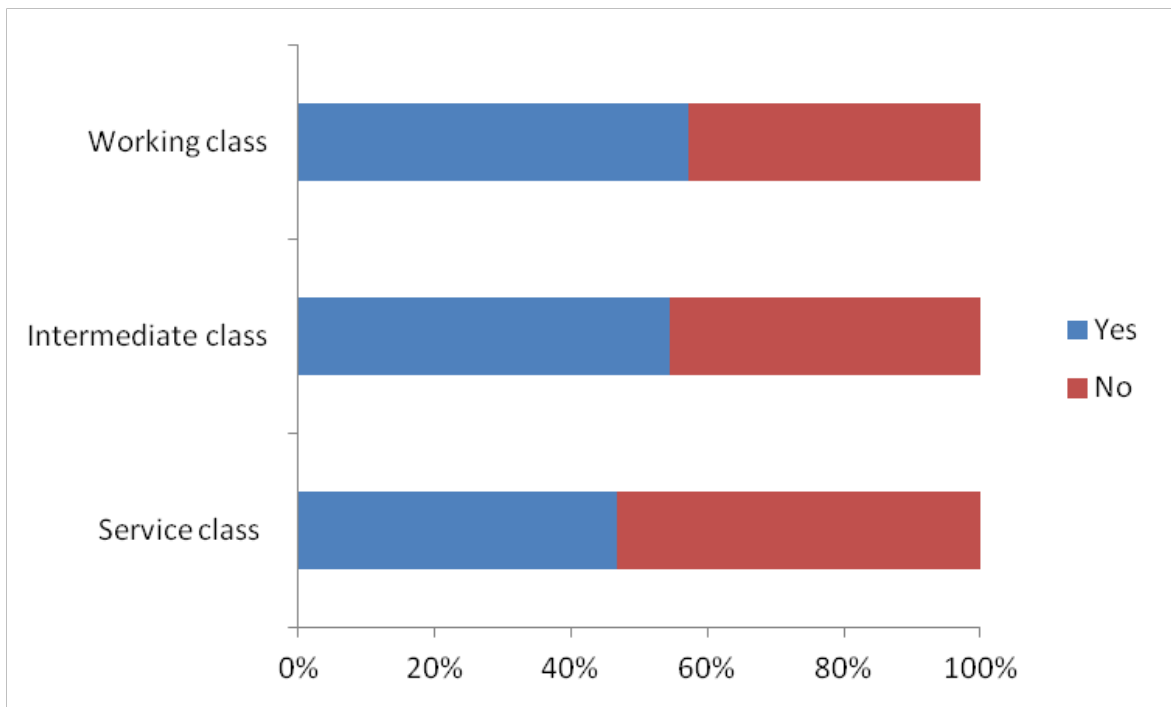


Figure 40. Distribution of participation in local social clubs by social class in Monyash
Source: Survey by the author

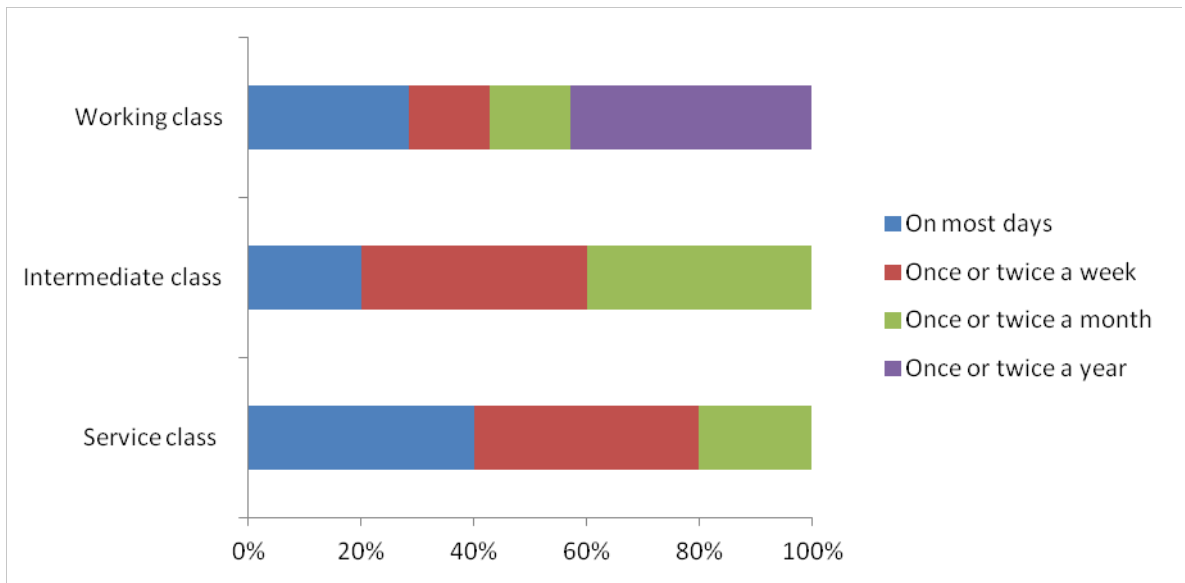


Figure 41. Frequency of using local pubs by social class in Monyash

Source: Survey by the author

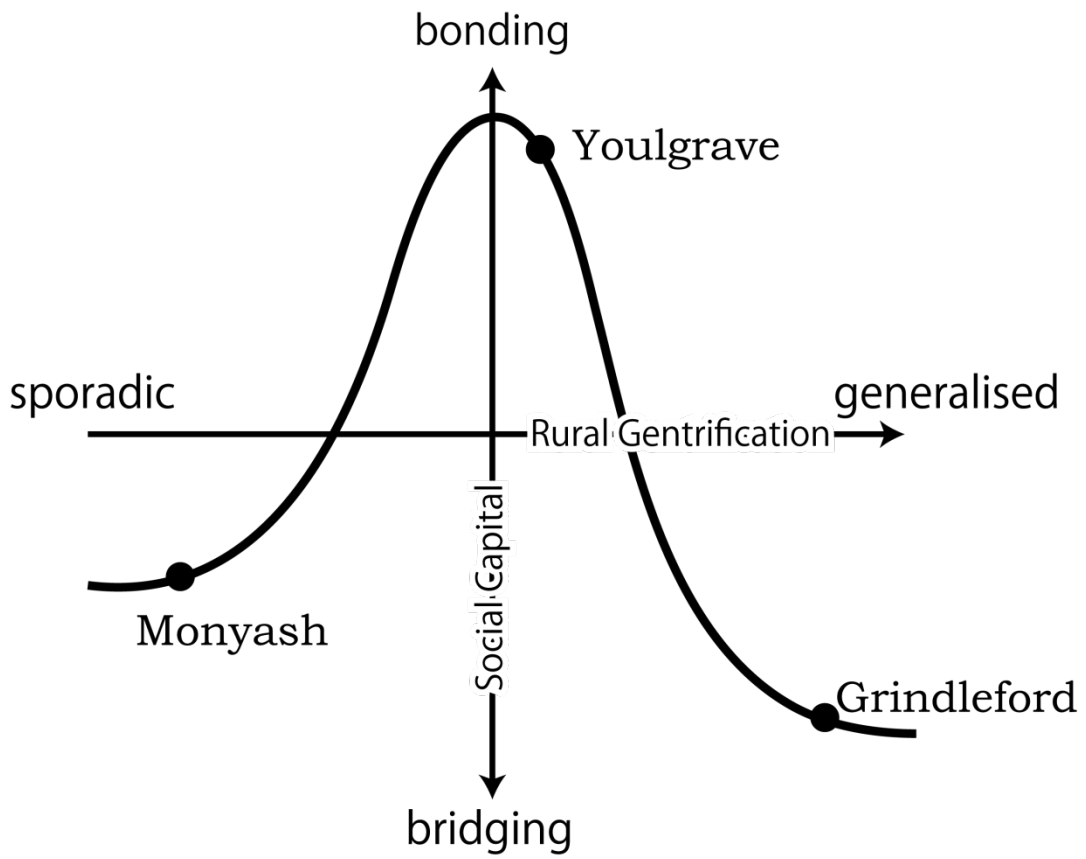


Figure 42. Social capital transition with rural gentrification

Table1. Classification of social class by SEG

Working class SEG	Description	Intermediate class SEG	Description	Service class SEG	Description
SEG 7	Personal service workers	SEG 2.1	Small employers (established)	SEG 1.1	Employees large establishments
SEG 8	Foremen and supervisors	SEG 6	Junior non-manual	SEG 1.2	Managers large establishments
SEG 9	Skilled manual workers	SEG 12	Other professionals/ own account	SEG 2.2	Managers in small establishments
SEG 10	Semi-skilled manual workers	SEG 13	Farmers employees	SEG 3	Professional self-employed
SEG 11	Unskilled manual workers	SEG 14	Farmers own account	SEG 4	Professional employees
SEG 15	Agricultural workers	SEG 5.1	Ancillary workers and artists	SEG 5.2	Foremen and supervisors non manual

Source: Wheway, 2011

Table 2. Classification of social class by NS-SEC

Service Class	1	Higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations
	1.1	Large employers and higher managerial and administrative occupations
	1.2	Higher professional occupations
	2	Lower managerial, administrative and professional occupations
Intermediate Class	3	Intermediate occupation
	4	Small employers and own account workers
Working Class	5	Lower supervisory and technical occupations
	6	Semi-routine occupations
	7	Routine occupations
	8	Never worked and long-term unemployed

Source: Phillips, 2007

Appendix



Questionnaire about social change in Youlgrave

This questionnaire is being conducted by myself, Ryo Iizuka, as part of a PhD research project at Tokyo Metropolitan University in collaboration with the University of Leicester. It is being conducted to explore rural social change in the UK and Japan. Information from this questionnaire will be used only for academic research purposes and will be anonymised. The information will be stored in a secure location, either at the University of Leicester or Tokyo Metropolitan University and will not be passed on to any third parties. You may ask for data relating to you to be removed from the study so long as this information can clearly be identified (once anonymised identifying an individual's responses can be extremely difficult).

It is appreciated that head of household complete the questionnaire, because the questionnaire is considered for household. Please fill out as fully as possible. If you have any questions, please feel free to me (contact information provided at the end of the questionnaire). I will return to collect the questionnaires in 5 days time, or you can post it back to me at the address shown at the end of questionnaire. Completion and submission of the questionnaire will be deemed to indicate that you are willing for me to use the information according to the conditions laid out above. Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Your views on Youlgrave

Questions in this section ask what you think about Youlgrave in everyday life.

1. How would you describe Youlgrave?

.....
.....

2. Do you think Youlgrave is...(Please tick only one box)

- a) Suburb town [] b) Rural town [] c) Suburb village [] d) Rural village []
e) Other [].....

3. How long have you lived in Youlgrave?..... years.....months

4. Has Youlgrave changed since first you lived here?

Yes [] No []

If **Yes**, please specify in what ways.

.....
.....

5. Have you lived in other places than Youlgrave?

Yes [] No [] (If **No**, please go to Q8)

6. What are your reasons for moving to Youlgrave?

.....
.....

7. Where have you lived before moving to Youlgrave after you were 18 years old?

Place name and county When do you live?

.....
.....
.....

8. What do you like about Youlgrave?

.....
.....

9. Is there anything you **dislike** about Youlgrave?

Yes [] No []

If **Yes**, please describe what it is you dislike.

.....
.....

Community and social networks

Questions in this section ask how you interact with people and outside Youlgrave.

10. Do you participate in local social groups in Youlgrave?

Yes [] No []

If **Yes**, please write the group name

.....
.....
.....

11. How many of your **close friends** live in Youlgrave?

a) 1 or 2 [] b) 3 or 4 []
c) 5 or more [] d) None [] (If **None**, Please go to Q 13)

12. How often are you in contact with them?

a) On most days [] b) Once or twice a week []
c) Once or twice a month [] d) Once or twice a year []
e) Less often than once a year []

13. How many your **close friends** live outside of Youlgrave?

a) 1 or 2 [] b) 3 or 4 []
c) 5 or more [] d) None [] (If **None**, Please go to Q 16)

14. Where do they live? (Please write the place names.)

.....

15. How often are you in contact with them?

a) On most days [] b) Once or twice a week []
c) Once or twice a month [] d) Once or twice a year []
e) Less often than once a year []

16. How often do you talk any of your neighbours?

- a) On most days b) Once or twice a week
c) Once or twice a month d) Once or twice a year
e) Less often than once a year

17. How often do you use shops in Youlgrave?

- a) On most days b) Once or twice a week
c) Once or twice a month d) Once or twice a year
e) Less often than once a year

18. How often do you use pubs in Youlgrave?

- a) On most days b) Once or twice a week
c) Once or twice a month d) Once or twice a year
e) Less often than once a year

Household and lifestyle

Questions in this section ask how residents realise their life in Youlgrave.

19. How would you describe your property?

- a) Owned outright b) Owned with a mortgage or loan
c) Rented from council or housing association
d) Rented from private landlord or letting agency
e) Other (Please describe).....

20. How would you describe your household?

- a) One person household b) Couple with no children
c) Couple with dependent children
d) Single parent with dependent children
e) All children non-dependent households f) Other household (Please specify).....

21. Which is the main purpose of this property?

- a) Permanent living b) Place for weekends
c) Place for holidays d) Other (Please specify).....
If you chose **c**), how many days per year do you live in this property?.....days

22. When was this property built?

.....

23. What was following important factor in choosing your current property? (Please tick all that apply)

- a) Character of building b) Proximity to your workplace
c) Proximity to shop facilities d) Proximity to pubs
e) Proximity to urban areas f) An investment
g) Rural landscape h) Rural community
i) Good environment for children
j) Other (Please describe).....

24. What was the condition of your property worked when you first moved into it?

- a) No need for renovation b) Needed minor renovation
c) Needed major renovation d) Other (Please describe).....

25. Have you undertaken any following type of refurbishments to your property?

- Improved internal décor Yes No
Re-roofing Yes No
Extension rooms Yes No

- Landscaping the garden Yes [] No []
- Constructed conservatory Yes [] No []
- Patio installation Yes [] No []
- Conversion from non-residential category Yes [] No []

Other [] (Please specify).....

26. (Related to Q25) Was these works undertaken by yourself or was somebody else employed?

- Improved internal décor Yourself [] Employed someone []
- Re-roofing Yourself [] Employed someone []
- Extension rooms Yourself [] Employed someone []
- Landscaping the garden Yourself [] Employed someone []
- Constructed conservatory Yourself [] Employed someone []
- Patio installation Yourself [] Employed someone []
- Conversion from non-residential category Yourself [] Employed someone []
- Other (You specified) Yourself [] Employed someone []

27. How would you describe the style of your house? (Please describe freely)

.....

28. How would you describe the style of your garden? (Please describe freely)

.....

29. Do you keep any pets or other animals/birds?

Yes [] No []

If **Yes**, please specify.

.....

30. Do you buy a daily newspaper?

Yes [] No []

If **Yes**, please specify.

.....

31. Do you buy magazines regularly?

Yes [] No []

If **Yes**, please specify.

.....

32. What kind of book do you read **most** regularly?

- a) Detective stories and whodunits [] b) Sci-fi and fantasy []
- c) Romances [] d) Biographies and autographies []
- e) Modern literature [] f) Religious books []
- g) Self-help books [] g) Other [](Please specify).....

33. What kind of music do you listen **most** regularly?

- a) Rock, including Indie [] b) Jazz []
- c) World music [] d) Classical music []
- e) Country and Western [] f) Electronic Dance Music []
- g) Heavy Metal [] h) Urban, including Hip Hop and R&B []
- i) Other [](Please specify).....

34. Which of the following do you drink **most** regularly? (Please tick only one)

- a) Red wine [] b) White wine []
- c) Champagne [] d) Real/Cask ale []
- e) Other ale [] f) Lager []

- g) Whisky h) Other (Please specify).....
 i) Don't drink alcohols.

Personal data and employment

In this final section there are some questions about yourself and your household.

35. Could you indicate your gender?

- a) Male b) Female

36. Which age band do you fall within?

- a) 18-21 b) 22-29 c) 30-39
 d) 40-49 e) 50-59 f) 60-69
 g) 70-79 h) 80-89 i) 90 and over

37. What education qualifications do you possess? (Please choose all of the following which apply to you)

- a) A School Certificate b) C.S.E's
 c) GCE's d) GCSE'S
 e) O-levels f) A levels
 g) Degree (B.A./B.Sc) h) Higher Degree (MSc, PhD)
 i) Professional/Vocational Qualification j) Other

38. Which of these figures is nearest to annual gross household income (before tax)?

- a) Under £10,000 b) £10,000-£14,999
 c) £15,000-£19,999 d) £20,000-£24,999
 e) £25,000-£29,999 f) £30,000--£39,999
 g) £ 40,000-£49,999 h) £50,000-£74,999
 i) £75,000-£99,999 j) £100,000-£149,999
 k) £150,000-£199,999 l) +£200,000

39. What is occupational status of the household member with the largest income?

- a) Employer b) Self-employment
 c) Full-time employment d) Part-time employment
 e) Looking for employment f) In full-time education
 g) Retired h) Other occupational status

If you choose **a), b), c), d), g) and h)**, please go to Q40.

40. What is last/current main job and job title?

.....

41. How many people worked/work for the employer at the place he/she worked/work?

.....persons

42. Where is his/her work place?

.....

That's all!

Many thanks for taking your time!

I would like to do a follow-up interview with some of the people who reply to this questionnaire. If you would be willing to help me by being interviewed, please write your name, contact details (Tel, address, e-mail etc...) below. I will then call back to adjust the schedule. I would appreciate very much your cooperation.

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Important information is on the back of this page!!

Investigator information

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Returning the questionnaire

I will come and collect the questionnaire on 15th, 16th and 17th July. Besides, I will stay at the **Bulls Head Hotel** until 26th July. You are welcomed to contact with me directly!