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The Chesterfield Accent and Dialect: Borderland Identity, Perceptions and Production

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Sheffield Hallam University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Candidate Declaration

I hereby declare that:

1. I have not been enrolled for another award of the University, or other academic or professional organisation, whilst undertaking my research degree.

2. None of the material contained in the thesis has been used in any other submission for an academic award.

3. I am aware of and understand the University's policy on plagiarism and certify that this thesis is my own work. The use of all published or other sources of material consulted have been properly and fully acknowledged.

4. The work undertaken towards the thesis has been conducted in accordance with the SHU Principles of Integrity in Research and the SHU Research Ethics Policy.

5. The word count of the thesis is 72,158.

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Abstract

This thesis is a first wave (Eckert, 2012) sociolinguistic study that presents perceptions of East Midland and South Yorkshire accents and dialects from the perspective of three generations of Chesterfield locals. Chesterfield is a town in North East Derbyshire, England, close to several administrative, perceptual, and linguistic borders: Derbyshire and Yorkshire, the Midlands and the North; GOAT and FACE monophthongal and/or diphthongal realisations. As such, Chesterfield is regarded as a border town, with the identity of Chesterfield locals hypothesised to be either 'hybrid' (Llamas, 2010: 235-6) or affected by a 'heightened diversity' (Britain, 2010: 200) due to its close geographical proximity with Sheffield, South Yorkshire.

This study analyes the results of dialect recognition tasks that elicited how East Midland and Sheffield voices are indexed (Silverstein, 2003) to a largely Chesterfield audience. The same respondents were asked to position lines on a map task which asked for the placement of a North/South and potentially Midland dividing line in England to better understand regional identity from an East Midland location. These data are then compared against the same respondents' word list data in order to comprehend more about the realisation of the GOAT and FACE vowels in Chesterfield across three generations, where the literature had previously understood both vowels to be more dipthongal in Chesterfield and more monophthongal in Sheffield (Finnegan, 2011).

These data are interpreted using both qualitative and quantitative techniques, which suggest age could be a key variable both in dialect recognition and GOAT and FACE linguistic production in Chesterfield. A 'scale of northern-ness' is proposed to be instrumental in the placement of local voices, where the Midlands is understood to be a transition zone from northern to southern linguistic features by non-linguists. With historical rivalry and political differences between Chesterfield and South Derbyshire/Nottinghamshire still evident, Chesterfield appears to be northward facing despite the enduring wish to remain administratively separate from Sheffield.

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Acknowledgements

Foreword

FISHIN' DEE-DARS BY J.R.BOOKER ('THE BARD OF BOZER[1]'): NO DATE

Now, from Spiretown[2] to Sheffield it's only about 10 miles,
As the crow flies, it's not very far,
But folk theer arnt Chezzies[3], they don't talk like us,
Thas entered the Land of Dee-Dar[4]

Now, there's nowt wrong wi''em – they meck fine steel,
Cutlery, spades, forks 'n' trowels,
But whatever they mix with their steel,
They also mix in with their vowels.

Sat nice and quiet on River Trent, about 30 of'em file past,
On the trek to their pegs from the coach.
"Eyup, DEE!. DAR wor 'ere a fortnit sin' – ", said "festen",
"Is there any big BREEYAM in 'ere? ---- Is there any big ROWACH?"

My mate Al worra Dee-Dar and you couldn't wish,
For a better, more honest friend.
He was a true-blue Wensder supporter'
Without the –a y –on the end

Owt outa ordinary, summat not rate,
Summat a little bit queer,
Thad 'ear 'im, "Heyup----Hode on a bit----,
There's a duck in hedge here"

Now, 99% -- well, 85 then, of the time,
I could pick up on a vowel-mangled word,
But this time he foxed me,
Something as I'd never heard!

I asked how he'd gone on fishing
"Net full" he said, "And I've fished wi' chays all day"
He's got me this time. Squats, pinkies- I know 'em all,
But what on God's Earth is a CHAY?

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[1] 'Bozer' is the local term for Bolsover, NE Derbyshire.
[2] 'Spiretown' refers to Chesterfield. Its parish church is known as the Crooked Spire, hence 'Spiretown'.
[3] 'Chezzies' refers to residents of Chesterfield.
[4] 'Dee Dar' is a term used in Chesterfield to refer to people from Sheffield.

I knew what would happen if I asked him,
He'd go to every table and gloat,
"Tha sees my mate stood theer at bar?
I can tell thee nar – he knows nowt!!"

So, I didn't ask him. I just put it down as one of those daft,
Dee-Dar sayings again,
But for ages after,
It kept twirling around in my brain.

Weeks later, summat happened,
And the twirling finally stopped
Al were locked art – he'd forgot his door-KAYS,
At last, at last! I could feel the penny as it dropped!

Al was a Dee-Dar rate enough,
It was Sheffield he was born and bred in,
Now I've put COIL in HOIL, I'll have to gerra WESH,
Oh, my God – Dee Dar is spreading!![5]

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[5] The poem can be accessed at: http://www.jrbooker.ukpoets.net/html/fishin__dee-dars.html along with
a glossary of terms. Copied here with permission from J.R.Booker's family.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Background

My thesis is a first wave sociolinguistic (Eckert, 2012) study of the accents and dialects connected with English market town, Chesterfield, and several nearby locations across South Yorkshire, Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire. Chesterfield is officially located within North East Derbyshire, East Midlands, but it is Sheffield, South Yorkshire, that is Chesterfield's closest city in terms of geographical proximity. Using methodological approaches inspired by perceptual dialectology, it is the first time that Chesterfield, positioned near to the administrative North/Midland border in England, has been given significant sociolinguistic attention. This study contributes to sociolinguistic studies of language and place, particularly border studies (Britain, 2010; Llamas, 2010; Watt and Llamas, 2017) that have often overlooked the border between the Midlands and the North of England, instead focussing on the English North/South divide, or the England/Scotland border. It also contributes to analyses and perceptions of East Midlands' speech (Braber, 2014, 2015, 2016), which have to date primarily focussed on Nottinghamshire. Comparisons are made between responses of three generations of Chesterfield residents in this study, not only teenagers. Teenagers have tended to be the main contributors in previous studies across the North/Midland regions of England (Braber, 2014; Montgomery, 2015), with older generations often excluded, particularly from regional mapping activities. Furthermore, participant opinions about East Midland and South Yorkshire speech and regional identity are compared with their own linguistic production in this thesis, to more fully explore the features that index (Silverstein, 2003) local accents to those who live close to the administrative border that separates the North from the Midlands, and test whether regional alliance has any impact on the linguistic production of FACE and GOAT vowels. Finally, this thesis will propose the notion of a 'scale of northern-ness' in connection with dialect recognition of (East) Midland accents and dialects, where the mental mapping of accents in this region seems to be tied to locals' belief that "northern is better" (Chapter 6).

Chesterfield was traditionally a working-class, coal mining, industrial, and farming town, which faced mass unemployment following the collapse of the coal industry in the late

1980s. According to Hardy (2010: 108), 25% of employment in the Chesterfield area had depended on the mining industry in 1989. This statistic postdates the nationwide miners' strike, which lasted for a year between March 1984 and March 1985, before which employment in connection with coal mining would have been significantly higher. The strike had tried unsuccessfully to prevent pit closures, after the National Coal Board had announced 20 pits would close with the loss of 20,000 jobs nationally (Pittam, 2019). The 1980s saw the decimation of the coal mining industry in Great Britain, with Markham colliery one of the last pits to close in the Chesterfield area in 1993 ('*Down the pit'*, 2022).
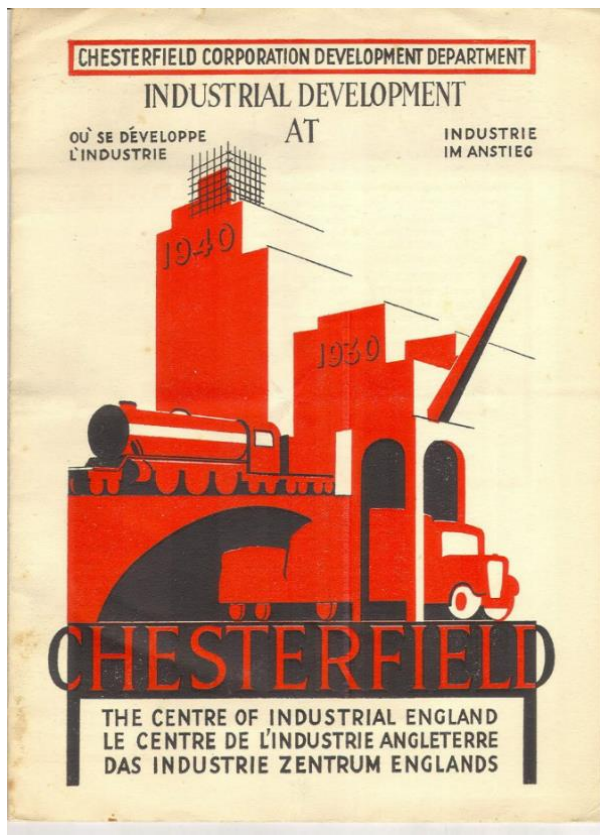
Figure 1.1: 'Industrial Development at Chesterfield', 1930. Chesterfield Museum's Collections.

Prior to the 1980s, Chesterfield was known as an 'industrial centre' (Bestall, 1978: 123). The town had prided itself on its heavy industry, as can be seen in Figure 1.1. This is the cover of a 1930s booklet, produced by Chesterfield Corporation Development Department, which was published in English, French and German, and proclaims in all three languages that Chesterfield is 'the centre of industrial England'. This phrase seems to play on the idea that Chesterfield was at the centre of industry, but also at the geographical centre of England,

which, although not precise, does hint at its Midland location[6]. '*Story of Chesterfield*' (2023, np) reports that Chesterfield was also once known as the 'Heart of Industrial England', again reinforcing its central location. However, following the demise of the coal industry, several manufacturing companies also closed in Chesterfield, such as Dema Glass in 2001 and Trebor sweet factory in 2005, which had been an employer in Chesterfield since 1939. However, recently there have been reports that industry is now thriving in the town ('*Story of Chesterfield*': 2023, np):

> It's home to a number of leading organisations such as international drinks company Global Brands, Robinsons PLC, Bryan Donkin Valves part of the global valve manufacturers AVK and the Fusion Group who specialise in the development and distribution of world leading technologies for the international utilities markets.

The same website states that Chesterfield is 'once again becoming a place of innovation', and business does seem to be developing in the town. For example, a business park was opened in 2022, just outside of Chesterfield town centre, named the 'Northern Gateway Enterprise Centre'. This enterprise received funding from the South Yorkshire Investment Fund, which invested £5.83m in its development (Marsh, 2022). It is of note that a South Yorkshire fund invested in Chesterfield, an East Midland location, clearly outside of the South Yorkshire region. This may highlight that in some respects, the border between the two locations is blurred: Chesterfield's position close to the border with South Yorkshire seems to have legitimised this investment. South Yorkshire Investment Fund's confidence in seeing a return on their investment could be based on Chesterfield's geographical position within England, and travel links that connect it to major northern cities, whilst the moniker of the business enterprise suggests that Chesterfield's main business today is north facing.

Chesterfield's economy also relies on retail and tourism. '*Story of Chesterfield*' (2023, np) presents Chesterfield in a positive light to readers who may wish to visit or invest in the town, which they call 'the gateway to the Peak District' (ibid): It seems that Chesterfield is often portrayed as the doorway to somewhere else. However, not wishing to undersell the

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[6] The Meridan monument near Coventry traditionally marked England's central point, but in 2002 Ordinance Survey data placed the geographical centre in Fenny Drayton, Leicestershire (Halifax, 2015). However, popular mythology places the central point of England in various locations across the East and West Midlands ('Where is the exact centre of Britain', 2023).

merits of the town itself, the website recommends visiting The Parish Church of Saint Mary and All Saints, known as the Crooked Spire. Its spire leans approximately 9 feet 6 inches from the centre, and visitors can take a tour up to the base of its twisted spire. It is believed that a lack of craftsmen following the Black Death meant that unseasoned wood was used to construct the spire, resulting in its twist, but there are many entertaining myths that surround it too. One Chesterfield local (EC) told me:

> Yeah, well we're from the crooked town. We'd say that as well. You get some pubs that use like the symbol of the crooked spire, crooked, as that sort of thing like. But then we make stories like the devil sat on it and bent it, yeah, so. In a way we do sort of mock our own town a bit in a more funny sort of thing.

The Crooked Spire is Chesterfield's main attraction, and is the landmark that locals search for on their way home from trips further afield. However, Chesterfield is also known for its markets. The website also recommends visiting Chesterfield's open-air market, which though smaller than it once was, and without livestock, still attracts tourists: The Thursday flea market is particularly popular. The website suggests that visitors may be attracted to Chesterfield's history as a Roman fort, 'Cestrefeld', and its growth as a market town in the Middle Ages (ibid). It is also focussed on Chesterfield's industrial heritage. In fact, greeting any visitors to the town by rail is a statue of 'the Father of Railways', George Stephenson, who latterly lived at Tapton House in Chesterfield and is buried in Holy Trinity church, Newbold. His statue is a reminder of Chesterfield's growth during the Industrial Revolution, which saw Chesterfield develop some of the first steam engines helping to transport the products produced in Chesterfield, such as pill boxes and bandages, around the world (ibid). To help with this, during the eighteenth century, Chesterfield canal was constructed. '*Story of Chesterfield*' (2023, np) explains that Chesterfield Canal 'pushed the boundaries of construction with the most complex flight of locks and longest tunnel ever built at that time'. Visitors can still explore the canals, taking trips on narrow boats for the full experience. However, should tourists be drawn to the town centre, they may be attracted to the black and white, or Mock Tudor, buildings along Knifesmithgate dating from the 1920s and 1930s. The name of the road, 'Knifesmithgate', is a reminder that Chesterfield was part of the Danelaw, an area that stretched across a vast swathe of the more eastern parts of central

and northern England, with 'gata' the Old Norse for 'path' or 'road'. Wales (2000: 8) describes the Danelaw, stating:

> King Alfred himself also single-handedly introduced another potential 'North-South divide', called the 'Danelaw' where, in a truce with the invading Danes in 878, they agreed to settle north of a line running roughly diagonally from the mouth of the Mersey to the Wash: and also close to Watling Street.

After exploring Chesterfield's history, a visitor to the town might visit Jacksons the Bakers, who have had a shop in the town centre since 1944. There they can buy half a dozen Derbyshire oatcakes, or ask for a sandwich to be made with Jackson's own bread 'cobs' for lunch. If a visitor wished to have fish and chips, they might also be offered a 'Yorkshire' fish cake, which contains sliced potatoes, and is known simply as a fishcake in Sheffield. These commodities would place Chesterfield in Derbyshire, and can be better understood in connection with other local merchandise, discussed later in this chapter. In 2017, before the global pandemic, there were a reported 3.7 million tourists recorded in Chesterfield (Stevens, 2018).

Chesterfield's popularity can be understood through an article which The Guardian newspaper ran in 2013 entitled 'Let's move to Chesterfield, Derbyshire' (Dyckhoff, 2013). This article was one of a series entitled, 'Let's move to…' published weekly in The Guardian until 2020, with 593 articles recommending different UK locations available to view. Again, this article is largely a positive piece that mentions Chesterfield's 'incredible markets', its 'fabulous' wine shop, 'great homes' and 'good schools'. To balance the argument it provides a few negatives: The vast quantity of 'megapubs' in the town centre, and the ugly buildings constructed in the 1980s. However, we are told that little would detract from the interesting architecture of The Crooked Spire: '…who knew that Chesterfield was such a looker…?' The article also states that Chesterfield is 'awfully well' connected to Sheffield, Derby, and Nottingham, by rail and car, and boasts once again that Chesterfield is near to the beauty of the Peak District. To explain Chesterfield's proximity to the aforementioned cities, it takes 10 minutes to travel the 12 miles from Chesterfield to Sheffield, South Yorkshire, by train. Sheffield is the closest city to Chesterfield, with Nottingham 26 miles away, and Chesterfield's county capital, Derby, 29 miles away.
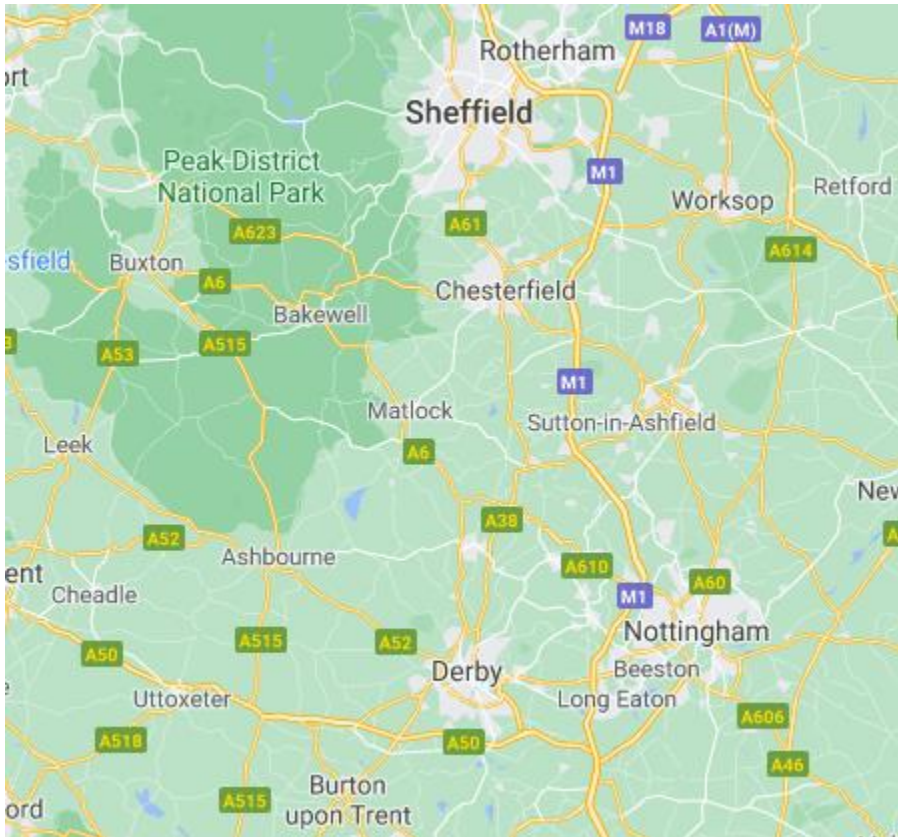
Figure 1.2: Map of Chesterfield, Sheffield, Nottingham and Derby (Google Maps, 2020).

It would be feasible to believe that many of Chesterfield's 103,800 residents (based on 2011 census data) would commute to these nearby cities for work, given the collapse of many of Chesterfield's main employers. However, the most recent data on commuter habits suggest that Chesterfield workers are self-contained, with 63.7% of resident employees both living and working in the Borough of Chesterfield (Analysis of Commuter Patterns in Derbyshire, 2011). The same report, based on census data from 2011, states that others only travel short distances: 9.2% to North East Derbyshire, 6.5% to Sheffield, 4.1% to Derbyshire Dales, and 3.5% to Buxton (ibid: 4). However, from the same 2011 census data, 21,349 people came to Chesterfield for work from other areas, with 66% of those coming from other parts of Derbyshire, including Derby city (Derbyshire County Council, 2015). Figure 1.2 illustrates Chesterfield's location in relation to nearby cities, along with the Peak National Park. Figure 1.3 reproduces commuter outflow and inflow, based on census data from 2011, with North East Derbyshire shown to be the top destination for both. Unfortunately, to date there is no similar analysis based on the 2021 census data.

Outflows
Top 10 areas where Chesterfield residents commute to

Inflows
Top 10 areas where Commuters into Chesterfield come from
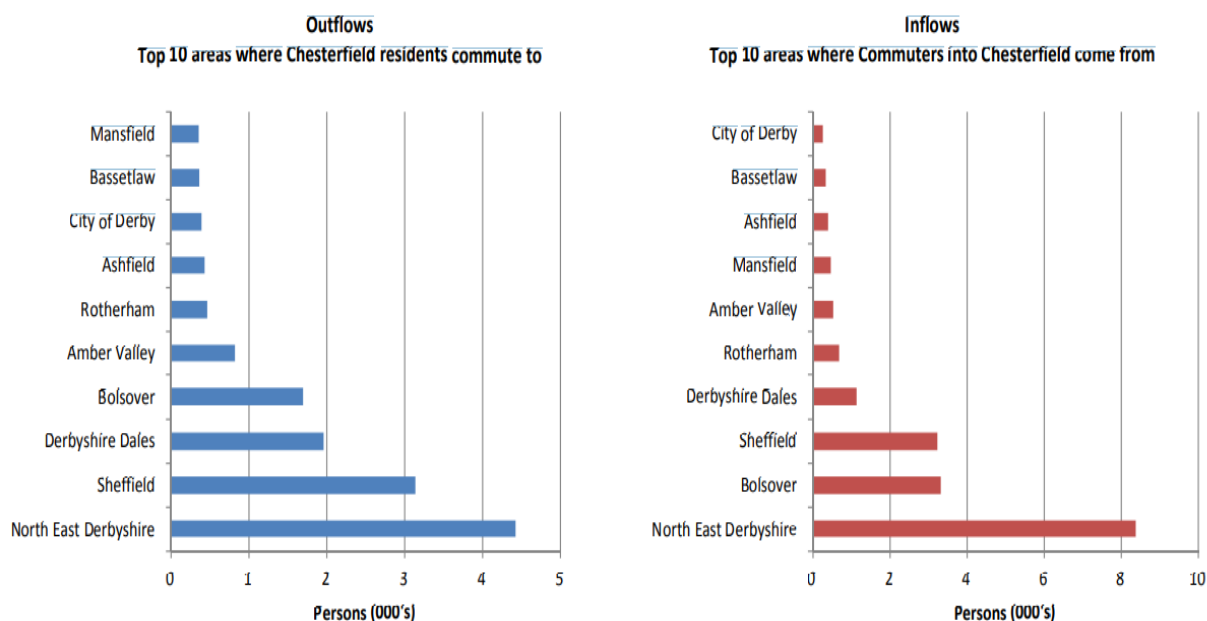
Figure 1.3: Outflows and Inflows of working commuters, Chesterfield. Reproduced from Derbyshire County Council (2015: 12).

Chesterfield is split administratively between two councils, which can be seen in Figure 1.4. Chesterfield Borough Council (CBC) covers the majority of central and eastern Chesterfield, whilst North East Derbyshire District Council (NEDDC) is responsible for the outlying areas of the town. NEDDC is also responsible for several towns and villages outside of Chesterfield, such as Dronfield and Matlock. When data states, therefore, that Chesterfield Borough working residents travel to North East Derbyshire, it is possible that they are travelling to an area that is still officially within Chesterfield's geographical borders, despite being within another council area. For example, Chesterfield Royal Hospital is located in Calow, Chesterfield, which is just within NEDDC's remit.. It is therefore possible than more than the quoted 63.7% of Chesterfield's working population work within Chesterfield's geographical borders.
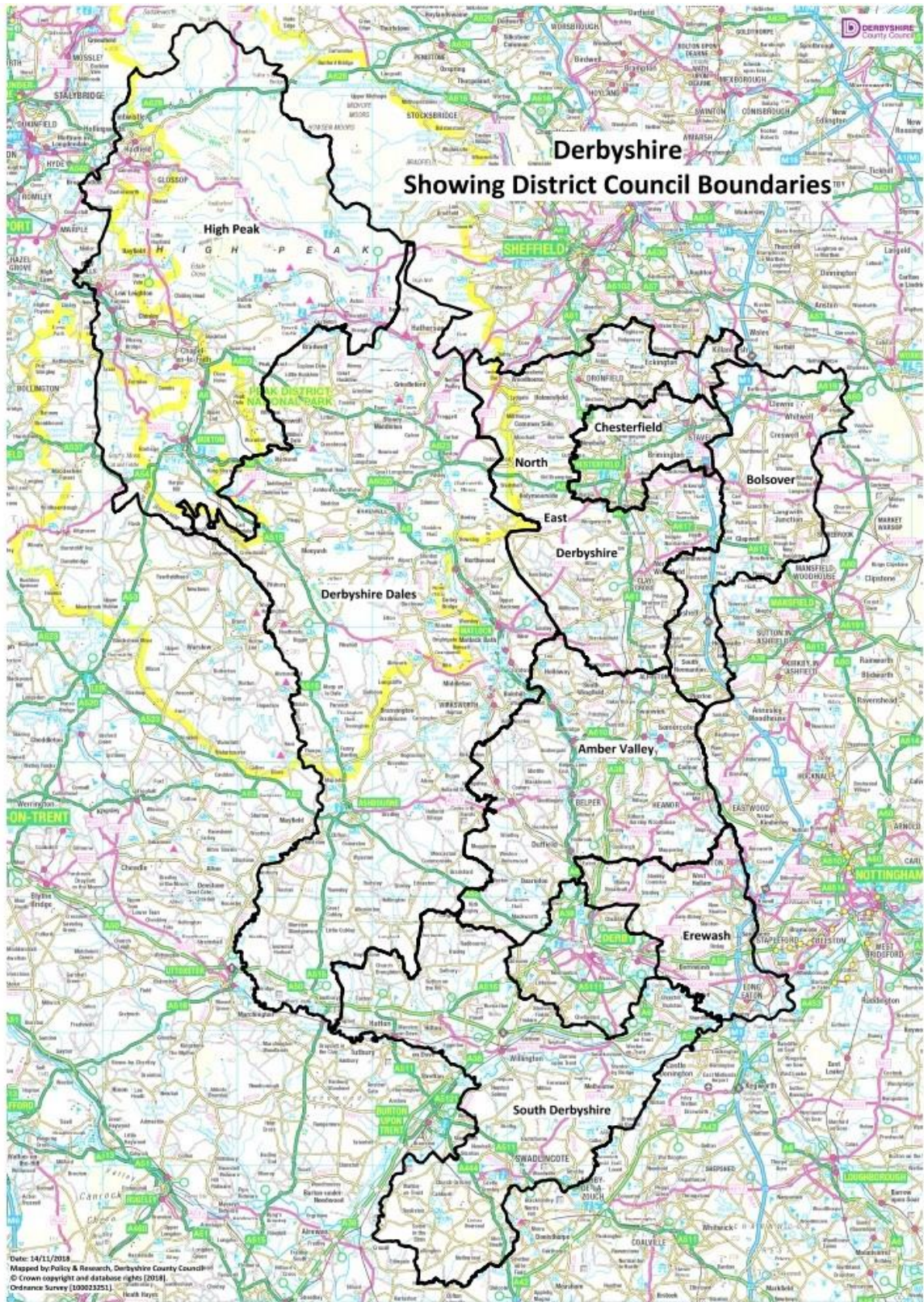
Figure 1.4: Map of Derbyshire Districts set against Ordnance Survey Background (Derbyshire Observatory, 2024).

The Guardian article (Dyckhoff, 2013) mentioned previously criticises Chesterfield for lack of diversity relating to its nightlife, but Chesterfield is also perceived as having a lack of cultural and ethnic diversity by some Sheffield residents (see Chapter 3). The most recent census data (2021) shows that Chesterfield's population, as reported by Chesterfield Borough Council residents only, fell from around 103,800 in 2011 to 103,600 people (Census 2021, 2023). It is the only authority in the East Midlands to see its population decrease, with the population of the East Midlands rising by 7.7%, and England as a whole rising by 6.6%, from 2011 (ibid). 93.6% of Chesterfield's population in 2021 reported as being born in England, which is down 1% from 2011. It is unknown how many of those residents were born in Chesterfield[7] and how many moved to Chesterfield from other English locations. According to census data from 2021, Scotland is the next most represented birthplace in the Chesterfield population, followed by Poland: In 2011 around 300 people living in Chesterfield Borough were reported to have been born in Poland, with the figure rising to around 500 in 2021 (ibid). 95.5% of Chesterfield's population claimed to be 'White' in 2021, in contrast to England's 81.7% (ibid). 'Mixed or Multiple' make up 1.4% of Chesterfield's population, with the 'Black, Black British, Black Welsh, Caribbean or African' category remaining at 0.8% of Chesterfield's population in 2021 (ibid). This census data indicates that the ethnic diversity in Chesterfield is below the level of England as a whole.

Table 1.1 presents census data from 2021 for East Midland towns and cities, along with Sheffield, South Yorkshire. Of these locations, Chesterfield and North East Derbyshire had the highest number of people reporting as White and being born in England. These data indicate that perceptions of Chesterfield lacking ethnic diversity may be true.

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[7] Email communication with Derbyshire County Council, dated 26.01.21, states that this information is not held by them, and they are not aware of any place that does hold this data.

Table 1.1: Census 2021 data for population and ethnicity (Census 2021, 2023).

Location	Population	Born in England (%)	Report as 'White' (%)
Chesterfield	103,600	93.6	95.5
North East Derbyshire	102,000	95.5	97.4
Sheffield	556,500	83.6	79.1
Derby	261,400	78.7	73.8
Nottingham	323,600	73.8	65.9
Mansfield	110,500	87.7	94.8

In summary, Chesterfield Borough's working residents tend to commute less for work than might be expected given its rail and road connections to towns and cities across the East Midlands and Yorkshire. Most of Chesterfield Borough's population in 2021 reported as 'White' with significantly fewer 'Black' and 'Mixed' ethnicities residing here than England as a whole. Most of Chesterfield Borough's residents were born in England, or Scotland, with data from the 2011 and 2021 censuses suggesting that Chesterfield's population is relatively stable. With Trudgill (2014: 215) proposing that language change is the result of exposure to different accents, little opportunity for face-to-face dialect contact in Chesterfield may have resulted in the Chesterfield accent and dialect remaining relatively unchanged in recent years. However, the census data does not account for the visitors to Chesterfield that are drawn to the market town, or the influence of the media, which will be discussed further in the following section. Furthermore, it is unknown how many of Chesterfield's residents were born and raised in Chesterfield or elsewhere in England. Therefore, census data may help to understand some of the influences upon Chesterfield locals' accent and dialects, but it does not present the entire story.

1.2. Aims

My study aims to contribute to the growing body of sociolinguistic research focused on the East Midlands (Braber, 2014, 2015, 2016; Braber and Flynn, 2015; Braber and Robinson, 2018; Flynn 2010, 2011), and to the understanding of how attitude and identity affects dialect perception and use in border areas. To my knowledge, no prior study has focussed on a location near to the North/Midland border of England, and asked directly about the Midland region: Montgomery (2015) called for more research to be undertaken in this area. Whilst aiming to increase understanding of the Chesterfield accent and dialect, not only because it is a location that has been under-researched in sociolinguistics, Chesterfield is of primary interest because of its location close to borders. How these borders impact identity will add to the wider body of research about border areas in Great Britain (Britain 2010; Llamas, 2010; Montgomery, 2015). The study is unusual in connecting primarily perceptual research with linguistic production: To my knowledge, no prior sociolinguistic study has researched regional identity through perceptual mapping across three age groups and in connection with linguistic production.

The first of this study's aims is to research Chesterfield residents' attitude and identity, and how this relates to their perceptions of local dialects and accents. Connected to this is Chesterfield's relationship with Sheffield, the city that lies closest geographically to Chesterfield, but within a different county. The Guardian's online piece about Chesterfield (Dyckhoff, 2013), referred to in section 1.1 of this Introduction chapter, records insightful observations written in response to the article by the general public: 116 below the line comments give mixed accounts about whether this article presents a reasonable appraisal of the town. One such account commented that Chesterfield seems to have two identities, one of a quaint Derbyshire town and the other as an impoverished suburb of Sheffield[8]:

Comment 1

> Chesterfield is 2 towns occupying the same space.

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[8] Chesterfield is not a suburb of Sheffield.

One is a nice, friendly, quaint town on the edge of the peak district, where you can work monday to friday and walk in stunning countrside (sic) at the weekend.

One is an isolated suburb of sheffield, where you get what temporary work you can and spend it getting out of your face on cheap lager at weekends.

Chesterfield is described negatively by this commentator in connection with Sheffield, South Yorkshire, but positively when connected with the Peak District. Chesterfield, which is officially within North East Derbyshire, and administratively within the East Midlands, is presented as having two personas in this comment, with the commentator seemingly unimpressed by Chesterfield's perceived links with Sheffield.

A second aim of my research is to explore how perceptions of Chesterfield and Sheffield may affect production of diphthongal vowel sounds among Chesterfield residents of different generations. Another comment beneath The Guardian article (Dyckhoff, 2013), by a different observer, refers to Chesterfield's accent and the town's lack of diversity:

Comment 2

Nice enough place to live if you're starting out post-school or post-university, but awful place to grow up if you're slightly different from the short-haired, clean-shaven norm.

Chesterfield also has the worst accent in the UK. Imagine the least friendly parts of the Yorkshire accent mixed with the yod-dropping monotone burr of the Midlands, add a threatening delivery, and there you have it. I'm so glad I don't have the Chesterfield accent.

While this commentator seems to have a negative opinion about Chesterfield, their remarks indicate that the Chesterfield accent is perceived, at least by him/her, as having features from both Yorkshire and the East Midlands: Negative connotations again are attached to Yorkshire, and a sense of boredom from the 'monotone burr' is connected with the Midlands.

In both comments we see negative perceptions of Chesterfield, which may be why the commentators were compelled to contribute their opinion. West (2015: 317) stated that identity is 'accentuated' in border areas, because residents have a 'desire to project a strong sense of identity'. Yet, both commentators share the belief that Chesterfield is influenced by both Sheffield and the East Midlands. Anecdotal evidence therefore suggests that Chesterfield's proximity to the Yorkshire border, and influences from both Yorkshire and the East Midlands, may give rise to a possible 'hybrid' identity in Chesterfield (Llamas, 2010: 235-6) where individuals have the ability to modify their identity and/or accent depending on context. This potential hybrid identity in Chesterfield can be further understood when considering televised local news reporting. Anecdotally, most houses in Chesterfield receive local news from BBC *Look North (Yorkshire),* while a minority receive BBC *East Midlands Today*. On the opening title sequence of Look North, the script 'Chesterfield' runs across the screen along with 'Sheffield', 'Leeds', 'York', 'Scarborough', and other Yorkshire destinations (as of December, 2020). Braber (2014: 4) suggests that local news media has a role in 'representing and constructing regional identity'. She notes that areas that do not receive BBC's East Midlands Today might be considered outside of the 'core' East Midlands' area (ibid). Braber (2014) describes how the East Midlands area is difficult to define, with most sources agreeing on just three counties: Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire and Leicestershire. Yet, despite Chesterfield's location in Derbyshire, due to the observation that most residents do not receive local news reported from the East Midlands, Chesterfield is placed in the periphery of the East Midlands, according to Braber's prior assertions, with an identity that may be more influenced by Yorkshire and the North.

The confusion over an East Midland or Yorkshire identity can also be seen in regional merchandise that is for sale in the town. Pearce (2020) observes that where there is threat of a reduction in linguistic difference (dialect levelling), popular interest in linguistic variation often grows (ibid: 488), which can be seen in regional merchandise that displays the local dialect. However, in 2015, Chesterfield's branch of the high street book chain, Waterstones, sold merchandise that seemed to place Chesterfield both within the East Midlands, with the greeting 'ey up me duck'[9] printed across a mug, and Yorkshire with a greeting card that

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[9] Although, the makers of this product, "Wot ma like", name this mug, "Ey up Me Duck Yorkshire Speak Mug": https://wotmalike.co.uk/products/ey-up-me-duck-yorkshire-speak-mug-ysm5 accessed on 10.12.20.

proclaims 'Best Grandad in Yorkshire' (Figure 1.5). The reasoning behind this decision might be to appeal to the many visitors to Chesterfield from Yorkshire, as described to me by a local bookseller. However, fast forward to 2020, and Chesterfield illustrator Maria Brannen is producing similar merchandise that according to a free Chesterfield magazine, S40 Local[10], is 'adorned with our very own Derbyshire/South Yorkshire dialect; us Chesterfield lot are a mix of both!' (Paterson, 2020: 14). Cynically, it may be in this businesswoman's interests for the two dialects to be similar, given that she seeks to sell them in both Chesterfield and Sheffield. However, this comment, printed in a Chesterfield magazine, fuels the notion to the Chesterfield local audience that the Chesterfield dialect combines both Derbyshire and South Yorkshire linguistic markers, and may have done for some time. Wright's (1978) popular 'mini-book' entitled 'The Derbyshire Drawl' does not refer to Chesterfield in detail, but it does proclaim that although Derbyshire is overlooked by many travellers, 'Derbyshire's talk is a fascinating mixture of both East Midland and West Midland forms, along with others that have crept in from the North' (Wright, 1978: 3). Smith's (2003) 'Derbyshire Dialect' book concurs, stating that 'Derbyshire folk have indeed adopted some of the dialect of neighbouring counties' but declares that 'much of their language is unique' (Smith, 2003: 3). However, again, this handbook focuses more on South Derbyshire, collecting local lexis and interesting stories from across the county. Nevertheless, the perceived influence of Yorkshire upon North Derbyshire dialects, will be explored further in Chapter 2, the Literature Review.

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[10] S40 refers to Chesterfield's postcode, in the Sheffield post area.
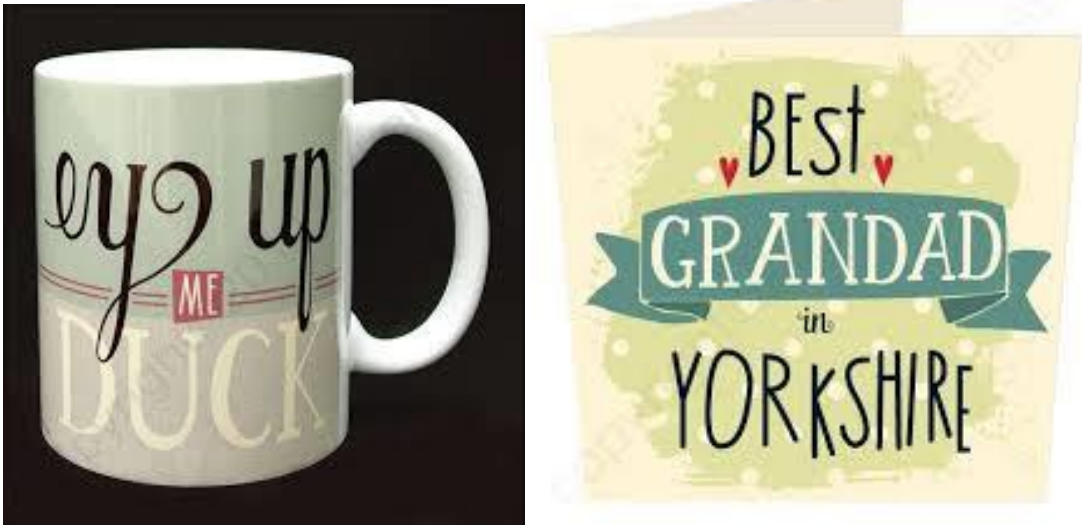
Figure 1.5: Two products found in Chesterfield's Waterstones (December, 2015).

In terms of political affiliation, Chesterfield and Sheffield have traditionally held a Labour majority. Currently, Sheffield has five Labour MPs, whilst Chesterfield Borough is represented by one Labour MP: Toby Perkins. He is one of the seven Labour MPs to be found across the East Midlands, with the remaining 37 seats held by the Conservative party (UK Parliament website, 2023). North East Derbyshire, which includes areas within Chesterfield, has been represented by a Conservative MP, Lee Rowley, since 2017 (ibid). The MPs for NE Derbyshire had largely been Labour prior to 2017. Despite their similarity in terms of a preference for the Labour Party, however, Chesterfield residents have been resistant to Sheffield's political influence. Boundary changes of the 1970s, when Metropolitan Counties were created and boundaries redrawn, affected the whole of Yorkshire and its neighbouring counties, including Derbyshire. A newspaper article reveals how Chesterfield Borough leaders were in 'secret talks' with Sheffield to become part of the South Yorkshire Metropolitan County (SYMC) ('Borough leaders in secret talks with Sheffield', 1971). Chesterfield would have been given more power as the capital of a North Derbyshire Metropolitan District within the SYMC, but representatives from North East Derbyshire raised concerns. One councillor stated:

> I do not think Derbyshire 'Rams' would take very kindly to being transformed into Yorkshire 'Tykes' (ibid).

The proposition to join the SYMC was ultimately rejected, but history would repeat itself in a more recent application from Chesterfield Borough Council (CBC) to become part of the Sheffield City Region. In 2016/2017 CBC applied to become a full member of the Sheffield City Region Combined Authority as part of a proposed devolution deal that promised CBC an estimated £35 million over the following five years ('County council leader slammed for wasting public money', 2017). This proposal went against North East Derbyshire District Council, who had planned to join the proposed North Midlands authority. As reported by The Guardian newspaper in December 2016, 92% of 5,000 Chesterfield residents responding to an online poll rejected these plans (Perraudin, 2016). The then leader of Derbyshire County Council (DCC), Anne Western, was against Chesterfield's 'absorption into Sheffield', and she stated that the poll results could be explained by the identity of Chesterfield residents:

> It's partly a kneejerk emotional reaction. It's a very deep identity thing. People don't relate to Sheffield and South Yorkshire. They see themselves very strongly as Derbyshire people and want to remain so (ibid).

Ultimately, Derbyshire County Council (DCC) forced CBC's withdrawal from the devolution deal to avoid spending public money on a referendum which the leader of CBC felt was unnecessary ('County council leader slammed for wasting public money', 2017). Therefore, it seems that whilst Chesterfield residents share a Labour majority with Sheffield, and differ from most of the East Midlands in this respect, locals see themselves as separate to Yorkshire and do not wish for stronger administrative ties with Sheffield City or South Yorkshire.

Finally, Chesterfield's coal mining history should not be overlooked, along with the continuing effects of the Miners' Strike of the 1980s. The National Miners' Strike of 1984 was extremely divisive across South Yorkshire and the East Midlands, with the repercussions of the strike still felt today. More than half of the country's miners were on strike for around a year, led by Arthur Scargill of the National Union of Mineworkers (NUM) (Pittam, 2019). The strike was a final attempt to save over 20,000 jobs (ibid). Another union, the Union of Democratic Mineworkers (UDM), was formed at that time by miners who wanted to continue working. The UDM was formed by Nottinghamshire miners, but included miners

from South Derbyshire pits (Waldron, 2017), who felt the strike had not been approved by a general vote (Pittam, 2019). Chesterfield miners largely went on strike, as did those in South Yorkshire, although Markham Colliery in Stavely, Chesterfield, was divided (Markham, 2023). In Nottinghamshire, only a quarter of miners joined the national strike (Pittam, 2019). There was tension both within Nottinghamshire mining towns, where some went on strike and some carried on working, and neighbouring counties. Pittam (2019) reports that there is still tension today, with feelings from that period still strong. For example, some people chose to ignore the families of those miners who continued to work, which continues to the present day (ibid). Those who were on strike received no pay, and were illegible for benefits as their actions were considered illegal. They relied on handouts to survive. Pittam (2019, np) states that during the strike, coal production dropped, but with a stockpile of coal and 'supplies coming from the still-working pits in Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, power stations were able to stay open'. With striking families struggling to heat their homes, and eat, and resentment high towards the still working miners, industrial action was narrowly voted to end in March 1985 (ibid).

Tension can still be felt across the Derbyshire/Nottinghamshire border and is most evident during football matches, for example when Chesterfield F.C. play against Mansfield Town. Mansfield is a former mining town in Nottinghamshire, with a similar demographic to Chesterfield. Chubb (2022) reported for the Derby Telegraph about the footballing rivalry, and its mining strike roots. The article reports:

> A few people we spoke to were completely unaware of the rivalry but one older gentleman we spoke to gave us the lowdown.

> He said: "One reason, it all started over the Miners' strike but it were even before that. It's rivalry. Mansfield hate us and Chesterfield hate them.

It is of note that some people interviewed recently did not know about the rivalry between the two towns, tangible when there is a football match between the two sides. However, in my background research (2015), respondent TG commented on the "nasty rivalry" between the two football teams, with 39 year old male, SH, reporting that Chesterfield F.C. fans shout "scabs" at Mansfield Town F.C. supporters in reference to the mining strike history. Pittam

(2019, np) comments that 'fewer and fewer people remember March 1984 – and many that do might wish to forget it – but the tensions the strike created are often only just below the surface.'

In summary, there are two main aims to my research: The first is to research Chesterfield residents' identity, and how this relates to their perceptions of local dialects and accents, and the second is to explore linguistic production in Chesterfield across three different age groups, understanding the factors which may contribute to any differences. This section has described how Chesterfield seems to have a complex identity of place based on its geographical location: It is administratively based in the East Midlands, but with influence from South Yorkshire due in part to its proximity. Sheffield is Chesterfield's closest city, with the South Yorkshire influence evident in regional merchandise and local news reporting. Where Figure 1.1 placed Chesterfield in centrally in England, a 2022 development of businesses in Chesterfield was named the 'Northern Gateway' with investment from South Yorkshire. This name suggests that even though Chesterfield may be geographically more central, its attention is facing north rather than south. Yet, there has been negativity reported around Chesterfield's links to Sheffield, with local residents resistant to the administrative influences of South Yorkshire. Moreover, whilst Chesterfield Borough and Sheffield share a Labour majority, unlike the majority of the East Midlands, there is evidence of Chesterfield people's greater sense of connection with (North) Derbyshire than Yorkshire. However, divisions may still be felt between Chesterfield and Nottinghamshire and South Derbyshire due to their mining history, where Chesterfield miners went on strike in the 1980s and those in South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire largely did not. Finally, whilst there is the widespread belief that the Chesterfield accent and dialect mixes linguistic markers from both Yorkshire and the East Midlands, the poem presented in the Foreword by Booker (nd) suggests a, comedic, fear that the Sheffield dialect was influencing the writer's own Chesterfield accent ('Oh, my God – Dee Dar is spreading'). This poem, although light hearted, suggests that Sheffield's accent in some way may still be distinct from Chesterfield's.

This section has presented the background to my study, and my aims, which prompted me to develop three research questions, outlined below.

1.3. Research Questions

My first research question is:

1) To what extent do Chesterfield locals feel connected with Sheffield?

    - Is the connection expressed in a mutual Northern identity?

    - Or is there a perceptual divide between 'the North' (Sheffield) and 'the Midlands' (Chesterfield)?

This question assumes that Sheffield is part of the North, with Chesterfield part of the Midlands because of its location within the East Midlands region. However, Beal (2006) argued that Sheffield is on the cusp of the North and the Midlands, and this is not a border that has been widely explored in perceptual dialectology. Therefore, Chesterfield and Sheffield participants' positioning of both locations in terms of the North, Midlands and South will be explored in this study, in connection with regional identity. If there is found to be a positive connection with Sheffield, Chesterfield people may be happy for their accent to be similar, yet if there is a rivalry or resistance, Chesterfield people may reject linguistic markers that they perceive to be representative of Sheffield (c.f. Ito and Preston, 1998; Labov, 1963; Le Page et al 1974, 1985). However, it needs to be determined what the linguistic markers of a Sheffield accent are to Chesterfield locals, which led to my next research question:

2) To what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions?

In addition to the cues that indicate a Sheffield accent, East Midlands accents are also explored using dialect recognition tasks. It is hoped that through these tasks, the Chesterfield accent and dialect will be more greatly understood, along with increased understanding of the deductive processes behind local dialect recognition. Finally, the results of this question, where monophthongal FACE and GOAT vowels were identified as markers of Sheffield speech to the Chesterfield audience, informed my final research question:

3) Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?

This question will be addressed using the information obtained about regional identity, along with acoustic methods of linguistic analysis. These questions, and how I sought to answer them, are discussed in greater detail in the Methodology (Chapter 3) following a more detailed discussion of the literature that informed my research (Chapter 2).

1.4. Chapter summaries

Chapter 2, the Literature Review, is divided into three main sections: Identity (section 2.2), Borders and Perceptual Dialectology (section 2.3), and historical and more recent accounts of Chesterfield and Sheffield English (section 2.4), which connect with my three research questions, in turn. Section 2.5 discusses real- and apparent-time studies, to provide context for the ensuing Methodology chapter. In the identity section (section 2.2) a brief account of the three waves of sociolinguistics is presented, discussing more current thinking that individuals have freedom to choose from a repertoire of options when performing their own identity. Connected to this is the concept of 'indexicality' (Silverstein, 2003), and how the hearer of the message is important in the understanding of the message. Authenticity of accent is considered, with current thinking suggesting that a speaker cannot be inauthentic if they are selecting linguistic features from a range of options for a particular purpose (Snell, 2010). Lastly, the 'enregisterment' (Agha, 2003) of dialect words is discussed, suggesting that a word may be widely connected with a particular place, but locally claimed by different speakers or used for a different purpose. Next, the borderland section (section 2.3) discusses where the East Midlands is largely positioned with regards to the North, South and Midlands. Perceptual Dialectology (PD) may use dialect, or perceptual, mapping to help understand this question, but it is not widely accepted as a methodological tool by all. For example, Applied Linguists may regard dialect mapping as excluding those who were born outside of the UK (Badwan, 2018), and there have been warnings made by perceptual dialectologists to be cautious when using this approach (Inoue, 1999: 174). Nevertheless, Braber (2014) used dialect and perceptual mapping to establish that Chesterfield teens feel

that Chesterfield is part of the Midlands, suggesting a 'heightened diversity' (Britain, 2010: 200) between this town and Sheffield. Dialect recognition tasks are then discussed, with Braber's (2016) research indicating that Nottinghamshire teens are not successful in placing East Midland voices. However, this may be connected to the negative opinion that largely surrounds their own accent and Nottinghamshire as a whole (Braber, 2016). Next, historical accounts of Chesterfield and Sheffield English are summarised in section 2.4, with Chesterfield records dating back to the 1700s. The FLEECE vowel, and historical records linking it to the Chesterfield/Sheffield region, is discussed. However, these records do not tend to focus on phonology. More recent studies, such as Wells (1982b) and Widdowson (1992-3), note differences between Sheffield and Chesterfield dialects. However, the most recent quantitative studies across South Yorkshire and the East Midlands show more similarities than difference. The exception is with recent findings for the GOAT and FACE vowels, which are outlined in detail with Braber and Robinson (2018) stating that fully rounded and diphthongal variants of the two vowels now dominate in the north of the East Midlands, whilst several other variants, including monophthongal, have been found in Sheffield (Finnegan, 2011). The advantages and disadvantages of real- and apparent-time studies are discussed in section 2.5. It is noted that few studies of perceptual dialectology have questioned different generations of respondent, usually focussing on teenagers.

Chapter 3 describes the Methodology behind this thesis. Firstly, there is a brief description of how both quantitative and qualitative approaches are used: To answer Research Question 1, a questionnaire and dialect mapping tasks were designed, and these responses collated using the ArcGIS 10.6 computer programme; Research Question 2 is answered with dialect recognition tasks, which were statistically analysed to find whether the correct accent identification was greater than chance; Finally, to address Research Question 3, acoustic analysis was employed to find the 'degree of diphthongisation' (Burland-Gibson, 2019) in the FACE and GOAT vowels produced largely by Chesterfield respondents. The first main section (3.2), however, briefly analyses background interviews that I conducted in 2015, with different participants to the main study, explaining how the results of this helped to shape my three research questions. Then, oral history recordings of elderly Chesterfield residents (section 3.3) made in the late 1980s and 1990s are briefly explored, and subject to initial auditory analysis, in order to provide greater detail about the Chesterfield accent and dialect

when compared with the secondary research outlined in the literature review, Chapter 2. These recordings are held by the Chesterfield Museum. Moving on to the main study itself, the next section (3.4) outlines its methodological design in depth. First, the questionnaire that all participants completed is outlined, with specific reference to questions about where they travel for work and leisure, and attitudes towards local accents and dialects, discussed (section 3.4.1). Next, the mapping task is detailed (section 3.4.2), followed by the dialect recognition tasks. This section (3.4.3) provides a detailed auditory analysis of the recordings played out to the listener judges, and describes the rationale behind its design. Finally, the word list that was created to elicit FACE and GOAT tokens is described (section 3.4.4). The degree of diphthongisation method of analysis is explained in section 3.4.5.

Chapter 4 presents the results and discussion of the questionnaire and attitudinal data elicitation. Firstly, however, participant details for all tasks are presented, including biographical details and which tasks were completed (section 4.2). Then, the results of where participants stated they travel for leisure is presented, finding that Chesterfield and Sheffield are the most frequented, with some age related differences (section 4.3.1). As for work, Chesterfield was the main workplace location for the Chesterfield participants (section 4.3.1). Section 4.3.2 records that the dialect words 'cob' and 'jitty' are the most suggestive of a Chesterfield dialect to Chesterfield participants. Finally, the results of the attitudinal questions show that whilst the Sheffield teenagers are largely positive about a Sheffield accent, Chesterfield teenagers are more neutral about a Chesterfield accent, with the middle age group more negative, and the oldest group declining to comment (section 4.3.3). These findings are then discussed in Section 4.4, suggesting that greater familiarity with Sheffield and Chesterfield voices may lead to increased recognition rates for these voices in the dialect recognition tasks. The influence of affective factors are then described in relation to dialect recognition, with the teenage Chesterfield group the most positive, albeit still fairly neutral, towards a Chesterfield accent and dialect. The question about whether this could lead to greater recognition, or claiming, of Chesterfield voices by the Chesterfield teenage group in the dialect recognition tasks is raised (Hind, 2019).

Chapter 5 presents the results and discussion of the perceptual mapping tasks, with a different outcome from the background interviews: 75% of Chesterfield participants put Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the same region, whereas the background interviews

suggest that Chesterfield people feel separate from Sheffield. In the thesis' north-midland-south mapping task, Chesterfield teenagers tended to place Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the Midlands, whereas Sheffield teens placed the two locations together in the North (section 5.2). Two maps that were collated using the ArcGIS computer programme are presented in section 5.3, with the finding that most Chesterfield participants included a Midland area, placing the North/Midland dividing line close to Manchester. The discussion (section 5.4) questions whether the map task alone is enough to conclude regional identity, but finds that this task does suggest that there is no perceptual barrier between Chesterfield and Sheffield.

Next, Chapter 6 present the results and discussion from the dialect recognition tasks. There are six key findings: Sheffield voices are the most recognisable to the Chesterfield audience, with the Chesterfield male voice not being claimed, and instead being significantly misidentified as a Nottinghamshire speaker; The younger female voices are more recognised than the older male voices; Local dialect vocabulary was not instrumental in the recognition of local voices; and finally, Chesterfield teens are best at identifying the Sheffield duo and the younger Chesterfield female voice. In the discussion of this section (section 6.3), the notion of a 'scale of northern-ness' is explored, which seems to partially lay behind local accent (mis)identification. Familiarity of local accents is discussed, along with generational distance affecting recognition rates. Sheffield voices are the most recognised because they potentially have the most phonetic difference in the sample, with qualitative data this is especially true in terms of their FACE and GOAT vowels.

The word list results are outlined and discussed in Chapter 7. Average results from across the sample place FACE and GOAT as diphthongal in Chesterfield. However, age is a potentially significant variable for FACE, with Chesterfield teens the least diphthongal of the three generations. Women tend to be more diphthongal for both vowels than men, but this is not found to be significant. Finally, there is an unexpected result whereby those Chesterfield participants who place Chesterfield in the North present more diphthongal FACE and GOAT. However, this is considered to be an outcome of most Chesterfield teenagers, with the most monophthongal vowels, placing Chesterfield largely in the Midlands. These results are discussed with the understanding that Chesterfield teens feel an affinity with Sheffield, despite their positioning of Chesterfield in the Midlands: They position Sheffield in the

Midlands too. This affinity could be displayed through their more monophthongal production of, particularly, FACE. However, it is possible that monophthongal FACE and GOAT have long existed in Chesterfield, despite this linguistic feature now being largely suggestive of Yorkshire.

Chapter 8 presents three case studies. The first describes the findings for a Chesterfield male teenager, the second a female middle age participant, and lastly a male older age participant. Section 8.2 describes the findings from the Chesterfield male teenager, and the complexities around determining a North/Midland identity. The middle age female achieved high scores in the dialect recognition tasks, but there was a sense of negativity towards the Chesterfield accent, and a self-consciousness which may explain her very diphthongal FACE vowel (section 8.3). The older male achieved the worst results of the three for dialect recognition, which may be the result of having a smaller social network, and his realisation of FACE was more monophthongal than the middle age female. Across the three case studies, there is evidence of age related patterning in the monophthongal realisation of FACE, with possible age grading in the middle group.

Finally, Chapter 9 concludes the thesis. A summary of the thesis is provided in connection with the three research questions. This is followed by an evaluation of the methodology, and how successful it is in answering the research questions. The limitations of this study are described, along with its strengths and wider contribution. Possibilities for future research, along with how this study might relate to external audiences, is discussed.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

The literature that relates to my study can be divided into three sections. The first section outlines sociolinguistic background that links with identity, connecting with my first research question focusing on identity and place. The following section is focused on borders and perceptual boundaries, and outlines some previous research in Perceptual Dialectology (PD). This aligns with my second research question. Next, historical and more recent accounts of both Chesterfield and Sheffield English will be reviewed, connecting to my third research question about linguistic production. Finally, real- and apparent-time studies will be reviewed, providing a transition into Chapter 3.

2.2. Acts of Identity

Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985: 181) asserted that:

> the individual creates for himself [/herself] the patterns of his [/her] linguistic behavior so as to resemble those of the groups with which from time to time he [/she] wishes to be identified or so as to be unlike those from whom he [/she] wishes to be distinguished.

Le Page's et al's 'Acts of Identity' model (1974, 1985) has been praised for its more contemporary approach to language, where the individual is considered to have considerable agency over their language choices (c.f. Rickford, 2011). However, individual agency has not always been so central to sociolinguistic theory. This section briefly discusses the three waves of sociolinguistics as background to my study, along with the concept of authenticity in speech. The current understanding that 'agents' can perform identity through their selection of spoken variables, from a repertoire of available options, is described. Finally, the Chesterfield identity as part of a larger Derbyshire identity, and how popular culture and tourist souvenirs are influential in the enregisterment of linguistic features, is considered.

2.2.1. The three waves of sociolinguistics, authenticity, enregisterment, and performance

My study is situated in the 'first wave' (Eckert, 2012) of sociolinguistics due to its methodological approach: Mine is the first detailed sociolinguistic account of the accent and dialect of Chesterfield locals, stratified by social group. Eckert (2012) outlined the three waves of sociolinguistic research, suggesting that third wave methodology was just underway in the early 2010s, with first wave research beginning in the 1960s and continuing to the present day. I will explore Eckert's widely accepted definitions of the three waves in the following section, along with Silverstein's (2003) theory of 'indexicality' in order to explore how language variation and change is influenced by issues of identity. The three waves of sociolinguistic research, outlined by Eckert (2012), have been described as building upon each prior wave's methods and practice. Eckert (2012: 2) stated that:

> No wave supersedes the previous, but each represents a quite distinct way of thinking about variation, and a distinct methodological and analytic practice, each of which grew out of the findings of the previous wave.

The three waves have largely moved chronologically, with Labov's renowned New York study of 1966 heralding the beginning of the first wave of sociolinguistics.Labov used random sampling in order to document the speech behaviour of entire urban communities (Mendoza-Denton, 2008: 217), which was a radical change from traditional dialectology that sought to capture traditional dialects only, with an emphasis on lexis (for example, The Survey of English Dialects, Orton, 1962). Despite the largely chronological progression of the three waves, it is important to note that current sociolinguistic studies may be still be considered first or second wave. Montgomery and Moore (2017) compiled several first wave studies from recent years in their edited collection, describing a first wave study as that 'which considers how language is affected by its use within a particular locale…' (ibid: 2).Furthermore, Labov's earlier study of Martha's Vineyard (1963) is frequently placed in the second wave due to its ethnographic approach (Mendoza-Denton, 2008: 217). Martha's Vineyard is an island off the coast of Massachusetts in the United States where islanders came into regular contact with tourists from the mainland. From interviews with local inhabitants, Labov found a connection between young people's attitude towards their future

on the island and their pronunciation[11], with a more standard pronunciation of certain diphthongs correlating with a professed desire to move away. However, the usage of these variables was still regarded as something outside of the speaker's control and below their level of awareness: The issue of speaker agency did not become salient until the third wave of sociolinguistics.

While the first two waves have focused on the use of linguistic variables by certain groups (often stratified by social class, gender, age, and/or ethnicity) as a means to reflect society, and below the level of conscious awareness, Eckert (2012) theorised that the third wave of sociolinguistics has considered more the usage of these variables as a way for individuals to construct their identity. In other words, third wave studies have recognised that people have the ability, or agency, to build their identity through their choice of linguistic variables, as one may choose to represent aspects of personality through clothes. For example, a speaker may choose to use a non-standard variable rather than the standard form in order to 'index' (Silverstein, 2003), or point to, something about themselves to the hearer of the utterance, as the wearer's choice of clothing would reference something about their character to an onlooker. An individual is considered to have the power to demonstrate or withhold aspects of personality through their linguistic choices, and these choices may change over time or in different contexts. For example, Zhang's third wave study explored the construction of the Beijing 'big hitter' persona, and how this is in part realised and recognised through linguistic features (2008). In this sense, the receiver of the utterance is as important as the speaker, as identity cannot be fully realised without an audience that recognises what the speaker is trying to portray. More recently, Watt and Llamas (2017) explored how, and whether, regional identity correlated with speech patterns along the English/Scottish border, suggesting that participant affiliation was more important that how near they lived to the border. This highlights the shift in researchers' approach from first wave to third, where the opinions and beliefs of participants tend now to be more considered in addition to more macro-level categories such as age.

Connected with the three waves of sociolinguistics is Silverstein's (2003) three 'indexical orders', which have been previously compared to Labov's (1972) indicators, markers and

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[11] Centralisation of diphthongs /ay/ and /aw/ correlated with the traditional islander identity, while more standard pronunciation correlated with a desire to leave (Mendoza-Denton 2008: 218).

stereotypes (Beal and Cooper, 2015: 27). In simple terms, a first order indexical was thought to be observed by an outsider to a place, such as a linguist who had conducted a sociolinguistic study in the area, rather than a local speaker who would not necessarily have noticed the link for themselves because it was likely to be a linguistic variable used commonly by their circle, and presumed not to be distinctive. A second order indexical was considered to be when the connection had been made between the linguistic feature and social groupings on a wider scale within the community. For example, Johnstone et al (2006) gave the example of monophthongal /aw/ indexing someone who is working-class, from Pittsburgh in America, and most likely male (ibid: 83). Local people would be familiar with this variable's associations when it is a second order indexical, and would potentially use it less if they did not wish to sound like they were working-class and from Pittsburgh. Therefore, the move from first- to second-order was thought to be one of growing self-awareness within the speech community. Finally, a third order indexical was considered to indicate that a linguistic feature was recognised more widely, and not only from within the speech community in which it is used. However, indexicality is perhaps not that straightforward.

Theories of indexicality have tended to influence third wave studies, with its focus on context of linguistic use. Indexicality has been described in greater detail in Montgomery and Moore's edited collection (2017), and of course by Silverstein himself (2003) in which his notion of 'indexical orders' is more fully explored. Moore and Podesva (2009) explain Silverstein's theoretical concept, stating that his 'total linguistic fact' refers to the 'social meaning of any utterance', which is the result of both the utterance's 'referential properties' and the ways in which 'it is ideologically construed in the context of its use' (Moore and Podesva, 2009: 450). The authors argue that both 'fleeting and persistent levels of identity' are evinced in language (ibid: 448), stating that Silverstein (2003) inspired linguists to account for the existence of several social meanings in any utterance (ibid: 450). It is true that Silverstein (2003: 193) argued that any *n*-th order indexical 'presupposes' that any utterance has context, which has a 'schematization' with which it is ordinarily used, where linguists, and any language user, can infer 'appropriateness'. In Moore and Podesva's study of the usage of tag questions in a girl's high school in the North West of England (2009: 447), tag questions were found to be used by participants to similar effect (their referential

properties), but the varied stylistic approaches that accompanied this usage were found to 'indexically construct' personas, based on context. Silverstein (2003: 227/228) argued that all analysis of language use is just a beginning without the recognition that all 'cultural categories of identity, in context' are articulated through language. His criticism includes some of Labov's research, where only 'macro-social' issues, such as age, are connected with 'verbal performance' (ibid: 217). Silverstein's theory of indexicality strongly influenced third wave studies, where the emphasis on individual agency and the context of any linguistic interraction was to become more greatly recognised by sociolinguists.

While first wave variationist sociolinguists of the 1960s sought to access and record vernacular speech, unselfconscious and authentic (c.f. Labov, 1966), Eckert (2003) queried the notion of authentic speech, calling this the 'elephant in the room' in sociolinguistics. Yet, it is not only academics who have questioned authenticity in speech. Milroy (1987: 60-61) reports a situation where a young working-class male participant was chastised by friends for speaking in a manner that, according to them, was not true to his normal dialect. Situations such as this fuelled the concept of 'status versus solidarity' in sociolinguistics, where those who wished to gain status - often reported to have been upper working-class women - would have spoken more towards the standard. However, those who found it more important to demonstrate allegiance with their peer group - often reported to have been working-class men - would speak in the vernacular (Trudgill, 1972): Labov's (1972) notion of 'covert prestige' was referred to here by Trudgill (1972). Trudgill found that males in Norwich used the vernacular to gain status among their peer group, whereas women used the standard more than men in order, he believed, to gain power through prestige. Trudgill (1972: 179) reported that his male participants stated they would be considered fools by their friends if they changed accents, which partly adheres to Milroy's (1987) assertion that use of vernacular forms had less to do with gender than social networks. In other words, if your network speaks one way, so will you. Woolard (1985: 744) concurred, stating that production of vernacular forms increased with the degree of membership within a community. Today, however, it is more widely accepted that multiple identities can be expressed in an interaction through the linguistic choices that are made by the speaker, rather than the speaker's gender, age, class, ethnicity, or even social network, being the most significant factors (Sharma and Rampton, 2014; Snell, 2010; Rampton, 2011).

As mentioned previously in this chapter, second and third wave studies of sociolinguistics began to focus on the individual, as opposed to the group, and the agency one possesses over the linguistic variables that might be selected from an available 'repertoire'. According to Sharma and Rampton (2014: 5), 'agency' means that there is a conscious awareness of a linguistic repertoire. Yet, in contrast, they suggested that many studies focused on language change that concentrated on the 'deterministic nature of outcomes', or that change is an unconscious process, the inevitable result of dialect contact. For example, dialect change was considered to be the result of linguistic 'accommodation' (Giles et al, 1973). Linguistic 'accommodation' was through to occur when there is dialect contact and people vary their speech in order to align with others who speak differently from themselves ('convergence'). Giles, et al (1973: 179) defined linguistic accommodation as the process by which 'a speaker tends to adopt the speech patterns of the person to whom he is talking'. This is believed to occur at the subconscious level, with Trudgill (2014: 215) proposing that accommodation, and therefore language change, has more to do with exposure to different accents than a person's attitude. Trudgill (1974, cited in West, 2015: 217) also discussed 'hierarchical diffusion', where an accent from a larger city would expand to smaller towns nearby. This theory may suggest that the Sheffield dialect and accent would have automatically expanded, or be in the process of expanding to Chesterfield, as a small town on Sheffield's periphery. However, Britain (2010: 202) questioned the belief that linguistic accommodation is an 'unmotivated product of dialect contact' maintaining that speakers may have agency in this regard, and Kerswill (2003: 230) asserted that dialect change is the result of contact that is 'steered by shared attitude'. Kerswill (2003: 230) suggested that most sociolinguists agreed that people have a repertoire from which they choose variables both consciously and subconsciously, but that '…individual agency in linguistic practice may vary considerably' (ibid). The conscious decisions people make over which variable from their available repertoire to use in a given situation connects to 'style shifting', which has been the focus of much recent research, including Sharma and Rampton (2014). Rampton (2011) argued that variationist sociolinguists tended to view stylised language as non-authentic, or a move away from usual speech, but that style shifting is not a divergence from the 'default' (Sharma and Rampton 2014: 6) and may be seen as part of a person's available repertoire used for a specific purpose. Similar to Sharma and Rampton (2014), Snell (2010) found that her participants varied their speech for specific purposes, rather than being more or less

authentic. For example, she found that her working-class participants did use a stigmatised form (possessive 'me') more frequently than her middle-class participants, but that they often did so as part of a stylised performance; what she calls 'strategic use of an in-group variety' (ibid: 647). In other words, the working-class group were using a stigmatised form for a purpose, and not simply because they were working-class. For Snell (2010), variation was not the result of her participants trying to project an image of themselves that was inauthentic, but the result of them using all of the variables within their repertoire for a specific purpose.

It is now widely accepted that an agent has the ability to select speech as part of their own identity construction, in order to 'express and/or perform identity' (Beal and Cooper, 2015: 28). Ito and Preston (1998: 466) suggested that without the ability to be variable with language, linguistic 'accommodation' (Giles et al, 1973) would not be possible, and therefore language change, and potentially 'dialect levelling' (Trudgill, 1986), would be less likely to occur. Britain (2010: 194) stated that 'levelling is a widely used term in dialectology to denote the process by which, over time, a reduction in the number of variants of the same variable occurs'. However, Johnstone (2013: 410) argued that accommodation and levelling are not the automatic results of dialect contact, citing Watt (2002) and Watt and Milroy (1999) to show that dialect maintenance and even differentiation (in 'supralocal' dialects such as Northern and Southern British English) may occur from dialect contact. Giles et al (1973: 179) explained that if the speaker does not desire the social approval of the interlocutor, they may modify their speech in the direction away from them, known as 'divergence' (ibid). They explained further that 'code loyalty of a minority group who retains its code as an expression of group or national identity in the face of the majority culture's language could be regarded as a form of divergent behavior' (ibid). Ito and Preston's (1998) study examined the Northern Cities Vowel Shift (NCS) in non-urban northern Michigan, expecting it to be in the early stages of shift following the diffusion model. All of their participants showed involvement in the shift, but at different stages due to the individual and their social identity. In other words, the agents who disliked the town in which they lived showed more advancement in the NCS, whereas those who liked their hometown revealed the opposite, with attitude affecting advancement more than participant proximity to an urban centre. This is similar to Labov's (1963) findings in Martha's Vineyard where attitude

to home affected (subconscious) language choices. Ito and Preston (1998: 480) called for 'personal orientation' to be considered as a variable in sociolinguistic studies of this kind, similar to Milroy's (1987: 115) call for the group identity of speakers to act as an independent variable.

In terms of my own research, Le Baigue's (2010) undergraduate dissertation is the only prior sociolinguistic study to have focused solely on Chesterfield. The attitudinal part of Le Baigue's research found that Chesterfield residents identified less with Derby than Sheffield, with Derby being viewed as 'posh' and therefore different from Chesterfield. However, identity labels of 'Sheffield', 'Yorkshire', and 'Derby' were all rejected by Chesterfield locals in favour of 'Derbyshire'. He also found that for most of his Chesterfield agents, their relationship with Sheffield was largely negative (ibid: 46), with Chesterfield locals labelling Sheffielders as 'dee-dahs' (ibid: 48) and therefore different. Notably, this moniker refers to a time when certain communities in Sheffield pronounced 'thee' and 'tha' as 'dee' and 'dah'. This term, although still used in Chesterfield to reference Sheffield people, may not be understood by those whom it seeks to describe[12].

Le Baigue's (2010) finding that Chesterfield locals identified as 'Derbyshire' can be compared with Beal's (2009a) finding that the Sheffield and Yorkshire identity seem to be interchangeable. Beal compared the 'enregisterment' (Agha, 2003) and commodification of Sheffield and Newcastle dialects in souvenirs, ultimately finding that Sheffield was behind Newcastle in this process, with the 'embedding of 'Sheffield' identity in a broader 'Yorkshire' one' (2009a: np). This may also be true of the 'Chesterfield' identity, embedded within a broader 'Derbyshire' one, as Le Baigue's (2010) findings would suggest. However, the commodification of the Chesterfield/Derbyshire accent in Chesterfield lags further behind Sheffield and, as was described in the Introduction chapter (section 1.2), is complicated by the influence of (dialect) features and phrases that may more widely be connected with Yorkshire (see Introduction, Figure 1.5).

Enregisterment (Agha, 2003), or stereotypes of a linguistic register, relies on dialect contact in order for there to be an awareness among locals of the features particular to their own

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[12] The background interviews (2015) asked Sheffield locals if they had heard of this term, with the majority saying no.

dialect (Beal and Cooper, 2015: 28/29), with Chesterfield and Sheffield locals certainly making dialect contact due to their close proximity and, for some, the location of their workplace (see Introduction, section 1.1). However, the indexical values (Silverstein, 2003) of a linguistic feature may change over time (Dyer, 2010: 205), and a linguistic feature that may index the dialect of one area to one hearer might index another dialect, or meaning, to another. For example, Beal (2009a) traced the enregisterment of the dialect word, 'mardy', finding that dialect dictionaries and popular culture are influential in the 'claiming' of dialect words. Arguably, 'mardy' is now widely enregistered to Sheffield through popular culture, such as the Arctic Monkey's 2006 song 'Mardy Bum', but may also be claimed by those local to Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire (Beal, 2009a), including Chesterfield. Linguistic variables therefore can change meaning depending on the hearer of an utterance, the place, context, and time. And, adding to the complexity, Labov predicted that once a variable had become so well-known it was a stereotype of a speech community, it may cease to be used (Labov, 1972, cited in Beal and Cooper, 2015: 28). Drummond and Schleef (2015: 5) expand on this theory:

> Once a variable has acquired social meanings, speakers can use associations among them to create new ones.

This is well illustrated in Dyer's (2002; 2010) research in a community in Corby, Northamptonshire. Dyer found that the young in Corby differentiated themselves from Kettering, a nearby town, with the use of linguistic features that had roots in Scottish English, which they had appropriated to express a Corby identity, rather than a Scottish one (2010: 215). This was due to the Scottish population that historically migrated to Corby in the 1930s. Therefore, certain linguistic features that may have indexed 'Scotland' to one hearer were being used locally to express a Corby identity, rather than a Scottish one, to separate Corby's young from locals in the nearby town of Kettering.

The performance of a desired identity through linguistic choices brings me back to Le Page et al's *Acts of Identity* model (1974), which Rickford (2011: 254) praised for its forward thinking. According to this model, an individual is considered able to adopt linguistic features to resemble the group they wish to be identified with, and disassociate from another group,

through their linguistic behavior. Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985: 182) stated that there were four caveats:

'We can only behave according to the behavioral patterns of groups we find it desirable to identify with to the extent that:

    i)   we can identify the groups

    ii)   we have both adequate access to the groups and ability to analyze their behavioral patterns

    iii)   the motivation to join the groups is sufficiently powerful, and is either reinforced or reversed by feedback from the groups

    iv)   we have the ability to modify our behavior.'

In relation to Chesterfield and Sheffield, the motivation for Chesterfield people to resemble Sheffield/Yorkshire people (caveat iii) is in question, along with the issue of whether Chesterfield-specific linguistic features have already been levelled away through dialect contact and accommodation, potentially with Sheffield. The following section will continue to discuss identity in relation to Chesterfield's position within the East Midlands and the effect of geographical borders.

2.3. Borders

Chesterfield town centre is only a short drive from the geographical border with Sheffield, known locally for being located at the Norton roundabout[13] on the A61. This geographic and administrative border separates Chesterfield from Sheffield, Derbyshire from South Yorkshire, and the (East) Midlands from the North. However, boundaries can also be perceptual, creating imaginary barriers, and linguistic in the form of isoglosses. Both the latter two boundaries are fluid, but all three can be subject to change. In this section, the

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[13] The Norton roundabout is approximately 8 miles from Chesterfield town centre, or 12 minutes, by car via the A61.

identity of the East Midlands is discussed in connection with the North/South divide, followed by studies that relate to perceptual barriers in the East Midlands and further afield, and finally the literature about isoglosses in the geographic area around Chesterfield.

2.3.1. The East Midlands and the North/South divide

Wales describes the Midlands as 'neither here nor there' (2000: 7-8). It has been referred to as 'a victim of the North-South divide' and a 'perceptual no-man's land' (Upton, 2012: 258), partly because it is so difficult for people to locate. Wales (2000: 5) describes popular mythology surrounding the North/South of England:

> So the cultural images and metonyms of the North and Northerners, heavily promoted in the media, advertising, cartoons and jokes, are of slag-heaps, flat caps, whippets, brown ale, headscarves, factory chimneys, brass bands, 'hard', 'poor', 'friendly', 'uncouth', etc., etc. Grime and dirt are pervasive metaphors. These images are implicitly or explicitly opposed to mental images and metonyms of bowler hat, thatched cottages, luncheon, village green, 'soft', 'civilised', 'intelligent', 'ambitious', 'well off', etc. Never mind that the reality is more complex, even different.

This description leaves no room for a Midland area, a region which Wales (2000: 6) tended to connect with the North based on their industrial heritage. Similarly, and until fairly recently, the sociolinguistic literature has overlooked the Midlands (c.f. Braber 2014, 2016; Docherty and Foulkes 1999; Dyer 2002; Flynn 2010; Upton 2012) whereas the linguistic North-South divide in Britain has been more widely discussed (c.f. Beal 2004; Trudgill 1999; Wales 2000, 2006; Wells 1982b).

As Braber has stated, because the East Midlands is difficult to place geographically, residents may not connect this region with their own sense of identity (Braber, 2014: 3). Similarly, linguists have either had trouble placing the East Midlands, or have preferred not to address the issue of where it sits linguistically. For example, it is notable that the Survey of English Dialects (SED) did visit Derbyshire, with the closest location to Chesterfield being to the small hamlet of Youlgreave, but that this entry is placed in the 'West Midland Counties' volume (Orton and Barry, 1969). In fact, the entire county of Derbyshire is excluded from the volume

dedicated to the East Midlands and East Anglia (Orton and Tilling, 1969). Upton (2012: 259) explains that the SED's four volumes were organised more for 'publishing expediency' than anything technical, being separated into the four approximately equal volumes. Yet, the SED's arrangement of counties in the Northern Counties volume did directly influence the counties Wales' included in her 2006 book on Northern English, which similarly excluded the counties south of Yorkshire (Upton, 2012).

Braber (2014: 3) summarised the confusion over placement of the East Midlands in the literature:

> The boundaries between North and South are defined in different ways. Beal's linguistic North does not include the East Midlands (Beal 2008: 124-5), neither does Wales' (2002: 48). Trudgill states that in traditional dialectology the East Midlands area falls under 'Central' dialects, which come under the 'Southern' branch, but in modern dialectology it falls in the 'North'. Hughes, Trudgill and Watt (2005:70) contains a map which has the East Midlands in the North.

There is clearly no consensus over the placement of the East Midlands, either geographically or linguistically, with the literature seeking to place the Midlands either within the linguistic North or South. Upton (2012: 267) argued that 'tidy' linguistic boundaries, however, do not exist. He argued that, instead, there are 'transition zones' where language changes. In this sense, he regarded the Midlands as a whole as a transition zone from northern to southern English (ibid). Natalie Braber's research about East Midland English has explored this concept, and most recently Jansen and Braber (2020) researched the FOOT/STRUT split across the three counties that Braber tended to place in the East Midlands: Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire and Leicestershire, seeking to find evidence for its transition from northern to southern varieties across these counties. They did find differences in FOOT and STRUT, but not in a way that patterned geographically from northern to southern varieties of English. However, they did find that while Derbyshire speakers retained the lack of the FOOT/STRUT split, which is common to northern varieties, there was evidence of 'the northward movement of the phonemic split' across the other two counties (ibid: 792).

In being described as a transition zone, it may be that the East Midlands is considered to lack its own unique characteristics, or its own (linguistic) identity. Indeed, negative perceptions

towards the East Midlands, and specifically Nottinghamshire, by the people who live there were explored by Braber (2016), with little 'positive cultural salience' found to be connected to the county (ibid: 227). For example, most recently, Nottingham has made the national news due to the murder of two university students, and a man who was soon due to retire, close to the city centre. High levels of gun crime is frequently connected with the city (ibid), with little positive of note being publicised about Nottingham in the national news. Perceptions of place, and Perceptual Dialectology, will be explored in the following section.

2.3.2. Perceptual boundaries and dialect recognition

Perceptual Dialectology (PD), or 'folk linguistics', explores non-linguists' beliefs about language (Cramer and Montgomery, 2016: xiii). Two of its main methods, dialect mapping and dialect recognition, are discussed below, and in further detail connecting to my own study in the Methodology, Chapter 3.

Perceptual Dialectology does not have a long a history in Great Britain (Montgomery, 2016: 185). However, Williams et al (1999: 348), argued that accessing people's thoughts about language, as well as studying their language production, is vital because the two are inseparable. Preston (1999: xxxiii) stated that PD as we understand it began with Inoue, who established that geographical divisions learnt at school affect people's mental images of dialect areas (Inoue, 1999: 161). Inoue conducted PD tasks in Britain, with emphasis placed on 'dialect mapping'. Most of his respondents originated in the South of England, which has implications for the generalisability of his results (see Montgomery, 2016, for further discussion). Most of Inoue's (Southern) respondents put Derbyshire in the Midlands, and South Yorkshire in the North (Inoue, 1999: 167) but it is not clear whether the map they were shown of the British Isles divided by county prior to the tests influenced responses. Montgomery (2016) explained that respondents to his own similar mapping task, 15 years later, shifted to drawing dialect areas around cities, rather than counties.[14] He suggested that this change may show the effect of regional dialect levelling and non-linguists'

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[14] However, his method may have placed emphasis on cities rather than counties, which Montgomery defends (2016).

observation of it, along with the effect of 'cultural prominence', citing the increased awareness of Manchester as a dialect area due to media coverage (Montgomery, 2016: 201). Evans et al (2020: 1) also found perceptions of speech boundaries centred around cities in the UK, but that respondents' greater travel experience gave a more 'nuanced perception'. Nevertheless, PD's focus on mapping is problematic, which Inoue (1999: 174) observed: 'Obviously, no non-linguist knows the dialects of a language completely' and dividing the surface of the earth into maps does not reflect the consciousness of dialects, 'thus we should be cautious of answers in the form of maps'. Similarly, Pearce (2009) highlighted that respondents may have insight into (local) dialect areas that is not reflected in their cartographic expertise. However, Preston (1993d, cited in Williams et al, 1999: 345) asserted that non-linguists may be extremely sensitive to dialect boundaries and may identify and be influenced by boundaries that linguists have not yet discovered.

There is one recent perceptual study, using maps, that has incorporated the views of Chesterfield locals. Braber (2014) asked teenage respondents from across Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire and Leicestershire to draw a North-South line on a map and write next to it whether they considered themselves to be Northern, Southern, or neither. Braber projected a map of the UK with key locations so that participants could better position the dividing line on the map, although the map they annotated did not have similar location markings. Of her respondents, five per cent drew two lines to show that a Midlands area should be separate, which was not specifically instructed. Of the 19 participants that drew two lines, 12 were from Derbyshire schools, indicting a strong Midlander identity in this county, where Chesterfield sits towards the north. Most respondents completed the draw-a-map task, but one third left the question about being Northern, Southern, or neither blank. 'Neither' was the second most popular response. Of those who put neither, some may have meant they had a Midlander identity, but were restricted by the phrasing of the question (ibid: 8). Braber did not give the option of 'Midlander', fearing it may lead the responses. However, as 72% of Derbyshire teenagers left this answer blank, it may be because the Midlander

descriptor was not an option. In sum, Braber (2014) found that the Midlander identity is strong among teenagers from the East Midlands, and especially North Derbyshire[15].

Braber's (2014) findings seem to confirm the assumption that, due to Chesterfield's administrative position as part of the East Midlands, Chesterfield residents will largely identify as Midlanders, maybe even having a stronger Midlander identity as a reaction to Chesterfield's close proximity to the border with South Yorkshire (c.f. Braber, 2014). Indeed, Britain (2010: 200) asserted that boundaries between regions may see a 'heightened diversity' in those border towns. However, Braber (2014) only explored the teenage viewpoint. It might also be possible that due to proximity, and being closer in distance to Sheffield than to its county capital, Derby, that Chesterfield residents align themselves more with Sheffield and the North. This may be compounded by the East Midlands' relatively lacklustre reputation (Braber, 2016: 224) and Yorkshire's stronger cultural prominence (c.f. Montgomery, 2016) nationwide through, for example, artistic and sporting achievements. In a larger study, Llamas (2010) explored whether those who live around the Scottish-English border had an accentuated sense of national identity, or the heightened diversity about which Britain (2010) wrote. In contrast, Llamas (2010: 228) found that some borderlands may develop shared 'values' with those who live across the border, especially if they live far from their county or national capital. This finding may have parallels with Chesterfield which, as stated in the introductory chapter, is 29 miles from its county capital, Derby. Llamas (2010) ultimately found that those who live in the West of Britain, either side of the Scottish-English border, had a more flexible national identity and would switch allegiance at will. Llamas (2010) concluded by stating that people who live in borderlands may have a 'hybrid' identity, which can be seen in their linguistic choices (ibid: 235/236). However, in the same region, it has been found that dialect recognition may be affected by power dynamics, or the 'barrier effect' of political borders (Montgomery, 2016). Montgomery (2016) found that there was imbalance around the Scottish-English border, with Scottish people recognising English dialect areas more than the English recognised Scottish dialects. However, the

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[15] The school Braber visited was on the south side of Chesterfield, on the main route into Derby, which may have an effect on their perceptions. However, Braber conducted her research with AS level students who come from all over Chesterfield, minimising this potential caveat (personal correspondence).

possible hybrid identity of those who live on the Midland-North of England border and/or the implications of any barrier effect is yet to be explored.

There is an assumption in sociolinguistics that non-linguists can accurately recognise local dialects (Williams et al, 1999: 345). In the 1980s, Preston developed techniques for PD to explore 'dialect Identification' (Preston, 1999: xxxiv). Respondents listened to voices on a 'dialect continuum' where voices on that continuum were played in a scrambled order. Participants assigned each voice to a site where they thought it belonged. Preston found that respondents were actually better at distinguishing voices from the local area than further afield (Preston, 1999: xxxv)[16]. However, in terms of dialect and accent, Inoue (1999) explained that people form impressions of dialects without truly listening, and that stereotypes of places and people affect these impressions. In 1988 he conducted 'dialectal speech-guessing tests' in Japan, where students were asked to listen to recorded speech from various areas of Japan (ibid). Results show that notions of actual dialects are 'vague and incorrect', with respondents only able to identify a small number of dialects heard in the mass media. There were more 'correct' results obtained from his 'dialectal word-guessing test', where respondents heard artificially accented words. This led Inoue (1999) to propose that there is a difference between the 'dialect image', the mental image the respondent has of the dialect, and the 'actual dialect' (Inoue, 1999: 162). This is supported by Boughton's perceptual study (2006) where inaccurate judgements of French dialects were partly affected by stereotypes of urban and rural areas. Boughton (2006: 300) used authentic speech samples, and stated that:

> The elicitation of folk beliefs about regional variation is a fascinating and valuable research avenue in itself, but the use of authentic speech stimuli for identification and evaluation may not only reveal discrepancies between real and imagined degrees of divergence but could also serve to undermine potentially harmful stereotypes.

Boughton (2006: 301) refers to the 'myths' that surround accents, which show us where an accent 'has been', but the different perceptions of older and younger respondents may show

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[16] Preston (1999) summarised his findings from over the years, suggesting that respondents mostly explain their knowledge of other varieties as an effect of face-to-face contact rather than the influence of the spoken media.

where an accent, or language, is going in the future. Similar to Boughton's (2006) findings, Mayr et al (2019) found that listeners associate Welsh-influenced features of English with bilingual Welsh-English speakers, despite monolingual English speakers from Wales having similar linguistic features. Boughton (2006: 301) may have argued that Mayr et al's findings demonstrate that 'empirical reality' and 'perceived reality' are disjointed. Therefore, similar to Inoue's (1999) assertion, and Boughton's (2006) findings, the stereotype of bilingual Welsh-English speakers might have affected the respondents' incorrect results.

Dialect tasks that explore how well participants recognise voices from the local area began in the UK with Williams et al (1999: 349) who conducted their tests among Welsh teenagers. They went to 14 secondary schools and aimed to record samples representative of six dialect regions of Wales from students with an average age of 14. Two representatives were chosen from each region based on the phonetic/phonological characteristics of the speaker's voice during natural speech. They also chose two samples from RP speakers, and all the voices were male. They visited different schools in the six regions and played the randomised snippets to listener-judges, including teachers from South Wales for comparison (ibid: 350). They found that the teachers were more successful than teens in identifying where the speaker was from (ibid: 351). Just over a quarter of the teen 'judges' recognised one of the RP speakers, and teen recognition of voices from their own dialect communities differed significantly for the recorded pairs of speakers. This was especially true for respondents in Cardiff, the Valleys, and the North East. The authors suggest that this misrecognition is not only based on inadequate life experience, as they heard local voices every day, but potentially on '…inadequate cognitive representation (or awareness) of in-group norms' (ibid: 351). However, because there were consistent patterns in some of the 'wrong' answers the teens gave, for example 44% of Cardiff listeners thought Cardiff1 was from Southwest Wales and 52% of Cardiff judges thought Northwest2 was from their own dialect community, they looked for other possibilities.

Williams et al (1999) explored the possibility that affective factors explain the claiming, or denial, of local voices, rather than misrecognition. The respondents were asked attitudinal questions to test whether the more claimed of the pair of local voices was also the most likeable (ibid: 353). Cardiff2 scored highest for likability, and although most people from all regions identify him as a Cardiff speaker, he was also the most claimed, with just over a

quarter of North East listeners claiming he was from North East Wales and 100% of Cardiff listeners identifying the voice as from Cardiff. Williams et al (1999: 356) explain that claiming and denial (citing Hogg, 1992) is connected to social attraction, with participants wanting to positively judge their own group members. The reason why teens had lower dialect recognition results than teachers may be due to their limited dialect experience, but Williams et al (1999: 357) argued:

> Listeners did not merely recognise or fail to recognise speakers as belonging to specific communities. In some respects, their identifications responded to and manipulated the group designations that we offered them. Most notably, there was a tendency for a very likable speaker to be actively appropriated into the in-group.

They argued that affective factors dominate in recognition tasks where there are inexperienced, or teen, respondents and that it highlights preferences that are linked to their own communities (ibid: 358). In other words, Williams et al (1999) suggested that a voice will be claimed if it is socially attractive to the (teen) listener. Furthermore, social attractiveness, along with negative stereotypes in the media, may have affected the results of Braber's (2016) dialect recognition tasks with teenage respondents. Braber (2016) asked teenagers from Nottinghamshire to describe linguistic features typical of the East Midlands, which they were able to do, albeit with negative connotations attached to the accents of their home county (ibid: 222/223). They explained that there were differences between the accents of Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, and Derbyshire, the latter of which they considered to be more 'country' (ibid: 221). However, the results of the dialect recognition tasks showed that they were unsuccessful in recognising East Midland voices. Braber (2016) proposed that the lack of positive cultural qualities attached to Nottingham, perpetuated in the media, may have led Nottingham teens to misrecognise or even deny local voices (ibid: 231). Therefore, Braber (2016) suggested that a voice from a person's home town or city may be denied by because of the negative associations attached to it. This finding might be supported in part by *The Voices Survey* which aimed to assess the social attractiveness of 34 accents of English based on accent concepts, however, rather than speech samples (Coupland and Bishop, 2007). The Nottingham accent placed 19 out of 34 for social attractiveness, with Standard English coming in first place. The Birmingham accent came last for both social attractiveness and prestige. The authors did, however, find a tendency to

favour one's own accent, with younger people less likely to positively evaluate Standard English. The article does not report where those from the 'North of England/Midlands' positioned the 34 voices, but stated that 'accent identical to own' came in second place for social attractiveness and third for prestige (ibid: 79). This finding would run contrary to Braber's (2016), who suggested that Nottingham teens tend to be negative about their own accent. This difference may be explained by the difference between a test that is based on concepts rather than speech samples.

Other PD studies have tested the degree to which people can recognise their own community dialect. For example, Kerswill and Williams' (2002) dialect recognition tasks in Milton Keynes, Reading and Hull sought to find the factors that make a home dialect more or less recognisable. They presented two younger voices and one older speaker's voice from each place under analysis, choosing sections from interviews they thought had phonetic features typical of the location. Each recording had different content, which they suggested was a possible weakness. They hypothesised that the results would be affected by whether a person's home community was 'focused' or 'diffuse'. According to Kerswill and Williams (2002: 175), a focused community is stable, with slow linguistic change and clear patterns of variation. They theorised that a focused community would recognise other members' language varieties more than a diffuse one. They did outline mediating factors for recognition (Kerswill and Williams, 2002: 176) which included: Life experience of judges (especially depending on whether the social network was close-knit or open, and if the judges were socially and geographically mobile); Absolute linguistic difference between varieties offered, and whether these differences were known to judges; Sociolinguistic maturity of judges, mostly relating to age; Subjectively perceived social attractiveness of speaker due to 'paralinguistic' qualities (voice quality, tempo, pitch range, content). They also tested to see whether working class or middle class respondents would be more successful at own-community dialect recognition. The working class Hull group gave the most successful answers, with both the working class and middle class Hull groups more successful than the Reading and Milton Keynes respondents. The working class Hull respondents had a high percentage of parents born and bred in the local area, suggesting that the judges had locally-based networks explaining their ability to recognise local voices (ibid: 183). The teen judges recognised teen voices more than the older voice partly because

they were linguistically similar, and the voices were perceived to be more attractive. Milton Keynes participants gave more accurate responses than those from Reading, which the authors found surprising given that Reading has a stronger continuation over the generations (ibid: 182). Moreover, the older male voice from Reading was not claimed at all, possibly because he would have been the respondents' great grandfather's age and therefore the accent was unfamiliar (ibid: 192). However, the local respondents guessed that he was from the West Country, which Kerswill and Williams argue is due to rapid regional dialect levelling in Reading: His speech seems remote to them in both in time and place (ibid: 195). The authors also state that the voice fits the 'farmer', negatively perceived, stereotype, which people may no longer wish to associate with Reading, which could lead to teens denying the voice. In sum, the authors find that networks are the most important factor, more important than class, with local networks increasing local dialect recognition (ibid: 196). However, other influences that were found to affect dialect recognition outside of the community included contact with the outside community, the voice sounding like someone they knew, and the influence of spoken media (ibid: 200). Kerswill and Williams (2002: 202) concluded that '…dialect recognition is an aspect of human sociolinguistic behaviour that is mediated by, and interacts with, a range of highly disparate factors' that link to levelling and language change.

This section has explored perceptual boundaries, and their understanding and application in Perceptual Dialectology. The following section outlines another complex boundary: Isoglosses.

2.3.3. Isoglosses

An 'isogloss' is the name given to a line on a map that separates dialect areas. Isoglosses seem to capture the public's imagination, particularly when dialect lexis is the focus. However, recently, isoglosses have tended to be avoided. For example, for the 'Our Dialect' project, MacKenzie et al (2016; 2022) combined responses from over 8000 English speakers to illustrate where on a map of Britain people would use certain sounds or words. Whilst there are only ten maps on the current website, colour coding and percentages are used on these maps to show dialectal variation in a way that depicts gradual transitions. MacKenzie

et al (2022) refer to this methodological approach as 'geospatial 'hotspot' analysis' (MacKenzie et al, 2022: 46). They expand upon the data presented in their website in their recent journal article (ibid). In this article they compare their findings with the Survey of English Dialects (SED) from 70 years prior, merging their maps that were illustrated with geospatial hotspot analysis with the isoglosses produced in the SED's Atlas (Upton and Widdowson, 1996). Their current approach does highlight the rudimentary nature of isoglosses, which does not account for a gradual transition of a linguistic feature across physical space. However, isoglosses may still be of interest in popular culture, with a perceived MOUTH vowel isogloss that separates Chesterfield from Sheffield the subject of Ian McMillan's (2012) BBC radio broadcast (see section 3.4.2). McMillan's radio show set out to determine whether this isogloss existed, based on McMillan's memories of pronunciation of the MOUTH vowel in the Chesterfield area. Whilst McMillan spent an afternoon searching for evidence of his so-called 'HOUSE-ARSE interface', the existence of isoglosses, which might fuel the notion of hard dialectal boundaries, have been questioned by some academics.

Upton and Widdowson published an 'atlas' of English dialects based on the Survey of English Dialects (SED) in 1996 which illustrates many of the dialectal boundaries that were identified across the UK following the SED. However, Upton has since argued that no 'tidy' linguistic boundary exists (Upton, 2012: 267). Upton (2012: 259) stated that to fully understand English dialects and boundaries, it is necessary to examine what linguists have found in terms of production rather than lay people's perceptions of borders, and administrative boundaries alone. Upton (2012) uses the example of the North/South linguistic divide in England to illustrate that isoglosses are problematic, as STRUT-vowel variation and the production of the BATH vowel across England are often used to signify change from Northern to Southern varieties. As Upton and Widdowson (1996) illustrate, these two isoglosses – FOOT/STRUT and BATH - do not occur in the same location. Because of this, Upton (2012) argues that using these two isoglosses to determine a Northern or Southern variety of English is 'blurred' (ibid: 262). Ultimately, he argues that a North/South linguistic divide is a 'fiction' because there cannot be one dividing line based on dialect, rather 'transitions stretching across large tracts of country...' (ibid: 267), and these transitions are usually placed across the Midlands. Interestingly, Jansen and Braber (2020) examined the

FOOT/STRUT divide across the East Midlands in greater depth to understand how it transitions across the Midlands (see section 2.3.1).

In her study of the Nottingham dialect, Braber (2016: 210) writes that the city 'falls near some important isoglosses', and is considered a Northern variety of English based on the unsplit FOOT/STRUT and short /a/ of BATH. Yet, she notes that the Nottingham dialect does contain linguistic features typical of the South (ibid: 211). There is no mention of linguistic features typical of the (East) Midlands from previous studies in her article, which seems to adhere to Upton's (2012) view of the Midlands as a transition zone from North to South. Indeed, Trudgill (1990: 44 cited in Dyer, 2002: 101) stated that the East Midlands has few stereotypical features, except for yod-dropping in all pre-consonantal contexts[17]. Braber (2016: 228), however, questions whether the East Midlands has no characteristic linguistic features, ultimately refuting this assertion based on the mind map information obtained from her teenage participants who commented on the linguistic differences between Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire and Derbyshire. It seems lexical and phonetic features specific to the East Midlands are better known to locals than linguists, and that these features are a lacuna in sociolinguistic research: This would recommend a perceptual approach, in order to find local linguistic knowledge hitherto unknown to sociolinguists.

In contrast, characteristic linguistic features are seemingly more known to locals and outsiders alike in Sheffield, and Yorkshire more generally (See Beal, 2009b for a discussion on Sheffield dialect and the Sheffield band, The Arctic Monkeys), perhaps due to its greater cultural prominence (Montgomery, 2012). Within Sheffield, it has been found that there is a boundary among locals that separates the north east from the south west (Beal, 2010: 221). Finnegan's (2011) sociolinguistic study in Sheffield found the perception of this border corresponded to 'social and linguistic differences' (Beal 2010: 221) and demonstrated how locals can provide insight into linguistic difference. In addition, Finnegan (2011) referred to an isogloss which separates monophthongal from diphthongal variants of FACE and GOAT between South Yorkshire and Derbyshire (citing Trudgill, 1990). She states:

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[17] Arguably only among those who speak 'traditional' dialect – the older generation.

> …monophthong variants of FACE and GOAT can be heard north of the border, whilst diphthong variants can be heard south of the border (p103).

Upton (2012: 262) would likely question this portrayal of a 'distinct' boundary, as his article proposes that isoglosses are more gradual. Nevertheless, Finnegan suggests that contact with people from the Midlands and the South of England may have led to diffusion of closing diphthong FACE and GOAT variants in Sheffield English (2011: 242), at least among Sheffield's middle classes.

This thesis focuses on the relationship between the (East) Midlands and the North. The West Midlands and its relationship with the East Midlands has already been considered in the literature, to some extent. Leach (2018: 61) summarised this relationship, referring to Braber and Flynn's (2015) evidence that suggested the East and West Midlands are separate dialect areas. Upton (2012: 267) similarly explained that there is little 'linkage' between the East and West Midlands. Therefore, the North's relationship with East Midlands, through the centres of Sheffield and Chesterfield, will be explored further in this thesis as it is a gap in sociolinguistic research. The following section will outline historical accounts of both Chesterfield and Sheffield Englishes, which Widdowson (1992-1993: 202) initially inferred may have long been separated by boundaries. He stated that Sheffield:

> …straddles the historical boundary between the Northumbrian and Mercian dialects of Old English. This boundary receded northwards during the Middle English period, allowing Northern forms to mingle with those from the north east Midlands to produce an amalgam which even nowadays is distinct from the speech of its "foreign" neighbours, Barnsley and Chesterfield…

Widdowson (1992-3) stated that the differences between Sheffield and Chesterfield dialects have spanned centuries, until the late twentieth century at least. Similarly, in the late twentieth century, Wells (1982b) described a divide between the dialects of the two neighbours. Wells (1982b: 349) stated that Chesterfield's variety of English is Northern, with the caveat that the linguistic North to him means 'midlands or northern'. Wells (ibid) explains that the linguistic North is found where there is no longer a FOOT-STRUT split, and when BATH is generally the short vowel /a/. As stated, Upton (2012) would dispute the separation of a linguistic North and South by BATH vowel and STRUT-FOOT merger, because

the isoglosses are located in separate places. However, Wells (ibid: 350) divided his linguistic North into 'the midlands', 'middle north' and 'far north'. He placed Sheffield together with Bradford and Manchester in the 'middle north' and Chesterfield in the 'midlands', indicating there was some kind of linguistic divide between the two locations in recent years.

In sum, the existence of 'distinct' isoglosses has been questioned by Upton (2012) who suggested that linguistic change is more gradual, arguing that the Midlands dialect area is simply an area of transition from Northern to Southern varieties of English. However, it has been suggested that there are isoglosses to be found between Chesterfield and Sheffield, most notably FACE and GOAT (Finnegan, 2011), where monophthongal variants of both diphthongs are emblematic of Yorkshire speech. However, Upton (2012) might have argued that monophthongal variants would also have existed in Chesterfield, given his assertion that no isogloss is tidy. Historic accounts of Chesterfield and Sheffield English will be discussed in the following section, answering Upton's (2012) call to examine dialectal boundaries through an examination of linguistic production in combination with popular opinion.

2.4. Historic accounts of Chesterfield and Sheffield Englishes

As this is the first significant account of accent and dialect centred in the Chesterfield area, I will give an account of historical records relating to them. These are compared with Sheffield historical accounts to better understand the traditional similarities between these dialects, and possible basis of local people's perceptions of them. Northern/Midland varieties of English have been studied for hundreds of years, with scholarly interest beginning in the late eighteenth century. Chesterfield's earliest glossary dates as far back as the 1750s, while Sheffield's dates back to the 1790s (Widdowson, 1992-3: 202). Most of these early glossaries were concerned with preserving traditional dialect lexis, but there is also some detailed evidence about phonology. This section will provide a chronological overview of some of the main historical texts that offer insight into Chesterfield and Sheffield dialects from the eighteenth, nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

2.4.1. Chesterfield English

The earliest comprehensive study of Chesterfield's dialect is a collection of Whittington vocabulary made by Samuel Pegge in the eighteenth century. Next, an in-house magazine wrote about curiosities of the purportedly hyper-local Brampton accent in the 1930s. Finally, The Survey of English Language and Folklore collected information about dialect lexis in Chesterfield from the 1960s.

Pegge (1896)

Samuel Pegge was born in Chesterfield and made Rector of Whittington in 1751. It is believed he began collecting dialect lexis for his two volumes of 'Derbicisms' around this date[18] but his collections were only published posthumously the following century by the English Dialect Society.
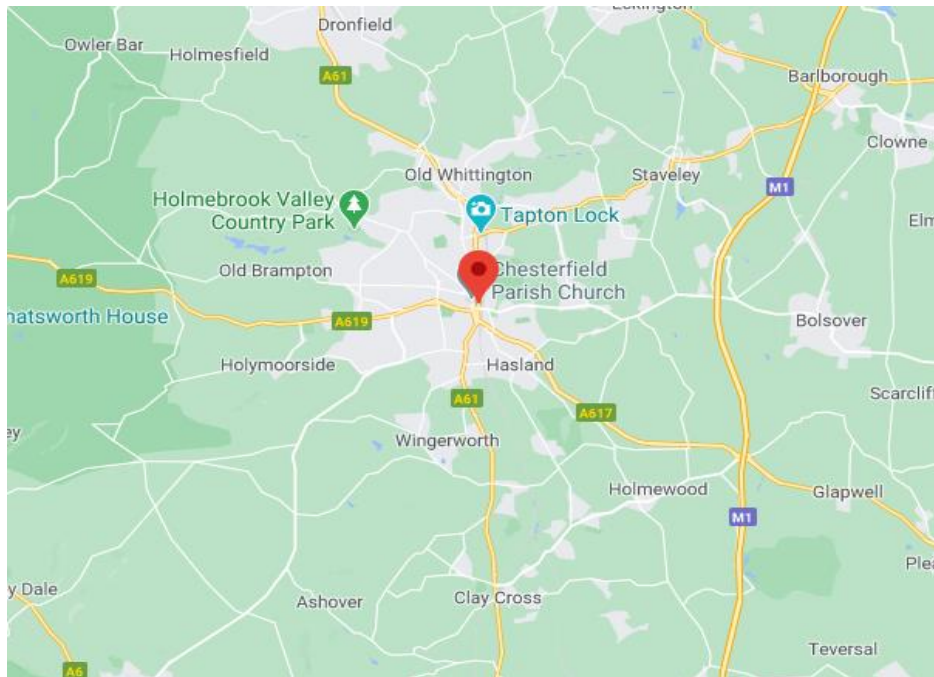
Figure 2.1: Map of Chesterfield in 2021.

The first volume benefits from the notes of Thomas Hallam, who was interested in lexical attrition. Widdowson (1992-3: 211) praised Hallam for his thorough fieldwork, interviewing four people from Whittington in 1890 for comparison with Pegge's glossary, and translating

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[18] Professor Skeat wrote in the introduction to the first collection that Pegge began collecting data for his glossary as early as 1751 (p. xiv) and continued to add to these collections up to his death in 1796 (p. xiv).

their words into Glossic, the phonetic script that A.J. Ellis devised. Writing at least 100 years later, Hallam stated in the introduction to Part II of Pegge's 'Two Collections of Derbicisms' that the dialect of Whittington was representative a dialect area beginning in the north with Dore and Dronfield, extending south through Whittington, Chesterfield, Brampton, and Ashover, and ending in the south with Alfreton and South Wingfield (p. xxv).[19] Whittington is the area of Chesterfield closest to Sheffield, now known as Old Whittington (see Figure 2.1). Widdowson (1992-3: 210) wrote that Old Whittington was the perfect place to study the north of the old Midland dialect area, and that this dialect would have influenced the 'southern fringe of Sheffield'[20].

Professor Skeat, the then President of the Yorkshire Dialect Society, and founder of the English Dialect Society in 1873 (Pearce, 2020), compiled the first collection of Pegge's Derbicisms with the advice and assistance of Thomas Hallam. Hallam has been hailed as the 'unsung hero of English regional dialectology in the late nineteenth century' (Widdowson, 1992-3: 210/11). Of the 899 dialect words Hallam examined from Pegge's original collection, only 586 were eventually found to be still used, with some of the original entries found to be Standard English words (13), some 'doubtful' (5) and others 'obsolete' (295) (p. lx). The second collection, compiled by Skeat, does not benefit from Hallam's further research.

One notable entry in Pegge's preface to the first collection concerns the FLEECE vowel (Wells, 1982b). He notes:

1) '**ee** is *ẽi; feit*, feet; *cheise*, cheese; *apeice*, apiece; especially in the Peak.' (p. ix)

This entry makes for an interesting comparison with a 1932 article written in 'The Link' magazine (based in Brampton, Chesterfield) (see the following section). It is believed that this record indicates that a variant of FLEECE more akin to FACE existed in Whittington at that time. While this FLEECE variant is not heard in the region today, it seems to have been part of Whittington's, Brampton's, and Youlgreave's traditional dialect. This variant is recorded in the above example from 1751 (Pegge's glossary) up to the 1950s (SED). Farmers

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[19] Today, Old Whittington, Brampton and Ashover are all areas of Chesterfield, Dronfield remains in North Derbyshire, while Dore is now part of South Yorkshire.
[20] Whittington is one of the locations that Ian McMillan visited for his Radio 4 show exploring the MOUTH vowel around the Chesterfield and Sheffield border: McMillan (2012).

from the Peak District are likely to have travelled through Brampton to arrive at Chesterfield town centre's agricultural markets, and Brampton itself was once largely agricultural. As Brampton became more industrialised with workers coming from surrounding areas, and as transportation from outlying farms became quicker and more direct, it is probable that traditional dialect features such as this variant of the FLEECE vowel became marginalised. However, the poem by J.R.Booker (see the Foreword to this thesis) suggests that this variant of FLEECE was once also connected with Sheffield. The Chesterfield poet was confused by his Sheffield friend, Al's, pronunciation when he stated that he had fished with 'chays' all day. Weeks later, the narrator understood that his friend had fished with 'cheese' after Al had said he had forgotten his 'door-KAYS'. This poem is believed to have been written in the latter part of the twentieth century, and demonstrates how a variant once known to be connected with Chesterfield and the Peak died out in this region, and was latterly considered a relatively unknown feature of Sheffield speech by the Chesterfield poet.

The Link (1918-1988)

The Link magazine was a Quarterly written for the employees of one of Chesterfield's biggest manufacturers, Robinson and Sons Ltd, with largely anonymous contributions from staff. Between the two world wars, Robinson's staff members grew from 2,050 in 1920 to 3,454 in 1939, which meant that The Link magazine had the potential to reach large numbers of Chesterfield's population at that time (Wright, 1992: 400). Robinson's and Sons Ltd had a factory based in Brampton, Chesterfield, from the 1890s which specialised in paper packaging and textile manufacture. The Link's articles could be responded to if staff members wrote to the editor or writer of the article, who usually wrote under a pseudonym.

In March 1932, The Link published an article entitled 'Broad Brampton' written by an author using the pseudonym 'Evitan', which is 'native' in reverse. Evitan mentioned that s/he was not a language expert, but was born in Brampton and had an interest in local dialect (p.12). S/he invited correspondence on the subject so that the magazine could subsequently give readers examples of 'unusual words and curious expressions in our local speech' (p13). This article tended to focus on hyperlocal words that were seemingly dying out, such as 'sprockle' that seemed to be used in relation to a sports match. Unfortunately, no explanation about the meaning of this word, or many of the words, was mentioned indicating that the writer

expected his/her readers to already be familiar with them. The author did comment on the trend for preserving dialects and the unique nature of 'Broad Brampton' at that time, which s/he suggests was once different from Chesterfield's dialect (p.11). The writer observed that the Sheffield dialect 'encroaches' from the north as does the Mid-Derbyshire dialect from the south (p.11), and that after Brampton was subsumed under the 'larger borough', it had become more difficult to 'distinguish real native speech from the language of the coal and iron districts which has strongly overlapped it from the East' (p.11). According to Wright (1992: 267), Chesterfield borough was extended in 1920 to include Brampton and Whittington. This was 12 years before Evitan was writing this article, but it was clearly still a subject of note for the author. One example given of a surviving Brampton variant is the pronunciation of 'meat' as 'meight', which compares with Pegge's note about the pronunciation of 'feet' as 'feit'. This implies that 'Broad Bramptonian' did have some parallels with the Whittington pronunciation, supporting Hallam's (1896) observation that these dialects were largely the same (in Pegge, 1896). The author goes on to note examples of dialect vocabulary connected to 'broad' Brampton in this article including 'nesh' and 'mardy', which survive to this day in the dialect of Chesterfield and beyond. The author comments that mardy 'always mystifies outsiders' (p.11). This may be an example of dialect vocabulary that is thought to be local, but was in fact used throughout a much larger vicinity.

The Survey of English Language and Folklore (1966-2002)

In 1964 John Widdowson initiated what is now known as *The Survey of English Language and Folklore* (accessed via The National Archives at the Western Bank library, The University of Sheffield, 2016). Informants for this project were asked to give their name and brief details about their background, such as age, where they were born, and where they lived at the date the information was given. Some participants made several contributions about what they believed to be local dialect vocabulary and/or folklore traditions. They often explained where they first heard the word or phrase, or experienced the tradition, and these could date back prior to the 1960s. There is a collection of data from Chesterfield, Stavely, and Whittington informants. The latter, especially, makes for an interesting comparison with Pegge's collection, although detail about pronunciation is not provided. The word 'orts' appears both within the Survey of English language and Folklore and Pegge's glossary (Pegge, 1896: 51). In the former, the informant from the Whittington area, who was 39 years

of age in 1968 when her contribution began, first heard this word from her mother who was also from Whittington. The entry for 'orts', dated 14.05.1968, provides the explanation 'left-overs', which concurs with Pegge/Hallam's definition; 'remains (of fodder or of children's food' (Pegge, 1896: 51). This would infer that the word survived from the eighteenth century until at least the 1960s in the Whittington area, but it is unclear from these sources alone whether 'orts' only existed in this area of Chesterfield. One difficulty with this collection is that, at the time of my research, it had yet to be been digitised. It is laborious to determine where there is overlap in the sample, where meanings ascribed to a word differ, or where a word is believed to be hyperlocal but in fact is not. For example, some of the dialect words provided for the Whittington area are in use in the wider Chesterfield area today, such as 'mardy' (see also The Link, which saw this as a 'broad' Brampton word) and 'jennel' for a passage between two houses.

Many of the dialect words recorded for this survey may have already died out, or are no longer in common usage because the tradition connected with that vocabulary has ended. For example, there are several words listed that give dialect names for birds, such as 'spadger' for 'sparrow', that are no longer commonly understood. However, these local terms seem to be having a resurgence in the names given to local beer or breweries. For example, Brampton Breweries sold a beer called 'Spadger' in 2016, and some families still use 'spadger' as a term of endearment despite not being fully aware of its ornithological provenance. It can be surmised that as people become less connected to nature, many traditional dialect words become less well known. In addition, the many words connected to eating and drinking habits that no longer exists may too have died out. For example, 'sword' refers to the rind of bacon in the Survey, which is no longer commonly sold along with the rasher, and 'pobs' refers to the combination of bread and milk given to recovering patients, which is a tradition that is largely no longer in common use.

In sum, Chesterfield's dialect has been the subject of some detailed interest, most notably Pegge's dialect dictionary, but, as was common in the nineteenth century, mostly as a record of traditional dialect lexis. One linguistic variant frequently linked to Chesterfield was the pronunciation of FLEECE as FACE which carried on to the 1930s at least, according to Evitan (1932), but was connected latterly with Sheffield according to Booker's poem (nd), presented in the Foreword.

2.4.2. Sheffield English

One of the earliest records of Sheffield English was Hunter's 'Hallamshire Glossary' written in 1829. Following that, Addy's Glossary of 1888 was a more comprehensive account of Sheffield's dialect lexis, published by the English Dialect Society.

Hunter (1829)

Hunter's glossary focused on dialect lexis, gathering examples from between 1790 and 1810. According to Widdowson (1992-3: 203) it is the earliest extensive record of Sheffield English. Among the notable examples is the pronunciation of 'go' as 'gooa' in Sheffield, which Widdowson (ibid) stated was still in use in Sheffield in the 1990s. Finnegan (2011) commented on Hunter's orthographic records of Sheffield's GOAT pronunciation, which records the [ɔɪ] variants of 'close', 'hole' and 'coal': *cloyse, hoylle, coylle* (Table 2.2).

Addy (1888)

Finnegan (2011: 82) stated that Addy's Glossary was the most comprehensive account of Sheffield dialects before the 1950s. Widdowson (1992-3: 206) published examples of phonological information taken from Addy's Glossary, including information about variants of the FLEECE, GOAT and FACE vowels. Widdowson (ibid) records the following concerning the FLEECE vowel /iː/:

iː > ɛ   etten (eaten)

  > iə   leead (to lead)

  > ei   mait (meat)

The latter entry seems to verify that a variant of FLEECE approximating [eɪ] was indeed used in Sheffield at the same time that Thomas Hallam updated and published Pegge's collection of Derbicisms, when it was also used in Old Whittington, Chesterfield.

Widdowson (1992-3: 207) records Addy's information about variants of the FACE /eɪ / and GOAT /əʊ / vowels used in nineteenth century Sheffield, included in Tables 2.1 and 2.2. Widdowson (1992-3: 207) stated that although Addy's work was of phonological interest, his work mainly comprised dialect lexis. He stated that many words recorded here were still in use at the time of writing, including 'gennell' for passageway. Addy also notes differences between Derbyshire and Sheffield English, with Widdowson (1992-3: 209) citing small differences in the pronunciation of dialect lexis, for example 'gonner' as opposed to Sheffield's 'ganner' (gander).

Table 2.1: Historical records of the FACE variants in Chesterfield and Sheffield (Pegge 1896; Finnegan 2011; Widdowson 1992-93).

Study	Variant	Examples	Standard English
Pegge/Hallam (1896): Chesterfield			
Hunter (1829): Sheffield	[a]	Babby	Baby
	[ɛɪ]	Straight	Straight
Addy (1888): Sheffield	[a]	Babby	Baby
		Mak	Make
		Shake	Shake
	[ɛ]	Credle	Cradle
		Gev	Gave
		Great	Great
	[ɛɪ]	Weigh	Weigh
	[ɔ:]	Scraup	Scrape

Table 2.2: Historical records of the GOAT variants in Chesterfield and Sheffield (Pegge 1896; Finnegan 2011; Widdowson 1992-93).

Study	Variant	Examples	Standard English
Pegge/Hallam (1896): Chesterfield	[ɔʊ] or [(th)uuw.d ŭn] in Glossic [uə] or [sooŭ] in Glossic	Th'owd on Sooo-a	The old one So
Hunter (1829): Sheffield	[ɔɪ] [uə] [ɔʊ]	Cloyse Coylle Goooa Whooam Owd	Close Coal Go Home Old
Addy (1888): Sheffield	[ɔɪ] [uə] [ɔʊ]	Cloyse Hoil Coil Coit Goooa Hooam Noat Fowd Owd	Close Hole Coal Coat Go Home Note Fold Old
SED (1950s): Sheffield	[ɒi]	Coil Throyt	Coal Throat

In sum, both Chesterfield and Sheffield have quite detailed historical accounts of, specifically, dialect lexis. There is some information about phonology, with Chesterfield's GOAT vowel sharing some similarities with Sheffield's, historically (Table 2.2). However, Table 2.1 would suggest that, historically, the FACE vowel was not socially marked in Chesterfield. This historical data will be compared with more recent findings in the following section.

2.5. Recent sociolinguistic accounts of East Midland and Sheffield Englishes

There has been sociolinguistic interest in East Midland dialects in recent years (Docherty and Foulkes, 1999; Flynn, 2010; Flynn, 2012; Le Baigue, 2010) and in the Sheffield dialect (Finnegan, 2011; Kirkham, 2015; Stoddart et al, 1999). A review of the main findings from

recent research is presented below, by lexical set (Wells, 1982a). The GOAT and FACE vowels are given a separate section based on Finnegan's (2011) doctoral research which suggests that, traditionally, there is a linguistic divide between Chesterfield and Sheffield with Chesterfield's production of these two vowels more diphthongal and Sheffield's more monophthongal.

2.5.1. Lexical set

Information from quantitative studies across Sheffield and the East Midlands is outlined, below, organised by lexical set (Wells, 1982a).

FLEECE

Given the discussion in section 2.4.1 that is suggestive of a FLEECE/FACE merger in traditional Chesterfield English, it is interesting to find no mention of FACE used for FLEECE in Docherty and Foulkes' (1999) more recent study in Derby. However, Stoddart et al (1999) claimed that [eɪ] was heard among older Sheffield speakers in *key, speak* and *eat*, along with [ɪə] in *heat, sweet* and *leaves*. This suggests that the poem by J.R.Booker (foreword) may have been correct to connect the FACE variant of FLEECE with older Sheffield males in more recent times, hinting that this feature may have either died out in Chesterfield, or be connected more recently by Chesterfield locals with Sheffield.

PRICE

Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 48) stated that Derby's is a Northern variety, however, the authors noted that Derby English had some links to the South and Midlands in, for example, the PRICE vowel. The authors stated that there is a gender divide between the PRICE variants that were commonly used in Derby. Working class males frequently used a diphthong with a backed first element, [ɑɪ] or [ɒɪ], whereas females frequently used a diphthong with a very long first element and weak offglide [aːˑⁱ]. According to them, this is almost never heard in reverse (ibid: 50). Stoddart et al (1999: 75) painted a broadly similar picture for Sheffield, but unlike Derby females, Sheffielders were not heard to use this variant of PRICE. Older Sheffield speakers' use of the [iː] variant in words such as *right* and *night* was noted,

however. This variant was recognised among Sheffield speakers, and those from surrounding areas, to be typical of the Sheffield dialect. However, Docherty and Foulkes (1999) suggested that [iː] or [ɛɪ] might be heard occasionally among the older Derby population in *right* and *night.*

Flynn (2012) found that PRICE was being levelled towards the standard with the sex-based differences of this variant that were observed throughout the East Midlands (observed by Docherty and Foulkes, 1999, in Derby) being lost. The local variants for PRICE, monophthongs [aː] and [aːɪ], and the diphthong [ɔɪ], had reduced over apparent time in Nottingham (see section 2.6 for a discussion of apparent time studies). Middle-class females were the highest users of the standard PRICE diphthong while working-class females used the standard the least, favouring both [aː] and [aːɪ]. Males seldom used [aːɪ] (p.232). The only group for whom the standard was not the majority variable was older middle-class males who used [ɔɪ] the most (p233). However, the young working-classes and young middle-class females did not use this variable at all (p233). Flynn's research indicates that sex-based divisions of [aːɪ], used by females, and [ɔɪ], by males, were being lost (p233).

MOUTH

Flynn (2012) found that the local monophthongal MOUTH variant in Nottinghamshire was not levelling towards the standard. The local monophthongal variant [aː] still predominated, with only young middle-class females showing an increase in the use of the standard diphthong (p 212). Flynn suggested, however, that MOUTH showed clear class-based divisions, with the working-classes using the local monophthongal variant more than the middle-classes. Yet, within the working-classes, the younger and older groups realised the monophthong differently (the younger variable was backer and lower than the older) to differentiate themselves from older people (p406). As with Nottingham, Finnegan's (2011) attitudinal data recorded that a Sheffield respondent noticed that 'down town' in Chesterfield is articulated with the monophthong [aː], suggesting that this differed from Sheffield. McMillan (2012) has jokingly discussed the 'HOUSE-ARSE interface' that exists somewhere between Sheffield and Chesterfield where 'house' in Sheffield transitioned to sound like 'arse' in Chesterfield. Le Baigue 2010: 35 recorded [aː] and [aʊ] in Chesterfield as

majority variants of MOUTH, but these variants seem to be used in all four locations according to these qualitative data (see Table 2.3.)

happY

The lax variant of happY, explored by Kirkham (2015) in Sheffield, was also noted by Stoddart et al (1999), but it has not been recorded in Derby speech. Kirkham focused on the realisation of the happY vowel among multi-ethnic groups of adolescent girls at a Sheffield secondary school. He reported that a hyper-lax variant of happY, [ɛ̈], had been associated with Sheffield's working-classes, but that the middle-classes were changing towards a tenser variant, [i]. Meanwhile, Flynn (2010) explored this variant in Nottingham, finding some hyper-lax variants approaching [ɛ] among Nottingham adolescents. He explained that [ɪ] is used across many areas of the linguistic North, despite 'happY-tensing' incoming from the South where this variant resembled the FLEECE vowel. In Chesterfield, Le Baigue (2010) recorded iː for happY, with no lax variants.

Table 2.3: A comparison of Chesterfield, Sheffield, South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire vowel sound variants from recent studies (Docherty and Foulkes, 1999; Finnegan, 2011; Flynn, 2010; Flynn, 2012, Kirkham, 2015; Le Baigue, 2010; Stoddart et al, 1999).

Lexical Set	Chesterfield	Derby	Sheffield	Nottingham
FLEECE		iː ~ ɪi	ɪiː > iː ~ ɪi(ː) eɪ ~ ɪə	
PRICE		aɪ ~ ɑɪ ~ ɒɪ ~ aːːˡ iː ~ ɛɪ	ɑɪ ~ ɑːˡ > aɪ iː	aɪ > aː ~ aːɪ ~ɔɪ
MOUTH	aː ~ aʊ > ɛː	aː > aʊ	aː ~ aʊ ~ aʊ̆	aː > aʊ
happY	iː ~ ɪ	iː > ɪ	ɪ > e ~ ɛ ɛ̈ ~ i	ɛ~ɪ~iː

As can be seen in Table 2.3, although there is less information about Chesterfield English from recent quantitative studies, there are similarities to be found between the East Midland and Sheffield varieties under analysis. The MOUTH vowel especially has been found to be similar in its more monophthongal realisation across this region, which would go

against McMillan's (2012) supposition concerning the existence of an isogloss that separates Chesterfield's more monophthongal variants from Sheffield's more diphthongal.

2.5.2. Recent sociolinguistic findings for FACE and GOAT

Wells (1982a: 141) described the Standard Southern British English (SSBE) FACE vowel as the stressed vowel /eɪ/, which is a 'front narrow closing diphthong'. FACE was presented as eː (~ ɛɪ) in Sheffield (Wells, 1982b: 364/5) but diphthongal in the East Midlands. He wrote that GOAT is typically a diphthong in SSBE with 'a mid central unrounded starting-point…moving towards a somewhat closer and backer lightly rounded second element'. It is represented phonetically as /əʊ/ (1982a: 146).

Historical data for FACE and GOAT vowels in Chesterfield and Sheffield were presented in Tables 2.1 and 2.2, respectively. Nineteenth century glossaries recorded a number of variants of FACE and GOAT in Sheffield, which are summarised in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Nineteenth century FACE and GOAT vowels found in Sheffield (Hunter, 1829; Addy, 1888).

Diphthong	Variants
FACE	a; ɛɪ; ɛ; ɔː
GOAT	ɔɪ; uə; ɔʊ; ɒ

Table 2.4 presents several variants for FACE and GOAT diphthongs used historically in Sheffield, while Pegge (1896) only presents two GOAT variants used in Chesterfield at that time, showing some parity with Sheffield: [uə] and [ɔʊ]. Both of these variants of GOAT are diphthongal, while all of the Sheffield variants, for FACE especially, included some monophthongisation.

More recent studies have found that Sheffield variants of FACE and GOAT tend to be more monophthongal than diphthongal (Table 2.5) whereas Derby variants have been found to be more diphthongal. The Urban Voices project analysed speech from Sheffield (Stoddart et al, 1999) and Derby (Docherty and Foulkes 1999) in the late 1990s, and makes for an interesting

comparison. Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 48) stated that Derby's is a Northern variety, which can be seen from its 'many similarities with Sheffield'.

Table 2.5: Comparison of Sheffield and Derby FACE and GOAT vowels (Docherty and Foulkes, 1999; Stoddart et al, 1999).

Lexical Set	Derby	Sheffield
FACE	ɛɪ	eː > eːˈ
GOAT	əʉ ~ ou	ɔː > oʊ > əʊ

Docherty and Foulkes (1999) found that the [ɛɪ] variant predominated in Derby for FACE, whereas [eː] was the variant most common in Sheffield (Stoddart et al, 1999). In terms of GOAT, Stoddart et al (1999) record that [ɔː] is most common for all ages in Sheffield. There is no mention, however, of a centralised monophthongal variant, [ɵː], which Finnegan (2011) identified as incoming in Sheffield middle class speech, especially among the females in her sample. Watt and Tillotson suggest this is a feature that is 'becoming typical of an area stretching from Yorkshire almost to the Scottish border' (2001: 296). For Derby speech, Docherty and Foulkes (1999) also identify [ʊ] in words such as 'going', but not in more formal speech such as found in word list data. Older Derby males used back rounded variants, whereas there is influence from the South of England heard in the more centralised variants, for example [əʉ], of younger people and the older middle classes.

Derby speech patterns, according to Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 48), '… differ markedly in many respects from those found in the county at large'. This was partly due to Derby's location in the far south of the county, and because it lies on the edge of several dialect areas (cf. Wright, 1905: 4; Wells, 1982b; 350). The authors argued that Derby's characteristic features are seen less in the speech of the rest of the county, which they suggest blends into the surrounding counties. This might suggest that Chesterfield's accent lies closer to Sheffield's than Derby's due to geographical proximity.

Stoddart et al (1999) found that although the Sheffield accent had changed over the 40-50 years between the interview for the Survey of English Dialects and their data collection from the 1990s, and lexis changed significantly, the accent remained remarkable for its similarities with the 1950's data. This might suggest that the Sheffield variants of FACE and GOAT, in

Table 2.5, have remained stable through to the present day. However, Finnegan (2011) found different results, probably due to the demographic of her participants. Her work focused on FACE and GOAT vowels among the middle-classes in West Sheffield, an area that is considered to be affluent. Finnegan found that closing diphthongs [ɛɪ] and [oʊ], for FACE and GOAT respectively, were in an advanced stage in West Sheffield, replacing the traditional long monophthongs [eː] and [ɔː] among Sheffield's middle classes. She suggested the closing diphthongs are more typical of the variables spoken in Derbyshire, and explored the possibility that face-to-face contact with commuters from the south of Sheffield contributed to the change in the FACE and GOAT vowels. In addition, the central GOAT monophthong [ɵː] was found it be in its early stages. This variable has been found in both East and West Yorkshire (c.f. Watt and Tillotson, 2001). Watt and Tillotson (2001) suggested that the increased use of the monophthongal form is comparable to the situation in Tyneside English where monophthongal forms of GOAT were used in order to avoid the perceived stigma attached to more traditional, nonstandard diphthongal variants (c.f. Watt and Milroy, 1999). Watt and Tillotson (2001:273) concluded that the increased use of the more modern or urban monophthongal form of GOAT, which is 'still recognisably northern', was preferred by speakers to the diphthongal forms, which were locally stigmatised and considered to be out-dated, traditional, or old fashioned.

More recent publications stated that East Midlands' FACE and GOAT vowels were usually diphthongal. Braber and Robinson (2018) collated recent[21] and more historical data from various sources to analyse speech across the East Midlands (Table 2.6).

Table 2.6: East Midland FACE and GOAT vowels (Braber and Robinson, 2018: 40-44).

Lexical Set	Phonetic Realisation
FACE	[ɛɪ ~ ɛi > ɛɪː]
GOAT	[ɔʊ ~ əʊ ~ əʉ]

They found that for both FACE and GOAT, monophthongs that were once common towards the north of the East Midlands have now been replaced by diphthongs. For FACE,

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[21] Correspondence with Natalie Braber informs me that this is taken from unpublished data collected with Sandra Jensen.

monophthongal [eː, ɛː], reported by SED fieldworkers in Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire, were 'almost entirely absent from our present-day data' (ibid: 43). Instead, they reported 'almost universal' diphthongal realisation 'of the type / ɛɪ/' (ibid). As for GOAT, they stated that patterns in the East Midlands are less 'homogenous' than in more northerly areas, '…where the predominant realisation is a monophthongal vowel…' (ibid: 40). They quoted the SED, where examples of monophthongal [oː > ɔː] were found in North Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire. However, from their own recent data, they found that there are now very few monophthongal tokens to be found, and that fully rounded variants [oʊ, ɔʊ] 'dominate in the north of the region' (ibid: 41) with more centralised upglides [əʊ, əʉ] in the south of the region, including Derby and Nottingham. For Chesterfield, Le Baigue (2010: 35) found also GOAT [oʊ][22]. Braber and Robinson (2018), however, referred to Docherty and Foulkes' (1999: 49) finding that there was a shift across the generations from [oʊ, ɔʊ] to [əʊ, əʉ] in Derby, and suggested that their data comprised mainly older speakers in the north of the region, therefore it is possible that [əʊ, əʉ], the more standard variant, had already diffused further north in the East Midlands region. Variants of GOAT found in the East Midlands, and highlighted by Braber and Robinson (2018: 41), included 'go' as [guː] or [gʊ], but less so among younger speakers.

Previous studies, therefore, suggested that the current situation is the diphthongal realisation of FACE and GOAT in Chesterfield, because of its geographical position in the north of the East Midlands, with Sheffield speakers drawing from a selection of variables including traditional monophthongs, more standard diphthongs that may be diffusing from the south, including Chesterfield, and GOAT-fronting that was moving across from East Yorkshire.

2.6. Apparent-time studies

This thesis focuses on the different perspectives and linguistic production of three age groups from Chesterfield: Teenage, Middle Age and Older Age, as will be discussed in greater depth in the Methodology (Chapter 3). Whilst most studies from perceptual dialectology

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[22] Le Baigue (2010) found FACE [ɛɪ] for Chesterfield.

(PD) have tended to focus on the younger age groups (Williams et al, 1999; Braber, 2014; Montgomery, 2015), studies around language change tend to focus in different age groups. This section will discuss the literature that has focused on language change in either 'real' time (Harrington, et al, 2000; Pope, et al, 2007) or 'apparent' time (Britain, 2002; Watt, 2002; Torgesen and Kerswill, 2004).

Recent quantitative studies that examine linguistic change over time tend to either be in 'real-time' or 'apparent-time'. Real-time studies examine the speech of the same individuals over time (a 'panel survey'), or the same population resurveyed using the same method as the original (a 'trend survey'). Apparent-time studies examine the speech of different generations of speakers at one point in time. Apparent-time studies tend not to align with third-wave thinking given that they focus less on agency, and rest upon the assumption that people from the same place and generation share linguistic characteristics. Moreover, studies over apparent-time rely upon the notion that language is static after the 'critical period' of language acquisition, which has been contested. Nevertheless, alternative approaches are yet to be found, so despite the misgivings of some researchers, outlined below, these methods remain the main two when examining linguistic change over time.

Despite evidence that an individual's speech can change after adolescence (Cokor-Avila and Bailey, 2001, cited in Mendoza-Denton, 2008: 218), apparent-time theory has been frequently applied in order to reflect wide-scale linguistic changes in real-time. Bowie (2010) challenged this notion by testing whether a group of individuals from the same isolated community changed their accent in real-time when age was the only factor. He found that his sample's speech actually became more diverse with age. Bowie (2010: 65) argued that people's speech becomes dissimilar over time and that, furthermore, the apparent-time model does not account for people drawing on their ever-expanding linguistic repertoires to represent how they are feeling in that one moment, which may be different if the same task was conducted another day.

Despite these misgivings, there are many well-respected studies that use the apparent-time model. These include Watt's (2002) study of Tyneside English, where the FACE and GOAT vowels were analysed across two generations, both sexes, and the working- and middle-classes. He found that GOAT-fronting here was led by working-class males, perhaps to reject

the older diphthongal variant while maintaining local loyalty through GOAT-fronting's similarity to the traditional Northumbrian GOAT pronunciation. However, Watt (2002) argued that levelling from Hull and Bradford may also have been the cause of this change. Other studies that use the apparent-time model are Britain (2002), with his study of British English in the English Fens, where he concluded that there was change in progress regarding the levelling of 'was', and Torgesen and Kerswill's (2004) study of language change in Reading and Ashford, where analysis of the speech of two age groups, 14-15 and 70-80, showed regional dialect levelling.

Studies that examine changes to speech over real-time are generally preferred due to them testing the same speaker(s), or using the same methodological approach, over a period of time. Panel surveys pose many challenges to the researcher, however, not least the ability to locate the same participants after a period of time has elapsed and regaining their consent. If this should be successful, the generalisability of the results may be called into question given that life events, such as moving away from the location under analysis, may have caused the interviewee to cease to be representative of the community at hand. It is common for real-time studies, therefore, either to replicate the original study using a new population, or to use samples of speech taken from the broadcast media[23]. Examples of real-time studies that use broadcast speeches include Harrington et al's (2000) examination of the speech of Queen Elizabeth II in her Christmas addresses where they analysed nine monologues from the 1950s to 1980s, concluding that her speech had shifted over the years to a more mainstream version of RP. This study, while of interest, is less generalisable than real-time studies that sample larger speech populations. These include Pope et al's (2007) trend survey that revisits Martha's Vineyard (Labov, 1963). They noted that Labov's (1963) survey was in apparent-time, before it was given this label, and that their study aimed to reproduce Labov's original study as closely as possible in order to make real-time comparisons. Perhaps of most interest here is that their results largely corroborate Labov's assertions about linguistic change based on apparent-time. They claim that:

> Our data appear to support Labov's original conclusions about the validity of using
> speaker age as a synchronic measure of ongoing change (Pope et al, 2007: 616).

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[23] As with Bowie (2010) who used the broadcast speech of Mormon preachers.

Pope et al (2007: 623) qualify this finding, stating that the apparent-time model is a good predictor of change where the variables under analysis are below the level of conscious awareness. However, their findings still suggest that despite the misgivings of some (Bowie, 2010) the apparent-time model is likely to continue to be used as a viable method for analysis language variation and change for many more years to come.

2.7. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed issues of identity, and explored geographical and perceptual boundaries. It has considered the literature's response to isoglosses, summarised key historical and more recent texts about Chesterfield and Sheffield dialects, and considered the suitability of the apparent-time model.

The identity section claimed that Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985) advanced the theory that individuals are able to consciously change their language to resemble groups of people they admire, and contrast those they do not[24], as opposed to group memberships of gender, ethnicity and class solely determining their speech. This links with more recent findings on style shifting, and performing identity through language choice. The call to learn whether 'personal orientation' (Ito and Preston, 1998: 480) is a determining feature in speech will be addressed in my study by asking participants whether they feel Chesterfield and Sheffield sits: In the Midlands or the North (see Methodology, section 3.4.3). However, this is in itself a difficult question, given the disagreement over where to place the East Midlands both geographically and linguistically. As Chesterfield is positioned close to several borders, issues arise about whether residents view themselves as very different from those who live across the administrative border in Sheffield, or if they are more attracted to Sheffield due to the East Midlands' lack of (positive) cultural prominence. Whether the East Midlands is perceived to be lacking in identifying (linguistic) features was raised, with the literature most often placing it as a sub-category of the linguistic North. However, Braber's (2016) research suggested that non-linguists can identify features specific to different areas of the East Midlands, even if participants were negative towards their own accent and reluctant to claim

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[24] Although, it is acknowledged that many other factors may influence linguistic accommodation.

local voices as their own. However, perceptual recognition has not widely been conducted with older age groups in the East Midlands, and therefore life experience may lead to greater dialect recognition and confidence about where local voices belong. Next, the issue of the East Midlands simply being seen a transition zone from North to South was addressed. Unfortunately, the historical records around the Chesterfield dialect mostly focus on dialect lexis, with many similarities to Sheffield English being noted in the Sheffield glossaries. For example, Addy (1888) cited differences between Derbyshire and Sheffield voices, but only suggested slight variation in dialect words. However, more recent studies highlighted linguistic differences between the two locations (Wells, 1982b; Widdowson, 1992-3) with Finnegan (2011) specifying that the FACE and GOAT isoglosses are largely believed to separate Chesterfield and Sheffield. It was noted that Upton (2012) does not believe in hard linguistic boundaries, suggesting that there is a transition zone rather than a boundary that separates one linguistic feature from another. FACE and GOAT were discussed in more detail, with reference to more recent quantitative studies from the East Midlands and South Yorkshire, with Braber and Robinson (2018) seeming to confirm the more diphthongal realisations of both vowels in North Derbyshire. Finally, the advantages and disadvantages of apparent-time studies were discussed, with the conclusion that the apparent-time approach will most likely be used in the study of language change for many years to come. The Methodology section, Chapter 3, will now take up this discussion with greater reference to the methodological approaches adopted for this thesis.

3. Methodology

3.1. Introduction

My thesis subscribes to current sociolinguistic theory whereby it is understood that people have a degree of agency to perform identities through speech, no matter their age, class, ethnicity, or gender, and even in more formal contexts (Burland-Gibson, 2019; Eckert, 2012; Snell, 2010; Sharma and Rampton, 2014). However, it is also acknowledged that methodologically, stratifying linguistic data by social groupings, such as age and gender, suggests patterns that offer sociolinguistic insight, particularly in locations yet to be analysed, and this approach is still frequently taken in dialectology (Burland-Gibson, 2019; Dann, 2019; Leach, 2018). In this respect, along with the emphasis on location, my study's approach belongs to the first wave sociolinguistics. My study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches to address the three research questions:

1) To what extent do Chesterfield locals feel connected with Sheffield?

- Is the connection expressed in a mutual Northern identity?

- Or is there a perceptual divide between 'the North' (Sheffield) and 'the Midlands' (Chesterfield)?

2) To what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions?

3) Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?

The methodology behind the thesis combines methodological approaches commonly used in perceptual dialectology (PD) and dialectology.

Research question 1 is explored through the use of dialect mapping tasks, frequently used in PD as a valid methodological approach (Preston, 1982; Hickey, 2005), with inspiration taken from the work of Braber (2014) and Montgomery (2012). The methodological tool for collating the annotated maps was provided by Montgomery and Stoeckle's (2013) writing on the advantages, and disadvantages, of using the ArcGIS programme. In addition to this

largely quantitative approach, qualitative data was obtained through written tasks that were part of the dialect recognition tasks.

Research question 2 is addressed by dialect recognition tasks of the type used by Williams et al (1999), and Braber (2016). Statistical analysis of the results was undertaken in order to determine whether the results were more than chance. However, qualitative data, which comprised the reasoning behind the participants' dialect allocation, supplemented the quantitative analysis.

Research question 3 was inspired by previous sociolinguistic research centred on Sheffield dialects (Finnegan, 2011), which suggested that Chesterfield and Sheffield dialects are separated by their production of FACE and GOAT: Sheffield speakers were described as producing more monophthongal variants of the two diphthongs, and Chesterfield more diphthongal. This finding was supported by data that arose from the background research I undertook in 2015, along with qualitative data produced as part of the thesis's dialect recognition tasks: Sheffield speakers were largely recognised by Chesterfield speakers based on their monophthongal FACE and GOAT. To answer this research question, I produced a word list for participants to read aloud in a controlled environment, and analysed the data using methodological tools common to dialectology, namely Praat (Boersma and Weenink, 2008) and the modified Watt-Fabricius method of normalisation (c.f. Flynn, 2011). I undertook statistical analysis using the R-programme (R Core Team, 2013) and Jamovi (www.jamovi.org). Burland-Gibson's (2019) doctoral thesis was the basis for the dipDegree analysis, which helped to determine how diphthongal or monophthongal the FACE and GOAT vowels were under acoustic analysis. These data were then connected with the map task data, with a logistic regression model run in R to better understand the factors which may underlie a more monophthongal or diphthongal production of the two vowel sounds among Chesterfield participants.

The data collection spanned five years, from 2015 to 2020. It began with background interviews in 2015, where my aim was to interview non-linguists from across Sheffield and the East Midlands in order to learn about attitudes towards local accents within communities relatively close in proximity to Chesterfield. The results of these initial interviews greatly influenced my research questions, especially concerning region and

identity. Following the background interviews, I contacted several secondary schools in Chesterfield and Sheffield, and local history groups, Women's Institutes, library groups, and individuals from Chesterfield to carry out cross-generational perception tests and gather word list data for the thesis. It is hoped that through the methodological approaches and tools selected, this thesis will achieve the aims set out in section 1.2, namely to contribute to the growing body of sociolinguistic research based in the East Midlands, to increase understanding of how attitude and identity affects dialect perception and use in border areas, and to connect PD research with linguistic production.

Firstly, this chapter outlines background interviews that I conducted in 2015to help illuminate any areas of interest from the perspective of non-linguists local to South Yorkshire or the East Midlands. Following that, a discussion of speech samples held by the Chesterfield museum is presented, because it offered a rare opportunity to analyse speech from older generations of Chesterfield residents. Next, this chapter moves on to this study's main research: Firstly, participant details are provided, followed by a discussion of the questionnaire and warm-up activities designed to elicit attitudinal data. Then, the map task is described along with the rationale behind it. Next, the dialect recognition tasks are described, with explanation and justification behind their design. Lastly, a discussion of the word list and its tools of analysis is presented.

3.2. The Background Interviews

I conducted interviews in 2015 to help focus my doctoral research. The interviewees did not take part in my thesis's main study. . An analysis of the interviews is presented, below, along with explanation of how they influenced this thesis's three research questions.

3.2.1. Background

Ethical approval for all my research was granted July 1st 2015 by Professor Ann Macaskill on behalf of the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Ethics Committee at Sheffield Hallam University, with the project code AM/RKT/102-ASH (see Appendix 11.1). All people who took

part in my doctoral research gave written informed consent (Appendix 11.2). From this point onwards I began to collect data as background research in the form of semi-structured interviews.

As stated in the introduction to this chapter, my aim when designing the background interview questions was to better comprehend attitudes towards local accents from within local communities. The 21 background interviews were cross-generational, spanning 20 to 77 years, with male and females who had spent most of their lives in either Chesterfield, Sheffield, Nottingham, Ilkeston, Mansfield or Derby. I felt these locations may be key to my later research, with Ilkeston and Mansfield present as, like Chesterfield, they are smaller towns within the East Midlands. As stated in the Introduction, Chapter 1, Mansfield and Chesterfield are known to have a sporting rivalry with slurs connecting to the mining strike of the 1980s. It was of interest to see whether this was mentioned by participants, which Chapter 1 does discuss: Respondent TG commented on the "nasty rivalry" between the two football teams, with 39 year old male, SH, reporting that Chesterfield F.C. fans shout "scabs" at Mansfield Town F.C. supporters in reference to the mining strike history. Ilkeston was also of interest because I had read Scollins and Titford's (2000) popular overview of the 'Ilson' dialect, which presented the dialect as unique within the East Midlands. The interview questions were sent to participants at least three days prior to meeting, adhering to the approach Llamas (1999) advocated for the SuRE project in order to give the respondents time to consider their answers. Kerswill et al (1999: 263) state that sending questions to respondents in advance 'drastically' reduces the possibility of informants being unable to provide answers to questions they may not have considered before. Therefore, I hoped that by sending questions out in advance, I would receive fuller answers to questions relating to participants' local accent, which, up to that point, they may not have consciously considered. However, what I found was that some of the participants had not read the questions beforehand and so were still considering their answers in that moment. In addition to sending the questions out before the meeting, I explained that I was not intending to analyse the informer's accent, but to focus on their opinions about local accents and dialect. I made this point clear in order to put the participants at ease around both me and the digital recorder. Moreover, for the background research, the interviewees were either friends of mine, or a 'friend of a friend' (cf. Milroy, 1987: 44): A 'convenience sample'. This helped to

create a more relaxed atmosphere. These interviews, and the word lists which form part of my later research, were recorded in public places using the Sony ICD-PX333M digital recorder. For the background interviews, I asked each informant the following questions:

1) Do you have a typical *insert home city/town* accent? What is distinctive about your area's speech (accent and vocabulary)?

2) Are there any typical *insert home city/town* words/phrases?

3) Would you know a person was from Chesterfield, or Sheffield, or Nottingham, or Derby just from hearing them speak?

4) Is Chesterfield/Sheffield/Nottingham/Derby in the North, South, or Midlands?

5) Do Chesterfield people have any nicknames? Rivalry?

6) What makes *insert home city/town* and its people distinctive?

How the responses to these questions informed the thesis's research questions will be discussed in the following section.

3.2.2. The Background Interviews, and Research Question 1

The findings from the background interview questions 4 and 5 helped to inform my first research question: **To what extent do Chesterfield locals feel connected with Sheffield? Is the connection expressed in a mutual Northern identity, or is there a perceptual divide between 'the North' (Sheffield) and 'the Midlands' (Chesterfield)?**

As can be seen in Table 3.1, most of my informants for the background interviews came from either Chesterfield or Sheffield. Responses to question 4 of the background interviews consolidated my belief that Chesterfield and Sheffield would be an area of interest in terms of regional identity (Research Question 1) because of the emerging patterns: Chesterfield respondents from the background interviews largely placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in separate regions, while Sheffield respondents largely placed them together in the same region. I left this question open, not specifying whether I meant in terms of economy, accent, or other factors, prompting respondents instead to give their own interpretation.

Table 3.1: Number of Background Interview Participants.

Informant's location	No. of Males	No. of Females	Total /21
Chesterfield	4	2	6
Sheffield	3	5	8
Nottinghamshire	2	3	5
South Derbyshire	1	1	2

From all of the responses about regional identity, 52% of all respondents thought that Chesterfield is in the Midlands. This includes all Chesterfield respondents other than NB who decided that it is on the border with the North. In contrast, 76% of all respondents placed Sheffield in the North. This figure includes all Sheffield respondents, except for JR who placed Sheffield in the 'North Midlands'. Looking more closely at the data, while all except one of the Chesterfield locals put Chesterfield and Sheffield in separate regions (Table 3.2), all except one of the Sheffield respondents placed Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the same region (Table 3.3). This might partly be explained by the respondents' attitudinal data. Chesterfield is largely described as a small, unremarkable, town by Sheffield informants. In contrast, Sheffield is largely described in positive terms by Sheffield respondents. Sheffield participant AC stated that "…everyone knows Sheffield, don't they?" She cited the steel industry, music, and famous faces such as Jessica Ennis as explanation for its fame. Although this research was published years after the background research, it may be of note that the Sheffield accent has recently been named 'the most popular' in the UK according to local news reports across Yorkshire (Hamilton; 2023; Nordeen, 2023). Artificial Intelligence was used to assess the number of positive tweets in connection with British, and international, accents on Twitter: 39.9% of tweets about the Sheffield accent were positive, according to *The Star* newspaper, which put the Sheffield accent in first place, just ahead of the Wiltshire accent (Hamilton, 2023). It is mooted that, the actor, Sean Bean's popularity was instrumental in this result (Nordeen, 2023) along with Alex Turner of the Arctic Monkeys (Hamilton, 2023). The Nottingham accent came in fourth place in this list, with Tunisian the world's 'overall favourite accent' according to positive tweets (ibid.) Whether these results are academically robust or not, such positive popular attention increases the prominence and pride that Sheffield people have in their own city and accent. Therefore, it is perhaps

unsurprising that some of the Sheffield interviewees' inferred that Chesterfield locals might want to be part of Sheffield, because Sheffield is still culturally more prominent (Montgomery, 2012; 2016). AC stated that Chesterfield lacks distinction, unclear why Chesterfield would not want to connect with the Yorkshire city. Sheffield respondent KT commented that Chesterfield already seems to be "part of Sheffield" due to its proximity, almost like a suburb. This may be how some people in Sheffield view Chesterfield, but it seems that many Chesterfield locals, at least in terms of politics, do still wish to remain separate from Sheffield (see Introduction, section 1.2).

Table 3.2: Where Chesterfield informants placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in the background interviews.

Respondent	Chesterfield	Sheffield
NB	Cusp	North
DT	Midlands	North
DH	Midlands	Midlands
JW	Midlands	North
EC	Midlands	North
SH	Midlands	Cusp

Table 3.3: Where Sheffield informants placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in the background interviews.

Respondent	Chesterfield	Sheffield
AC	North	North
JR	Midlands	Midlands
RS	North	North
FB	North	North
MJ	Midlands	North
JG	North	North
KT	North	North
TP	North	North

Table 3.4 records participant profiles along with some of their responses about regional identity. It record the difficulty that some people had in deciding upon a region, instead responding that a place may be on the 'cusp', or border, between two regions[25].

Table 3.4: Profile of background interview participants and their regional identity.

Location	Identifier	Sex	Age	Job	Perceived region: Chesterfield vs Sheffield
Chesterfield	NB	F	34	Nurse	Chesterfield is "…not quite the North and not quite Midlands. Certainly Sheffield's the North." Yet, she sees herself as a Northerner.
Chesterfield	DT	M	35	Local Authority	Chesterfield is in the Midlands. Commented that Sheffield people "think" they are Northern.
Chesterfield	DH	M	20	Barista	Chesterfield is in the Midlands. He knows that from having played football. Feels that Sheffield is the same as Chesterfield, just "more Northern". Feels an affinity with Sheffield, but not the rest of Yorkshire.
Chesterfield	JW	F	71	Retired Law Clerk	Chesterfield is "definitely" in the Midlands. Sheffield is the North. More connection with Nottinghamshire as had family there growing up.
Chesterfield	EC	M	28	Civil Servant	Chesterfield is in the Midlands. Sheffield is the "back end of the North, but north". He sees Derby and Nottinghamshire as totally different, putting them in the South.
Chesterfield	SH	M	39	Engineer	Chesterfield is in the Midlands. Sheffield is on the border. Mentions local news: He receives both Look North and Midlands Today (both BBC). Bolsover has a Sheffield postcode.
Sheffield	AC	F	29	ESOL Teacher	First response: Sheffield is the North and all below it is "not North". However, she'd never say Chesterfield was the Midlands as she thinks her mum (born in

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[25] All respondents placed Nottingham and Derby in the Midlands, except EC who placed them both in the South, and JG who was unsure about whether Nottingham was in the North.

					Chesterfield) would say it was in the North, but her mum's family refer to them as "the Northerners", and when she was small her mum remarked about how they had Yorkshire accents.
Sheffield	JR	F	59	Senior Administrator	Sheffield is "North Midlands", as is Chesterfield because there is "hardly anything in between us". Commented that Sheffield people like to say they are Northern.
Sheffield	RS	M	42	Banker	Sheffield the North, and Chesterfield is "probably more Northern" because of the accents he hears at Chesterfield market are among the "broader end of the spectrum".
Sheffield	FB	M	77	Retired Engineering Lecturer	Sheffield and Chesterfield are both in the North, because when he drives home and sees the Crooked Spire he knows he is nearly home.
Sheffield	MJ	F	32	ESOL Teacher	Sheffield the North. Chesterfield Midlands. "There's a line and Sheffield is in the North", despite them being so close geographically.
Sheffield	JG	F	35	Full-time mum	Sheffield and Chesterfield both in the North. The Crooked Spire is a sign she is nearly home.
Sheffield	KT	F	28	Administrator	Sheffield and Chesterfield both in the North. As they are so close geographically, it is like Chesterfield is "part of Sheffield".
Sheffield	TP	M	31	ESOL Teacher	Sheffield and Chesterfield both in the North (based on accent).
Nottingham	AT	F	32	Solicitor	Chesterfield Midlands, Sheffield North.
Ilkeston, Nottingham	JN	F	27	Buying Assistant, Boots	Chesterfield is the "south of the North".
Nottingham	MB	M	47	Academic Skills Tutor	Chesterfield is "on the cusp" as they have a northern accent. Sheffield is the start of the North.
Nottingham	HO	F	36	Greeting card designer	Chesterfield in the Midlands, like Nottingham.
Mansfield, Nottingham	TG	M	35	Civil Servant	Chesterfield Midlands, Sheffield North. Yorkshire marks the start of the North.

Derby	BN	F	25	Learning Mentor	Chesterfield North, Sheffield North. She would also like to be from the North (but thinks Derby is Midlands.) If she was talking to someone, she would say she is Northern, but write Midlands on a document.
Derby	MH	M	25	Marketing Manager	Chesterfield and Sheffield both Midlands. He gets annoyed when people forget about the Midlands: "It is slap bang in the middle."

The finding that five out of the six Chesterfield respondents see themselves as separate from Sheffield and/or the North (Table 3.2) is reinforced by previous research. Braber (2014) found that Derbyshire, and specifically North Derbyshire, teenagers had the strongest Midlander identity of all the study's respondents from across the East Midlands (Braber, 2014, and personal correspondence). Question 5 aimed to elicit feelings of rivalry across the region, as Pearce (2009: 189) states that animosity forms an important part of identity, with identity and language use sharing a relationship. The feeling that Chesterfield locals are different to Sheffield residents is explained by Chesterfield respondent DT, who stated that: "Yorkshiremen are very opinionated". Chesterfield female NB said that some Sheffield residents she encountered have called Chesterfield people "interbred", "two heads", and they have remarked that the "best thing (about Chesterfield) is the road out". While these comments may be viewed as gentle teasing, they do seem to be at the forefront of some Chesterfield locals' minds when asked about any local rivalry. This differs from Finnegan's (2011) attitudinal data, where nearly no one she interviewed in Sheffield saw Chesterfield as a rival. Perhaps the 'barrier effect' of political boundaries means that there is imbalance (c.f. Montgomery, 2016): Sheffield is a better-known city, and Chesterfield is a comparatively unknown market town. Where Sheffield is known to many Chesterfield locals, Chesterfield might only appear on Sheffield locals' radar as a signpost to suggest they are nearly home from a road or rail journey. In other words, Chesterfield may not seem important enough to Sheffield locals to harbour any ill feelings. However, not everyone local to Chesterfield commented on a rivalry with Sheffield. While maintaining his Midlander identity, DH felt more of a connection with Sheffield than some of the other Chesterfield locals, stating that Sheffield is unlike the rest of Yorkshire, and that he feels more connected with it because he

knows the city well. This echoes Llamas' (2010) research, which describes the shared values one may feel with those across a border, especially when residing far from a county capital, as with Chesterfield. In fact, many of the Chesterfield respondents felt more connected with Sheffield than either Nottingham or Derby. Chesterfield local EC commented about Nottingham and Derby: "…we're outsiders when we go there." The interview data gave the impression that while it is likely that Chesterfield locals respond to, and reinforce, the county boundary between Chesterfield and Sheffield, there may be more of an affinity with those in Sheffield, due to geographical proximity and familiarity, than with those from cities further away geographically across the East Midlands, such as Derby and Nottingham (c.f. Llamas, 2010: 228). Le Baigue (2010) supported this view, with Widdowson (1992-3) suggesting that Chesterfield and Sheffield have some linguistic similarities, with rivalries claimed only to be between Sheffield, Barnsley, Bradford and Leeds.

These initial results suggest that there is a perceptual divide between Chesterfield and Sheffield in the minds of Chesterfield locals that might manifest in a Midlander/Northern split. This was not reciprocated by Sheffield informants, who considered Chesterfield and Sheffield to be connected and belonging to the same region: The North.

3.2.3. The Background Interviews, and Research Questions 2 and 3

The findings from question three of the background interviews ('Would you know a person was from Chesterfield, or Sheffield, or Nottingham, or Derby just from hearing them speak?') helped to shape the thesis's second research question: **To what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions?**

Question three of the background interviews asked participants whether they thought they would recognise if a person was from Chesterfield, Sheffield, Nottingham, or Derby just from hearing them speak. Taking the Chesterfield respondents alone, of which there were six, three gave a definite yes to recognising a Chesterfield accent, even giving examples of when this had happened in real life. Similarly, Le Baigue (2010: 1) concluded that Chesterfield

informants can recognise, and even pinpoint, local accent and dialect features. However, in the background interviews, when asked to specify how they recognised the Chesterfield accent, answers were vague, with EC mentioning a "click" with Chesterfield people who had a "Derbyshire accent", which he described as "lazy"[26]. Others were more cautious, saying that perhaps they could recognise the Chesterfield accent if the speaker sounded like them, or like a friend. No specific linguistic markers of a Chesterfield accent were given. Looking at responses from the other participants alongside the Chesterfield respondents, five mentioned that local vocabulary would aid recognition, such as the use of "love" as a term of endearment by Sheffield speakers. Sheffield participant JG said, "…phrases help more than accent around here". However, a Nottingham participant, AT, said that Midlands' accents lack distinction, and that there was nothing specific that she could comment on that would help her to recognise these accents. HO agreed that there is not a Nottingham accent, mentioning a "nothingness" about it. These comments go against Braber's (2016) findings that report the East Midlands have discernible accents to younger local people. The background interview participants mentioned lack of familiarity with places, and their inhabitants' accents, as a barrier to dialect recognition, with four out of six of those from Chesterfield saying that they were unfamiliar with Derby and/or Nottingham. As lack of familiarity with places under analysis was frequently mentioned, I planned to address this in the thesis by asking participants the locations they frequented in the region (see section 3.4.2). Furthermore, the background interviews brought up the perception of 'broad' and 'soft' accents, with mention that accents seem to become more "heavy" the further north in England one travels. I did not play audio clips of local speech in the background interviews, therefore comments were all based on prior opinions or stereotypes. The background interview responses suggest that Derby and Nottingham accents were generally thought to be more 'standard' than those in Sheffield, with Chesterfield being less 'northern', or broad, than Sheffield as it is just a little further south geographically. Participant JN from Nottingham said the Chesterfield accent: "…seems mellower than the main Yorkshire accent, although it still has that twang".

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[26] Le Baigue (2010: 1) also noted that the Chesterfield accent was considered a sub-accent of 'Derbyshire', but as Derby was considered 'posh' by Chesterfield agents, Derby was considered to be different to Chesterfield. Compared with Derby, his agents felt that they were more like Sheffield speakers.

I asked background interview respondents specifically about the linguistic markers of local accents with interview question 1: 'Do you have a typical *insert home city/town* accent? What is distinctive about your area's speech (accent and vocabulary)?' This theme will be explored in the main study's dialect recognition tasks outlined in section 3.4.4. If interviewees had no suggestions, I would ask for opinions on the findings from recent quantitative research (see section 2.5) by asking about various lexical sets and the possible realisations in their home town or city. In terms of the PRICE vowel, "reight" and "reet" were both suggested by Sheffield locals as Sheffield variants (c.f. Wells, 1982a). Nottinghamshire and South Derbyshire speakers did not suggest any local PRICE variants. There was some confusion over the MOUTH vowel, but a Sheffield speaker, JR, said she knew people in Chesterfield who "exaggerate" this vowel, which may connect with McMillan's (2012) description of the difference between the Chesterfield and Sheffield MOUTH variants described in section 2.5.1. The lax variant of happY was connected to Sheffield by a Chesterfield respondent, and many Sheffield speakers recognised it as a Sheffield marker but thought it sounded "rough". It was also recognised by Nottinghamshire respondents as a Nottinghamshire linguistic marker. In terms of FACE and GOAT, Chesterfield local EC said that a Sheffield speaker could be recognised by his/her GOAT vowel, comparing Sheffield accents with Chesterfield:

> Sheffield's a bit more, it sounds really, I don't know, more broader...quite broad when they talk, like, quite heavy, the sound of their accent and dialect I think. When some people from Sheffield might say, like, "nor", kinda thing, stuff like that. You can really tell they're like from Sheffield when they just talk.

This response was volunteered, not prompted, and together with the literature (Finnegan, 2011), contributed to this thesis's Research Question 3: **Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?**

As described previously, this thesis takes the stance that individuals have some freedom to choose how they speak from a range of options depending on the situation and how they feel in that moment (c.f. Snell, 2010). The background interviews, and the literature, suggested that the monophthongal realisation of GOAT and FACE were suggestive of Sheffield speakers to the Chesterfield audience, which the dialect recognition test results

were found to reinforce (see Chapter 6). How far local identity affected the Chesterfield respondents' realisation of these two vowels will be explored further, in Chapter 7.

In sum, the background interviews were undertaken to better direct the focus of this thesis, and some of its results were found to echo major findings from the PD section, in particular. The belief that accents become more standardised the further south one travels across the East Midlands, and the supposition that lack of familiarity with local accents may affect recognition are of particular interest. In addition, the finding that most of the background interview's Chesterfield participants place Chesterfield and Sheffield in a separate region, whilst Sheffield people put them together, hints at a divide between the two locations where Chesterfield locals see Sheffield as 'other'. That monophthongal GOAT and FACE may be markers of Sheffield speech to a Chesterfield audience will also be explored in the dialect recognition tasks, which are outlined in section 3.4.4 and later explored further in word list tasks, section 3.4.5. In contrast, the lack of dialect markers across East Midland speech to a local audience was also of interest given Braber's (2016) findings that there are discernible linguistic differences across the East Midlands' region. Each of these findings will be explored further in the subsequent chapters.

3.3. More background research

In 2015, the Chesterfield Museum's curator gave me access to boxes of cassette tapes that recorded interviews between the then curator (Mr. R. Shelley) and local residents. These interviews took place between the 1980s and 1990s. Listening to a selection of these recordings gave me a greater understanding of both local history and the Chesterfield accent and dialect of more elderly residents during that era. To my knowledge, these recordings have never before been published or subject to any kind of linguistic analysis, but are central to my study's identification of markers of Chesterfield speech that may hitherto have gone unrecognised in the literature.

3.3.1. The Chesterfield Museum tapes

Braber and Davies (2016: 98) discuss the advantages of the 'secondary' use of archival data, advocating the closer collaboration between sociolinguist and oral historian. They propose that 'widening the interdisciplinary use' of oral histories benefits both fields, with oral histories often allowing for free speech which may promote greater use of the local dialect (p99). However, they also discuss the problems connected to using archival data, including the lack of full documentation, and the ethical implications of that. Permission to use this archival data was granted by Professor Ann Macaskill, in the absence of permission from the original informants, on behalf of the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Ethics Committee at Sheffield Hallam University.

Most of the 23 interviews I listened to were with elderly residents, and the aim was to discover more about working life in Chesterfield in days gone by. These recordings were extremely lengthy, so I took the decision to only listen to the first 30 minutes of each recording. Unfortunately, the biographical details of each interviewee do not always include birthdates, but they most often do include birthplace. They record the experiences of employees from Chesterfield's main employers. These include the manufacturer, Robinson's and Sons Ltd, various breweries, mineral water companies, railways, collieries, and some also describe life during World War II.

Three of the interviews were with people who had worked at Pearsons Potteries, Chesterfield. At various points, this company had potteries in the Whittington and Brampton areas of the town, operating between 1810 and 1994 (Derbyshire Historic Environment Record, 2023). One interview was with a married couple who had both worked at the potteries. Mr P. did most of the talking. He was born in January 1915, in Chesterfield, and attended school at Newbold Moor, Chesterfield. He was an apprentice in 1929, aged 14, and both his parents also worked in the Potteries. He had worked there casting pots. The date of the recording was 01/09/1989, making him 74 years old at that time. Some of the features of his accent and dialect are noted below in Table 3.5, which were identified through auditory analysis.

Table 3.5: Features of Mr. P's speech, 1989, Tapes 3 and 4a, Chesterfield Museum Recording.

Feature	Example	Comments
PRICE vowel	Light – [laːt] Nineteen – [naːntin] By the time – [bi] the [taːm] Like – [laːk]	[aː] for PRICE is associated with Nottinghamshire. See Table 2.3.
MOUTH vowel	Now – [naː] Down – [daːn] How – [aː] About – [əbaːt] Bounce – [baːns]	[aː] for MOUTH is associated with North and South Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Sheffield. See Table 2.3.
GOAT vowel	Mr Widdowson – Widd[ə]sən Go – [guː/gʊ] Over – [ɒvə]	Docherty and Foulkes (1999) identified [ʊ] in words such as 'going', but not in more formal speech, in Derby.
H-dropping	Have Upheaval – no 'h' Handle	Consistent (except for 'half').
Non-standard grammar	12 pint/3 month/18 month Myself – missen/misself	
Elision/shortening	For – fə Of – [ə] course/ On top [ə] that I can/you could/I could – [akən]/[jəkʊd]/[akʊd] Followed – [fɒləd] I beg your pardon – beg [pɒdən]?	
Yod-dropping	Particular - [ə] > /juː/	Typifies East Midlands (Braber and Flynn, 2015; Trudgill, 1990)
Vocabulary	'ash pot Bagging up	Hash (stew) pot. Putting bags over the clay to keep soft

Mr P's accent indexes the East Midlands, with use of linguistic variants found in more recent studies from across this region present in his speech. His long monophthong for the PRICE vowel was common to these interviews, with 17 out of the 23 interviews producing a similar monophthongal PRICE. Similarly, MOUTH tends to be monophthongal in these interviews, with evidence of monophthongal MOUTH in 17 of the interviews. In terms of the GOAT vowel, this tends to be monophthongal with 'go' produced similar to [guː] or [gʊ] in many of the interviews, which Docherty and Foulkes (1999) found in Derby albeit in less formal situations. This, however, may be a positive consequence of the lengthy interview allowing for freer speech: The formality of the interview situation may decrease over time. However, 'followed', 'Farrows', 'Calow' and 'borrow' were heard with a [ə], instead of the GOAT diphthong, across the 23 museum interviews. 'Over' was realised with [ɒ] quite frequently, also. Unique to Mr P's interview was his use of dialect vocabulary specific to the potteries, which is a record of phrases that may have fallen out of use since their closure.

The next interview I analysed was with 'HI' who was born in April 1916 and the recording took place in March 1990, making him 73 at the time of the interview. He was born on Derby Road in Chesterfield and had worked as a railway driver after leaving school aged 14. Table 3.6 records some of the features of his speech. There are parallels with Mr P, who used PRICE, MOUTH and GOAT vowel variants (Table 3.5) that are common to the East Midlands. It was surprising to find [uː] > /ʊ/ in 'book', 'cook', and 'took' in six of the interviews as I was not aware this was a feature of the Chesterfield accent prior to hearing these interviews. I was aware that this phoneme was also used by older generations in the North East of England (Beal, 2012), and in the North West: Watson (2007) suggested this is a feature of Northern English found among the working classes in Liverpool and across Lancashire, however I had not realised that it had once extended as far south as Chesterfield, although Docherty & Foulkes (1999) reported that it was a minority variant in Derby. Watson (2007: 358) stated that:

> As with other accents in the north of England, words such as *book, cook* and *look* typically have a long vowel in Liverpool rather than the short [ʊ] found elsewhere. The long vowel is typically produced in an advanced position, most frequently as a central [ʉ] but also as a fully front [y]. This results in minimal pairs such as look

[lʉːk]/luck [lʊk], and book [bʉːk]/buck [bʊk]. The use of [ʉː] in *look* words occurs more often in the working class than the middle class for Knowles' (1973) speakers, but recent work has suggested that this feature is recessive, occurring less frequently in younger people (Watson, 2005).

It could be that the use of [ʉː] in *look* words was recessive in Chesterfield in the 1980s and has since died out in the town. Wells (1982b, 362) stated around the time that these interviews were recorded that this variant was still widespread across the North of England, but that it was recessive 'in the face of the standard [ʊ] forms'. MacKenzie et al (2022: 52) more recently explored what they term '-ook words': They found some variation in Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, where it would appear this variant is still in use by some of the population (ibid: 53).

Next, the realisation in the interview of the NURSE vowel in 'turns' as [tɛːns] did resonate with Chesterfield voices heard today, and this variant was heard in several of the interviews in words such as 'early' and 'weren't'. Wells (1982b: 361) discusses the NURSE-SQUARE merger across Liverpool, and suggests that this could extend in some form to Greater Manchester, Lancashire, Leicestershire, the West Midlands and Lincolnshire. However, Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 49) found the [ɛː] variable in Derby, although it was thought to be lexically restricted to 'her', 'were', and 'stir'. MacKenzie et al (2022: 51) addressed the NURSE-SQUARE merger in their national online survey, asking respondents whether *fur* and *bear* rhyme. The majority of responses show a strong merger between these two vowel sounds in the North West of England, but also the East Riding of Yorkshire. With Survey of English Dialect (SED) isoglosses annotating their map, there is a change from the 1950s SED data which reported a merger in the Lincolnshire, and Leicester area, with MacKenzie et al (2002: 52) stating that:

> In our data, only the North East of Lincolnshire persists in merging (as noted earlier). Thus, it seems that, potentially, a once variable merger has been stamped out in favor of the standard.

MacKenzie et al (2022) do, however, suggest that the fronted [ɛː] variant in NURSE may not stand out to some of the participants. It is possible that the NURSE-SQUARE merger is a

linguistic feature that MacKenzie et al's respondents do not notice, or connect with their own linguistic variety, and therefore may not report this in the survey as being part of their own speech. To my knowledge, this variant has never before been connected with North Derbyshire. MacKenzie et al (2022: 61) suggest further exploration of what they term 'the emergence of a NURSE–SQUARE merger running from North East England to the north of the East Midlands', which these oral history recordings would support.

Table 3.6: Features of Mr. HI's speech, 1990, Tape 8, Chesterfield Museum Recording.

Feature	Example	Comments
PRICE vowel	My – [mi] Myself – [miself] Drivers – [draːvəz]	[aː] for PRICE is associated with Nottinghamshire. See Table 2.3.
MOUTH vowel	Now – [naː] Down – [daːn] Pound – [paːnd]	[aː] for MOUTH is associated with North and South Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Sheffield. See Table 2.3.
GOAT	Over – [ɒvə] Going – [guːwin]	
NURSE /əː/ > [ɛː]	Turns – [tɛːns]	Compare with Table 3.11 and the Chesterfield recordings for the dialect recognition tasks, especially the younger female.
H-dropping	'ell of a row (noise) Who [uː]	
[uː] > /ʊ/	Book – [buːk]	More commonly associated with the North West of England, Lancashire (Wells, 1982b), and the West Midlands (Montgomery, personal correspondence).
Non-standard grammar	His step-father had **selt** (sold) everything He **gid** me (gave me)	
Yod-dropping	Particular [ə] > /juː/ To refuse [ə] > /juː/	
/ŋ/ ~ [n]	10 shillin' a week doin'/drivin'	Compare with Table 3.11 and the Chesterfield recordings for the dialect recognition tasks: [ŋg] not heard in the Chesterfield dialect recognition recordings, nor in these interviews.
Elision/shortening	[fət] – for the [akən] – I can [akʊd] – I could [ət] – of the	

	[thi] were – they were [wi] – with [wijim] – with him [gɒrɒfət] bike – got off the bike	Intrusive /r/
Def article deletion/glottalisation	'e married 'daughter where't colliery is Ont – on the	
t-k	Nothink/anythink	
Vocabulary	Cartin' things about Do 'a piece' Allus 'A little tin god'	Used literally when talking about his father's old job Each Always A boss

The majority of the interviews recorded male speech (15 out of 23). The aim of the interviews was to find out more about the workplace in the early- to mid-twentieth century; a time when many women were home makers rather than employees, although some of the women interviewed did work, and wartime work would also have been an interesting topic. It may be that women were more reluctant to be interviewed, or simply more problematic for the interviewer to access, with three of the eight females taking part in interviews alongside their husbands. Female interviewee MS was interviewed without a husband, however, in 1990. Although we do not have her birthdate, we know that in 1952/3 she started working as a bottle washer in Brampton Brewery. She was married at the time and lived in the Brampton area of Chesterfield. Table 3.7 notes features of her accent. Of note is her monophthongal pronunciation of FACE, heard in 'take' and 'make', realised as [tek] and [mek]. Of the 23 interviews, 14 record evidence of monophthongal FACE, in the following words; They [ði], take [tek], make [mek], Monday [mʊndi], Sunday [sʊndi], Wednesday [wenzdi], Tuesday [tu:zdi], great [gret].

Table 3.7: Features of Ms. MS's speech, 1990, Tape 8, Chesterfield Museum Recording.

Feature	Example	Comments
PRICE vowel	I – [aː] Like – [laːk] Quite – [kwaːt] (night)time – [naːt.taːm] My – [mi] Friday – [fraːdi] Divided – [divaːdəd] Striking – [straːkin]	[aː] for PRICE is associated with Nottinghamshire. See Table 2.3.
MOUTH vowel	Round – [raːnd] Thousands – [θaːzənz] About – [baːt] Allowed – [əlaːd] Down – [daːn]	[aː] for MOUTH is associated with North and South Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Sheffield. See Table 2.3. Pronunciation of 'out' varies.
H-dropping	'undreds/'andy/'orr[i]ble	
[uː] > /ʊ/	-	
FACE	You 'ad to take [**tek**] a turn in all *these ere* things/make [**mek**]	
t-k	Mostly 'bottle' – may have heard a 'bokkle' around 18/19 and 25 mins	Says 'little'
Vocabulary	Crowning 'ave a *mash* int afternoon You 'appen only did a couple of bottles…	Putting bottle tops on Instead of 'cuppa' Happen = perhaps

Although the analysis of the interviews is auditory rather than acoustic, and they could be more thoroughly analysed through the use of Praat and NORM, for example, listening to these recordings gave me greater insight into the Chesterfield accent and dialect. The realisation of the NURSE vowel, along with the long monophthong in 'book', 'look', and 'cook', are linguistic features that have not been connected with Chesterfield prior to now. Furthermore, the monophthongal variants of FACE and GOAT evident in these recordings are something to consider in the ensuing analysis of the spoken data (Chapter 7). These oral history recordings could be used in the future in collaboration with Chesterfield Museum, which will be discussed in Chapter 9.

3.4. Methodological approaches

This section discusses the methods that this thesis applied in order to answer this study's three research questions, and the rationale behind the design of the three main tasks. The initial questionnaire is described along with an explanation of the warm-up questions designed to elicit attitudinal data. The mapping task is then outlined, followed by a discussion of the dialect recognition tasks, and, finally, the word list task.

3.4.1. The Questionnaire and Attitudinal Data

Before any of the tasks began, all participants were given an information sheet with an explanation of my research, and detailing how their data would be used and stored (Appendix 11.2). They were asked to give their written consent, and teenagers were also asked for parental consent (Appendix 11.2). Appendix 11.2 also contains a questionnaire which asked all participants to give details about themselves, such as age group (question 1), ethnicity (question 3), post code (question 4), and how they would describe their social class (question 18). At the time of making the questionnaire, I was not sure whether social class would become a major part of the study, so there were several questions, in addition to

question 18, which may have been useful in trying to understand participants' social class, including questions about occupation (question 11). The questionnaire also asks about each participant's birthplace (question 5), and parental birthplace (question 6), and whether the participant had lived anywhere except Chesterfield, or Sheffield, depending on the target group (question 7). Finally, workplace location (question 13) and places commonly visited for leisure (question 8) were elicited by the questionnaire. These two questions were included to help determine familiarity with local accents: If participants frequented areas outside of their home town, they may be more able to recognise their accents (Evans et al, 2020). This information could potentially help with understanding the results of the dialect recognition tasks, and Research Question 2, presented in Chapters 5 and 6.

Participants were then given three warm-up activities, included in Appendix 11.3. The design of these questions were to act as ice-breakers, if agents were completing the tasks in groups, or to have individuals start thinking about their own accent and dialect. These are the questions that were asked:

Talk with your group/partner and answer the following questions:

1) How do you feel about your accent?

2) What do you think of the Chesterfield accent/dialect? Write some words to describe it, below.

The Chesterfield accent/dialect is:

3) Are there any (dialect) words you associate with Chesterfield, e.g. spidge, greebo. What do the words mean?

In Appendix 11.3, it can be seen that there was a small amount of space for participants to record their answers following each warm-up question. It was a quick activity, but it was hoped that patterns would still emerge about respondents' attitudes towards their home accent and dialect, especially in response to questions 1 and 2. The literature has shown that attitude towards home accents and dialects has an impact on dialect recognition, especially among teenagers (Braber, 2015; Hind, 2019, Williams et al, 1999). Furthermore, Pearce (2009: 162) states that attitudes towards accent and dialect may impact linguistic

production. In other words, should people dislike their home town's accent or dialect, they may be more inclined to accommodate their speech towards other linguistic varieties. Therefore, the results of these two questions may also connect with Research Question 3, and Chesterfield participants' production of two vowel sounds that when monophthongal indexes Yorkshire and the North, and when diphthongal the East Midlands and, potentially, Standard Southern British English (Finnegan, 2011). The results of these activities are presented in Chapter 4, section 4.3.3.

Finally, question 3 of the warm-up activities asked about dialect words associated with Chesterfield, and Sheffield for the Sheffield teenage group. It was hoped that enregistered words would be recorded most frequently, followed by those lexical items that are perhaps less well known outside of the home area. The vocabulary that is not mentioned may also be significant given that the participants may not realise that a word is specific to their area, or it may indicate that a dialect word that I may have connected with Chesterfield is dying out. The two example words that I gave, 'spidge' and 'greebo', were removed from the results.

The most intensive study of dialect lexis in the South Yorkshire/North Derbyshire region in recent years is the 'Survey of Language and Folklore', currently held in the Special Collections section of the University of Sheffield Library. Widdowson (1992-3: 216) wrote that this survey began in 1964, and continued over three decades. In 2016, I accessed the field notes pertaining to Chesterfield residents, and looked through lists of dialect words that were still in living memory. Although there were limited biographical details about each participant, the notes offered an extensive record of local vocabulary along with examples of usage. I copied a selection of the dialect words recorded in the Survey that were associated with Chesterfield. These words were from records taken between 1968 and 1977, and can be seen in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Dialect words associated with Chesterfield in the twentieth century, Survey of Language and Folklore.

Dialect word	Meaning	Recognised in 2016
Nesh	"Cold-blooded"	✓
Ponch	"What you use in your washing tub"; "To ponch your washing"	✓
Pobs	"Bread torn up in milk"	✓
Razzled	Irritated beyond endurance	X
Reasty	"Food is it...when off?"	✓ (Bacon going off)
Spink	Chaffinch	X
Starved	"Cold"	✓
Sword	Rind of bacon	X
Smock-ravelled	"Confused"	✓
Slorm	"Smear...spread"	✓
Surry/Serry	"Sir"	✓
Tranclements/Tronclements	"Jewellery"	✓
Throstle	"Thrush"	✓
Targel/Targil	"An insulting term"	X
Moggy	Mouse	X
Rast	"Grab hold of someone"	✓
Tharpe	"Have a good hiding"	✓
Collyfobble	Improvise, e.g. a meal	X
Swilker	Liquid slopping in a cup	X
Orts	Leftovers	X
Saucy	A faddy eater who leaves food; "To leave a saucy plate"	✓
Launder	Roof guttering	X
Clammed	"Hungry"	✓
Slotten(ed)	"Is it drunk?"	X (One person guessed the meaning)
Mank(ing) about	"Mucking about"/"Said with irritation"	✓
Back end	Autumn...."Back end of the year"	✓
Newbut	Newbold (village in Chesterfield)	X
Living under Shirebrook rules	"Out of wedlock"	✓
Cob-joes	"Conkers"	✓
Stinks like a fomard	Stoat	X
Snide/snided with	"Full", e.g. the woods are snided with blackberries	✓ (But prefers the meaning 'nasty',

		e.g. 'snide comment')
Mimmy-mo	"Copy-catting; mimicking"	✓
Wittle	"Worry"	✓
Spadger	"Sparrow"	✓
Keks	Cow parsley	X
Goster	"Laugh, belly laugh"	✓
Sweal it away	"Swill", e.g. tea	✓
Tuffee	"Toffee, sweets"	✓

I asked a small group of Chesterfield residents, not taking part in the main thesis research, if they recognised these words. These residents were aged between 30 and 70, and gave written consent to take part in my research. It can be seen that many of the words in the list were recognised by them, with their description of the words in quotation marks. However, the words connected with food and nature were less well known. This is potentially because people's eating habits have changed over the years, where a rind of bacon tends not to be eaten, and tea tends not to be made from tea leaves and drunk from a cup and saucer. Interestingly, from this list, only 'reasty' and 'tuffee' are presented in the 'Word Geography' of England presented by Orton and Wright (1974) based on data from the Survey of English Dialects. 'Reasty' was connected with a large area of England that spanned the East and West Midlands and parts of Northern England (p281). 'Tuffee', or 'toffee' was found to be more local to NE Derbyshire, and more southern parts of Yorkshire (p273). 'Spice' for sweets was not connected with the Chesterfield region in this 'word map', although it was mentioned in the background interviews. It may be that Chesterfield natives today are also less familiar with the countryside than they were previously, and the local terms for plants and animals may have fallen out of use. However, recently, I have noticed a trend where local ales are named using local dialect words. In Barlow, North Derbyshire, which lies just outside of Chesterfield, there is Collyfobble brewery, for example.. However, how many of these terms are recognised and used, particularly by the younger generations, is currently unknown. Whether any of the words in Table 3.8 will be suggested in the thesis's warm-up task will be discussed in Chapter 4, along with the results of the questionnaire and attitudinal sections.

3.4.2. The Mapping Task(s)

The North-Midland-South map task was designed largely to help answer research question 1: **To what extent do Chesterfield locals feel connected with Sheffield? Is the connection expressed in a mutual Northern identity, or is there a perceptual divide between 'the North' (Sheffield) and 'the Midlands' (Chesterfield)?** The background interviews found that Chesterfield residents separated Chesterfield and Sheffield by region, whereas Sheffield locals placed them together. This study's mapping task is different from all prior map tasks in the literature in that it overly asks participants about a Midland region and gathers data from three generations. Some background about the rationale behind this task's design and subsequent analysis is explored, below.

The draw-a-map task (Preston, 1982; Hickey, 2005: 99-107) is well known in Perceptual Dialectology (PD) as a way to access non-linguists' beliefs about dialect areas and variation. According to Preston (1988: 475-476, cited in Montgomery, 2015: 353), PD's aim is to find non-linguists' beliefs relating to:

1) How the speech of other areas is different or similar to the respondents' own area;
2) Where respondents believe dialect areas to exist;
3) How respondents characterise regional speech.

Many map tasks in PD are designed to access beliefs about dialect regions, with participants circling areas on a map that are believed to have different accents, and asking for examples or stereotypes of these dialect regions. However, some perceptual mapping tasks have been designed to access beliefs about region, which is how I designed the North-Midland-South map task. Where prior studies in England have used this type of task relating to a North-South divide (Braber, 2014; Montgomery, 2015), I overly included the Midlands region. As Braber (2014: 9) concluded after her map investigations across the East Midlands:

> It is interesting that a relatively large proportion gave the term 'Midlander' even though this was not an option, as it shows that there is a sense of there being a separate identity rather than belonging to the North or South.

Due to the apparent desire of both Montgomery's (2015) and Braber's (2014) respondents to have a Midlands option, I decided to overtly acknowledge the Midlands in my map task. Most Chesterfield respondents in my background study had expressed a Midland identity, which helped support this decision. Further, having Chesterfield-based participants to complete this task begins to address Montgomery's (2015: 352) call for more investigation into the North-South, and potentially Midland, divide from Midland locations. This call came after his study which collated draw-a-map tasks from five locations across the North of England, with respondents aged between the mean averages of 16.5 and 23.5 years (ibid: 355). They were asked to draw one line on a map of the UK where they thought there was a North-South linguistic divide. Montgomery found that some participants (32.2%) did not draw a line at all, which he suggested may be due to a disbelief in this divide, or the desire to draw a Midlands area which was seemingly prohibited by the question (ibid). However, some participants (9.4%) did draw two lines to signify a Midlands area, indicating the wish to have this region acknowledged (ibid: 356). The acknowledgement of a Midlands region is overtly addressed in my map task, which asked participants to:

- Draw **one line** where you think the North and South separate. If you think there is a Midlands area, draw **two lines** to show where the North becomes the Midlands and where the Midlands becomes the South.

To make this task more precise, I put 12 key locations on the map the respondents were annotating, including Chesterfield and Sheffield (see Figure 3.1). I could therefore hope to more accurately position the lines when collating my data. I was not explicit about a linguistic divide, but as all prior activities, most notably the dialect recognition task, had related to accent and dialect, this was most likely the respondents' first thought. Ultimately, I did not ask for stereotypes of speech areas, in the form of dialect mapping tasks, as other studies have (Braber, 2016; Montgomery and Stoeckle, 2013). I did include this type of task when I began my data collection, asking for 'words that describe the accent/dialect' of Yorkshire and East Midlands' locations (Figure 3.2), but found that the young people who participated were asking me for advice, or barely annotating the provided map, suggesting that no immediate stereotypes came to mind, or that the instructions were not clear enough. With hindsight, a more traditional draw-a-map task would have elicited similar

information relating to opinions of dialect areas, and whether the East Midlands was included. All Chesterfield teenage participants completed this task, which was additional to the North-Midland-South mapping task that all participants completed. Out of the eight teenage participants who completed this additional task, only one wrote something about an East Midland location: ComSF3 wrote that there are 'long vowel sounds' in Derby, and 'missed vowel sounds' in Northampton. In contrast, six of the eight participants wrote comments about Yorkshire. One of the most detailed accounts is discussed further in Chapter 8. Had I been able to send this task ahead to all participants, I might have had a better response, but there is the possibility that little is enregistered (Agha, 2003) across these two regions, at least in the minds of Chesterfield teens. Instead, I asked how participants felt about their own accent as part of a warm-up activity, asking for some words to describe the Chesterfield accent/dialect. This seemed to have greater success, and is discussed in Chapter 4.

1) Below you will see a map of Britain. Draw **one line** where you think the north and south separate. If you think there is a midlands area, draw **two lines** to show where the north becomes the midlands and where the midlands becomes the south.

Key

1. Newcastle
2. York
3. Leeds
4. Manchester
5. Liverpool
6. Sheffield
7. Chesterfield
8. Nottingham
9. Derby
10. Birmingham
11. Bristol
12. London
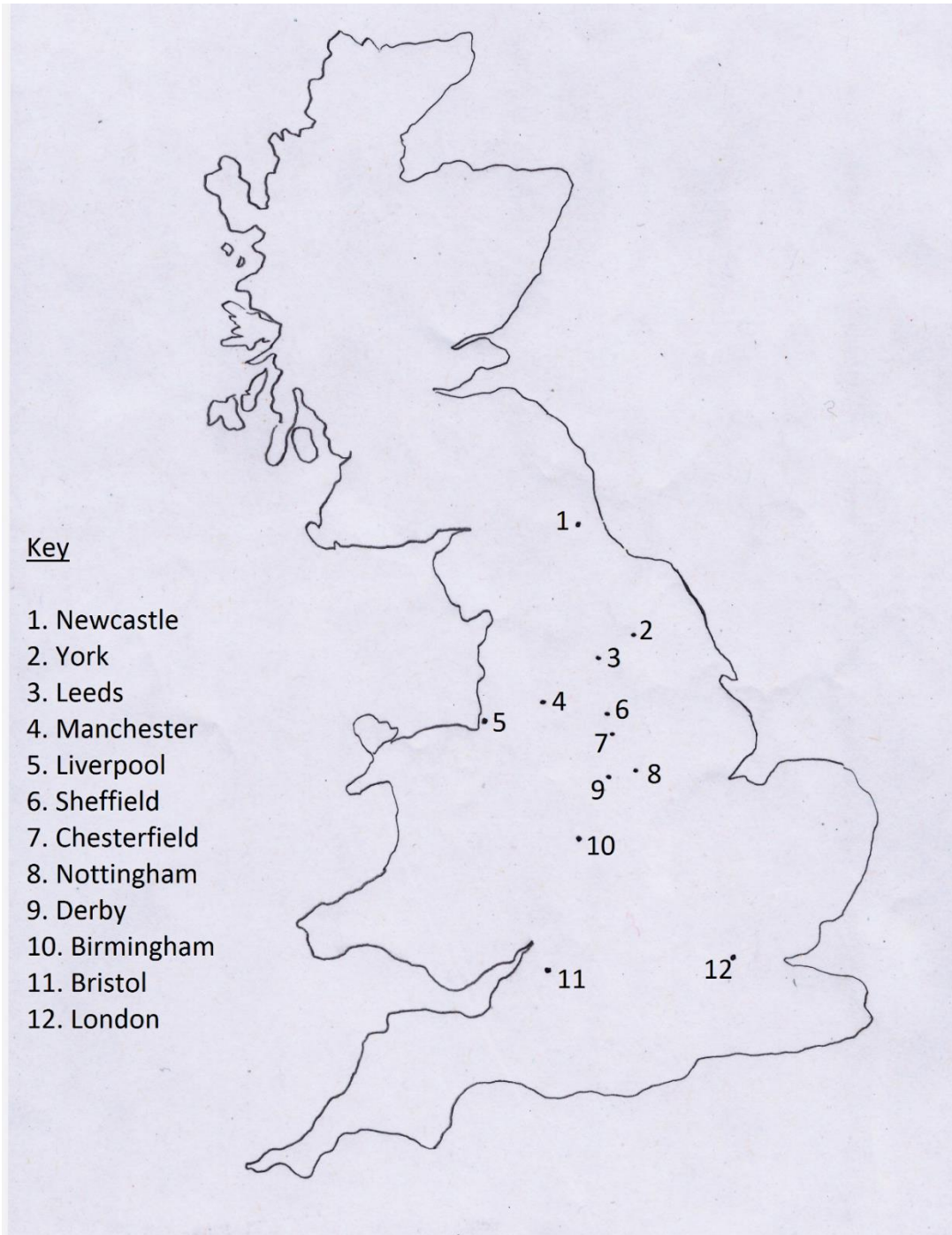
Figure 3.1: The North-Midland-South map task.

2) On the map, below, draw arrows to places you know and write words that describe the accent/dialect next to the arrow, e.g. farmer, broad, etc. If the place isn't marked on the map, but is in Yorkshire or the East Midlands, e.g. Bolsover, Rotherham, Ilkeston, write the place name in the box at the bottom of the page along with your description of the accent/dialect.

Key
1. Bradford
2. Leeds
3. Wakefield
4. York
5. Hull
6. Sheffield
7. Lincoln
8. Nottingham
9. Derby
10. Leicester
11. Northampton
12. Rutland
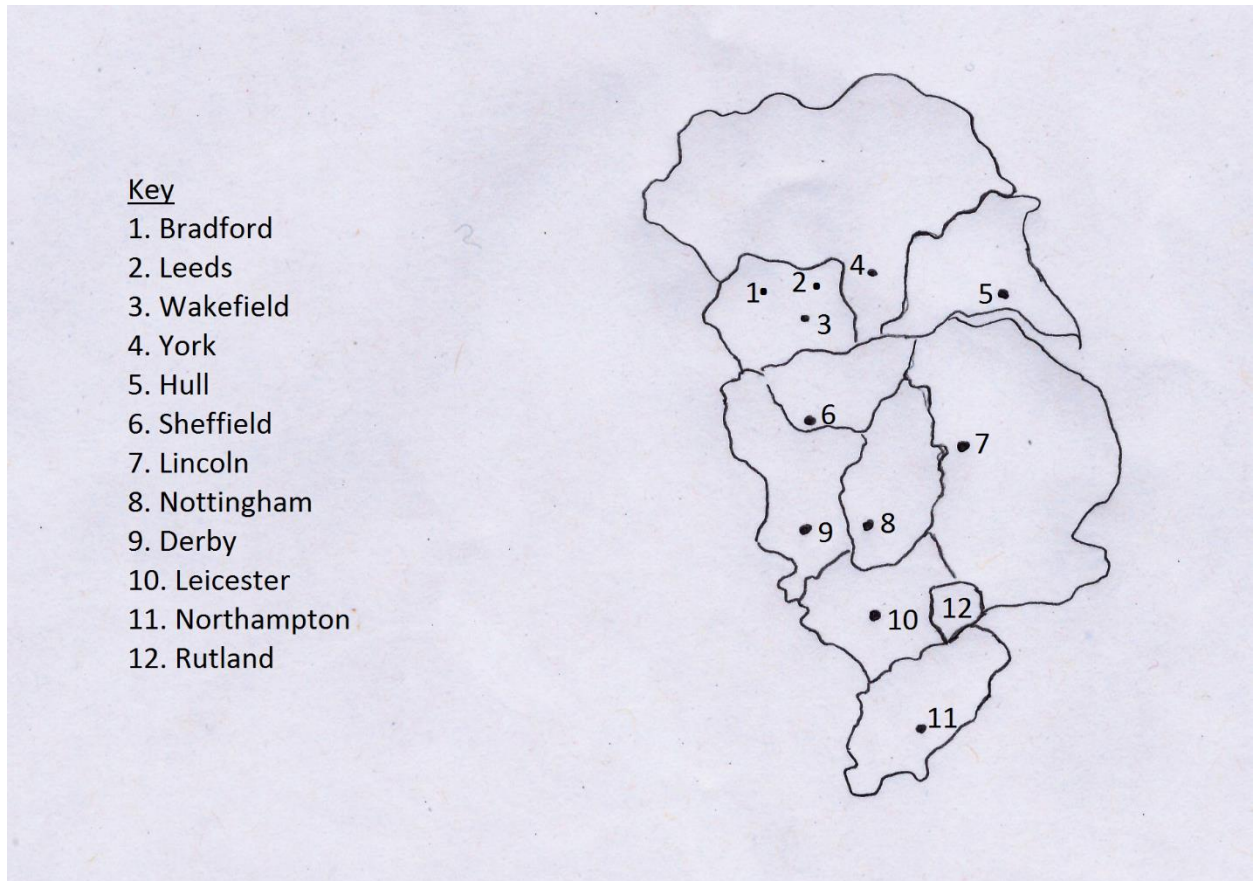
EXTRA PLACES IN YORKSHIRE/EAST MIDLANDS:

Figure 3.2: The dialect mapping task that was eventually rejected.

Analysis of this task, Figure 3.1, could support previous draw-a-map studies which investigated the North-South divide from more southerly areas of the East Midlands (Braber, 2014). As Montgomery and Stoeckle (2013: 52) explain:

> …geographical data relating to the placement and extent of dialect areas is a valuable resource that, once properly processed, can be used for direct comparison with data from other studies (linguistic and beyond).

Braber's (2014) results could indicate that those who live in (East) Midland areas disagree more about where the North-South divide is positioned than those who live more securely within the North of England, which is contrary to Montgomery's (2015) results. Montgomery (ibid) found that those further north had a much wider line spread, whilst those closer to the Midlands had a narrower spread, and a desire to be included in the North. However, as my research also asked about a Midland/North line, there may not be enough respondents who only positioned a North/South dividing line to enable direct comparison.

There are a number of limitations with this type of task. Braber (2014) found that some of her respondents identified as Northern or Southern, but that this identification did not match the line they drew on the map. In hindsight, I would have asked my participants more explicitly about their regional identity in order to analyse how it compared with the positioning of regions in the map task. Braber (2014) gave the example of a Nottingham-based participant who identified as Northern, but placed Nottingham in the South in the draw-a-map task (p6). There was no explanation given for this in Braber (2014), but, speculatively, it might be that the participant's family originally came from further north, or they simply may not have realised where Nottingham was on the map they were annotating, despite the projected map which was intended to help them. In order to better understand the thesis's mapping task data, I asked each participant to complete a questionnaire which asked more about where their immediate family came from, and where they now live (see Appendix 11.2). I excluded those teenagers who had lived away from Chesterfield for more than three years of their lives, and adults who had lived away for more than six years, following consultation with Professor Joan Beal, as more than this amount of time away may have impacted their regional knowledge and accent (Beal, 2015, personal correspondence).

It was hoped that place markers on the map respondents were annotating, not only projected onto a screen, would help them more accurately position their lines.

One further issue relating to this type of map task is reliability when collating the data. In previous years, most people used line tracing with overhead transparencies (c.f. Montgomery 2007: 61–68), which Montgomery and Stoeckle (2013) suggested could be imprecise with large quantities of data. However, they explain that 'aggregating data' is of importance in a map task such as the North-South maps to give 'a generalised "picture'' of perception which has more explicative power than single images of mental maps produced by individual respondents' (2013: 52). Therefore, I made line density maps using the computer programme ArcGIS 10.6.1 to compile the data. Montgomery and Stoeckle (2013: 57) explain about this programme:

> The main way in which a GIS works is by combining different types of data … by linking them to the earth's surface.

This makes geographical data extremely precise. However, when I created this task, I did not use a map of Great Britain that is directly compatible with the ArcGIS programme, so after scanning the individual pages that participants annotated, I had to align these maps so that they fitted over a map of Great Britain produced by the UK Data Service (https://www.ukdataservice.ac.uk/). I used control points so that the maps overlaid as precisely as possible before digitising the dividing lines that the participants drew. I would also have gone through this stage had I used a map more compatible with that of the UK data service (ibid: 62). Following several steps laid out by Montgomery and Stoeckle (2013), I was able to merge data onto one map for comparison. Montgomery and Stoeckle (2013) state that although using ArcGIS is laborious, the main advantages include visual appeal, the need to only input the data once, and, the possibility of sharing georeferenced data with other scholars (p80).

However, some scholars, particularly those from TESOL and Applied Linguistics, are opposed to perceptual map tasks, particularly draw-a-map tasks which ask about dialect areas (Figure 3.2). They argue that these types of task expose the lack of recognition for, or acceptance of, ethnic diversity in sociolinguistics. Badwan (2018: n.p.) states that:

Dialect maps establish a link between a dialect and place in a way that reinforces a monolithic ideology of language.

Badwan (2018) asserts that dialect is not locked to a place, with towns and cities becoming increasingly multicultural. She demonstrated how inappropriate some draw-a-map task can be in the TESOL classroom, with most participants not speaking the dialects connected to the city in which they now reside. I agree that this task may be inappropriate in the TESOL classroom, but in Chesterfield, where there is limited ethnic diversity and/or mobility (see Introduction section 1.1), it seems appropriate as a means to learn more about regional identity. Badwan (2018: n.p.) admits that place has 'emotional meanings', and as identity and place is a complex issue my questionnaire (Appendix 11.2) sought to find more about participants' connections to place through asking about years of residence and parental birthplace, as discussed.

As my study focused on the variables of age, gender, and regional identity, I chose to include participants from three generations: Teenagers (aged 16 to 18), a middle age group (aged 36 to 55), and an older group (aged 66 to 80). I was limited to these ages due to restricted access to larger numbers of participants: I conducted research with people who were able to participate and had lived in Chesterfield for most of their lives, because this is a time-consuming task. Having three age groups, however, is unusual for North/South map tasks of this kind in England, which mostly gather responses from young adults[27] (Braber, 2014; Montgomery, 2012; 2015). Hind's (2019) Masters' research does focus on Nottinghamshire residents aged over 55, asking them to complete a perceptual map tasks as per Braber (2015). Interestingly, 50% of her older participants chose to state they were Midlanders, despite not having this option. This potentially shows a more secure regional identity than Braber's teenagers, none of whom chose to write Midlander, and these results will be compared against my own (Chapter 5). I chose to include different age groups in order to determine whether there were any changes in trends over time, but also so that comparisons could be made with the same participants' word list data (Chapter 7). This helped me to determine, for example, if participants identified themselves as living in the

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[27] According to Braber (2014), 'Braber and Davies' was forthcoming. Its intention was to research this with older groups. However, Davies retired before it was written (Personal correspondence with Braber).

North, were there any differences in the way they read the word list compared with those who identify as living within the Midlands. This finding helped to answer Research Question 3: **Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?** How the word list data was gathered and analysed is presented in section 3.4.5.

3.4.3. The Dialect Recognition Tasks

The next part of the methodology addresses Research Question 2: **To what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions?** These dialect recognition tasks are similar to others that have been used across the years in British perceptual dialectology (Williams et al, 1999; Braber, 2016) with the exception of Task 2, which gave clues through a discussion of local lexis. The design of these two-part tests will be discussed, followed by a brief discussion of how the results were analysed.

Task 1 of the dialect recognition tests was designed to analyse whether Chesterfield respondents could recognise local accents from excerpts of formal reading, with particular interest paid to how recognisable, or distinct, the Sheffield accents were found to be. This would present evidence about whether Sheffield accents are considered to be different from or similar to East Midland accents, and would help me to answer research question two about degree of recognition of local accents and the cues that help people make their decisions.

In Task 1 of the perception tests, eight volunteers read out the following passage:

One day, Dave got on the bus and went to his Aunt Shirley's house. Looking out of the window he passed his old school, his favourite pub called 'The Duke of Gloucester' where his dad used to sing his heart out (his family liked singing), and a lovely old clothes shop that looked like it was up for sale. The thing about this particular town is, I can tell you, it's not like it was; it's dreadful! Out and about round town, you could go anywhere at one time and have fun. His mum would say to him, "Oh no, stop moaning Dave!" When Dave

arrived, his aunty and uncle were in the kitchen, putting on the kettle. There was a goose cooking in the oven, butter softening on the table and a jam tart on the window sill. His girlfriend would have liked this dinner. She's 35, a nurse, and was at work today in an ambulance.

I wrote this passage with the intention of encouraging readers to produce local features of speech, the analysis of which is presented in Tables 3.10 to 3.21. I could have used other texts such as 'Comma Gets a Cure' or 'The Boy Who Cried Wolf', but I wanted to fit the passage more to sounds that are potentially markers of East Midland and Yorkshire speech, as described in the tables, below. There are four sound files, one each from males over 56 who resided in Sheffield, Chesterfield, South Derbyshire or Nottinghamshire. Following that there were four sound files from women in their twenties who were born and resided in the same four regions as the males. It was my expectation that the older males would present more traditional accents from their birthplace, with younger females presenting more modern versions of their local accent, mostly due to their age but also their backgrounds. All four females were university educated, with the older males mostly retired from traditionally working class employment such as coal miner. It is rare for dialect recognition studies to play excerpts from speakers of different ages and genders. Studies may have had multiple speakers from the same location (Williams et al, 1999), but there is only one study of which I am aware that had different age groups of speaker from each location (Kerswill and Williams, 2002). I hoped that by having different ages and genders more would be understood about dialect recognition, particularly whether more traditional or modern versions of the same accent were more recognisable. Respondents were told that there would be two sound files from each of the four locations, one from the older male and the other from the younger female, rather than respondents having to guess their answers from unlimited locations across England (see the answer sheet, Appendix 11.3). Listener fatigue was a potential issue, with the longest rendition of this passage taking 1 minute and 2 seconds by Male Speaker 2. Furthermore, this task might be of less interest given that the same passage was repeated once (upon request). However, repeating the passage gave agents the opportunity to make greater comparisons, considering their responses, and time to comment on why they made their decisions. To reduce fatigue, I gave a break before Task

2. I maintained the same order for both tasks, presented in Table 3.9, with all participants. Mixing the order of the recordings for different participants would have been problematic given that I played the recording to both large groups, and individuals. Playing to large groups meant that one order would have been used more than others, while maintaining the same order would hopefully offer insight into the decision-making process of the participants.

Table 3.9: Order of Play in Dialect Recognition for both Tasks 1 and 2.

Male Speaker 1	South Derbyshire
Male Speaker 2	Sheffield
Male Speaker 3	Nottinghamshire
Male Speaker 4	Chesterfield
Female Speaker 1	Sheffield
Female Speaker 2	Chesterfield
Female Speaker 3	Nottinghamshire
Female Speaker 4	South Derbyshire

Dialect Recognition Task 2 was a continuation of Task 1, and I hoped that it would provide insight into whether dialect vocabulary was central to dialect recognition of East Midland and Sheffield accents. The same speakers, in the same order as Table 3.9, read aloud the following questions, and then answered in their own words.

- *Are there any words or phrases typical of the town/city you're from?*

- *What do people in your town/city call a bread roll?*

- *What do people in your town/city call the passage between two houses?*

- *You want to thank a stranger, but don't know their name. What would people from your town/city say? (e.g, "Thanks, Pal").*

There was formal reading in this section, reading the question aloud, along with the opportunity for more casual speech when giving free answers. During Task 2, participants

could choose to keep their answers about the speaker's location the same as Task 1, or change them. They were asked to give their reasons. Most respondents seemed to enjoy this section, and the excerpts were mostly shorter than for Task 1. The longest recording for Task 2 was for Female 3, who took 1 minute and 8 seconds. Again, I played this part once or twice depending on demand. In hindsight, I would probably have just played the recording once to maintain consistency, and reduce fatigue.

The volunteers who read out the passage for Task 1, and answered questions for Task 2, had resided in the location for most of their lives. They gave written informed consent for me to play out excerpts of their speech in Dialect Recognition Tasks and at conferences (Appendix 11.2).

Tables 3.10 to 3.12 detail the Chesterfield speakers' responses to Tasks 1 and 2, followed by a brief summary. Tables 3.13 to 3.15 describe the Sheffield excerpts, followed by Tables 3.16 to 3.18 with the South Derbyshire voices, and finally Tables 3.19 to 3.21 record linguistic details about the Nottinghamshire male and female.

Table 3.10: The Chesterfield older male and younger female in formal reading.

Female: Aged 19-25, University Student; Male: Aged 61-65, Retired Coal Miner

Significant features of their speech:

Lexical set/feature	Possible realisation in	Phonetic realisation		Significance	Reference
		Older MALE	Younger FEMALE		
DRESS	Went, dreadful, kettle				
LOT	One, got, on, Gloucester, shop, not, one, stop				
NURSE	Shirley's, girlfriend, thirty, nurse, work	/əː/	/əː/ > [ɛː]	Standard pronunciation for the male, with the [ɛː] variant applied by the female ("nurse"). This variant is also found in the Derby and Nottingham samples.	
FACE	Day, Dave, sale, say, table	/eɪ/ > [eɪjə]	/eɪ/ > [eɪjə]	The more standard pronunciation of FACE /eɪ/ is common throughout the East Midlands (and is possibly influencing the pronunciation of FACE among Sheffield's middle classes). The [eɪjə] variant is restricted to "sale" and "Dave".	Finnegan (2011)
GOAT	Window, old, clothes, go, oh, no, moaning	/əʊ/ [ʊ] lexically restricted to 'go'	/əʊ/	The more standard pronunciation of GOAT /əʊ/is common throughout the East Midlands (and is possibly influencing the pronunciation of GOAT among Sheffield's middle classes).	Finnegan (2011)

GOOSE	School, you, goose,	/uː/ [uːwə] restricted to 'school'	/uː/		
PRICE	Liked, like, I, time, arrived, five	/aɪ/ ~ [ɔɪ]	/aɪ/ ~ [aː]	The [ɔɪ] variant is used by older (middle-class) males in Nottingham, but seems to be dying out there. The [aː] variant used by the female is typical of female pronunciation of MOUTH in Nottingham.	Flynn (2012)
MOUTH	House, out, about, town, round	/aʊ/	[aː] > /aʊ/	The standard pronunciation of MOUTH is still untypical in the East Midlands, especially among the working-classes. The female uses the East Midlands' variant [aː], while the male always uses the standard pronunciation.	Flynn (2012)
SQUARE	Where, anywhere				
START	Heart, tart	/ɑː/	/ɑː/		
BATH-TRAP	Aunt, aunty, passed,	[a]	[a]	All are realised with the northern TRAP variant.	
STRUT-FOOT	Bus, lovely, up, fun, mum, uncle, butter, oven	[ʊ]	[ʊ]	The STRUT-FOOT merger is northern.	Braber and Flynn (2015)
HappY	Aunty, Shirley's, family, lovely	[ɪ]	[ɪ]	No HappY-tensing. HappY's realisation as [ɪ] is typically northern.	Flynn (2010)
Ng-coalescence	Looking, sing, singing, thing, moaning, putting,	/ŋ/ ~ [n]	/ŋ/ ~ [n]	NG is variable in the North and Midlands, with the velar nasal alternating most frequently with [n]. The [ŋg] variant is said to predominate in the western half of the	Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 51); Wells (1982b: 365)

	cooking, softening			Midlands, including Derbyshire, and ("uniquely for Yorkshire") Sheffield. This variant is not heard in the Chesterfield samples.	
Yod	Duke, particular, ambulance	/juː/	/juː/	Yod-dropping is supposed to typify the East Midlands but there is none here.	Braber and Flynn (2015)
H-dropping	His, house, he, heart			Male h-drops for all, female occasionally.	
/t/ to [k]	Kettle				
Yorkshire assimilation	Dreadful				
NOTE	Male realises 'cooking' with [uː] which was noted among older working-class Derby speakers (Docherty and Foulkes, 1999: 50, 51), and heard in the Chesterfield Museum's recordings (see section 3.3.1). Evidence of TH-fronting in the younger female's speech.				

Table 3.11: Interview questions and answers for the older Chesterfield male.

Question	Answer	Phonetic realisation	Dialect vocabulary
Are there any words or phrases typical of the town/city you're from?	Aye up duck, alright love, see ya.		"Aye up duck" seems to be widely connected with the East Midlands.
What do people in your town/city call a bread roll?	I can only think of a roll.		The audience will expect the Chesterfield respondents to say "cob", based on their warm-up activity answers (Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2)
What do people in your town/city call the passage between two houses?	Jennel, twitchel, that's it.	[ʤenəl] [twɪʧəl/	"Twitchel" is a traditional word that is connected with the East Midlands and Sheffield (Widdowson, 1992-3).
You want to thank a stranger but don't know their name. What would people from your town/city say, e.g. thanks pal.	No, round here we say, thanks duck, or if it's a woman probably thanks love		"Duck" is connected with the East Midlands, and "love" with Sheffield (Background Study, 2015).
Comments			

Table 3.12: Interview questions and answers for the younger Chesterfield female.

Question	Answer	Phonetic realisation	Dialect vocabulary
Are there any words or phrases typical of the town or city you're from?	A lot of the older people in **this town** call each other duck and some say mardy, although that may be associated with **other towns**.	[wɛːdz] [taːn] [mɑːdiː] (/iː/ here shows influence of HAPPY-tensing)	"Duck" is associated with the East Midlands, but "mardy" might be enregistered to Sheffield through the Arctic Monkey's track "Mardy Bum".
What do people in your town or city call a bread roll?	A cob.		"Cob" is connected with the East Midlands.
What do people in your town or city call the passage between two houses?	A jitty	[dʒɪtiː]	
You want to thank a stranger but don't know their name. What would people from your town or city say?	A lot people might just say thanks, but the older generation will often call each other love or duck to accompany this.		"Love" may be more connected to Sheffield in the audience's mind (Background study, 2015).
Comments	Where she says "this town" is highlighted		

Chesterfield older male and younger female speech samples

Based solely on auditory analysis, both the Chesterfield male and female seem to be rooted in the East Midlands. FACE and GOAT vowels are mostly realised as /eɪ/ and /əʊ/ respectively in the Chesterfield, South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire samples, contrasting the Sheffield sample in which monophthongal variants are heard. The Chesterfield older male's pronunciation has some features in common, specifically the PRICE vowel, with older males from Nottingham.

While recognisably Northern (h-dropping, STRUT-FOOT merger, and BATH vowel realised as TRAP), the Chesterfield male's speech has fewer features that identify him as coming specifically from the East Midlands. This is true of both his accent and vocabulary usage, which may mislead the audience. For example, he has the standard pronunciation of MOUTH, while the female uses the monophthongal variant typical of the East Midlands. He is also the only male not to yod-drop. This linguistic feature is thought to typify the East Midlands (Braber and Flynn, 2015) but is not used by the Chesterfield male in this sample.

The younger female has more features that connect her with the East Midlands, including her realisation of the MOUTH vowel and her variant of the NURSE vowel, and answers the vocabulary questions with responses the audience might expect. For example, her use of both "cob" and "jitty" were commonly connected to Chesterfield in the responses given by Chesterfield participants when asked to give examples of Chesterfield dialect vocabulary (Chapter 4, section 4.3.2).

Table 3.13: The Sheffield older male and younger female in formal reading.

Female: Aged 19-25, University Student; Male: Aged 61-65, Retired Fireman

Significant features of their speech:

Lexical set/feature	Possible realisation in	Phonetic realisation		Significance	Reference
		Older MALE	Younger FEMALE		
DRESS	Went, dreadful, kettle				
LOT	One, got, on, Gloucester, shop, not, one, stop				
NURSE	Shirley's, girlfriend, thirty, nurse, work	/ə:/	/ə:/	Standard pronunciation for both the male and female.	
FACE	Day, Dave, sale, say, table	[e:] ~ [e:ə] > [eɪjə]	[e:] > [eɪjə]	The [e:] variant is traditional in Sheffield, The [eɪjə] variant is restricted to "sale".	Finnegan (2011)
GOAT	Window, old, clothes, go, oh, no, moaning	/əʊ/ > [ɔ:] ~ [ʊ:] [ʊ:] restricted to "go"	[ɵ:] > /əʊ/	The variant [ɔ:] ("clothes") is associated with older Sheffield males. The variant [ɵ:] is incoming in Sheffield in the GOAT lexical set.	Stoddart et al (1999); Finnegan (2011)
GOOSE	School, you, goose,	/u:/ [u:wə] restricted to "school"	/u:/		

PRICE	Liked, like, I, time, arrived, five	[aː]	[aː]	The [aː] variant has been associated with the East Midlands in the literature, with the variant [ɑːˡ] recorded as a variant heard in Sheffield.	Flynn (2012); Stoddart et al (1999)
MOUTH	House, out, about, town, round	/aʊ/	/aʊ/	The male and female's standard pronunciation is different to East Midland variants.	Docherty and Foulkes (1999); Flynn (2012)
SQUARE	Where, anywhere				
START	Heart, tart	/ɑː/ ~ [aː]	/ɑː/	The [aː] variant has been connected to Sheffield.	Stoddart et al (1999)
BATH-TRAP	Aunt, aunty, passed,	[a]	[a]		
STRUT-FOOT	Bus, lovely, up, fun, mum, uncle, butter, oven	[ʊ]	[ʊ]	The STRUT-FOOT merger is northern.	Braber and Flynn (2015)
HappY	Aunty, Shirley's, family, lovely	[ɪ]	[ɪ]	No sign of HappY-tensing in the older male or younger female's speech. HappY is realised as KIT; a northern feature.	Flynn (2010)
Ng-coalescence	Looking, sing, singing, thing, moaning, putting, cooking, softening	[ŋg] > [n] > /ŋ/	[n] > /ŋ/	NG is variable in the North and Midlands, with the velar nasal alternating most frequently with [n]. The [ŋg] variant is said to predominate in the western half of the Midlands, including Derbyshire, and ("uniquely for Yorkshire") Sheffield.	Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 51), Wells (1982b: 365)
Yod	Duke, particular, ambulance	/juː/ > [ə]	/juː/	Yod-dropping used by the male ("ambulance") is unexpected as this is supposed typify the East Midlands.	Braber and Flynn (2015)

H-dropping	His, house, he, heart	Inconsistent h-dropping	No h-dropping	The formality of reading a passage perhaps affects h-dropping.	
/t/ to [k]	Kettle				
Yorkshire assimilation	Dreadful	n/a	n/a	Yorkshire assimilation not heard here in the older male's speech. Its geographical spread is not known (Wells 1982b).	Wells (1982b: 366)
NOTE	Evidence of alveolar tap [ɾ] in the male's speech ("favourite", "anywhere at"), which is more usually associated with Liverpool or Leeds but its geographical spread unknown (Wells, 1982b: 368). He stumbles over some of his words when reading the passage ("…it's not like *wh..* it was…"). The younger female changed 'there *was* a goose' to 'there *were* a goose', which is still present in the recording. Evidence of nerves in the female's voice (voice shaking, and she releases her breath at the end.)				

Table 3.14: Interview questions and answers for the older Sheffield male.

Question	Answer	Phonetic realisation	Dialect vocabulary
Are there any words or phrases typical of the town/city you're from?	Gennel, skoiyul, spice.	[genəl] [skɔɪjʊl]	[skɔɪjʊl] is his pronunciation of "school", which baffled the younger audience. "Spice" means "sweets" and was traditionally used across South Yorkshire and the East Midlands, but has fallen out of popular use.
Two. What do people in your town call a bread roll?	Breadcake.	[eː] used is "cake". No sign of Yorkshire assimilation.	The audience will expect the Sheffield respondents to say "breadcake". It seems a marker of Sheffield speech to Chesterfield people.
Three. What do people in your town/city call a passage between two houses?	Gennel.	[genəl]	Different pronunciation of "gennel" to Chesterfield male who says "jennel".
What do you thank a stranger...You want to thank a stranger but don't know their name. What would you, people from your town/city say, thanks pal?	Say "thanks mi'owd."	[θænksmɪjəʊd]	
Comments	Commentary that showed, especially teens, liked the Sheffield male's voice.		

Table 3.15: Interview questions and answers for the younger Sheffield female.

Question	Answer	Phonetic realisiation	Dialect vocabulary
Are there any words or phrases typical of the town or city you're from?	Most of my friends would say gi'o'er with yer sen, but I would say "give over".	Phrases [freːzəz] Most [mɵːst] Say [seː] gi'o'er with yer sen [gɪjɔːwɪjəsen] give over [/gɪvɵːvə]	
What do people in your town or city call a bread roll?	Breadcake.	Bread roll [bredrɵːl] Breadcake [bredkeːk]	The audience will expect the Sheffield respondents to say "breadcake". It seems a marker of Sheffield speech to Chesterfield people.
What do people in your town or city call the passage between two houses?	A Jennel.	[ʤenəl]	Different pronunciation of "jennel" to Sheffield male, but same as the Chesterfield male.
You want to thank a stranger but you don't know their name. What would people from your town or city say?	Err, thanks love.	Don't know [dɵːntnɵː] Say [seː]	"Love" is a marker of Sheffield speech to Chesterfield people (pilot study)
Comments	Nerves in her voice make her likeable? Any evidence she's liked?		

Sheffield older male and younger female speech samples

Both Sheffield samples are distinct from the other recordings in terms of the FACE and GOAT vowels. While all other samples use standard diphthongs, the Sheffield male and female use [eː] for FACE, which is typical of Sheffield speech (Finnegan, 2011). For GOAT, the male uses a variation approximating to the Sheffield [ɔː] variant alongside the standard diphthong, while the female consistently uses the incoming [ɵː] variant in both the read passage and interview style question and answers.

The MOUTH variant is the standard diphthong in both the male and female speech, unlike most of the other samples (with the exception of the Chesterfield male and Nottinghamshire female). The Sheffield male yod-drops in "ambulance", which may be misleading to those who connect yod-dropping with the East Midlands. The answer "breadcake" in the Task 2 recording might confirm that these are Sheffield speakers, and the nerves evident in the female speech and the hesitation in the male speech seem might humanise them to the audience. This could possibly make the speakers more likeable, and therefore more 'claimed' by the, especially teenage, audience (Braber, 2016; Williams et al, 1999).

Table 3.16: The South Derbyshire older male and younger female in formal reading.

Female: Aged 26-30, Mentor/Safeguarding Officer; Male: Aged 56-60, Assembler/Packer at Denby Pottery

Significant features of their speech:

Lexical set/feature	Possible realisation in	Phonetic realisation		Significance	Reference
		Older MALE	Younger FEMALE		
DRESS	Went, dreadful, kettle				
LOT	One, got, on, Gloucester, shop, not, one, stop				
NURSE	Shirley's, girlfriend, thirty, nurse, work	[ɛː] > /əː/	/əː/ > [ɛː]	The [ɛː] variable is thought to be lexically restricted to 'her', 'were', 'stir' in Derby, but is heard here in "girlfriend" and "nurse".	Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 49)
FACE	Day, Dave, sale, say, table	/eɪ/ > [eɪjə]	/eɪ/ > [eɪjə]	This variable mostly lacks monophthongal realisation typical of northern varieties. The variable [eɪjə] restricted to "sale" and "Dave".	Braber and Flynn (2015)
GOAT	Window, old, clothes, go, oh, no, moaning	/əʊ/ [u:] restricted to "window"	/əʊ/	This variable mostly lacks monophthongal realisation typical of northern varieties.	Braber and Flynn (2015)
GOOSE	School, you, goose	[u:]	[u:]	The variable is very rounded in "goose" for the male.	

PRICE	Liked, like, I, time, arrived, five	[aː] > [ɔɪ] > /aɪ/	[aː] > [aːˑ] > /aɪ/	[aːˑ] is the variant of the PRICE vowel used mostly by females in Derby. The male uses the [ɔɪ] variant which has also been found in the speech of older males from Nottingham.	Docherty and Foulkes (1999)
MOUTH	House, out, about, town, round	[aː] > /aʊ/	[aː] > /aʊ/	The [aː] variant has been found in both Derby and Nottingham.	Docherty and Foulkes (1999); Flynn (2012)
SQUARE	Where, anywhere				
START	Heart, tart				
BATH-TRAP	Aunt, aunty, passed,	[a] > [ɑː]	[a] > [ɑː]	The male and female both realise "Aunt" and "Aunty" with the southern English BATH variant [ɑː] rather than TRAP. This has been reported in Derby in previous studies, and Wells (1982b: 354, 355) notes that the BATH isogloss for 'aunt' is further north than for other words, such as 'last'.	Docherty and Foulkes (1999); Wells (1982b)
STRUT-FOOT	Bus, lovely, up, fun, mum, uncle, butter, oven	[ʊ]	[ʊ]	The STRUT-FOOT merger is northern.	Braber and Flynn (2015)
HappY	Aunty, Shirley's, family, lovely	[ɪ]	[ɪ]	No HappY-tensing. HappY's realisation as [ɪ] is typically northern.	Flynn (2010)
Ng-coalescence	Looking, sing, singing, thing, moaning, putting, cooking, softening	[n] > [ŋg] > /ŋ/	[n] > [ŋg] > /ŋ/	The NG is variable in the North and Midlands, with the velar nasal alternating most frequently with [n]. The [ŋg] variant is said to predominate in the western half of the midlands, including Derbyshire, and ("uniquely for Yorkshire") Sheffield.	Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 51); Wells (1982b: 365)

Yod	Duke, particular, ambulance	[ə] restricted to "ambulance"	/juː/	Yod-dropping has been found in Derby.	Foulkes (personal correspondence cited in Braber and Flynn, 2015)
H-dropping	His, house, he, heart	Inconsistent h-dropping	Inconsistent h-dropping	The formality of reading a passage perhaps affects h-dropping.	
/t/ to [k]	Kettle				
Yorkshire assimilation	Dreadful				
NOTE	The younger female pronounces "cooking" with the variant [uː], which has been noted only among the older working class population in Derby (Docherty and Foulkes, 1999). Wells (1982b: 362) found the long vowel to be "still widespread" but "recessive" in the linguistic North. The younger female also uses t-glottalling, which has been found in Derby (Docherty and Foulkes, 1999) and Nottingham (Flynn, 2012), especially among young working-class females.				

Table 3.17: Interview questions and answers for the older South Derbyshire male.

Question	Answer	Phonetic realisation	Dialect vocabulary
Are there any words or phrases typical of the town or city you're from?	The only ones I can really think of are things like duck, and aye up, and things like that.	[wɛːdz] [taːn]	"Duck" is connected with the East Midlands, as is "aye up".
What do people in your town and city call a bread roll?	Always called a cob round here (then muttering).		"Cob" is connected with the East Midlands.
What do people in your town and city call a passage between two houses?	That's known as a jitty.	[dʒɪtɪ] "houses" = [aːzəz]	"Jitty" seems to be connected with Chesterfield in the young respondents' minds. [ɪ] in "jitty" is associated with northern pronunciations.
And what would you say to thank a stranger but don't know their name. What would people from your town or city say?	We would say cheers mate or thanks mate.		"Mate" is a generic term.
Comments			

Table 3.18: Interview questions and answers for the younger South Derbyshire female.

Question	Answer	Phonetic realisation	Dialect vocabulary
Are there any words or phrases typical of the town where you're from?	"Aye up", definitely. "Duck". Erm, "alrate". Take the "h" off things, like "'ouse", instead of "house". Erm, "what you been up to, owt or nowt?" So, it's like the "owt" instead of "anything".	Uses standard MOUTH vowel in "town" and "house" until gives examples of local speech and says [aːs]. [ɑːreɪt] [əʊt] [nəʊt]	Pronunciation of "alright" may be connected with Sheffield through bands like the Arctic Monkeys, but only to people who do not know the East Midlands.
What do people in your town call a bread roll?	It's a cob. I think like a roll's more like crusty rolls.		
What do people in your town call the passage between two houses?	It's a jitty. Or an alley, mainly jitty.	[dʒɪtiː]	Jitty may be connected with Chesterfield to Chesterfield participants, but "alley" is not local to the area.
You want to thank a stranger but don't know their name. What would people from your town say?	Many thanks duck, or thanks mate.		"Duck" is connected with the East Midlands.
Comments	In each question she says "town" and not "town or city", which may be misleading.		

South Derbyshire older male and younger female speech samples

Both the male and the female from South Derbyshire are rooted in the East Midlands in terms of their accent and vocabulary usage.

Both use the [ɛː] variant of NURSE, and the long monophthong [aː] for both PRICE and MOUTH. The male also uses the [ɔɪ] variant for PRICE heard in the Nottingham male and Chesterfield male samples. Both male and female use the southern BATH vowel in "aunt" and "aunty", which has been found in Derby in previous studies (Docherty and Foulkes, 1999). The male yod-drops, which is connected to the East Midlands and has been previously found in Derby (Foulkes, personal correspondence cited in Braber and Flynn, 2015). The male uses dialect vocabulary that the Chesterfield respondents connect to Chesterfield, for example "cob" and "jitty", while the female cites the word "alley" which may index she is not from Chesterfield. However, when she reads the questions in the second recording she says "town", rather than "town or city", which may lead the audience to believe she is from Chesterfield.

Table 3.19: The Nottinghamshire older male and younger female in formal reading.

Female: Aged 19-25, University Student; Male: Aged 61-65, Retired coal miner, and public speaker

Significant features of their speech:

Lexical set/feature	Possible realisation in	Phonetic realisation		Significance	Reference
		Older MALE	Younger FEMALE		
DRESS	Went, dreadful, kettle				
LOT	One, got, on, Gloucester, shop, not, one, stop				
NURSE	Shirley's, girlfriend, thirty, nurse, work	/əː/ > [ɛː]	/əː/	The [ɛː] variant is thought to be lexically restricted to 'her', 'were', 'stir' in Derby, but the male uses this variant in "nurse" and "girlfriend".	Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 49)
FACE	Day, Dave, sale, say, table	/eɪ/ > [eɪjə]	/eɪ/ > [eɪjə]	This variable mostly lacks monophthongal realisation typical of northern varieties. The variable [eɪjə] restricted to "sale" and "Dave".	Braber and Flynn (2015)
GOAT	Window, old, clothes, go, oh, no, moaning	/əʊ/ [ʊ] lexically restricted to 'go'	/əʊ/	This variable lacks monophthongal realisation typical of northern varieties.	Braber and Flynn (2015)
GOOSE	School, you, goose,	[uː] > [ɛʊ]	[uː]	The male realises "goose" as [ɛʊ], which Wells (1982) notes was heard in parts of Derbyshire in	Wells (1982b: 360)

				the SED. This speaker lives close to the Derbyshire border.	
PRICE	Liked, like, I, time, arrived, five	[aː] > [ɔɪ] [ɔɪ] lexically restricted to 'time' and 'five'.	[aː] ~ /aɪ/	The [ɔɪ] variable is typical of older males in Nottinghamshire, particularly the middle-classes. The [aː] variable is typical of working-class Nottinghamshire locals. Middle class females are the highest users of the standard PRICE variable.	Flynn (2012)
MOUTH	House, out, about, town, round	[aː] > /aʊ/ > [æʊ]	/aʊ/	The [aː] variant associated with Nottinghamshire. The standard pronunciation /aʊ/ has been found to be untypical among Nottingham's working classes. The male uses variant [æʊ] for "house", which Wells notes as a Sheffield variant (1982b: 359).	Docherty and Foulkes (1999); Flynn (2012)
SQUARE	Where, anywhere				
START	Heart, tart				
BATH-TRAP	Aunt, aunty, passed,	[a]	[a] > [ɑː]	The younger female realises "Aunt" and "Aunty" with the southern English BATH variant [ɑː]. However, Wells (1982) notes that the isogloss for 'aunt' is below Nottingham but further north than for other words such as 'last'. The male maintains the northern English TRAP vowel for all.	Wells (1982b: 355)
STRUT-FOOT	Bus, lovely, up, fun, mum, uncle, butter, oven	[ʊ]	[ʊ] > [ə]	The STRUT-FOOT merger is northern. The younger female sometimes realises [ʊ] more towards the schwa ("bus", "pub").	Braber and Flynn (2015)
HappY	Aunty, Shirley's, family, lovely	[ɪ]	[ɪ]	No HappY-tensing. HappY's realisation as [ɪ] is typically northern.	Flynn (2010)

Ng-coalescence	Looking, sing, singing, thing, moaning, putting, cooking, softening	[n] ~ /ŋ/	/ŋ/	NG is variable in the North and Midlands, with the velar nasal alternating most frequently with [n]. The [ŋg] variant is said to predominate in the western half of the midlands, including Derbyshire, and ("uniquely for Yorkshire") Sheffield. This variant is not heard in the Nottingham samples.	Docherty and Foulkes (1999: 51); Wells (1982b: 365)
Yod	Duke, particular, ambulance	duːk/ pɑːtɪkələ/ ambələns	/juː/	Yod-dropping typical of older Nottinghamshire males.	Braber and Flynn (2015)
H-dropping	His, house, he, heart	Inconsistent h-dropping	No h-dropping	The formality of reading a passage perhaps affects h-dropping.	
/t/ to [k]	Kettle				
Yorkshire assimilation	Dreadful				
NOTE	Evidence of creaky voice in the younger female ("Aunt Shirley's") which has been associated with young, female, Americans in popular culture (Jackson, 2022). Use of t-to-r in "got on" and "putting" in the older male's speech, which is a 'widespread but stigmatised connected-speech process' (Wells, 1982b: 370). Flynn (2012) does not find much evidence of t-to-r in his sample (2012: 311) despite folk linguistic evidence of this in traditional Nottinghamshire dialect (Scollins and Titford, 2000). The male is a professional speaker and former coal miner. He has a working-class persona, but some of his speech may indicate middle-class influences.				

Table 3.20: Interview questions and answers from the older Nottinghamshire male.

Question	Answer	Phonetic realisation	Dialect vocabulary
Question one. Are there any words or phrases typical of the town/city where you're from?	There are three I can give you here. One which is "mardy", which means sulky, or tearful. Another one which is "chock on" which means just right, if something's just right they'll shout it's chock on. And a third one which is seldom heard nowadays, it was quite common certainly thirty/forty years ago, is a brama, which is a good one. If anything's really good they'll say it were a "reet brama".	[mɑːdiː] Right [rɔɪt] Heard [ɛːd] Reet brama [riːtbrɑːmə]	"Mardy" is a word that seems to be used across the East Midlands and Sheffield, while his pronunciation on "right", [rɔɪt], hints at an older Nottinghamshire male. (Although, his later pronunciation, [riːt] is suggestive of a more general East Midlands pronunciation as opposed to "rate" which is more associated with Sheffield.)
The second question you asked me is what a bread roll's called where I come from	and it's quite simply called a cob, which is not understood in the south of England.		
The third questions what you asked me was about the passage between two houses	The passage that's in a set of terrace houses is known as a jennel, whereas a gap between a set of houses is known as a jitty, so it could be either which is a jitty or a jennel.	[aʊzəz] in the question and [aːzəz] in the response. [dʒenəl] [dʒɪtɪ]	Interesting "house" pronunciation given read question and free response, and also 'house-arse' interface (McMillan, 2012).
Finally number four, if you say thanks to a stranger you might say somethink locally like	Cheers Buddy, just the job. It could be just a thumbs up accompanied by "spot on", things like that. You wouldn't say thank you in its proper context.	[laːk] [sʊmθɪnk]	
Comments			

Table 3.21: Interview questions and answers from the younger Nottinghamshire female.

Question	Answer	Phonetic realisiation	Dialect vocabulary
Are there any words or phrases typical of the town/city you're from?	Erm, well, like you said, mardy but that is **used in lots of other towns so I don't really think it's as specific to mine any more**. And then, we use cob. I know a lot of people don't really know what that means. So, and erm, can't really think of any more. But, erm, yeah.	[mɑːdiː]	"Mardy" used across the East Midlands and Sheffield.
What do people in your town/city call a bread roll?	Like you said, we call it a cob, like, it's always just a cob really (laughing.)		"Cob" used across the East Midlands
What do people in your town/city call the passage between two houses?	Er, we call that an alley, so, well I'd call it an alley anyway, so...		"Alley" is colloquial, although not common in Chesterfield or Sheffield.
You want to thank a stranger but don't know their name. What would people from your town/city say?	Erm, a lot of them would say cheers, like cheers, I think I'd say cheers but the older people I know would say like cheers duck, and like cheers mate. I say mate a lot now, thanks mate. So, yeah.	Her first pronunciation of "cheers" uses a long vowel, approximating [ʧɪːəz], which may be considered southern or posh	
Comments	She refers to her "town" rather than city, which may mislead some respondents.		

Nottinghamshire older male and younger female speech samples

The Nottinghamshire male and female have accent features typical of Nottingham and the East Midlands, although the some features of female's pronunciation may be influenced by her higher social class.

The Nottinghamshire female pronounces "aunt" and "aunty" with the southern BATH variant, despite this isogloss typically having been placed below Nottingham (Wells, 1982b: 355). Moreover, while there is evidence for the STRUT-FOOT merger in her speech, she also realises this occasionally with a schwa sound indicating more self-conscious speech. However, while she does use the standard PRICE diphthong she also uses the monophthongal variant [aː], which is a feature typical of working-class Nottinghamshire locals (Flynn, 2012). Her more standard speech may help the audience connect her with Nottingham if they have the perception that Nottingham is more southern and/or more 'posh' (Le Baigue, 2010). "Alley" may hint at the female's Nottingham (or South Derbyshire) roots.

Meanwhile, the male's speech may not adhere to Chesterfield locals' perceptions of Nottingham as 'posh'. He yod-drops, uses [ɔɪ] for PRICE and [aː] for MOUTH while using t-to-r in "got on" and "putting", and in the interview-style question and response pronounces 'something' as [sʊmθɪnk]. His responses about vocabulary are very traditional, connected to coal mining, and may be unknown to the audience.

In summary, Task 1 of the dialect recognition tasks was designed to elicit local markers of speech that may be recognisable to an East Midland and South Yorkshire audience. As with other dialect recognition tasks, people were recorded reading a passage (Hind, 2019), although this passage was designed especially for these tasks: There was greater potential in the script for sounds indexical of the East Midlands or South Yorkshire to be produced. What is unusual about my study is the emphasis only on nearby locations. Many other similar tasks have examples of speech from regions further away from the audience, for example, Hind (2019) also tested Nottingham judges with a Liverpool voice, and Williams et al (1999) had

examples of Standard Southern British English among the largely Welsh accents for their study based in Wales. Whilst Williams et al (1999) had two speakers from each location that they played to their judges, their speakers were all teenage males. My study has two speakers from each location, but they are different genders and ages. It is hoped that this may offer more insight into the recognisability of local voices, particularly whether more traditional or modern accents are more recognisable. Task 2 was created in response to the background interviews, which suggested that local accents are only recognisable through dialect lexis (see section 3.2). This is a new type of task to dialect recognition studies, and gave the audience the opportunity to listen to the same speaker in a less formal context. It is hoped that these tests will answer Research Question 2 concerning the cues that help Chesterfield respondents recognise local dialects, but also add to the growing body of research about the markers of East Midland speech.

3.4.4. Spoken Data

In order to answer Research Question 3, **Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander**, it was necessary to record and analyse speech. As will be described further in Chapter 7, many of the Chesterfield participants connected monophthongal variants of the FACE and GOAT vowels with Sheffield in the dialect recognition tasks, and Sheffield with the North in the mapping task. The background study confirmed this, with both Chesterfield and Sheffield people connecting traditional monophthongal variants of GOAT with Sheffield: "Sheffield people say 'nor' instead of 'no'"(EC)[28]. If Chesterfield locals connect monophthongal variants of FACE and GOAT with Sheffield speech, word list data should give some indication of how Chesterfield participants wish to present their identity based on their 'degree of diphthongisation' (Burland-Gibson, 2019). In other words, there is the strong possibility that the more diphthongal the vowel produced, the greater the (East) Midlander identity, whereas the more monophthongal, the greater the Sheffield or Northern identity. This

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[28] GOAT-fronting was not connected to Sheffield by Sheffield locals in the background study.

section discusses more recent findings for FACE and GOAT vowels in the North/Midlands, followed by word lists and how to analyse them. Details of why FACE and GOAT became the focus of the word lists will be outlined in greater detail in the results and discussion sections, particularly Chapter 7.

Word lists are considered to be an effective method of collecting spoken data, and are still very much used by researchers today (cf. Burland-Gibson, 2019; Dann, 2019; Leach, 2018). While it is acknowledged that word lists produce more formal reading (Labov 2006; Watt 2000, 2002), they also offer participants the opportunity to present a version of themselves that they wish to be heard.

Word lists are part of Labov's (2006) 'context D', which include methods of capturing speech that are thought to elicit a more careful style. Watt (2000: 80) found that his respondents were certainly aware of the possibility to style shift in this context, with one older working class male asking the fieldworker whether they wanted him to read the list in his normal Geordie accent or "the way it is on there". This questions suggests that reading words from a page might prompt a more formal register, but that the reader decides how they wish to read it. When researching FACE and GOAT in Tyneside, Watt (2002: 57) determined that trends in casual speech were heightened in word lists, with national closing diphthongs seemingly considered more suitable for reading tasks, especially with middle class females (Watt, 2000: 81). However, Watt (2000; 2002) found that older working class males used more of the traditional diphthongal variants local to Tyneside in reading style tasks than casual speech, possibly indicating that this group is less 'susceptible' to style shifting (Watt, 2002: 57). Another possibility is that this group wished to present themselves as traditional, and strongly rooted to the Tyneside region, through their pronunciation of these vowels: This could be a performance of identity, as described by Beal and Cooper (2015: 28). Meanwhile, Burland-Gibson (2019) only used word list data in her thesis for her acoustic analysis, and still found differences between the samples taken from three different South Yorkshire locations. She acknowledged that word list data is less 'natural', but defends it for being 'quantifiable and directly comparable', with tokens being produced under the same conditions (ibid: 277).

Most of the participants who took part in my study's dialect recognition tasks also read out the word lists, with some exceptions (see Table 4.1). This meant that for most participants, I was able to compare their word list data with their mapping task and dialect recognition tasks. There are 21 participants from Chesterfield, and seven teenagers from Sheffield, who completed all perception tasks and gave spoken data. The maximum time any participant spent living away from Chesterfield was six years. The Sheffield teens are the only ethnically diverse group, but they have all lived in Sheffield for all their lives.

The results of the dialect recognition tasks suggest that variants of FACE and GOAT vowels are recognised as markers of Sheffield speech by Chesterfield residents (see Chapter 6 for further explanation). Prior to examining the results of the dialect recognition tasks, I thought that the MOUTH vowel would be another variable that indicated where someone came from locally, given Ian McMillan's Radio 4 broadcast on the so-called House-Arse interface where, he maintains, anecdotally, that there is an isogloss between Sheffield and Chesterfield where your 'ouse becomes 'arse' (McMillan, 2012). Added to this, NG Coalescence was another strand of possible interest, resulting in my original word list being much larger than it was finally. The following word list was used in my research with the Chesterfield teenagers (Table 3.22).

Table 3.22: Original word list.

Card	Token	Rationale	Comments
Card 1:	kit, trap, strut, bath, nurse, face, thought, goose, choice, near, start, force, happy, comma	Wells (1982a)	
Card 2:	dress, lot, foot, cloth, fleece, palm, goat, price, mouth, square, north, cure, letter	Wells (1982a)	
Card 3: FACE	Make [ɛ] Great [ɛ] Eight [ɛɪ] Drain [ɛɪ] Lane [eː] Daisy [eː]	All from Finnegan (2011), who took these three variants of FACE from the Sheffield data within the Survey of English Dialects (Orton and Halliday, 1962).	All FACE, GOAT, MOUTH and NG Coalescence TOKENS MIXED UP ON FINAL CARD
GOAT	No [ɔː] Go [ʊ] Note [ɵː] Woven [ɒ]	All taken from Finnegan (2011), who found these variants, along with [oʊ], in Sheffield Middle Class speech.	
MOUTH	Pound Town	Le Baigue (2010), suggests Chesterfield people associate these words with Sheffield	
MOUTH	House Cow Out About	Flynn (2012) suggesting that [aː] was a common variant in Nottingham	

| NG-COALESCENCE | Hang
Singer
Finger
Kingly
Singly
Tongue
Sings
Sins | Wells (1982b: 365-367), explaining that [ŋg] is the variant heard in parts of the Midlands and "middle north of England" (Wells 1982a: 189). | |

After trialing this list with the Chesterfield teens, it became apparent that reading such a long list after first completing the dialect recognition tasks, was a strain for the participants, particularly when there were time restrictions in place dictated, for example, by the school day. Given the initial results of the perceptual recognition tasks, the decision was taken to focus on the FACE and GOAT variables, with cards 1 and 2 being maintained for reference. This left me with the following word list (Table 3.23):

Table 3.23: Subsequent word list.

Vowel	Tokens
FACE	Face, Make, Great, Eight, Drain, Lane, Daisy
GOAT	Goat, No, Go, Note, Woven
Additional vowel sounds	kit, trap, strut, bath, nurse, face, thought, goose, choice, near, start, force, happy, comma, dress, lot, foot, cloth, fleece, palm, goat, price, mouth, square, north, cure, letter

Further reading informed me that vowels surrounded by approximants, /w/, /j/, /r/ and lateral approximant /l/, could result in inaccurate measurements (Ferragne and Pellegrino, 2010). I removed all preceding or following approximants, highlighted in red in Table 3.23, which left four FACE tokens and four GOAT tokens, along with the additional vowel sounds. All were recorded using a Sony ICD-PX333M digital recorder. Of particular interest were the 'make', and 'go' tokens given that the Chesterfield Museum recordings suggested

monophthongal realisations of these vowel sounds among elderly interviewees in the late twentieth century (see section 3.3.1*).

3.4.5. Degree of diphthongisation (dipDegree)

In order to assess 'degree of diphthongisation' (Burland-Gibson, 2019) in the FACE and GOAT vowels I began with auditory analysis, using the Praat programme (Boersma and Weenink, 2008) to view each wave form. I then segmented the vowels manually, ensuring that this occured where the wave form crossed the zero line, for greater accuracy (Weenink, 2014). Once all the vowels were segmented, including the TRAP, GOOSE and FLEECE vowels, I ran two scripts[29] to take formant measurements at various points (Haddican et al, 2013) as a single point would not show movement through the vocalic portion that is necessary to produce a diphthong. The measurements of F1 and F2 for FACE and GOAT were taken at 25% and 75% in the vowel segment, meaning that these measurements would be comparable irrespective of vowel duration (Burland-Gibson, 2019: 103). F1 shows tongue height (close, close-mid, open-mid, open) while F2 presents tongue advancement (front, central, back). Close vowels produce lower F1, and front vowels produce higher F2. When looking at spectrograms for diphthongs fluctuation is expected, while monophthongs remain steady. The fluctuation reflects the quality of the tongue as it creates the movement needed for a diphthong. As TRAP, GOOSE and FLEECE are monophthongs, and are being used as reference vowels for the normalisation process, these measurements were taken at a single point, 50%. The measurements were all taken in raw Hertz, and were tabulated in an Excel spreadsheet.

To normalise this data I used Erik and Tyler's NORM suite (2018) and the modified Watt-Fabricius method (cf. Flynn, 2011). Watt & Fabricius (2002) suggest that the raw Hertz formant frequencies of different speakers are not comparable. The process of normalisation minimises the differences in frequency that is a cosenquence of vocal tract variation, ideally negating biological differences leaving only 'quantities unaffected by the size of a speaker's

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[29] Burland-Gibson passed on two scripts that had been written for her by Dr. Sam Kirkham.

vocal tract' (Flynn, 2012: 119). Flynn (2012: 119) explained that, for example, due to shorter vocal tracts, women tend to have higher formant frequencies than male speakers. Without normalisation, it would be difficult to know whether vowel formant differences are due to linguistic or physical reasons (ibid). As I combined results for men and women of all ages, normalising the data allowed for better cross-speaker comparisons, despite the fear that the normalisation process 'may have eroded some of the meaningful frequency of the measurements' (Flynn, 2012: 420). However, when Flynn (2011) examined 20 different normalisation methods, he found the Watt-Fabricius modified method the most robust for his sociolinguistic study. The normalisation process produces measurements no longer in raw Hertz, but S-Transform Values (S).

Burland-Gibson (2019: 107) calculated her 'degree of diphthongisation' (dipDegree) in order to assess diphthongisation in Royston, compared to Barnsley and Wakefield. For this she used only word list data, and expanded the approach used by Haddican et al (2013) in York. As it is important for my study to find whether Chesterfield locals use diphthongs or monophthongs in their FACE and GOAT vowels, with a possible connection to their identity as Northern or Midlander, I employed Burland-Gibson's (2019) approach. To find the degree of diphthongisation, I calculated the Euclidean Distance between F1 and F2 values at 25% and 75%. I then checked my results using the statistical programme R (R Core Team, 2013). Burland-Gibson (2019: 108) found that all diphthongs in her sample had a 'normalised S Transform dipDegree Value' of above S 0.25. Monophthongs were found below S 0.25. However, I do appreciate that values far above S 0.25 are more diphthongal than those closer to the S 0.25 value, as those further below are more monophthongal. I then carried out statistical tests in R (R Core Team, 2013), including a logistic effects regression model to test whether age, gender, self-reported social class, or regional preference contributed towards the diphthongal realisation of both vowels, with a subsequent odds ratio calculation to determine the probability of each influencing both FACE and GOAT diphthongs.

3.5. Conclusion

In summary, findings from the background interviews shaped this thesis's three research questions, and helped me to proceed with my doctoral research. Little was recorded about the Chesterfield dialect, or attitudes towards a North/Midland divide, which necessitated the background interviews. Findings that indicated Chesterfield people regard themselves as Midlanders, and different from Northern Sheffielders, was of value despite the limited number of participants. This informed my first research question: **To what extent do Chesterfield locals feel connected with Sheffield? Is the connection expressed in a mutual Northern identity, or is there a perceptual divide between 'the North' (Sheffield) and 'the Midlands' (Chesterfield)?** In order to answer this question, perceptual mapping was used across three age groups of participants from Chesterfield, and a sample group from Sheffield. The results were collated using the ArcGIS 10.6 computer programme. Secondly, the background interviews suggested that local accents could be identified, but that local vocabulary was a greater help in this than accent, with people struggling to suggest markers of East Midland and Sheffield accents. This prompted my second research question: **To what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions?** Two dialect recognition tasks were designed to test how identifiable local accents are to Chesterfield locals, from three age groups, and one Sheffield teenage sample. The tests asked participants what markers of speech helped them to make their decisions, and aimed to find out whether local vocabulary is of more significance than accent alone. The tests were both quantitatively analysed, to determine whether the results were statistically greater than chance, and qualitatively analysed to help determine the cues that prompted respondents' final decisions about the location of each speaker. Finally, answers from the background interviews about markers of local speech, along with recent dialect studies from across the North and Midlands of England, helped to shape the last research question: **Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?** Responses from the dialect mapping tasks were compared with the same participant's spoken data in order to determine whether a Midlander identity connects with a more diphthongal realisation of these vowels.

Statistical analysis of the spoken data was conducted to help determine whether the results were greater than chance. The results will be analysed and discussed in the following chapters.

4. Results and Discussion: Questionnaire

4.1. Introduction

This section presents results from the questionnaire (Appendix 11.2), along with results from the attitudinal questions asked at the very beginning of the perception and map task answer forms (Appendix 11.3). These questions were completed by most participants, the details of which are outlined in section 4.2. The emphasis of this particular chapter, however, is on the locations participants tended to visit for leisure and work (Section 4.3.1), participants' understanding of local dialect vocabulary (Section 4.3.2), and the attitudinal data collected about participants' feelings towards their own accent (Section 4.3.3). These results are presented in turn, followed by a discussion of the findings and how they relate to all three research questions.

4.2. Participants

All participants were asked to complete all sections of my research, outlined in Chapter 3. There were 24 participants from Chesterfield who took part in the data collection. Their details are listed in Table 4.1. There is an even split between genders, with 12 male participants from Chesterfield, and 12 female. Appendix 11.2 shows the questionnaire that participants were given, giving the option of 'male', 'female' or 'other'. 'Other' was not selected by any participant. There are three different age groups, with eight participants from each generation: teenage; middle age; older age. There is also one Sheffield 'test group' of teenage responses. This group has eight participants, four male and four female, and was there for comparison with the Chesterfield teenage group.

Unfortunately, one Sheffield male did not wish to read out the word list, making seven Sheffield teens who volunteered to have their voices recorded. Additionally, three of the Chesterfield participants were unable or unwilling to read out the word list, making 21 participants for the Chesterfield spoken data analysis.

In terms of ethnic identity, all of the Chesterfield participants classified themselves as 'White: English/Welsh/Scottish/Northern Irish/British'. I selected participants through age, gender, and years of residence in Chesterfield. Ethnicity was not a main consideration, but participants were asked to classify themselves (see Appendix 11.2). In contrast, of the eight Sheffield teenage participants, only five classified themselves as 'White', with two classifying themselves as 'Mixed/Multiple Ethnic groups', and one as African/Arab. This is consistent with the verbal perception given of Chesterfield, by these Sheffield teenagers, as not being ethnically diverse, and the statistics presented in the Introduction (section 1.1), which found that the majority of Chesterfield residents were White British.

Table 4.1: Chesterfield and Sheffield participant information.

CHESTERFIELD TEENAGE PARTICIPANTS								
Name code	Age	Gender	Occupation	Parental birthplace	Lived elsewhere	Map task	Perception tasks	Word list task
ComSM1	16-18	Male	A level student	Both Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
ComSM2	16-18	Male	A level student	M: Penzance, F: Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
ComSM3	16-18	Male	A level student	Both Manchester	X	✓	✓	✓
ComSM4	16-18	Male	A level student	Both Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
ComSF1	16-18	Female	A level student	M: Chesterfield, F: Sheffield	X	✓	✓	✓
ComSF2	16-18	Female	A level student	M: Sheffield, F: Mansfield	X	✓	✓	✓
ComSF3	16-18	Female	A level student	Both Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
ComSF4	16-18	Female	A level student	M: London, F: Chesterfield/N Ireland	X	✓	✓	✓

SHEFFIELD TEENAGE PARTICIPANTS								
Name code	Age	Gender	Occupation	Parental birthplace	Lived elsewhere	Map task	Perception tasks	Word list task
SS_M1	16-18	Male	A level student	M: Cheshire; F: Cheshire	X	✓	✓	X
SS_M2	16-18	Male	A level student	M: Hope, F: Bradford	Bradford until 3yo	✓	✓	✓
SS_M3	16-18	Male	A level student	Both Sheffield	X	✓	✓	✓
SS_M4	16-18	Male	A level student	M: Sheffield, F: German	X	✓	✓	✓
SS_F1	16-18	Female	A level student	Both Algeria	X	✓	✓	✓
SS_F2	16-18	Female	A level student	M: Jamaica, F: English	X	✓	✓	✓
SS_F3	16-18	Female	A level student	M: Italy, F: Jamaica	X	✓	✓	✓
SS_F4	16-18	Female	A level Student	Both Sheffield	X	✓	✓	✓

CHESTERFIELD MIDDLE AGE PARTICIPANTS								
Name code	Age	Gender	Occupation	Parental birthplace	Lived elsewhere	Map task	Perception tasks	Word list task
MAM1	41-45	Male	Third Line Network Technician	M/F: Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
MAM2	31-35	Male	Airline Background	Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
MAM3	41-45	Male	Marketing Manager	M: Chesterfield, F: Sheffield, W: Chesterfield	Lincoln 3 years, Sheffield 3 years	✓	✓	✓
MAM4	41-45	Male	Business Service Assistant	M: Shirebrook, F: Chesterfield, Wife: Spain	X	✓	✓	✓
MAF1	51-55	Female	Pastoral Care Manager	Both Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
MAF2	41-45	Female	Office Manager	M: Dronfield, F: Blackpool	Lived Blackpool until 1yo, and then Dronfield until 2yo	✓	✓	✓
MAF3	26-30	Female	Conveyancing Assistant	M: Chesterfield, but lived in Malta until 23; F: Liverpool; Chesterfield	Manchester for 18 months	✓	✓	X
MAF4	36-40	Female	Stay-at-home mum	Both Chesterfield	Milton Keynes for first 5 years	✓	✓	✓

CHESTERFIELD OLDER AGE PARTICIPANTS								
Name code	Age	Gender	Occupation	Parental birthplace	Lived elsewhere	Map task	Perception tasks	Word list tasks
OAM1	71-75	Male	Retired Company Director	Both Chesterfield	6 years away Sheffield/Cambs/Grantham	✓	✓	✓
OAM2	71-75	Male	Retired labourer	M: Chesterfield, F: Bolsover	X	✓	✓	✓
OAM3	76-80	Male	Retired coal mining subsidence inspector	Both Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
OAM4	61-65	Male	Payroll Manager	M/F: Chesterfield, Wife: Portsmouth	Coventry 3 years	✓	✓	X
OAF1	66-70	Female	Retired telephonist	Both Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	✓
OAF2	71-75	Female	Retired Receptionist	M: Holmewood, F: Notts.	3 years in Stanton-In-Peak	✓	✓	✓
OAF3	66-70	Female	Retired Post Mistress	Both Chesterfield	6 years away: Sheffield/Cambs/ Grantham	✓	✓	✓
OAF4	61-65	Female	Libraries Officer	M/F: Chesterfield	X	✓	✓	X

4.3. Questionnaire and Attitudinal Results

The following sections presents the results of particular sections of the questionnaire, along with attitudinal data.

4.3.1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was quite comprehensive, but this section pays particular attention to questions 8 and 13. Both questions were answered by all 32 respondents. Question 8 asked respondents about the towns or cities they tended to visit for leisure, and question 13 the locations where respondents work(ed). Table 4.2 illustrates the results of the questionnaire's question 8: Where do participants go for a night out or shopping? Participants could give more than one answer.

Table 4.2: Where participants go for a night out/shopping.

	Chesterfield	Sheffield/Meadowhall[30]	Notts	Derby	Mancs	Birmingham	London	York	Leeds
Chesterfield Teens	4	7	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
Chesterfield Middle Group	7	4	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
Chesterfield Older Group	7	1	2	1	1	1	0	0	0
TOTAL	18	12	5	2	2	2	1	1	0
Sheffield Teens	1	10	2	1	4	2	2	0	3

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[30] Meadowhall is a shopping mall on the outskirts of Sheffield. It is 25.5 miles from Chesterfield town centre, and can be reached by train or bus. Driving by car takes approximately 28 minutes. From Sheffield city centre, there is a direct tram, train, or bus to Meadowhall.

In Table 4.2, cells shaded in pink show the highest number of participant answers. Whilst Chesterfield is the most popular leisure destination for the Chesterfield middle and older groups, Sheffield or Meadowhall is most popular for the Chesterfield and Sheffield teens. Nottingham was the next most frequented location by Chesterfield residents, with Derby only visited as much as other cities such as Manchester.

From these results, Sheffield teens were found to barely visit Chesterfield at all, their preference being for larger cities, or Sheffield/Meadowhall itself. The Sheffield teens visit Manchester and Leeds more than Nottingham/Derby, suggesting they look to cities that are more northerly for their leisure pursuits.

For question 13, about workplace location, all of the teenage participants went to school in their home town/city. However, some students had part-time jobs, the location of which is presented in Table 4.3. Those who were retired or unemployed listed their most recent workplace. The only Sheffield teenage female to have a part-time job in Chesterfield did not comment on the Chesterfield accent, and she did not go there to shop or for a night out. As can be seen, the majority of the Chesterfield participants either worked or studied in Chesterfield itself, with some commuting to the High Peak or Nottingham. This is consistent with data obtained from the 2011 census, presented in the Introduction chapter, where 63.7% of Chesterfield resident employees were found to live and work in the Chesterfield Borough. The Sheffield teenage participants mostly worked and studied in Sheffield.

Table 4.3: Where participants work/worked.

	Chesterfield	Sheffield	Nottingham	Bakewell	Matlock	Chatsworth	"All over England"
Chesterfield teens: Male	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Chesterfield teens: Female	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Chesterfield middle: Male	3	0	1	0	1[31]	0	0
Chesterfield middle: Female	2	0	1	1	0	0	0
Chesterfield older: Male	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
Chesterfield older: Female	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	**12**	**0**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**
Sheffield teens: Male	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sheffield teens: Female	1	2	0	0	0	0	0

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[31] Male MAM3 said that he worked in both Chesterfield and Matlock

4.3.2. Dialect vocabulary results

Question 3, at the beginning of the dialect recognition tasks, asked respondents: Are there any (dialect) words you associate with Chesterfield, e.g. spidge, greebo.[32] What do the words mean? (Appendix 11.3). Sheffield respondents were asked this question in relation to Sheffield. There were no more prompts, and the two examples were removed from the data set. The answers are compiled below, in Table 4.4. The meanings connected with these dialect words are presented in Tables 4.5 and 4.6, in the following section.

Table 4.4 indicates that 'cob', meaning bread roll, is the dialect word most commonly connected with Chesterfield by Chesterfield participants. They also claim 'gitty' or 'jitty' for alleyway: I believe the two spellings are variants of the same word, most often written 'jitty' [dʒɪti]. This contrasts Sheffield teens who recognize 'ginnel' [gɪnəl], 'jennel' [dʒenəl] or 'gennel' [genəl] for alleyway, each word referring to an alleyway but with a slightly different pronunciation. The Chesterfield participants also prefer the spelling 'rate' for the intensifier 'right', whereas Sheffield people prefer 'reyt' or 'reight'. It is assumed there is no difference in pronunciation, with both places claiming it as their own. 'Ey/aye up' and 'duck' is also claimed by both places, with 'mardy' largely claimed by the Sheffield teens.

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[32] 'Spidge' means chewing gum, and 'Greebo' is a c.1990s term connected with a school age group similar to goths or emos.

Table 4.4: Dialect Words connected to Chesterfield or Sheffield.

Dialect Word	Chesterfield (by Chesterfield respondents) /24	Sheffield (by Sheffield respondents) /8
Cob	✓✓✓✓✓✓	
Gitty/Jitty	✓✓✓✓	
Ginnel/jennel/gennel		✓✓✓
(Aw'/o') rate/rate	✓✓✓✓	✓
Reyt/reight		✓✓✓
Ey/Aye up	✓✓✓	✓✓
Duck	✓✓	✓✓✓
Love		✓
Sen		✓✓✓
Mardy	✓	✓✓✓✓✓
Spice	✓✓✓	
Twitchel	✓✓	
Snap	✓✓	✓
Nesh	✓	
Neb	✓	
Gi'ore	✓	
Wabie	✓	
Na'den		✓

4.3.3. Attitudinal Data results

Each participant was asked the same two questions before Tasks 1 and 2 of the dialect recognition tasks began (see Appendix 11.3):

1) How do you feel about your accent?
2) What do you think of the Chesterfield accent/dialect? Write some words to describe it, below. The Chesterfield accent/dialect is:

Time restrictions, and space devoted to it on the written page, may have affected the fullness of the answers given, which are presented in Table 4.5. For question 2, the Sheffield teenage participants were asked about both Chesterfield and Sheffield.

Table 4.5: Attitudinal Data and Dialect Words from all Chesterfield Participants.

1) Question 1: How do you feel about your accent?

2) What do you think of the Chesterfield accent/dialect? Write some words to describe it, below. The Chesterfield accent/dialect is:

3) Are there any (dialect) words you associate with Chesterfield, e.g. spidge, greebo. What do the words mean?

Code name	Age	Sex	Comment	Dialect Words
ComSM1	16-18	M	1) Don't really notice it. 2) Informal; traditionally more working class probably.	3) See thee = see you Cob Cuppa tea
ComSM2	16-18	M	1) Not sure what my accent is. Can't say whether I like it or not. Possibly a slight Derbyshire accent. 2) It's nice to have… an accent which is specific to Chesterfield, but at the same time it can be hard to understand.	3) Jitty Cob/bap.
ComSM3	16-18	M	1) Proud. I enjoy being part of a regional culture even though I don't have the strongest Derbyshire accent. 2) Good and enjoyable. It isn't very serious and is very unique.	3) Twitchel = garden alleyway. Cob = bread. Snap = food.
ComSM4	16-18	M	1) My accent is fairly strong. I tend to, for example, pronounce 'out' as 'aht', and I sometimes miss out the pronunciation of Ts subconsciously. 2) Common; understandable; informal; generic.	3) Butty/cob = bread roll Jitty = small alleyway Cuppa = tea Rate = really
ComSF1	16-18	F	1) I wouldn't say I've got an accent, but to people who don't live in Chesterfield probably do. 2) Clear but also quite informal. I think it is easy to understand unlike some accents such as Geordie or Scouse.	3) Cob Nesh
ComSF2	16-18	F	1) It depends who I am talking to. If I haven't met them before I will talk more clearly, but if I'm with my family I talk more informally or with an accent.	3) Cob Wabie = wasp.

			2) Mainly informal, it's quite slang based – words such as rate, yeah, but it is still clear and understandable.	
ComSF3	16-18	F	1) I feel like I don't have a significant/prominent accent but use certain words which would be considered as part of the Chesterfield dialect. 2) Generic; unsophisticated; informal; common.	3) Rate = really Cob = bread Jitty = alleyway.
ComSF4	16-18	F	1) I think that I have a mixed accent as I grew up surrounded by people with different regional accents/dialects.[33] 2) I think that the Chesterfield accent is relatively informal and centres around colloquial language.	3) Gitty = alleyway.
MAM1	41-45	M	1) It's a bit common. 2) Common; tend to miss words out; lazy.	3) Duck; jitty; trout; orate = alright.
MAM2	31-35	M	1) – 2) Normal	3) Aye up; aw'rate = alright
MAM3	41-45	M	1) Quite aware and wish I didn't have it. Can be difficult to be understood by foreign work colleagues. 2) Less distinct than Sheffield or Barnsley.	3) Gi'ore = give over Ey up Neb = look Spice = sweets Snap = food
MAM4	41-45	M	1) Neutral – it's other people who have to endure it. 2) Normal to me. I don't really think about it.	3) Not words as such, but there are phrases such as: Aye up me duc, y'allright? Goin' t'shop Oh, aye Ta = thank you
MAF1	51-55	F	1) I think it sounds common: 2) The hard 'u' sound, e.g. bucket, truck.	3) Spice = sweets.

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[33] Mother from London, Father from Northern Ireland, but she was born in Chesterfield and has never lived anywhere else.

MAF2	41-45	F	1) My accent is fine. However the area/village accent can be a bit rough/common I feel. (I'm a snob! Ha! Ha!) 2) See above. A bit rough/common. Missing out some words. Shortened words and sentences. Quite slangy.	3) None that I can think of.
MAF3	26-30	F		
MAF4	36-40	F	2) Comfy (familiar/home). The town centre has gone downhill, but Sheffield is clean and lovely.	
OAM1	71-75	M	-	
OAM2	71-75	M	-	
OAM3	76-80	M	2) A bit idle	3) Bun fists = party Twitchel = footpath enclosed Spice = sweets Mardy Ta = thanks
OM4	61-65	M	-	
OAF1	66-70	F	-	
OAF2	71-75	F	1) Understandable 2) Easy to understand	
OAF3	66-70	F	-	
OAF4	61-65	F	-	

Table 4.6: Attitudinal Data and Dialect Words from Sheffield Teenagers.

Code Name	Age	Sex	Comment
SS_M1	16-18	M	1) I like my accent however it is very subtle. 2) Chesterfield accent is: - Sheffield accent is: diverse, friendly.
SS_M2	16-18	M	1) It's quite boring. 2) Chesterfield accent is: - Sheffield accent is: Farmery/ Yorkshire
SS_M3	16-18	M	1) I have no issues with my accent… 2) Chesterfield accent is: - Sheffield accent is: friendly, broad, familiar, warm.
SS_M4	16-18	M	1) Friendly, calm, creative. 2) Chesterfield accent is: Unintellectual. Sheffield accent is: -
SS_F1	16-18	F	1) I like it. 2) Chesterfield accent is: - Sheffield accent is: Yorkshire (strong) varies and can be very posh in the south but can be strong Yorkshire in the north.
SS_F2	16-18	F	1) I like it. 2) Chesterfield accent is: -

			Sheffield accent is: Strong Yorkshire, varies within areas, e.g. south Sheffield = posh, east Sheffield = strong Yorkshire accent.
SS_F3	16-18	F	1) I like it. 2) Chesterfield accent is: - Sheffield accent is: Strong Yorkshire then varies from mild to strong.
SS_F4	16-18	F	1) I like it because it's mine. 2) Chesterfield accent is: - Sheffield accent is: Can be common, I hate it when it's chavvy. But is quite warm and friendly.

4.4. Questionnaire and attitudinal data discussion

The questions analysed in the previous section were primarily designed as warm-up activities for participants (see Methodology, section 3.4.1), but it was anticipated that they would contribute towards a better understanding of participant familiarity with, and attitude towards, local accents. Through learning about the places frequented by participants, and their understanding of local dialect words, better comprehension of the dialect recognition task results would likely be achieved. This would contribute towards Research Question 2. Meanwhile, I anticipated that the two questions about home town accents would give insight into a general feeling of positivity or negativity towards the Chesterfield accent by those who have ownership of it. This connects with dialect recognition research that has found a relationship between affective factors and recognition rates (Braber, 2015; Hind, 2019, Williams et al, 1999). These results will contribute towards Research Question 1, concerning identity, and Research Question 3, about linguistic production.

Firstly, the results of the questionnaire concerning the places most frequented for leisure and work will briefly be discussed. Table 4.2, which compiled answers for the question about places visited for leisure, showed a preference for Chesterfield among the Chesterfield participants with Sheffield in second place. It is of note that the teenage group stated that they frequented Sheffield more than Chesterfield, the middle group mostly visited Chesterfield but Sheffield was also mentioned several times, with the older group rarely stating that they visited anywhere but Chesterfield for shopping or other leisure pursuits. I tentatively suggest that the teenage and middle age groups may therefore have been more familiar with Sheffield accents than the older group, with exposure to Nottinghamshire and South Derbyshire accents potentially even less for all groups taking part. Meanwhile, Chesterfield was not even on the Sheffield teens' radar: Despite its proximity, Sheffield participants may have had to rely on their preconceived ideas about the Chesterfield accent in order to complete the dialect recognition tasks. This is similar to the 'barrier effect' of the border between England and Scotland, discussed by Montgomery (2016), whereby the power dynamic of these two nations may have resulted in Scottish participants recognising more English dialect areas than English participants could Scottish, albeit to a lesser extent.

In other words, Chesterfield was not really considered by the Sheffield teens, whereas Sheffield was a popular destination for the Chesterfield teens resulting in potentially greater familiarity with Sheffield and its accent(s). Furthermore, and reinforcing the census data presented in the Introduction chapter, section 1.1, Table 4.3 shows that Chesterfield respondents largely lived and worked in Chesterfield, which similarly would have impacted their levels of familiarity with the accents of nearby counties. Therefore, the results of these two questions suggest that familiarity for the Chesterfield and Sheffield accents should be the highest of all locations analysed by the dialect recognition tasks, but these questions do not account for friends and family from these locations, or exposure to these accents through other channels such as the media. Nor does it account for familiarity of the accent connected with their peer group. For example, should the older group only socialise with contemporaries from their home town it is possible they would only recognise the accent connected with their peer group (see chapter 6, section 6.4, for a brief discussion of Milroy, 1987, and the potential value of understanding social network in dialect recognition tasks). Nevertheless, if lack of familiarity with the accents under analysis is a consideration when analysing dialect recognition for this thesis, other factors that helped participants make their decisions will need to be explored in order to answer Research Question 2. Please refer to Chapter 6 for the results and discussion of the dialect recognition tasks.

Next, local dialect vocabulary was addressed. Table 4.4 collated the Chesterfield dialect lexis that the Chesterfield participants recorded, along with the Sheffield dialect lexis that the Sheffield teenagers identified. I included this question in the warm-up activities because local lexis was considered by background interview participants to be instrumental when separating local dialects (see Section 3.2.3). The dialect word for bread roll, 'cob', was the variant connected most with Chesterfield in the warm-up activities, whereas 'breadcake' was not mentioned by the Sheffield teenagers as something unique to Sheffield. This was surprising given that background interview respondent NB had stated that there was "bloodshed" over the various terms for bread roll in Sheffield, with breadcake identified as the preferred variant. Furthermore, Sheffield background study respondent, RS, who was living in Chesterfield at the time of the interview, said that he had changed terms from 'breadcake' to 'roll' as people looked at him "gone out" in Chesterfield if he said breadcake.

This oversight by Sheffield respondents could potentially be explained by reduced awareness: The teenagers may not be aware that 'breadcake' is unique to Sheffield, as Williams et al (1999: 352) reinforces by explaining that in-group speech-community norms may not be fully understood by that age group. An example of this can be found in Llamas's (1999: 103/104) research, which found that a young Middlesburgh respondent was unaware that 'sandshoe' was a local, rather than generic, term for a soft shoe worn for sports. However, whilst Mackenzie et al (2016) in their study of British dialect lexis and phonology found that 'cob' was recorded by 4.79% of their approximately 8,000 respondents, 'breadcake' was not recorded at all. The term 'cob' was concentrated mostly around Nottinghamshire in their study (Mackenzie et al, 2022: 55). However, 'roll' was the most popular choice throughout the UK with a response rate of 36.73%. Mackenzie et al (2016) also collected local variants of 'walkway', with 'alley(way)' the most popular choice by respondents at 55.22%. 'Gennel' was found 'around Sheffield' with 2.92% of respondents suggesting this term. 'Ginnel' was found in Greater Manchester and Leeds, and 'jitty' around Derby and Chesterfield. 'Twitchel' was identified by only 0.14% of the responses, but there is no location connected with this term. Widdowson (1992-93: 204) records the term 'twitchil', meaning 'passage', from Hunter's Glossary (1829), stating that it was a term used in living memory in the Sheffield region. However, only three of the background interview respondents recognised the term, and they were from three different places: Sheffield, Chesterfield and Nottinghamshire.

Lastly, affective factors were tentatively broached with the warm-up questions asking participants how they felt about their own accent, and the dialect of their home town or city. These questions were asked because other perceptual research had found that positivity towards local accent and dialect correlated with the number of correct identifications, or 'claiming' of home town or city voices, especially among teenage listener judges (Braber, 2016; Hind, 2019; Williams et al 1999). Williams et al (1999) found that, in general, teenagers were not strong at recognising local voices, with older judges achieving better recognition rates. They argued that there were patterns in the voices that were incorrectly claimed by the teenagers, suggesting that the speakers' high levels of social attractiveness were linked to the teen judges' incorrect connection of them with their home

region (see Section 2.3.2). Braber (2016) expanded on this finding, arguing that Nottinghamshire teenagers 'denied' local voices because the media did not portray Nottingham positively. Lastly, Hind (2019) suggested that a strong Midland identity among her older participants led to stronger recognition rates of Nottingham voices. She believed that the older participants were less affected by cultural salience than Braber's (2015, 2016) teenagers. Looking at my data, in Table 4.4, most comments were made by teenagers and the middle group. Out of eight Chesterfield teenage responses about Chesterfield's accent and dialect, question 2, only one gave a totally negative response. Four were more balanced, or neutral, and three were largely positive. Similarly, five of the Sheffield responses were neutral, factual, or balanced, with two all positive, mentioning its warmth. Whereas, half of the middle age Chesterfield group's comments were negative, and three neutral. There were only two responses from the older group, one positive and one negative. However, it does seem that teenagers were generally more positive about the Chesterfield accent than the middle age group. Similarly, the middle group were the most negative about their own accent, with half of respondents saying they did not like their own accent. Whilst the Chesterfield teens were not full of positivity towards their own accent, they mostly gave neutral comments about not believing they had an accent or not noticing it, they were less negative than the middle group. The Sheffield teenagers, however, were the most positive about their own accent, with six out of eight giving a positive response. Tentatively this could be connected to Sheffield's greater cultural prominence (Montgomery 2012; 2016): As Sheffield is better known across the country, it is perhaps more credible to have an accent connected with this city than a smaller, lesser known, town nearby.

4.5. Conclusion

In summary, this chapter has found that Chesterfield teens preferred to visit Sheffield for recreation, whilst the two older Chesterfield groups tended to stay in Chesterfield. Sheffield teens, in contrast, did not seem to consider visiting Chesterfield for leisure. For work, the Chesterfield participants tended to work in Chesterfield, reinforcing census data from 2011 (Chapter 1). These findings suggest that of the four locations under analysis in the dialect

recognition tasks, Sheffield and Chesterfield accents may be most familiar to the Chesterfield participants, especially to the teenage group. However, these questions do not consider the participants' social network, which may afford different results (Kerswill and Williams, 2002). Furthermore, whilst previous studies have found that the age of the listener judge is of significance in dialect recognition tasks, with older judges scoring more highly (Hind, 2019), they have tended not to consider the age of the speaker. My study is relatively unusual in that it has two age groups of speakers from each location. Kerswill and Williams (2002) did have different age groups of speakers from each location under analysis, and found that age in connection with social network affected dialect recognition. Chapter 6 will go on to explore the correlation between age and dialect recognition. In terms of local dialect words, the Chesterfield participants tended to claim 'cob' and 'jitty' as markers of Chesterfield speech, whilst the Sheffield teenagers overlooked 'breadcake'. Finally, in terms of attitudinal results, Chesterfield teens tended to be neutral about their own accent, whilst the middle group was more negative. In contrast, Sheffield teens were positive about their accent, which could be explained by Sheffield's greater cultural prominence.

5. Results and Discussion: Mapping

5.1. Introduction

This section partially addresses Research Question 1: **To what extent do Chesterfield locals feel connected with Sheffield? Is the connection expressed in a mutual Northern identity, or is there a perceptual divide between 'the North' (Sheffield) and 'the Midlands' (Chesterfield)?** It begins with an explanation of the results before discussing them in connection with previous research, including Le Baigue's (2010) undergraduate research about the Chesterfield accent and dialect, Montgomery's (2012) research about proximity and dialect recognition, and Hind's (2019) perceptual research among older Nottinghamshire residents.

5.2. North-Midland-South Map Results

In total, 32 participants completed the map task. Eight of these participants were teenagers from Sheffield, whilst the remaining 24 participants were local to Chesterfield. All 32 participants completed the perception recognition tasks, and most of them completed the word list task. Their details can be found in Table 3.8 in section 3.4.1, and the North-Midland-South map task in Appendix 11.3.

The results are different compared with the background interviews, which indicated a division between Sheffield and Chesterfield in the minds of Chesterfield participants (see section 3.2): In the background interviews, all except one of the Chesterfield locals put Chesterfield and Sheffield in separate regions (Table 3.2), whilst all except one of the Sheffield respondents place Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the same region (Table 3.3).

Table 5.1 shows how all Chesterfield respondents answered the map task, out of 24. Surprisingly, given the background interview results, 18 out of the 24 Chesterfield

respondents (75%) placed Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the same region. However, half of those thought Chesterfield and Sheffield belonged together in the Midlands, and half thought they were together in the North. Six respondents (25%) separated Chesterfield and Sheffield by region.

Table 5.1: In which region, North or Midlands, Chesterfield participants place Chesterfield and Sheffield.

Region	All Chesterfield respondents /24
Both Chesterfield and Sheffield = Midlands	9
Both Chesterfield and Sheffield = North	9
Chesterfield and Sheffield = separate regions	6

In comparison with the Sheffield teenagers, however, the Chesterfield responses show a slightly different trend. Most of the Sheffield teenagers (87.7%) place Sheffield and Chesterfield together in the North (Table 5.2), consistent with the background interview results, whilst Chesterfield teenagers tended to place them together in the Midlands (62.5%). No Sheffield teenager placed the two locations in separate regions, consistent with the background interview results, but two respondents out of eight from the Chesterfield teenage responses separate Sheffield and Chesterfield by region.

Table 5.2: In which region, North or Midlands, Chesterfield and Sheffield teenagers place Chesterfield and Sheffield.

Region	Chesterfield Teens /8	Sheffield Teens /8
Both Chesterfield and Sheffield = Midlands	5	1
Both Chesterfield and Sheffield = North	1	7
Chesterfield and Sheffield = separate regions	2	0

Responses about where to place Derby and Nottingham are more certain amongst the Chesterfield participants. 17/24 of Chesterfield respondents (70%) placed both Derby and Nottingham in the Midlands, while 6/24 (25%) placed both in the North. Only one Chesterfield respondent placed Nottingham in the South, and one placed Derby in the South. Sheffield respondents favoured the Midlands for the two locations (4/8), with 3/8 placing both locations in the North and one placing the two locations in the South.

Figures 5.1 to 5.6 illustrate the findings by age and gender. Figure 5.1 shows that Chesterfield teenagers tend to connect Chesterfield, Nottingham and Derby, placing them in the Midlands by an equal majority. Although to a lesser extent, Sheffield is also largely placed in the Midlands by this group.
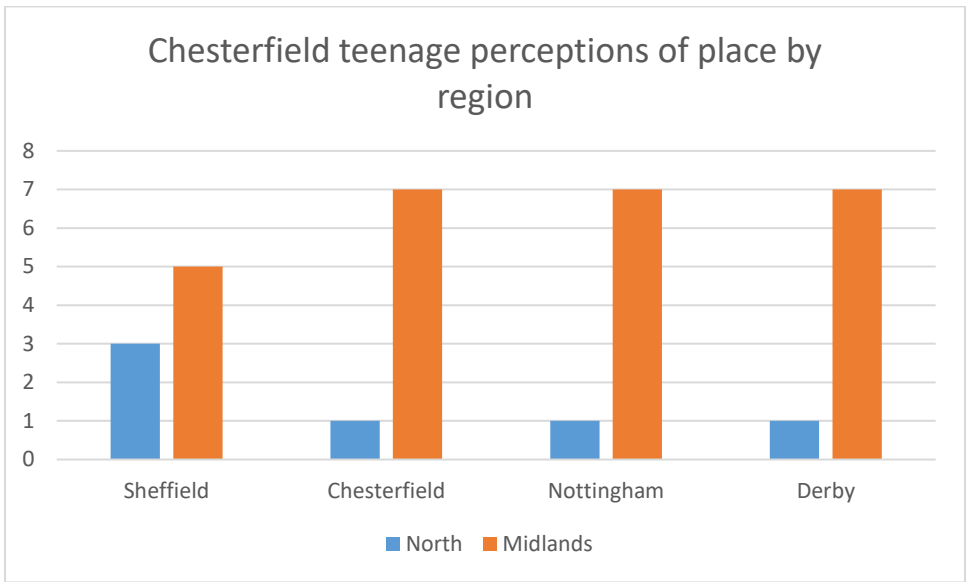
Figure 5.1: Chesterfield teenage perceptions of place by region.

In comparison with the Chesterfield teens, the Sheffield teens largely place both Sheffield and Chesterfield together in the North, as can be seen in Figure 5.2. Nottingham and Derby seem to have a less certain result.
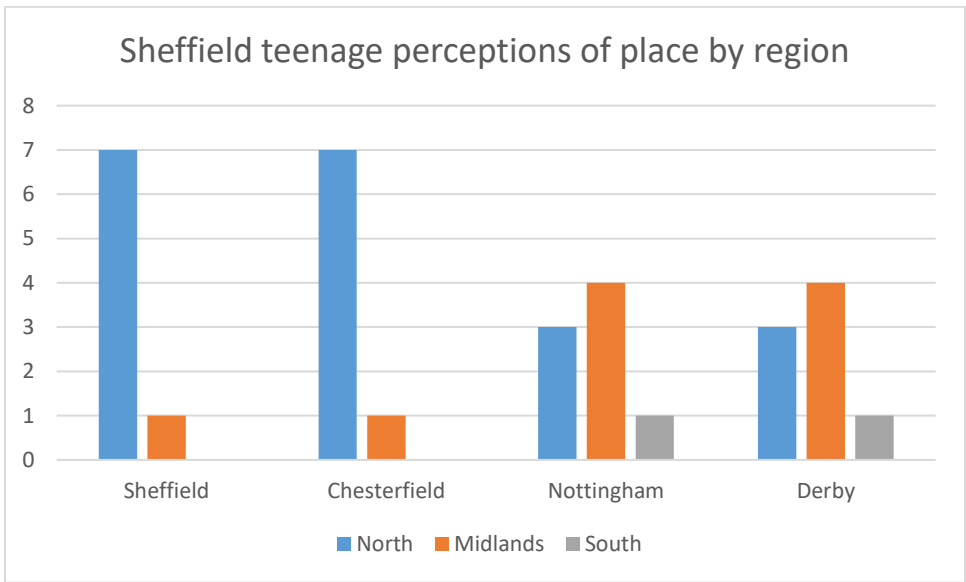
Figure 5.2: Sheffield teenage perceptions of place by region.

Meanwhile, similar to the Chesterfield teens (Figure 5.1), the middle age Chesterfield group tended to place Chesterfield, Nottingham and Derby together in the Midlands. However, Sheffield is split between the North and Midlands by equal numbers (Figure 5.3).
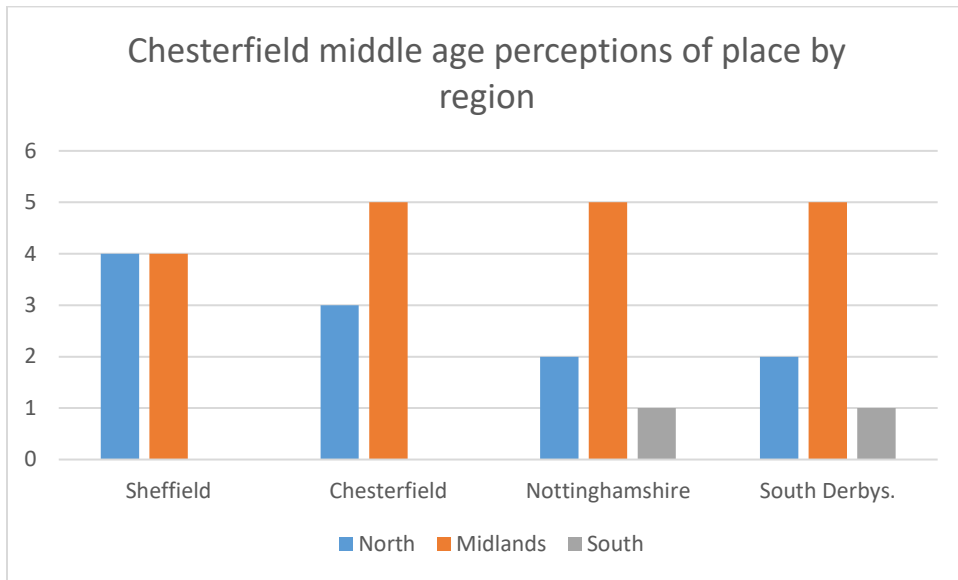
Figure 5.3: Chesterfield middle age perceptions of place by region.

Figure 5.4 indicates that the older Chesterfield participants unanimously position Sheffield in the North, with Chesterfield also largely placed in this region. Nottingham and Derby are both largely positioned in the Midlands.
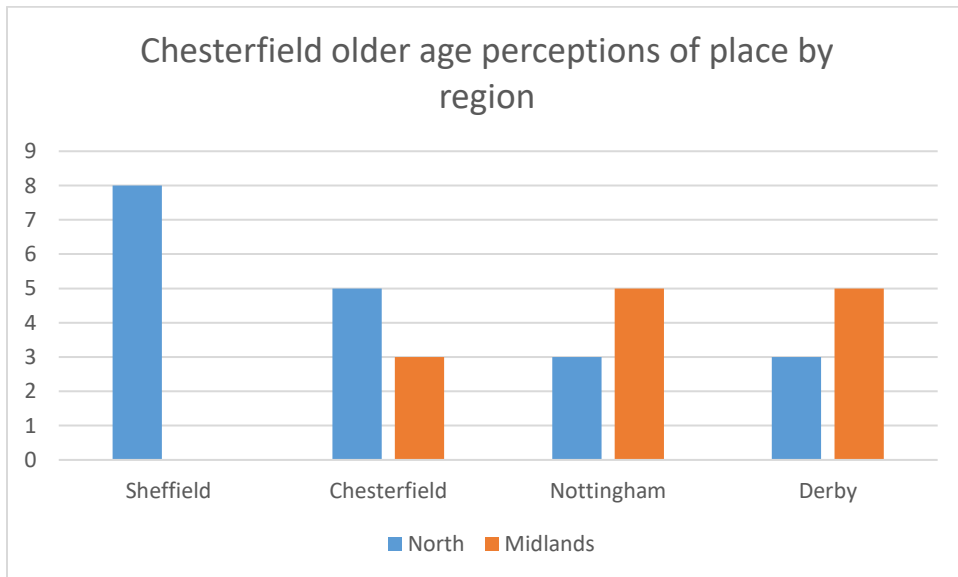
Figure 5.4: Chesterfield older age perceptions of place by region.

Lastly, organising the data by gender suggests that Chesterfield males largely position Sheffield in the North and Chesterfield, Nottingham and Derby in the Midlands. Both Nottingham and Derby are more securely positioned in the Midlands (Figure 5.5).
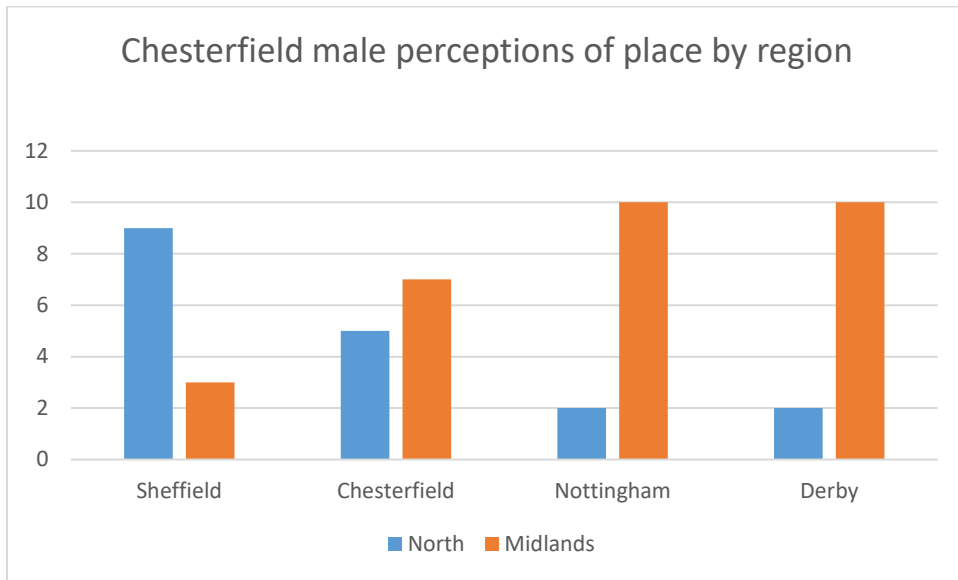
Figure 5.5: Chesterfield male perceptions of place by region.

Chesterfield females were less certain about where to position Sheffield, equally split between the North and Midlands. However, Chesterfield is more certainly placed in the Midlands by women with Nottingham and Derby positioned there too, again with a suggestion that these two locations may be in the South (Figure 5.6).
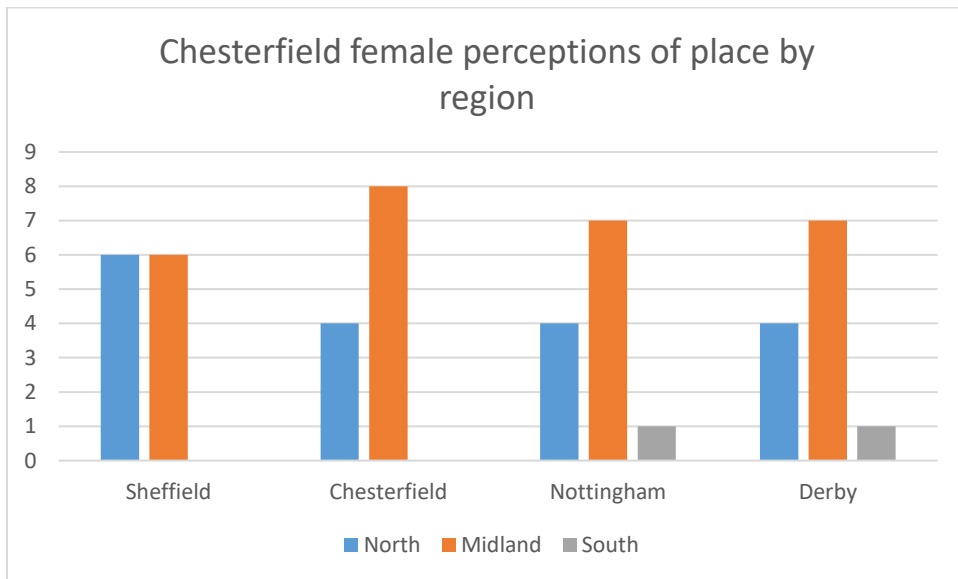
Figure 5.6: Chesterfield female perceptions of place by region.

In summary, the mapping task elicited different results to the background interviews: There was not such a stark division between Sheffield and Chesterfield in the mapping task, where

three quarters of Chesterfield respondents position Chesterfield and Sheffield together in either the North or the Midlands. Closer analysis of the data shows that whilst Sheffield teens placed the two locations together in the North, Chesterfield teens tended to put them together in the Midlands. However, the Chesterfield teens also positioned Nottingham and Derby securely in the Midlands, which hints at a possible connection between Chesterfield, Nottingham and Derby. In contrast, the Sheffield teens seemed to be unsure about where to place Nottingham and Derby. The middle age Chesterfield group tended to position all locations in the Midlands, but Sheffield to a lesser extent, whereas the older group positioned Sheffield strongly in the North along with Chesterfield, albeit to a lesser extent. Finally, the data by gender suggests that males from Chesterfield placed Sheffield in the North, away from the other largely Midland locations, whilst females followed a similar trend but tended to place Sheffield more in the Midlands than the males. Only Derby and Nottingham were placed in the South by a small number of respondents.

5.3. ArcGIS Maps

The North-Midland-South map task (Figure 3.1, and Appendix 11.3) elicited responses from all 24 Chesterfield participants and all eight of the Sheffield participants. Respondents were asked to draw one line on the map if they thought there was a North/South dividing line, and two lines if they thought there was a North-Midland-South divide.

Figure 5.7 shows the North/South dividing lines, drawn by 4 out of 24 Chesterfield participants (16.7%). This is a very small number with which to make generalisations. However, it does clearly illustrate that most of the Chesterfield participants included a Midland area, which unfortunately makes this particular map quite sparse. Unfortunately, such a small number cannot be compared against Braber's (2014) results to verify that respondents from East Midland locations tend to place the North/South line far south. The four respondents who did only draw a North/South line did seem to place it quite low down the country, which is perhaps indicative of the 'shifting phenomenon' described by Montgomery (2012: 654), whereby those who wish to secure their place in the North tend to

move the line much further south than their geographical location. However, as stated, generalisations cannot be made with so few responses.

Figure 5.8 collates the North/Midland dividing lines drawn by 20/24 Chesterfield participants (83.3%). It shows the perceived southern border of the North and northern border of the Midlands. The lines seem to cluster around Manchester, which is a location pinpointed on the map that participants annotated. Whilst some placed this dividing line very far north, on the border with Scotland, most lines seem to cluster around Manchester and Chesterfield. It seems that, based on these results, the shifting phenomenon (Montgomery, 2012) may be a factor with the North/Midland dividing line. According to Montgomery (personal correspondence), shifting happens when respondents wish to include themselves on one side of a border, which may indicate why the line is placed further north and close to Manchester.

North/South lines by all Chesterfield respondents

Figure 5.7: All North/South dividing lines by Chesterfield participants (Contains National Statistics data © Crown copyright and database right [2018]).

North/Midland lines by all Chesterfield respondents
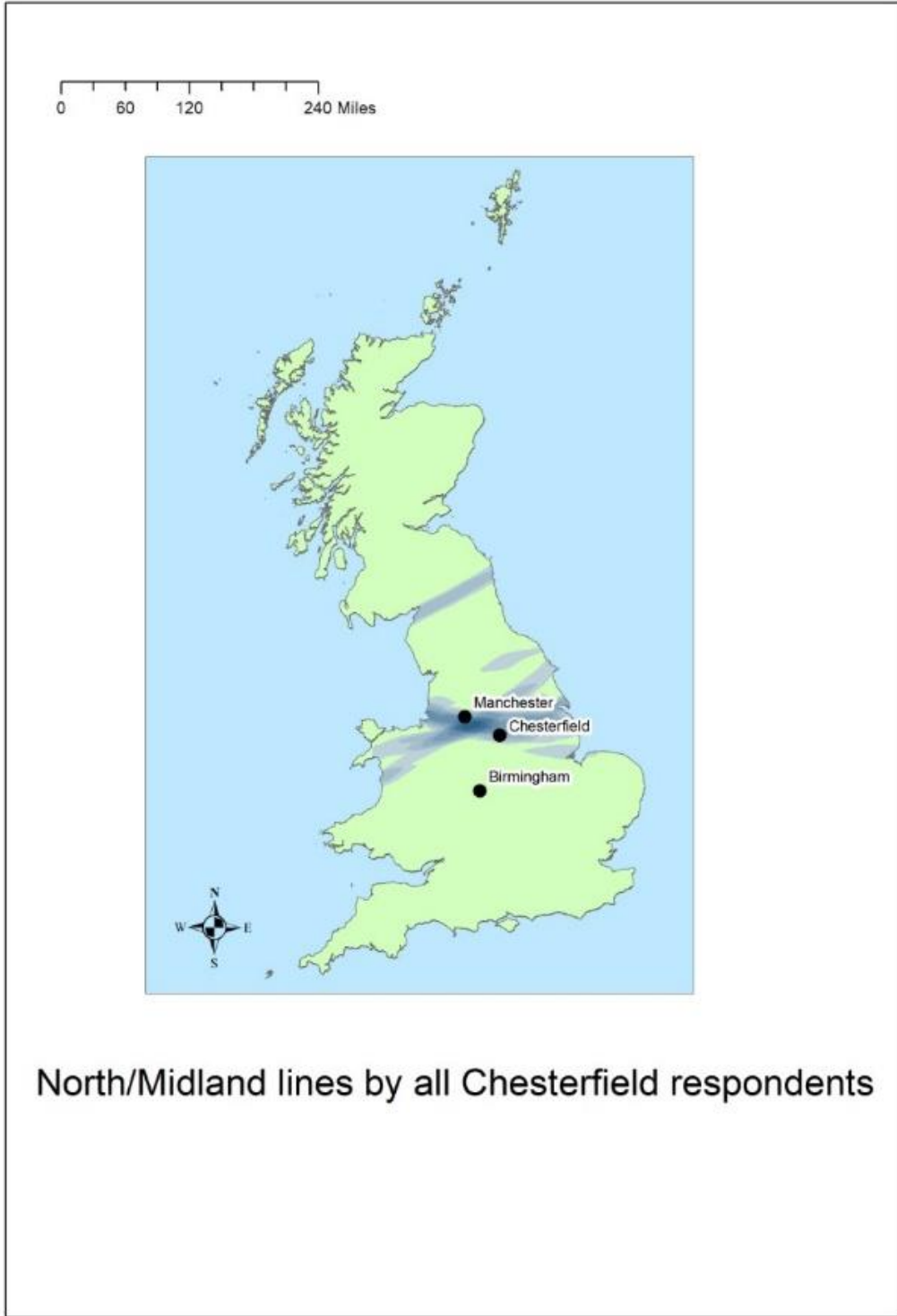
Figure 5.8: All North/Midland dividing lines by Chesterfield participants (Contains National Statistics data © Crown copyright and database right [2018]).

5.4. Discussion of the map task results

The results of the map task suggest that Chesterfield respondents felt an affinity with Sheffield, with 75% of respondents placing them together in the same region: Either together in the Midlands (50%) or the North (50%). However, if this task is taken alone, it may well also hint at local affinity with Nottingham and Derby, with 83% of Chesterfield respondents placing Chesterfield, Derby and Nottingham together in the same region: Together in the Midlands (70%) or the North (30%). Chesterfield is placed in the Midlands by 62.5% of Chesterfield respondents, with both Nottingham and Derby placed there by 70% of Chesterfield respondents. Sheffield is only placed in the Midlands by 37.5% of Chesterfield respondents. However, while Sheffield and Chesterfield are only ever placed in the North or Midlands, both Nottingham and Derby were occasionally positioned in the South by those who sectioned off Northern, Midland and Southern regions. To explore the results in more detail, interview data from the background interviews will be considered, along with evidence from Le Baigue (2010), Montgomery (2012) and Hind (2019).

The background interviews were suggestive of a perceptual barrier between North Derbyshire and South Yorkshire, recognised by Chesterfield respondents, with Chesterfield largely placed in the Midlands and Sheffield in the North (see Table 3.2). This was not substantiated in the mapping task, but the nature of the tests may have contributed towards these findings. The background interview results were based on face-to-face semi-structured interviews, with fewer respondents. Being asked verbally where each location would be positioned in terms of the North, Midlands or South (as per background interview question 4, 'Is Chesterfield/Sheffield/Nottingham/Derby in the North, South, or Midlands?') may highlight divisions more than the more anonymous positioning of lines on a map in the mapping task, which may be annotated with less thought for nearby locations. It is possible that, with hindsight, a draw-a-map task as a warm-up activity may have activated the participants' knowledge of dialect areas, and created a different result. Table 3.4 illustrates some of the difficulties that were had when interviewees were asked question 4 during the background interviews. The following excerpt expanded upon this question, presenting

some issues that male, Chesterfield-based respondent, EC, had when asked where to place each location:

CA: Would you say Chesterfield was in the North, South or Midlands?

EC: I think we are in the Midlands, personally. Personally I'd say Midlands but where I live is like further south going towards Nottingham and Derby and stuff.

CA: You said that you'd come shopping to Sheffield but would you go to Derby or Nottingham.

EC: No. No. I'd go further north. North is where I know everything. I've been to like Nottingham before, I don't like it. It feels different, Nottingham. Sheffield and Nottingham, both are really different between each other. I don't know why. When you go to Nottingham it's just different. Different atmosphere to Sheffield. I don't know if whether it's because I'm comfortable with Sheffield or...

CA: What about Derby?

EC: No. Not Derby. Wouldn't go to Derby.

CA: Do you feel that we're (Chesterfield people are) more like Sheffield people than Derby or Nottingham?

EC: I think we're personally like, we're from proper proper Derbysh-...I think personally we are from like more Sheffield, that's where I spent most of my life, but if you said to my brother or sister they both live in Nottingham, they'd abbreviate (sic) themselves as further south. I think it really depends, but a lot of people I know would say, they'd sooner go for the North than the South.

CA: Why, because there's some kind of feeling connected to the North?

EC: I don't know, the North is better isn't it? We don't like Southerners, so. I don't know, it's hard to say on that, I think personally the North is where I grew up and was

raised so the North I'll always stay 'up north' if I can, but South is not really for me, like Derby and Nottingham. I mean I go there for the odd music show and stuff, and then you can really tell we're like the outsiders when we go there.

CA: So would you put Nottingham and Derby in the South or Midlands?

EC: Yeah, I'd say the South. They are south of me, but again it's like Derbyshire isn't it, and Nottinghamshire, yeah I'd say South, I'm going to say the South, sorry.

CA: Sheffield would you say was the North or the Midlands?

EC: North. Yeah, North. The back end of the North, but North.

This excerpt is from a very illuminating interview with abackground interview respondent, and Chesterfield native, EC, and it highlights a number of themes. The first is that, to his mind, and despite its relatively small size, Chesterfield is broken up into separate areas with the place that he was raised – Grassmoor – closer to Derby and, to his in his mind, 'further south' than other locations within Chesterfield. He repeated this theme throughout the interview, stating that the further south one travels within Chesterfield, the 'lazier' the accent becomes:

EC: We sound rate lazy. Like, "y'alright, duck", we're just rate lazy with our words when we come out, if that makes sense… I'm from further south so it's like, there's a lot more farming…

He connected 'lazy' speech with the more rural, southerly, areas of Chesterfield. He mentioned a time when there were "tagging wars" across Chesterfield connected to the group, or gang's, post code. He stated that this resulted in a fight between boys from the Boythorpe area of Chesterfield and those from the Hasland area of town. Reinforcing the farmer stereotype, he stated that "some lads from Hasland come down with a bloody pitch fork (laughing), a pitch fork!" In an extension of EC's geographic analysis of Chesterfield, he seemed to use cartographic knowledge to position each of the four locations under analysis in the North, Midlands or South.

Initially EC seemed certain that Chesterfield was based in the Midlands, beginning to suggest that Chesterfield is 'proper Derbyshire'. The theme of Chesterfield's being represented as a Derbyshire accent by Chesterfield natives runs throughout these interviews, and echoes Le Baigue's (2010) undergraduate dissertation findings. Yet, when EC began to think more deeply he became confused, unsure about whether Derby should be considered Midland because, like Chesterfield, it is in Derbyshire, but ultimately, and apologetically, placed both Derby and Nottingham in the South. He seemed to form this conclusion because of how alien he felt whenever he visited Nottingham, suggesting that he was an 'outsider' there, and he categorically stated that he would never go to Derby. To Le Baigue's (2010), and many of my respondents, Derby was considered 'posh' and 'accentless' (ibid: 20). Like Le Baigue's respondents, EC felt more at home in Sheffield, and later suggested that 'the North is where I grew up', despite actually positioning Chesterfield in the Midlands. He went on to state that 'the North is better, isn't it?' in opposition to the South. This comment suggests greater affinity with Sheffield than either Derby or Nottingham based on how comfortable he felt in each place, perhaps because of familiarity – he studied and worked in Sheffield – or something more deep rooted. He used the term 'up north', and stated that 'we' do not like Southerners. Le Baigue (2010: 23) stated that how people orient themselves may change over time, and that people may join one area in opposition to somewhere else. EC seems to being displaying this trait, or 'Fractal Recursivity': The sense of self in contrast to others (Le Baigue, 2010: 23). It seems that EC would rather be connected with Sheffield and the North than the South. Montgomery (2012) similarly found respondents from Crewe, Cheshire, used the labels 'up north' and 'down south', and used the term 'posh' in reference to the South of England (ibid: 654). He stated that: 'Such labels echo the widespread preoccupation with the divide' (ibid). Whilst EC placed Chesterfield in the Midlands, and Sheffield in the North, he did seem to suggest he felt more kinship with Northerners, feeling an outsider in Derby and Nottingham, which he positioned in the South.

The ArcGIS maps illustrate clearly that most Chesterfield respondents (83.3%) feel there is a Midlands area, but that the North/Midland line is, for the most part, somewhere near to Chesterfield. The mapping task results are significant because no prior mapping tasks have asked specifically about a Midlands area, and very few have elicited responses from older

age groups. Hind's (2019) perceptual research in Nottingham, for her Masters' degree, is the only exception. She conducted a number of perception tasks with Nottinghamshire residents over the age of 55, comparing her results to Braber's (2015) research with Nottinghamshire adolescents. She concluded that the older age group had a stronger Midlander identity, based on 50% selecting a Midlander identity label in comparison with 14% of Braber's adolescents. However, this identity label differed from where many positioned the North-South dividing line on a map. For example, Hind (2019) found that of all respondents who positioned Nottingham in the North on the map, only 21% labelled themselves as Northern (ibid: 36). The majority (63%) of those who placed Nottingham in the North on the map labelled themselves as Midlander. However, this apparent anomaly may be the consequence of the task that only asked participants to draw one line dividing North from South, and not overtly accounting for a Midlander identity. Nevertheless, EC seemed to have similar issues with his own regional identity, as discussed previously, labelling Chesterfield as part of the Midlands but seeming to identify as Northern. Where Hind (2019) found that her older respondents had a stronger Midlander identity than Braber's teens, my study's map task suggests that the Midlander identity was the least secure among Chesterfield's oldest respondents (37.5%), with the middle age group more secure (62.5%) and the adolescent group the most Midlander (87.5%). The greater affiliation with the Midlands evinced by the older Nottinghamshire residents, Hind believed, had a direct impact on dialect recognition tasks in which strong local affiliation increased the claiming of local accents: 48% of her respondents correctly identified the Nottinghamshire voice (Hind, 2019: 52). Her findings in comparison with my results will be discussed further in the following chapter.

5.5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the North-Midland-South mapping task shows that the majority of Chesterfield respondents placed a Midland region on the map. 62.5% placed Chesterfield in the Midlands, whilst the remainder positioned Chesterfield in the North (37.5%). In contrast to the background interviews, 75% of Chesterfield respondents placed Chesterfield and

Sheffield together in the same region, suggesting that there is no perceptual barrier between these two locations to most Chesterfield respondents, with half placing them together in the North and half placing them together in the Midlands. However, 83% of Chesterfield respondents also positioned Chesterfield, Derby and Nottingham together in the same region. Of the three age groups, the older group seem to have more of a Northern identity, with the middle group more Midland and the teenage group the most Midlander. Nevertheless, Hind's (2019) research, along with the interview excerpt with background interview participant EC, suggests that map tasks alone cannot conclude a person's regional identity: There were occasional mismatches between Hind's participants' identity labels and their regional positioning of Nottingham on the map, and EC's placement of Chesterfield in the Midlands whilst classifying himself as a Northerner: These results indicate that there may be a difference between 'the geographical North' and a 'Northern identity'.

6. Results and Discussion: The dialect recognition tasks

6.1. Introduction

This section addresses **Research Question 2: To what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions?** This section begins with a summary of the key results before explaining them in greater detail. These key findings will then be discussed with particular reference to Montgomery's (2012) explanation of 'bare proximity' and Hind's (2019) Masters' dialect recognition results in Nottingham with an older audience.

6.2. Results

The key findings are:

1) In both Tasks 1 and 2, the two Sheffield speakers are the most accurately identified duo by Chesterfield participants;

2) In Task 1, the younger female speakers are more accurately identified than the older males by Chesterfield participants, with the exception of the South Derbyshire female;

3) Task 2 did not significantly improve the accuracy of identification, but did significantly mislead the allocation of the South Derbyshire male;

4) In Task 1, the South Derbyshire speakers, and Nottinghamshire male speaker, were not easily identified by Chesterfield participants;

5) In Task 1, the Chesterfield male speaker was significantly misidentified as having a Nottinghamshire accent by Chesterfield participants;

6) While only the Chesterfield teens can confidently identify the Chesterfield female, both Chesterfield and Sheffield teenagers are able to identify the Sheffield male and female by a significant proportion.

These key findings will now be described in greater detail.

6.2.1. The Sheffield Speakers

In Task 1, the Sheffield younger female was the most accurately identified speaker by Chesterfield participants. Together with the older male Sheffield speaker, who was correctly identified by half of the Chesterfield participants, the two Sheffield speakers were the most accurately identified pair. This indicates that by accent alone, from formal reading, the Sheffield speakers are the most identifiable duo to the Chesterfield audience.
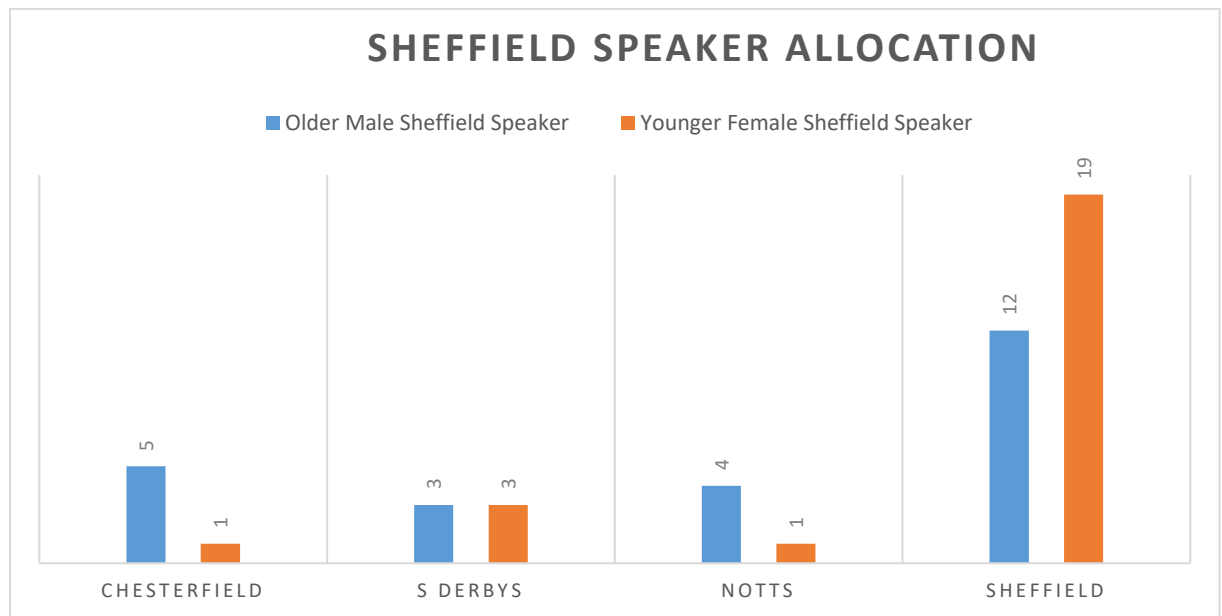
Figure 6.1: Sheffield Speaker Allocation by Chesterfield Respondents /24 – Task 1 Formal Reading.

After Task 1, 79% of Chesterfield respondents connected the Sheffield female with Sheffield. The older Sheffield male was recognised by half of the Chesterfield respondents in the same task (see Figure 6.1). After Task 2, they remain the most identified pair.

Given the four possible answers to Task 1, one would expect a roughly even distribution of results should the participants have been randomly allocating their answers. From the 24 Chesterfield participants, the 'expected frequency' of them guessing a result correctly is six.

I put the 'observed values' of the perception tests into an Excel file before using the Jamovi programme (www.jamovi.org) to calculate whether the results for Task 1 are greater than chance. A chi-squared goodness of fit test was carried out in Jamovi to test for evidence that

the Chesterfield participants' accurate identification of the Sheffield speakers was greater than chance. For the younger female, there was a significant difference in the proportions opting for each accent. A P-value of < .001 was calculated for the younger female recognition, and 0.04 for the male, suggesting that both results are significant. In other words, the identification of both Sheffield speakers by Chesterfield participants in Task 1 is greater than chance, which suggests that Sheffield speakers are identifiable to a Chesterfield audience by accent alone, even in a formal context.

The data written by participants during the test give insight into why the Sheffield speakers were correctly identified. Tables 6.1 and 6.2 collate the main reasons given for connecting the younger female and older male with Sheffield after Task 1, the formal reading task.

Table 6.1: Reasons given for Sheffield Younger Female correct allocation by age group after Task 1.

Noted feature Task 1	LEXICAL SET	By Chesterfield Teens	By Middle Group	By Older Group	By Sheffield Teens
	Allocation:	Sheffield	Sheffield	Sheffield	Sheffield
Pronunciation of 'today' (longer); 'table', 'cake'	FACE	✓✓	✓	✓✓	✓✓✓
Pronunciation of 'clothes'; 'window'; 'moaning'; 'oh no'	GOAT	✓✓✓	✓✓✓✓✓✓✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓✓✓
Lax variant of happY (as 'e')	HappY	✓			
'Sounds Sheffield'		✓			

Table 6.2: Reasons given for Sheffield Older Male correct allocation by age group after Task 1.

Noted feature Task 1	LEXICAL SET	By Chesterfield Teens	By Middle Group	By Older Group	By Sheffield Teens
	Allocation:	Sheffield	Sheffield	Sheffield	Sheffield
Pronunciation of 'Dave' and 'day' (long 'a'/"Derv")	FACE	✓✓	✓		✓
Pronunciation of 'window' as 'winder'; 'go'; 'clothes'; 'moaning'	GOAT	✓	✓	✓	✓
Pronunciation of house/out/about	MOUTH		✓✓		
'Sounds Sheffield'		✓	✓✓	✓	✓✓

According to Tables 6.1 and 6.2, the FACE and GOAT vowels were key factors in the identification of both the older male and younger female, along with the older male's MOUTH vowel, to the Chesterfield audience. Each tick in the table represents one person making that comment, or a comment to that effect.

The younger female's GOAT vowel was highly recognised as a marker of Sheffield speech by Chesterfield's middle age group, and Sheffield teens (the results of which will be discussed further in section 6.2.6). MAF2 recognised the Sheffield female because she said that she sounded similar to her Rotherham friend, especially the way she says 'clothes'. ComSM4 noted the Sheffield female's 'long pronunciation of a's' in words like 'moaning', which is realised by the speaker as something approximating [ɵ:] (see Table 3.13). This may indicate that the then incoming monophthongal GOAT variant described by Finnegan (2011), has become a marker of Sheffield speech to the Chesterfield audience.

Intuition seems to have played a part with the older male, with MAF3 stating that the male 'elongates the vowels' in a similar way to the Chesterfield accent, but that it is more Yorkshire/North sounding, and therefore places him in Sheffield. However, the older male's

accent was not recognisable to Chesterfield teenager ComSM3, who chose to place him in Nottinghamshire stating: 'Don't recognise it and I'm not familiar with Nottingham accent.'

6.2.2.The younger female speakers

Following Task 1, each younger female speaker was more accurately identified than their older male counterpart by the Chesterfield participants, with the exception of the South Derbyshire female (see Figure 6.2). For example, the Sheffield younger female is identified by 19 of the 24 Chesterfield participants, whereas the Sheffield older male is recognised by fewer participants with 12 out of 24 identifying him correctly. This suggests that in general, the younger females are more identifiable to the Chesterfield audience than the older males.
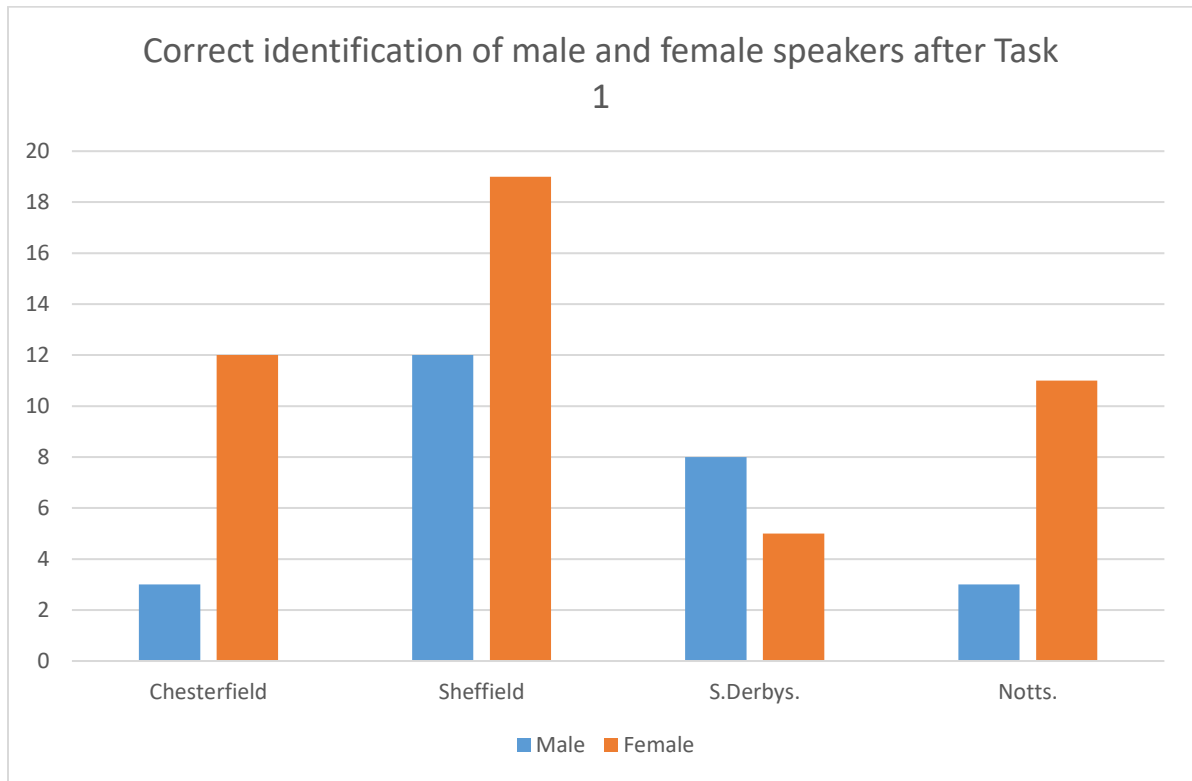
Figure 6.2: Correct identification of male and female speakers by Chesterfield respondents after Task 1, Formal Reading /24.

After Task 1, there were 47 out of 96 correct allocations of younger females, including the South Derbyshire female. This is nearly double the older male correct allocations, which

stands at 26 out of 96. This shows that the Chesterfield participants correctly allocated the younger females nearly twice as many times as the older males. The mean average older male correct allocation is 1.08, and younger female mean average correct allocation is 1.96.

Analysis of the Chesterfield audience by gender and age group offers further insight. Figures 6.3 and 6.4 break down the number of correct allocations for all older male and younger females (73/192) after Task 1 by age group and gender of the Chesterfield audience.

CORRECT ALLOCATION BY AGE GROUP OF PARTICIPANTS

Legend: Older males | Younger females | Linear (Younger females)

TEENAGE: Older males 6, Younger females 19
MIDDLE: Older males 12, Younger females 16
OLDER: Older males 8, Younger females 12
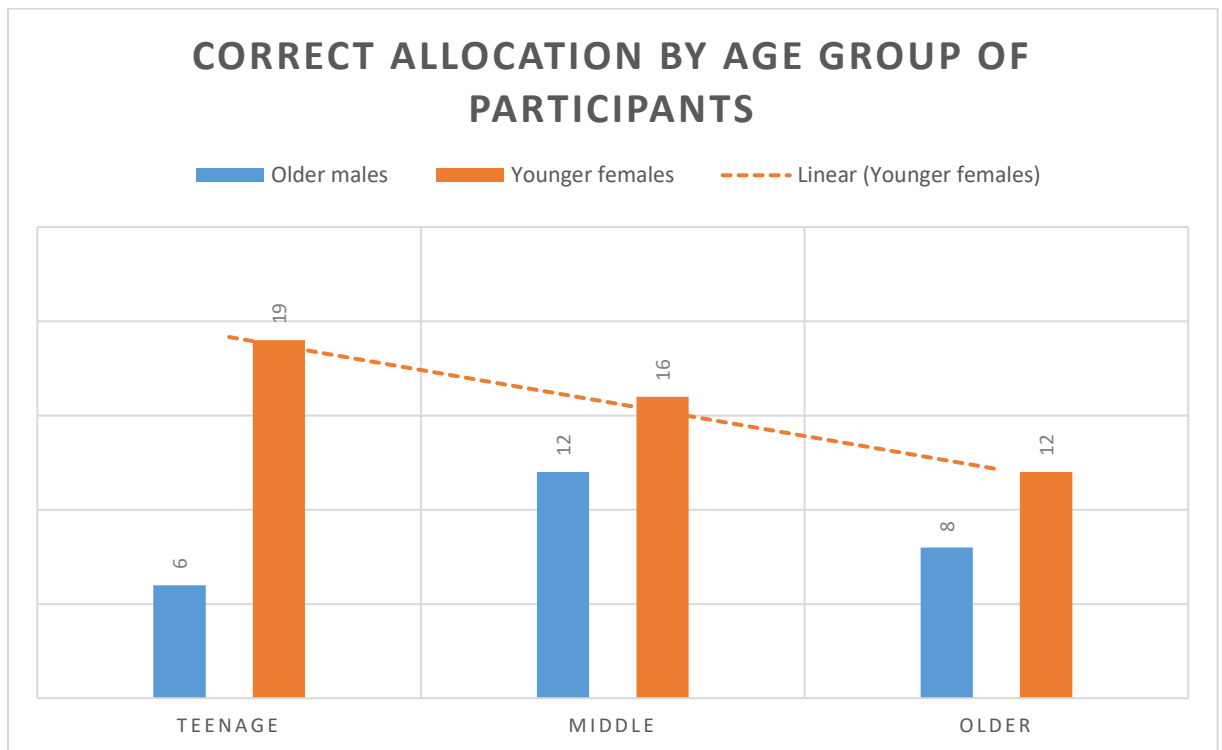
Figure 6.3: Correct identification of all older male and younger female speakers after Task 1 by age group of Chesterfield participants /64.

Figure 6.3 shows that each age group of Chesterfield participants is better at identifying the younger females than older males, with the teenage group being the worst of the three generations at detecting the older males. However, they are marginally the best group at identifying the younger females, followed by the middle group, and lastly the older age group.

The middle age group has the highest number of correct answers in total (28/64) and are the best age group at detecting the older males, followed by the older age group, and lastly the teen group.
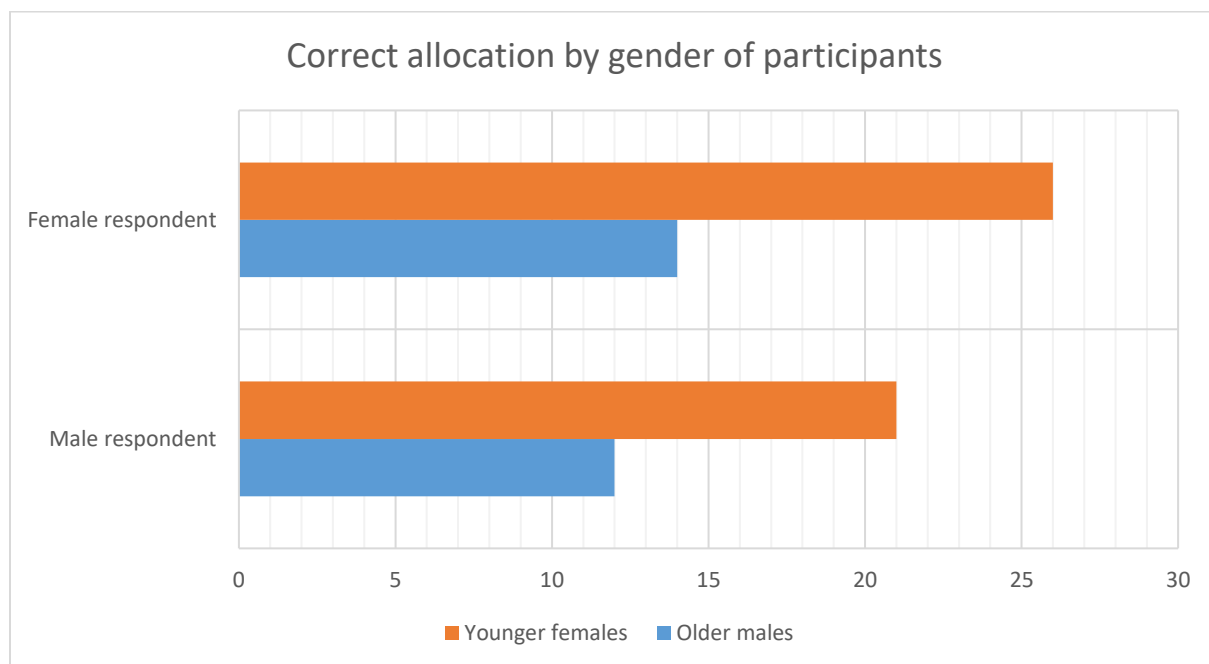
Figure 6.4: Correct identification of all older male and younger female speakers after Task 1 by gender of Chesterfield participants.

Figure 6.4. illustrates that the female respondents were better than male respondents at identifying both the younger females and older males, with both sexes better at identifying the younger female speakers. However, these results are marginal with 40/96 (41%) correct responses by females and 33/96 (34%) correct responses by males.

6.2.3. Task 2, Vocabulary and Free Speech

Looking as a whole, there are 73/192 correct answers for Task 1 (38%) and 76/192 for Task 2 (39.5%) by all Chesterfield participants. There were 79 changes made from Task 1 to Task 2, with only 21 changes from incorrect response to correct (27%), 18 from correct to incorrect (23%), and 40 from incorrect to incorrect (50%). These data suggest that Task 2, the vocabulary and free speech activity, may have only confirmed or confused answers from

Task 1, the formal reading activity, and did not significantly improve the overall accuracy of total results.

Looking more closely at the results, the female respondents are still better than male respondents at identifying both the older male (OM) and younger female (YF) speakers in Task 2, but the gap is even closer than in Task 1 (see Figure 6.5) with 37 correct responses by male respondents, and 39 by female, in total.
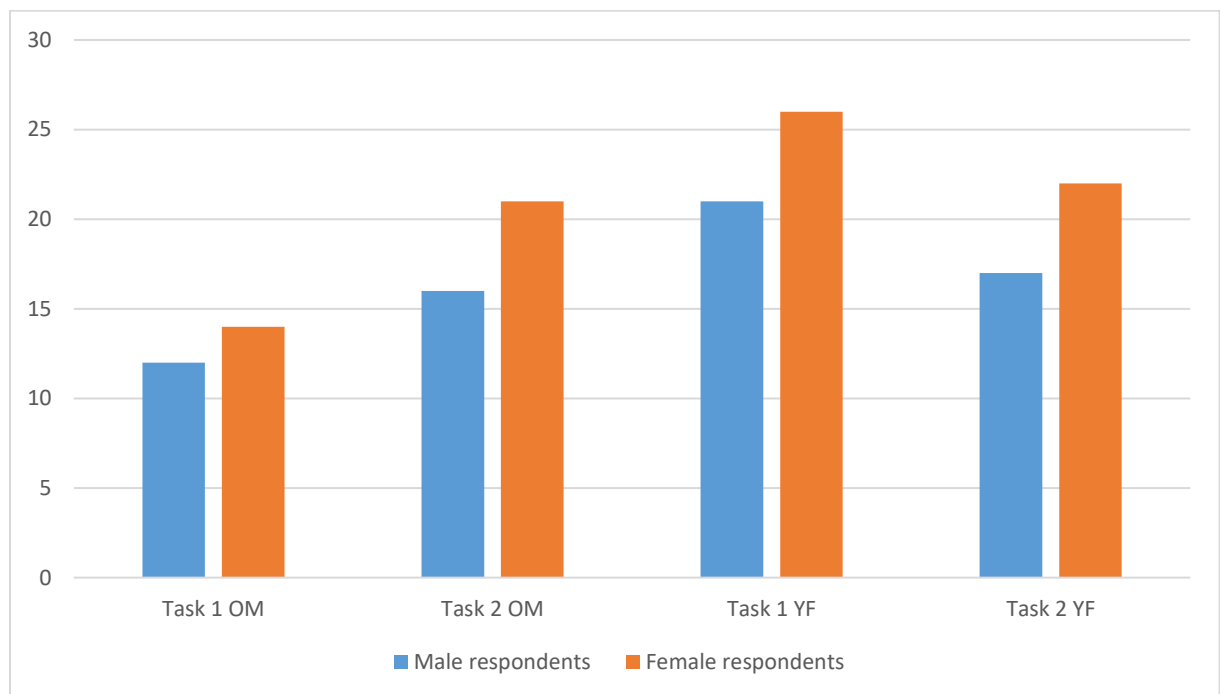
Figure 6.5: Correct allocation of all older male and younger female speakers after Tasks 1 and 2 by gender of Chesterfield participants.

The teenage group is still the best at detecting the younger female voices, improving the result for younger females after Task 2 by just two correct allocations (see Figure 6.6). However, they remain the worst at identifying the older male voices. Task 2 improves the older male speaker identification with the middle and older age groups more accurately identifying the older males after Task 2 than younger females. However, the result is marginal. In total, there are seven more correct allocations for older males after Task 2, but four fewer correct identifications for the younger females.
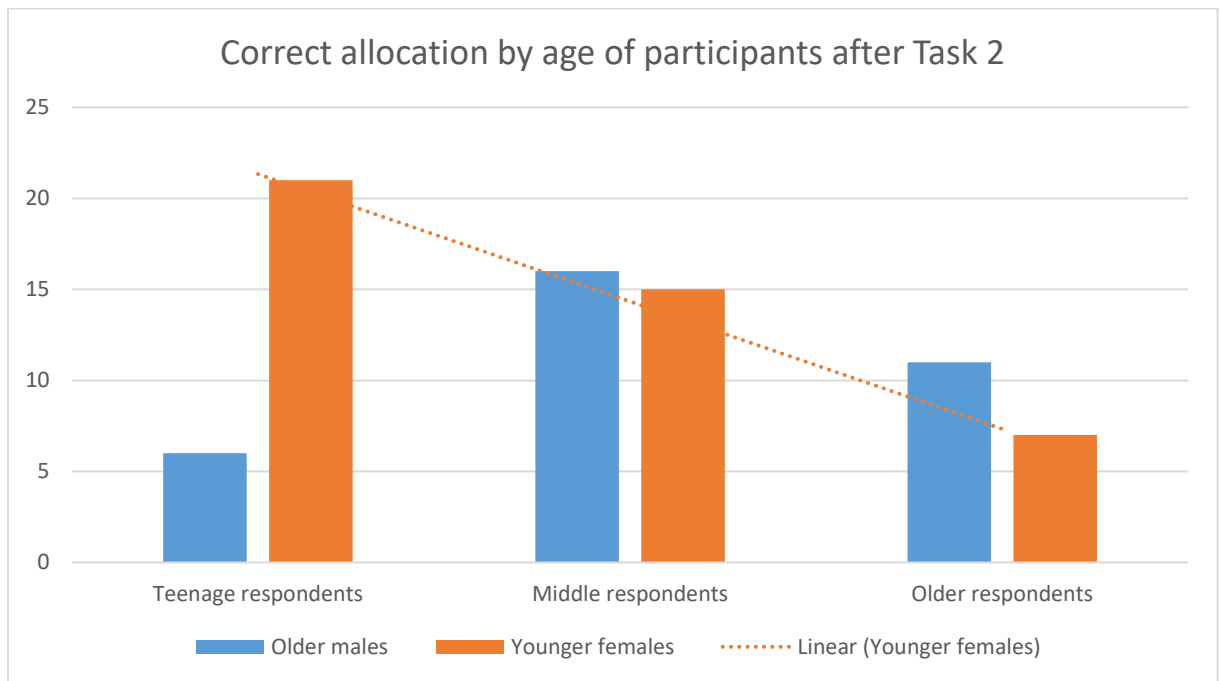
Figure 6.6: Correct allocation by age of participants after Task 2 /64.

A comparison of Figure 6.6 with Figure 6.3 shows a very similar trend in Tasks 1 and 2, however: The number of correct younger female allocations still gradually declines as the respondents get older, and the older male allocations still peak with the middle group.

Three of the four younger female speakers are still more recognisable to the Chesterfield audience than the older males after Task 2, still with the exception of the South Derbyshire female. However, with the exception of the Chesterfield male and female speakers, the gap between male and female correct allocations is less wide than for Task 1 (see Figures 6.7 and 6.8).
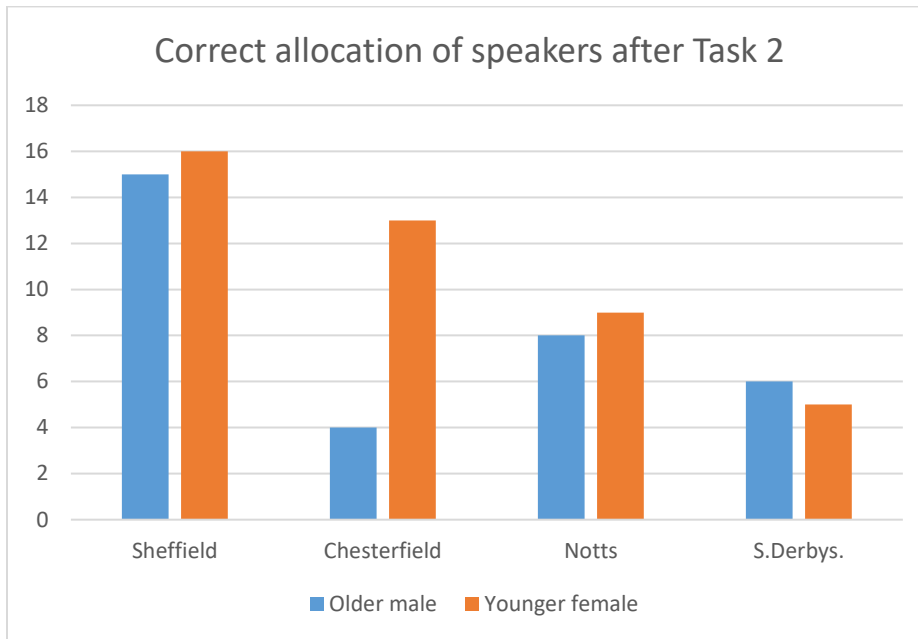
Figure 6.7: Correct allocation of older male and younger female speakers after Task 2 /24.
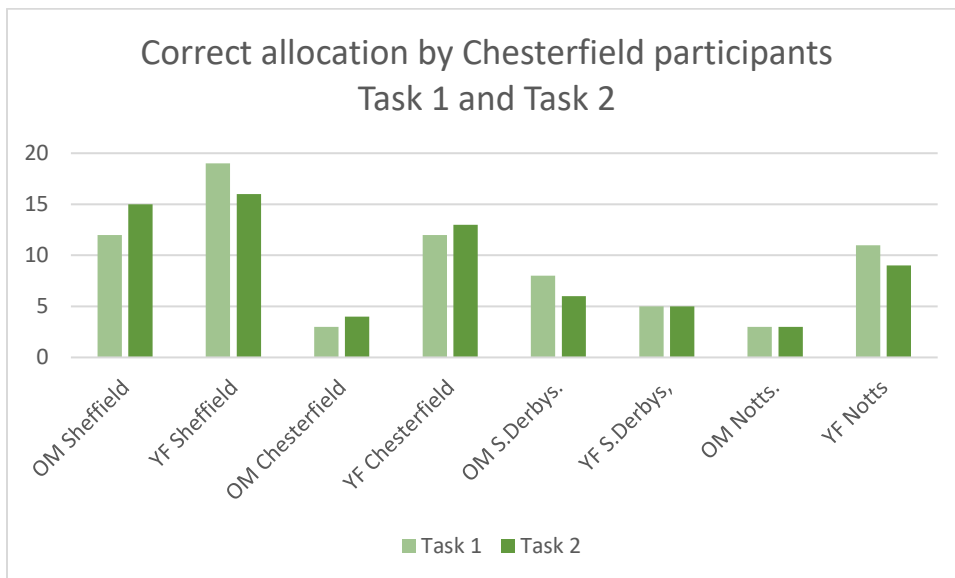
Figure 6.8: Correct allocation by Chesterfield participants in Tasks 1 and 2, /24.

Figure 6.8 shows that for the eight recorded speakers, only three results were marginally improved by Task 2: Both Chesterfield speakers and the older Sheffield male.

The Older Sheffield Male's result improved by 3 allocations (12 correct for Task 1, 15 for Task 2). The reasons for the correct allocations after Task 2 are outlined in Table 6.3 where the local lexis used connected him strongly with Sheffield to the Chesterfield audience.

Table 6.3: Reasons for Sheffield Older Male correct allocation by group after Task 2.

Noted feature Task 2	By Chesterfield Teens	By Middle Group	By Older Group
Gennel	✓✓	✓	✓
Breadcake	✓✓✓✓	✓✓✓✓	✓
Spice	✓	✓	
Pal		✓	

The Chesterfield Older Male's number of correct allocations improved by only one after Task 2, and he was still largely connected with Nottinghamshire (9/24). However, after his use of vocabulary, and more exposure to his free speech in Task 2, the number of participants connecting him with Nottinghamshire declined from the Task 1 score of 12 out of 24. Table 6.4 outlines the vocabulary which connected the Chesterfield male with Nottinghamshire after Task 2. To check for significance of these results, McNemar tests of association were carried out in the Jamovi programme (www.jamovi.com). These tests show the correlation between two categorical variables, in this case participant results for Task 1 and Task 2 per speaker. For the Chesterfield respondents alone, the only results that were close to significant were for both Nottingham speakers and the Chesterfield older male, where the results were unusually high in the category of incorrect answer for Task 1, but these were still incorrect for Task 2.

Table 6.4: Reasons for Chesterfield Older Male incorrect allocation to Nottinghamshire by group after Task 2.

Noted feature Task 2	By Chesterfield Teens: Nottinghamshire	By Middle Group: Nottinghamshire	By Older Group Nottinghamshire
Bread roll	✓✓	✓✓	
Love	✓✓✓		
Aye up, duck	✓		
Jennel	✓		
Twitchel		✓	

The Chesterfield younger female's score rose by one after Task 2. She was still largely connected with Chesterfield by Chesterfield respondents, with a score of 13 out of 24. She used different local lexis to the Chesterfield older male, which Table 6.5 highlights. This lexis appears to confirm to the Chesterfield audience that she is from Chesterfield.

Table 6.5: Reasons for Chesterfield Younger Female correct allocation by group after Task 2.

Noted feature Task 2	By Chesterfield Teens: Chesterfield	By Middle Group: Chesterfield	By Older Group: Chesterfield
Duck	✓✓✓	✓	✓
Cob	✓✓✓✓	✓	✓
Jitty	✓✓✓		
Mardy	✓✓		

The Chesterfield Younger Female was correctly identified by Chesterfield participants, particularly the teenage group, largely because she sounded like a friend or themselves. MAF2 wrote that: 'It's like I grew up with her at school!', and many of the Chesterfield teens said that she sounded like their school friends. The only person to expand on this feeling of familiarity wrote that her pronunciation of 'town' hinted that she was from Chesterfield. However, to MAF3 she sounded too 'posh', and she therefore thought she must be from South Derbyshire or Nottinghamshire. The Chesterfield older male's misallocation to Nottinghamshire will be discussed further in part 5.

One result that changed with Task 2 is the allocation of the South Derbyshire Older Male. After Task 2 he becomes significantly misidentified as coming from Chesterfield: A chi-squared goodness of fit test was carried out in Jamovi giving a p-value of $< .001$, with 17 of the 24 Chesterfield participants connecting him with Chesterfield. While six respondents still place him in South Derbyshire, Table 6.6 highlights that his vocabulary use is an indicator of both places to the Chesterfield audience.

Table 6.6: Reasons for South Derbyshire OM allocation by group; both correctly placed in South Derbyshire, and incorrectly placed in Chesterfield.

Noted feature Task 2	By Chesterfield Teens		By Middle Group		By Older Group		By Sheffield Teens	
	S.Derbys	Ches	S.Derbys	Ches	S.Derbys	Ches	S.Derbys	Ches
Jitty	✓	✓✓✓✓✓✓✓		✓	✓			✓✓
Cob	✓	✓✓✓✓✓✓	✓	✓	✓		✓✓	
Mate	✓	✓✓✓			✓			
Duck		✓✓	✓	✓	✓		✓✓	✓✓✓✓
Aye up			✓				✓	
Pronunciation of 'words' ('werds'): NURSE vowel					✓			

After Task 2, 'jitty' and 'cob' seem to confirm his location in Derbyshire, but specifically Chesterfield, as does 'duck' for the Sheffield group. MAM1 wrote that he has the 'same (dialect words) as me'. It is of note that the same cues can lead participants to believe that the speakers are from different places, which will be discussed further in section 6.3.

To conclude, of the changes made from Task 1 to Task 2, 26.5% were for the better. However, the final numbers are so marginal that it cannot be generalised that hearing the speaker for a second time, speaking with emphasis on local lexis, significantly improves the identification of speaker origins.

6.2.4. The non-significant results

After Task 1, both South Derbyshire speakers and the Nottinghamshire male speaker were not easily identified by Chesterfield participants. The South Derbyshire results will be outlined first, followed by the Nottinghamshire male.

SOUTH DERBYSHIRE SPEAKER ALLOCATION

■ Older Male S Derbys Speaker   ■ Younger Female S Derbys Speaker
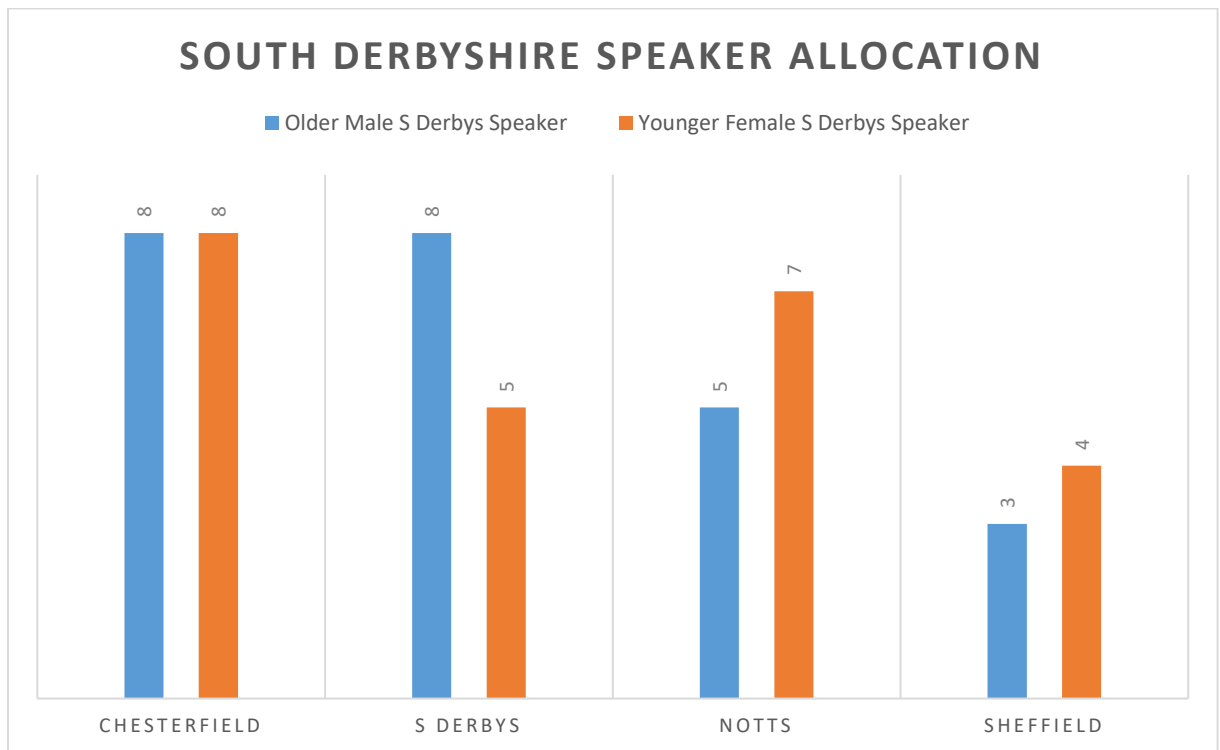
Figure 6.9: South Derbyshire Speaker Allocation by Chesterfield Respondents /24 – Task 1 Formal Reading.

The South Derbyshire female is the only one of the four females to not have been correctly allocated by a significant proportion after Task 1. Figure 6.9 shows that she was mostly connected with Chesterfield, but that the results are so close not to be significant: A chi-squared goodness of fit test was carried out in Jamovi giving a p-value of 0.644. For the older male, there is an equal majority between South Derbyshire and Chesterfield from the Chesterfield respondents, but Nottinghamshire is not far behind after Task 1 (P-value of 0.392).

Table 6.7: Reasons for South Derbyshire older male allocation by age group after Task 1.

Noted feature Task 1	LEXICAL SET	By Chesterfield Teens		By Middle Group		By Older Group		By Sheffield Teens	
		S.Derbys	Ches	S.Derbys	Ches	S.Derbys	Ches	S.Derbys	Ches
Pronunciation of 'about'; 'out'; 'town', 'round'	MOUTH	✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓✓			✓	✓
Very Derbyshire/familiar		✓✓	✓					✓	
Pronunciation of 'u'		✓							
Vowel sounds								✓✓	
Almost moaning								✓	
Pronunciation of 'aunt'									✓
Farmer tone								✓	

Table 6.8: Reasons for South Derbyshire younger female allocation by age group after Task 1.

Noted feature Task 1	LEXICAL SET	By Chesterfield Teens		By Middle Group		By Older Group		By Sheffield Teens	
		Ches	Notts	Ches	Notts	Ches	Notts	Ches	Sheff
Pronunciation of 'aunt'			✓						
Similar to Chesterfield			✓						
Pronunciation of 'out'; 'about'	MOUTH	✓	✓			✓		✓✓	
Sounds like a friend/familiar			✓					✓	✓
Strong 'u'						✓			
Guess/deduction								✓	✓
Dropping 'h'								✓	✓
'Broad' vowels									✓

Tables 6.7 and 6.8 show that the main reason given for placing both speakers in Derbyshire (Chesterfield and S. Derbyshire) by all respondents, including Sheffield teens, is their MOUTH vowel. ComSM3 stated that 'abaht' is 'typical of Derbyshire', and he placed the older male in South Derbyshire. For the same reason, ComSM4 placed the younger female in Chesterfield. However, her 'familiar' sounding voice misled many of the respondents into connecting her with several of the possible locations. MAM1 wrote that the younger female was from South Derbyshire, after Task 1, because her accent was very similar to Chesterfield. And ComSM3 placed the younger female in South Derbyshire after Task 1 as her accent was 'similar to Chesterfield, but sounds slightly different – not as heavy a Derbyshire accent as Chesterfield'. Whereas MAF2 placed the younger female in South Derbyshire because it was the only choice left. She stated that she could place her in Chesterfield, Nottinghamshire or S. Derbyshire, but 'I wouldn't say Sheffield'. Likewise, MAF4 stated that the younger female could be from Nottinghamshire, as her accent is close to a Chesterfield one.

As for the Nottinghamshire older male, most Chesterfield respondents connected him with either Chesterfield or South Derbyshire rather than Nottinghamshire, which was the least popular choice (Figure 6.10).
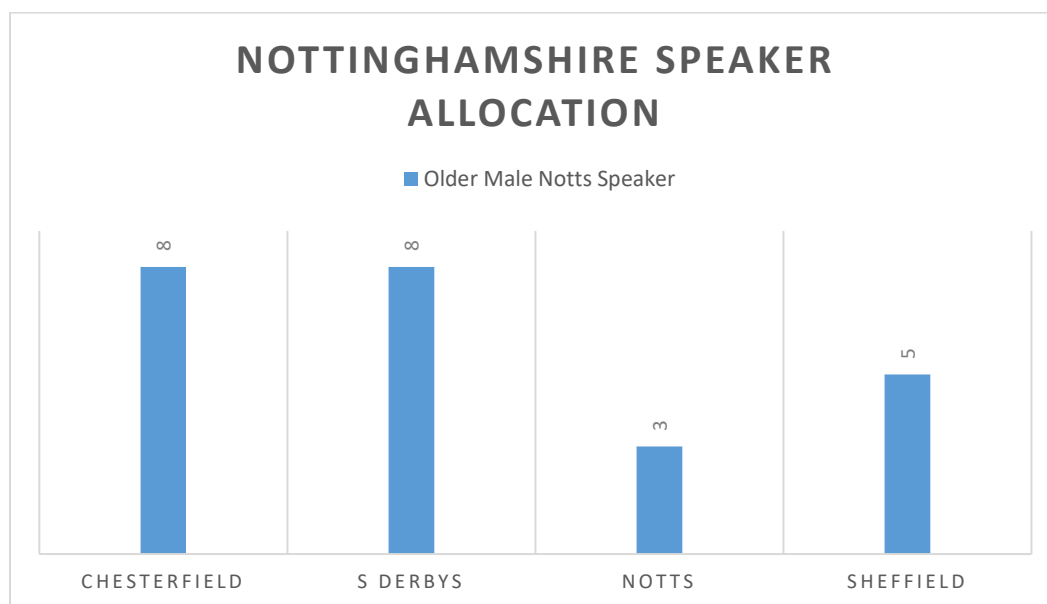
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE SPEAKER ALLOCATION

■ Older Male Notts Speaker

8	8	3	5
CHESTERFIELD	S DERBYS	NOTTS	SHEFFIELD

Figure 6.10: Nottinghamshire Speaker Allocation by Chesterfield Respondents /24 – Task 1 Formal Reading.

Table 6.9: Reasons for Nottinghamshire older male allocation by group in Task 1.

Noted feature Task 1	LEXICAL SET	By Chesterfield Teens		By Middle Group		By Older Group		By Sheffield Teens
		Ches	S.Derbys	Ches	S.Derbys	Ches	S.Derbys	S.Derbys
Sounds local		✓				✓		
Pronunciation of 'town'; 'out'; 'house'	MOUTH		✓				✓	✓
Pronunciation of 'like' ('loike')	PRICE		✓					
Pronunciation of 'putting' ('purrin')			✓					
Strong accent		✓						
Guess			✓✓					
Sounds like a friend			✓	✓				
Pronunciation of 'Dave' ('Dayerv')	FACE			✓				
Pronunciation of 'ambulance' ('amblance')				✓			✓	
Pronunciation of 'particular' ('partikler')							✓	

The Nottinghamshire older male was considered by the majority of all Chesterfield and Sheffield respondents to be from Derbyshire, either Chesterfield or South Derbyshire. The MOUTH vowel, and PRICE vowel in 'like' seemed to suggest this to respondents, along with his pronunciation of 'ambulance' (Table 6.9).

In Task 2, MAM3 correctly placed the older male in Nottinghamshire because of the unfamiliar terms he used, as well as his accent, which he described as 'some posh pronunciation mixed in with northern accent.' After Task 1 he had thought he was from Chesterfield. This result was the same for OAF4, for the same reason.

There is the suggestion of a 'scale of northern-ness' in these responses, which will be described further in the discussion section of this chapter, and of comparing the older males with the speakers that have gone before. For example, because MAF3 placed OM1 in South Derbyshire (correctly), she incorrectly placed OM3 in Chesterfield, as she felt they were alike but that OM3's accent was 'stronger'. As she felt that accents become stronger the further north one travels, she placed him in a location geographically further north. She then guessed that OM4 was from Nottinghamshire, when he is from Chesterfield. The older Chesterfield male was often placed in Nottinghamshire, which will be discussed in the following section.

6.2.5. Significant misidentification

After Task 1, the Chesterfield male speaker was misidentified as having a Nottinghamshire accent by a significant proportion of Chesterfield participants (Figure 6.11).
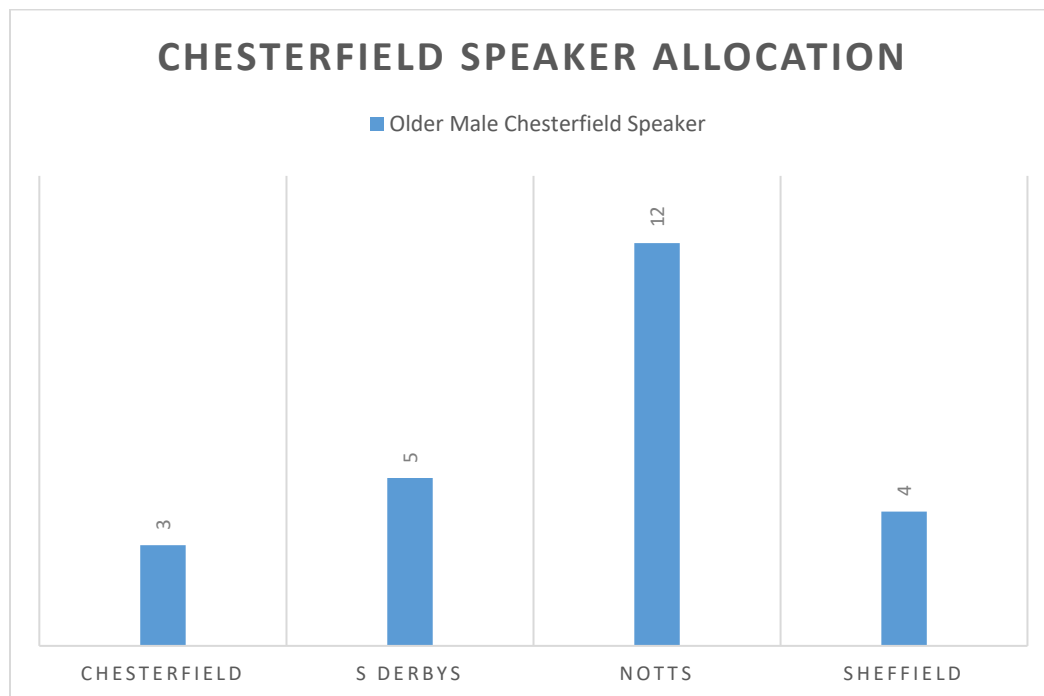
Figure 6.11: Chesterfield Speaker Allocation by Chesterfield Respondents /24 – Task 1 Formal Reading.

After Task 1, half of the Chesterfield respondents connected the older Chesterfield male with Nottinghamshire. Moreover, Chesterfield was the least popular choice. This is the same for Task 2, but the figures levelled out a little more with some respondents changing their answer from Task 1. After Task 1, the p-value of Chesterfield respondents choosing Nottinghamshire for the Chesterfield male is 0.040 suggesting that the choice made by respondents was more than by chance.

Table 6.10 illustrates why the majority of Chesterfield, and Sheffield, respondents incorrectly matched the older male with Nottinghamshire after Task 1.

Table 6.10: Reasons for Chesterfield older male allocation by group after Task 1.

Noted feature Task 1	By Chesterfield Teens	By Middle Group	By Older Group	By Sheffield Teens
	Nottinghamshire	Nottinghamshire	Nottinghamshire	Nottinghamshire
Clear pronunciation	✓✓✓✓			✓✓✓✓
Guess/only option left	✓✓	✓✓		✓✓
Posh			✓	✓

Some comments from Chesterfield respondents suggest that because the older male was the last male to be heard, they had only one option left and so decided that he must be from the least known place: Nottinghamshire. Despite MAF2 choosing South Derbyshire for the Chesterfield male, she wrote after Task 2 that she thought he actually sounded more northern, even though she did not change the location. MAM1 wrote that the older male sounded like a person from Chesterfield, but was convinced OM1 was from there, so chose the closest accent in his mind: South Derbyshire. He also said, correctly, that the Chesterfield older male sounded like a coal miner. MAM3 wrote that because this male had the 'least distinctive' accent, he chose Nottinghamshire for Task 1, but changed this to Chesterfield after Task 2. This might be because he had correctly identified by that point that OM3 was from Nottinghamshire, due to the unfamiliar terms he used. OAM4 correctly placed the

Chesterfield older male in Chesterfield because he thought that his voice sounded like him, and OAF2 placed him in Chesterfield because of the way he said 'purrin' on t'kettle'. However, OAF4 thought he sounded too 'posh' to be from Chesterfield and placed him in Nottinghamshire. Therefore, deduction had a part to play in the placement of the Chesterfield older male, which often led to incorrect choices. The only Sheffield respondent to place the older male in Chesterfield after Task 1 did so because he sounded 'farmer-ish', which aligns with EC's comments about the Chesterfield accent in section 5.4.

6.2.6. Teenage participants from Chesterfield and Sheffield

Taking the scores for correct identification of both older male and younger female speakers from each location together, the Sheffield duo were best identified by both the Sheffield and Chesterfield teens after both Tasks 1 and 2. Although the Chesterfield older male eluded both sets of teenagers, the Chesterfield female was correctly identified by 75% of Chesterfield teenagers after Tasks 1 and 2. Despite there being only eight Chesterfield and eight Sheffield teenage participants, some comparison may hint at trends that could be explored further in the future.

Chesterfield's eight teenage participants were the best of the three Chesterfield age groups at identifying the younger female voices, and the worst at identifying the older males in Tasks 1 and 2. The Chesterfield teens correctly identified local voices a total of 25 times for Task 1 out of a possible 64 (39.0%), whereas the Sheffield teens scored 16 out of 64 (25%) correctly. For Task 2, the Chesterfield teens maintained their 25 correct allocations (39.0%), albeit with some alterations, and the Sheffield teens improved their number of correct allocations to 21 (32.8%). In terms of the gender of respondents, the Chesterfield teenagers were roughly half and half, with 13 correct responses by males, and 12 by females for Task 1. This figure is reversed for Task 2. The Sheffield female respondents are more accurate than the males for Task 1 by four, with ten accurate results for Task 1, and opposed to six for the male respondents. Both improve their scores for Task 2 with nine correct allocations for the males and 12 for the females.

Figures 6.12 and 6.13 compare the Chesterfield and Sheffield teen results for Task 1 and subsequently Task 2. For both tasks, the Chesterfield teens were best at placing the younger females, correctly allocating them 19 out of a possible 32 times (59.3%). However, the Sheffield teens correctly placed the younger females only four out of 32 times for Task 1 (12.5%), and 12 out of 32 for Task 2 (37.5%). For the older male speakers, the Chesterfield teens only placed them six out of 32 times correctly in Task 1 and Task 2 (18.7%). The Sheffield teens doubled that score for the older males, correctly placing them 12 times in Task 1 (37.5%) and 9 in Task 2 (28.1%). For the Sheffield teens, Task 2 helped them to triple their younger female score, but their correct allocations decreased for the older males.
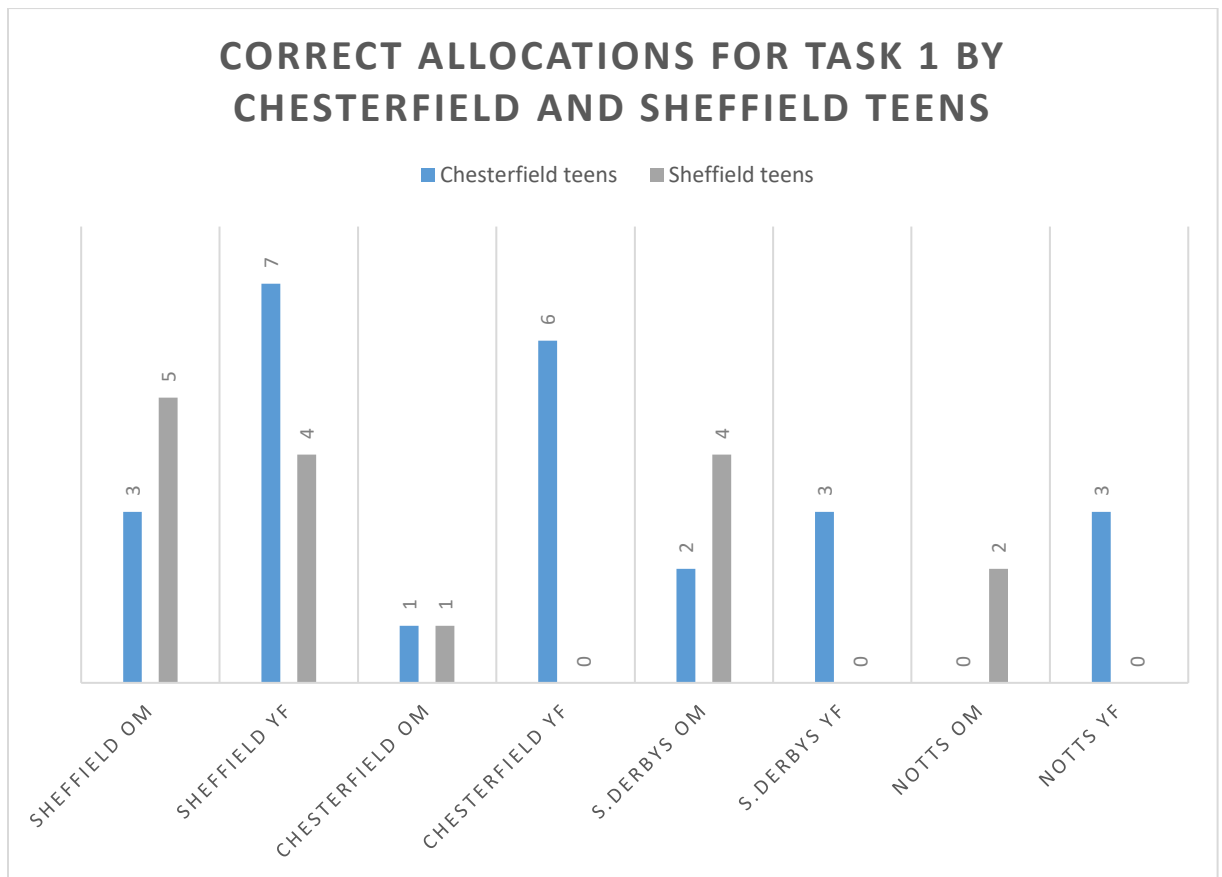
Figure 6.12: Correct allocations for Task 1 by Chesterfield and Sheffield Teens /8.
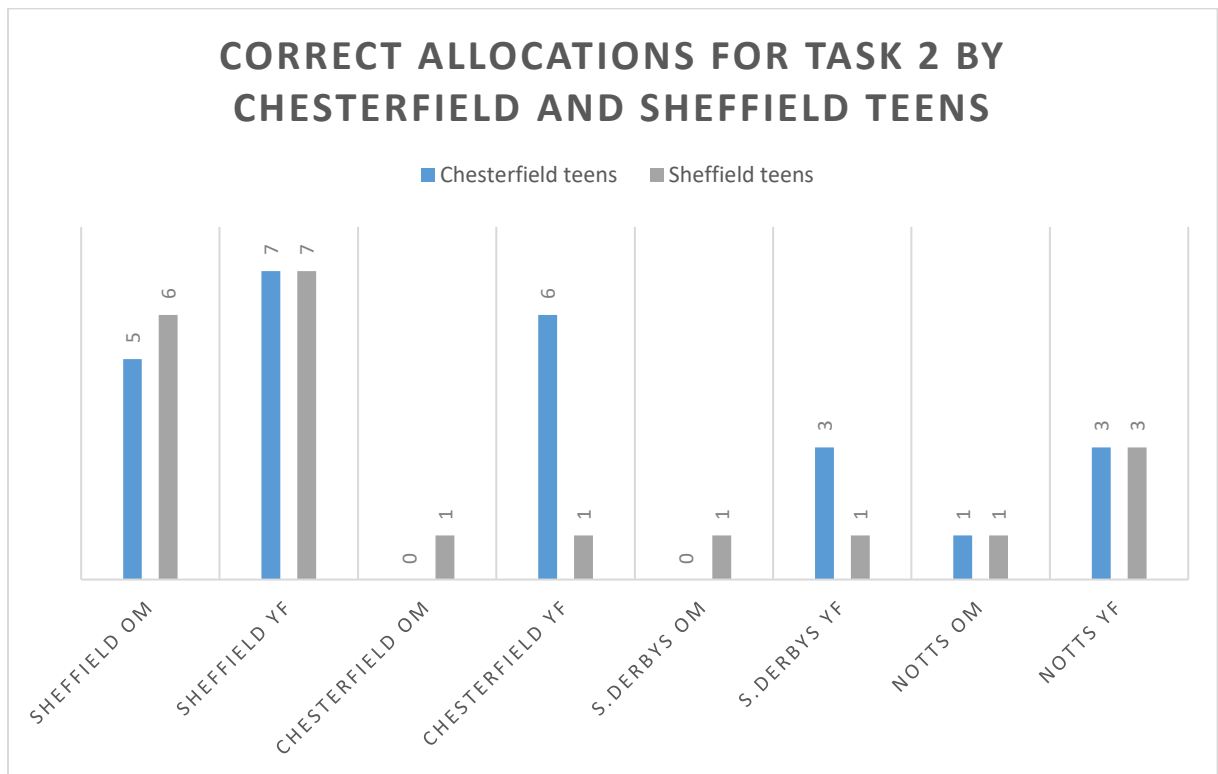
Figure 6.13: Correct allocations for Task 2 by Chesterfield and Sheffield Teens /8.

In terms of the Sheffield speakers, the younger female was clearly identifiable to both groups after Task 1, with the Chesterfield teens correctly allocating her with a score of seven out of eight (Figure 6.12). Half of the eight Sheffield teens identified her correctly after Task 1. The Sheffield teens were better at recognising the Sheffield older male speaker, however, with a score of five out of eight correct allocations after Task 1. Chesterfield was also chosen by some of the Sheffield teens for both the male and female speakers. The Chesterfield teens were more torn when it came to the older male, with three respondents placing him in Sheffield after Task 1, but three also placing him in Chesterfield. As stated in part 1, the younger woman's GOAT vowel in Task 1 was suggestive of her Sheffield routes to the Chesterfield audience, with ComSM4 noting the Sheffield female's 'long pronunciation of a's' in words like 'moaning'. However, in contrast, SS_M1 does not recognise the Sheffield female, because of the way she pronounced 'clothes', and SS_M3 places her in Nottingham after Task 1 because of her 'standard accent'. Her GOAT vowel may be more indicative of Sheffield to outsiders, as background interviews (2015) suggested, where it is not acknowledged as a feature of Sheffield speech by all Sheffield respondents. Figure 6.13

indicates that Task 2 affirmed to both groups of teens that the speakers are both from Sheffield, and the older male and younger female Sheffield speakers were the most accurately identified pair by both teenage groups of judges after both dialect recognition tasks (see Figure 6.14).
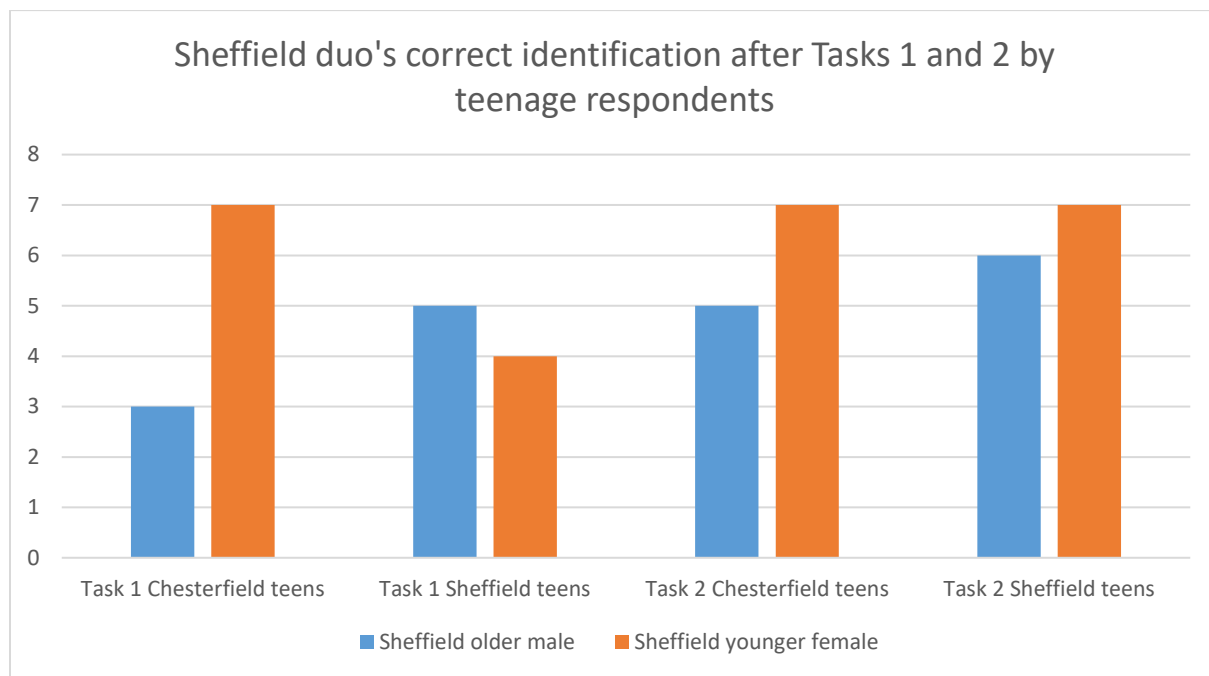
Figure 6.14: The Sheffield duo's correct identification after Tasks 1 and 2 by teenage respondents.

A significant proportion of Chesterfield teens correctly placed the Chesterfield female speaker after Tasks 1 and 2, with six out of eight participants correctly allocating the speaker after Task 1 and seven after Task 2. However, the Chesterfield teenage respondents were no better at identifying the older Chesterfield male than the Sheffield teens, with only one out of eight teens from each place correctly allocating him after Task 1 (see part 5). Both groups followed the trend for placing this speaker in Nottinghamshire, with four Chesterfield teens and five Sheffield teens placing him there after Task 2. Six of the eight Sheffield teens also placed the Chesterfield female in Nottinghamshire after Task 1. One reason they placed her in Nottinghamshire was her 'correct' pronunciation. Comments include: 'she pronounced her ts' ('no glottal'); 'good pronunciation, all words said correctly'; 'fairly standard'; 'posh'. However, because of this clear pronunciation, SS_F4 placed her in Sheffield, because she

sounded like her. She then changed this to Chesterfield after hearing Task 2, but South Derbyshire was the most popular choice for her after Task 2 among the Sheffield respondents (5/8). As for the Chesterfield older male, SS_M3 commented that 'twitchel' was an unfamiliar word, and so placed him in Nottinghamshire after Task 2. However, Task 2 made him place the Chesterfield younger female in Chesterfield, as he commented that the vocabulary she uses was 'close to Sheffield'. The only Sheffield respondent to place the older male in Chesterfield after Task 1 did so because he sounded 'farmer-ish'.

While the Chesterfield teens seem to correctly identify the South Derbyshire younger female speaker after Task 1 (3/8), she was also connected with Nottinghamshire (4/8). This carried on into Task 2, with the Chesterfield teens seeming largely to know that she is not from either Chesterfield or Sheffield. Only one teenage respondent from Chesterfield linked her to Chesterfield for Tasks 1 and 2. In contrast, she was claimed by some of the Sheffield respondents in Task 1 (3/8), but only one of the Sheffield respondents placed her there after Task 2. Instead she was largely connected with Chesterfield after Task 2 (5/8) by the Sheffield teens. SS_F2 placed her in Chesterfield after Task 1 because her accent sounded 'more northern', but less so than the first female speaker, who she had already correctly identified as being from Sheffield. The Sheffield respondents may have connected the South Derbyshire younger female with Sheffield because her voice was more 'northern' than they anticipated an East Midland voice to be. However, by Task 2 they were more certain that she was not from Sheffield, as SS_M3 wrote, 'cob, not Sheffield' (underlined). In contrast, hardly any of the Chesterfield teens connected her with Chesterfield as they mostly had already accurately identified the Chesterfield female. As for the South Derbyshire older male, the Chesterfield teen respondents were divided after Task 1 with two votes for each place. Yet, all Chesterfield teens incorrectly placed the South Derbyshire male in Chesterfield during Task 2, with most Sheffield teens doing similar after Task 2 (6/8). The older South Derbyshire male was placed in Chesterfield by SS_F2 because his accent sounded similar to Sheffield, but 'less strong, so I picked Chesterfield'. Four Sheffield teens correctly placed him in South Derbyshire after Task 1, and three thought he could be from Chesterfield.

As for the Nottinghamshire duo, they were both largely connected with South Derbyshire by both teenage groups, although the female was correctly placed by three of the Chesterfield

respondents after Task 1. Many Sheffield respondents seemed to deduct these speakers' location based on their knowledge of Sheffield and Chesterfield. SS_F1 placed the Nottinghamshire older male voice in South Derbyshire because his accent did not sound 'Yorkshire'. She confirmed that he was from South Derbyshire after Task 2 because of his use of 'jennel' and 'jitty' which indicated to her that he was from 'between Sheffield and Chesterfield', although her geography is incorrect if she thought South Derbyshire was between the two places. SS_F2 placed the male in South Derbyshire because his accent was similar to Sheffield and Chesterfield, and she believed that Nottinghamshire did not sound at all 'Yorkshire', so it 'must be Derby'. She agreed that 'genel' was from Sheffield, and 'jitty' from Chesterfield, so she felt that the older male must be from South Derbyshire as he used both. SS_F3 stated that the older male's accent was similar to Sheffield, but 'less strong' and so placed him in South Derbyshire. As an aside, this seemed to confirm to her that MS4, the Chesterfield male voice, was from Nottinghamshire, as his pronunciation was 'more accurate'. Interestingly, SS_F4 got all of the older male voices correct after Task 1. She placed the older male in Nottinghamshire as his accent was 'more East Midlands, almost a hint of Brum'[34]. As for the Nottinghamshire female, she was largely thought to be from South Derbyshire after Task 1 by Sheffield teens, but they were more torn after Task 2 with answers largely split between the three East Midland locations.

In summary, the Chesterfield teens correctly placed the Sheffield female and Chesterfield female by a large number after Task 1, and the older Sheffield male more convincingly after Task 2: In Task 1 they were torn between Chesterfield and Sheffield. They placed the Chesterfield male in Nottinghamshire, and South Derbyshire male in Chesterfield after Task 2. They placed the South Derbyshire female in the East Midlands, but not in Chesterfield. They placed the Nottinghamshire duo firmly in the East Midlands, but mostly thought South Derbyshire for the older male. The Sheffield teens were best at placing the Sheffield duo after Task 1. They placed both Chesterfield speakers in Nottinghamshire after Task 1, both South Derbyshire speakers ultimately in Chesterfield, and the Nottinghamshire male predominantly in South Derbyshire. They seemed certain that the Nottinghamshire female

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[34] 'Brum' refers to a Birmingham, or West Midland, accent.

was from South Derbyshire after Task 1, but less so after Task 2 where results were more divided between the East Midland locations. Some Sheffield respondents claimed the South Derbyshire female after Task 1, but they were certain she was not from Sheffield after Task 2. For the Chesterfield teens, proximity to where they live and travel seemed to help their correct answers, with them best at identifying those closer in age and distance. For the Sheffield teens, they were best at identifying those from Sheffield, irrespective of age.

To conclude, this section of results aimed to address Research Question 2 about how well Chesterfield locals can recognise nearby accents, and the cues which help them make their decisions. Six key results were outlined, which were: In both Tasks 1 and 2, the two Sheffield speakers were the most accurately identified duo by Chesterfield participants; In Task 1, the younger female speakers were more accurately identified than the older males by Chesterfield participants, with the exception of the South Derbyshire female; Task 2 did not significantly improve the accuracy of identification, but did significantly mislead the allocation of the South Derbyshire male; In Task 1, the South Derbyshire speakers, and Nottinghamshire male speaker, were not easily identified by Chesterfield participants; In Task 1, the Chesterfield male speaker was significantly misidentified as having a Nottinghamshire accent by Chesterfield participants; While only the Chesterfield teens could identify the Chesterfield female, both Chesterfield and Sheffield teenagers were able to identify the Sheffield male and female by a large proportion. The following section will discuss possible reasons for these results.

6.3. Discussion of Task 1 and 2 results

This section will discuss the possible reasons behind the six results outlined in the previous section. Four broad issues will be addressed in turn: Firstly, the design of the perception tests enabling a process of deduction that involved, what I term, a 'scale of northern-ness'; levels of famliarity with local accents; audience life experience and generation of the speaker and listener; and finally, linguistic cues.

The results for Perception Tasks 1 and 2 seem to have been informed by a process of deduction that was made possible by the nature of the test: The participants knew that the four older male speakers could only originate from four different locations, which was the same for the younger female group. In their dialect recognition research, Williams et al (1999) also had pairs of speakers from each location, albeit with seven pairs of young male speakers from seven speech communities and a majority teenage audience. However, my study's method of collecting data, with many respondents in a room for some of the data collection, and just one or two people for others, meant that the order of play of the recordings was not changed. This had the advantage of allowing greater comparison across the results, with the limitation that participants' deductive processes may consistently have affacted the results. For example, the last recording to be heard in Tasks 1 and 2 may be connected with the least familiar place by participants. In order to mitigate this potential downfall in the methodology, respondents' qualitative data was analysed to better comprehend why the respondents allocated each speaker to a particilar place, and whether it was more than simply convenience to connect the last speaker in each task with the least familiar location.

In the comments provided by respondents, there is evidence for the belief in, what I term, a 'scale of northern-ness'. I use this term to signify the general perception of a gradual move towards more RP-like speech the further south one is believed to travel not only in England, but also across the South Yorkshire and East Midland regions. This perception is more than the concept of 'bare proximity' put forward by Montgomery (2012). Montgomery stated that bare proximity is 'physical closeness' between locations, and the 'straightforward relationship between increased distances from locations leading to decreased information about them' (ibid: 639). He stated that bare proximity should result in home and neighbouring accents being more easily recognised than those further afield (ibid: 647), but that there are two key factors that may affect this. One is a barrier to home region accent recognition, which is the effect of borders or geographical barriers. Borders have the effect of distancing home accents, according to Montgomery (ibid: 662). In contrast, the effect of 'cultural prominence' of an area, where outlets such as the media increase the recognisability of a location, has the effect of making a further away accent more

recognisable, and therefore decreasing the effects of bare proximity. Montgomery (2012: 662) stated that:

> Such effects will of course not be the same for all respondents in all locations although a strong border/barrier effect will result in physically proximal areas being perceived in the same way as far away areas, and thus receiving lower recognition rates. The impact of proximity can also be changed via the relative cultural prominence of an area, be it stigmatised, well-regarded, or distant.

Therefore, whilst bare proximity, and familiarity with the the closest but also the most frequented places, may have an effect on dialect recognition in this sample, I put forward that 'the scale of northern-ness' is particularly involved in the deductive processes of the Chesterfield borderland audience, where the degree of northern-ness may have particular salience. The South of England has commonly been referred to as 'posh' when northern English respondents reside near to the disputed North/South border in England (Montgomery, 2012: 654). However, in both my study and Le Baigue's (2010) undergraduate dissertation, Chesterfield respondents gave the 'posh' label to a proximal location: South Derbyshire, which is within the same county as Chesterfield, and Nottinghamshire, which is a neighbouring county. This connects with Upton's (2012) theory that the East Midlands is a transition zone from northern to southern linguistic features. A scale of northern-ness was present in participant comments throughout the results section, along with anecdotal evidence from the background interviews (2015). For example, respondent MAF3 wrote in Task 1 that because the Nottinghamshire male's accent was similar to, but 'stronger' than, the correctly placed South Derbyshire male's, he must be from Chesterfield: In other words, further north, but not as north as Sheffield. This deduction resulted in an incorrect answer. MAF3 then placed the Chesterfield male in Nottinghamshire, possibly because this was the only option she had remaining due to uncertainty about Nottinghamshire accents. However, her comments suggest that the Chesterfield male's voice sounded too 'correct' to be from Chesterfield, and if Nottinghamshire was the last remaining option, this may have tied in to beliefs about a scale of northern-ness, where Nottinghamshire is the least known location, believed to be further south, and largely considered to be the most 'posh'. Other respondents commented that the Chesterfield male's 'clear pronunciation' meant that he

was probably from Nottinghamshire. The 'posh' stereotype connected with more southern areas of the East Midlands led to incorrect answers, where the empirical reality of an authentic accent did not align with the social stereotype (Boughton, 2006). This scale of northern-ness could be based purely on, incorrect, geography where more RP-like features are used gradually as you move south across the East Midland region. However, the scale of northern-ness used by Chesterfield respondents to place Sheffield and East Midland locations in relation to Chesterfield has parallels with Montgomery's (2012: 654) findings that those who live in areas close to northern/southern English borderland areas tend to place the North/South border further south than those who are more securely positioned in the North in a phenomenon he calls 'shifting'. In other words, in Montgomery's map tasks, those who lived in disputed territory, in the Midlands, tended to value a more northern status over southern. With the Chesterfield respondents, it seems that anyone who sounded remotely southern, or more RP, was distanced, and those who sound more northern, but not Yorkshire, were claimed.

Linking back to Montogomery's (2012) theory of barriers to local accent recognition, the historical barrier between Chesterfield and South Derbyshire/Nottingham due to the mining strikes of the 1980s may also have an effect on recognition rates. Pearce (2009: 189) states that animosity forms an important part of identity, with identity and language sharing a relationship. The ripples of animosity towards South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire displayed by Chesterfield mining families in the 1980s may still be felt today, although the source of ill feeling may now be unknown. There is a sense of distain towards these two locations at times in the data, which may underlie the 'posh' label: These locations are posh, different, and other, perhaps because they did not strike when Chesterfield and South Yorkshire miners, largely, did. This, along with their largely Conservative politics, could be another reason why 'posh' voices are largely connected with Nottinghamshire, because 'posh' is undesirable to the Chesterfield audience.

The perceived scale of northern-ness, based on gradual linguistic change and geography, is complicated by Nottingham being geographically further north than Derby (see Figure 6.15). The participants were not shown a map of the region until after the perception tests were complete. One possible explanation for the belief that Nottingham is the furthest city away

from Chesterfield is that it takes longer to get Nottingham than Derby by both car and train: Chesterfield to Nottingham by train is 38 minutes, and 42 minutes by car. Chesterfield to Derby is 20 minutes by train and 36 minutes by car. Montgomery (2012: 655, citing Cappelle, 2008: 135) suggests that 'distance travelled can commonly be conceptualised as time taken'. Added to which, a lack of cartographic knowledge may put Nottingham(shire) the furthest south. The scale of northern-ness would result in the (preconceived) most southerly location having more RP-like speech, or the fewest regionalisms.
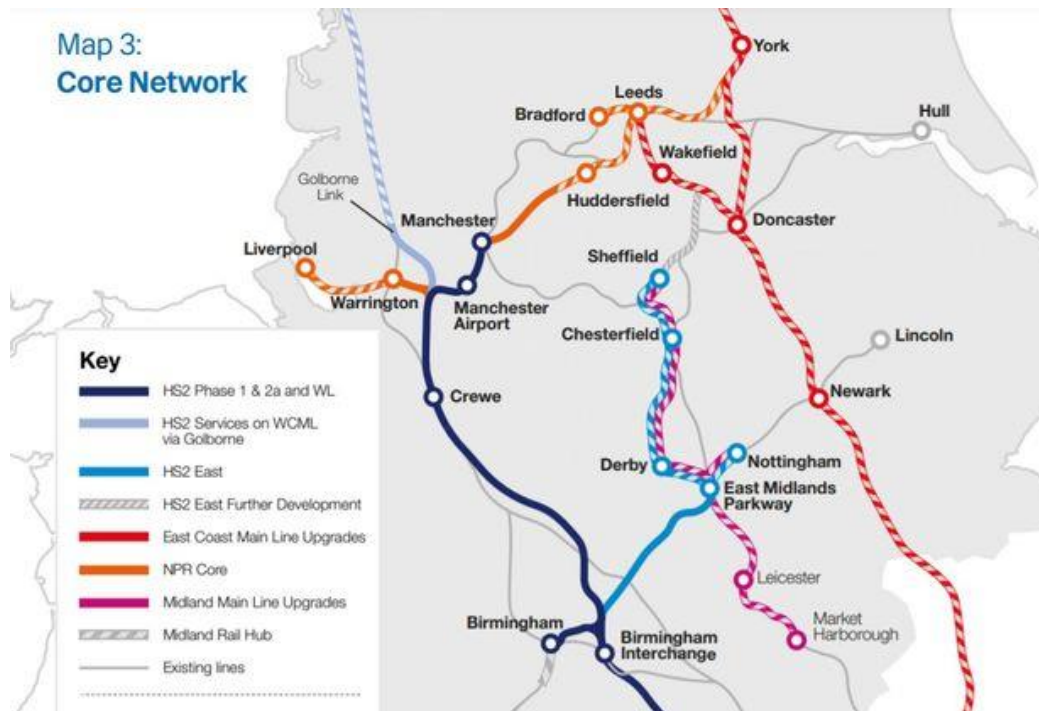
Figure 6.15: Map of the HS2 route. Taken from GoogleMap (2022a).

What does not seem to have been taken into account by the participants, however, is that the two Nottinghamshire speakers are from the county of Nottinghamshire, not only Nottingham city. Figure 6.16 shows that parts of Nottinghamshire are actually further north than Chesterfield, so by the logic of a scale of northern-ness, it would be quite likely that the Nottinghamshire duo have regionalisms in their speech. This could be evidence for a lack of knowledge relating to local geography, or more evidence to support the theory that 'posh' is a negative trait that would be connected with South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire due to animosity potentially rooted in the mining strikes of the 1980s rather than the reality of its location.
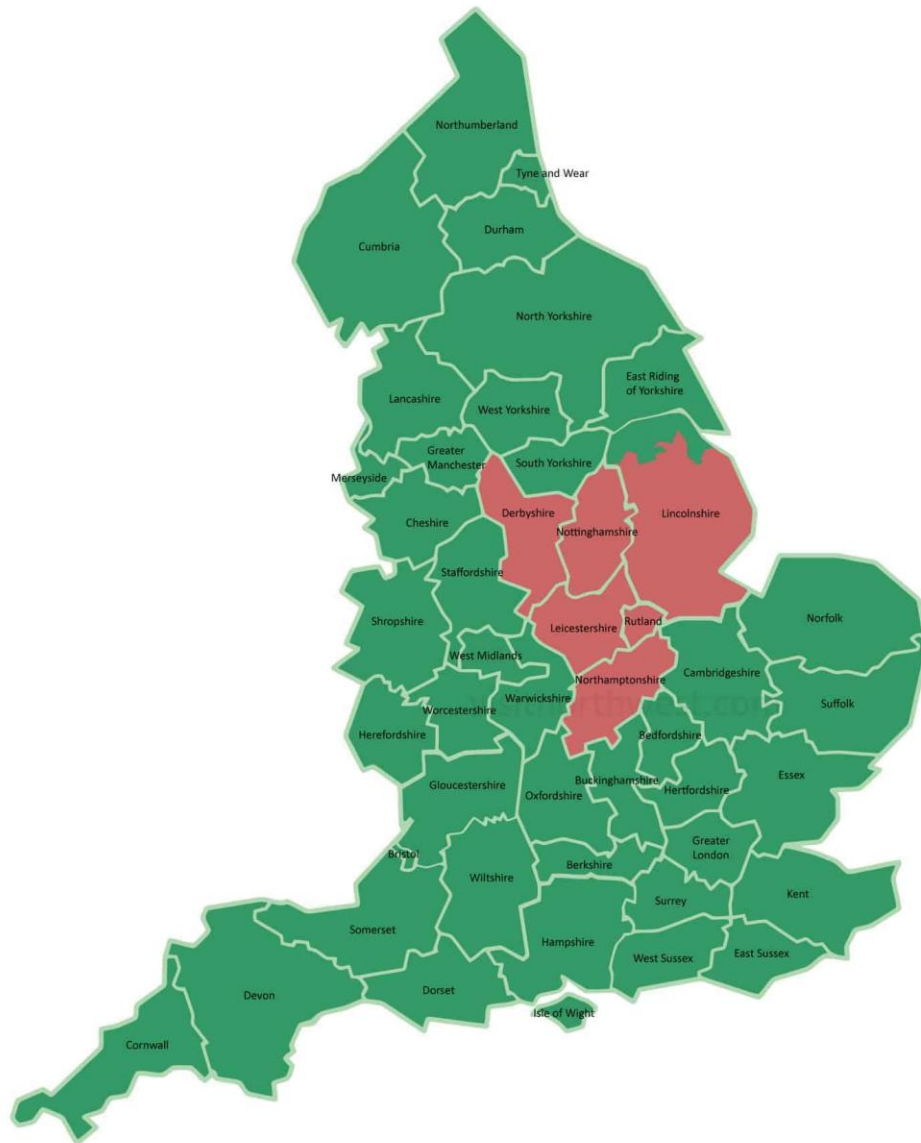
Figure 6.16: Map of the East Midlands. Taken from GoogleMap (2022b).

Lack of familiarity with Nottinghamshire and South Derbyshire may also have been a factor for lower recognition rates of the Nottinghamshire male, and South Derbyshire duo. While Table 4.1 suggests that Nottingham is the third most visited place by the 24 Chesterfield respondents, the quantity of people who said they visit the city for leisure pusuits is still only 20.8%. Even less is Derby, with 8% of respondents travelling there for shopping or nights out. And while 2/24 Chesterfield participants worked in Nottinghamshire, none of the participants worked in Derby (Table 4.2). So, where the Nottinghamshire female adheres to

the perception of RP-like Nottinghamshire, and is more correctly identified, it is possible that the Nottinghamshire male and South Derbyshire duo elude identification because of a lack of familiarity with these accents, and because they do not subscribe to participants' mental mapping. This tallies with Inoue (1999) who found that people form impressions of dialects without truly listening, and that stereotypes of places and people affect these impressions. This may also explain why the same cues were connected with different places by participants. However, a lack of familiarity with the Chesterfield male's accent is probably not a consideration for the Chesterfield respondents, unless one considers generational distance.

It is perhaps no coincidence that the middle age group are the best at identifying from where the eight speakers originate. Williams et al (1999) found that the teachers who took part in their tests were better at evaluating speaker origin than the teenage judges. This could be due to the greater life-experience of the teacher-judges, with greater knowledge of in-group speech-community norms (ibid: 352). Similarly, the middle group of Chesterfield judges from my study, with an average age of 40, are best able to identify the two age groups of speakers; the younger females with an average age of 23.5 and older males with an average age of 61.75. Perhaps middle age comes with greater awareness of linguistic norms within both older and younger generations. This would tally with the teenage group best able to identify the younger female speakers, and least able of the three age groups of listeners to accurately identify the older males. In other words, the teen group are least familiar with older voices and most familiar with younger voices due to their social circle. However, the same cannot be said for the oldest group of listeners who seem also to struggle to identify the older male speakers in Task 1. Where the teenage participants are best at identifying those close in age, the middle group best able to identify the younger and older speakers, the oldest group of respondents have the lowest overall recognition rate, which includes low identification scores for the older male speakers (25.8%) in the first task. Based on Figure 6.3, after Task 1, the recognition rates of the oldest age group were 31.2%, the middle age group 43.7%, and the teenagers 39%. However, the teenage result was greatly improved by their recognition rates for the younger females. It would seem that while generational distance from the speaker affected recognition rates for the teenage and

middle age groups, it was not the same for the oldest group. It is possible, therefore, that social network is a factor in dialect recognition (Milroy, 1987; Kerswill and Williams, 2002), with the oldest group of participants perhaps the least likely to socialise, even with the generation closest to them. As this was not a consideration of my study, this is a factor to consider in the future.

Age was a consideration of Hind's (2019) study. In comparison with Braber (2015) she found that her older, middle aged, participants' had greater affiliation with the Midlands' region, greater life experience, and sociolinguistic maturity, which she felt increased home town dialect recognition. She concluded that the lack of cultural prominence of Nottingham seemed only to affect teenagers, who were reluctant to claim Nottingham voices (Braber, 2015; 2016). In contrast, 48% of Hind's (2019) middle aged Nottingham participants claimed the Nottingham voice. Unlike her study, my Chesterfield teenage participants had the strongest Midlander identity of three age groups (see map task results, Chapter 5) and seemed to like the Chesterfield accent the most (see affective factor activity results, Chapter 4). Whilst this group claimed the younger female Chesterfield voice the most (with 75% recognition after Task 1), none of the three age groups convincingly claimed the older male Chesterfield voice.

Age of the speaker seems to have affected reconigtion rates, but it is unknown how far the gender of the speaker affected recogniton. For Task 1, the younger females are overwhelmingly more identifiable than older males. The younger females were correctly identified almost twice as many times as the older males in Task 1. However, how far the gender of the speaker also affected recognition rates is uncertain. Sociolinguistic research has shown that younger, middle-class, females are often the leaders of language change towards more standard speech (Trudgill, 1972; Watt, 2000), with older working-class males believed to retain features that typify local, traditional, dialects (Orton, 1962; Watt, 2000). This would suggest that the younger female speakers would have accents less distinct from one another, with the older males retaining features of local dialects that make them more distinct, but perhaps retaining linguistic features that are not as widely known. Moreover, sociolinguistic theory today recognises that there is more to an individual than gender, with recognition that the individual chooses to portray aspects of themselves whenever they

speak (see literature review, section 2.2). While Task 1, based on a script and formal reading, gives no opportunity for speakers to give lexical cues about their origins, they could still perform the script however they chose. Task 2 allowed for freer speech and local lexicon, which is perhaps why the recognition rates for the older males did marginally improve in Task 2 among the older two generations of respondents. However there is no change in the 19.3% recognition rate of older males for the Chesterfield teenage group, for whom traditional dialect lexis may be less known.

The most recognised older male speaker is from Sheffield. Where the Chesterfield participants did not recognise the older Chesterfield male, the Sheffield teenagers had stronger recognition rates for the older male from Sheffield (5/8 after Task 1) than the Chesterfield teens did for the Chesterfield male (1/8 for Task 1). This is particularly impressive given the greater ethnic mix among the Sheffield participants (see Table 3.8), who may not have had grandparents who originated from Sheffield, which might afford them fewer opportunities to be around older males. Although there were only eight teenage participants from Sheffield, and eight teenage participants from Chesterfield, these results hint at a difference in the recognition of older male voices from their home setting, with Sheffield teens achieving a slightly higher result. It might be that the Sheffield voice has more markers, and greater phonological difference from the other male speakers, or that the reality of the Chesterfield male's voice differed from the audience's expectations, or 'dialect image' (Inoue, 1999: 162). It may also be true that there is an element of phonological misrepresentation in the Chesterfield male's responses, which, however, Williams et al (1999: 353) would challenge when the voice is authentic. However, while the Chesterfield teens were better at allocating the older Sheffield male than the Chesterfield male, they only correctly identified the Sheffield older male 3/8 after Task 1, with 3/8 connecting him with Chesterfield. This confusion may be understandable given that the older Sheffield male was born and raised in the south of Sheffield, which is the region closest to Chesterfield, and possibly resulting in some phonological overlap (Widdowson 1992-93)[35]. Again, the scale of northern-ness would suggest that a more northern sounding voice would

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[35] In fact, the three remaining Sheffield teenagers also place the Sheffield male in Chesterfield.

be connected with Chesterfield by the participants. Also, the Chesterfield teenage audience may have found the Sheffield male's voice attractive because of its regionalisms, and wished to claim him as their own (Williams et al, 1999). Yet, as Le Baigue (2010) found in his research, Chesterfield respondents may wish to sound northern, but not necessarily Yorkshire, and definitely not 'posh'. This tallies with Task 2, when the South Derbyshire male's voice was claimed by the majority of Chesterfield participants, who may have recognised more local lexicon in his speech. With the Chesterfield male's voice sounding 'posh' to some respondents, he is rejected. The South Derbyshire male's more northern-sounding voice, but not Yorkshire, may well have made him more attractive to the audience than the actual Chesterfield male's, and he is therefore claimed by some for whom the reality of a Chesterfield voice does not match the image.

The high recognition rates for the Sheffield duo from all respondents may also be a consequence of Sheffield's greater 'cultural prominence' (Montgomery, 2012; 2016), where Sheffield has greater media exposure than the other dialects in this study. Although there may be phonetic similarity, the Sheffield voices may have linguistic markers that make them more distinct to a Chesterfield audience than the other accents, with the familiarity of Sheffield linguistic markers a result of greater exposure and actual linguistic difference. Montgomery (2012) notes that where there has been regional dialect levelling, local dialects may be less recognised (p647). It is possible that across the East Midlands, diffusion and/or levelling may have affected its distinctiveness, with Sheffield retaining more of their traditional elements. Chesterfield participants' better recognition of Sheffield voices than Sheffield recognition of Chesterfield voices also could be a consequence of the 'Proximity Effect' (Montgomery 2012; Evans et al 2022) where the smaller neighbour recognises the larger neighbour, but the larger neighbour does not reciprocate. The Sheffield teens recognised both Sheffield speakers, but struggled to recognise both Chesterfield speakers, thinking they were both from Nottinghamshire, while the Chesterfield participants recognised the Sheffield duo best of all. It is perhaps of note that the Sheffield teenagers placed both the Chesterfield male and female in Nottinghamshire, while the Chesterfield respondents also place the Chesterfield male there. In the mapping task, the eight Sheffield teen respondents grouped Sheffield and Chesterfield together in the North. The Chesterfield

respondents grouped Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the North or the Midlands. Something about the Chesterfield older male's voice is rejected by both the Chesterfield and Sheffield participants: It is possible that he does not sound northern enough to their ears to be claimed. While the Chesterfield female is very recognisable to the Chesterfield teenage group, and to some extent the other Chesterfield age groups, she is also placed further away geographically by the Sheffield teens. The Chesterfield respondents claim her because she sounds familiar, and mention her MOUTH vowel. However, there are fewer linguistic cues mentioned than for the Sheffield duo who are recognised primarily because of their FACE and GOAT vowels.

The Sheffield female's GOAT vowel was mentioned 15 times by the Chesterfield participants, in Task 1, connecting her with Sheffield. Her GOAT vowel was by far the most noted phonetic marker in both tasks by Chesterfield participants, which is perhaps why the Sheffield female was the most correctly allocated participant. Her FACE vowel was commented upon three times in Task 1 by Chesterfield participants. The Sheffield male's FACE and GOAT vowels were also noted, but to a lesser extent with some more general comments about him sounding 'Sheffield'. Where the MOUTH vowel seemed to suggest to some listeners that the South Derbyshire male was from Chesterfield, his use of dialect vocabulary seemed to confirm it: duck, jitty, cob. Prior to calculating the results I had made the assumption that local vocabulary and free speech would help respondents significantly. The pre-test activities indicated that Chesterfield people connected the dialect lexis 'cob' and 'jitty' particularly with Chesterfield (Table 4.3), and two respondents had even connected 'twitchel' with the town. Background interview results showed differences from, particularly, Sheffield dialect words. What I had not considered was that the Chesterfield male would not use these features of local lexis in his answers, and that would mislead the audience into believing that the South Derbyshire male must be from Chesterfield instead. It could be that there was a lack of awareness that words connected with Chesterfield extend throughout the county, and wider East Midlands. As seen in Table 4.1, most Chesterfield participants do not travel around the East Midlands for leisure, with Sheffield and Chesterfield being the preferred desintations. And while some of the older participants may know South Derbyshire through work, the teenagers do not. So when the South Derbyshire male's vocabulary choices

coincided with those of the Chesterfield respondents, they assumed he was from the town, particularly because the Chesterfield male had already been misallocated due to his more standard accent and his use of vocabulary diverging from their own expectations. However, this aside, Task 2 seems almost redundant, with formal speech in Task 1 affording similar results. Results from Task 1 show that Sheffield voices are significantly recognisabe to a Chesterfield audience based on accent alone and that 'breadcake' and 'love' are not needed to identify a Sheffield speaker. It may help, but the GOAT and FACE vowels are enough to suggest a Sheffield birthplace, and where the East Midland voices are largely more confused, the two Sheffield speakers stand out to the Chesterfield audience.

6.4. Conclusion

In summary, the complexities of dialect recognition seem to be heightened in the judge's home region, rather than simplified. Where there are fewer linguistic differences from the participant's own accent in dialect recognition tasks, participants' attitudes towards their home region become apparent.

This chapter identified six key findings, which began with the observation that the two Sheffield voices were the most recognised by both the Chesterfield and Sheffield judges alike. It was mooted that this is because their accent is more distinct from the other East Midland voices, with FACE and GOAT vowels contributing to this recognition among the Chesterfield judges.

The younger female speakers were more accurately identified than the older males by Chesterfield participants, with the exception of the South Derbyshire female. It was suggested that generational distance, and social network, may be the reason for this, rather than the gender of the speaker. The middle age group were the best at recognising both sets of speakers, and the oldest group of judges the worst, which might indicate that the older group had a smaller social network and relied on stereotypes of local accents more than other age groups because they potentially socialised less.

Task 2 did not significantly improve the accuracy of identification, but did significantly mislead the allocation of the South Derbyshire male. It was suggested that dialect vocabulary was not the main reason for dialect recognition, as the background interview (2015) had indicated. However, the similar dialect lexis used by the South Derbyshire male to the Chesterfield audience did mistakenly confirm to them that he was from Chesterfield.

In Task 1, the South Derbyshire speakers, and Nottinghamshire male speaker, were not easily identified by Chesterfield participants. It was suggested that this is due to lack of familiarity with these accents, and the perception that these accents are more 'posh' than Chesterfield and Sheffield. They are thought to be more 'standard' due to a belief in a scale of northern-ness extending across South Yorkshire and the East Midlands, i.e. accents become more standard the further south one is perceived to travel in these regions. This connects with Upton's (2012) theory of the East Midlands as a transition zone from northern to southern features of English, and Braber's (2016: 210) assertion that Nottingham falls close to several isoglosses that separate these two varieties, such as the short /a/ of BATH and the lack of a FOOT/STRUT split. This may show that Chesterfield people have really observed the transition across the region, but connected with this theory may be the animosity felt by some Chesterfield natives towards Nottinghamshire and South Derbyshire, which is denoted through the 'posh' and therefore 'other' labels.

In Task 1, the Chesterfield male speaker was significantly misidentified as having a Nottinghamshire accent by Chesterfield participants. His voice was not claimed because it did not tally with the Chesterfield audience's perception that a Chesterfield voice sounds more northern, and less posh, and was therefore attached to the least known and furthest away place. This was compounded by the South Derbyshire male's voice being played first, sounding familiar, and more northern to their ears, which was potentially more attractive to the audience.

Finally, while 75% of Chesterfield teens identified the Chesterfield female, both Chesterfield and Sheffield teenagers were able to identify the Sheffield male and female by a significant proportion. Chesterfield teens were potentially the most familiar of the three age groups

with Sheffield, and also with younger females from Chesterfield. Proximity, both in terms of geographical distance and generational distance, may be the reason.

In answer the research question 2, to what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions, there is clearly no simple response. Sheffield voices are recognised the most, more than the other East Midland voices including Chesterfield. However, the cues are more varied. The design of the perception tests enabled participants to deduce their answers, and may also have led to some incorrect results, particularly with the Chesterfield and South Derbyshire males. The Chesterfield male was misallocated partly because he was the last to be heard, and partly because his authentic voice did not match the general impression of Chesterfield voices having many northern phonetic markers, only just behind Sheffield using a 'scale of northern-ness'. A perceptual barrier between Chesterfield and South Derbyshire/Nottinghamshire may have led also to misallocation, where these voices are believed to be 'posh', which was a negative trait to the Chesterfield audience. However, where the Chesterfield female was not recognised by the Sheffield teens, who placed her with the Chesterfield male in Nottinghamshire, she was claimed by the Chesterfield audience, paticularly the teenagers: There was a familiarity to her voice that Chesterfield respondents found difficult to pinpoint, but this was strong enough for her to be claimed. The two Sheffield speakers were recognised because of familiarity with Sheffield speech, but perhaps also phonetic difference from the other voices in the sample, especially with the FACE and GOAT vowels. The younger females are recognised the most, perhaps due to their youth and the familiarity of the audience rather than their gender, along with the Nottinghamshire female voice adhering more to the general perception of Nottinghamshire having the fewest regionalisms. With few positive changes being made to answers in Task 2, it is possible that local lexicon is not needed to identify local speech.

7. Results and Discussion: The Word Lists

7.1. Introduction

This section addresses **Research Question 3: Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?** This section begins with a brief discussion of the mapping task results, which helps address the research question, before moving on to the dipDegree results, and analysis by gender, age and regional preference.

7.2. The participants' (northern or midland) identity

Table 7.1 summarises whether the participants would place Chesterfield and Sheffield in the North or in the Midlands: No participant placed them in the South. The Midland answers are highlighted in blue[36], where M indicates Midlands and N indicates North.

Table 7.1: Where respondents placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in the map task.

Name code	Chesterfield	Sheffield
ComSM1	M	N
ComSM2	M	M
ComSM3	N	N
ComSM4	M	N
ComSF1	M	M
ComSF2	M	M
ComSF3	M	M
ComSF4	M	M
MAM1	M	M
MAM2	M	N
MAM3	N	N

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[36] Only 25 of the 28 Chesterfield participants consented to read out the word list, with only seven of the eight Sheffield teenagers taking part.

MAM4	M	M
MAF1	N	N
MAF2	M	M
MAF3	Word list not done	Word list not done
MAF4	M	M
OAM1	N	N
OAM2	N	N
OAM3	M	N
OAM4	Word list not done	Word list not done
OAF1	N	N
OAF2	M	N
OAF3	M	N
OAF4	Word list not done	Word list not done
SS_M1	Word list not done	Word list not done
SS_M2	M	M
SS_M3	N	N
SS_M4	N	N
SS_F1	N	N
SS_F2	N	N
SS_F3	N	N
SS_F4	N	N

7.3. dipDegree Results

Burland-Gibson (2019: 108) found that the FACE and GOAT diphthongs in her sample had a 'normalised *S* Transform dipDegree Value' of above *S* 0.25. Monophthongs were found below *S* 0.25. While I am aware that results close to this value are questionable, with the vowels moving gradually from less diphthongal to more monophthongal (Dann, personal correspondence), I will be using *S* 0.25 as a benchmark. Firstly, this section will address the Chesterfield participants who placed Sheffield and Chesterfield in separate regions before looking at gender, the three age groups of speakers, and lastly whether there is a

relationship between the regional placement of Chesterfield in the north-midland-south mapping task, and the diphthongal or monophthongal realisation of respondent FACE and GOAT vowels.

The six Chesterfield participants who placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in separate regions all positioned Chesterfield in the Midlands and Sheffield in the North, with their dipDegree Values presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: FACE and GOAT averages for Chesterfield participants who placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in separate regions /21.

Participant	FACE average (*S*)	GOAT average (*S*)
ComSM1	0.28	0.24
ComSM4	0.14	0.26
MAM2	0.35	0.25
OAM3	0.18	0.41
OAF2	0.93	0.60
OAF3	0.49	0.47
Mean average /6	0.395	0.371
Mean average /21	0.419	0.360

Table 7.2 shows that the FACE and GOAT vowels for the Chesterfield particiants who placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in separate regions were variable, with the results highlighted in yellow *S* 0.25 and below, and therefore more monophthongal. Of the six Chesterfield participants who placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in separate regions, the older females tended to have the most diphthonghal vowels. However, taken on average for the six participants, both the FACE and GOAT vowels are diphthongal. The mean average for the 21 Chesterfield participants have similarly diphthongal values for both vowels.

Next, looking at the FACE and GOAT vowels by gender. Figure 7.1 indicates that Chesterfield women use more diphthongal forms of both vowels than the males, who are at times in the monophthongal range. This is also true of the Sheffield teenage participants with the mean average for males around 0.27 (*S*) for both vowels, close to the monophthongal range, and

around 0.32 (*S*) for females. This pattern is similar for the Chesterfield teens with the males in the 0.23 (*S*), monophthongal, range for FACE, and females in the 0.40 (*S*) range[37]. However, gender was not found to be a significant predictor of diphthongal realisation in either vowel.
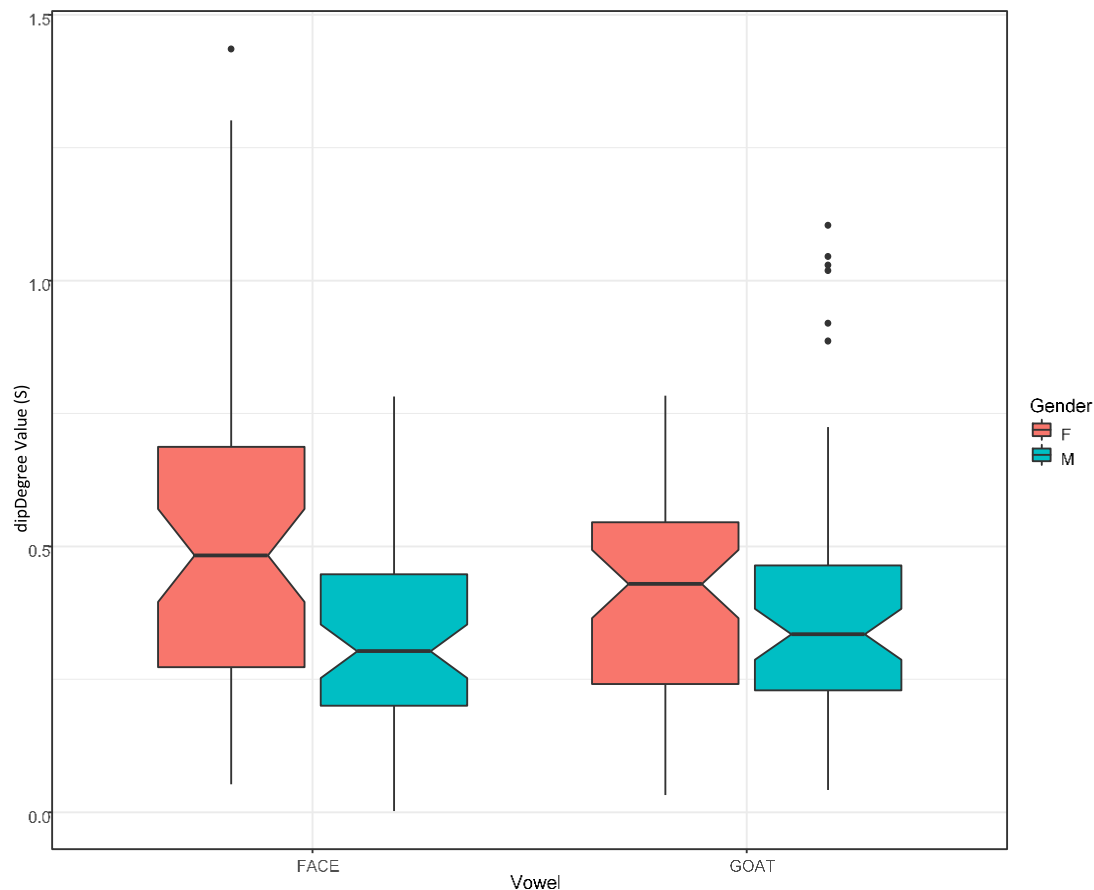
Figure 7.1: Box plot of the median FACE and GOAT vowels for all Chesterfield participants by gender (*S*).

Examining the FACE and GOAT vowels for all participants by age suggests a pattern. Figure 7.2 is a box plot, which shows the median results by age group. The results for FACE and GOAT both follow the same trend, where the middle age participants use the most diphthongal forms, followed by the older age group, with the Chesterfield teens the least

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[37] The gap is reduced for GOAT among Chesterfield teens, but the males are still more monophthongal and females more diphthongal.

dipthongal with the lower quartile in the monophthongal range. The Sheffield teenagers are slightly more diphthongal than the Chesterfield teens, yet also within the monophthongal range.
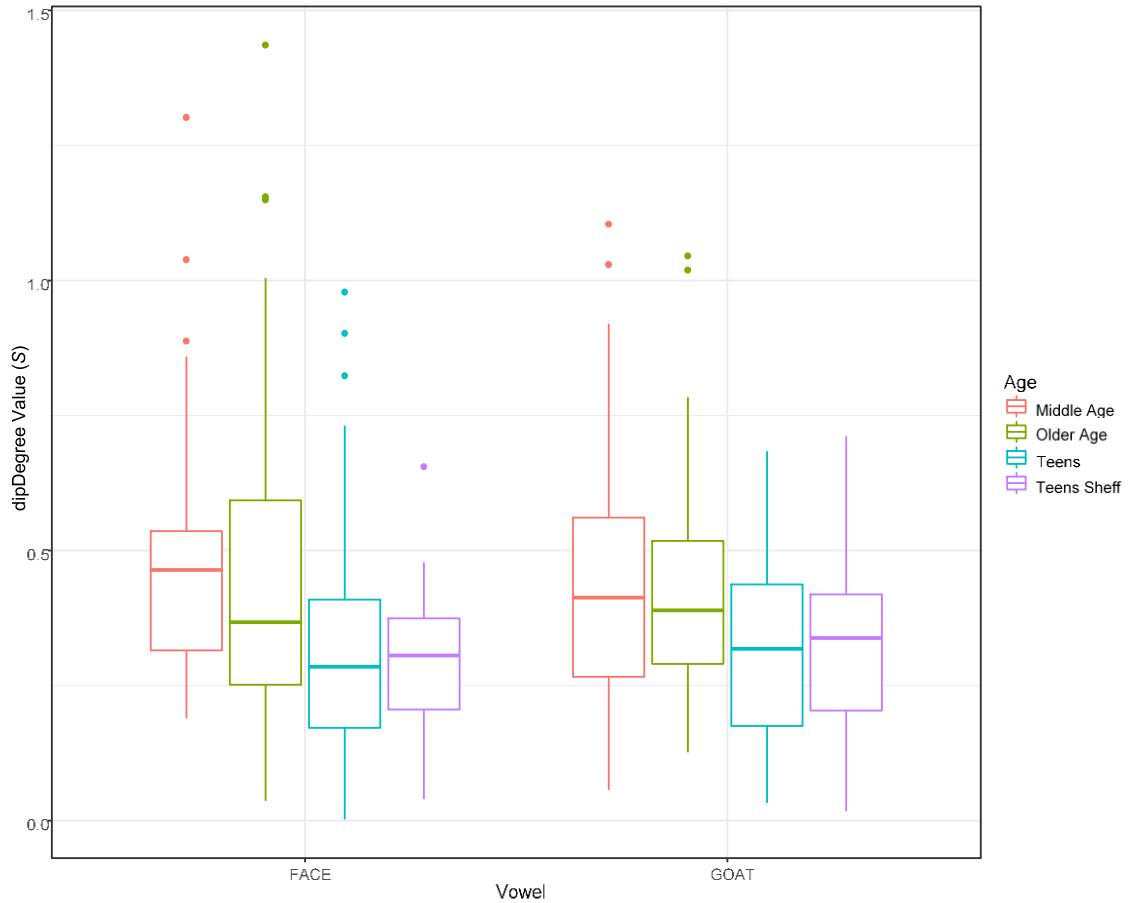
Figure 7.2: Box plot of the median FACE and GOAT vowels by age (*S*).

After conducting chi-squared tests of association in Jamovi, diphthongal forms of the FACE vowel were shown to be significant by age (Figure 7.3) for the Chesterfield participants, which is not true of GOAT with a p-value of 0.226. Figure 7.3 shows the percentage of the frequency of monophthongal FACE by age, while figure 7.4 shows the percentage of the frequency of diphthongal FACE by age.

Frequency and percentage of monophthongal FACE by age

	Older Age	Middle Age	Teens
Percentage	29%	4%	67%
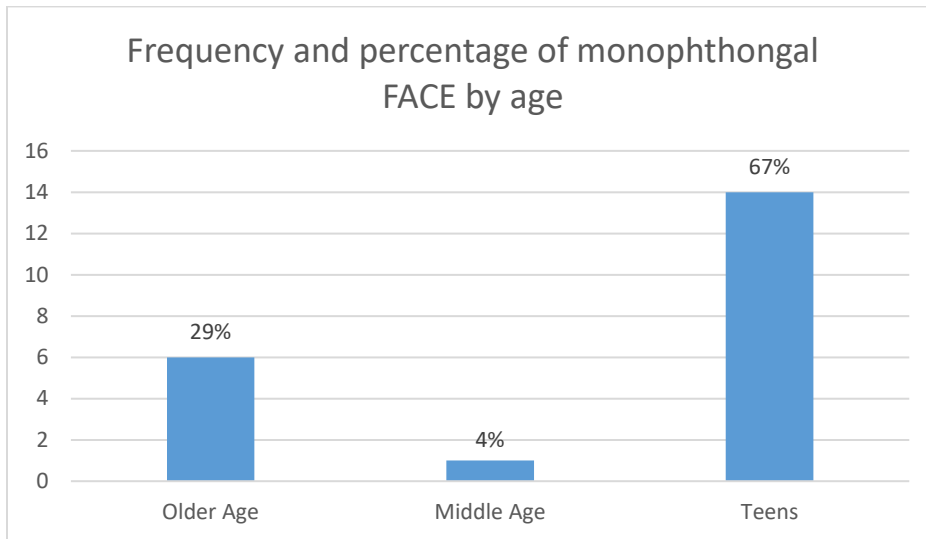
χ² Tests

	Value	df	p
χ² continuity correction	12.9	2	0.002
N	84		

Figure 7.3: Frequency and percentage of monophthongal FACE by age for all Chesterfield participants.

Frequency and percentage of diphthongal FACE by age

	Older Age	Middle Age	Teens
Percentage	28.5%	43%	28.5%
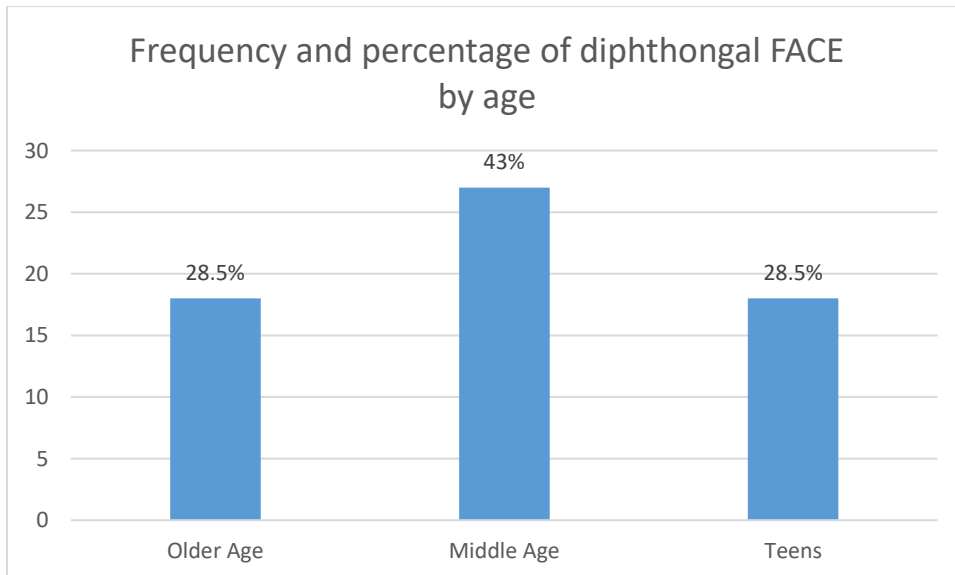
Figure 7.4: Frequency and percentage of diphthongal FACE by age for all Chesterfield participants.

Figure 7.4 shows a convex trajectory of diphthongal FACE, which is explained further in the word list discussion section. For both Figures 7.3 and 7.4, the higher the percentage, the more monophthongal or diphthongal the result. The percentages were based on the contingency table presented in Appendix 11.5.

Next, where Chesterfield participants placed Chesterfield in terms of the North or Midlands, and how it correlates with their performance of FACE and GOAT, will be addressed. Figure 7.5 shows that for both FACE and GOAT, the vowels tended to be more diphthongal when the participant placed Chesterfield in the North. For GOAT, the lower quartile is in the monophthongal range for those who placed Chesterfield in the Midlands. However, chi-squared tests of association show that regional preference was not a significant factor in the production of diphthongs.
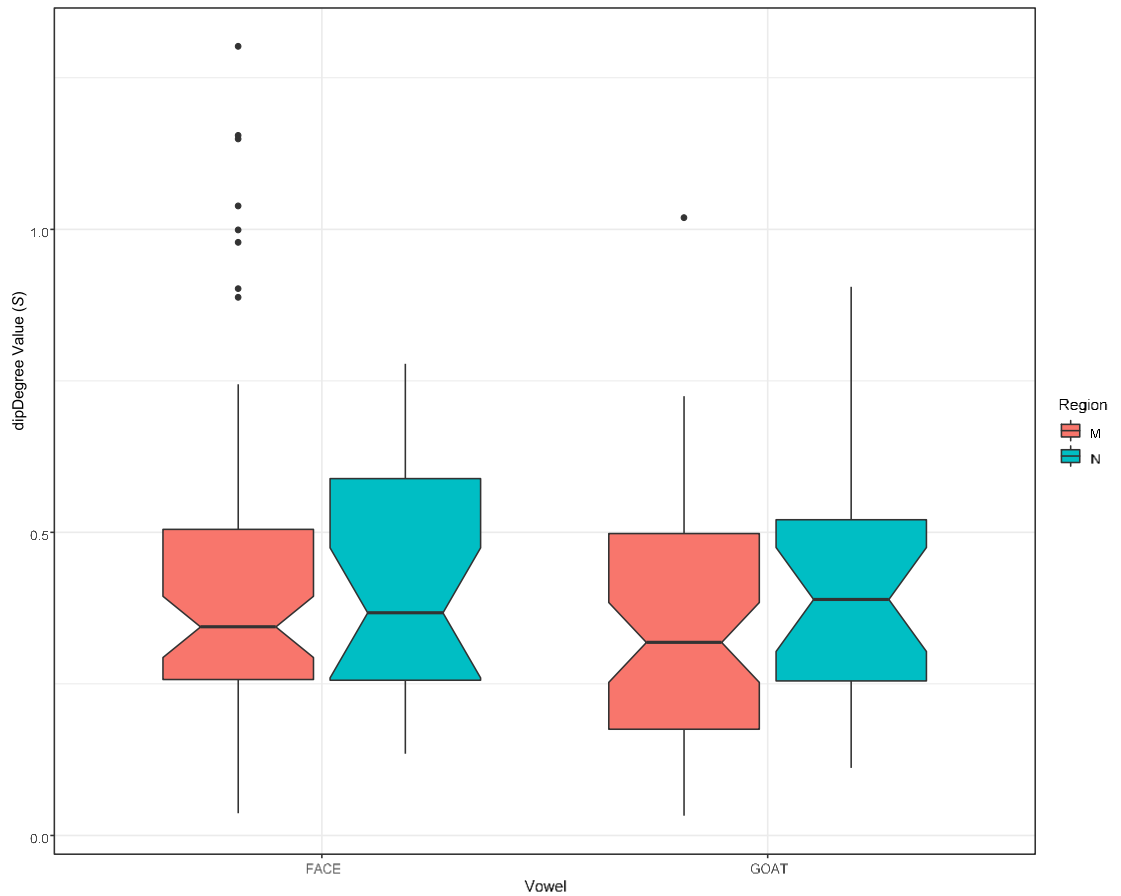
Figure 7.5: Box plot of the median FACE and GOAT vowels for all Chesterfield participants by region (*S*).

Percentage of FACE by regional preference: Midland

Monophthong 25%

Diphthong 75%

Percentage of FACE by regional preference: North

Monophthong 25%
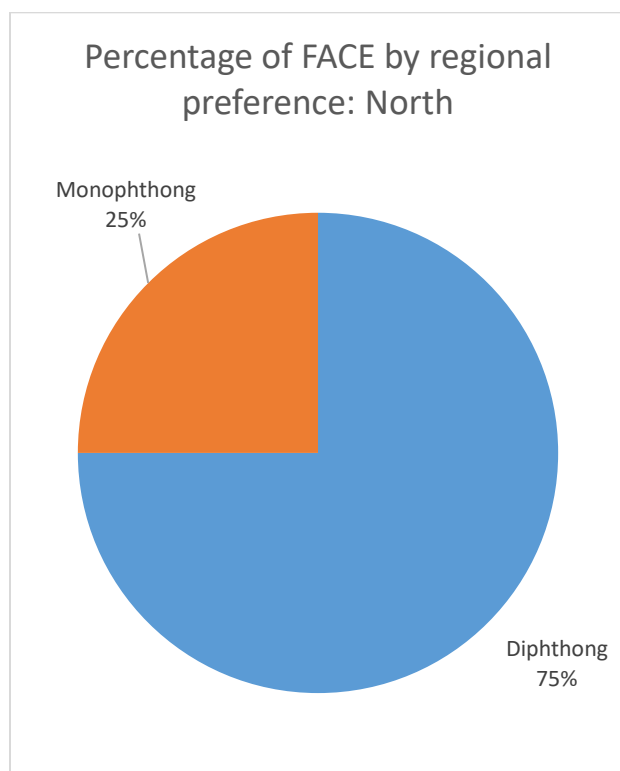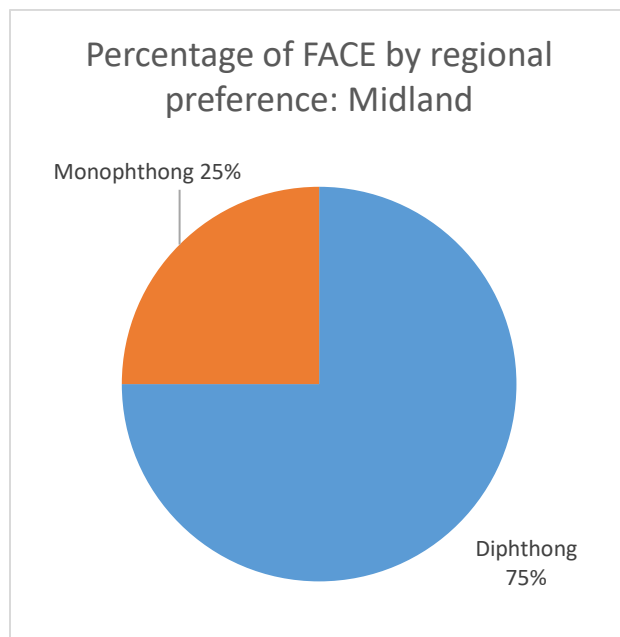
Diphthong 75%

Figure 7.6: Pie charts to show the percentage of the monophthongal and diphthongal realisations of FACE by regional preference among Chesterfield participants.

Although Chesterfield was mostly placed in the Midlands by the Chesterfield participants (71%), Figure 7.6 shows the percentage of Chesterfield participants using monophthongal and diphthongal forms of FACE were exactly the same whether they positioned Chesterfield in the Midlands or the North. In other words, of all the FACE tokens produced by those Chesterfield participants who placed Chesterfield in the Midlands or the North, Figure 7.6 shows that 75% are diphthongal. Of the remaining number of monophthongal tokens by those who placed Chesterfield in the Midlands, 73% are by Chesterfield teenagers. As for those who positioned Chesterfield in the North, 50% of the monophthongal realisations are by teens.

For GOAT, the results are similar for the North, but different for the Midlands (see Figure 7.7).

Percentage of GOAT by regional preference: Midland

Monophthong
45%

Diphthong
55%

Percentage of GOAT by regional preference: North

- Monophthong 25%
- Diphthong 75%
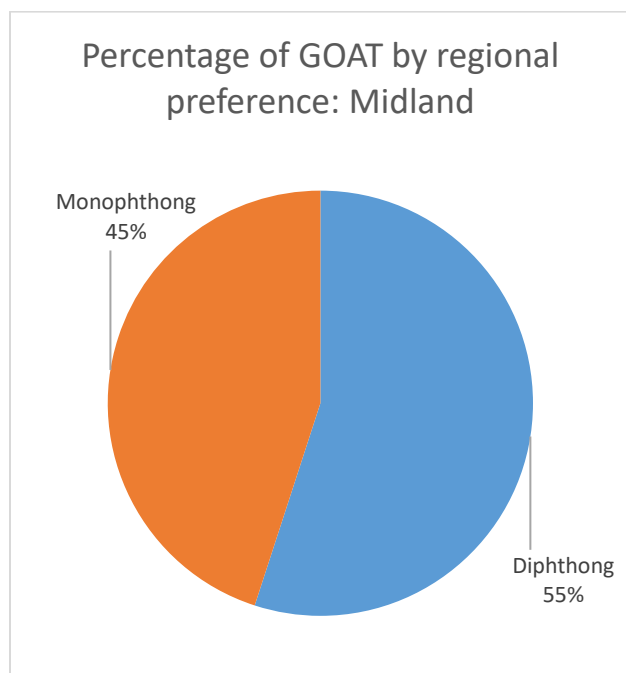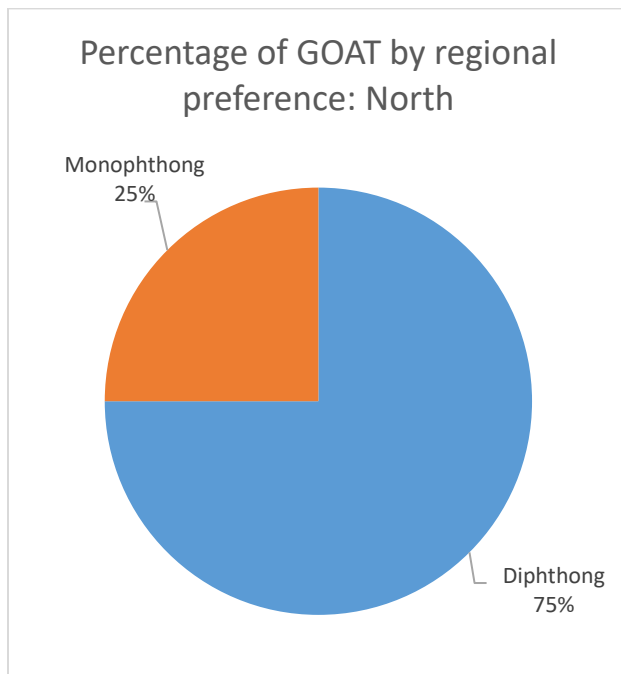
Figure 7.7: Pie charts to show the percentage of the monophthongal and diphthongal realisations of GOAT by regional preference among Chesterfield participants.

Of all the monophthongal tokens produced for GOAT by those who placed Chesterfield in the Midlands, 51% are by teens. As for those who placed it in the North, 42% of the total monophthongs are by teenagers.

To explore the connection between monophthongal FACE and age further, and offer further insight into whether regional preference and age might determine monophthongal or diphthongal FACE, a logistic regression model was used in the R statistical programme (R Core Team, 2013). A logistic regression model is similar to a linear regression model, but instead of predicting the value of the dependent variable, it can calculate the probability of an event occurring. For my sample, the dependent variable is diphthongal realisation, with a binary yes or no outcome. The logistic regression model found that teens were significant in predicting diphthongal usage (p-value of 0.04 once the odds ratio had been calculated): They were significantly less likely to use diphthongs than the baseline. However, as the numbers of observations were low in some categories, I merged the middle and older groups together and carried out the tests again. Doing this produced a not significant p-value of 0.16. It is possible that the borderline significant result when the three age groups are analysed

separately is caused by unusual observations for a small subgroup: The middle age group did not produce enough monophthongal tokens of FACE. A follow-up investigation with greater numbers would be needed to explore this further, as discussed in the Conclusion (Chapter 9). Finally, there were no indicators of significance by region, gender, or social class for FACE or GOAT after the odds ratio had been calculated (see Table 7.3). Social class was not a major part of my study, but I did ask participants to self-identify in the questionnaire (see Chapter 4). Some chose not to, while others put vague responses such as 'working/middle class'. In this instance, I looked to where the participant lived and home ownership to help select working or middle class, as teenage parental occupation was not disclosed.

Table 7.3: Probability of age, region and gender in determining diphthongal realisation of FACE and GOAT in the Chesterfield sample.

	FACE (p-value)	GOAT (p-value)
Age Teen	0.04	0.45
Regional preference	0.39	0.71
Gender	0.31	0.41
Social class	0.37	0.35

Finally, despite the historical evidence of the more monophthongal realisation of the 'make' and 'go' tokens in Chesterfield (see Chesterfield Museum Tapes in the Methodology Chapter, section 3.3.1), Figure 7.8 shows evidence to the contrary for this more recent data set. Figure 7.8 shows the mean average dipDegree values for all Chesterfield participants by token. The results suggest that only 'note' is near monophthongal, close to the 0.25 (S) value, which is suggestive of monophthongal realisation (Burland-Gibson, 2019).
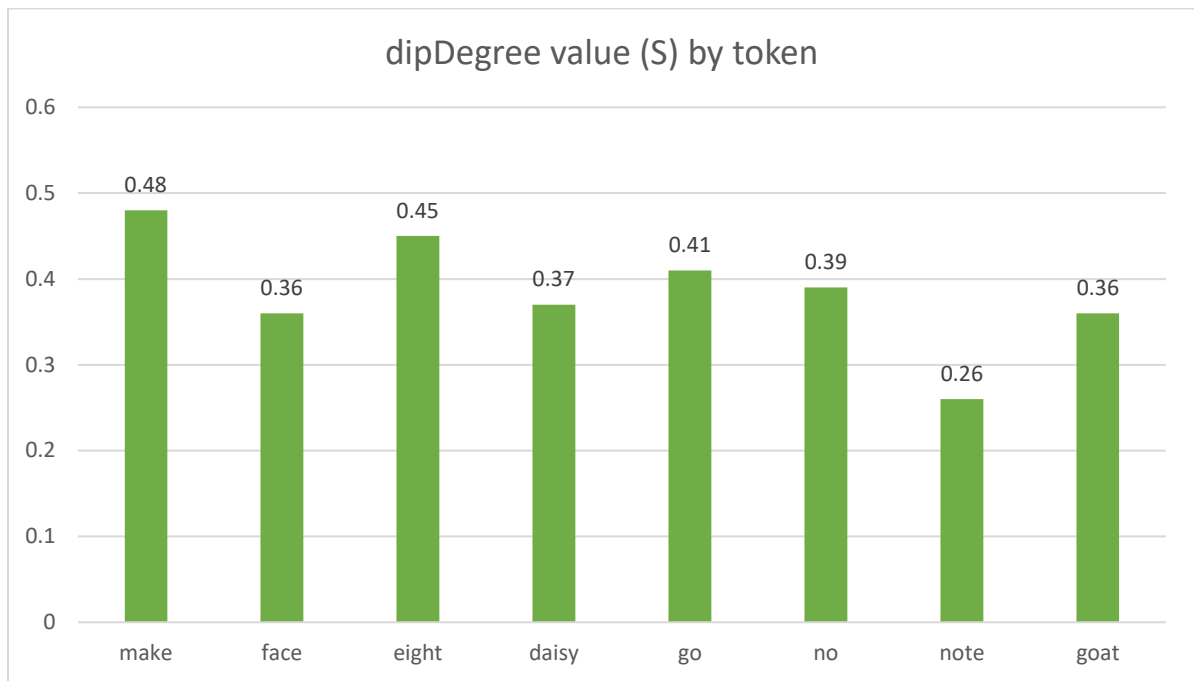
Figure 7.8: Bar chart to show the mean average dipDegree value for all Chesterfield participants by token (*S*).

Taking the mean average dipDegree Values by age group, including the Sheffield teenage group, expands upon this finding (Table 7.4).

Table 7.4: Mean average dipDegree Values for FACE and GOAT by age group and token (*S*).

Token	Sheffield teens (*S*)	Chesterfield teens (*S*)	Chesterfield middle group (*S*)	Chesterfield older group (*S*)
Make	0.24	0.50	0.48	0.46
Face	0.28	0.23	0.48	0.41
Eight	0.45	0.31	0.52	0.55
Daisy	0.20	0.22	0.52	0.38
Mean average FACE	0.29	0.31	0.50	0.45
Go	0.27	0.38	0.45	0.40
No	0.40	0.29	0.46	0.45
Note	0.24	0.25	0.24	0.31
Goat	0.30	0.28	0.33	0.49
Mean average GOAT	0.30	0.30	0.37	0.41

The more monophthongal variants of FACE and GOAT have been found to have an *S*-transform value of 0.25 or below (Burland-Gibson, 2019), highlighted in yellow in Table 7.4. These findings suggests that 'make', 'daisy' and 'note' produce more monophthongal realisations among the Sheffield teens. For Chesterfield teens, 'make' is the least monophthongal FACE token, with 'face', 'daisy' and 'note' producing the most monophthongal sounds, on average. The middle group produce one monophthongal token, on average, which is also 'note', with the oldest group not producing any monophthongal tokens, when looking at the mean averages.

To conclude, the results of the word list data aimed to address whether FACE and GOAT were more or less diphthongal based on the participants' regional identity, where results below the dipDegree Value of *S* 0.25 are more monophthongal and those above more diphthongal. The mean averages of both FACE and GOAT for all 21 participants position both vowels in the Chesterfield sample as diphthongal, and this was largely the same for the six participants who placed Sheffield and Chesterfield in separate regions. However, those who placed Chesterfield in the North had, on average, more diphthongal vowels than those who placed Chesterfield in the Midlands, especially for GOAT. This result was unexpected, and perhaps was more due to the age of the participants than their regional preference: Teenagers had the least diphthongal FACE and GOAT, slightly more monophthongal than the Sheffield teens when the median average is considered, and they tended to place Chesterfield in the Midlands. Furthermore, there was no significant correlation between vowel realisation and regional preference, with age a greater predictor of diphthongal realisation than regional alignment. Age was potentially a significant predictor of diphthongal or monophthongal realisation of the FACE vowel, and was the only potentially significant factor in the sample.

7.4. Discussion of the word list results

This section aimed to answer Research **Question 3: Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?**

Using data from the mapping task, along with word list data for FACE and GOAT, this section concluded that both FACE and GOAT are, on average, diphthongal among the Chesterfield participants with age, and not regional identity, the only potentially significant factor in the production of monophthongal or diphthongal FACE. There was not found to be a significant predictor of diphthongal production for the GOAT vowel among Chesterfield participants.

For FACE, the middle age group of Chesterfield participants used the most diphthongal forms, followed by the older age group and lastly the teenage group. Burland-Gibson (2019: 206-211) refers to this as a 'convex apparent time trajectory' and found this pattern in her own results from West Yorkshire, suggesting this trajectory may be a result of 'age grading', where 'due to the social pressures associated with this life stage, socially prestigious variables are favoured'. She references Tagliamonte (2012: 47) who stated that the use of prestigious forms of English peaks between the ages of 30 and 55 when there is pressure to conform to more standard forms (Burland-Gibson, 2019: 201). If diphthongal FACE follows a convex trajectory, my results show a concave trajectory for monophthongal FACE, where the middle group use the fewest monophthongal forms. However, while my results may suggest a possible shift towards monophthongal FACE in Chesterfield over apparent time, it is problematic to conclude that there is a more permanent shift towards monophthongal forms rather than a more temporary display of cross-border allegiance among Chesterfield teenagers, who tended to place Sheffield and Chesterfield together in the mapping task, albeit in the Midlands rather than the North. This finding counters the hypothesis that a Midlander identity would produce more diphthongal forms of the two vowel sounds, and does indicate that age rather than regional preference is more significant in the diphthongal production of the FACE vowel. This is supported by field notes taken during the tests themselves where teenagers seemed confused about their regional identity, using facts such as the name of their local football team to help them make a decision, hinting at evidence-based decision making rather than ideology about their regional identity. For GOAT, the use of monophthongs rises steadily over time, but not significantly: Diphthongal GOAT remains more consistent in the Chesterfield sample than FACE.

The results for FACE especially differ from the most recent findings by Braber and Robinson (2018) who found little evidence of monophthongal FACE or GOAT in the north of the East

Midlands, although they did explain that monophthongal forms were found here by the Survey of English Dialects (SED) in the middle of the twentieth century (see Literature Review, Chapter 2), and the Chesterfield Museum interviews record monophthongal variants of certain FACE and GOAT tokens. My results could therefore either show a (temporary) display of allegiance with Sheffield, or the more stable use of more monophthongal forms of the two vowels over time. Given that some of the older age groups also used monophthongal forms, and that monophthongal forms were noted in this region in the SED (Braber and Robinson, 2018), it is unlikely that regional dialect levelling has resulted in the increase in FACE monophthongs across the three age groups, where monophthongal forms would be thought to be diffusing from the north. Should the notion that monophthongal FACE has existed in Chesterfield across the generations be accepted, there would be an anomaly in the middle group caused perhaps by age grading, or simply because this is a reading task: The use of diphthongs is more usual in reading, which Watt (2002) also found in his data, particularly among middle class females. There is a consciousness when reading out a list of words that is problematic in determining change in apparent time (Pope et al, 2007: 623), with the more likely result that monophthongal usage has remained more or less steady across these three generations of Chesterfield speakers. While it must not be forgotten that FACE and GOAT in the Chesterfield sample were still largely diphthongal (see Table 7.5), the finding that there are monophthongal variants of FACE and GOAT to be found in the north of the East Midlands, especially amongst the youngest generation, is a new finding and one that adds to the literature about East Midlands' English.

Finally, the display of monophthongal FACE, and to an extent, GOAT, particularly among teenagers is of interest, because this is how the Chesterfield participants chose to present themselves on that day. The 21 Chesterfield, and seven Sheffield, participants could be considered to be performing their identity (Beal and Cooper, 2015) when reading out this list of words. They were asked to read them after the completion of the dialect recognition and mapping tasks, where the differences between Sheffield and Chesterfield FACE and GOAT were noted by some participants. This may have increased the awareness of the regional production of these vowel sounds, and for those who wished to emphasise their affinity with Sheffield and Yorkshire, it may have prompted them to display the monophthongal variants

which, whilst within their own repertoire, are still emblematic of the North (Haddican et al, 2013). It is of note, however, that 'make' was on average the token that was the most diphthongal among the Chesterfield teens, and this is also the token of FACE that has been found to traditionally be monophthongal in Chesterfield (Chapter 3, Chesterfield Museum tapes). It is possible the Chesterfield teens were avoiding old fashioned forms connected with their home town. This finding might be similar to Watt and Tillotson's (2001:273) research that found incoming GOAT-fronting was being used by younger speakers in Bradford because, although it is still indexical of the North, it differs from more traditional forms that were locally stigmatised and considered to be out-dated. This finding requires further exploration in future research.

Even though monophthongal variants of FACE seem to have long existed in Chesterfield, it is arguable that monophthongal FACE and GOAT are a 'shibboleth' of the North (Haddican et al, 2013: 373), with many of the Chesterfield participants themselves identifying the Sheffield speakers in the perception tasks because of their monophthongal realisations of these two vowel sounds. Yet, despite the Chesterfield teens largely placing Chesterfield in the Midlands, they put Sheffield right there with them, and potentially displayed their solidarity by using this linguistic marker that is more commonly associated with Sheffield, but that has long existed within their own variety. As further evidence, one Chesterfield participant in my background interviews (2015) did comment upon his connection with Sheffield, where he felt that Sheffield is the same as Chesterfield, just "more northern", and that he felt an affinity with Sheffield that he did not feel with the anywhere else in Yorkshire. Therefore, especially for the Chesterfield teenagers who know Sheffield well (see Table 4.1), the differences that older generations may feel towards those across the border may be more attractive to the younger generation because of Sheffield's cultural prominence (Montgomery, 2016) making it more attractive than East Midland cities such as Derby and Nottingham. Le Baigue (2010: 1) also found that his Chesterfield participants, albeit 'begrudgingly', stated that Chesterfield was more similar to Sheffield than Derby, because Derby was considered to be 'posh'. However, when choosing an identity label, his participants chose 'Derbyshire' rather than Yorkshire, which has parallels with the teenagers in my study choosing 'Midlands' over 'North', with the negativity towards being 'posh'

connected with the dialect recognition results where the Chesterfield male was rejected because he sounded too 'posh'. This may also have connections with Chesterfield's political identity: Where Chesterfield and Sheffield are largely Labour, the remainder of the East Midlands is largely Conservative. In other words, the political affinity many Chesterfield people share with Sheffield, and desire not to be considered 'posh' with connotations perhaps of the Conservative Party, may influence their perceptions and production of local accents and dialects.

Table 7.5: Where Chesterfield speakers placed Chesterfield and Sheffield in the map task and average FACE and GOAT.

Name code	Chesterfield	Sheffield	Average FACE (S)	Average GOAT (S)
ComSM1	M	N	0.28	0.24
ComSM2	M	M	0.27	0.21
ComSM3	N	N	0.22	0.38
ComSM4	M	N	0.14	0.26
ComSF1	M	M	0.43	0.36
ComSF2	M	M	0.27	0.30
ComSF3	M	M	0.42	0.39
ComSF4	M	M	0.50	0.26
MAM1	M	M	0.38	0.37
MAM2	M	N	0.35	0.25
MAM3	N	N	0.62	0.46
MAM4	M	M	0.39	0.35
MAF1	N	N	0.52	0.57
MAF2	M	M	0.89	0.19
MAF3	Word list not done			
MAF4	M	M	0.32	0.39
OAM1	N	N	0.53	0.34
OAM2	N	N	0.22	0.31
OAM3	M	N	0.18	0.41
OAM4	Word list not done			
OAF1	N	N	0.33	0.36
OAF2	M	N	0.93	0.60
OAF3	M	N	0.49	0.47
OAF4	Word list not done			

7.5. Conclusion

In conclusion, regional identity was not found to be significant in the production of FACE or GOAT, but age may be significant in the production of FACE: Chesterfield teens produced more monophthongal variants on average than the two older Chesterfield age groups, but similar to the Sheffield teens. This might indicate that there is a move towards more monophthongal forms of FACE in Chesterfield over apparent time, but further research would need to be made with greater numbers of participants, more tokens, and a variety of formal and informal contexts. However, it seems possible that monophthongal variants of FACE have long existed in Chesterfield, despite them now being emblematic of the North and Yorkshire. In that regard, and despite Chesterfield being largely placed in the Midlands by Chesterfield teens, their monophthongal realisation of FACE does not run counter to that, instead reinforcing their affinity with Sheffield, and the North more generally, while using variants still within their own repertoire.

8. Case studies

8.1. Introduction

This chapter examines how the three strands of my research - identity seen through the mapping and warm-up tasks, local dialect recognition, and FACE/GOAT linguistic production - are connected by focusing more closely on three of the Chesterfield participants: Firstly a male from the teenage group, then a female from the middle age group, and lastly a male from the older age group.

8.2. Case Study 1

The first participant is ComSM3, a teenage male from Chesterfield. I visited three secondary schools in Chesterfield to collect data, but only used data from the 'community school' for this study. I do have perception test results and word list data from the other two schools I visited, which could potentially be used in future research, but I did not use the results in this thesis because I wanted as much parity as possible between participant numbers. 'ComSM3' means 'community school male number 3'. At the time of the test, ComSM3 was aged 16-18, and an AS level student at a secondary school in Chesterfield that I visited twice to collect data. He was studying AS level English language and had an awareness of language attitudes and dialect, albeit dialects from around the UK more than local dialects. He lived in an affluent part of Chesterfield called Somersall, and had lived there his whole life. He labelled himself, however, as 'working class but moving towards middle class', with aspirations of becoming a Business Manager or Economist. Figure 8.1 shows how he felt at the time about his own accent, and the Chesterfield accent and dialect in general. It is noticeable that he is positive about the Chesterfield accent, although his comment about it being not 'very serious' might be perceived negatively by those who are sensitive to the stereotype of dumb, comedic, northerner (Hodson, 2014; Wales, 2010). His comment may seem to tally with a Sheffield teenage participant's note about the Chesterfield accent being 'unintellectual' (Table 4.5), but ComSM3's other comments indicate that he is actually

positive towards his hometown, and he even suggests that the accent is 'unique'. He mentioned that his own accent is not the 'strongest', and stated that Chesterfield's is a Derbyshire accent. This resonates with Le Baigue's (2010) research that showed how keen his participants were to mention that their accent is Derbyshire, despite not feeling a strong connection with the south of the county.

Talk with your group/partner and answer the following questions:

1) How do you feel about your accent?
Proud. I enjoy being part of a regional culture even though I don't have the strongest Derbyshire accent

2) What do you think of the Chesterfield accent/dialect? Write some words to describe it, below.

The Chesterfield accent/dialect is:
Good and enjoyable. It isn't very serious and is very unique.

3) Are there any (dialect) words you associate with Chesterfield, e.g. spidge, greebo. What do the words mean?
Twitchel = Garden alleyway   Cob = Bread   Snap = food

From now, I would like you to work alone. This isn't an exam and I'm more interested in what think than whether you get the answers "right" or "wrong"

Space for notes:

Figure 8.1: ComSM3's comments about the Chesterfield accent in his own words.

In a second map task that was trialled with the teenage groups, ComSM3 did display some negativity towards Yorkshire, which was unusual for this age group (Figure 8.2).

2) On the map, below, draw arrows to places you know and write words that describe the accent/dialect next to the arrow, e.g. farmer, broad, etc. If the place isn't marked on the map, but is in Yorkshire or the East Midlands, e.g. Bolsover, Rotherham, Ilkeston, write the place name in the box at the bottom of the page along with your description of the accent/dialect.

Key

1. Bradford – Dump, mainly muslim accent
2. Leeds – Prosperous area – yorkshire typical
3. Wakefield
4. York – typical yorkshire
5. Hull – dead – no happiness, yorkshire
6. Sheffield – dee, do's very typical yorkshire
7. Lincoln
8. Nottingham –
9. Derby
10. Leicester
11. Northampton
12. Rutland

EXTRA PLACES IN YORKSHIRE/EAST MIDLANDS:

CHESTERFIELD
Bakewell
Doncaster
Rotherham
Donyield

Figure 8.2: ComSM3's map task 2, in his own words.

This task was ultimately rejected as it did not tend to elicit useful information, but in ComSM3's example it drew out attitudes towards Yorkshire that were not noted elsewhere in the perception tests. ComSM3 referred to Bradford as a 'dump', Hull as 'dead' with 'no

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happiness', and Sheffield as 'dee da's' (sic) and 'very typical Yorkshire'. He also wrote that Bradford has a 'mainly muslim accent', which may be based on a stereotype rather than familiarity with the town. The description of Sheffield as 'dee-dar' resonates with Le Baigue's (2010) findings where he perceived the dee-dar moniker to be a pejorative term that Chesterfield people use to refer to Sheffielders (see Chapter 2, section 2.2.1). However, the foreword to this thesis suggests that dee-dar can also be a term of endearment. Whilst ComSM3 displayed negativity towards less affluent areas in Yorkshire, it is unclear whether this extended to Sheffield. As for the East Midlands, he either had no strong opinion, or was unfamiliar with some of the locations: He left this section blank. Given his opinions about certain areas of Yorkshire, and his own Derbyshire accent label, it would be feasible to anticipate that he would have placed Chesterfield in the Midlands. However, Figure 8.3 shows that he did not place two lines on the map of Britain to designate a Midland area: He placed one line to separate North from South, and placed this line far down the country. This is a phenomenon Montgomery (2012) referred to as 'shifting': The closer one lives to the perceived North/South boundary in England, the more likely the participant is to place that boundary line further south if they want to secure their northern status (p654). Therefore, it would seem that this teenage participant had a Derbyshire identity, whilst feeling Northern rather than Midlander. This is unusual for the teenage group, who mostly put Chesterfield in the Midlands. In his own words, ComSM3 did not frequent other areas within the East Midlands, and whilst it is unclear whether he felt any animosity towards Sheffield, he stated that he visited the city with his family for shopping. Ultimately, and despite ComSM3 displaying negativity towards less affluent parts of Yorkshire, he was positive towards his home town of Chesterfield and was familiar with Sheffield. As with Le Baigue's (2010) findings, ComSM3 was likely to feel more connected with Sheffield than other areas of the East Midlands through familiarity, which is potentially why he chose the Northern identity rather than Midlander.

In terms of recognising local accents, ComSM3 did very well with the younger females identifying them all correctly after hearing them read, Task 1, with Task 2 just confirming his answers. His reasoning was that they sounded like people he knew, with a suggestion of the 'scale of northern-ness' behind some of his answers. For example, he selected South

Derbyshire for the South Derbyshire female because her accent was 'not as a heavy a Derbyshire accent as Chesterfield'. The only comments suggestive of the recognition of linguistic markers is with the Sheffield female, who he noted says 'window' like people from Sheffield. This shows recognition that GOAT-fronting is part of Sheffield speech, and a greater understanding of the Sheffield accent than East Midland accents, despite also getting them correct. As for the older males, he incorrectly identified all apart from the South Derbyshire male after hearing the reading task, changing two of his answers upon hearing the vocabulary recordings so that they all became incorrect. His results suggest that generational factors are significant in teenage recognition of local voices, as described in Chapter 6.

Below you will see a map of Britain. Draw **one line** where you think the north and south separate. If you think there is a midlands area, draw **two lines** to show where the north becomes the midlands and where the midlands becomes the south.

Key

1. Newcastle
2. York
3. Leeds
4. Manchester
5. Liverpool
6. Sheffield
7. Chesterfield
8. Nottingham
9. Derby
10. Birmingham
11. Bristol
12. London
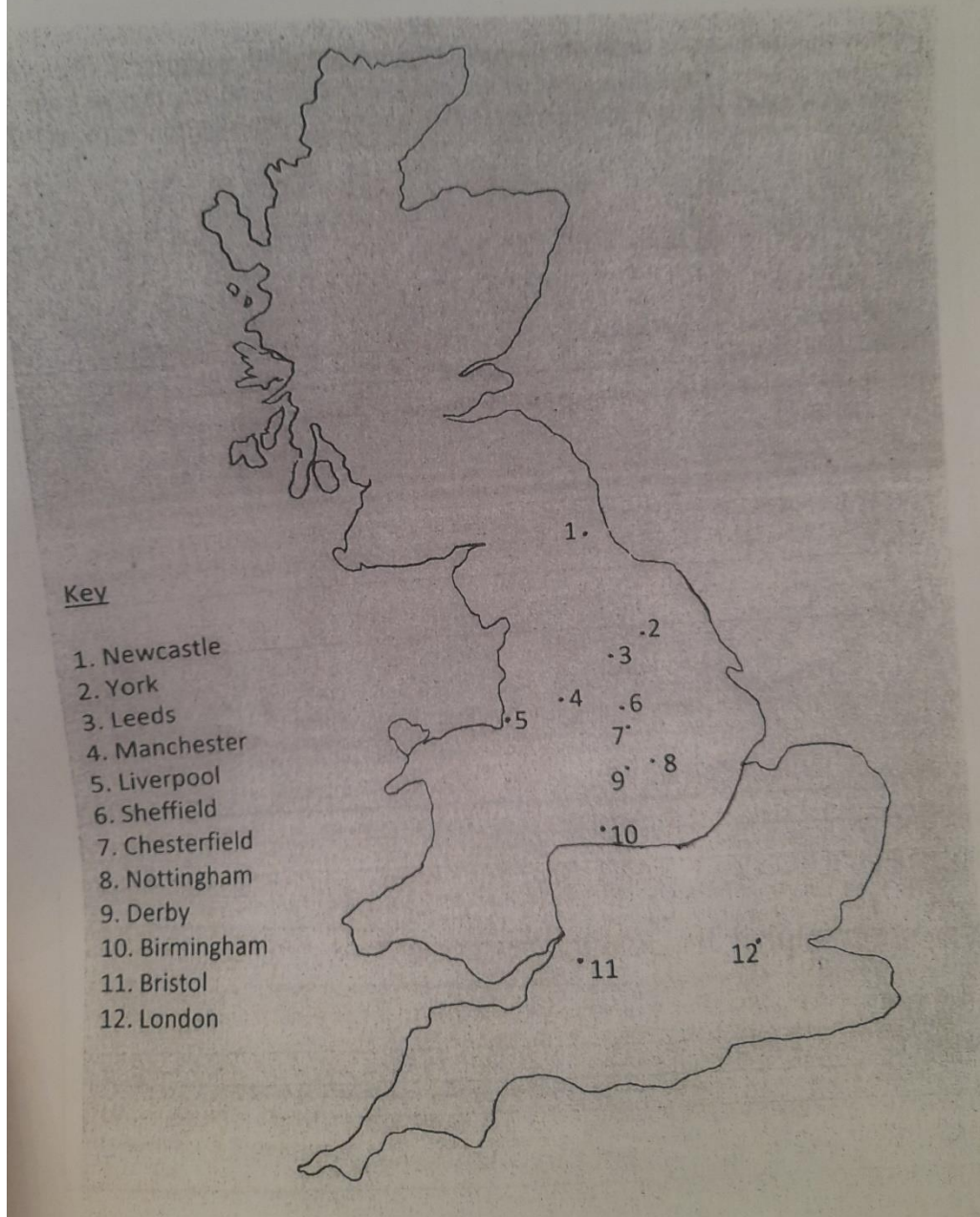
Figure 8.3: ComSM3's North-Midland-South, Task 1.

Finally, his word lists hint at his hybrid identity, with a more monophthongal average FACE vowel (0.22 *S*) and a more diphthongal GOAT (0.38 *S*). This is consistent with the averages for the Chesterfield teens and might be suggestive of the continuation of more monophthongal

FACE in Chesterfield across the generations rather than a temporary display of affinity with Yorkshire Speculatively, as he noted that monophthongal GOAT was suggestive of a Sheffield accent, he may have chosen the more diphthongal realisation within his own repertoire to make him 'Derbyshire', whilst the FACE vowel realisation may possibly have remained under his conscious awareness.

In summary, ComSM3 was unusual for the Chesterfield teenagers in this sample because he chose a Northern/Derbyshire identity rather than Midland. This might suggest a 'hybrid identity' (Llamas, 2010: 235-6), with a clear pride and affection for Chesterfield (which he capitalised in Figure 8.2) but familiarity with Sheffield and desire to be firmly part of the North evident in his mapping task. Yet, Map Task 2 drew out a certain disdain for other less affluent areas of Yorkshire. In the dialect recognition tasks, there was a clear division in his accent recognition with one hundred percent success in recognising the younger female accents after Task 1, but only 25% for the older males. This is typical of his peer group. His FACE vowel, typically for his age group, was more monophthongal than his GOAT vowel, which may be suggestive of his Chesterfield roots, or could perhaps have expressed his desire to sound Northern. However, the FACE monophthong connection with Sheffield was not noted by him in the dialect recognition tasks, which could indicate that monophthongal FACE was simply part of his own repertoire of vowel sounds.

8.3. Case study 2

Next, MAF2 will be considered. This participant was a female in the middle age Chesterfield group, aged 41-45 at the time of the tests. I conducted the tests at her detached home, which she owned, in a less affluent part of Chesterfield. This area, Old Whittington, is where Pegge (1896) carried out his research in the 1700s and is partly where Widdowson's Survey of English Language and Folklore (1966-2002) was conducted (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.1).

MAF2 had greater experience of the East Midland areas under analysis than the teenage boy, ComSM3, having lived in Chesterfield from the age of two, with a spouse from Chesterfield, and working as an office manager in Nottingham. She would go to either

Chesterfield or Nottingham for leisure. She self-identified as middle class, perhaps feeling uncomfortable about writing that down on paper as she commented 'Ho! Ho!' alongside. She also joked that she was a 'snob' because she wrote that the accents around where she lived could be 'a bit rough/common' (see Figure 8.4) but that her own accent was 'fine'. This resonates with the discussion in Chapter 7 around the pressure felt at her life stage to conform to Standard Southern British English (SSBE), as explored by Burland-Gibson (2019: 201). However, her average word list results were some of the most extreme. While her diphthongal FACE vowel averaged at a high 0.89 (*S*), her GOAT vowel was on average more monophthongal at 0.19 (*S*). Perhaps there was a consciousness behind the diphthongisation of the FACE vowel that was not present for GOAT, but there is no evidence for this in the comments she made throughout the tests.

Talk with your group/partner and answer the following questions:

1) How do you feel about your accent?

My accent is fine. However the area/village accent
can be abit rough/common I feel. (I'm a snob! ha! ha!)

2) What do you think of the Chesterfield accent/dialect? Write some words to describe it, below.

The Chesterfield accent/dialect is:

See above. Abit rough/common. Missing out words.
Shortened words and sentence). Quite slangy.

3) Are there any (dialect) words you associate with Chesterfield, e.g. spidge, greebo. What do the words mean?

None that I can think so /of.

Figure 8.4: MAF2's comments about the Chesterfield accent in her own words.

MAF2 positioned both Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the Midlands, and she does not seem to have had any animosity towards Yorkshire or Sheffield. In the perception tests she used her knowledge of Nottinghamshire to correctly identify both Nottinghamshire speakers. She did not change her answers between Task 1 and Task 2, and correctly identified all the younger female speakers. She correctly identified two of the older males, only confusing the South Derbyshire and Chesterfield males. Figure 8.5 highlights that she thought she had made a mistake, and that the Chesterfield male did actually sound more local. After initially saying that he sounded 'definitely more south than me' in Task 1, she re-evaluated her answer after hearing the vocabulary responses (Task 2), but kept her answer as it was as she was happy with her other responses.

...in the town/city they're from. Please circle... _...They are going to..._ _...if your answer has changed from activity 1, please state why._

Male Speaker 1: (Chesterfield), Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why? I'm still sticking with my original one although I'm not 100% convinced. lol.

Male Speaker 2: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, (Sheffield)

Why? sticking with my original answer. Not C'field, Derby or Notts. Too "up north" I think.

Male Speaker 3: Chesterfield, Derby, (Nottingham), Sheffield

Why? still sticking with Nottingham. Its not quite "Derby" enough and I would never have said its Northern.

Male Speaker 4: (Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham), Sheffield

Why? I am actually 100% confused on this one! On the basis I'm happy with my other 3 then I have to stick with Derby although I doubt it is now. If I were to guess its possibly more Northern. Almost Sheffield as I'm hearing similar words and phrases that family say :(

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Figure 8.5: MAF2's answers to Perception Task 2, the older male speakers.

There is evidence for the 'scale of northern-ness' affecting her deductive processes, with the Sheffield male sounding too 'up north' to be from the other three locations. There is also the suggestion that she regarded the three East Midland accents as similar, with Sheffield having a separate accent. For example, the South Derbyshire female could be from Chesterfield, Nottinghamshire, or South Derbyshire according to MAF2 (see Figure 8.6). As with ComSM3,

she could identify Sheffield linguistic markers, but other factors affected her positioning of the East Midland voices, such as familiarity (see Figure 8.6).
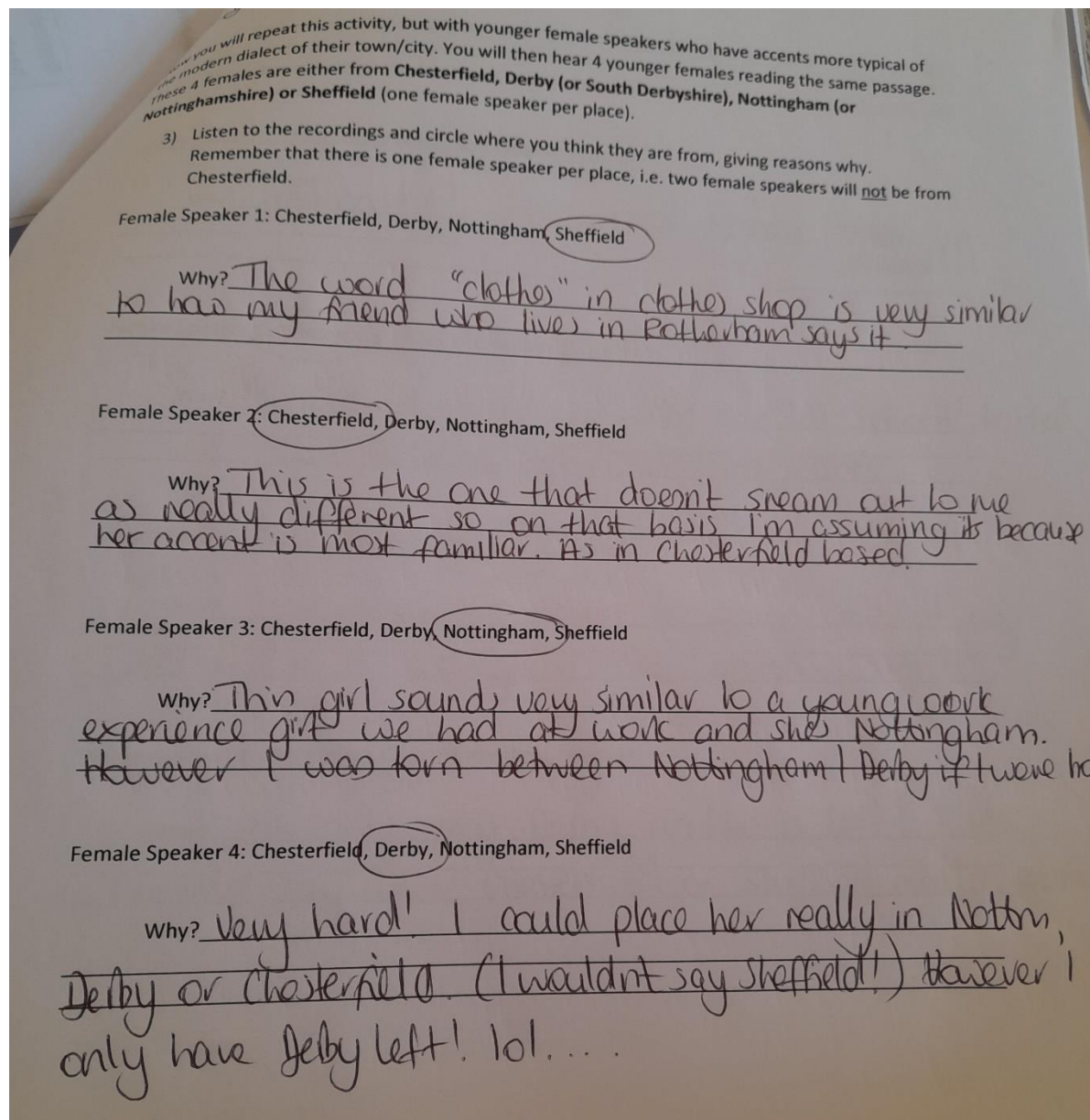
Figure 8.6: MAF2's answers to Perception Task 1, the younger female speakers.

Therefore, while MAF2 showed great awareness of the accents under evaluation in both the older and younger groups, perhaps due to greater life experience or a wider social network, there is the suggestion that she feels more self-conscious about her own accent than ComSM3. This feeling of negativity towards 'rough' local accents may have led to a highly diphthongal FACE vowel in the word list task, however it is unclear why this was not

replicated with the GOAT vowel. She placed Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the Midlands, and seemed to have no animosity towards either Sheffield or Yorkshire. However, her knowledge of the East Midlands helped with her recognition of these accents, despite her being unable to pinpoint their linguistic markers. She could, however, specify that 'clothes' was pronounced similar to other Yorkshire accents she knew by the younger Sheffield female (Figure 8.6).

8.4. Case study 3

Finally, an older male participant's responses will be analysed. OAM3 came to a mutually agreed location along with his middle age son, and they completed the perception tests simultaneously. At the time of the tests OAM3 was aged between 76 and 80 and was a retired Coal Mining Subsidence Inspector. He owned a detached house in a more affluent part of Chesterfield and self-identified as working-class. The only comment he gave about the Chesterfield accent/dialect was that it is 'a bit idle'. He did not comment about his own accent, but stated that he had lived in Chesterfield his entire life. He failed to correctly identify any of the older male speakers, but did correctly identify the younger female Nottinghamshire speaker getting the answer correct in both perception tasks. It is possible that the stereotypes he held of local voices did not match the reality of the authentic voices. Further exploration of his social network might have indicated how far his social circle reached. He once travelled around the region for his job, but as a retiree it is likely that he travelled less and that his recollection of local voices did not align with the current reality. Unfortunately, he did not comment why he connected any speaker with any location, which was common among the older participants. He did, however, complete the map task, separating Sheffield and Chesterfield and placing the former in the North and the latter in the Midlands (see Figure 8.7). Finally, his word list results were more similar to the teenager, ComSM3, than the middle age female, MAF2. His FACE vowel was more monophthongal at 0.18 (*S*), while his GOAT vowel was more diphthongal at 0.41 (*S*). This result suggests that monophthongal FACE is an enduring feature of Chesterfield English.

Key

1. Newcastle
2. York
3. Leeds
4. Manchester
5. Liverpool
6. Sheffield
7. Chesterfield
8. Nottingham
9. Derby
10. Birmingham
11. Bristol
12. London
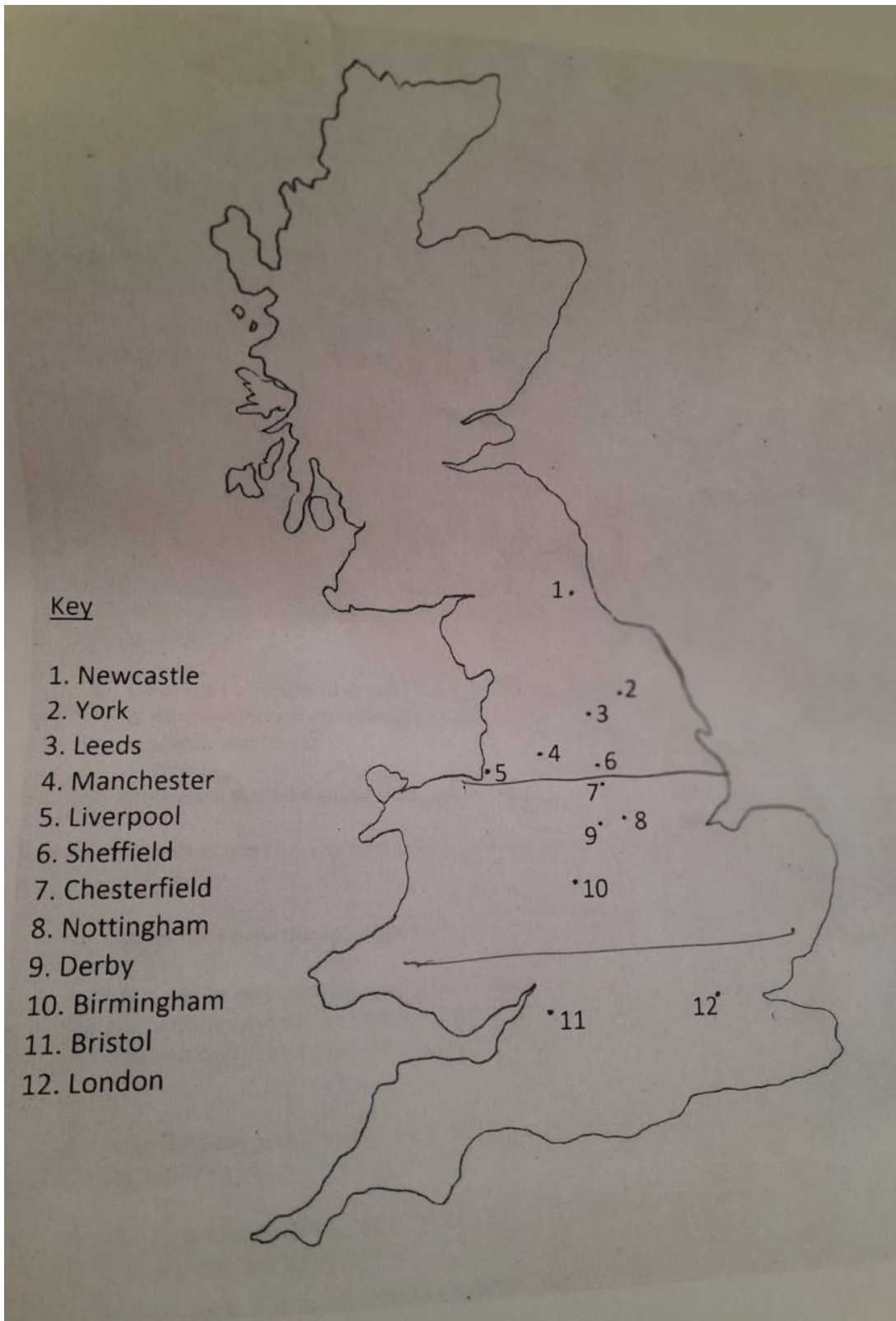
Figure 8.7: OAM3's North-Midland-South, Task 1.

8.5. Conclusion

In summary, whilst the three participants chosen to be analysed in more depth in this section cannot represent all Chesterfield participants, some of the patterns highlighted in previous chapters were noticeable in their responses. Firstly, the scale of northern-ness was evident as part of their deductive processes in the perception tests, and a feeling of familiarity for East Midland voices but no linguistic markers of note presented. Generational distance was seen to affect perception test results with the middle age respondent achieving the best overall results, and the older male the worst, and finally there was evidence of age related patterning in the monophthongal realisation of FACE, with possible age grading in the middle group.

9. Conclusion

9.1. Introduction

There were two main aims to my first wave sociolinguistic research: The first was to assess Chesterfield residents' regional identity, and how this relates to their perceptions of local dialects and accents; the second aim was to explore linguistic production in Chesterfield across three different age groups, especially in relation to regional identity. These aims were addressed through this study's three research questions:

1) To what extent do Chesterfield locals feel connected with Sheffield?

- Is the connection expressed in a mutual Northern identity?

- Or is there a perceptual divide between 'the North' (Sheffield) and 'the Midlands' (Chesterfield)?2) To what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions?

3) Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?

I anticipated that this study would make a contribution to sociolinguistic research focused on the East Midlands, none of which had extensively looked this far north of the region. Braber (2016) claimed that there are discernible East Midlands' dialects, so it was envisioned that in the exploration of local accents and dialects, through both secondary and primary research, greater understanding of some of these dialects would be attained.

This thesis described how Chesterfield is located close to many borders: The East Midlands and Yorkshire; the Midlands and the North; the FACE and GOAT monophthongal and diphthongal isoglosses (Finnegan, 2011). I anticipated that this research would contribute to sociolinguistic understanding of borderland identity (Britain, 2010; Llamas, 2010; Montgomery, 2015) in the Midland and Northern borderland of England.

How these aims were met will be discussed in this concluding chapter. Firstly, how far this thesis fulfilled the research questions will be outlined, followed by an evaluation of the

methodology and limitations of this research. Next, the study's wider implications will be discussed alongside the possibilities for future research, before some concluding comments are made.

9.2. Fulfilment of the Research Questions

How far the three research questions were fulfilled will be discussed in this section.

9.2.1. Research Question 1

Research Question 1 was the focus of the North-Midland-South mapping task, and supplementary data from the questionnaire and perception tasks, which were completed by all 24 Chesterfield participants and eight Sheffield teenagers:

To what extent do Chesterfield locals feel connected with Sheffield?

- **Is the connection expressed in a mutual Northern identity?**
- **Or is there a perceptual divide between 'the North' (Sheffield) and 'the Midlands' (Chesterfield)?**

The map task results show that, unlike the background interview results, most of the 24 Chesterfield participants placed Sheffield and Chesterfield together, largely in the Midlands. This was especially true of the Chesterfield teens, which verified the findings of Braber (2014) who also found a strong Midlander identity among teenagers in Derbyshire. It was interesting to note that where the Chesterfield teenagers placed Chesterfield and Sheffield together in the Midlands, the Sheffield teens placed them together in the North. Nottingham and Derby tended to be placed in the Midlands by Chesterfield participants, with occasional placement in the South. These findings would suggest that Chesterfield locals do feel connected with Sheffield, albeit with the annotations on the North-Midland-South map tending to give both places a Midland identity. However, in using this map task as a guide to regional identity, it could also be argued that Chesterfield participants feel an affinity with Derby and Nottingham, given that these places were also positioned largely in the Midlands.

To answer this question more fully, attitudinal responses along with comments made in the perception tasks were also considered. Table 4.1 indicated that Chesterfield teenagers went primarily to Sheffield for leisure, with the older age groups visiting Chesterfield first, with Sheffield in second place and quite low down for the oldest group. Derby and Nottingham were lower down in the list of places visited for leisure for each age group. Meanwhile, background interviews, with different participants to the main study, suggested that Chesterfield locals felt more of an affinity with Sheffield people than either Derby or Nottingham, with the latter two places being relatively unknown by them. As with Le Baigue's (2010) findings, for some it may be a begrudging affinity with Sheffield, but it is one that seemed to present itself in the results of the perception tasks, where the local voices seemed to be placed using a perceived 'scale of northern-ness': If a speaker sounded too 'posh', they would not be claimed by the Chesterfield audience, and instead would be placed somewhere more unfamiliar and perceived to be further south geographically, like Nottinghamshire. This ties in with Llamas' (2010) findings that those who live in border regions, far from the county or country capital, may have more of a connection with people from across the border. There is the suggestion that lack of familiarity with Nottinghamshire, the perception that it is further south, and perhaps their political affiliation with the Conservative Party, meant that it is largely perceived by Chesterfield residents as 'posh' and therefore 'other'. Added to this is the historical disconnect between those who took part in the mining strikes of the 1980s and those who did not: Where Chesterfield and Sheffield miners largely went on strike, South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire miners did not. The ripples of the strikes may have an effect still felt by Chesterfield people, where South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire voices are considered to be alien, with greater value placed on more northern sounding voices. However, although the Sheffield voices are recognised, they are rarely claimed by the Chesterfield natives, just the Chesterfield older male voice rejected for sounding too 'posh'. As with the recent office development in Chesterfield, the 'Northern Gateway' (Chapter 1, section 1.1), it seems that while Chesterfield is still perceived by many locals to be in the Midlands, with its own identity rooted in Derbyshire, its focus is more northwards. This would connect with local television news reporting largely coming from Yorkshire, rather than the East Midlands (Chapter 1), thus increasing Yorkshire's

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familiarity and lessening familiarity with other areas across the East Midlands. Therefore, while Braber's (2014) findings, and my background interviews, hinted at a 'heightened diversity' (Britain 2010: 200) between Sheffield and Chesterfield, the findings of the North-Midland-South mapping task, and qualitative tasks, suggested otherwise, with Chesterfield participants perhaps having a more 'hybrid identity' (Llamas, 2010) that is rooted in Derbyshire and the Midlands, whilst having shared political values and greater familiarity with Sheffield. In sum, my research suggests there is no significant perceptual divide between Chesterfield and Sheffield, with Chesterfield teenagers especially keen to place Sheffield with Chesterfield in the Midlands and Sheffield teens placing them together in the North.

9.2.2. Research Question 2

Research question 2 was the focus of the perception tasks. It asked the following:

To what degree can Chesterfield locals recognise local accents, and what are the cues that help participants make their decisions?

There were six main findings in the perception task section, but the 'scale of northern-ness' seems to be the most significant 'cue' to help, or hinder, participants' decision making. This scale is an impression Chesterfield people share of local accents moving from most to least 'northern', and towards SSBE, the further away, and generally south, from Sheffield one travels across the East Midlands. As discussed in the previous section, this is potentially connected with political affiliation and mining history, where the traditionally Conservative East Midland areas of South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire were also felt to use more Standard Southern British English (SSBE) by both Chesterfield and Sheffield participants. Bare proximity, where closer accents should be more recognisable, was discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.3, where borders and barriers may hinder this process and cultural salience may make further way voices more familiar (Montgomery, 2012). There was the suggestion that dialect image hindered the ability to connect local voices with location. In other words, the the scale of northern-ness seemed to hinder the recognisability of local accents: Answers

were often incorrect if the speaker's voice did not match the perception of the scale of northern-ness. This perception seems to match Upton's (2012) theory of the Midland area of England being a transition zone from northern to southern linguistic forms. Braber (2016: 210) reinforces this notion stating that Nottingham is placed near isoglosses which tend to separate northern and southern varieties, including the FOOT/STRUT split. However, as discussed, Jansen and Braber (2020) found that for the FOOT/STRUT divide, there were differences across the East Midlands, but not in a way that patterns geographically from northern to southern varieties of English.

Northern forms may have had more value to the Chesterfield audience, but Sheffield voices were still rarely claimed. The Sheffield accents in the perception tests were the most recognisable to the Chesterfield audience. This could be due to familiarity with the accent, or that the two accents presented in Task 1 were the most different from the others in the sample. They had the highest number of linguistic markers identified, mostly centred around the FACE and GOAT vowels. The fronted monophthongal form of GOAT used by the Sheffield female did mislead one Sheffield respondent, which is consistent with the background interviews: While Chesterfield respondents seemed to recognise this as a marker of Sheffield speech, it is not yet claimed or recognised as a marker of Sheffield speech by all Sheffield locals. In addition to recognising the Sheffield female, the Chesterfield teens were especially good at recognising the Chesterfield female, based on a feeling of familiarity. While they were relatively poor at recognising older speakers in general, they were remarkably good at recognising the Sheffield and Chesterfield females: The Chesterfield female was claimed by 75% of Chesterfield teenage participants after Task 2, which is higher than Williams et al's (1999) teen respondents whose highest recognition rate was for Received Pronunciation at 44%. However, the Chesterfield teen average correct response of 39% is similar to Williams et al's (1999: 351) findings for teen responses, who had between 20 and 44% correct answers. As for the Sheffield teens, they were best at recognising the two Sheffield speakers, but could not confidently place the East Midland voices. They had a lack of familiarity with the East Midland locations, but also seemed to use the scale of northern-ness in their decision making process. Of note is the Chesterfield older male speaker, who was largely placed in Nottinghamshire by both the Chesterfield and Sheffield audience. He was either

rejected for sounding too 'posh', or confused because he was the last to speak and therefore positioned in the least known place. Task 2, interview questions about local lexis, did slightly improve his recognition among the older Chesterfield residents. However, in general, Task 2 only seemed to consolidate people's opinions formed in Task 1, based on the reading of a short paragraph. It suggests that local lexis, and more informal speech, is not necessary in the identification of local accents with formal speech alone providing very similar results. However, while the East Midland accents in the sample seemed to share linguistic features in common, outlined in Tables 3.11 to 3.22, these were rarely identified by the participants. Therefore, while Braber (2016) asserted that the East Midlands has discernible accents, Chesterfield locals cannot seem to pinpoint what makes them unique.

While the middle age group of respondents had the highest recognition rates, the teenagers were best at recognising the younger females in the sample. The oldest participants had the lowest recognition rates, which suggests that social network may also be involved in recognition rates. The Sheffield speakers were the most recognisable to the Chesterfield and Sheffield audience, with linguistic markers noticeable to the audience, especially in terms of FACE and GOAT. However, whilst the Chesterfield female was recognisable to the Chesterfield teen audience, there were no real linguistic cues that were highlighted, just a feeling of familiarity. Scale of northern-ness seemed to affect the decision making process for the East Midland speakers, based on a perceived geographical progression towards more SSBE speech as one travels roughly southwards across the East Midlands. This perception seemed to affect East Midland voice recognition, by Chesterfield and Sheffield respondents alike, more than linguistic cues, with the exception of the Chesterfield female among the Chesterfield teens. Finally, Hind (2019) asserted that local voices were claimed more by her older participants, who were a similar age to this study's middle group, than Braber's (2015) teenage group due, in part, to their more secure regional affiliation. This was not found to be true among my respondents: The teenagers in my sample had the highest Midlander identity, not the older groups, and whilst they did claim the Chesterfield female more than the other age groups, they did not successfully claim the older male, suggesting that generational distance and a belief in a scale of northern-ness were more instrumental in their decision making than regional identity. In other words, the Chesterfield male sounded

too 'posh' to be from Chesterfield, and was therefore rejected by most of the Chesterfield respondents, no matter their regional identity.

In sum, the cues behind local dialect recognition were multifaceted, beginning with a perception similar to Upton's (2012) that the East Midlands is a transition zone from northern to southern features of English, that I termed 'scale of northern-ness'. This linguistic transition may or may not have a basis in reality, which was questioned by Jansen and Braber (2020), and is complicated by the respondents' lack of cartographic knowledge and also a lack of familiarity with South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire voices. Added to this is the barrier of politics and mining history, which led Chesterfield participants to believe these voices are 'posh' and 'other'. While northern linguistic forms seem to be more valued, it does not clearly lead to the claiming of Sheffield voices, which are believed to be the most northern using the scale of northern-ness. These two voices are the most recognised among Chesterfield participants. Cues behind the Sheffield voice recognition seem to be linguistic with particular reference to GOAT and FACE vowels. The Chesterfield female voice seems to be claimed because of a feeling of familiarity rather than specific linguistic markers. Finally, it was mooted that the respondents' social network may be involved in dialect recognition, with the middle age group the best at recognising both the older male and younger female voices. Generational distance seems also to play a part, with the youngest Chesterfield respondents the best at recognising the youngest voices in the Chesterfield sample. Finally, while local lexis may have helped in the recognition of some voices, the overall correct responses did not differ significantly from the results of Task 1 where local lexis was not included.

The research question also asks to what degree Chesterfield respondents can recognise local voices. When looking at results that were greater than chance, the two Sheffield voices were recognised the most by the Chesterfield audience. This could be because their voices are the most different in the sample, with the East Midland voices, including Chesterfield, sharing the most similarities. However, another possibility is that linguistic variants specific to the East Midlands have been levelled away making these accents less recognisable (Montgomery, 2012: 647). Or, perhaps the Sheffield voices have the most cultural salience, heard more in the media, and are therefore the most well-known. Yet, the Chesterfield

audience should have been the most familiar with the Chesterfield voices, and this was true of the younger female who was recognised particularly by the Chesterfield teenage audience. The Sheffield teen respondents did not recognise the Chesterfield female or male, which may reflect the 'barrier effect' of political borders described by Montgomery (2016). Yet, the Chesterfield male was misidentified by the Chesterfield audience also, because of the reasons outlined above. Next, the younger female voices in the sample were the most recognisable, nearly two times as correctly identified as the males. However, it was suggested that this is due to the age of the speakers, with their voices representing more modern variants of local accents, and the more traditional variants used by the older males harder for the audience to identify due, perhaps, to their younger social networks. The degree to which the recognition rates compared with previous studies shows similar results, the recognition was broadly around 40%, as was found in Williams et al (1999) for the teenage judges listening to teenage voices. However, the Chesterfield teenagers recognised the younger female speakers 59% after Task 1, where the older respondents only recognised the oldest male speakers 25% of the time suggesting again that the degree of socialising, and socialising with different age groups, may have an impact on local dialect recognition.

9.2.3. Research Question 3

Finally, the last research question was addressed in Chapter 7 by the spoken data results and discussion, in connection with the mapping task findings:

Is the realisation of FACE and GOAT vowels by Chesterfield speakers influenced by their identity as Northern or Midlander?

There was the unexpected finding that for both FACE and GOAT, where the Chesterfield participants had a Midlander identity, more monophthongal variants tended to be produced, when the literature suggested that a more diphthongal realisation of the two vowels indexes the Midlands (Finnegan, 2011). However, it was found that most Chesterfield teens gave a Midlander identity, and also used the most monophthongal variants of both vowels, but particularly FACE. Three possible explanations were given for the use of monophthongal

FACE in this sample: Change over apparent time is one possibility, but it was discounted given that the older age groups also seemed to display some monophthongal usage. More likely is that monophthongal forms have been in continuous use in Chesterfield (see Chesterfield Museum recordings, Chapter 3, section 3.3.1), but are less connected with North Derbyshire today given that monophthongal FACE is most commonly claimed to be a shibboleth of Yorkshire and the North (Haddican et al, 2013: 373). However, a third possibility is that teens, especially, were displaying their affinity with Sheffield in this task with the use of more monophthongal forms of FACE and GOAT more usually connected with Sheffield by using forms that may already exist within their own repertoire. However, it was noted that 'make' was the least monophthongal token in the Chesterfield teenage sample, which may possibly be because monophthongal 'make' is connected with the oldest Chesterfield generations, as seen in the Chesterfield museum recordings. Chapter 2, section 2.2.1, of this thesis referenced Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985: 182) 'Acts of Identity' model, suggesting that an individual may modify their spoken language if they desire to model another group. There are four caveats, however, the third being 'the motivation to join the groups is sufficiently powerful' (ibid), with the query raised whether Chesterfield people had the motivation to join the Sheffield 'group', because of its greater cultural prominence, and the perception that it is 'better' than Chesterfield. It seems that the Chesterfield teens may wish to adapt their linguistic behaviour to model Sheffield's, or at least not shy away from it, whilst making Sheffield a part of their pre-existing Midlander identity. Llamas (2010) stated that people who live in borderlands may have a 'hybrid' identity, which can be seen in their linguistic choices (ibid: 235/236). Hybrid identity may be a way to understand the results of the word list task, where Chesterfield (teenage) participants chose to display allegiance with Sheffield through their production of the FACE vowel on the day of the recordings. In sum, to answer Research Question 3, it seems that the answer is no: The presentation of these two vowels may be affected by age, which may be affected by a show of support for Sheffield while positioning both Sheffield and Chesterfield together in the Midlands. While it is still important to note that taken as a whole, Chesterfield FACE and GOAT are largely diphthongal, as can be seen in Table 7.4, the evidence to suggest that monophthongal FACE and GOAT exists in Chesterfield, North

Derbyshire, is still a new finding and one that contrasts Braber and Robinson (2018) who asserted that monophthongal FACE and GOAT had not been recorded in the north of the East Midlands since the Survey of English Dialects.

9.3. Evaluation of the Methodology and Research Limitations

This section will evaluate the suitability of the methodology in answering the three research questions. This includes primarily an evaluation of the North-Midland-South mapping task, the dialect recognition tasks, and the word list data, in addition to outlining the research limitations.

Firstly, it must be acknowledged that one positive aspect of this research is that it required a lot of time of effort from each participant: It is an advantage as it led to a more thorough understanding of respondent data. However, fulfilling all sections of the research was time-consuming, and it was a challenge to find participants who were willing to take part in the research in its entirety. For example, for the teenage respondents from Chesterfield, I attended three different secondary schools before deciding to use data from the one school, because more students had completed the word list task. For the middle and older groups I did access social gatherings, such as the Women's Institute, but did not anticipate that there would be other activities happening in the background, raising concerns about the quality of word list data, which had to be rejected. Instead, with the older groups, I tried to find individuals who were willing to take part, which took up more time. Thankfully, only the word list data was affected, where four of the 36 participants either did not consent to take part, or poor sound quality affected the results. Had time afforded, I would have liked to redo the whole tests with four separate participants, however the COVID19 pandemic struck and it was not possible to have face-to-face contact. In consequence, whilst the results suggested that age was a significant factor in the production of the FACE vowel, more data from the middle age group was needed to make this result more convincing.

To answer Research Question 1, about the connection that Chesterfield residents feel with Sheffield, and whether there is a perceptual divide between Chesterfield and Sheffield, I feel

that this was suitably answered by the methods employed. The North-Midland-South map task gave a general impression of whether Chesterfield locals would put a dividing line between Chesterfield and Sheffield, which were both marked on the map. However, subsequent reading (Braber, 2015; Hind, 2019) and my own interview data from the background interviewscarried out in 2015 suggested that regional identity is more complex than the map task alone would suggest, with participants sometimes placing Chesterfield in the Midlands, for example, but stating that they were Northern. In hindsight, I would have asked more explicitly about the participants' regional identity. This could have been through use of a cline where participants organised identity labels that were most and least important to then, similar to that used by Watt and Llamas (2017), or simply asking for them to state of they were Northern or Midlanders. However, the additional data that I used to show that Chesterfield people are more familiar with Sheffield than other East Midlands locations was enough to suggest that there was no significant perceptual divide between the two locations: Chesterfield people hear Yorkshire news, they may have some largely light-hearted rivalry, but most Chesterfield people frequent Sheffield more than other East Midland locations and also feel a political affinity in that the majority support the Labour Party. In terms of the effectiveness of the map task, instead of a hand drawn map, a map of Great Britain that was more compatible with the ArcGIS Programme would have saved me time when it came to the analysis, but I do not feel that this compromised the results. A further task eliciting dialect areas more generally would also have contributed to my results.

In terms of the dialect recognition tasks, I feel they did answer Research Question 2 successfully. The script helped to elicit features of local accents in the speaker volunteers, and made for greater parity of results because the audience were listening initially to the same words being spoken. The only negative is that the task was quite time-consuming, and knowing now that dialect lexis did not significantly improve results, I would possibly remove this entire section. However, this section of the task was an innovation that gave results that were hitherto unknown, and it would be interesting to know if this same result could be expanded to other parts of England. If I were playing this task out to larger numbers of people in several sittings, I wouldchange the order in which the recordings are played so that there would be no doubt about whether the order affected the outcome.

In terms of Research Question 3, as stated I would have liked all participants to read out the word list, however I do feel that the analysis did determine whether the FACE and GOAT vowels produced were with a more monophthongal or diphthongal realisation on the day. More tokens would have increased the evidence for this, and perhaps a task that produced more informal speech would have given the results greater credence. I did trial a task with the Chesterfield teenagers where in pairs they completed a direction giving task, similar to that used by Flynn (2012: 104). This produced less formal speech, and did elicit key words from the road names and markers used in the activity, but I was aware that it used yet more of the participants' time and I ultimately did not pursue this particular task. I do still maintain, however, that word lists are a valuable method of gathering linguistic data, as despite creating the proclivity towards more formal speech, it might also capture the identity that the speaker is wishing to portray.

If space had permitted, and there were more available resources to undertake advanced training in phonetic analysis, it would have been useful to offer a more detailed analysis of the vowel sounds that participants produced rather than a scale of diphthongisation alone. Although I did answer the research question, greater analysis could have determined whether the diphthongs produced by Chesterfield speakers are Standard Southern British English, or a more local variant. Additionally, GOAT as a fronted monophthong was incoming when Finnegan wrote her thesis in 2011, and it was recognised as a Sheffield linguistic marker by Chesterfield respondents in the dialect recognition tasks, but analysis of the word list data could have provided evidence to show that it is not yet in Chesterfield, at least in a formal context. Auditory analysis would suggest that GOAT fronting is not part of the Chesterfield repertoire, but I did not completed any acoustic analysis to confirm that this is verified acoustically.

In summary, I feel that together, the methodology answered the research questions, but in hindsight I would have made some small changes. For example, I would have explicitly asked each respondent about their regional identity, alongside the map task, which I would have made more compatible with ArcGIS. Ideally, I would not have had any word lists missing from the data collection, and had I have been able, would have played the dialect

recognition tasks out in a different order to each individual participant. Future research will be discussed in the following section.

9.4. Directions for Future Research

In terms of future academic research, dialect recognition Task 1 could easily be expanded in its present form to other areas across the East Midlands, without the need for Task 2. The mapping task could be modified with a more ArcGIS compatible map, and a question could be added to this task that asks specifically about regional identity. This would make for results that were compatible with my own, but from a wider area. The two older age groups of Sheffield respondents that were omitted could also be accessed. For parity, the word list could be read out in its present form by these participants.

Although digitising the tasks seems like an obvious way to reach a wider audience, it would only really be possible to gain data on dialect recognition, and the mapping task, without the word list data. In addition, participants may lack the momentum to finish the tasks if they are completing them remotely, and it may not reach the oldest participants who, arguably, may not be reachable through the usual methods, such as social media. MacKenzie et al (2022) found that their online survey was answered mostly by the young. Whilst the survey was responded to by people aged between 10 and 96, the median age was 22 suggesting that the majority of respondents were young (ibid: 47). MacKenzie et al (2022: 47) outline a number of negatives connected with online surveys, including the inability to confirm that respondents were native speakers of British English, and the possibility of receiving 'spurious responses'. It would also be impossible to confirm age group or gender online, so I would therefore suggest as an alternative, with appropriate funding, that field workers travelling around the East Midlands to reach a larger audience would be a potential solution.

The mapping task alone could potentially be extended to other areas around the disputed North/Midland line in the style of Llamas (2010) and Montgomery (2015) along the English/Scottish border. This would increase understanding of where the North/Midland border is positioned by other audiences who live near to the disputed area, from East to

West. A heat map could also be produced so that the whole Midland area could be visualised, rather than just the North/Midland line (Figure 5.8).

My findings about the possible NURSE-SQUARE merger across the Chesterfield region could be further explored in light of MacKenzie et al's (2022) findings that suggest the NURSE−SQUARE merger runs from the North East of England but stops just north of the East Midlands: Further investigation could verify this assertion, or explore whether it is a linguistic feature below the level of awareness of people from the East Midlands. Furthermore, more research about monophthongal FACE and the monophthongal 'make' token, especially, could benefit from further research to understand whether this token is the least monophthongal in the data set because of the connection with older speakers in the town: Is monophthongal 'make' and 'take' deemed to be old-fashioned and therefore avoided? Moreover, further investigation into the spread of GOAT-fronting in the East Midlands would contribute to the existing literature, which suggests that it has reached Sheffield (Finnegan, 2011) but no further south. If this research were to be undertaken, a recent study by Baranowski (2017) strongly suggests that social class should be more of a focus in addition to attitudinal data about how the respondent feels about their home town. Baranowski (2017: 303) analysed social class through occupational history, ascribing five levels from lower working class to upper middle class. With the teenage respondents, he looked at parental occupation, which is something I overlooked in the questionnaire. Baranowski (2017: 318) found that there was a 'monotonic relationship' between social class and GOAT-fronting, whereby 'the fronting of the vowel is led by the highest status social group, with groups further away from it showing proportionately less fronting'. He found that ethnicity was another significant variable, with two ethnic minorities showing less fronting than the White population (ibid: 321). In sum, he found that the fronting of GOAT came from outside of the Manchester dialect, led by the highest status social group which was led by females. Any investigation of GOAT-fronting in Chesterfield or across the East Midlands should therefore also consider social status and ethnicity.

The subject of accent and dialect remains popular with a wider audience. On 06.02.2016 I gave a talk to the Yorkshire Dialect Society at Sheffield Hallam University entitled, 'Not quite North and not quite Midlands: Perceptions of Chesterfield and its changing dialect'. In the

talk I described the background interviews, and initial findings of the dialect recognition tasks taken from the Chesterfield teenage group. The talk attracted a large audience from the Yorkshire Dialect Society, who asked pertinent questions and gave useful suggestions for further research. I also wrote an article in 2015 for the *Transactions of the Yorkshire Dialect Society* along the same theme, and a short article for local Chesterfield magazine, S40 Local, entitled, 'Death of the Chesterfield Accent: "Ch<u>ee</u>se" vs "Ch<u>ay</u>s"' which was published in December 2020 (Ashmore, 2020). This article reached an audience for whom dialect may have only been a passing interest. This article explored the FLEECE vowel in Chesterfield, and how it has been reported to have changed over the twentieth- and twenty-first centuries. However, there is much that might appeal to a wider audience in my thesis, and I feel that an exhibition in connection with Chesterfield Museum would help reach an even wider audience. The oral history tapes referenced in this study (Chapter 3) would be of interest in terms of both local history and accent and dialect, with excerpts that could be played out to visitors detailing how some features of the Chesterfield accent, specifically the so-called -ook words, may already have died out, and recording local dialect vocabulary specific to workplaces that may no longer exist, such as the Chesterfield potteries. This is a consideration for the future, which Braber and Davies (2016) supported in their article for *Oral History*. They also advocated the collection of new oral histories, with Natalie Braber having initiated the British Academy funded Pit Talk project, for which I was a research assistant for a year from 2014 tasked with interviewing former coal miners from across the East Midlands. Braber and Davies (2016: 106) claimed that these interviews recorded a way of life that was dying out, alongside sociolinguistic data. Chesterfield Museum has a large collection of products from Robinsons' and Sons Ltd, so a new oral history project with former Robinsons' workers is a consideration for the future.

9.5. Final Words

To end, I will link back to my original aims: The first aim was to assess Chesterfield residents' regional identity, and how this relates to their perceptions of local dialects and accents.

Through my research, I explored the English Midland and Northern border, explicitly, which had not been directly addressed in any previous research to my knowledge, and not with three different age groups. I found that most Chesterfield participants do believe in a Midland region, and they tend to place Chesterfield within it. Teenagers tend to place Sheffield with Chesterfield in the Midlands, and most age groups put Nottingham and Derby there too. I found there was hardly any animosity towards Sheffield, which was the most frequented city by Chesterfield respondents, but still a desire to remain separate from Sheffield: A northward facing Derbyshire identity, separate from the south of the county, to whom there remained some negativity following the miners' strike of the 1980s. I found evidence of a widespread belief in a transition zone across the East Midlands, as Upton (2012) proposed, which I referred to a scale of northern-ness contributing towards the deductive processes that were noticeable in the dialect recognition tasks. Confusion from cartographic misunderstanding in the dialect recognition tasks in connection with the scale of northern-ness, and the 'posh' label being ascribed to South Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire, led to some misidentification of local voices.

The second aim was to explore linguistic production in Chesterfield across the same three age groups of respondents, especially in relation to regional identity. I found that regional identity was less significant than the age of the respondent, the youngest of whom tended to have more monophthongal FACE when reading out the list of words, with the exception of monophthongal 'make', which they may view as old fashioned. It was mooted that this may be a display of allegiance with Sheffield, or simply be part of their existing repertoire. This finding is new, as monophthongal variants of FACE and GOAT have previously been considered to have died out in Chesterfield (Braber and Robinson, 2018). I learnt that Chesterfield people see GOAT fronting as a marker of Sheffield speech. However, there was no real evidence that Chesterfield locals can pinpoint East Midland accents, even their own, despite being able to convincingly claim the Chesterfield female's voice.

My methodology was complex and demanding on participants, but a fuller picture of each participant was created: See the case studies, Chapter 8. Although some activities could be removed to make it less taxing, I feel the benefits of dialect recognition tasks linked to mapping tasks and linguistic production outweighs the negatives, especially when focussed

on different age groups. Age was found to be a significant variable, and generational distance was found to be a barrier to dialect recognition. Participants' social network was found to be a possible factor behind dialect (mis)recognition, which is an avenue for further research.

When I began this thesis, I was asked why I was focussing on Chesterfield, and what positive contribution this research could possibly make. Following a conversation with someone who poured negativity around my research, in front of my then employer, I doubted whether a study based here would be worthwhile. However, I soon realised that Chesterfield's geographic and cultural salience was unknown both in and outside of sociolinguistics, and that centring my research here could both boost the morale of Chesterfield's residents and make a positive contribution to the literature. I am happy that I could have helped to give my hometown positive attention, and I hope that my research contributes to our understanding of borderland identity, East Midland voices, and local dialect recognition in connection with linguistic production. It has been a long nine years, a struggle at times, but I do not regret a moment of my doctoral journey.

10. Final References

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11. Appendices

Appendix 11.1: Ethics approval letter.

**Sheffield
Hallam
University**

Our Ref   AM/RKT/102-ASH
1st July 2015

Ms Claire Ashmore

Dear Ms Ashmore

Request for Ethical Approval of Research Project

Your research project entitled "**Dialect change and identity in Chesterfield, a border town**" has been submitted for ethical review to the Faculty's rapporteurs and I am pleased to confirm that they have approved your project.

I wish you every success with your research project.

Yours sincerely

Professor A Macaskill
Chair
Faculty Research Ethics Committee

Office address:
Business Support Team
Faculty of Development & Society
Sheffield Hallam University
Unit 4, Sheffield Science Park
Howard Street, Sheffield, S1 1WB
Tel:
E-mail: DS-ResearchEthics@shu.ac.uk

Appendix 11.2: Participant Information/Consent forms and Questionnaire.

Information Sheet:

The University undertakes research as part of its function for the community under its legal status. Data protection allows us to use personal data for research with appropriate safeguards in place under the legal basis of public tasks that are in the public interest.

A full statement of your rights can be found at https://www.shu.ac.uk/about-this-website/privacy-policy/privacy-notices/privacy-notice-for-research. However, all University research is reviewed to ensure that participants are treated appropriately and their rights respected. This study was approved by UREC with the reference AM/RKT/102-ASH.

Further information at https://www.shu.ac.uk/research/ethics-integrity-and-practice

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1. **Area of research**: My name is Claire Ashmore and I am undertaking research on local dialects for a doctoral qualification at SHU. My research involves finding out whether people in Chesterfield and surrounding areas can recognise local accents.

2. **Request**: To answer questions about the Chesterfield/Sheffield area, its dialect and accent, and then take part in perception activities, i.e. listening to recordings of people speaking and determining where the speaker comes from.

3. **Why me?** I have asked you to take part due to your knowledge about Chesterfield/Sheffield and surrounding locations.

4. **What will I be required to do?** Take part in the activities outlined above, and, potentially, read out a list of words while I am recording you and take part in a short recorded interview about local accents/dialects.

5. **Where will this take place?** In an agreed public space.

6. **How often will I have to take part, and for how long?** For the duration of the activities, approximately 2 hours.

7. **When will I have the opportunity to discuss my participation?** After we have completed the activities.

8. **Who will be responsible for all of the information when this study is over?** I will analyse the results of the activities and use them to form part of my final thesis. I will make your name anonymous, and if you take part in an interview or read a word list, I will make transcripts of these and anonymise your name.

9. **Who will have access to it?** The anonymised transcriptions will be available to other researchers upon request.

10. **What will happen to the information when this study is over?** The recordings will be deleted but the transcriptions will be held by me.

11. **How will you use what you find out?** Information from these activities will form part of my final thesis and may also be used in published journal articles and/or in presentations.

12. **Will anyone be able to connect me with what is recorded and reported?** No. Names and names of schools or groups will be anonymised.

13. **How long is the whole study likely to last?** The PhD will last a minimum of three years (currently scheduled to finish February 2020).

14. **How can I find out about the results of the study?** By contacting me at the email address below.

15. **What if I do not wish to take part?** Participation is totally voluntary.

16. **What if I change my mind during the study?** You are free to withdraw up to two weeks after the date of the activities if you contact me by email.

17. **Contact details**: C.Ashmore@shu.ac.uk

You should contact the Data Protection Officer if:	You should contact the Head of Research Ethics (Professor Ann Macaskill) if:
- you have a query about how your data is used by the University - you would like to report a data security breach (eg if you think your personal data has been lost or disclosed inappropriately) - you would like to complain about how the University has used your personal data DPO@shu.ac.uk	you have concerns with how the research was undertaken or how you were treated a.macaskill@shu.ac.uk

Postal address: Sheffield Hallam University, Howard Street, Sheffield S1 1WB

Telephone:

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Please answer the following questions by ticking the response that applies:

	YES	NO
1. I have read the Information Sheet for this study and have had details of the study explained to me.	☐	☐
2. My questions about the study have been answered to my satisfaction and I understand that I may ask further questions at any point.	☐	☐
3. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study within the time limits outlined in the Information Sheet without giving a reason for my withdrawal, and/or to decline to answer any particular questions in the study, without any consequences to my future treatment by the researcher.	☐	☐
4. I agree to provide information to the researcher under the conditions of confidentiality set out in the Information Sheet.	☐	☐
5. I wish to participate in the study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.	☐	☐
6. I consent to the information collected for the purposes of this research study, once anonymised (so that I cannot be identified), to be used for any other research purposes.	☐	☐

Participant's Signature: _____Date: _____

Participant's Name (Printed):_____

Parent/Guardian Signature: _____

Parent/Guardian Name (Printed):_____

Contact details: _____

Researcher's Name (Printed): CLAIRE ASHMORE

Researcher's Signature: _____

Please keep your copy of the consent form and the information sheet together.

Questionnaire:

It would really help us if you answered all of the questions in this section. **The answers you provide will be made anonymous so cannot be traced to you**. The information you provide will be used for research purposes only.

1. Age

16-18	
19-25	
26-30	
31-35	
36-40	

41-45	
46-50	
51-55	
56-60	
61-65	

66-70	
71-75	
76-80	
81+	

2. Sex

Male	

Female	

Other	

3. What is your ethnic group? Tick the relevant box:

White:	
English/Welsh/Scottish/Northern Irish/British	
Irish	
Gypsy or Irish Traveller	
Any other white background, please describe:	
Mixed/Multiple Ethnic Groups:	
White and Black Caribbean	
White and Black African	
White and Asian	
Any other mixed/multiple ethnic background, please describe:	
Asian/Asian British:	
Indian	
Pakistani	
Bangladeshi	
Chinese	
Any other Asian background, please describe:	
Black/African/Caribbean/Black British:	
African	
Caribbean	
Any other Black/African/Caribbean background, please describe:	
Other ethnic group:	
Arab	
Any other ethnic group, please describe:	

4. What is your postcode? _____

5. Where (which town or city) were you born?

   _____

6. Where are your parents and spouse/partner from?

   Mother: _____
   Father: _____
   Spouse/partner: _____

7. Have you ever lived anywhere other than Chesterfield? Where? For how many years?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

8. Where (which town or city) do you tend to go on a night out/shopping with friends?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

9. a) If you are a student, which school or college do you attend? **(If you are <u>not</u> a student, please move to question 10)**

   _____

   b) What qualification are you studying towards now? _____

   c) What job would you like in the future? _____

10. What is your employment status, i.e. employed or unemployed (**If you are a student, please go to question 14) _____**

11. What is your current or most recent job title? _____

12. Do/did you work part time or full time? _____

13. Where (which city or town) do you work? _____

14. Please tick your highest level of education to date:

No qualifications		Foundation degree	
GCSE (or O Levels)		Undergraduate degree	
AS Levels		Postgraduate degree or qualification	
A-Levels		Other (please specify):	
Vocational qualifications: NVQ, etc.			

15. Which of the following people do you know socially (i.e. friend/relative)? (Tick all that apply)

Doctor		Bar staff		Musician	
Pilot		Flight Attendant		Mechanic	
Plumber		Hairdresser		Chef	
Secretary		Electrician		Call centre worker	
Nurse		Office manager		Postal worker	
Teacher		Solicitor		Scientist	
Cleaner		Farm worker		Lorry driver	
University lecturer		Chief executive		Accountant	
Artist		Software designer		Shop assistant	
Civil Servant		Other, please specify:			

16. Please tick the option that corresponds best to your circumstances:

I own my home	
I rent privately	
I rent from the council	
I live with parents/friends/relatives	
Other (please specify):	

17. Please tick the option that best describes your house:

Detached		Townhouse	
Semi-detached		Bungalow	
Terrace		Other (please specify):	
Apartment/Flat			

18. How would you label yourself in terms of social class, e.g. working class, middle class?

_____
_____

Appendix 11.3: Perception and map task answer forms.

Talk with your group/partner and answer the following questions:

1) How do you feel about your accent?

_____
_____
_____

2) What do you think of the Chesterfield accent/dialect? Write some words to describe it, below.

The Chesterfield accent/dialect is:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

3) Are there any (dialect) words you associate with Chesterfield, e.g. spidge, greebo. What do the words mean?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

From now, I would like you to work alone. This isn't an exam and I'm more interested in what you think than whether you get the answers "right" or "wrong"

Space for notes:

For this first activity, you will hear 4 older male speakers with accents more typical of the traditional dialect of their town/city. These 4 males are either from **Chesterfield, Derby (or South Derbyshire), Nottingham (or Nottinghamshire) or Sheffield**. There is one male speaker per place.

1) Listen to the recordings and circle where you think they are from, giving reasons why. Remember that there is one male speaker per place, i.e. two male speakers will <u>not</u> be from Chesterfield.

Example:

Male Speaker 0: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, ⬭ Sheffield ⬭

      Why? Because the speaker sounds like my granddad and he's from Sheffield. When he said '_____' it sounded more Yorkshire.

Male Speaker 1: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

    Why?_____
_____
_____

Male Speaker 2: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

    Why?_____
_____
_____

Male Speaker 3: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

    Why?_____
_____
_____

Male Speaker 4: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

    Why?_____
_____
_____

2) Now listen to the **SAME SPEAKERS** speaking in the **SAME ORDER as activity 1**. They are going to answer some short questions about dialect vocabulary in the town/city they're from. Please circle again where you think they're from. If your answer has changed from activity 1, please state why.

Example:

Male Speaker 0: (Chesterfield) Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why? Because we use the same word for bread roll in Chesterfield and I think they say something else in Sheffield. Also, his accent sounds more Chesterfield in this recording.

Male Speaker 1: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Male Speaker 2: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Male Speaker 3: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Male Speaker 4: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Now you will repeat this activity, but with younger female speakers who have accents more typical of the modern dialect of their town/city. You will then hear 4 younger females reading the same passage. These 4 females are either from **Chesterfield, Derby (or South Derbyshire), Nottingham (or Nottinghamshire) or Sheffield** (one female speaker per place).

3) Listen to the recordings and circle where you think they are from, giving reasons why. Remember that there is one female speaker per place, i.e. two female speakers will <u>not</u> be from Chesterfield.

Female Speaker 1: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Female Speaker 2: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Female Speaker 3: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Female Speaker 4: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

4) Now listen to the **SAME SPEAKERS** speaking in the **SAME ORDER as activity 3**. They are going to answer some short questions about dialect vocabulary in the town/city they're from. Please circle again where you think they're from. If your answer has changed from activity 1, please state why.

Female Speaker 1: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Female Speaker 2: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Female Speaker 3: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

Female Speaker 4: Chesterfield, Derby, Nottingham, Sheffield

Why?_____
_____
_____

3) Below you will see a map of Britain. Draw **one line** where you think the north and south separate. If you think there is a midlands area, draw **two lines** to show where the north becomes the midlands and where the midlands becomes the south.

Key

1. Newcastle
2. York
3. Leeds
4. Manchester
5. Liverpool
6. Sheffield
7. Chesterfield
8. Nottingham
9. Derby
10. Birmingham
11. Bristol
12. London

4) On the map, below, draw arrows to places you know and write words that describe the accent/dialect next to the arrow, e.g. farmer, broad, etc. If the place isn't marked on the map, but is in Yorkshire or the East Midlands, e.g. Bolsover, Rotherham, Ilkeston, write the place name in the box at the bottom of the page along with your description of the accent/dialect.

Key
1. Bradford
2. Leeds
3. Wakefield
4. York
5. Hull
6. Sheffield
7. Lincoln
8. Nottingham
9. Derby
10. Leicester
11. Northampton
12. Rutland

EXTRA PLACES IN YORKSHIRE/EAST MIDLANDS:

Appendix 11.4: Word list formal reading task.
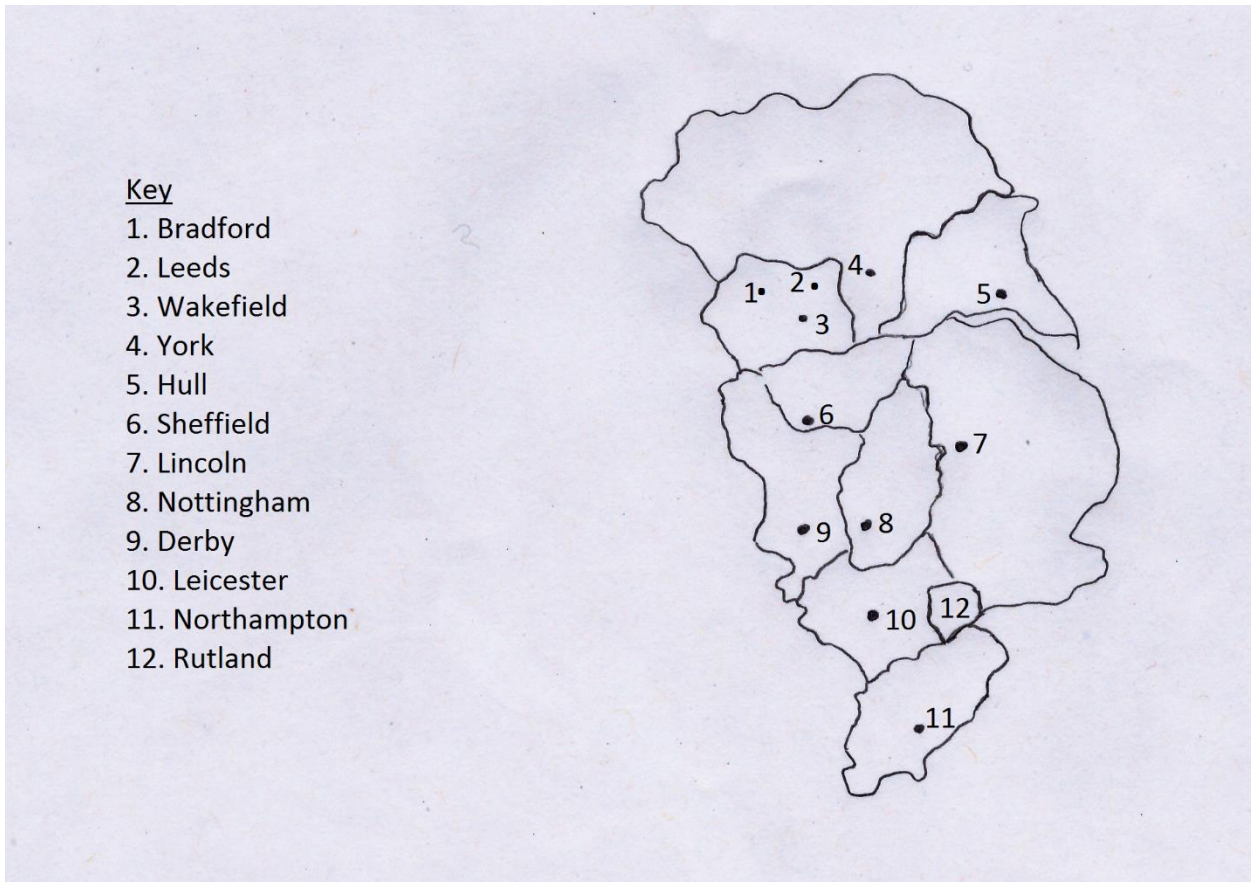
Please read out the following words at a normal pace (the temptation is to read too fast!) If you make a mistake, just repeat the word. Thank you.

kit, trap, strut, bath, nurse, face,
thought, goose, choice, near, start,
force, happy, comma,

dress, lot, foot, cloth, fleece, palm,
goat, price, mouth, square, north, cure,
letter,

make, house, out, eight,

daisy, go, note, pound, no,

cow, about, town

Appendix 11.5: Statistical test results for the word list data.

Chi3 Test of Association (continuity corrected)

For age: FACE

Contingency Tables

Age	Diphthong		
	0	1	Total
Middle_Age	1	27	28
Older	6	18	24
Teens	14	18	32
Total	21	63	84

χ^2 Tests

	Value	Df	p
χ^2 continuity correction	12.9	2	0.002
N	84		

For gender: FACE

Contingency Tables

| | Diphthong | | |
Gender	0	1	Total
F	7	33	40
M	14	30	44
Total	21	63	84

χ² Tests

	Value	Df	p
χ² continuity correction	1.59	1	0.207
N	84		

For region: FACE

Contingency Tables

	Diphthong		
Region	**0**	**1**	**Total**
M	15	45	60
N	6	18	24
Total	21	63	84

χ^2 Tests

	Value	**Df**	**p**
χ^2 continuity correction	0.00	1	1.000
N	84		

For age: GOAT

Contingency Tables

	Diphthong		
Age	**0**	**1**	**Total**
Middle_Age	12	16	28
Older	6	18	24
Teens	15	17	32
Total	33	51	84

χ^2 Tests

	Value	**Df**	**p**
χ^2 continuity correction	2.98	2	0.226
N	84		

For gender: GOAT

Contingency Tables

| | Diphthong | | |
Gender	0	1	Total
F	14	26	40
M	19	25	44
Total	33	51	84

χ^2 Tests

	Value	Df	p
χ^2 continuity correction	0.295	1	0.587
N	84		

For region: GOAT

Contingency Tables

| | Diphthong | | |
Region	0	1	Total
M	27	33	60
N	6	18	24
Total	33	51	84

χ^2 Tests

	Value	Df	P
χ^2 continuity correction	2.10	1	0.148
N	84		