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EF, an emergent REF2021 set of rules, and uncertainty about a post-Brexit future seem to dominate the UK higher education landscape at the moment. TEF’s aims to recognise and reward excellence in teaching and learning are shaping university endeavours. Two of the articles in this issue focus on the learner experience and how it can be transformed by innovative approaches to assessment and feedback. Madar has explored the use of the PechaKucha presentation style as a mode of assessment for students. The claim is that innovative assessment methods can provide students with the skills that are widely sought after by employers. Murphy and England examine the notion of student feedback as a key benefit to the provision of quality teaching in the HE sector, drawing from a study in psychology.

Brexit’s grave repercussions are very relevant to the theme of Alnahed’s article which aims to enhance our understanding of the role that news media play in shaping public opinion and how we can equip students with the knowledge and tools to produce journalism that is worthy of its title as the ‘fourth estate’. The paper argues that Brexit, the ensuing 2017 General Election, and the treatment of controversial political figures make the need for an assessment of print, broadcast, and online journalism very pertinent.

From the social to the societal, Flax’s article highlights the significant impact that hate crime has on both individuals and communities. She claims that the word ‘victim’ only takes its full meaning when it is examined against the social context in which an offence takes place and the social recognition any group might have gained to qualify as victims.

Closer to home, Whitfield and Cachia discuss how employee stress is having a significant impact on individuals in a working environment. The claim is that, striving towards a positive work environment, prevention is definitely less costly than interventions through Employee Assistance Programmes – both for the individual and the organisation.

Finally, two contributions explore areas that the University of West London has significant expertise in, in the field of hospitality and tourism and identify changes and future directions in the sector. Roper discusses the restructuring of the corporate hotel industry and examines the industrial economic drivers that have facilitated this change. Reddy evaluates the progress of the commercial space tourism industry following the setback caused by the Virgin Galactic crash in 2014 and discusses opportunities and challenges in the current political and economic climate whilst exploring directions for researchers in this field.

Professor Stylianos Hatzipanagos
New Vistas Editor
New Vistas | Policy, Practice and Scholarship in Higher Education

CONTENTS

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EDITOR’S NOTE

1

Teaching & Learning

ASSESSING THE STUDENT:
THE PECHAKUCHA APPROACH
Poonam Madar

4

Teaching & Learning

THE STUDENT EXPERIENCE OF
STUDENT-TO-TEACHER FEEDBACK
Dr Anthony Murphy and Dr Dawn England

12

Disciplines

DO YOU QUALIFY TO BE
A HATE CRIME VICTIM?
Maya Flax

24

Disciplines

COVERING THE VOTE
Dr Sumaya Al Nahed

18
Disciplines

RING THE CHANGES
Angela Roper
34

Practice & Work

HOW DOES WORKPLACE STRESS AFFECT JOB PERFORMANCE? AN EMPLOYEE’S PERSPECTIVE
Matthew Whitfield & Moira Cachia
28

Disciplines

A SPACE ODYSSEY
Maharaj Vijay Reddy
40

Student profile

UWL PhD STUDENT PROFILE
Jane Scott
48
ASSESSING THE STUDENT: THE PechaKucha APPROACH

With creativity and innovation as dominant buzzwords in higher education, employing PechaKucha to assess students is worth exploring.

With universities being increasingly encouraged to implement innovative assessment methods, the emphasis is on those methods, which will specifically prepare students with the ‘skills’ that are widely sought after by employers. Pecha Kucha is one such method that can benefit students within and beyond higher education.

As universities are being increasingly encouraged to implement innovative assessment methods, such innovation serves a twofold purpose. One purpose being, that while traditional forms of assessment such as essays and timed exams remain popular with examiners, there is a plethora of strategies that can be utilised to test students’ knowledge, understanding and skills (Race, 2014). The other and equally important point being, universities today face enormous pressure to rethink their curriculum in response to the challenges of an ever-changing world of employment. In rethinking the curriculum design, one can argue that this also means looking further afield and learning from organisations outside the sector (Povah and Vaukins, 2017). For the purpose of this article, I have explored the use of the PechaKucha presentation format as a mode of assessment for students. Since its inception in 2003 (Ingle and Duckworth, 2013: 45), the use of this style of presentation has been increasing in popularity across various professional organisations. Advocates of the PechaKucha format, whereby the presenter shows 20 PowerPoint slides and is given 20 seconds per slide before the presentation advances automatically (Povah and Vaukins, 2017), argue that this technique represents a valuable way of using technology in the classroom, thus enhancing creativity and innovation across curricula. This article outlines how students can benefit from using PechaKucha for assessment purposes. It proposes that the Pecha Kucha presentation style provides an insight into how students engage in the learning process and how it empowers them with skills that will serve them well for years to come.

Thinking Creatively: the PechaKucha presentation

While there is nothing new in assessing students through their PowerPoint slides presentations, the PechaKucha method has been widely recognised as more innovative in nature (Klentzin et al., 2010).

PechaKucha (also described as Pecha 20 x 20) is a presentation style in which the presenter displays 20 PowerPoint slides and has 20 seconds per slide before the presentation advances automatically. With the entire delivery lasting no more than six minutes and 40 seconds, this format shows the speaker as mastering (or at least attempting to), ‘the art of concise presentations’ (Lucas and Rawlins, 2015: 102).

The challenge in delivering content in an engaging and fast-paced manner captures the very essence of the PechaKucha format. The name itself derives from the Japanese term for the sound of ‘chitchat’, with the speakers interacting in an energetic and innovative manner.

Tokyo-based architects Mark Dytham and Astrid Klein invented PechaKucha on the premise that workplace presentations often take far too long and without people getting to the point (Ingle and Duckworth, 2013: 45). By employing the PechaKucha method, the speaker (and arguably the audience too) is liberated from spending too much time explaining the content of the presentation.

Poonam Madar | University of West London, UK
Since its initiation, PechaKucha has been increasing in popularity worldwide, with various professional communities presenting their work, in disciplines ranging from the Arts to those in the business sector (Ingle and Duckworth, 2013: 45); and even within academic communities (Beyer 2011; Fraser, 2014). In a similar vein, the ‘PechaKucha’ phenomenon has also attracted Universities, instigated in part by the need to prepare students with the employability and entrepreneurial skills that are widely sought after outside the Academy. Communication is one such skill. More specifically, there appears to be a growing emphasis on the need for educators to use the classroom ‘space’ to provide students with diverse ways to develop effective communication skills; and particularly those skills, which we cannot measure in traditional assessment methods, for instance, essays or exams (Attwood, 2009; Race, 2014). In contrast, PechaKucha as a mode of assessment enables a process whereby students’ communication skills can be cultivated as well as put to the test.

In setting an assessment, educators can ask students to deliver their own PechaKucha 20 x 20 ‘presentation to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding of a particular topic or concept’ (Ingle and Duckworth, 2013: 46). Advocates of PechaKucha further argue that this practice ‘may also be useful in developing and demonstrating learners functional skills in ICT, as well as an opportunity to practice and develop confidence in their public speaking’ (Ingle and Duckworth, 2013: 46).

**Using PechaKucha in the classroom**

At this point, it is worthwhile emphasising three key factors that can help students understand what is expected of them. To begin with, reiterate that the purpose of this assessment is more than just acquiring academic skills; thus the classroom space is being utilised to prepare students for the world that exists beyond the academy walls. Second, unlike traditional PowerPoint presentations, PechaKucha works within a specific time frame. With only six minutes and forty seconds per presentation, the student is required to effectively communicate their ideas / views within the time limit. In a sense, the method can be likened to storytelling; and the onus is on the students to demonstrate their ability as effective storytellers. Third, presentations require that different methods of communication are employed; verbal (the oral communication skills demonstrated), non-verbal (body language), written (the writing as it appears on the PechaKucha slides) and visual (the images displayed on the PechaKucha slides). Students will have the opportunity to put all of the above skills into practice; and in doing so, keeping in mind that PechaKucha slides are intended to be visually stimulating so students are actively encouraged to be creative and innovative in their design. Following this, students should be shown examples of good PechaKucha presentations so that they get a ‘feel’ as it were on how PechaKucha presentations work.

Implementing the PechaKucha method in the classroom can be seen as comprising five stages.
Unlike traditional PowerPoint presentations, PechaKucha works within a specific time frame. With only six minutes and forty seconds per presentation, the student is required to effectively communicate their ideas within the time limit.

The first stage involves explaining the assessment to the students and then moving on to introduce the ‘PechaKucha presentation style and its guiding principles’ (Lucas and Rawlins, 2015: 103).

The second stage entails setting some time aside for students to engage in independent learning (alternatively, this could also be an in-class seminar activity, depending on the time permitted for the session). Students should be directed to the PechaKucha website and asked to review a presentation of their choice; thus paying close attention to the written and visual style using which it has been implemented, and how effective the speaker is in getting their points of view across (guidelines on what the students should be looking out for in the presentation could be provided beforehand). This stage of the process is particularly useful in that the method actively encourages students to make a carefully thought out decision of the presentation they wish to review from the many options available to them and thus be active agents in their own learning. In addition, by familiarising themselves with PechaKucha, this enhances students’ understanding around innovative presentation styles.

The third stage involves students sharing the observations that they made based on the activity outlined in stage two. Stage three of the process enables students to not only discuss their own understanding of PechaKucha, but also learn from their peers thus engaging with different points of view. This can be done in small groups to begin with and then form part of a larger class discussion thereafter. Lucas and Rawlins (2015: 104) suggest that students also be provided with ‘hardcopy or electronic handouts with 20 large squares and space for notes’ where they can begin mapping a preliminary sketch of their own presentations. They also suggest dedicating some ‘class time to giving students a ‘feel’ for how long 20 seconds really lasts, and how much can be said in that amount of time’ (Lucas and Rawlins, 2015: 105). Ultimately, the aim is to ensure that students are given ample preparation time and support before they go about preparing their own presentations independently.

The fourth stage sees each student deliver the PechaKucha presentation to the class. To ensure this is achieved effectively, the computer in the room should be preloaded with the presentations prior to the start of the class. The timing settings also need to be checked in advance to ensure that each slide show runs smoothly and uninterrupted. Lucas and Rawlins (2015: 105) further stipulate that ‘files should be queued in order so presentations flow relatively seamlessly from one presenter to the next (with, of course, a pause for applause from the audience).’ Another suggestion involves recording the presentations so that they can be ‘used as evidence for summative assessment or as a self-assessment development tool for playback and critique’ (Ingle and Duckworth 2013: 46). It is also worthwhile ensuring that technical support is available in case of any technological difficulties experienced on the day. If a member of the IT and audio-visual team are not able to be present in the room than at least notifying them in advance of the session can mean that help can be sought more efficiently and effectively rather than explaining ‘in the moment’ and thus risk losing precious time. This also puts the students at ease if they know help is easily available should we require it.

The fifth and final stage is where the assessor (course leader and another fellow academic) provides verbal feedback to the student as well as following this up later with the grade and written feedback. In terms of the grading criteria, Lucas and Rawlins (2015: 105) suggest that ‘PechaKucha presentations should be graded by standard public speaking or business communication rubrics.’ In addition to the rubrics, there can also be a PechaKucha-specific checklist to ensure that the students complied with the Pecha 20 x 20 style, whether or not the automatic timing was on point, the quality of the photographs provided and so on and so forth. If time permits, the session could also enable students to briefly discuss their own thoughts regarding the assessment. Alternatively, they could complete a self-assessment form commenting how they felt about their performance and adding any comments that they might have about the assessment overall.

In recognition of the above, it is worth noting that an alternative to PechaKucha is Ignite which was launched in the USA in 2006 (Ingle and Duckworth 2013: 45). While it shares the same principles as PechaKucha, the difference is that ‘Ignite...
presentations are five minutes in length, following a protocol of 20 slides, with 15 seconds allowed for each slide’ (Ingle and Duckworth, 2015: 45). While the difference may only be the difference of one minute and 40 seconds, Ignite remains a popular mode of assessment even in schools, particularly those in the USA (Ingle and Duckworth, 2013: 45).

**Student assessments: embracing the PechaKucha method**

Drawing on my own teaching experience, I introduced first year undergraduate Law and Criminology students to PechaKucha as an assessment method. It is important to note that not all students were comfortable with presentations; and certainly, for some the idea of speaking in front of the class posed a source of anxiety. However, as I discovered, there is often more than one-way to address an issue, and therefore to encourage students to fulfil the task, Aristotle’s (1959) advice in *Ars Rhetorica*, to use ‘all the available means of persuasion’ is fitting here.

To begin with, the assessment provided a platform whereby students were encouraged to use visual images. Given that the majority of the students were active in social networking sites (i.e. Instagram and Snapchat) where users share photographs, the idea of using images to express their opinions did not represent an unfamiliar territory. Interestingly, drawing on her own experience at Royal Holloway University of London, Huseman (2016) points out that some international students, who were not particularly comfortable with presenting in front of a class, nevertheless ‘considered designing powerful visual slides as their strength.’

Another effective strategy is to, where possible, share online additional information that conveys the benefits in completing the very assessment proposed. Race (2014: 162) argues that ‘in our digital age, the best content in the world is free, online’ and in this instance, a TED Talk (2012) supporting the use of Pecha Kucha is useful viewing for the students. The speaker Eddie Selover uses the platform to express the efforts he made to overcome speech anxiety; which in itself can be an important source of inspiration, especially to those who feel they can relate to these sentiments. Furthermore, with the emphasis on students requiring the right type of skills to increase their chances of becoming employable, watching someone from the ‘job’ sector promoting the use of PechaKucha enables the students to form a connection to the world of employment and appreciate what might be expected from them beyond the Academia.

Lucas and Rawlins (2015: 106) argue that the PechaKucha format has helped students to ‘overcome speech anxiety by centring attention on the short length of time they have for each slide instead of thinking about how long they have to talk.’ This coincides with the thoughts of the students I assessed whose first language was not English which points to the universal appeal of this method and endorses the idea that ‘everybody has
the capacity to be a good communicator’ (Neimtus, 2017). What better place to build on these skills than in an environment where students have the support of their tutors and their peers before they enter the competitive world of employment?

In the case of the PechaKucha assessment that I carried out, a point worth noting is how many of the students reported to have enjoyed consolidating the contents of the course differently. It facilitated an opportunity for them to focus precisely on employing diverse methods of communication and as such, this strategy has proven to be more successful with students than the traditional PowerPoint Presentation (Beyer, 2011; Lucas and Rawlins, 2015; Zharkynbekova et al., 2017). Furthermore, this assessment format promotes a highly active learning process; thus, motivating students to be active agents in their own learning. All in all, the presentation comprises a range of challenges; including thinking about (and engaging with) ‘presentation designs and delivery styles, using eye-catching and powerful visual images rather than (relying on] large amounts of text in bullet points’ (Ingle and Duckworth, 2015: 45) thus empowering students with skills that will serve them well for years to come.

Thinking beyond Higher Education

The PechaKucha method represents good practice for producing powerful and effective presentations, and prepares learners for the communication demands that they will encounter in the workplace. The highly structured nature of the method should not be underestimated; it requires precision, conciseness, and clarity.
Preparing today’s student for the ever-changing workplace

World leaders and entrepreneurs often seem rather keen to point out that in a world where time and attention are increasingly in high demand, brevity in communication is imperative. As Branson (2014) points out, ‘it’s better to say nothing, than spend... [a one hour] speech saying nothing. Get to the point – fast.’ PechaKucha serves as a ‘taster’ to remind students that the real world of work can ask individuals to innovate and communicate at a pace that is more often than not, unprecedented.

It would seem that universities would be all the wiser to be continually supporting students to acquire employability and entrepreneurial skills in the most diverse ways possible. Universities today face enormous pressure to redesign curricula in response to the challenges of an ever-changing world. Learners must acquire the type of skills that are most sought after by employers and the university experience equips students with academic, employability, and entrepreneurial skills that will help them in unprecedented ways in the years to come. Hence, the PechaKucha experience conveys a strong message to students that they are in the right direction.

References


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Keywords

Keywords: Presentations, Technology, Assessments, Communication Skills
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THE STUDENT EXPERIENCE OF STUDENT-TO-TEACHER FEEDBACK

Student-to-teacher feedback: Good for us, good for them
Providing student-to-teacher feedback throughout module delivery increases student engagement and empowers students as co-creators of knowledge. Embedding multi-systemic, real-time feedback into HE culture not only enhances opportunity for professional development but may also improve student engagement, with implications for attainment and retention.

The student experience of Student-to-Teacher feedback

Student feedback is a cornerstone of the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) (2012) policy on teaching and learning in Higher Education (HE). The aims of this policy are to provide feedback on their courses, contribute to the development of learning and teaching, to participate in university decision-making, and to represent the students’ views at an institutional level. These aims have the potential to maximise the benefits of feedback to the reflective learning environment of teaching professionals within the HE setting, though application currently does not reflect this. We understand the benefits of feedback overall, and research examines the benefits for students in receiving feedback. As such, much of the research focuses on the more traditional and unidirectional teacher to student feedback.

This article aims instead to examine the effects of student to teacher feedback as part of an innovative approach to education. There exists some evidence to suggest that providing feedback to teachers empowers students as co-creators of knowledge, thus increasing engagement and student attainment (Kandiko Howson, 2015). Specifically, this study examines the students’ experiences of engaging in student-to-teacher feedback throughout the duration of a module based on a small-scale pilot study from one third year optional module in psychology. Student feedback throughout the module may benefit both teaching and learning, and specific recommendations for scaling this process to be institutionally embedded are explored, with implications for student engagement and retention.

Benefits of feedback

High quality, effective feedback satisfies several requirements: it must be timely (i.e., the earlier the better), individually tailored to the recipient, manageable, developmentally appropriate, and instrumental in developing strengths and consolidating learning, while also respecting power dynamics within provider and receiver roles (Race, 2001). Bellon, Bellon, and Blank (1991) demonstrate that feedback not only helps students better understand material studied and provides clear guidance on how to improve their learning, but it is the strongest predictor for achievement among all teaching behaviours measured, controlling for grade, socioeconomic status, race and school setting. In addition to improving work, receiving feedback has been shown to improve student confidence, self-awareness, enthusiasm for learning and engagement in the learning process (Yorke, 2002). High quality feedback has been shown to be particularly important in the higher education environment, aiding students in successfully navigating transition periods, reducing attrition, promoting self-regulation, and empowering students by creating a co-constructed and collaborative learning process (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006).

Student to teacher feedback in higher education: Current practice and context

Much is made of the role, purpose, and benefits of feedback from the academy to students, but far less attention has been given to the important role student feedback may play in the development of teachers, teaching materials and module content, and to the implications this may have for student engagement. McKeachie et al (1980) conducted a study at the University of Michigan, in which instructors who received student ratings, in conjunction with counselling that provided encouragement and suggested alternative teaching strategies, tended to change their classroom behaviours more than faculty members who received only student ratings. This also fits within the perspective of Kuh (2009) who notes the requirement for institutions to involve empirically noted activities conducive to desired outcomes in education, which feedback of this kind appears to meet. Ultimately, incorporating practices of student-led feedback can contribute to improvements in teaching and learning provision.

Many universities do incorporate student feedback in existing models. However, it is important to note that often, and in keeping with the QAA guidelines on student feedback, this feedback is gathered through end of module feedback systems and the National Student Survey (NSS) (Kandiko Howson, 2015). Such feedback opportunities, when taken as the only variety of feedback from students, demonstrate a more evaluative purpose or a ‘consumer satisfaction’ approach (Kandiko Howson, 2015). However, feedback may, and perhaps even ought to, serve to enhance student engagement and professional development through initiating and supporting reflective practice in teaching and learning.

Engagement in higher education: Connections to student feedback

Enhancing student engagement in HE is considered through several different approaches. The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) discuss the importance of incorporating student feedback in the context of ‘student engagement’. They define this as ‘the process whereby institutions and sector bodies make deliberate attempts to involve and empower students in the process of shaping the learning experience’ (HEFCE, 2008), providing scope for feedback to be used to involve and empower, allowing students to shape their learning experience through engagement. The Higher Education Authority (HEA) highlights student feedback and representation as fundamental to the HEA conceptualisation of engagement, though the extent to which this translates into practice is not fully understood. Specifically, in relation to the HE
sector, student engagement is defined as ‘participation in educationally effective practices, both inside and outside the classroom, which lead to a range of measurable outcomes’ (Kuh et al., 2007).

**Student to teacher feedback: A case for culturally embedded practice**

Student engagement provides a useful framework for considering how staff and students can both use feedback to develop a dialogic partnership that works towards enhancing teaching and learning. The importance of student feedback within this engagement process is characterised by Kandiko Howson (2015), who suggest that student feedback can provide insights into module teaching and issues regarding student learning. When gathered throughout the term (rather than simply an evaluation at the end), feedback can address current issues more quickly, measure the effectiveness of teaching, and document progression. However, and most importantly, it can provide students with a means to appreciate that their experiences on a module matter.

Thus, effective feedback processes are built on three principles: firstly, that students are provided with an opportunity to feedback on their learning experiences; that this feedback is listened to and valued, and crucially, seen to be so by the students providing feedback; and finally, that the communication is acted upon, and again seen to be so by the students. Embedding a more dynamic and real-time student feedback process may serve to enhance HE by increasing student engagement and improving teaching and learning processes.

**A multi-systemic feedback intervention**

A multi-systemic feedback approach was used to design an intervention in one HE third year optional module in Psychology at the University of West London, with the purpose of engaging students in providing student-to-teacher feedback. This multi-systemic pilot intervention program involved three separate feedback approaches (i.e., ‘treatment groups’). The first treatment group involved all students in the module (N=48) who were asked to anonymously provide weekly feedback via a Poll Everywhere survey, an in class, real-time provision where survey results are disseminated to students immediately upon collection. The second treatment group involved 9 students chosen at random who were asked to provide feedback in a semi-structured, one-to-one feedback session with the module leader. Students did this one-to-one feedback session three times throughout the module, once every 4 weeks. The third treatment group brought 5 other students (not those who participated in one-to-one feedback sessions, but otherwise chosen at random) into a focus group to provide feedback to the module leader in three focus group sessions, once every 4 weeks.

**The present study**

The present study aimed to examine the experience of participating in these interventions. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to examine students’ experiences of providing student-to-teacher feedback and the impact this may have on their experience of the module, their learning and their engagement. Qualitative thematic analyses examined participants’ experiences of these feedback processes. In contrast to typical approaches to gathering student feedback, this study was not concerned with the results of the specific feedback (e.g., how effective was the module) but rather, the effects of engaging in the student-to-teacher feedback process.

**Methodology**

**Participants and procedure**

Six students participated in one semi-structured interview each (4 female and 2 males, of varying ethnic backgrounds, mean age 29.33 years). Two students from each intervention treatment group were included (i.e., two who participated in the focus group feedback method, two who had given feedback in one-to-one sessions, and two who had only provided in-class real time feedback). All students interviewed had experience providing end of module feedback in university, but had not experienced providing student-to-teacher feedback during the course of a module as this intervention had introduced.
A semi-structured interview schedule was designed to examine the student experience of engaging with feedback. Semi-structured interviews were used due to their flexibility, theoretical elasticity, and ability to highlight subjective meaning (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Interviews lasted for an average of 40 minutes and refreshments were provided. Interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed thematically in accordance with the analytical recommendations of Braun & Clarke (2006).

**Findings**

Two key areas were discussed by participants: the overall experience of engaging in feedback (findings 1); and how different feedback methods were experienced (findings 2).

**Findings 1**

Figure two (above left) illustrates the key themes that emerged from participants’ overall experience of providing feedback throughout the module.

Participants experienced several sources of impact as a result of receiving feedback, highlighting two emergent themes of interest. Principally, participants noted the impact that providing feedback had on their learning experience on the module, highlighting noticeable changes for the positive (e.g., extending focus on particular points of interest, providing extended additional reading materials, and delving deeper into specific debates at the request of students).

**Emma:** It feels like it was a worthwhile exercise because it actually changed things. It gave us a way to highlight the good, not just the bad. The sessions the module leader taught were really helpful... He made sessions longer, illustrated critical evaluation as it came up, and helped prep for the exams based on what we requested so it was a useful forum.

Students also noted a general enhancement in engagement in the module as a result of providing feedback. Specifically, participants expressed wanting to note the good and bad in the module as critical co-constructors of knowledge and understanding:

**Louise:** Oh, it has been really useful for me... I have found it like having statutory rights ya know... like I can say when I am not happy with something while it’s happening rather than having to wait till the end. It made me sit up and say this is or isn’t ok. It was refreshing because as students we don’t often get a chance to give our input in real time and that made me want to fully appreciate what I liked and what I wanted to change. I was given a voice and I wanted to use it. I think it made me engage more because I was looking for things to feedback on...

Generally, participants reported feeling like trusted co-contributors to the module and that providing feedback in this way allowed them to make things better for them, rather than the following cohort (as with end of year feedback). Feedback through this intervention was highlighted as an empowering experience, allowing students to play an ‘active’ role in the module, with the added benefit of creating a diligence among the students, almost as if being empowered consumers enhanced engagement in their ‘consumption’.

**Findings 2**

Figure three, above right, highlights the themes which emerged from considering the specific medium of feedback. Within these findings, insights are provided about the participant experience of engaging in each form individually: either in anonymous, real time feedback in the form of weekly in-class survey feedback (Poll Everywhere); semi-structured on-to-one feedback sessions; and focus group feedback sessions.

**Poll Everywhere feedback**

Poll Everywhere was identified as reassuring as well as engaging, and the anonymous nature of the dialogues encouraged students to take part freely. This perceived freedom provides students with anonymity from both their teacher and their peers, creating an environment where students do not fear asking particular questions or providing insights that may otherwise make them stand out.

**Toby:** I think it’s really good to have students do this... We only usually give mid-way and end of module feedback but this was kind of encouraging from the beginning of the module. It allowed us to see that we matter throughout the module, rather than just to evidence how we felt about it after the fact. It at least encouraged me to think that it mattered what I thought during and that I could...
be responded to… Like my experience could be tailored to some extent. It encouraged me to contribute and being anonymous helped that.

Furthermore, the weekly anonymised feedback also provided students with reassurances about their rights within the module and their place as active contributors. Notions of feeling like an important part of the module, rather than simply students working under the instruction of a teacher manifested in the experiences of participants:

**Victoria:** In a way, I suppose it gave us an active role; it meant that we could say what we thought, we knew that others could see that and most importantly we could see that the teaching staff could see it. There and then we could also try to understand what, if anything, could be done, perhaps… does that make sense? In a way, I guess it meant that we were somehow involved and not just as students… each week we had this time and it meant we could develop things for ourselves. It was like we were part of the thinking within the module…

**One-to-one feedback**

Thematic analysis of the participant’s experiences of feedback interviews also highlighted the emergence of several key themes. In contrast to the Poll Everywhere feedback, interviews were primarily noted as intimidating due to the lack of anonymity and the face-to-face nature of the interviews. Despite extended efforts to reassure students that their information is developmental, may be good and/or bad, and is unrelated to their performance on the module; and reiteration of the confidentiality, anonymity, and desire for honesty in their views, this was raised by Sara and Emma. Emma notes that this is something she was able to get past. It may be that this process could be less intimidating if conducted by a third party, which is further considered in the discussion section.

**Sara:** Well obviously it’s a little different, being a one-to-one interview, it isn’t anonymous.

**Emma:** It was good to have an opportunity to speak more in-depth… You have to get past the fact that you are sat there with your lecturer being asked to give good and maybe bad feedback.

Despite this intimidation, participants further discussed interviews as a useful experience for their learning:

**Sara:** But I think that’s the price you pay for being able to get the good quality feedback, the stuff that most represents what you want to say about your experience of the module. Once the barriers had been broken down, like after the first five minutes of the first interview it was just a conversation and it flowed… It was really supportive and allowed me to give examples and go in-depth about my views of the module and that was a really supportive environment to be in.

Sara suggests that the process being slightly intimidating is the price you pay for working towards tailoring the learning experience. In the above extract, it can be seen how Sara notes that the initial barriers get broken down early in the interview – it becomes far more conversation-like through a supportive interview environment. The provision of an in-depth opportunity to highlight students' needs offers a chance to consider what may improve the learning experience for them, with the opportunity to share their voice holding particular importance. Furthermore, Emma notes that the process encouraged her engagement and made the academic teaching staff appear more approachable. This openness to feedback appears to be a key means by which the process is associated with engagement for participants.

**Emma:** I think it makes for a useful experience all round as it made me engage more and I think it makes you (academic) more approachable too.

**Focus group feedback**

Participants involved in focus group feedback noted that the process was useful as an expansion on the in-class feedback exercise, allowing participants the opportunity to go into greater depth:

**Louise:** The focus groups were a good and useful forum to develop the points and bring things up, maybe in a more thorough way.

Significantly, focus group attendees also reflected on the role the feedback played in their engagement in the module:

**Dan:** Being invited to actively give feedback was a good thing, it felt like I was being invited to participate in a way that meant I was getting out of it what I needed, or at least… ya know… being offered the opportunity to express that, does that make sense?
Students were positive about the opportunity to provide real-time feedback within the module, which was the essence of this intervention.
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COVERING THE VOTE

UK coverage of Brexit, Jeremy Corbyn, and the 2017 General Election
The need to examine how news media (print, broadcast, and online) cover political events rests in no small part on journalism’s role as a ‘fourth estate’ or a ‘watchdog’. Both terms refer to the role of journalists in keeping government to account, through reporting in a manner that produces a knowledgeable and critical electorate. This paper argues that the current political climate in the UK, Brexit, the ensuing 2017 General Election, and the introduction of controversial political figures make the need for this re-assessment of print, broadcast, and online journalism in the UK ever more pertinent.

Journalism’s position as the ‘fourth estate’ of government in democratic societies is central to a properly functioning democracy where the electorate is able to make informed decisions about political actors and parties. This is especially the case during elections and referenda, both of which have taken place in the United Kingdom over the past two years. However, it is not only the news media’s duty to inform the electorate of the candidates’ promises or the parties’ manifestos, but also to provide explanation and context. In the same vein, it is not simply enough for the news media to provide an inclusive platform for all political actors to voice their promises, but to also provide sufficient and comprehensive analysis of these promises. This would be achieved, for example, through the inclusion of expert commentary that would (in addition to the inclusion of political actors on the opposite end of the political sphere) provide balance and context.

I would argue that it is in fact the lack of context, background, as well as the lack of equal measure given to different political players, which has affected the quality of print, broadcast, and online journalism in UK. These issues have also led to coverage that has been deficient in its ability to produce a well-informed electorate, as evidenced by the studies mentioned in this article. It is essential for educators in the area of journalism and news production, to analyse the reasons that would lead to news media coverage (in all formats) being deficient in its ability to produce a well-informed electorate, in order to equip students with the tools necessary to avoid such issues. The studies mentioned in this paper provide insight into some of these issues through concrete analysis of the very significant events of the past two years. This type of research provides a backdrop from where educators in the field of journalism might draw on very recent examples that have affected, and continue to affect, journalism students in their field of study and inquiry.

The role of journalism, as ‘watchdog’, is not only restricted to times of elections and referenda. There are of course other cases where journalists would...
The favouring of one party over the other is not the only problem apparent in British news media coverage; there is also the issue of the inherent bias within news coverage when it comes to the country’s main opposition leader perform such a role that are fraught with dangers and threat of retribution, such as those involving whistleblowing. American journalist Glenn Greenwald (formerly of The Guardian) was in 2013 involved in publishing the cache of classified NSA documents leaked by Edward Snowdon. The documents ultimately revealed what were considered, at least by the United States government, as state secrets. The publication of the Panama Papers, 11.5 million documents detailing the off-shore accounts of several wealthy politicians leaked (anonymously) to German journalist Bastian Obermayer, is another such example of the press fulfilling its duty as watchdog.

The Need for Context

As mentioned previously, context and background are central to the role of a journalist. Research by the Glasgow University Media Group (2004) has shown that the absence of any clear historical context and background in British television news coverage of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict has led to a viewership that is woefully uninformed of the origins of the conflict. The same study also posits that UK coverage of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict suffers from a lack of balance, in the sense that viewers are exposed to a higher percentage of Israeli perspectives (including Israeli government spokespersons) than Palestinian ones (Philo and Berry, 2004), ultimately leading to a biased picture of the events happening on the ground. This brings up another issue that should be considered when evaluating news coverage of elections and referenda, namely the importance of maintaining balance, whereby viewers need to be informed of the positions of the different political players involved.

Research in the area of elections (Hall et al., 1981) separates between the genres of News and Current Affairs on television news, citing the BBC in particular when elaborating on this separation. This distinction is fundamental to our understandings of so-called ‘objective’, straight news on the one hand, and analysis on the other, whereby News would
involve the former and Current Affairs the latter. Both should work towards fulfilling journalism’s role as a watchdog, however, Current Affairs offerings would obviously be more suited towards the provision of context and analysis, by virtue of their design. In a lecture given at the University of West London in 2016 by former Newsnight editor Merion Jones, he detailed the challenges his team faced in airing the Jimmy Saville sexual abuse story in 2011 on the BBC; the very network that had systemically covered up the scandal over the course of several decades. The Newsnight episode in question was ultimately shelved by the BBC and its transmission cancelled; a decision which led to the network being very heavily criticised. Jones recounted the responsibility felt by himself and his team to air the story; irrespective of the fact that the majority were aware that they were in danger of losing their jobs. In 2013, Jones won the London Press Scoop award of the year for his role in the investigation of the Jimmy Saville case and is currently the Investigations Editor at the Bureau of Investigative Journalism. This example illustrates the role of journalism as a watchdog, bringing the country’s public service broadcaster to account, irrespective of the consequences.

Covering the Brexit Vote

The inclusion of context and explanation is of paramount importance during times of election and referenda, as they occur at the precise moment when the electorate needs to make up its mind (Hall et al., 1981). This is a very sensitive moment in a democratic society and one in which journalists have a very important responsibility to inform and educate the electorate. Journalism thus has an obligation to fulfil which falls within the context of its role as the ‘fourth estate’. Extensive research has analysed the UK press and broadcasters’ coverage of the 23 June 2016 Referendum (Levy, D.A.L., Aslan, B. and Bironzo, D. 2016; Deacon et al., 2016; Cushion, S. and Lewis, J. 2016). The researchers found that, when it came to the press, while the country’s major newspapers (of which 10 were included in the study) were split in terms of their Leave/Remain leanings, in terms of circulation 82% of readers in the UK were exposed to pro-Brexitnews. This was due in large part to the circulation 82% of readers in the UK were exposed to pro-Brexitnews. This was due in large part to the substantial readership of the Sun, a publication that eventually came out as pro-Leave once it became clear that the vote itself would swing towards Leave. As for the broadcasters (BBC, Channel 4, Channel 5, ITV), they were more balanced in terms of Leave/Remain coverage. The researchers also found that in terms of the two main issues of the Leave/Remain campaigns, namely the economy and immigration, news bulletins were equally balanced (Lewis and Cushion, 2016). However, problems arose with regards to balance of sources. News sources refer to persons who provide information necessary to the story, and most often the sources would give the story authenticity and weight. In this case, sources would refer to the politicians or political spokespersons campaigning for either Leave or Remain. The researchers found that while Leave/Remain voices were given equal platform, Conservative voices were given more airtime than Labour ones, with Conservative arguments being favoured. Drawing on the above-mentioned findings in an article for The New Statesman, Lewis and Cushion argue:

But an imbalance emerges when we look at the party affiliation of campaigners, since 71.2 per cent of political sources were from the Conservative party compared to 18.4 per cent from Labour. This cannot be blamed on Jeremy Corbyn’s alleged reluctance to participate in the campaign. Alan Johnson – who led Labour’s Remain campaign and many other senior Labour figures tirelessly toured the country (Lewis and Cushion, 2016). This comes not only at the expense of Labour as the main opposition party, but at the expense of all political parties in the UK. What it ultimately reveals is that, at a time when the United Kingdom was undergoing one of the most critical votes in its recent history, the electorate was not being adequately informed, neither by press nor by public service broadcasters.

Perhaps more problematic is the lack of context and explanation provided by the broadcasters in particular. Blumer writes of how the broadcasters ‘tethered their coverage to the campaigners’ plays’ (Blumer, 2016: 11). While each of the broadcasters did indeed report each side of the argument and the challenges made by each of these two sides to their opponents’ claims, they failed to take the argument further, by providing both context and explanation. Berry highlights a second issue; the focus on particular politicians and issues; ultimately leading to what he calls a ‘Tory Story’ (Berry, 2016: 14). This highlights the importance of journalists not taking the statements of political actors at face value; probing and pushing political actors to say exactly what they mean, instead of binding their coverage to the arguments of these political players.

The (Character) Assassination of Jeremy Corbyn

The favouring of one party over another is not the only problem apparent in British news media coverage (both press and broadcasting); there is also the issue of the inherent bias within news coverage when it comes to the country’s main opposition leader, Jeremy Corbyn. In a comprehensive study by the London School of Economics and Political Science (Cammaerts et al., 2017), the researchers found that Jeremy Corbyn was thoroughly delegitimised from the precise moment he became a viable political candidate in 2015. The delegitimisation became even more apparent after he was elected Labour leader, and was done in three main ways: through the distortion or lack of voice, through personal attacks, including ridicule and scorn, and through association, mainly with terrorism and allegedly terrorist organisations (Cammaerts et al., 2017:10), including the IRA, Hamas and Hezbollah.

With regard to the above research, establishing the news media’s tone towards Jeremy Corbyn was
essential in determining how he was framed (or represented) across the UK press in the sample collected in September, October, and November 2015 (namely in the lead up to the Labour leadership election and once the election was sealed). In analysing the data, researchers refer to the press’ role as either a watchdog, or alternatively as an ‘attack dog’ (Cammaerts et al., 2017:2). While a critical tone would correspond to the watchdog role, an antagonistic one would be an indicator of the ‘attack dog’ stance. Positive and neutral tones were also studied in order to determine representation. Positive tones would imply a positive portrayal of Corbyn in the news articles, while neutral tones would imply straight and so-called ‘objective’ coverage and portrayal of him. Publications that were more positive in their representation of Corbyn were The Guardian, The Mirror, and the Independent, while the most antagonistic were The Express and The Sun. In terms of criticality, The Telegraph ranked relatively highly; however, the publication also had a large percentage of articles with an antagonistic tone (Cammaerts et al., 2017:3).

Cammaerts et al., (2017) explain that the delegitimisation of the Labour leader happened in several ways; for example, by distorting his voice or taking words out of context. Additionally, Corbyn was, in many of the publications, not allowed a platform to voice his own views and positions. Of this the researchers state:

Allowing an important and legitimate leader of the main opposition party to develop their own narrative and have their own voice in the public space is paramount in a democracy. Denying such an important political actor a voice or distorting his views and ideas through the exercise of mediated power is highly problematic (Cammaerts et al., 2017:7).

This highlights the role the national press plays in maintaining a democracy, by representing of all sides of the political sphere, in order to produce a properly informed electorate; a role in which, in the case of Jeremy Corbyn, it has clearly failed. Perhaps even more dangerous than the omission of Corbyn’s voice is the delegitimisation through ridicule and scorn, some of which involved his personal life and perhaps more alarmingly his appearance (Cammaerts et al., 2017:7). With regard to ridicule, similarities were drawn between Jeremy Corbyn and Mr. Bean, a British sitcom character, with the tabloid media frequently referring to him as ‘Mr. Corbean’, and the Labour leader was frequently sneered at for both his dress sense and his looks. The Daily Telegraph even sneered at his relationship with Shadow Minister Diane Abbott (Cammaerts et al., 2017:8). This delegitimisation is not restricted to the press, but also extends to the country’s public service broadcaster. In January of this year, the BBC Trust in the annual report, where it evaluates the BBC’s coverage across the year, reprimanded the BBC’s political editor Laura Kuenssberg for editing an interview with Jeremy Corbyn, in a manner that gave a false impression and negative representation of the Labour leader (Lewis, 2017).

Such coverage in the lead up to the Labour leadership elections is an obvious cause for alarm, but perhaps even more alarming is the continuation of such narratives, in particular omission of voice, onwards into the 2017 General Election.

News Media and the Race for Number 10

Academic research into the coverage of the 2017 General Election is in its early stages, however some preliminary findings are emerging. Stephen Cushion, in his analysis of the performance of the broadcasters’ coverage of the 2017 General Election, found that the way the parties were covered on broadcast news shifted across the weeks the campaign was being run. Cushion (2017) found that, in the first week of the campaign, coverage across the broadcasters was largely pro-Conservative, in particular the BBC’s, Brexit negotiations also dominated in this first week. Here we see a correspondence with the narratives outlined in the section above.

However, the second week of coverage began to balance out between the Conservatives and Labour; with Jeremy Corbyn often featured in front of large crowds of, notably, students (Cushion, 2017). This, perhaps not surprisingly, came at the expense of other political parties taking part in the campaign. Coverage of Labour and the Tories made up over 80% of airtime given to all parties. This is clearly problematic in the context of a general election, as the electorate is not being properly informed at what is a very critical political moment, where it is absolutely imperative for both broadcasters and the press to fulfill their duties towards the public.

Returning to the key issues of context and explanation explored at the outset, perhaps the most troubling finding with regards to coverage of the 2017 Election was the ‘light policy agenda’ in the first two weeks of coverage (Cushion, 2017: http://bit.ly/2BrQMZJ), with very little expert analysis given in relation to each of the parties’ policies or candidates. This (unsurprisingly) improved following the launch of the parties’ manifestos. Further research is necessary in order to determine how the broadcasters (and indeed the press) performed in this regard; however, the lack of analysis and context at the outset of the 2017 General Election is indeed problematic and points to a larger issue with regards to expert political analysis in UK news coverage.
The lack of analysis and context at the outset of the 2017 General Election is indeed problematic and points to a larger issue with regards to expert political analysis in UK news coverage.

Conclusion

It is evident that the system of political communication in the UK in 2017 is not at its optimum. This is especially worrying at a time of political uncertainty, where the electorate is tasked with making some very important decisions, and where the UK news media need to fulfill their responsibility as a ‘fourth estate’ and watchdog. The issues range from lack of context and analysis surrounding key issues in elections and referenda, as well as omission of voice for various political players and political parties. The misrepresentation, and indeed character assassination, of Labour leader Jeremy Corbyn is of particular concern. While one cannot deny that publications and news outlets are bound to have their own leanings, political or otherwise, the UK press and broadcasters must recognize the responsibility that they hold towards the public, by informing the electorate and by holding authority into account. In addition, educators in the field of journalism and mass communication must also be aware of how these issues might be presented in current news coverage of Brexit and the most recent elections in order to equip students with the knowledge and tools to produce journalism that is worthy of its title as the ‘fourth estate’.

References


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Consideration to hate crime can be traced to the beginning of the 1980s. Hate crime, as a criminal category, originated as a result of the collective suffering of minority groups who were subjected to discrimination, harassment and violence from majority communities (Gerstenfeld, 2013). A hate crime is defined as any criminal offence which is perceived, by the victim or any other person, to be motivated by a hostility or prejudice based on that person’s actual or perceived race, religion, sexual orientation, disability or gender identity (College of Policing, 2014).

Regardless of this important legal development, it is a fact that some victims of hate crime manage to have recourse to courts of law while others are not recognised as victims of hate crime despite meeting all the legal requirements. This article addresses this question, showing that in order to ‘qualify’ as a victim, the group or victim needs to benefit from some sort of ‘social recognition’. In the first instance, this article highlights the significant impact that hate crime has on both individuals and communities. It then shows that neither meeting the legal definition of a hate crime nor being deeply effected by a hate crime, automatically ‘qualifies’ one to be a victim. It concludes from the above that the word ‘victim’ only takes its full meaning when it is examined against the social context in which an offence takes place and the social recognition any group might have gained to qualify as victims.

The impact of hate crime on victims

There is important field of research which suggests that in cases of hate crime, the impact on victims is greater than in the case of other crimes; victims of hate crime experience deeper psychological and emotional effects than victims of crimes that do not have the ‘hate element’ to them. The detrimental psychological effects of hate crime may impair self-esteem, place a strain on personal relationships, restrict social activities and cause social withdrawal and mental health problems. Victims of hate crime appear more likely to ‘regard the world as unsafe, to view people as malevolent and in addition, to experience a relatively low sense of personal mastery’ (Herek, Gillis and Cogan, 1999: 949).

On a wider scale, hate crimes have major implications for communities, rather than simply on targeted individuals. Hate crime aims not only to subordinate the victim, but to convey a message to the community that the perpetrator finds the group’s identity offensive and that it will be met with violence or intimidation:

Any single incident has threatening implications for all members of that group and reminds them that they could be next (Craig, 2002:89)

Hate crime creates complicated webs of impacts affecting both the individual and the community. The next question is the extent to which these impacts are considered by governmental agencies when deliberating whether to prosecute an offender. This question raises the issue of the social process involved in being identified as a victim of hate crime, and shows that the notion of victimhood is not a term which all can agree on without examining each context in turn. I suggest that in order to be labelled a victimised group, the group needs to engender sufficient compassion among the public to achieve ‘victim status’. Being attacked does not automatically lead to recognition of the victim.

Victims: theory and context

In order to examine the concept of victim, I will refer to a defining moment in British race relations with the publication of the Macpherson report in 1999. The report suggests that the subjective views of a victim would be sufficient to be considered as a case of racism. Recommendation 12 of the Macpherson report states that a racist incident
Hate crimes have major implications for communities, they not only to subordinate the victim, but also convey a message to the community that the perpetrator finds the group’s identity offensive and that it will be met with violence or intimidation.
Victims who belong to a group which threatens others, do not have a solid forum to secure public sympathy – which is critical to achieving the status of being considered a victim.

is ‘any incident which is perceived to be racist by the victim or any other person’ (Macpherson, 1999). Nonetheless research on this topic has shown that the reality for victims is very different. Below are a few examples which illustrate the need for a victim to be socially recognised.

During the summer of 2000, a UK campaign against naming and shaming paedophiles, resulted in many sex offenders being subjected to violence (Perry, 2000). Perpetrators of these assaults were of the view that society would support and legitimise these attacks (and not criticise them for taking the law into their own hands) as they were averting any future attacks by these paedophiles. Whilst there is no element of hate crime in these incidents, this example illustrates that a group needs to engender a certain level of sympathy in order to qualify as victim. In this instance, a paedophile who is attacked, would in effect attract very little compassion, sympathy and support. It is based on the idea that as he has wronged others, others can wrong him – free of any recourse to the courts. In a sense, the paedophile has lost his right to legal protection and his unacceptable behaviour is used to justify the actions of subsequent avengers.

Similarly, following the September 11 attack on the Twin Towers in New York and the Woolwich attack in May 2013 of Lee Rigby, Muslim Londoners have been increasingly and frequently stigmatised as posing a threat to security (Githens-Mazer et al., 2010). On the whole, the notion that Muslims have become prime targets of hate crime within London, has however been rejected (Githens-Mazer et al., 2010). For instance, it has been difficult for Muslim rights organisations (Muslim Safety Forum) to persuade the police to treat Islamophobia or anti-Muslim hate crime as a phenomenon in its own right. Githens-Mazer’s report illustrates that the police often use purposive terminology of anti-racist crime, rather than using the term ‘anti-Muslim offence’. Consequently, there is widespread frustration among Muslims, particularly in cases where Muslims have been targeted, yet received little media attention, and therefore go largely unnoticed (Githens-Mazer et al., 2010). The support received from the police following incidents of hate crime against British Muslims (who have been intentionally targeted), has been much more ambivalent than that of other minority groups (Githens-Mazer et al., 2010:41). It therefore follows that a crime may meet the limited definitional legal requirements of hate crime, but in order to claim victim status, the group needs to be considered a victimised group.

What is it specifically about the Muslim community that engenders this lack of protection from society at large? Gidley (2015) discusses the concept of ‘collective responsibility’ with direct reference to Jews and Muslims, criticising the perceived notion that all Muslims are responsible for Islamic terrorism, or that all British Jews are responsible for actions in Israel. Victims who belong to a group which threatens others, do not have a solid forum to secure public sympathy – which is critical to achieving the status of being considered a victim.
Victim hierarchies

The debate over the conceptual basis of hate crime has resulted in the construction of the UK Government Action Plan (HM Government, 2012). Currently, the Government’s Action Plan on hate crime has limited the application of hate crime to five specified monitored strands of victim identity; ‘disability, gender-identity, race, religion/faith and sexual orientation’ (HM Government, 2012: 6). Victim status for victims of race, religion and ethnicity hate crimes has been least contested and it has been institutionalised into the law. Whereas, hate crime committed for sexual orientation and transgender status has only relatively recently been recognised as victim status and has generated an unprecedented level of compassion and activity. This has created a ‘prejudice hierarchy’ (Harris, 2004a) whereby certain groups are internationally recognised and deserving of protection whereas others remain more contentious. Enacted legislation is the stamp of approval which determines what qualifies as a hate crime, and by extension, who is officially accorded hate crime victim status by the criminal justice system.

Conclusion

It is fair to state that despite the psychological impact of hate crime both to the individual and the community, the symbolic status of ‘victim assignments’ is not definitive; not all minority groups earn social recognition as ‘victims’. Recognised victims of hate crime not only need to fall into the legal category but also into some kind of moral category – namely, is this person/group deserving of protection? Cultural differences and social norms define victim status. Subsequently, when a group does not fall within this protection zone, social prejudices, intolerance and lack of respect for disadvantaged groups, come to prevail. Until the group attacked is considered to be a victimised group, this group will not have the capacity to claim victim status.
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HOW DOES WORKPLACE STRESS AFFECT JOB PERFORMANCE?
AN EMPLOYEE’S PERSPECTIVE
The term ‘stress’ is derived from the Latin word *stringere* which means to draw tight. Cooper, Dewe and O’Driscoll (2001) define stressors as forces which push a physical or psychological factor far beyond the normal range of stability of an individual, causing a strain.

This study looks at the effect of perceived stress upon employees within the workplace environment and how it impacts their operating performance. Qualitative methodology was applied to gather in-depth information about the participants’ experience of employment and associated factors that induce stress. This article reports the research outcome, relating the results to previous research on the topic.

Employment related stress is having a significant impact on individuals in the working environment. In 2015/2016, the total number of working days lost due to work-related stress, depression or anxiety was 11.7 million days, accounting for 45% of all working days lost due to ill health in the United Kingdom (Health and Safety Executive, 2016). Females are reported to experience more work-related stress than males, attributed to the fact that there is a higher proportion within public services and vocational occupations (such as teachers and nurses). These jobs generally show higher levels of stress when compared to all jobs. Moreover, workplace stress increases with age, but falls after eligibility for the state pension (55 years+).

**Defining workplace stress**

The term ‘stress’ is derived from the Latin word *stringere* which means to draw tight. Cooper, Dewe and O’Driscoll (2001) define stressors as forces which push a physical or psychological factor far beyond the normal range of stability of an individual, causing a strain. Strains result from a combination of several different stressors such as a high workload and workplace bullying, creating a negative emotional state as a response. The Yerkes-Dodson law (1908) explains the relationship between performance and stress through a bell-shaped curve on a graph of performance versus stress, where an optimal level of stress is indicated – too little or too much stress leads to low productivity. However, a moderate stress level plays a positive role in job performance, by enhancing attention and maintaining interest on a task. Therefore, stress is not always a negative element as it is generally portrayed, if it is managed effectively by the individual.

This element of job control is brought up by Johnson and Hall’s (1988) Job Demands-Control-Support model. They assert that the stress caused by cognitive job demands is moderated by having some control on how to perform one’s job, and social support. High levels of job demands and low levels of job control can lead to health risks.
Moreover, Selye (1946) explained the individual’s reaction to stress as a three-stage process: first, an *alarm* is raised to draw attention to rising level of stress; then, *resistance* develops where the individual uses available one’s resources to combat the encountered stressful situation. Such resources include cognitive functioning, experience, competence, task knowledge and intelligence (Fiedler and Garcia, 1987). The final stage in Selye’s model is *exhaustion*, referring to when an individual can no longer manage the strain and experience the negative consequences of stress.

High stress levels lead to psychological distress such as anger, irritability and depression, as well as physical problems such as headaches, stomach pain and heart problems (Sincero, 2012). Besides cognitive resources, another important factor is the support network available as this can help to moderate the psychological effects of stress. For instance, the interaction between supervisors and co-workers acts as a buffer against negative stress. On the other hand, malfunctioning employee relationships, both with colleagues at same-level and superiors, can lead to increasing stress levels. Other employment factors such as job role ambiguity, conflicting and competing job demands, high levels of responsibility and unpleasant physical working conditions can all contribute to increased stress levels resulting in decreased job performance (Glazer and Beehr, 2005; O’Driscoll and Brough, 2010).

The relationship between stress and performance

This study involved one-to-one interviews with eight employees, five females and three males aged between 18 and 35 years. Using an opportunistic sample, the participants were employed as: actor, cashier, customer assistant, head chef, bar man, sales advisor, translator and babysitter. The transcribed interviews of 30 to 45 minutes were analysed through Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (Smith et al., 2009). Three main themes were derived from the data, aimed at capturing the meaning within the interviewees’ narratives, identifying commonalities and differences in their experiences.
The analysis of the results

Participants described how stressful situations at work resulted in errors. As one interviewee explained: ‘I kept on making mistakes like giving out wrong change or putting a wrong transaction through the till or clicking the wrong button.’ This quote suggests that the more stressed an employee felt in their work role, the more mistakes they made. A variety of factors contributed to these increasing stress levels, which are summarised in three main themes. The importance of workplace relationships, coping strategies, and the build-up of stress and health issues all contributed to affect an employee’s performance at work.

Workplace relationships

Employee relationships can help or hinder stress moderation in the workplace, as identified in previous research (Johnson and Hall, 1988). One such element is peer support, which is perceived as a positive factor. Participants reported situations which allow an understanding of the roles colleagues play in reducing stress levels. By enhancing employees’ perception that they can perform their job and that they have the support of their co-workers, the result is that they have a positive state of mind, with feelings of being in control and with low stress levels:

Other people might make mistakes as well, and you’re not the only one. There are people to help you. He was just there to help me, and it made me happy that he helped me. He reassured me. And when I got that reassurance, not just this situation but like in quite a lot of situations, when I get reassurance, I feel better and more confident.

On the other hand, employee interactions that are perceived as negative have an opposite effect. The participants’ extracts of their accounts below shows that such undesirable communication has an effect on stress levels leading to decreased performance, by cancelling overtime and being absent all together:

She was not the best person to work with. Very confrontational, very rude and it got to a point where I thought, ‘I’m only going to be here a while’ as well as… If I don’t have to come in, I won’t go in.

It was kicking off anxiety. I can remember one day I went to work and felt awful and I got out of the taxi and saw the customers and got back into the taxi.

Moreover, the responsibility that one carries as part of one’s job role can strain relationships and increase pressure. Telling people what to do requires employees to be tactful in their communication skills in order to preserve a positive working environment. Various elements are at play, as noted by one participant:

Occasionally I had to tell them how things were, most of the people reacted well. One person didn’t react quite so well, because he was a bit older and I found when you are a bit younger and you tell somebody who has been in the business a while, what to do, they don’t really like that.

However, such perceived stress is not always caused by face-to-face interaction but can also take place due to the established roles and responsibilities that each employee holds:

When you are cooking… there is an awful lot of pressure, because you’ve got one bit of meat, and if that goes wrong, that is 65 quid of someone else’s money, instantly down the drain.

The unspoken loyalty to this employee’s line manager affects his/her perception and assessment of stress levels in this particular situation, even if there is no direct communication between the employee and the line manager about the matter.
Coping strategies

The findings of this study indicate that there are various ways to fight back stress, which relates to Selye’s (1946) second stage of resistance in his process model of stress management. One such coping strategy used by participants is through aggression towards others, mostly reported by the male interviewees and not necessarily aimed at what is causing the stress: ‘Sometimes I get aggressive with my mum when I’m in the mood’, and ‘I’m quite an aggressive person when I get stressed.’

Another coping mechanism that was mostly reported by the female interviewees in this study was avoidance. One participant expressed:

I just go downstairs and after a while, I come back and I try to explain to them, because I don’t want to talk to them while I’m stressed because I feel that won’t help them at all.

Another participant commented that:

If you have too much work at the same time – just get up and have a break and come back, because you’re more fresh to do other things and you are not as stressed.

The third identified coping strategy was suppression: ‘Probably very unhealthy, but just box it up. I’m one of the people who will plough on through.’ Another example of how suppression is applied is portrayed in the following comment: ‘I know what I have to do and so I just do it but on the inside I’m really breaking down.’ If an individual fails to resist stress effectively, then one is likely to progress to the exhaustion stage (Selye, 1946).
Build-up of stress and health issues

Sincero (2012) puts forward a list of symptoms that are a consequence of experiencing stress. Participants acknowledged that reactions to stress occur through a process of building up pressure, leading to physical and psychological consequences. For instance, the participant who worked as a nanny described how the anticipation of a regular stressful event left her feeling frustrated and inadequate:

Taking the kid to the psychologist every Tuesday, and every time he leaves there, he is extremely stressed, so that’s very hard for me… I can’t do my job so I can’t make the food if they are fighting with each other. So it just makes me, so when the parents come home, I wouldn’t have my work finished. It’s hard for me, I struggle to make them (the children) understand they cannot be like that to each other.

While the participant above reported psychological symptoms, others reported physical and health issues. One common problem was chronic tiredness:

I get tired very quickly so I can’t do activities with my family. I’d probably just go straight to bed. I probably won’t eat, just go straight to bed and sleep and repeat the next day.

Another participant reported physical illness symptoms:

The more stressed I was, my health went down because I wasn’t looking after myself properly, not eating correctly at the correct time, wasn’t getting enough sleep… I noticed I was having colds, headaches and not being able to sleep consistently.

Such participant accounts indicate symptoms identified by the reviewed literature in this study, such as Sincero (2012).

Striving towards a positive work environment

The success of an organisation or employer is directly dependent on employee well-being. The incidence of workplace stressors has an effect on its employees, both at an individual and group level, which in turn has a direct influence on their job performance. The results of the study suggest that employers benefit from taking on the responsibility to foster positive working relationships and train their employees to manage the stressful situations presented in the work environment. In this manner, physical and psychological issues related to exhaustion caused by stress will be minimised. Prevention is definitely less costly than interventions through Employee Assistance Programmes—both for the individual and the organisation.

References


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Keywords

Stress, performance, social support, job demands, stress management
RING THE CHANGES

The industrial evolution of the corporate hotel industry

Angela Roper | University of West London, UK
The hotel industry is currently in a ‘golden era’ of growth and development. Major hotel chains are undergoing unprecedented growth as a result of voracious demand, currently having the largest development pipelines in their histories, which is organised and comprises hotel chains) has become vertically disintegrated (Jacobides, 2005). Disintegration can be observed in a significant number of industries, as producers recognise that they cannot themselves maintain cutting-edge technology and practices in every field required for the success of their products and services (Gilson, Sabel and Scott, 2009).

What have been the drivers that have facilitated this industrial change? What are the consequences of this industrial evolution for management education and research?

Setting the scene

Tourism is the fifth biggest industry globally. The United Nationals World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) estimated that there were more than 1.235 million international tourist arrivals worldwide in 2016, an increase of 46 million over the previous year. The global hotel industry comprises an estimated 15.5 million rooms and generates revenues of 550 billion U.S dollars (Hospitality, 2015). The global demand for hotels is insatiable, with new hotel openings every day. Independent hotels are still dominant on the accommodation market but they are suffering decline, having to operate ever-higher standards and to be digital entrepreneurs. It is branded hotels that have therefore experienced the most growth, now accounting for almost a third of the global market. The developed hotel markets of Europe and North America are the centre of the hotel universe (Slattery, 2012) in terms of supply and demand.

In line with many other industries, chains are now one of the dominant forms of organisation in the hotel industry; a single chain often having hundreds – even thousands – of units operating under a common trademark in diverse locations. The table below illustrates the size of the ten largest hotel chains globally.
Whilst hotel guests have experienced a profound upward improvement in the facilities of chain hotels over the past twenty years or so, what has probably gone largely unnoticed is the fact that the ownership, operations and brand trademarks of hotels have become separated and are often times in the hands of very different organisations. The Economist (2009) very aptly describes the current business model of the corporate hotel industry (that part of the industry which is organised and comprises hotel chains): You book a room on the website of a famous international hotel chain. As you arrive to check in, its reassuring brand name is above the door. Its logo is everywhere: on the staff uniforms, the stationery, the carpets. But the hotel is owned by someone else often an individual or an investment fund – who has taken out a franchise on the brand. The owner may also be delegating the running of the hotel, either to the company that owns the brand or to another management firm altogether. The bricks-and-mortar may be leased from a property firm. In some cases, yet another company may be supplying most of the staff, and an outside caterer may run the restaurants. ‘Welcome to the virtual hotel.’ (The Economist, 2009)

The picture painted above of the ‘virtual hotel’ is perhaps an extreme scenario, but what it does illustrate is how overtime hotel chains have given up parts of the value-chain and this is a strategy which continues today. Previously, as well as designing and owning brands, chains undertook the marketing, sales and distribution of hotels; owned or leased hotel buildings (with internally generated capital or loaned finance); managed hotels; oversaw day-to-day operations; employed all hotel staff; and owned or maintained strong links with suppliers. They were involved in all of the structured activities which taken together lead to the construction of a hotel experience for the consumer. With the exception of some chains, this is no longer the case.

Relinquishing parts of the value chain has enabled new businesses to emerge that have divided a previously highly integrated production/service process into a number of profitable sub-business units. Specialist firms have entered the marketplace resulting in an industry which is becoming increasingly vertically disintegrated with a lot of opportunities for service providers and business transformers.

It is contended that for the corporate hotel industry, there have been profound implications of this structural disintegration: the number and nature of firms that participate in the industry has increased; entry to the industry has fallen in certain parts of the value chain; and the nature of competition has greatly altered (Roper, 2015). So what have been the main drivers or motivations for this changed industry structure and what might the future hold in terms of industrial evolution? Key strategic drivers include gains from specialisation, pure gains from trade and co-specialisation and technological advancements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Hotel Chain</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Existing Hotels</th>
<th>Total hotels after pipeline openings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>Rooms</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Marriott International (including Starwood Hotels &amp; Resorts)</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>5,656</td>
<td>1,071,096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Hilton Worldwide</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>5,465</td>
<td>737,922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>InterContinental Hotels Group</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>4,480</td>
<td>726,876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Wyndham Hotel Group</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>4,963</td>
<td>671,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Jinjiang International</td>
<td>CHN</td>
<td>7,760</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Choice</td>
<td>USA</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>ACCOR</td>
<td>FRN</td>
<td>6,379</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Best Western</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>3,815</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Home Inns</td>
<td>CHN</td>
<td>3,903</td>
<td>311,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Carlson Rezidor Hotel Group</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>1,092</td>
<td>172,234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 1:** Reproduced with permission from The 10 largest hotel companies by room count (2015) accessible online: http://www.hotelnewsnow.com/Articles/28560/The-10-largest-hotel-companies-by-room-count

InterContinental Hotels Group and Marriott International now own less than one per cent of their hotel portfolios, enacting what is known as ‘asset light’ strategies. For them, this has resulted in faster growth, scalability, more scope for efficiency gains and improved stock market valuations.
Specialists vs. generalists

It is claimed that doing everything in the value chain reduces the effectiveness of production (Jacobides, 2005). Bearing this in mind, the major hotel chains have chosen to compete now as experts in hotel branding, systems and franchising rather than be involved in everything in the hotel-keeping value chain. Most significantly, their preferred strategic choice is to do business without the ownership of the pillar with the most value – the ownership of the bricks and mortar of hotel properties. For example, InterContinental Hotels Group and Marriott International now own less than one per cent of their hotel portfolios, enacting what is known as ‘asset light’ strategies. For them, this has resulted in faster growth, scalability, more scope for efficiency gains and improved stock market valuations.

They have been able to choose not to own hotel property due to the sheer volume of investment which has been driven into hotels – in terms of equity and debt – which has allowed hotels to become a tradable item running on a longer term cycle. This has brought in a whole raft of other investors who are more institutional and more aligned with broader property investment markets.

Investing in hotel real estate assets is now a serious asset class in its own right and has allowed a symbiotic relationship to develop between those who wish to park significant capital chunks and those who wish to be part of rolling out significant hotel assets worldwide. This clearly would not have been possible if the old ‘own-and-operate’ hotel model had stayed in place; roll out would have been much slower and traditional capital markets would have been able to cope with the significant on-going demand from traditional stock market and banking sources alone.

The ready capital provided by new property entrants has also provided a catalyst to push disintegration. In addition, new hotel owners such as private equity houses, Real Estate Investment Trusts (REITs), institutional investors, sovereign wealth funds, private investors and family offices have subsequently developed a sophisticated knowledge of hotel property investing and have implemented sophisticated hotel monitoring and asset enhancement tools to profit from what can be a high percentage returning capital asset. These specific investors have benefitted in ways financially which was never possible previously and industry fragmentation has provided an investment platform that has allowed extra billions to flow into the hotel industry.

Increased trading opportunities

Franchising has proved increasingly popular over the years and is a great way of expanding quickly in conjunction with an asset light model. Essentially the hotel chains provide brand and operating know-how and the franchisee provides the property as owner, leaseholder and/or manager (the heavy lifting in terms of capital cost). The franchise concept has further fuelled the disintegration model now in place.

Whilst the very first operating agreements were underpinned by lengthy procedures, manuals and training programmes, covering all aspects of hotel operations, it was the advent of franchising which really enabled a more industrialised model of hotel-keeping to emerge which has served to further allow the fragmentation of the hotel value chain, whilst also providing specialisation gains.

The fact that customers are thought to patronise a franchise due to its brand reputation in the marketplace and the implicit promises of a standardised product or service offering (Dant, 2008),
regardless of who the operator of a specific franchised outlet might be, can be said to have further driven the growth of franchise systems. It is the growth of select-service and economy brands, in particular, which have resulted in significant growth in hotel chain portfolios because these appeal to mass markets. Franchised brands, such as Holiday Inns and Hampton Inns, are evidence of how firm capability differentials also push disintegration. These brands are workforce brands; they have the most potential to grow globally and there is evidence that they curtail national hotel chain competitors.

Co-specialisation

Vertical co-specialisation, the restructuring of industry-wide value chains, such that different stages are controlled by different firms, has emerged as firms come up with mutually complementary roles in market transactions. These ready ‘business partners’ prepared to co-exist and work together pre-knowing the boundaries of their responsibilities has allowed the industry to quickly fragment. There is no doubt surrendering parts of the value chain (the business operation) to other specialist firms enables significant gains in terms of cost and time saving and enhances experiences, at least when all goes well.

All this has led to gains being seen and easily recorded from intra-firm specialisations. These specialisations have given the industry an ability to organise itself along different lines from those previously and in itself led to further disintegration. One such example, predicated by the influx of new hotel owners, has been the emergence of a new breed of hotel management companies – known as third party managers. Interstate Hotels, BDL Redefine and Bespoke all act as ‘white label’ hotel management companies (they provide tailored management services without a hotel brand) working on behalf of owners, albeit juxtaposed with hotel franchise brands. As specialist managers they are said to be more operationally savvy and cost-focused and, most importantly, more aligned with individual hotel owner interests.

In addition, supplementary stakeholders have emerged with important roles in making these transactions across the boundaries of firms possible. Whereas previously, as major holders of assets hotel chains were a route to work, now specialist lawyers, real estate brokers, accountants and consultants have all had to adapt to offer services which create and augment business relationships between the much extended agents now involved in the hotel value chain (for example, more global and larger institutional clients, major REITs, insurance companies, pension funds and so on). They have provided coordination between firms in this disintegrated industry and a wealth of comparable data and advice which has assisted new entrants to do business successfully.

Technology as a driver of disintegration

Technology companies have been a major force in changing the traditional model. The emergence in the past 20 years of online travel agencies (OTAs) as a distribution partner has had a profound effect on the hotel industry. They have changed industry information and further modularised the hotel production process. OTAs recognised the potential gains from a reorganisation of production – when hotel chains themselves modularised and computerised the distribution process. Hotel chains similarly reinforced latent gains in trade by embracing their business model, especially when the hotel cycle was down. OTAs now account for well over one-third of hotel bookings.

Specialised production is also incentive-intensive and the OTAs and meta-search platforms (such as Kayak and Skyscanner), as outside agents, have managed to be closer to the consumer market and have been more effective. Customers have much confidence in them and they have been seen as a force for good, driving pricing lower as well as increasing overall customer demand. Leisure customers are thought to search a minimum of 38 online sites before booking a trip.
Whilst the relationship between these technology and hotel chains continues to develop and grow all the time it is pushing the latter to become even more focused on being brand, distribution and marketing companies, dedicated service providers (with expertise also in technology) rather than hotel owners and operators.

Conclusion

Although the original products, services and core technologies of the hotel industry have remained much the same and the sequence of activities needing to be done has also not changed radically for some 70 years, the structure of the corporate hotel industry is unrecognisable from a few decades ago. However, whilst the largest chains, influenced by American hotel-keeping methods, have specialised into the areas they feel they are best at and outsourced other activities regarded as the traditional business model, the strategic picture is different for the nascent Chinese hotel chains now entering the top rankings. The HNA Group and Jinjiang International operate as a conglomerate, integrated tourism firms and are investing heavily in the hotel sector to be followed by an expectant surge in Chinese visitors worldwide. Working in a more centralised way, they may well push resurgence of the original integrated model and are worth watching. Chinese capital investment will continue to have a significant impact on the western hotel industry in coming years.

For those studying, researching and working in the sector the changes in the industrial dynamics of the industry are important to know and understand now, and for the future. The process of development is exciting, and holds many opportunities not only to take part in this evolution, but also to develop ways of further enhancing and improving upon the emergent model.

In terms of management education, the industry needs graduates with competencies in ‘the business of hotels’ rather than operations and individuals who are entrepreneurial and proficient relationship builders. Vertical disintegration provides opportunities for setting up specialist service companies that run individual sectors, becoming franchisees, carving out careers in a host of different corporations – as owners, advisors, brokers, third party managers, in addition to leading hotel chains into the future.

As a result of these mutations, researchers need to engage much more with this new competitive landscape, exploring further the firms in new intermediate markets in order to build theory based on real industry practice and not on out-dated notions of what the hotel industry used to be.

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Angela Roper is Emeritus Professor in the International Centre for Hotel and Resort Management at the University of West London. Her book entitled Vertical Disintegration in the Corporate Hotel Industry: The End of Business as Usual, has recently been published by Routledge

Keywords

Hotel chains, industry structure, vertical disintegration, hotels, value-chain

Customers have much confidence in OTAs and they have been seen as a force for good, driving pricing lower as well as increasing overall customer demand. Leisure customers are thought to search a minimum of 38 online sites before booking a trip
pace tourism or commercial space travel will revolutionise the future of the global aviation industry. Recently, Elon Musk, the founder of SpaceX announced that his company has received deposits from two private travellers to travel around the moon in late 2018. Over 1000 people have paid their deposits to make suborbital journey with Virgin Galactic. It is important to track to the developments of the emerging space tourism industry. There are several questions centred on the space tourism industry following the changes in the political and economic landscape globally. These include the slow reduction of US funding to government programs leading to the scale down of the operations of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), rapid development of the space industry in India and China, Brexit in the UK and related negotiations with the European Space Agency, changes in the leadership of the US and UK governments and the looming economic stagnation in the UK.

In these circumstances, this brief article evaluates the progress of the commercial space tourism industry following the setback caused by the Virgin Galactic crash in 2014 and debates the status of opportunities and challenges in current political and economic situation whilst emphasising research directions for researchers in this field.

Space tourism concept and evolution

The commercial space market including manufacturing and launching of earth observation satellites, communication satellites and transportation of crew and cargo has existed since the 1970s. The idea of travelling to space for new travel experiences has only started to become a reality when Californian businessman Dennis Tito travelled into space as the first commercial astronaut in 2001. Until then this commercial travel experience was reserved only for professional space travellers who were trained by government space agencies, such as, NASA, Russian Federal Space Agency and the European Space Agency (Seedhouse 2008; Reddy, Nica and Wilkes, 2012). However, the concept of space tourism became familiar after the commercial sub-orbital travel initiatives of Richard Branson through his space tourism company established in 2004, Virgin Galactic. There are also other companies involved in orbital activities including carrying pay load and astronauts to the International Space Station.
The commercial space market including manufacturing and launching of earth observation satellites, communication satellites and transportation of crew and cargo has existed since the 1970s. The idea of travelling to space for new travel experiences has only started with the first commercial astronaut in 2001.
Today, people in developed economies are generally aware of the emerging space tourism industry from initiatives that are already in the making. Fast developing economies such as China and India have their space programs and there is some awareness in these countries too, although it is difficult to evaluate the level of awareness. On the whole, we need better understanding of the principles and characteristics of space tourism. Cater (2010) outlined an early typology for space tourism activities under three categories. Astrotourism that covers space travel beyond earth orbit and in the earth’s orbit, including Lunar and Martian voyages, orbital flights (350 km) and sub-orbital flights (100 km). Atmospheric space tourism covers high altitude jet flights (20 km) and weightless flights. Finally, terrestrial space tourism covers specific space tourism sites including simulations, space centres and non-site specific space tourism activities, such as, virtual and gaming environments and popular culture space movies (Cater, 2010).

As a recent development, the announcement by the UK government in 2014 of the need to identify the most suitable location out of eight potential sites for spaceport was greeted with enthusiasm by UK space business firms and employees. The two reports by the Civil Aviation Authority, the ‘UK Government Review of commercial Spaceplane Certification and Operations Technical Report’ (321 pages) and the ‘UK Government Review of Commercial Spaceplane Certification and Operations: Summary and Conclusions’ (CAA, 2014) highlighted some of the long-standing aspirations and opportunities of the commercial space industry. The UK space industry as a whole is worth more than £11 billion and employs around 34,000 staff. It is expected to increase to £40 billion in 2030 offering employment to over 100,000.

However, the announcement by the UK government in 2014 and the consultation process that will last until 2018 before one out of the eight potential spaceport locations is identified, represents a delay considering that SpaceShipOne testing was launched by Branson’s Virgin Galactic in June 2004 – a decade before in New Mexico, USA.

The proposed UK Spaceport will be only a tiny part of the UK space industry though the primary use of a spaceport will be seen as providing a means of launching small satellites into space on a lower cost basis than currently available. RAF Lossiemouth and Kinloss Barracks in Scotland are presently off the government shortlist for reasons related to defence operations. A detailed examination on the overall investments and economic growth in the selected spaceport location, actual employment, cultural influences and environmental consequences need to be assessed. Spaceport is not only about launching satellites, engineering and technological advances but also about human beings flying to the space for commercial purpose and thus, it will impact on the environmental and socio-economic profile of the selected location.
Risk involved and cost of space travel

Early reactions from the industry indicate that there is clarity needed in terms of the risk involved and cost of commercial space travel. Notably, in 2014, Virgin Galactic’s first spaceflight SpaceShipTwo crashed during experimental test in the Californian desert. This accident was debated much and sceptics argued that it would take many years for the space tourism operations to begin. The supporters of the space tourism concept however advocated that the project should continue. For instance, Jeremy Clarkson, a famous broadcaster and motoring writer in the UK argued that if the humankind had given up when encountered a problem in the past, ‘we’d be all be living in caves’ (Clarkson, 2014). Clarkson’s views were echoed by many of the experts in the space industry. A more drastic outcome of the investigation may have only been a slowdown in any commercial plans for the next few years as this industry is supported by a number of private companies (SpaceX, XCOR and EADS Astrium, for example) and are likely to continue to develop space tourism plans.

Scientists such as Professor Stephen Hawking of the University of Cambridge supports Mars exploration and believes that a human settlement on Mars will take place by the end of this century, arguing that human beings need to have a ‘Plan B’ if anything happens to earth (National Geographic, 2016). Hawking sees settlement in other planets is a way forward to reduce the growing pressure on earth’s limited natural resources and the needs of the growing population.

In 2015, the US Government’s National Transportation Safety Board concluded the investigation of the Virgin Galactic crash, pointing to an error committed by the possibly anxious and inexperienced co-pilot who had unlocked the spacecraft’s braking system early. Two years after this first spacecraft crash, the second SpaceShipTwo developed by Virgin Galactic has completed successful test flights and landed safely in Majave, California in 2016 and in early 2017.

Although SpaceX team works closely with NASA and flies’ cargo and crew to the International Space Station, the founder of SpaceX has not completely ruled out the risk factor in his announcement on 27th Feb 2017, to fly two private passengers on a mission around moon in late 2018. Elon Musk stated that the company’s ‘success rate is actually quite high’ and that these two passengers ‘are entering this with their eyes open, knowing that there is some risk here. We’ll do everything we can to minimize that risk. But it’s not zero’ (Davenport and Achenbach, 2017). Clearly, risk will be one of the key factors influencing the success of space tourism.
10 RESEARCH ISSUES NEEDING TO BE CLARIFIED FOR THE EMERGING SPACE TOURISM INDUSTRY:

1. Clarifying the notion of ‘space tourist’ and taking the human risk factors and insurance issues into account.

2. The ‘actual’ future demand for space tourism market. Private companies have carried out market research but are reluctant to share.

3. Space tourism awareness – the attitudes, interests and scientific knowledge of the public.

4. Many motivational theories have been applied to explain and understand tourists’ motivation in the past but not yet in relation to space tourism.

5. Risk is one of the significant variables in space travel. There is clearly a need to explore the role of the risk factor and understand customer perceptions in order to identify resilient space travel markets and their impact on the space tourists’ decision-making process.

6. Liability and insurance issues - difficulties in getting travel insurance and the demand for more information from the banking and insurance sector as well as assurances from the private companies.

7. The implications of health aspects, psychological issues, sufficient training and training time-frame need to be explored.

8. The implications of the European Space Agency legislations on the UK industry following Brexit and the future possibilities of commercial launches from new locations need to be researched.

9. A detailed examination of the overall investment and growth in the near future in the new / potential spaceport locations.

10. Possible carbon footprint of space tourism activity though there are plans to use Methane or Oxygen for commercial spacecraft and there will be less NOx and CO2 emissions.

(Adapted from Reddy et al., 2012)
The cost of commercial space travel is very high, and this is another important aspect at this point in time. A trip with Virgin Galactic will cost $250,000 for about a two-hour experience and the cost has not been revealed for the forthcoming trip around the moon with SpaceX. But the price is expected to drop when more trips organised and more private companies operate triggering competition in this expensive niche industry. In an article appeared in The Telegraph (Leadbeater, 2016), the former NASA astronaut Don Thomas, who flew four missions on the Space Shuttle commented: ‘You’re going to see the price drop. To go to the Space Station now, as a tourist – you pay the Russians $65 million. With Virgin Galactic, the price comes down to a quarter of a million dollars. I would think that, in a decade or so, you will see flights to space for $10,000 to $15,000. Space travel will be more in line with an exotic trip to Antarctica’.

The industry is going through an interesting phase with initiatives mainly from three companies, SpaceX, Virgin Galactic and Blue Origin. The clarity around risk and costs will emerge as the industry progress.

A 2012 article entitled ‘Space tourism: Research recommendations for the future of the industry and perspectives of potential participants’ in Tourism Management (Reddy et al., 2012) argued that it has become imperative to better understand the social science related questions including the actual affordability, potential space tourists’ motivations, insurance, health aspects, demand and price on a regional and country-specific basis. Spaceport is not solely about the engineering and technological aspects but also about human beings flying to space for commercial purpose. Therefore, clarity will be needed in relation to developing space journeys long before they actually generate real income to the companies offering them. There are serious academic debates yet to come in this area.

Clearly, these questions need answers and collaborative research with social scientists, aviation engineers, technologists, and astronauts where necessary are needed to fully understand the consumer perspectives and for the future prospectus of this fascinating industry.

Previous research completed by graduate students on Southampton, Bournemouth and Poole in the UK and Mumbai in India indicated that many respondents were aware of the idea of space tourism, regarded space tourism as an important development. However, these works informed that it is also essential to have better campaigns to stimulate the interests of future travellers. Reddy et al. (2012) concluded that the intentional need for adventure and exploration seem to be the main motivational force behind space tourism.
The future
Nevertheless, it is time to initiate in-depth academic research to explore the opportunities and challenges facing the short-listed UK locations that will be useful to consumers in the UK and for other parts of the world to benchmark. Regionally, it is important to explore the implications of Brexit on the space tourism industry and to negotiate with the European Space Agency to plan and develop this niche industry in the UK. Internationally, the demand for space tourism is high in fast developing countries such as China and India. In addition, the United Arab Emirates also have plan to make big investments to develop space tourism.

In the long term, commercial space travel is expected to strengthen the development of the concept of point-to-point (P2P) space travel (Peeters, 2010), as travel time could be considerably reduced. For instance, the normal flying time from New York to Tokyo (10,900 kilometres) in a conventional aeroplane is about 12 hours and 50 minutes. Through P2P sub-orbital space travel, New York to Tokyo journey can be completed in just 83 minutes, saving 11 hours and 27 minutes. Peeters predicted that the target market for future P2P travel would be the ‘time-poor, cash-rich’ people, who are obliged to travel, such as, top executives, board members, sports stars (golf, tennis, formula-1), and celebrities (movie stars, musicians)’ (Peters, 2010: 1631). Space tourism is expected to revolutionise the lifestyle, travel patterns and future settlements of humanity though it may presently look simply like the mere opening of space for recreation.

Space tourism is expected to revolutionise the lifestyle, travel patterns and future settlements of humanity though it may presently look simply like the mere opening of space for recreation.

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Keywords
Aviation, tourism, future, research, recommendations
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In her thesis, Jane examined the relationship between binge drinking, unplanned sexual behaviour and impulsivity. Episodic-style consumption of alcohol is of primary concern from both a physiological and socio-economic perspective and has been associated with an array of negative outcomes including physical injury, drink-driving, criminal involvement and sexual promiscuity. The co-occurrence of binge drinking and unplanned sexual behaviour in young adulthood is broadly acknowledged; however, the psychological factors underlying this relationship remain largely unresolved. There has been a paucity of research incorporating the three elements of binge drinking, unplanned sexual behaviour and impulsivity concurrently.

The aim of the research was to incorporate all three elements utilising both quantitative and qualitative methodology. The quantitative findings revealed significant differences between low and high-binge drinkers on various measures of impulsivity. Most notably, in accordance with the overriding objective, Jane’s research found that higher levels of both binge drinking and trait levels of impulsivity uniquely predicted the proclivity to engage in unplanned sexual behaviour. The qualitative analysis revealed that initially the participants had all engaged in a period of unabated drinking driven by their expectancy of the sociability and tension reducing effects of alcohol, an appetite to explore their identities, and a desire to conform to social and peer norms. The participants divulged regretted drunken episodes of behaviour (including unplanned sexual behaviour) to varying degrees, and subsequently, described a detachment from their previous (drunken) selves, an increased self-efficacy to moderate their drinking, and a change to the priorities in their lives.

A unique contribution of the current research has been to determine a positive relationship between binge drinking and unplanned sexual behaviour, utilising the same population, and incorporating diverse methods. In addition, specific dimensions of impulsivity were found to be related to both binge drinking and unplanned sexual activity. Collectively, these findings reflect the ongoing concern regarding potential short and long-term negative consequences to students and young adults who abuse alcohol in an episodic pattern and/or engage in unsafe and unplanned sexual practices.
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