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ne way to think about research articles is to consider them to be ‘answers’ that are offered up to the readership. But that is a somewhat one-sided definition and rather negates the role of the reader. Instead of seeing the articles in this edition of New Vistas as a series of scholarly results, we might instead consider them to be the starting points for future thinking. In reading through the work presented for this edition I found myself asking lots of questions and questioning a whole series of personal assumptions. I found myself examining my biases and reflecting on some areas of life that I had never really examined in a deep and meaningful way. It is for this reason that I am so grateful to our authors. Each has offered some unique insight into modern life, sometimes through examining the past; sometimes through examining policy; sometimes through examining practice, and sometimes through examining the very nature of knowledge. All the work in this edition offers insight, scrutiny and expert analysis but, like any good research, the articles here don’t just offer simple answers, they push you to respond.

The authors of this edition of New Vistas examine policy, practice and scholarship. We open with Kwok asking why dissatisfied customers no longer complain and never return their goods. Further scrutiny of modern business life is then offered by Devlin through discussion on air transportation public service obligations. Then, in our third article, Ells shines a light on the litigation rules of practice in England and Wales. From these socio-economic perspectives we move to a much more subjective arena as Robertson, Stock and Górgiz offer some unique insight into whether societal perceptions of butch and feminine lesbians are changing. Godwin Pearce further examines the subjective in a powerful exploration of the experiences of Black students. As a scholarly journal it is pleasing to read in our final article Forster and Omar’s well-informed piece on Information Literacy – as this type of work underpins everything else that is offered here. Finally, we close with a profile of Marcus Nicholls, whose PhD work examined the interplay between text and media in Huysmans’ novel, À Rebours.

The work presented here is rich and varied. There are some ‘answers’ but I hope that, like me, you also feel provoked by the articles and they offer you the chance to find out more about the world around us; ask difficult questions and push for good answers. In the current climate we can find ourselves shielded from the truth – some in authority lie to us; some restrict our access to the facts; some pretend that everything will be just fine if we put our trust in them. But blind acceptance is not the academic way. This is why I am so pleased that our authors look under the stones of reality. They peek inside the cracks and crevices of modern life. They ask questions. And they help us to ask questions.

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Why do dissatisfied customers no longer complain and never return? Customers do not necessarily express their dissatisfaction through complaints. Consequently, their grievances might never be heard. Past research has focused on the factors of complaining rather than non-complaining. Therefore, this study explores the non-complaining beliefs, intentions and behaviours of dissatisfied customers and breaks these down into five key factors.

Introduction

Customer complaints indicate the level of customer satisfaction regarding product or service quality. Traditionally, dissatisfied customers channelled their complaints to the service provider through written (i.e. customer feedback card, email, letter, etc.) and verbal (i.e. telephone and face-to-face interactions) communication. Nevertheless, in today’s business environment, not receiving any customer complaints should not be regarded as an indication that customers are satisfied or that there are no product or service failures. In the hospitality context, Su and Bowen (2001) revealed that only 58% of dissatisfied customers complained to management while 42% of the dissatisfied customers remained silent – a percentage that has steadily grown. The increasing number of customers who do not complain and will not return goods is a worrying issue to hospitality service providers. This is because dissatisfied customers’ grievances will never be heard again (Chebat et al., 2005). As a result, businesses could possibly lose the dissatisfied customers forever.

A review of current literature found it to be focused on the act of complaining rather than non-complaining (Voorhees et al., 2006; Davidow, 2003). In terms of customer complaining behaviour, research has attempted to explore the factors that influence this behaviour. Past studies have shown that the factors that influence customers to complain are consumer-related factors; product-specific factors; situational factors, and product-related factors (Durukan et al., 2012; Voorhees et al., 2006). However, studies to identify the factors that influence customer non-complaining behaviours are scant and there is not yet consensus on these factors – especially in the hospitality context. To gain insight into this issue, this research aimed to identify the factors that influence non-complaining beliefs, intentions and behaviours among the dissatisfied customers in the hospitality context via a systematic review of literature. Here dissatisfied customers who do not complain to service providers after service failure are referred to as ‘non-complainers’. By gaining an in-depth understanding of the reasons for not complaining and the factors influencing dissatisfied customers’ non-complaining beliefs, intentions and behaviours, hospitality businesses could possibly eliminate the non-complaining barriers and encourage more dissatisfied customers to share their negative experiences with service providers.

Methods

In this study, I examined six online databases for key secondary sources: Business Source Premier/EBSCO Host, Emerald, Sage Premier Journals, Science Direct, and Taylor and Francis Education Collection. Journals that relate to consumer behaviour, consumer marketing and marketing studies were reviewed. These journals were in the context of hospitality and restaurant services and included the International Journal of Hospitality Management, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management and Cornell Hospitality Quarterly. I also adopted the PRISMA (preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses) flowchart in order to review the literature systematically. Figure 1 (p6) shows the flow of article selection for systematic review. The literature review protocol was formulated as follows:

1. Identification: The keywords used for the search included ‘propensity to complain’, ‘customer complaint behaviour’, ‘motives or motivation’, ‘non-complaining’ and ‘silent customer’ in titles, keywords or abstracts.
2. Screening: Academic papers were screened for using terms such as ‘hotel industry’, ‘restaurant industry’, ‘service industry’ or ‘hospitality industry’ in their titles, keywords or abstracts; academic or research papers. In addition, duplicate entries were deleted and search results that were in the form of books, magazine, press articles, editorial notes,
Article Can’t complain? | Author Sherine Kwok
etc. were excluded. Subsequently articles were excluded where the full text was not available.

3. Eligibility: There are specific criteria needed for including and excluding literature for this type of study (Prayag et al., 2018). The next evaluation process focused on abstracts to determine their eligibility. The inclusion criteria include: (i) the articles had to be in full-text journals with research methodology and theoretical framework or model; (ii) the articles had to be focussed on consumer behaviour, service related, marketing, or hospitality; (iii) The articles had to have a clear presentation of findings and discussion; (iv) for up-to-dateness, only the newest journals were selected. In contrast, exclusion criteria were defined as: (i) no detailed description of research methodology; (ii) studies that focus on other industries or fields.

4. Included: For quality assessment of the literature, this research applied three criteria to assess the quality of the articles that had been published. These quality assessment criteria included: (i) sufficient use of secondary sources with appropriate citations; (ii) sound methodology with aims and objectives of the study, explanation on the methods and approach adopted for primary research, and (iii) some original contribute of knowledge with adequate presentation of the findings.

Factors influencing dissatisfied customers’ non-complaining beliefs, intentions and behaviours

After reviewing the relevant literature related to the search criteria, the findings were summarised, analysed and categorised – based on different themes with an accompanying explanation. Past research has examined the factors that influence customer complaint behaviours in the hospitality industry and in the restaurant setting. Drawing on research conducted by Tronvoll (2008), Stephens and Gwinner (1998), Voorhees et al. (2006) and other secondary sources, this study proposes non-complaining behaviours fall into five main constructs: situational factors; individual factors; service provider and market factors; social factors, and resources factors.

(1) Situational factors mean that dissatisfied customers, who do not complain, are affected by considerations such as the extent of service failure; the cost and benefits of complaining; the probability for success; the importance of the product or service; the social climate, and attribution of blame. Here we see that the cost-benefit of complaining may include the time involved, cognitive effort and stress, and other costs involved (i.e. telephone, mailing, and legal fees) while the benefits of complaining may include tangible (i.e. refunds, exchange products, and other monetary benefits) and intangible (i.e. happy, relaxation, and good feeling) components.

(2) Individual factors drive or restrain dissatisfied customers from complaining due to their demographics, personality, cultural background and personal experience.

(3) Service provider and market factors are issues related to service providers and market competition. Specifically, service provider factors include the reputation, reliability, responsiveness and accountability of service provider. In addition, the organisation-initiated recovery and accessibility of complaint channels offered by the service providers may prevent customers from complaining. Whereas, market factors such as the type of store, degree of market competition may discourage complaining behaviour.

(4) Social factors include the social pressures and contribution of the opinion of any given referent that influence non-complaining behaviour such as friends and family.

(5) Resource factors may include the skills and environment factors that deter the customers from complaining and might include them lacking complaining skills and knowledge; their lack of time, and their lack of will/effect.
Conclusion
Given the importance of complaining customers to hospitality businesses, an extensive body of studies has primarily focused on the motivation and antecedents of complaining behaviour (Trovoll, 2008; 2011). Here, this study argues that the reactive profiles of non-complaining customers are very different and, therefore, the motivation and attitudes that influence their non-complaining behaviour are different from those that predict complaining behaviour. This study identifies the factors that influence non-complaining beliefs, intentions and behaviours among the dissatisfied and non-complaining customers in a hospitality context via a systematic review of literature. The antecedent factors identified from the literature are: situational factors; individual factors, and service provider factors. Social factors and resources may also have significant impact on influencing dissatisfied customers’ non-complaining beliefs, intentions and behaviours. Hospitality businesses will benefit from this study (which is on-going), by understanding why some of their dissatisfied customers do not complain, thus not giving the opportunity to the business to rectify the negative image shaped in their minds. This understanding will help businesses re-evaluate their customer complaint procedures and, possibly, introduce innovative ways that will remove some of the barriers and will entice these non-complaining customers to change their behaviours and provide feedback to the business about their negative experiences.

Although these categories of antecedent factors provide some insight into why customers do not complain, an empirical exploration of antecedent factors for non-complaining can help researchers better understand the non-complaining phenomenon. Hence, for the next phase of this study, a conceptual framework incorporating these five relevant constructs will be adopted and developed through the Reasoned Action Approach developed by Fishbein et al (2010) in order to examine its relative importance in shaping their non-complaining beliefs, intention and behaviour.

References

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Hospitality, dissatisfied customers, non-complaining beliefs, behaviour, systematic literature review
THE MARKETISATION OF AIR TRANSPORTATION PUBLIC SERVICE OBLIGATIONS

Exploring the conditions under which air transportation public service obligation subsidies might become a successful investment in the economic development of peripheral regions
Air transportation Public Service Obligations (PSOs) are an EU regulatory mechanism which allows governments to correct air transportation market failures by supporting services to peripheral regions. This article reports the first findings from a study that explores the conditions needed for a shift in the paradigm of PSO funding, from that of subsidising an air service to an investment in the regional development, while simultaneously creating greater demand for that service.

Background

The importance of aviation to the UK economy has recently become a high-profile topic, not least because it is central to the argument for a third runway at Heathrow airport. In 2015, even before Brexit and the renewed vision for a global UK had emerged, the Airports Commission (2015) urged the government to confirm Heathrow’s expansion quickly and demonstrate the country’s commitment to remaining a well-connected and open economy. The benefits of a well-connected economy are considerable and include facilitating foreign direct investment; attracting tourists; increasing market reach, and business productivity improvements (Airports Commission, 2015). However, in order for a region within the UK to gain the benefits of air transport connectivity, it must first have access to it and access is not evenly distributed throughout the country.

The main cause of the differences in access to aviation connectivity across the country is the lack of demand on routes to peripheral regions, i.e. those regions with small populations and low levels of economic activity, which makes these so-called ‘thin routes’ unprofitable for commercial airlines to operate. Prior to the creation of a single European aviation market in 1992, ‘thin routes’ were either subsidised directly by governments or cross-subsidised by a national airline. However, the involvement of governments in the aviation market went beyond simply supporting ‘thin routes’ and protectionist bilateral agreements created a fragmented market that suppressed competition, at the expense of passengers (Reynolds-Feighan, 1995). The extent to which passengers have benefited since the creation of a single European aviation market is typified by the travelling behaviours fostered by airlines such as EasyJet and Ryanair. But the new competitive environment and profit orientation of airlines left services to peripheral regions vulnerable, as airlines would no longer cross-subsidise loss-making routes. To close this gap, the EU developed public service obligations (PSOs) as a mechanism that permits governments to support ‘thin routes’.

Public service obligations

A government would consider implementing a PSO in the event of a market failure because of the positive relationship between aviation connectivity and economic development. The only circumstances in which EU regulations permit the implementation of PSOs are when a route is essential for economic or social purposes. Once a PSO is approved by the EU, governments are able to regulate competition on it or compensate an airline for losses occurred while operating it. In either case the airline is selected following a tender process and the route must adhere to strict criteria governing the eligibility and proportionality of a service, which balances the connectivity needs of the peripheral community with maintaining a competitive aviation market (European Commission, 2017).
The challenges of peripheral regions

A key determinant of a region’s prosperity is whether it has a core or a peripheral location. The core-periphery structure is a feature of modern society which is organising increasingly into core cities, where people and businesses are concentrated, within expanses of less populated or economically active rural and remote peripheral regions. By 2030 the global population living in cities is forecast to reach 60%, double what is was in 1930. Cities first located and grew, where they did, because of advantageous natural resources and topological features or the early adoption of emergent technologies, like canals or railways. However, cities have continued to grow long after the value of the original advantage had diminished.

Businesses tend to agglomerate — determined by the concentration and dispersal forces that pull and push them towards a location of greatest benefit and regulated by the cost of transportation. Businesses agglomerate because the concentration of economic activity and markets creates opportunities to increase profitability which, if these are greater than the transportation cost of accessing their markets in other locations, attracts more businesses, workers and investors (Fujita, Krugman & Venables, 1999). However, concentration also causes congestion and increases competition and these things add costs. Economic activity is dispersed when the cost of being part of an agglomeration become greater than profitability gains or transportation costs, and businesses are pushed to re-locate to less congested regions (Martin, 2008). Another form of dispersal force is when economic activity such as agrarian and mineral extracting activity or any activity requiring heavy industrial plant is immovable (Ottaviano & Puga, 1998).

Traditional sectors have, for years, provided employment in peripheral regions, but automation and globalisation have caused their demise. Governments advance policies that strengthen agglomerations because the ‘spillover’ of benefits into peripheral regions cause economic convergence. However, the greater the distance a region is from an agglomeration the weaker the spillover benefits are — until they become negligible. Peripheral regions then become locked into conditions determined by past circumstances and unequipped to compete in the modern economy, conferring on them a lagging region status in need of ongoing development support (Martin, 2008).

The approach traditionally taken by governments to regional development has been centrally determined and ‘spatially-blind’ policies that took no account of the circumstances of a particular region and entailed different approaches to equity redistribution. Recently growth-orientated ‘place-based’ policies have emerged which acknowledge regional differences and recognise that economic growth can be achieved locally by valorising unique local assets. The role of place-based development strategies is to assist peripheral regions identify and exploit these opportunities (Barca, 2009). The driving forces behind these strategies and through which value from local assets will be unlocked, are entrepreneurship and attracting knowledge intensive sectors (Stephens, Partridge & Faggian, 2013).

However, peripheral regions, when compared to core centres, face two challenges in delivering place-based strategies. Firstly, they lack the necessary commercial capacity and capability, and secondly, their remote locations and inferior transport connectivity makes external markets, labour pools and collaborators less accessible. Arguably, these seemingly different challenges are in fact the same issue viewed from two different perspectives, because the causality flows in both directions, which is to say, economic activity generates connectivity demand and connectivity facilitates economic activity and thus they sustain each other.

The study of public service obligations in the UK

The economic characteristics of agglomerations and urban centres are comprehensively studied, whereas those of peripheral regions are less well understood and the conditions necessary to encourage entrepreneurship and attract knowledge sector businesses are not yet sufficiently developed. Public service obligation (PSO) studies are concerned only with supply side matters, while insufficient attention is paid to understanding the conditions necessary to increase demand for PSO services from within the regions they serve. Increased demand could create favourable conditions for competitive PSO contract tenders and introduce the possibility for a reduction in public subsidy or their imposition by regions that might otherwise view them as unaffordable. Identifying a framework of technical or policy conditions that could stimulate greater demand for PSO services could lead to a reduction in the need for public support or the eventual marketisation of the route. Such a framework could be used by policy makers and practitioners, when defining appropriate criteria for the proactive utilisation of PSOs in regional development strategies or in devising pathways that take PSOs from publicly underwritten to commercially self-sustaining routes.

Local authorities are caught in a practical and political “tug-of-war” to maximise the level of social services they provide the community, on one side, and, on the other, to support business growth by subsidising services. Then, each region’s peripherality is compounded by intra- and inter-regional overland connectivity shortcomings, caused by environmental disruptions; thin and poor-quality transport networks, or a combination of both. Moreover, the local authorities’ commitment to supporting aviation connectivity, whilst not insignificant, only partially matches the total funding necessary and they remain critically reliant on central government funding. Further, transport connectivity is crucial to the success of the development strategies that regions have adopted, which are dependent on knowledge intensive sectors that are outward looking. Finally, the long-term timeframe of these development strategies is not matched by the permissible duration of a PSO or the shorter government funding commitments.
A key determinant of a region’s prosperity is whether it has a core or a peripheral location. The core-periphery structure is a feature of modern society which is organising increasingly into core cities, where people and businesses are concentrated, within expanses of less populated areas.

The literature on regional development and air transportation connectivity has shown that both the decision to implement a PSO on a route and the level of demand for that route is influenced by a range of organisations, circumstances, assets and externalities – which are bound by a complicated network of relationships. The nature of which, and how they might impact on or be impacted by regional development strategies and PSOs, could also differ by region. Therefore, this study explored the perspectives of local and national governing authorities, businesses and organisations, and the perspectives of business leaders and service providers. This was in order to understand the influence that location and local conditions have on a region’s ability to achieve economic growth through place-based economic strategies, and how fully the current PSO service is able to support such strategies. Doing so would help to identify any changes necessary to PSO arrangements that would positively influence the use of air transportation in overcoming location and local challenges, as well as changes necessary in attitudes towards PSOs to positively influence the marketisation of these routes. The regions studied are those areas served by Cornwall Airport Newquay, Derry City Airport, and Dundee Airport as these are the catchment areas of UK airports with a PSO service to London. In examining stakeholder perspectives three key ideas emerge. Some of these findings are categorised as (1) passenger choice; (2) the feasibility of alternatives, and (3) low connectivity confidence.

**Passenger choice**

Interviewees described how the air service from London was important to businesses as a tool to dispel the misconceptions that clients hold about a business competence based on its peripherality:

‘we’ll have shown them that we aren’t a bunch of yokels … we’ll talk about the airport all of the time to try and make them comfortable that we are not out in the sticks’

‘we have to show them that we can get to them just as quickly when we are needed’

However, they reported that there were few options for bringing clients into the region for business:

‘We wouldn’t even suggest the train. The length of the journey just adds to the idea that we are removed from everywhere’

A greater fear they described was that it would be an even more damaging message if the current PSO route was discontinued:

‘How could we be taken seriously? We’re telling people that we’re serious about business and at the same time we take it away. Nobody would take us seriously.’
The high value that business attaches to the air service to London does not translate into their consistently using it for their own travel needs. Reasons like high fares or service levels might have been anticipated, except that there can be a high inconvenience cost to choosing the alternative mode or airport:

“If I have to be at a meeting in London at 9am I’ll get up at 3am to get the bus to [alternative airport] to catch the 6.30 flight.”

For other participants, the decision to make a journey by rail is one of productivity:

“On the train I can have meetings with my team or we can prepare for presentations. Other people can join us at stations along the way.”

The train takes me right into the heart of London. By plane I have to drive to the airport, park, wait at the airport, get through the airport at the [arrival airport], hope there aren’t problems getting into London and then get a taxi or tube to where I need to go. Then I have to do it all again going home and hope I don’t miss my one flight back.”

The feasibility of alternatives

Local entrepreneurs in particular are willing to contend with high levels of inconvenience to gain the best value price and service, either by using an alternative mode or an airport further afield. Due to the strong attachment they had to the region, such levels of inconvenience had not prompted them to consider relocating. However, this does have implications for business growth as it might constrain their ambitions:

“It’s exhausting. Getting up at that time of the morning really knocks it out of you and there’s only so much of it I would do. Yes, yes it would limit what we can do.”

Investors or businesses exploring new locations begin with a low tolerance of poor-quality connectivity and this can hinder the region as a choice as a business destination:

“When we are showcasing, they won’t even get to see the [region]… they have a clear idea of what they need to see and have very little time to see it. They want to fly in, see what they need and fly out again… If takes two hours out of a day just to get them up there and then they don’t get to see everything they have told us to show them, it’s too much of a risk.”

“We had wanted to base everybody there, but now it is just back office functions. Professional services, senior consultants, we have had to open a London office to base them in. Bottom line, we had planned on 300 staff there, but now it’s only 80.”

Low connectivity confidence

Participants described the role that funding arrangements have for confidence levels in the future security of aviation connectivity. Within the business community this is simply an
While businesses located in a peripheral region benefit from lower congestion costs than in a city, they also forgo the benefits of a city location. To compete as a business destination, a peripheral region must ensure that the lower costs, which make it attractive, are not simply replaced by the cost and inconvenience of inadequate connectivity.

Conclusion

There are measures that could increase the contribution of PSOs to a region’s economic development. Entrepreneurs and investors in innovative businesses and modern sectors are critical to the development strategies adopted by the regions but they require unencumbered access to international markets. If they are to start up or locate to an airport region, they need to be confident that market connectivity will be maintained into the future. It is unlikely they would have sufficient confidence in a region’s connectivity unless the commitment to a PSO and the necessary funding was similar to the long-term timescale of the development strategies, which ultimately will generate growth in demand for the route. The criteria for defining the quality of transport connectivity options, and whether different modes or airports are actually suitable alternatives, also needs rethinking.

While businesses located in a peripheral region benefit from lower congestions costs than in a city, they also forgo the benefits of a city location. To compete as a business destination, a peripheral region must ensure that the lower costs, which make it attractive, are not simply replaced by the cost and inconvenience of inadequate connectivity. Therefore, the connectivity a PSO provides needs to be the highest attainable, and not a ‘least bad’ option. To achieve this the justification and funding for a PSO should be determined by an assessment of a region’s actual needs, i.e. those that will support regional development goals, and not by that which an arbitrary budget can afford. Likewise, PSO contract conditions that prevent aircraft being utilised for other services should be resolved so that bureaucracy does not limit connectivity.

Operational procedures and revenue management strategies should also be re-engineered to better reflect the attitudes and realities of businesses in peripheral regions. Entrepreneurs in particular are pragmatic in their thinking and view air transportation as they do other utilities. They are particularly sensitive to the cost of fares and are surprised not to receive promotional activity similar to other services. They also object to pricing strategies which, because of their pragmatic attitudes and an awareness that a lack of transport options makes them a captive market, they view as profiteering. To them a fare increase is the failure by the airline to understand and respond to their connectivity needs.

These preliminary findings are only a snapshot of the research project and they will be developed further as the study continues. They do suggest, however, that entrepreneurs located in peripheral regions are less sympathetic towards some of the aviation industry’s norms that ‘frequent flyers’ are accepting off. Possibly because they are more sensitive to the time and financial cost of business travel, they appear motivated to explore all options to find the one most acceptable on each occasion. To address the issues affecting demand, local and national government may need to reconsider their priorities when assessing a PSO route and airlines might benefit by reviewing the suitability of their commercial and operational practices in this market.

In addition, there appears to be a gap between the long-term nature of the economic development strategies adopted by peripheral authorities and the limited duration of a PSO. This implies that a long-term approach is required to the regulation and funding of PSOs to align these with the needs of the economic development strategies. This would provide certainty to the prospective industries and investors essential for economic growth and from which increased demand for the PSO service will be derived.
THIRD PARTY FUNDING: SELF-REGULATION IN THE UK

This article considers the background to the self-regulation of third party funding of civil legal claims in England and Wales. It examines the means by which self-regulation through the Code of Conduct for the Association of Litigation Funders has evolved, along with arguments for reform.

The process of seeking redress through the courts, otherwise known as litigation, is expensive. Despite a radical overhaul of the civil litigation rules of practice in England and Wales in 1999, designed with the ‘overriding objective of enabling the court to deal with cases justly and at proportionate cost’ (Rule 1.1(1) Civil Procedure Rules 1998), ‘it remains the case that for very many in society the means to fund litigation remains a substantial barrier to entry to the civil justice system even if the costs are proportionate costs’ (Etherton, 2018). The difficulty in using the courts for legal redress was increased by the passing of the Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act (2012) (‘LASPO’). This legislation removed financial support for most cases previously receiving assistance for matters involving housing, welfare, medical negligence, employment, debt, immigration and most private family law cases. The rationale was not purely financial in seeking to make substantial savings to the legal aid bill and to move the burden of legal costs from the public purse to the private sector; LASPO was also designed to discourage unnecessary and adversarial litigation at public expense.

The effect of LASPO has been a renewed emphasis on alternative means by which Claimants can obtain financial support to pursue litigation. The most common form of charging by legal practitioners is the chargeable hour, whereby legal practitioners charge their clients by the time spent on a matter. This has been replaced in many areas by more sophisticated fee regimes. These include ‘parcelling’ or ‘bundling’ of matters, meaning an agreed charge in advance for a certain amount of work, or up to a specific stage, which is paid privately – utilising legal expenses insurance which may be attached to house or car or business insurance; after the event insurance, a form of insurance obtained to cover the cost of having to pay the winner’s legal costs in the event of a failed claim or counterclaim; conditional fee agreements, which require clients to enter into a formal agreement with their solicitor providing for no or limited legal fees to be payable unless there is a defined successful outcome, and a success fee to be paid out of damages; and/or damages-based agreements which are another form of no-win, no-fee arrangement where the client is charged a straight percentage out of the amount won.

An increasingly important alternative to the litigation funding landscape is third party funding. Without such an alternative, parties might not be able to start or defend a claim thereby limiting access to justice. The global market for third party funding of both commercial litigation and arbitration is in excess of US$10 billion. It may be of surprise and/or concern to note that there is hardly any formal regulation of this growing sector. This article will explore the nature of third party funding as another means of financing litigation; its acceptance by the judiciary within England and Wales, and the means by which self-regulation of the industry has evolved through the Code of Conduct for members of the Association of Litigation Funders, along with arguments for reform.
What is third party funding: Is it not illegal?

Third party funding is the provision of funds by an outside individual or body with no other pre-existing connection of its own with the parties to the litigation to enable a litigant to pursue or defend a civil claim. It may take the form of unconditional donations by individuals who hope for simple repayment in the event of success or, more often, payments by a commercial funder willing to take a risk on a claim with a view to making a profitable return in the event of success. A funder may provide the full legal costs of proceedings; part fund, or cover disbursements only. Profit may be calculated in a number of ways – such as a percentage of the damages or a return on the multiple of the investment provided. It is mainly used in commercial litigation and commercial and investment treaty arbitrations where the reward justifies the risk of the investment.

The landscape has become ever more complex as the market has expanded. It now includes brokers who specialise in liaising with clients, lawyers and funders and structuring dispute finance arrangements; unregulated financial entities willing to lend direct to clients or lawyers to support litigation; and solicitors who might also source funds and promote this in their marketing material.

Within England and Wales third party funding has yet to be legally regulated and is a prima facie breach of the ancient common law rules against champerty and maintenance. The Law Commission (1966) has described maintenance as 'the procurement, by direct or indirect financial assistance, of another person to institute, or carry on or defend civil proceedings without lawful justification. Champerty is a particular form of maintenance, where the maintainer’s agreement with the litigant gives them a share in the proceeds or subject matter of the action; action referred to as ‘a division of the spoils’.

The concern of the courts goes back to medieval times and the prime issue of the protection of the integrity of public justice. A supporter funding litigation could subvert the legal process; they could, for instance, promote spurious or vexatious legal claims to suppress evidence or even suborn witnesses, or artificially inflate the amount of any damages recoverable. By these means a supporter could try to ensure a victory in the courts as a means of harassing or putting pressure on their opponents.

Attitude of the courts of England and Wales towards champerty and maintenance

The courts in England and Wales have taken a relaxed attitude toward third party funding arrangements in recent years, taking account of the exigencies of funding difficulties, and holding that access to justice for litigants remains paramount. A clear example of this approach is where the former MP Neil Hamilton lost his defamation claim against Mr Al-Fayed and was ordered to pay substantial costs. A large part of Mr Hamilton’s own costs had been paid by a fighting fund, to which several hundred donors had made contributions. However, they had no control as to how their donations were spent; played no part in the litigation, and their only interest in the outcome was that if the claim was sufficiently successful they expected to be repaid the amount of their donations. In effect, they were classic maintainers. As Mr Hamilton was unable to meet the order for payment of Mr Al-Fayed’s costs, the latter applied for a non-party costs order against nine of the main contributors. Giving the lead judgment of the court, Simon Brown LJ held that the contributors were not liable to contribute any monies as, in his opinion, the legal authorities supported the view that ‘the unfunded party’s ability to recover his costs must yield to the funded party’s right of access to the courts to litigate the dispute in the first place’. In other words, access was ultimately more important a principle than legal costs.
Benefits of third party funding

The obvious advantage of third party funding evidenced in the Hamilton case is that it promotes access to justice. Without the benefit of this form of funding a claimant may not be able to embark on litigation at all; the inherent risks of litigation and adverse costs orders are avoided by the prospective claimant and, perhaps controversially, third party funding may promote settlement. The argument here is that a defendant should understand that the claimant has funds to go to trial. Separately, as funders tend to operate on a commercial basis seeking a good return on their investment, defendants should be aware that the claim has been assessed as having good prospects of success by legal professionals. As a consequence a defendant may consider that settlement at a figure higher than justified by the particular case is a more sensible option than fighting a claimant with potentially deep pockets – an aspect that has also been termed ‘the protection racket’ principle. For the claimant, the nature of the commercial agreement with the third party funder means that the latter will not receive the full extent of any settlement or damages awarded if successful. It is a case of ‘something rather than nothing’ and, with third party funders setting claims from £1 million upwards, that can still be a considerable windfall for the successful claimant.

Judicial and academic support for third party funding

In 2009 Lord Justice Jackson was asked by the then Master of the Rolls, ‘to review the rules and principles governing the costs of civil litigation and to make recommendations in order to promote access to justice at proportionate cost’. In his final report in 2009 he endorsed third party funding as providing an additional and sometimes only means of funding litigation, promoting access to justice:

I accept that third party funding is still nascent in England and Wales and that in the first instance what is required is a satisfactory voluntary code, to which all litigation funders subscribe. At the present time, parties who use third party funding are generally commercial or similar enterprises with access to full legal advice. In the future, however, if the use of third party funding expands, then full statutory regulation may well be required, as envisaged by the Law Society (Jackson, 2009)

In 2010 the Civil Justice Council, an advisory non-departmental public body sponsored by the Ministry of Justice, issued a consultation paper entitled, ‘A Self-regulatory Code for Third Party Funding’ (Council, 2010). Legal professionals and third party funders were invited to consider:

1. Continuing with the status quo; or
2. Introducing self-regulation; or
3. Introducing formal regulation

The perceived difficulty with continuing with the status quo was that it would potentially leave consumers and third party funders vulnerable. Consumers might face attempted interference or influence from funders in the conduct of litigation, and not be adequately protected on adverse legal costs orders if third party funders had insufficient capital to pay a lost claim. For their part, third party funders would potentially be vulnerable to claimants seeking to use champerty as an excuse not to pay the agreed share of a successful claim, or defendants avoiding paying legal costs for the same reason. Introducing self-regulation was viewed as the least expensive and practical solution and obviated the need for formal regulation. The difficulty with introducing formal regulation was that, to date, no UK regulator has been willing to undertake a formal regulatory role. Formal regulation, however, was the preferred option of the majority of consultees. Yet, recognising both the complexities and practicalities of the means by which full regulation could be achieved, self-regulation was ultimately identified as the preferred route in the report.

Third party funding is accepted in many jurisdictions across the world, without regulation. In Australia, third party funding has been available for over a decade and Australia has gone further than any other jurisdiction in permitting the full assignment of claims to third party funders, in effect permitting the purchase of an action (Jeffery & Katauskas Pty Limited v Rickard Constructions Pty Limited [2009] HCA 43).

Two major studies have investigated third party funding since the CJC report of 2010. Hodges, Pysner and Nurse (2012) reported that regulation would avoid challenges to the validity of any agreements regarding litigation funding; ensure the financial risk of withdrawal and the consequences for all parties was properly understood, and exhort and police good business practice. A key issue for Hodges, Pysner and Nurse was whether regulation should be along financial and investment lines such as that of the Prudential Regulation Authority, or of legal services. A second report (ICCA-Queen Mary, 2015) found that 71% of a cohort of 763 respondents surveyed (including academics, legal professionals, and expert witnesses) desired formal regulation of the industry with only 29% accepting collective self-regulation through a code of conduct by an independent body.

Third party funding is the provision of funds by an outside individual or body with no other pre-existing connection of its own with the parties to the litigation to enable a litigant to pursue or defend a civil claim.
Association of Litigation Funders and the Code of Conduct

The response in England and Wales to the Jackson report was to establish the Association of Litigation Funders of England and Wales (ALF) on 23 November 2011. A voluntary Code of Conduct for Litigation Funders was finalised and published the same day. The Code was amended in 2016 – it is short, only five pages long and requires litigants to sign a Litigation Funding Agreement with the funder. Membership is open to third party funders who have previously funded cases or are doing so at the time of their application to the Association (Art 26.1 of the Articles of Association). The third party funder must ensure the funded party has received independent legal advice on the terms of the Litigation Funding Agreement, and must not take any steps which would cause or be likely to cause a claimant’s lawyers to act in breach of their professional duties, nor must it seek to influence to cede control or conduct of the dispute to the third party funder.

Clause 9 of the Code requires that a third party funder must be able to maintain adequate financial resources to meet its obligations to fund the disputes it has agreed to fund; to pay all debts when they become due and payable; to cover a minimum period of 36 months aggregate funding liabilities, and to maintain access to a minimum of £5 million in capital. In addition, under Clause 13.2, if there is a dispute between the third party funder and the client, whether it is on the terms of settlement of an action or on termination of the funding, ‘a binding opinion shall be obtained from a Queen’s Counsel who shall be instructed jointly or nominated by the Chairman of the Bar Council’. Additionally, there is a complaints procedure enabling an investigation of a third party funder by the legal counsel of the ALF who reports to its management board. To date no member of the Association of Litigation Funders of England and Wales has faced a formal complaint.

Does self-regulation of third party funding in the UK work?

There are only 17 members of the Association of Litigation Funders of England and Wales. There are many more players in the field of third party funding. It is possible that parties are uninterested in becoming members because of the high capital adequacy requirement of £5 million. It is possible, equally, that third party funders are operating outside of the Code as they are maintaining an element of control over the proceedings, permissible in Australia, but not elsewhere. Solicitors for their part might not be overly cautious in seeking funder members of ALF; they may not inquire about insurance or capital adequacy because they are keen to obtain funding immediately for the benefit of the client to commence a claim without the protection offered by the ALF. In any event, legal professionals owe a duty of care to clients; are bound by professional rules, and must be insured to maintain their practice. They are duty bound to consider and investigate with their client the best possible financing of a claim under those rules. Whilst Hong Kong and Singapore have more formally regulated what has been a voluntary state of affairs in England and Wales, Australia is moving forwards. Later this year there is a strong possibility of the introduction of a licensing system of third party funders for class actions where a group with the same or similar injuries caused by the same product sue a Defendant. This reflects the type of claim which has traditionally received support in that jurisdiction with the more liberal approach to third party funders being able to direct and take over the conduct of an action itself (Talts, 2018).

Within England and Wales, the apparent absence of poor practice; the acceptance by the judiciary, legal professionals and the market of third party funding, and the lack of any obvious regulator, has meant a reluctance to intervene. The fact is that ‘the spirit of our age, for good or ill, has been to encourage voluntary regulation and limit state regulation except to egregious cases’ (Peysner, 2016). Self-regulation looks likely to remain the only way the sector in England and Wales will be prepared to fund expensive and uncertain litigation and arbitration.

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Keywords

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Undergraduate Open Days
10am-3pm, West London campus
Saturday 12 October 2019
Saturday 9 November 2019

Postgraduate Open Day
4pm-7pm, West London campus
Thursday 21 November 2019

Nursing and Midwifery Open Day
11am-3pm, Reading campus
Saturday 2 November 2019

Book your place: uw.l.ac.uk/open
After being inspired by her travels and wishing to capture those special moments, Claire Williams decided to study for a degree in photography. A top student who immersed herself in the learning experience, she eventually left the University of West London in 2012 with a first class degree in Photography and Digital Imagining.

But Claire wasn’t just studying, whilst at the University she also started to develop her own business – she gained contacts across the institution; applied for various schemes; hunted down every lead she could, and since graduation she has barely stopped. Her work is crisp and bold and full of vivid texture. The lines draw you in and her work creates a strong visual narrative. When meeting with Claire, it is hard to decide what it is about her that is so special and why she is so successful. For me, it is the mix of talent and drive. But speaking with Claire, it becomes clear that she is just looking for the perfect picture, “Sometimes I just see something and I think, ‘Oh my goodness’. I am constantly looking for the perfect picture. I wish I had a camera implanted in my head.”

Chatting with Claire about photography is an interesting experience. When Claire talks about photography her language is littered with words such as ‘love’, ‘passion’ and ‘inspiration’ and she tells me that, “If you do something you love then you will be successful and I knew when I started with photography that I just loved it!”

In her own words

Tell us about yourself?

I’m Claire, an interior photographer. In 2004 I spent 18 months travelling in Australia and South East Asia, it was then that I decided I wanted to become a photographer. When I returned to the UK I started my studies, part-time in Oxford. I then worked as a project photographer with Raleigh International in India before coming back to the UK in 2010 to study at UWL.
**Why do you do it?**

I love photography and running my own business. I’ve definitely found my passion. I’m very fortunate that my business is flexible and I can spend time with my daughter, I now shoot two days a week whilst she is at nursery.

**What makes a great photograph?**

Lighting and composition are obviously key to any photograph and when taken correctly give the image a perfect balance. There are rules within photography which will also enable the image to be pleasing to the viewer.

**What is your connection to UWL?**

I studied BA Photography and Digital Imaging at UWL and graduated with a 1st in 2012. I’m very grateful to UWL and wouldn’t have a successful business if it hadn’t been for my studies with them. Whilst I was studying I linked up with many key people at the University and still photograph for them today. There were also lots of opportunities to work with businesses around West London, one of which linked to the Arts Council, resulting in my work being taken to Vietnam for an exhibition celebrating 400 years of Shakespeare. I am forever grateful to UWL for kick-starting my career.

**What advice would you give others?**

Believe in your dream and believe that it’s possible, there is enough work out there for everyone and anyone who is willing to work hard towards building a business or career within the industry.
Whilst I was studying I linked up with many key people at UWL and still photograph for them today. There were also lots of opportunities to work with businesses around West London, one of which linked to the Arts Council, resulting in my work being taken to Vietnam for an exhibition celebrating 400 years of Shakespeare.

As Claire was setting up her business she encountered plenty people telling her that she shouldn’t bother and that photography was a saturated market. But looking around, she saw that people are now driven to document their lives. Much of this may be quick selfies but there is also a desire for people to capture more precious and more thoughtful moments. Claire’s website is full of such images: with luxurious interiors full of balance and light. We asked Claire to shoot some images for New Vistas and the results are amazing – there is a kind of peace to her work that encourages the viewer to take their time and really ponder the moment. You can see this in her images of the University of West London, where her inquisitive eye captures engaging angles and exciting new perspectives. I’m delighted that Claire has agreed to shoot our cover page and I am sure our readers will be inspired by her story and her talent.
ARE SOCIETAL PERCEPTIONS OF BUTCH AND FEMININE LESBIANS CHANGING?

This study investigates heterosexual reactions toward butch and feminine lesbian women and demonstrates that sexual prejudice should be investigated within identified subgroups of sexual minorities rather than simply using catch-all terminology.
Prejudice toward sexual minorities appears to be firmly ingrained. Prejudice has traditionally been viewed as the application of social stereotypes. However, research suggests that there is differentiation in the prejudices associated with identified sub-groups of lesbian women. This study investigates the association between behaviours towards butch lesbians and feminine lesbians. According to gender inversion theory (Kite & Deaux, 1987), stereotypes held of lesbians have traditionally perceived the group as undifferentiated; lacking feminine qualities; maternal instincts, and displaying typically masculine behaviours. However, more recently Geiger, Harwood and Hummert (2006) have shown that perceivers hold more complex representations of this group. Brambilla, Carnaghi and Ravenna (2011) extended these findings by investigating lesbians as both an overall category and as a number of identified subgroups applying the Stereotype Content Model (SCM) (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick & Xu, 2002).

The SCM predicts that social perception is organised under two dimensions: warmth (co-operative or competitive) and competence (social status and abilities). Within this model, groups may be evaluated positively as warm and competent and are therefore admired, or negatively, as cold and incompetent — eliciting feelings of contempt. Fiske et al. (2002) further explained that ambivalent attitudes occur when perceptions of groups are mixed, for example, a business manager (highly competent, but lacking warmth) may be respected yet simultaneously disliked — perhaps evoking feelings of envy. Conversely, ethnic minorities and the elderly are well-regarded socially but disrespected due to perceived lack of competence, and are therefore pitied.

Lesbians as a superordinate category fall in the centre of the warmth vs competence space; which is likely a representation of the extreme variation in attitudes towards lesbian sub-groups. While closeted lesbians are perceived as neither competent nor warm, feminine lesbians are perceived as both competent and warm, and butch lesbians are perceived ambivalently as competent but lacking in warmth (Brambilla, Carnaghi & Ravenna, 2011). Vaughn, Teeters, Sadler and Cronan (2017) further investigated heterosexual perceptions and subjective behaviours towards homosexuals, using the SCM. Reflecting previous research, lesbians as an overall category were identified as the most competent and least warm of the various groups. However, in sub-categories where lesbians were perceived as high in competence and high in warmth (feminine lesbians) they were admired, and this was associated with active facilitation (e.g. helping) and passive facilitation (e.g. associating).
behaviours. Although, in contradiction to SCM, when lesbians were perceived high in competence and low in warmth (butch lesbians) they were viewed with contempt, instead of envy, which is usually reserved for groups with this mixed combination. Contempt in turn was associated with active harm (e.g. attacking) and passive harm behaviours (e.g. demeaning). The study reported here investigated the association between heterosexual reactions (facilitation or harm) toward butch and feminine lesbian women. In addition, it hypothesised that there would be an association between ‘harm’ and ‘butch’, in line with the findings of Vaughn et al. (2017).

Method
A mixed methods research design was used, investigating the association between two variables: heterosexual reactions, with two levels: active or passive harm and active or passive facilitation, towards lesbians with two levels: butch or feminine. Participants were heterosexual contributors to an online discussion board. The data was collected from two online forums and two article commentaries, one of each referring to feminine and one to butch lesbians. Ethical approval for data collection and content use of the two forums (“Digital Spy”, 2019; “The Student Room”, 2019) was pre-approved, and further authorisation was gained for the online articles (Meade, 2014; Bindel, 2015) in accordance with the British Psychological Society’s ethics guidelines for internet mediated research (Hewson & Buchanan, 2017). The first 32 comments from each article were extracted.

As lesbianism is typically regarded as an undifferentiated group, the entire discussion was extracted, and coded by sentences differentiating between feminine and butch lesbians specifically. The unit of analysis was a self-explanatory piece of text that made clear reference to one of the two groups and could be clearly identified as active/passive facilitation or active/passive harm behaviour by the coding manual. The unit could be a sentence, paragraph or the whole post. The codable units were highlighted as either referring to butch lesbians or feminine lesbians, all LGBT identifying commenters were removed. A deductive (top-down) content analyses was conducted on the data. One hundred and thirty-nine units of analysis were coded: 65 represented the feminine lesbians and 74 represented the butch lesbians. A thematic analysis conducted in accordance with recommended guidelines (Braun & Clarke, 2006) established the narrative accounts.

Results
The observed frequencies for ‘behaviour expressed’ (in the two categories of facilitation and harm) toward each lesbian subcategory (feminine and butch) were formed into four potential categories (see Table 1 above).

A Pearson Chi square test was conducted to examine the association between the two categorical variables. A non-significant association between the behaviours and the type of lesbian was found ($X^2 (1) = .063, p > .05$). The percentage of facilitation behaviours shown towards feminine lesbians (see Figure 1, p. 27) was 28.6% and harm behaviours towards this same group was 18%, suggesting behaviours demonstrated towards feminine lesbians varied widely. The combination of harm (active and passive) towards butch lesbians, although less common than facilitation still appeared more frequently than the combination of active/passive harm toward feminine lesbians. Similarly, the percentage of harm behaviours towards butch lesbians was 21.6% and facilitation behaviours was 31.7% also suggesting wide variation in behaviours shown towards butch lesbians.

Narrative account of forum comments
A further qualitative analysis of the prevalent themes revealed the following key content associated with either butch or feminine lesbians.

Active facilitation and butch lesbians
Active facilitation behaviours were most prevalent towards butch lesbians, with many commenters making associations between their own, and the butch group norms. Attempts to understand, and be tolerant of values were shown, some demonstrating notably protective behaviour. These comments may reflect the majority of modern society’s changing attitudes towards homosexuals
and gender nonconformity, many people in the forum described being naïve to the preferences of the group, however adopted a live and let live attitude:

“You seem to be suggesting if a woman wears pants and has hair cut short, her female partner should just go find a man. That’s a rather narrow-minded view of the world. There is more to a person than the clothes they wear and the hair cut they have on their head. Try looking deeper into what rests under that.”

Passive harm behaviours and butch lesbians

There was also a prevalence of passive harm behaviours shown towards butch lesbians which commonly took the form of claiming the group’s preferences were in some way contradictory. Some commenters may have genuinely been inquisitive of the butch lesbian lifestyle, however, others carried an undertone of disapproval. These comments were typically centred around butch lesbians’ appearance and adoption of masculine behaviours, which lead to shallow and discriminatory assumptions:

“I’ve sometimes wondered about this as well. In the case of butch lesbians, they seem to fancy women who look like men which in some ways seems contradictory. Unless they have a penis I’m not sure where the contradiction is.”

Butch lesbians – key theme

A less frequent, but key theme in the understanding of sexual prejudice towards butch lesbians were the active harm behaviours shown towards them with commenters saying things such as, “They are trainee, wannabe men. Stuffing socks down the front of their ill-fitting trousers – what a joke.” The strongest and most discriminative attitudes seemed to reflect the violation of gender norms over the group’s sexual preference, for those who still feel strongly that a woman should conform to the ‘pretty’ warm and competent stereotype, the masculine appearance and perceived aggression of this group was a problem. This can be seen in comments such as, “Many fight like men on nights out too! Working at gay night, it was like the roles were reversed!” Notably in this sample, all active harm behaviours reprimanding the group for stereotypical male tendencies came from males themselves, this opens the question as to whether only males in this sample perceived this group as a threat and became competitive, which in turn elicited active harm and passive facilitation behaviours.
Active facilitation and feminine lesbians

For feminine lesbians the facilitatory behaviours were active. Commenters regarded them well for personal appearance and the apparent less-contradictory preferences of sexual partner. These commenters were typically heterosexual females whom solely based the idea of lesbianism on aesthetic features, for these participants this notion was easier to comprehend. Positive attitudes may have been further encouraged by the feminine-lesbian group norms being more similar to their own in terms of gender:

I have a friend (lesbian) and she is a very femme, super hot chick. She digs only those really girlish, hottest girls instead of butch girls… well to me that seems more lesbian — I mean comparing with those girls dressed like guy and behave in a man way…

Active harm and feminine lesbians

However, in direct contrast to the former, being a feminine lesbian and displaying the associated characteristics also elicited more active harm behaviours from the participants. For these commenters there was a sense of discomfort where the violation of social role (sexual preference) combined with the female gendered norm may have been frustrating for perceivers; as they were unable to successfully ascribe a stereotype, perhaps this led to feelings of contempt, which in turn elicited more active harm behaviours for this group. Notably, advocates of this attitude were typically female, in striking similarity to the males’ active harm behaviour towards butch lesbians, attitudes may have been mediated more by the perceived competition from this group:

I thought lipstick lesbians aren’t actually lesbians, but straight girls who fondle each other in public in order to attract and arouse straight men. Am I wrong?

Feminine lesbians – key theme

Objectification is a key theme in the understanding of sexual prejudice toward the feminine lesbian group, with many assuming that their sexual behaviours were substantially for the enjoyment of others. This is likely a product of the pornography industry. Comments relating to this theme devalue and demean women but have become normalised and widely held attitudes. These participants may not even be aware of the damaging perspectives they hold. Feminine lesbians may have been grouped as ‘socially undesirable’ for this reason, and in turn be met with discriminatory attitudes and behaviours:

I love winding the despots up at work about LGBT teachers and school staff, as quite a few of them think it is absolutely DISGUSTING… but the ‘men’ get excited about them anyway. So they can take their clothes off for your pleasure, but not teach your kids, apparently.

Discussion

This study investigated the association between behaviours (active and passive harm, or active and passive facilitation) towards lesbians (butch and feminine), and found that there was no association between these two variables. The results of this study contradict the findings of Vaughn et al. (2017) in which there was a significant association between harm behaviours and butch lesbians, in contrast, this study found a prevailing theme of active facilitation and passive harm behaviours shown towards butch lesbians. This study’s results have important implications for research on lesbian stereotypes. It may be that society’s perception of this group has changed and it is now associated with higher degree of warmth.

The findings of this study further contradict Vaughn et al. (2017) in which there was a significant association between facilitation behaviours (both active and passive) and feminine lesbians. A content analysis of the data revealed a prevailing theme of active facilitation and active harm behaviours shown towards feminine lesbians. As the behaviours demonstrated towards feminine lesbians were predominantly active, we might speculate that the emotions and behaviours towards this group were mediated singularly by the warmth dimension and not the competence of the SCM model.
Objectification is a key theme in the understanding of sexual prejudice toward the feminine lesbian group, with many assuming that their sexual behaviours were substantially for the enjoyment of others. This is likely a product of the pornography industry. Comments relating to this theme devalue and demean women but have become normalised and widely held attitudes.

The feminine lesbian may be more difficult to apply to the model. As an in-between group there is no definitive gender stereotype to anchor them too. Butch lesbians have traditionally been associated with masculine behaviours (Kite & Deaux, 1987) and have further replicated the male dimension of the SCM model whereas feminine lesbians have previously grouped into the high warmth, high competence quadrant of the SCM (usually reserved for friends and in-groups) (Brambilla, Carnaghi & Ravenna, 2011). Consequently, this may cause conflicting perspectives. Importantly this study demonstrates, in line with previous research, that sexual prejudice should be investigated within identified subgroups of sexual minorities (Geiger, Harwood & Hummert, 2006). Despite the lack of quantitative support for the hypothesis that there would be an association between the expressed behaviour of harm, and the lesbian subcategory of ‘butch’, the qualitative findings of this study do provide evidence of the differing and widely held attitudes towards sub-groups of homosexuals. Currently, there is minimal research on sexual prejudice towards lesbians in relation to stereotypes available (Lee & Crawford, 2012), therefore, this study has made an important contribution to the literature.

References


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Keywords

Sexuality; gender; stereotype; behaviours

The authors would like to note that the images shown in this article were retrieved from a generic database and are therefore likely to reflect societal stereotypes rather than the views of the authors themselves.
BLACK STUDENTS IN ENGLAND 1950-2000: REPRESENTATION, IDENTITY AND BARRIERS TO SUCCESS

Since 1950 Black students have underperformed in English schools. This article draws on the experiences of 22 Black former students to try and understand their experiences from their perspectives.
between 1948 and 1971, a large number of people from the Caribbean were invited to live and work in England. Similar to the Black immigrants from other regions that had come before them, Black Caribbean parents expected their children to have a more enhanced education which would automatically be followed by opportunities and a prosperous future. Unfortunately, Black students did not share the experiences and outcomes attained by the most successful students in schools in England (HMI, 2002). Many first generation Black immigrants feel that they failed at school – leaving them determined that the cycle would not repeat itself with their children and grandchildren (HMI 2002); however the data is not positive and Black students have continued to perform below national average expected levels (Demie and McLean, 2017).

Several studies have investigated the academic performance of Black students in England mainly focusing on socio-economic factors; social class; the Black family structure and community, and parents’ education and working backgrounds. Whilst numerous recommendations have been made, the attainment gap has continued to widen. In an attempt to understand some of the personal stories that lie behind this situation, this article reports on a study aimed at investigating the impact of the curriculum and pedagogy on the academic performance of Black students in England between 1950 and 2000.

Methodology
The data for this study was gathered from semi-structured interviews and a review of existing literature. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 22 Black former students who were educated between the 1950 and 2000. Interviews lasting around 45 minutes were conducted – five were face-to-face and 17 were over the telephone. The data from the interviews was coded carefully; reading each narrative to find connecting themes. Each participant’s experiences were analysed individually and then across all participant narratives to find commonalities. By doing this I was not comparing the participants to one another but rather looking at their experiences as one complete story (Demac, Drew & Grimsley, 2010). Inevitably, the full richness of the data cannot be reported in the limited space of this article; therefore, I have chosen the most salient results.

Representation
The participants reported that, during their schooling, Black literature seemed to be absent from the curriculum; the majority of books used in lessons or recommended for reading by teachers were by white authors and often did not possess any positive illustrations of Black people. The participants sometimes failed to connect with these materials and lost interest in literacy in general. Literacy is often seen as the key to all the other subjects in the curriculum and the lack of vital literacy skills can hold a person back at every stage of their life. Therefore, if individuals are disenfranchised they may not be able to succeed at school; as a young adult they may be locked out of the job market, and as a parent they may not be able to support their own child’s learning. This intergenerational cycle makes social mobility and a fairer society more difficult (National Literacy Trust 2019).

“As an Afro-Caribbean, my history was totally absent from the curriculum both at primary and secondary school, there was no positive black representation in anything I was taught.”

Douglas

The lack of Black literature denies Black students the heroic representatives and principles that are associated with a sense of self-pride, they are also denied a beauty of one’s self – causing them to grow up with a distorted self-image and finally, they feel worthless as they associate the lack of Black literature with only white people having done any thinking, feeling and achieving that is worth setting down. This situation not only creates self-hatred but also reinforces a race-based divide. Black literature included in lessons could help Black students connect literature to their day-to-day lives and enhance their engagement with the reading process; as they might feel that school and teachers respect and value them, and that education is for them too. For white students, the inclusion of Black literature would also be beneficial as it would help them become aware that there are other perspectives and ways to do things; they might build an understanding and respect for other cultures and be given a chance to examine race and racism.

Identity
When discussing how they were perceived, many Black former students felt that teachers judged their academic potential based on their home address; whether they were from a single parent family; their parents’ employment history and educational background, and, shockingly, even the colour of their skin. One participant, Delilah, remembers wanting to apply for a secondary school place at a very popular local school but being discouraged by the teacher. Had it not been for the persistence of her parents (who applied anyway) she would not have attended this
school. In comparison Dylan missed out on an opportunity to apply to a grammar school because the headteacher had discouraged his parents saying that the student would not fit in. In this case the parents followed the advice they were given as they believed the head was looking out for their child’s interests. Some positive data did emerge as the results demonstrated a positive teacher-student relationship and level of respect in younger teachers and Black teachers – but this was not the majority experience.

The majority of participants, whose education covers a fifty year period from 1950-2000, did not recall being taught African history and even for the millennials who were taught about the Transatlantic slave trade this was not a positive experience because the enslaved people, who were Black just like them, were depicted as second class. This was greatly embarrassing and caused these students to suffer from low self-esteem. Interestingly, one participant, Dylan, got the opportunity to study African history after he was expelled from school at fifteen. This gave him the opportunity to learn more about his heritage.

“I was learning African history well until I was seventeen, my take on Africa was different from all those other boys in school, when white teachers talked their foolishness for example that Egyptians were white, I would challenge them, this is one of the reasons I got expelled. I did not have the maturity to deal with them so I got confrontational.”

Barriers

Black former students reported being faced with barriers to achievement in English schools. This took the shape of streaming, setting and assessment. Institutional racism was also exhibited in different ways. The majority of teachers were white and Black students were more likely to be labelled a ‘problem’ and automatically placed in a bottom set. What is more, racism was displayed in the language and comments that teachers indirectly used when referring to Black people or even, sometimes, how a teacher called out the same name of a Black student in class at any sense of trouble.

Participants in this study reported that there were suggestions that some teachers were prejudiced towards Black students. In a case where a Black and white student were involved in a fight, the teacher blamed and punished the Black student without investigating further but when a white student was reported as the perpetrator, the Black student was accused of telling lies. Some white teachers ‘picked on’ or did not seem to like Black students; they discouraged Black students from pursuing their future ambitions, and did not support their academic aspirations. Danielle remembers telling a science teacher that she wanted to pursue a career in medicine but was quickly ‘shut down’ and told, “You are not good enough.” This comment made Danielle even more determined to prove them wrong.

Ultimately, underachievement is the logical outcome of racism and stereotyping in education. This may result into a student having negative perceptions and disengaging from school altogether. What is more, the fairly new phenomenon ‘at-risk’ seems to have become another way to blame Black students for both systematic neglect and the failure of schools to provide a decent education.
When exploring issues around stereotypes, Danielle, a fluent English speaker, recalls arriving in England and being automatically assigned to the English as an Additional Language group (EAL). The group constituted of majority Black students some of whom did not speak English – unlike Danielle, who was good at comprehension. The lessons were not challenging enough; students were frustrated, and the group was full of students with behavioural problems. There was a clear lack of appropriate support for students which resulted into hindrance to pupil progress and poor performance.

Discussion
This study covered the experiences of Black students in English schools from 1950-2000. The results were shocking but sadly not unexpected. The results here indicate that the curriculum was not representative of Black students. Black history was absent and the Transatlantic slave trade focused on Britain’s role as the abolitionists. Black literature was absent and none of the books used in the lessons even contained illustrations of Black people. In the majority of cases, Black students felt that teachers’ inaccurate beliefs and prejudice misallocated them to low attainment groups and set low expectations. Almost all of the interviewees pointed to a teacher’s pedagogical approach as the factor that most impacted their academic performance.

Prior studies have noted the importance of teachers having equally high expectations for all students including equal opportunities; equal access to the curriculum, and a commitment to ensure that all students are progressing (HMI 2002). How a teacher perceives a student can act like an obstacle to achievement or it can be springboard to success. Ultimately, underachievement is the logical outcome of racism and stereotyping in education. This may result into a student having negative perceptions and disengaging from school altogether. What is more, the fairly new phenomenon ‘at-risk’ seems to have become another way to blame Black students for both systematic neglect and the failure of schools to provide a decent education.

Many Black people, who attended school in the years 1950-2000, feel that they failed at school (HMI 2002) – the data here suggests that it may well have been schools who failed them! There are still major issues with the overall academic outcomes of Black and minority ethnic students in England and without honest reflection the cycle may continue (Milner, 2005). It is important that schools have a clear stand on racism with unambiguous policies and a commitment to equal opportunities at all levels within the school system. What is more, schools could consider broadening and enriching the curriculum. Schools could have trips to museums that feature African work and collections. African and Caribbean history and Black literature including but not limited to ‘The Greedy Man and the Stranger’ (Senegal), ‘External Love’ (Ivory Coast), ‘Origin of Mankind’ (Togoland), ‘The Black Jacobins’ (Haiti), ‘Capitalism and Slavery’ (Trinidad and Tobago) could be included in the curriculum as a topic in itself rather than a side-note in reference to the slave trade. The curriculum that participants in this study experienced did not include political, historical and social experiences of various ethnic groups. Addressing these areas could help Black students understand themselves and others in a pluralistic society and help eliminate stereotypes and racism.

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INFORMATION LITERACY: CONCEPT AND CONTEXTS

How does Information Literacy inform contemporary perspectives on education, employment and citizenship?

Information may be defined as data that has meaning. Knowledge is information given significance by context and purpose and, as far as can be established, regarded as ‘true’, a sufficiency of which leads through learning to an extension of understanding (Floridi, 2010).

Information Literacy is the effective identification, seeking out and synthesising of the information needed to increase knowledge and facilitate learning and understanding (SCONUL 2011) in whatever context. The recognition of its significance and value as a concept has slowly spread, as academic, workplace and social/cultural/political environments have become overwhelmed with information; much of it of dubious provenance or doubtful accuracy, with the most visible sources often not the most valuable or appropriate. It is now widely accepted that Information Literacy is needed, and should be promoted, in teaching and learning; research; the workplace, and also in a wider world of often complex and confusing political and social agendas.

Models and definitions

The term ‘Information Literacy’ was coined by Paul Zurkowski in 1974. It was an idea which evolved from more restricted notions of library skills or information skills (Snively & Cooper, 1997) through an increasing awareness in Library and Information Management professions of a wider ‘information landscape’ within and beyond the education environment. Information Literacy has always been a concept that invites multiple interpretations and variations in the way it is understood, applied and developed. The early years saw a dichotomy between functionality and competency, between ‘information skills’ and ‘application of skills’. Behaviourist models described Information Literacy as a portfolio of performances, skills and knowledge. Constructivist models, on the other hand, put the ‘real-world’ information task centre stage. Information Literacy is understood as the ability to apply skills and understanding in a context or situation for a specific purpose and that is not simply the ability to perform a task or exhibit a library adept’s knowledge.

Despite the development of the idea of Information Literacy within recognisable educational paradigms such as these, it was seldom acknowledged in its early years beyond the library professions and academic Information Science. It would take a combination of more dynamic research paradigms and a world in which information broke free of conventional channels and was no longer seen to be curatable, reliable, and manageable, to bring it to wider attention.

As well as the development of competency-based descriptions and definitions of Information Literacy, a new approach gradually found favour and recognition from the late 90s onwards, based on the findings of research studies grounded in the methodology phenomenography. Bruce (1997) developed a ‘relational’ model for Information Literacy by treating it as a ‘phenomenon’. She attempted to uncover the varying experiences (in terms of roles and functions) that can be described in the lives of information users. The relational model emphasises that at any moment the experience of being information literate is subjective but contextualised and can be described by a relatively small number of archetypal formulations of ‘variations’ in that experience. This understanding of the subjective and contextual nature of Information Literacy goes a step beyond a model of the constructivist type in its sensitivity to the different ways in which Information Literacy is experienced by an individual and placing that experiential variation at the heart of how it is understood.
Article: Information Literacy: Concept and contexts | Authors: Marc Forster and Davina Omar
Although research based on behaviourist and constructivist ideas of Information Literacy continues, phenomenography is an increasingly important and widely used methodology and has been taken up and applied to groups as varied as nurses, university students and firefighters. Elsewhere its influence can be seen in the design and interpretation of ethnographic information behaviour studies.

Information Literacy has been successful in recent years in obtaining a high profile both inside and outside the academy; it is an idea that encourages varied foci depending on priorities and has proved useful in elucidating active learning; critical citizenship and competent, and creative professionalism (Forster, 2017) amongst other agendas. Approaches and definitions have been, amongst other possibilities, epistemological, passionately socio-political, competency-focused, or phenomenological. In all these models there is an awareness of how Information Literacy facilitates and empowers. The UK’s Society of College, National and University Libraries offers ‘Seven Pillars of Information Literacy’ – Identify; Scope; Plan; Gather; Evaluate; Manage; Present (SCONUL, 2011). The new definition of the American College and Research Libraries (ACRL, 2015) is based on ‘threshold concepts’ that must be grasped to be truly information literate; these describe how an information literate person must be politically and scholarly aware of how information is created and curated, and must understand how Information Literacy is a process, and its experiences are always sensitive to context.

More recently in the UK, the librarians’ professional organisation, CILIP (2018), has developed a new definition which reflects the contemporary preoccupation with ‘fake news’ and the political agendas which influence how information is produced and made available, and the need to make ‘informed and balanced judgements’ about information in order to function effectively as a citizen. In fact, in recent years the ‘critical librarianship’ movement (Eckerdal, 2017) has insisted that the Information Literate individual should be able to recognise the racist, sexist and colonialis power structures which create, structure and make available information and the tools to interpret it.

**Information Literacy for teaching and learning**

Information Literacy is an idea well established within teaching and learning at most levels of education, but most prominently within Further and Higher Education. Academic achievement requires the development of information awareness and the related skills that allow students to locate, critique and apply information from the wider subject domain beyond a simple engagement with the reading list. How well Information Literacy competencies are actively embedded into a student’s learning will vary across institution, subject area and level. Librarians and academics often have to do the best they can within the limits of time and institutional understanding. Information Literacy development activities can take the form of ‘one-shot’ classes but could equally be a series of classes or an entire module. If such classes are not embedded into the curriculum, they may be offered as extra-curricular activity. For distance learning students or students being taught in a non-traditional way, the Information Literacy class may even be delivered online through a live or recorded format.

Yevelson-Shorsher and Bronstein (2018) found that faculty members could determine a difference in academic attainment between students who were able to locate relevant information sources outside of the class reading and those that could not. Introducing Information Literacy development as an aspect of the student journey requires close working relationships between librarians and academic staff and a clear development strategy.
Information Literacy is an idea well established within teaching and learning at most levels of education, but most prominently within Further and Higher Education. Academic achievement requires the development of information awareness and related skills throughout the course. Sullivan and Porter (2016) devised nine steps for successful collaboration including interdisciplinary teams, flexibility, experimentation and multiple interactions.

An active learning approach to Information Literacy teaching is more authentic to the needs of the student and relevant to their subject area and subject knowledge development. This approach has been shown to achieve positive student outcomes (Dettor et al., 2012). Blended support for Information Literacy empowers the student to access information in a format that suits their current need/situation with each format offering unique features.

To ensure that Information Literacy teaching is having a positive impact, librarians need to consider how they evaluate Information Literacy alongside their academic colleagues. Confidence is often associated with Information Literacy — with research showing that increasing confidence levels lead to further help being sought (Margolin & Hayden, 2015). Information Literacy is such an intrinsic characteristic of the effective learner, it is difficult to separate out and measure its educational effect. Whether using assessment methods such as rubrics, tests, quizzes or observation, it remains difficult to demonstrate a direct causation between Information Literacy teaching and improved student outcomes.

Information Literacy and research

Research is an attempt to add to knowledge, to develop or confirm its relationships, and resultant understandings and theories. To do so requires an understanding of what is known alongside an understanding of current theories and models (and how they are related) — so that an accurate pinpointing of knowledge gaps and theoretical weaknesses or incompletions might be achieved. Even experts in the field may have a partial awareness of current trends, claims and achievements without appropriate information skills. An information illiterate researcher risks missing the ‘cutting edge’ and becomes prone to wasting time with obtuse and irrelevant work for which funding would be difficult to obtain.

Information Literacy in the context of original research has a different focus than in teaching and learning. Rather than as part of a direct process through which an individual acquires knowledge to learn, it facilitates the researcher’s vital comprehension of a proposed research study’s ontological and epistemological ‘background’. Information Literacy aids a researcher in the development of a focused grasp of related and contextualising theory, knowledge and data; a context, when properly understood, that helps develop validity, value and significance in the evolving research proposal.

Information Literacy and citizenship

Information Literacy is an essential dimension of the new concept of digital citizenship (Choi, 2016). Developing Information Literacy for citizenship can build on, and be supplemented by, competencies developed within education and the workplace. However, this is not simply a matter of digital skills. Our online lives require us to understand information’s ethical and socio-political dimensions (Coonan et al., 2018) and how it is created and disseminated, and by whom.

Information literacy is ‘enacted in different practices related to information use, in which citizens engage in dialogue with each other and in relation to the information’ (Eckerdal, 2017, p.1025). For example, Liberal Information Literacy is centred on maintaining awareness of both obligations and rights as a citizen and Radical Information Literacy recognises ‘heterogeneity of social groups’ and that there are ‘imbalances between those who have and those who have not access to resources’ (op cit). As sources of information have multiplied even within relatively small communities of interest, and technology has provided ever more sophisticated collaboration opportunities, the risk of only interacting with information that is filtered by small communities of interest, and technology has provided ever more sophisticated collaboration opportunities, the risk of only interacting with information that is filtered by personal beliefs has increased. The ‘filter bubble’ customisation of content may not be new and can be tracked back through the development of Information Technology (Kiszl & Fodor, 2018), but when put alongside ‘fake news’ and the increase in the proportion of political, social, economic activity online, it highlights the need for Information Literacy for all citizens. 
Teaching & Learning

Newly qualified professionals often experience ways of using information in the workplace which are different to those necessary for university study and can, find themselves having to think about their relationship to information in new ways: in terms of meaning, value, and purpose.

Information Literacy and the workplace

Information Literacy is not experienced in the workplace in the same way as in the academic world (Forster, 2017). Newly qualified professionals often experience ways of using information in the workplace which are different to those necessary for university study and can find themselves having to think about their relationship to information in new ways: in terms of meaning, value, and purpose.

Information Literacy is not just a tool for learning or empowerment but under some circumstances it is a means through which one can save lives (Forster, 2017). For example, health care professionals must be able to locate, correctly interpret and apply research evidence, research-based professional guidelines, and other more local and personal sources of information, so as to have the best chance of achieving successful outcomes for their patients. To be unable to do this invites failure and risks undermining the quality of care. Not to have the necessary information skills is a professional and ethical failure as Information Illiteracy means that the most up to date research evidence may not be identified and applied.

A commonly occurring aspect of workplace Information Literacy is its co-operative and team-based nature (Lloyd, 2005). Information Literacy in the real world is often a joint venture – employees often work in teams and always as part of larger organisations or companies. Information use is often, even if on individual initiative, a means of contributing to the knowledge development, and capacity to act effectively, of a wider group. This ‘social’ Information Literacy also involve sharing information with clients, customers, or in health contexts: patients and patients’ families. Library Services and the CNMH Child Health team at the University of West London are currently developing a research project that will investigate how nurses and patient families share information.

Children’s nurses support and care for families as well as their young patients and help parents in their emotionally exhausting task of understanding their child’s illness, including providing them with helpful information. Such an understanding can help facilitate decision-making and planning for the future, as well as strengthening often precarious coping mechanisms by giving a sense of shared responsibility and control in a frightening environment. This exchange of information can be a two-way street where informed parents, who have a trusting relationship with nurses are more likely to pass on accurate and helpful information concerning their child’s symptoms and responses.

In practical terms...

Information Literacy has a role to play in education and research’s contribution to a creative, compassionate and transparent society. Calling on the expertise of librarians, and with the collaboration of academics, the above theories yield methods of Information Literacy education and development which can be introduced into modules through formative work. Those theories that regard Information Literacy as a contextualised phenomenon are particularly appropriate to education focused on a profession, where scenario-based activities can allow students to see the different contexts and purposes in which Information Literacy is used in the professional environment (Forster, 2017). With an increasing understanding of Information Literacy within the university and a structured collaboration between librarians and academics that integrates information competencies within the curriculum, students’ ability to achieve academic and workplace success and become confident and well-informed citizens can only increase.

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Keywords

Knowledge; meaning; information skills; research
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STUDENT PROFILE

Marcus Nicholls

Course
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Year completed
2018

Title of thesis
Examining Adaptation Studies in and through the Decadent aesthetics of J.-K. Huysmans’ À Rebours

Marcus’ thesis examined ideas from Decadent and Adaptation Studies within the arena of Huysmans’ novel À Rebours as an extended case study. Examining this for its relevance to notions of adaptation, the research explored contested areas of contemporary Adaptation Studies, using this as an alternate approach to examining specific types of intertextuality (the resonances between different texts and media) within this quintessential Decadent text. In finding conceptual inherencies between Decadent themes such as artifice, decay, and curation and aspects of adaptation, whilst considering Huysmans’ own preoccupations through the framework of his œuvre and biography, an argument was proposed which considered the contested adaptations in À Rebours as a way in which we can narrativise the author’s immersion in, and then rejection of, the aesthetic philosophies of the Decadent movement.

À Rebours is posited as both being, containing, and allegorising adaptation(s) which are defined by and a part of Decadent aesthetics. Ideas such as artifice, ornamentation, decay, curation, the mise-en-scène, the memory palace, entropy, and embodiment all contribute to exploring what adaptation means for the Decadent figures of author and character in À Rebours. The adaptations proposed attempted to diversify and add to the repository of potential forms of adaptation, as well as providing new conceptual models for particular versions and aspects of adaptation. The work examined adaptation practice prior to its critical formulation, and did so within a specific aesthetic and authorial context. It tested current and new methodologies for the study of adaptation, whilst expanding the terminology for how Adaptation Studies theorise adaptation, adaptations, their reception, and their significance for adapters.

The work examined adaptation practice prior to its critical formulation, and did so within a specific aesthetic and authorial context.

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