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Citation for published version (APA):

Andersson, J. C. A. (in press). Homonormative aesthetics: AIDS and 'de-generational unremembering' in 1990s London. *URBAN STUDIES*. <http://journals.sagepub.com/home/usj>

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**Homonormative aesthetics: AIDS and 'de-generational
unremembering' in 1990s London**

Journal:	<i>Urban Studies</i>
Manuscript ID	CUS-781-18-08.R1
Manuscript Type:	Article
Discipline: Please select a keyword from the following list that best describes the discipline used in your paper.:	Geography
World Region: Please select the region(s) that best reflect the focus of your paper. Names of individual countries, cities & economic groupings should appear in the title where appropriate.:	Western Europe
Major Topic: Please identify up to 5 topics that best identify the subject of your article.:	Built Environment, Community, Culture/Arts/Creativity, Displacement/Gentrification, Gender
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3 **Homonormative aesthetics: AIDS and ‘de-generational unremembering’ in 1990s**
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8 **Abstract**

9 This article historically contextualises the origins of a transnational gay male aesthetic many
10 now think of as homonormative. While typically understood as a depoliticisation that
11 ‘recodes freedom and liberation in terms of privacy, domesticity, and consumption’
12 (Manalansan, 2005: 142), homonormativity also has an associated look defined by a set of
13 slick surface appearances relating both to the body and design. Recognisable in various
14 locations across the globe and in multiple settings including cruise ships, resorts, and gyms,
15 this aesthetic is, above all, associated with gayborhoods and gay villages. Using Soho’s gay
16 village in London as a case-study of the emergence of this generic style in the 1990s, its
17 branded emphasis on ‘affluence’, minimalist interior design and idealised gym bodies is
18 contextualised with references to yuppification and AIDS. Constituting a ‘clean break’ with
19 earlier forms of urban gay culture now stigmatised as ‘dirty’ and ‘unhealthy’, the
20 homonormative aesthetic can be viewed as an example of ‘de-generational unremembering’
21 following the first traumatic phase of the AIDS crisis in the 1980s (Castiglia and Reed, 2011:
22 9). By placing AIDS at the centre of a discussion of homonormativity, some of the
23 assumptions about its privilege can be queried while at the same time maintaining a critique
24 of how class-specific ‘aspirational’ imagery was deployed to detract from the stigma of the
25 health crisis.
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38 **Keywords**

39 Built Environment, Community, Culture, Arts, Creativity, Displacement, Gentrification,
40 Gender, Sexuality, London
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3 In the early 1990s, several new gay businesses opened within close proximity to each other in
4 and around London's Old Compton Street. Until then, the surrounding area's publicly
5 advertised gay scene had consisted of two permanent clubs, a couple of bars and a restaurant,
6 but by 1995 the weekly free magazine *Boyz* listed around 30 gay businesses in the vicinity.
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8 This unprecedented growth attracted attention from the city's gay media, but also from the
9 *Financial Times*, the *Economist* and Britain's broadsheet newspapers, which tended to
10 celebrate Soho's gay village as ushering in a territorial model of identity-based consumption
11 long overdue in London. Drawing on an extensive review of this media coverage, this article
12 identifies a set of recurring discourses around sexual minority visibility and gay male
13 aesthetics, which have subsequently become emblematic of homonormativity (a term that did
14 not yet exist at the time). The aesthetic themes under consideration here are quite generic and
15 recognisable in various other locations and settings in the Global North as well as in parts of
16 the Global South catering for international gay tourism. Above all, they have become
17 associated with gayborhoods and gay villages such as the one in London's Soho, whose early
18 marketing was centred on 'affluent' consumption, minimalist interior design and idealised
19 gym bodies. As an urban milieu created in the 1990s, Soho is a suitable case-study of some of
20 these aesthetic trends and the period in which they first became dominant.
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32 A key argument I want to pursue is that homonormativity, not just as a politics, but also as an
33 aesthetic was profoundly shaped by AIDS. While this is perhaps an obvious argument to
34 make – given the scale of the health crisis, all aspects of gay male culture were transformed
35 as a result – it is one, which with regards to aesthetics and the image of male homosexuality,
36 has not been sufficiently paid attention to. Behind the abstract references to the 'clean' image
37 of gay male urban spaces in the 1990s – an image that clearly must be distinguished from
38 sexual practices – we can see the emergence of a homonormative aesthetic that deployed the
39 themes of hygiene and affluence as symbolic resources against the stigma of AIDS.
40 Moreover, by placing AIDS at the centre of a discussion of homonormativity, some of the
41 assumptions about its privilege can be queried without detracting from how 'aspirational' and
42 'sophisticated' imagery forged an aesthetic that reinforced symbolic boundaries and
43 exclusions. The aim of the article, then, is twofold: to provide a short history of the formation
44 of Soho's gay village while at the same time suggesting a genealogy of homonormative
45 aesthetics. Before looking specifically at Soho, however, the next section tries to sketch out
46 the relationship between homonormativity, AIDS, and gay male aesthetics, while also
47 introducing some necessary historical background on the period and politics relevant to the
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3 case-study.
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6 **Homonormativity, neoliberalism, and AIDS**

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9 While articulations of homonormativity have a longer history in grassroots and activist circles
10 – for example in the context of antitransgender discrimination within normative gay and
11 lesbian politics (Stryker, 2008) – the term became influential in scholarly debates in the early
12 2000s. In the essay with which it is most closely associated, Lisa Duggan (2002: 179; 181)
13 described ‘the new homonormativity’ as the ‘sexual politics of neoliberalism’ and argued that
14 ‘a privatized, depoliticized gay culture anchored in domesticity and consumption’ had
15 replaced the emphasis on ‘public visibility’ in the 1970s and the radicalized AIDS activism of
16 the 1980s. Duggan placed this ‘new homonormativity’ in the context of the ‘third way’
17 triangulations of the Clinton and Blair-eras in the US and the UK while in common with most
18 other theorisations of neoliberalism located its emergence in the 1980s of Reagan and
19 Thatcher. If neoliberalism is understood as the ideas and policies that have shaped post-
20 Fordist restructuring, Duggan’s link between sexual politics and political economy can be
21 placed within a Marxist intellectual tradition that has mapped different historical sexual
22 paradigms onto different modes of production. Thus, it was Antonio Gramsci (1971: 295-)
23 who argued that American Fordism had regulated the sexual lives of workers into
24 heterosexual monogamy, while subsequent scholars have suggested that the crisis of Fordism
25 – and its associated urban crisis and crisis of masculinity – can explain the emergence of
26 sexual liberation movements since the late 1960s and 1970s.
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40 David Harvey (2005), for example, in *A Brief History of Neoliberalism*, argues that following
41 New York’s economic restructuring towards financial services, the ‘narcissistic exploration
42 of self, sexuality, and identity became the leitmotif of bourgeoisie urban culture’. While this
43 account has been critiqued for conflating collective sexual liberation with individualistic
44 lifestyle consumption and for neglecting ‘the experiences of working-class or ethnic-racial
45 queers’ (Muñoz, 2009: 31), Harvey’s equation between sexual identity politics and
46 ‘bourgeoisie urban culture’ is nevertheless revealing because it taps into an image of male
47 metropolitan homosexuality, which whilst clearly reductive is also immediately recognisable.
48 It is this image and its associated urban milieu in London rather than New York I am
49 concerned with here although the two cities have much in common linguistically and
50 economically as the world’s leading financial capitals as well as being important destinations
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3 for international (queer) migration.
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6 The neoliberal restructuring and deregulation of financial markets that solidified London and
7 New York's global status as financial centres in the 1980s and 1990s was in cultural terms
8 epitomised by the figure of the 'yuppie' ['young urban professional' or 'young, upwardly-
9 mobile professional']. Often seen to capture the zeitgeist of the period, the yuppie was a
10 relatively young metropolitan man or woman who according to an early definition 'lives on
11 aspirations of glory, prestige, recognition, fame, social status, power, money or any and all
12 combinations of the above' (Piesman and Hartley, 1984: 12). Associated with the
13 Conservative and Republican electoral dominance of the 1980s and first half of the 1990s, the
14 yuppie-era overlaps with the first phase of the AIDS crisis from the discovery of the virus to
15 the availability of life-saving anti-retroviral drugs in the mid-1990s. First clinically observed
16 in 1981 and described as 'gay cancer' in the media, the abbreviation AIDS was used from
17 1982 while the term yuppie gained traction in 1983: spatially the concentration of financial
18 and legal industries in a small node of global cities overlapped with some of the urban
19 agglomerations quickly identified as hotspots of the (western) epidemic.
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30 The initial response to the AIDS crisis was first characterised by a homophobic backlash of
31 which Section 28 of the Local Government Act 1988 is the key example in the UK. Given the
32 timing of its introduction, Section 28, which banned local authorities from promoting 'the
33 acceptability of homosexuality as a pretended family relationship' must be understood as a
34 misguided attempt at HIV prevention whereby not only the virus, but homosexuality in
35 general should be contained. This attempt at regulation instead galvanised opposition and
36 made homosexuality more visible through public activism and eventually through the
37 formation of gay villages in cities such as Manchester and London (Taylor, *et al.* 1996: 188).
38 Moreover, the professionalisation of gay and lesbian politics (Richardson, 2005), and the
39 closer collaboration between the state and gay organisations necessitated by the AIDS crisis
40 arguably fostered a politics of assimilation that paved the way for later legal reforms
41 including the lowering of the age of consent (1994 and 2001), civil partnership (2004),
42 adoption (2005) and marriage (2014) rights. While this incorporation into previously
43 heterosexual structures and reproductive family has been one target of queer critiques of
44 homonormativity, a second focus has been on the 'co-optation' of gay cultures by
45 commercial interests.
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3 This latter part of the critique, which is the most relevant for this article, tends to centre on
4 metropolitan gay men perceived as affluent – the so called ‘A-gays’ – whose aesthetic ideals
5 overlap partly with yuppie culture. In this second context, homonormativity does not
6 necessarily mean desexualisation or assimilation into heterosexual kinship structures, but
7 instead refers to the abandonment of progressive alliances in favour of conspicuous
8 consumption, gym culture, neocolonial tourism, white male cisgender privileges and other
9 gentrified practices of which gay villages are sometimes seen as emblematic. In the UK, this
10 commodification of gay culture has been linked with the economic conditions created by
11 Thatcherism with the move towards entrepreneurial urban governance, for example, partly
12 explaining the emergence of Britain’s gay villages in the early 1990s (Quilley, 1997; Turner,
13 2003). Moreover, in the specific context of Soho, the new pink economy overlapped with an
14 upmarket yuppie culture for which the area had emerged as a centre in the late 1980s and
15 from which it borrowed some of its aesthetic themes (Mort, 1996: 170-73). In this context, it
16 is also noteworthy that from its beginnings after the early 1990s recession to its eventual
17 decline after the 2007-8 financial crisis, Soho’s gay village’s peak period overlaps with an
18 exceptionally long period of uninterrupted economic growth in the UK.¹
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30 The gay villages and gayborhoods, which at least retrospectively have become associated
31 with homonormative depoliticisation had a clear aesthetic that I will argue is *one* example –
32 albeit a dominant one – of a proliferation of counter-representations to the longstanding
33 deathly, perverse, and contaminated imagery of homosexuality that had been exacerbated by
34 the AIDS crisis. As Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick (2003: 13) suggested around the same time as
35 the term homonormativity entered academic debates, ‘the strategic banalization of gay and
36 lesbian politics’ had been directly linked to ‘their resolute disavowal of relation to the
37 historical and continuing AIDS epidemic’. This argument has been expanded on at length in
38 Sarah Schulman’s intellectual memoir *The Gentrification of the Mind: Witness to a Lost*
39 *Imagination* (2012), in which she argues that AIDS made homosexuality visible, but at the
40 same time gentrified gay politics by promoting a respectable image of homosexuality. While
41 Schulman’s focus is on art and activism, gay bars and consumption practices underwent a
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51 ¹ Research in London has estimated that LGBTQ+ venues have decreased with 58% between
52 2007 and 2016 including several high-profile venues in Soho (Campkin and Marshall, 2017)
53 conforming to similar trends in the US (Ghaziani, 2014).
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3 parallel aesthetic transformation of which the most striking manifestation in London was
4 Soho's gay village.
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8 While urban geographers quickly turned their attention to Britain's new gay villages in the
9 1990s, the overwhelming focus of this early work was on the interplay between queer
10 territorialisation and entrepreneurial forms of urban governance (Binnie, 1995; Quilley, 1997;
11 Collins, 2004). Research on gay villages, however, has rarely dealt explicitly with the
12 aesthetics of the built environment since queer space – at least in its early Butlerian
13 conceptualisations (Bell *et al.*, 1994; Bell and Valentine, 1995) – was typically understood as
14 fleeting with queerness residing in the body rather than in space (Browne, 2006; Oswin,
15 2008). At the same time, aesthetic descriptions and value judgments feature implicitly in
16 some of the urban geography work on gay villages. One of the first and most frequently cited
17 articles deploying homonormativity in this context specifically used the term to target
18 'desexualised gentrifying gay districts', which the authors argued had been 'cleaned up' by
19 'forces of purification' (Bell and Binnie, 2004: 1811-14). In similar terms, another influential
20 critique of white gay male culture from the same period referred to the 'chi-chi cafés and
21 restaurants, home-decorative salons, and bars' of Chicago's Boyztown (Nast, 2002: 883-4).
22 While these references to 'cleaned up' gay villages and 'chi-chi' bars conjure up images of a
23 specific urban milieu, it is not always clear if the hygienic language should be understood
24 metaphorically as references to gentrification or as literal descriptors of the aesthetics of the
25 1990s gay enclave.
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39 In a rare attempt to explicitly define 'homonormative aesthetics', Mattson's (2015: 3153-54)
40 analysis of 'stylistic practices' in late 1990s and early 2000s San Francisco, describes the
41 'homonormative style' of the typical Castro bar with terms such as 'sleek', 'self-conscious
42 iconic minimalism', 'clean lines and strategic lighting' and 'clean black walls and electronic
43 dance music'. Similarly, in a deliberately stereotypical sketch of the 'affluent gay consumer',
44 Brown (2009: 1506) refers to him as somebody who spends time in gay bars, is
45 'immaculately groomed' and lives in a 'minimalist loft apartment'. The suggested link
46 between minimalist design and homonormativity here is interesting not least because
47 historically queer or camp aesthetics have been associated with 'over-decoration'.² Thus, the
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55 ² For a more recent and not specifically queer take on the relationship between minimalist
56 and neoliberalism, see Chayka (2016).
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3 rational and hygienic modernism of the Fordist period – when according to Gramsci workers
4 were regulated into heterosexual monogamy – can be seen as a differentiation from the queer
5 connotations of ornamentation. While the modernist cleanliness aesthetic has often been
6 understood in the context of shifting class politics (Forty, 1986), Adolf Loos’s anti-decorative
7 treatise ‘Ornament and crime’ (1908), for example, was also a rejection of Art Nouveau as
8 ‘erotic and degenerate’ (Foster, 2002: 13-14). In this context, it is striking that when
9 ornamentation eventually came back in fashion under postmodernism it was immediately
10 understood as a form of inscribed queerness.
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17 Indeed, as Castiglia and Reed (2011: 91-102) have highlighted in their critique of
18 conceptualisations of queer space as ephemeral, Charles Jencks, in his earliest writings on
19 postmodernism, referred to the ‘Gay Eclectic’ style of playful ornamentation on residential
20 exteriors in Los Angeles while urban sociologist Manuel Castells viewed the renovated
21 facades of Victorian buildings in San Francisco’s Castro as expressions of a particular ‘gay
22 sensibility’. In addition, Castiglia and Reed locate the origins of New York’s loft
23 conversations in gay subculture and specifically in the influential work of gay architect Alan
24 Buchsbaum. In the context of the commercial gay scene, variations of this loft aesthetic – or
25 broadly speaking postindustrial conversions with exposed surfaces – would become
26 particularly influential when derelict industrial buildings were appropriated for club, bar and
27 sex cultures. Thus, if the so called ‘golden age of promiscuity’ between Stonewall and AIDS
28 had an associated architectural iconography it was one largely characterised by urban decay
29 and faux-dereliction. The ways in which this postindustrial ‘look’ referenced the past by
30 appropriating historical buildings placed queer aesthetics at the vanguard of gentrification.
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41 In contrast, the homonormative aesthetic of the 1990s – much like modernism’s ‘clean break’
42 or sweeping ‘tabula rasa’ – can be understood as a new beginning deliberately side-lining
43 historical references. As such it is perhaps also an example of the broader tendencies of ‘de-
44 generational unremembering’ that Castiglia and Reed (2011) argue were characteristic of the
45 first phase of the AIDS crisis (see also Varghese 2016 on AIDS and memory). Moreover, its
46 generic yuppified style typically showed little consideration for the local context unlike the
47 restoration ethos of earlier gentrification, which at least superficially had embraced the
48 characteristics of the neighbourhood. This, perhaps, helps to explain why homonormative gay
49 villages were quickly linked with homogenisation and displacement (Bell and Binnie, 2004)
50 whereas early gay gentrification had typically been thought of as empowering, for example,
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3 by concentrating the gay vote within specific electoral districts (Castells, 1983; Lauria and
4 Knopp, 1985). While this early literature acknowledged the tensions arising from gay
5 gentrification, recent work has focused more strongly on queer complicity with the processes
6 of displacement and racial othering especially in the US where gayborhoods have a stronger
7 residential component (Hanhardt, 2013; Andersson, 2015; Seitz, 2015; Rosenberg, 2017).³ In
8 contrast, the British gay villages from the 1990s were predominantly entertainment districts
9 where the exclusionary dynamics were instead shaped by everyday consumption practices
10 and aesthetic ideals. As research in other western contexts has highlighted the prevalence of
11 ‘Eurocentric aesthetic standards’ (Green, 2007: 767) and the ‘aesthetic orderings of race,
12 gender, citizenship, and belonging’ (Ruez, 2017: 893) often reinforce hegemonic whiteness
13 and patriarchal ideals in gay bars. While this existing research has used interviews to capture
14 experiential aspects of exclusion, the approach here instead deploys media coverage to
15 identify some of the dominant discursive ideals of the homonormative aesthetic as it relates
16 both to design and the body.
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26 27 *Media sources and discourses* 28 29

30 For my purposes of historicising the branded themes of Soho’s gay village, the large amount
31 of media coverage surrounding its beginnings in the 1990s has provided a rich source of
32 empirical material. Media analysis lends itself to the topic not merely because the press
33 reported on the creation of Soho’s gay village, but also because it discursively shaped its
34 territorial and aesthetic parameters. Specifically, in the context of gay media, gay villages
35 have been seen as examples of the ‘intertextual construction of space’ whereby community
36 media and their readers constitute a ‘group engaged in common activities and purposes,
37 employing a common frame of reference for interpreting their social settings’ (Miller, 2005:
38 68). Unlike its sister-development in Manchester, where the gay village around Canal Street
39 had been supported by the Labour City Council (Whittle, 1994: 37; Quilley, 1996: 290),
40 Soho’s gay village was an entrepreneurial creation without any official support from the local
41 authority, Westminster Council. Instead, as Jon Binnie (1995: 196) noted early, new gay
42 media and in particular the free weekly *Boyz*, which launched in 1991, was highly ‘successful
43 in helping to promote the development of Old Compton Street as boyztown, a ghetto for
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54 ³ Although see also recent work on queer gentrification in Berlin (Haritaworn, 2015;
55 Kosnick, 2015).
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6 Apart from *Boyz*, the discourse analysis for this article has drawn on Soho-related coverage in
7 gay weekly newspapers *Capital Gay* and the *Pink Paper* as well as the monthly lifestyle
8 magazine *Attitude*. I have scanned this coverage from the 1990s in its entirety by manually
9 going through all the available issues in the British Library’s newspaper archives and the
10 Wellcome Institute’s collections, but for the analysis focused specifically on articles devoted
11 to the topic of Soho’s gay village as opposed to more tangential pieces (the coverage is large,
12 but ranges from multipage lifestyle and political pieces to short ‘advertorials’ for specific
13 bars and clubs). In addition to these gay media outlets, an online database survey of articles
14 relating to Soho’s gay village in British broadsheets and financial newspapers was conducted.
15 The number of articles in the national press specifically focused on Soho’s gay village is
16 small in comparison (12), but in-depth as *The Times*, *Sunday Times*, *Guardian*, *Independent*,
17 *Observer*, *Economist* and *Financial Times* all ran researched features (sometimes more than
18 once). Across all the material a set of recurring discourses of the new gay scene as
19 ‘continental’ and ‘sophisticated’ have been identified. Despite their different readerships,
20 these tropes are similar across gay and mainstream media, perhaps because all the coverage
21 draws on interviews with a relatively small pool of people including some of the area’s bar
22 owners.
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35 Frequently, articles include comments on the design of Soho’s new bars either explicitly with
36 regards to the open-fronted exteriors (viewed at the time as a collective ‘coming out’) or
37 implicitly on the interiors with references to their ‘smart’, ‘cool’ and ‘clean’ designs. The
38 discussion of these broad design themes and the bodily ideals that accompanied them is
39 informed by these media discourses (both in text and photographs), but also by personal
40 observations in all the named venues. As Michael Hatt (2007: 105) has acknowledged, the
41 reading of interiors risks placing ‘a huge burden on the apparent trivia of decor’ yet ‘interiors
42 are often under-read’ and we ‘need to speculate’ while interpreting them. The aim here has
43 been to interpret sexual culture and aesthetics through a ‘conjunctural analysis’ that balances
44 economic, political, and ideological forces to understand a particular moment (Hakim, 2018).
45 Within this focus on a specific time and place, the reading of the media material has also
46 revealed chronological shifts in emphasis over time.
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56 As I have argued elsewhere (Andersson, 2007), gay bars and nightclubs had featured mainly
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3 in British newspapers as a clandestine backdrop to coverage of the AIDS crisis throughout
4 the 1980s. Reinforcing the idea of these nightlife spaces as contaminated with disease,
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6 journalistic reporting often conflated the enclosed windowless architectural features of gay
7 venues – designed for the anonymity and safety of the customers (Weightman, 1980) – with
8 an unhealthy environment. An especially controversial report from the London Apprentice, a
9 gay club in Shoreditch, written for the *Guardian* by Rupert Haselden (1991) led to protests
10 and eventually meetings between gay activists and the newspaper’s editor (Stannard, 2000).
11 Haselden’s piece published two months before the opening of Soho’s first new generation
12 gay bar, then, was arguably a minor watershed after which journalistic representations of gay
13 and lesbians in British broadsheet media became more sensitive and deliberately affirmative.
14 As an unintended consequence of this drive for more positive representations, however, HIV
15 largely disappeared from lifestyle journalism about the gay scene. Despite the annual number
16 of AIDS-related deaths in the UK peaking in the first half of the 1990s, broadsheet coverage
17 of Soho’s new gay scene rarely made references to the ongoing health crisis while gay media
18 tended to separate adverts and AIDS-related journalism from its scene-related features.
19 Instead, as I will discuss below, the clear association between AIDS and London’s gay
20 nightlife spaces that had dominated the journalism of the 1980s was replaced in coverage of
21 Soho’s gay village with a focus on the ‘pink pound’, the visibility of gay men in urban space,
22 and comments on the design of the new bars. While the coverage from the early 1990s was
23 almost exclusively framed positively, change can be detected by the mid-1990s when open
24 tensions between queer activism and gay entrepreneurialism began to crystallise. Importantly
25 in the conceptual context of this article, these emerging grassroots and journalistic objections
26 to Soho’s consumerism can be understood as critiques of homonormativity *avant la lettre*.

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42 The following account is divided into two parts: the first section highlights how the gay
43 village was repeatedly framed in class-specific terms as ‘continental’ and ‘sophisticated’
44 while the second section focuses on its hygienic design and bodily ideals in the context of
45 AIDS.
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50 **‘Continental sophistication’**

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53 The first new generation gay bar in Soho was Village Soho, which opened on the junction of
54 Wardour Street and Old Compton Street in November 1991. The opening, covered in *Boyz*
55 with the celebratory, but premature headline: ‘Soho Gets Its Gay Village!’, was described as
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3 a 'victory' and 'celebration' suggesting that this was merely the beginning of a territorial
4 conquest (Hudson, 1991). The name Village Soho symbolically carved out territory by
5 referencing 'the village' in New York, which had also inspired the name of Le Village; the
6 bar that kick-started the transformation of Le Marais in Paris into a gay district a decade
7 earlier (Sibalis, 1999: 32). As Frédéric Martel (1999: 172) has noted about Le Marais in his
8 book about the French gay liberation movement: 'Every bar opening was joyfully celebrated
9 as a new milestone in the triumphal march of desire'. Similarly, in the years following the
10 opening of Village Soho, London's gay press and parts of the printed mainstream news media
11 reported on the city's burgeoning 'pink economy' in largely celebratory terms.
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19 Except for a small cluster of venues 'out of the public eye' in Earl's Court (Raban, 1974:
20 196), London had never previously had an openly gay district and the idea of Soho's gay
21 village representing a form of internationalisation or 'catching up' quickly caught on the
22 broadsheet media. A fairly typical feature in the *Sunday Times* described Old Compton Street
23 as 'a bohemian spectacle more associated with Paris, New York and Amsterdam' (Wavell,
24 1993), while writing for the *Independent*, gay journalist Mark Simpson (1994) suggested:
25 'You might be forgiven for wondering if you're still in recessed, repressed old Britain... But
26 then, you're not in Britain. You're in Soho'. By implying that Soho had been exempt from
27 both the economic recession and a perceived national climate of sexual repression, Simpson's
28 article conformed to the dominant media trope at the time of the 'pink pound', which other
29 articles made more explicit by claiming that gay men had been economically advantaged
30 during the 1990-91 recession (David, 1992; *The Economist*, 1994). In the *Guardian*, for
31 example, it was suggested that 'smart gay venues' had filled the empty spaces left by
32 'champagne bars' following the recession (Wallis, 1993). Immediately, then, Soho's 'pink
33 economy' was associated with forms of consumption perceived to be both un-British and
34 affluent.
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46 Above all, the marketing and media coverage centred on how Soho's 'continental' themes –
47 epitomised by the new prevalence of bars with open-fronted facades and cafés with chairs
48 and tables on the pavements – had made homosexuality visible. Village Soho was the first
49 transparent gay bar in London and its design was inspired by Manto in Manchester, which
50 had opened the year before. With its 30 foot plate glass windows, Manto has been referred to
51 as a 'queer architectural statement' (Skeggs *et al.* 2004: 1843) and as a 'theatrical aesthetic'
52 whose 'goldfish-bowl windows magnify and underlie a gay presence' (Quilley, 1997: 278).
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3 This type of open-fronted design – elaborated in several other Soho venues – was taken to its
4 extreme in the bar Rupert Street, popular with men in suits after-work, where the whole walls
5 were glazed. *Financial Times* reported how: ‘The blackened panes of glass have gone. The
6 furtiveness is finished. The cafe bar in Rupert Street is proud to put the clientele on display
7 through clear, curtainless windows’ (Gould, 1998).
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12 Street furniture on the pavements blurred the boundaries between private and public further
13 with journalists frequently highlighting the performative character of Old Compton Street. In
14 a ‘Soho Special’ in *Boyz*, (1993, 22 May: 17), a young man called Claudio is described as
15 ‘posing’ while watching people in the street: “‘It’s a catwalk really” says Claudio, posing
16 moodily outside Old Compton’s café. “Sitting here, I feel like I’m in the front row at a Milan
17 fashion show””. According to *Boyz*, these cafés and the ‘continental-style bar’ had brought
18 ‘Mediterranean sophistication to the West End’ (9 December 1995: 37). In addition to
19 visiting continental bars, readers encouraged by the magazine to ‘do Old Compton Street’
20 would buy ‘L’Uomo Vogue’ and ‘some fresh parmesan’ (18 May, 1996: 34). While this
21 branding had clear class-markers and internalised the ‘pink pound’ discourse, it was
22 frequently combined with liberal assertions of inclusivity. In an interview with *Attitude*, the
23 monthly magazine launched in 1994, the proprietor of clothes shop American Retro argued
24 that: ‘Soho and my shop cater for every race, colour and creed. But one of the common
25 themes that binds the inhabitants and consumers attracted to Old Compton Street is a degree
26 of sophistication’ (Cook, 1994: 77-8).
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38 In the early years, queer activists supporting the idea of a sexual minority territory in Central
39 London, tacitly seemed to endorse aspects of this entrepreneurial branding of Soho as
40 ‘sophisticated’. Over Christmas 1992, anonymous activists plastered posters in Soho greeting
41 visitors with the slogan: ‘You are now entering a queer zone’. Interviewed by *Capital Gay* (8
42 Jan 1993: 1) an unnamed spokesperson stated that: ‘Queers want to enjoy their own space
43 without having to tolerate the drunken hordes of abusive Neanderthals with 80s dress sense
44 that lumber through the centre of Soho on their sad search for oblivion every Saturday night’.
45 This attempt to designate Old Compton Street a ‘queer zone’, then, defined queerness less in
46 terms of sexual difference or radical politics than as subcultural capital – a politics of style –
47 *opposed* to drunken behaviour and unfashionable clothes. Thus, as Sarah Thornton (1995:
48 105) has observed ‘the social logic of subcultural capital reveals itself most clearly by what it
49 dislikes and by what it emphatically isn’t,’ and, in this instance, the dislike of 1980s fashion
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3 and public drunkenness converged with the early 1990s entrepreneurial branding of the area
4 as ‘continental’ and ‘sophisticated’.
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8 While the political and commercial agendas initially overlapped, it is nevertheless striking
9 how the terminology diverged: the preferred term of the activists who made territorial claims
10 on Old Compton Street was *queer* while the branding of Soho by the bar owners and the
11 media was distinctly *gay*. These terms are not mutually exclusive, but whereas queer – the
12 pejorative which had recently been re-appropriated by activists and academics in the US to
13 reclaim some of the wounded aspects of sexual minority experience (Love, 2007: 157) – at
14 least as poststructuralist critique deconstructs binaries such as hetero/homo and male/female,
15 *gay* exists in opposition to heteronormativity, but reiterates these dichotomies. Moreover,
16 while queer preserves a degree of abjection as the basis for solidarity and coalition-building
17 between different sexual minorities, *gay* as a semantic strategy masks negativity by offering
18 ‘happy’ representations primarily of self-identified homosexual men.⁴ In this context, the
19 initial alliance between norm-critical queer activists and *gay* entrepreneurs perpetuating an
20 affluent image of *gayness* could not last indefinitely: by the mid-1990s, the largely
21 celebratory media tropes of Soho’s *gay* village started to include critical features as well as
22 coverage of intra-community tensions.
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34 A key moment appears to have been the ‘Soho Pink Weekend’, an event which in its third
35 year in 1995 deliberately excluded political voices. Preceding the event, organiser Gary
36 Henshaw, who was also one of the founders of the Village bars, made anti-political
37 statements in the *gay* press stating that: ‘This is a fun weekend and in no way political, we’re
38 very clear about that’ (*Pink Paper*, 1995, 19 May: 7). A similar point was made in a guest
39 column for *Capital Gay*: ‘I hope the weekend will remain free from the shackles of political
40 correctness which often take the fun out of our celebrations’ (Henshaw, 1995: 16). This open
41 antagonism towards queer activism triggered responses of a kind that had previously been
42 limited to fringe publications such as the monthly *gay* socialist paper *Rouge* (Mort, 1996:
43 165). A feature in the *Independent* described the ‘Soho Pink Weekend’ as ‘more of a
44 promotional event for drinks companies than an expression of *gay* pride or community spirit’
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53 ⁴ Except for First Out (1986-2011), which preceded the *gay* village, and Candy Bar (1996-
54 2014), Soho has had few lesbian spaces although some bars such as the Friendly Society
55 (2000-) have a mixed profile.
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3 (Smith and Richardson, 1995), while a columnist for *Capital Gay* suggested that: ‘This feast
4 of profiteering by gay businesses offers space only for compulsive and passive behaviour:
5 first, the community’s alcoholism will be celebrated with a pub crawl; then we will stand and
6 watch a tawdry bunch of ghetto egos and bumboyz act out their mediocrity in a graveyard’
7 (Cook, 1995: 17). Revealingly, this critique targeted Soho’s drinking culture, which already
8 seemed to have lost its branded veneer of continental sophistication, as well as its spatial
9 seclusion, no longer described in queer separatist terms, but as an enclave for ‘ghetto egos’.
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16 In the following years, influential voices that had previously supported Soho’s gay village
17 became more vocal in their reservations about its consumer-driven identity politics. In 1996,
18 Mark Simpson, who in 1994 had written a positive account of the gay village for the
19 *Independent*, published the provocatively titled essay collection *Anti-Gay*, while campaigner
20 Peter Tatchell (1999), whose group Outrage! had symbolically christened Old Compton
21 Street ‘Queer Street’ on Valentine’s Day in 1993, eventually came to dismiss its ‘gay ghetto
22 mentality’. Targeting the expensive consumption associated with the area, one journalist
23 argued that: ‘the term “gay” comes with a set of designer cultural baggage purchased in Old
24 Compton Street (i.e. a lifestyle that exists within sharply defined parameter)’ (O’Flaherty,
25 1995: 17). What began to be formulated here, then, was a critique of homonormativity: a
26 recognition not only that the consumption associated with Soho might be depoliticising, but
27 also that the territorial foundations of its identity-politics were narrow rather than
28 emancipatory.
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38 **Homonormative designs and bodies**

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41 Given their centrality to the territorial and social formation of the gay village, it is hardly
42 surprising that the ‘chi-chi bars of newly gay Soho’ (Smith, 2002) eventually were singled
43 out in media coverage critical of the area’s ‘pink economy’. Collectively, these bars had
44 created the branded milieu of the gay village, which in early 1990s media was considered
45 trendy and ‘continental’, but over time came to epitomise the bland and generic. The generic,
46 however, is culturally significant precisely because of its mass character and what it reveals
47 about the historical context in which it becomes dominant. Moreover, as the references to
48 Paris, Milan and New York in the media discourses suggest, the embodied and designed
49 ideals of Soho were not seen as expressions of a local style, but as an alignment with a
50 transnational and increasingly homogenised image of male homosexuality, which evolved
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3 along similar lines in other big cities in the 1990s. Towards the end of the decade, for
4 example, the *New York Times* would report how ‘A new generation of gay bars’ in Manhattan
5 had ‘all but jettisoned dark and dingy interior designs for cleaner, airier, more creative
6 spaces’ (Colman, 1998). This contrasting between the ‘dark’ and ‘dingy’ venues of the past
7 with a new emphasis on ‘cleaner, airier’ spaces overlaps directly with how Soho’s gay scene
8 was framed in the British media.
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14 Apart from often featuring open-fronted facades, gay bars that opened in Soho in the early
15 and mid-1990s conformed interiorly to a set of broad design themes – clean surfaces, white
16 walls, chromed metals, glass and plastics over wood – that deviated from the more rustic
17 traditions of the British pub as well as from the previous generation of windowless gay
18 venues.⁵ In London’s gay media, descriptions of these new designs as ‘smart, stylish, cool
19 and clean’ (*Capital Gay*, 6 December, 1991: 14) frequently merged with hygienic evaluations
20 of the same bars as ‘always spotlessly clean’ (*Capital Gay*, 8 March, 1992: 9) in advertorials,
21 which sometimes contrasted Soho’s new gay scene with an older generation of ‘dirty, scruffy
22 bars’ (*Pink Paper*, 20 August, 1993: 3). This sharp division between the queer past and
23 present can be seen as an example of the ‘de-generational unremembering’ Castiglia and
24 Reed (2011: 9) have argued was characteristic of the response to the first phase of the AIDS
25 crisis. With its amnesiac whitewash of the recent traumas in favour of a carefully constructed
26 image of trendy affluence, the designs of Soho’s new bars signalled a generational shift while
27 the emphasis on hygiene responded to the perception of gay venues as contaminated.
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38 According to architectural historian Adrian Forty (1986: 173), materials such as metal and
39 glass had been welcomed in 1920s furniture design ‘not just because of their associations
40 with machines, but also because they could easily be kept clean, and, above all, could look
41 absolutely spotless’. Writing during the first phase of the AIDS crisis, Simon Watney (1989:
42 55) made an analogous suggestion noting how ‘the *look* of high technology’ in western
43 hospitals compensated for the absence of any cure or treatment in ‘the image of gleaming
44 chromium’. Whilst for Forty (1986: 159), the disintegration of social boundaries was ‘behind
45 the middle-class preoccupation with bodily, domestic and public cleanliness’ in the early
46 twentieth-century, Soho’s hygiene aesthetic evoked simultaneously both class-specific and
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54 ⁵ In addition to Village Soho and Rupert Street, which have already been mentioned, these
55 included Kudos, The Edge, The Yard, Barcode, Ku-Bar, The Box, and Freedom.
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3 clinical symbolism. Because of the historical tendency to link venereal disease with poverty –
4 a tendency which in the context of the global AIDS crisis was also racialised – the parallel
5 discursive media tropes of ‘continental sophistication’ and ‘cleanliness’ were mobilised in
6 tandem. Thus, the preference for white walls and sometimes white furniture – most
7 consistently expressed in the literal ‘white box’ bar, The Box, on Seven Dials – arguably had
8 multiple, but interconnected symbolic meanings. On the one hand, white is ‘a surgical,
9 virginal colour which distances the body from the dangers of intimacy and tends to neutralize
10 the drives’ (Baudrillard 1996: 33), but it has also become the default ‘natural’ option in a
11 ‘stylish’ tradition of European modernism. However, as Sharon Rotbard (2015: 162) has
12 argued ‘white cannot be considered a “Degree Zero” of chromaticity but, similar in a way to
13 the neighbouring concept of an “International Style,” is a sufferer of the very same trappings
14 of European universalism’. In this context, the repeated marketing of Soho as ‘continental’
15 (meaning European) around a set of generic ‘modernist’ design themes can at least
16 subliminally also be understood as racialised projections of whiteness.
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27 In more concrete embodied terms, white Eurocentric aesthetics dominated the photographs
28 accompanying the weekly advertorials for Soho’s bars in the gay media. Often featuring
29 ‘topless’ photographs of the bar staff, these illustrations underline the integral role aesthetic
30 labour played in the branding of the gay village as youthful and healthy. As one of the
31 founders of the Village bars suggested in an interview with the *Pink Paper* (20 August 1993:
32 3), his business formula could be summed up as ‘attractive staff... in a clean and comfortable
33 environment’. In line with the broader marketing of the area, the idea of ‘attractive’ promoted
34 in both advertorials and traditional advertising for the bars was predominantly white and
35 almost exclusively that of a clean-shaven ‘pretty boy’ with gym-fit physique. The gym body
36 would become hegemonic on London’s gay scene in the early 1990s when *Boyz*, (and the
37 similar listings magazine *QX* founded in 1992) began to include weekly photographs of men
38 on the capital’s dancefloors. These highly formulaic portraits – in which one or several bare-
39 chested customers face the camera, frequently with their underwear logo visible above the
40 jeans – almost exclusively promoted the physical ideal of the muscular hairless torso. Indeed,
41 this physique and its associated white underwear – against which any suspicious-looking
42 blemish or discharge could immediately be detected – were the embodied equivalents to the
43 white walls and clean surfaces of Soho’s gay bars.
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4 While the gay gym body has been understood to displace and cleanse fears over AIDS,⁶ its
5 origins predate the health crisis. In his memoir of disco-era New York, Douglas Crimp (2008:
6 6-10) attributes its sculptural bodily ideals to the invention of Nautilus machines in the 1970s,
7 which had revolutionised work-out on isolated muscle groups: ‘Within a short five years
8 [1973-78], sculpted pectoral muscles had become one of the main attributes of gay male
9 desirability’. Initially, associated with exclusive New York discos such as the Flamingo, this
10 look was internationalised in the 1980s and 1990s against the backdrop of AIDS and
11 neoliberal economic restructuring. Particularly influential in merging gay and yuppie
12 sensibilities in the 1980s and 1990s, New York-based fashion house Calvin Klein changed
13 the traditional ‘drop’ from chest to waist measurement from 6 to 7 inches on its suits while
14 offering two-buttons instead of three to show more of the chest (Gross, 1985). More
15 explicitly influential in promoting the hairless gym body, were the same brand’s white
16 underwear campaigns by gay photographer Bruce Weber, which were placed on huge
17 billboards in cities across the world from the early 1980s onwards. While the first campaign
18 with Olympian Tom Hintinaus was launched in 1982, the same year in which AIDS was first
19 named, the influence of the brand arguably peaked with the Marky Mark campaigns in 1992
20 at the time when Soho’s gay village first developed. Apart from adopting the physical ideals
21 of these campaigns in adverts, advertorials and through the deployment of aesthetic labour,
22 the Soho scene’s geographical proximity to the West End fashion stores in which these
23 products were bought reinforced the association.
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38 While designer brands such as Calvin Klein suggest a degree of affluence, the
39 homonormative image must ultimately be distinguished from the lived reality of many of
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43 ⁶ As different commentators have observed, the gym body ‘appeared to deny the existence of
44 AIDS and its effects upon the gay body’ (Cole, 2000: 124) while also signalling
45 ‘hygienicization and containment’ (Bredbeck, 1996: 93). In his book *Homos*, published
46 shortly before the availability of antiretroviral drugs, Leo Bersani (1995: 19-21) commented
47 on the dual ‘public spectacle’ of gay men’s bodies: on the one hand, ‘wasted bodies’ on TV
48 and in the media yet at the same time the new association between gym culture and male
49 homosexuality as ‘HIV led thousands of men to become habitués of health clubs’. This led
50 Bersani to conclude that: ‘Nothing has made gay men more visible than AIDS’.
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3 those adopting it. Mattson's (2015: 3153-54) description of 'homonormative aesthetics' in the
4 Castro, for example, refers to the customers wearing: 'Clothes [which] were stylishly new,
5 hair and eyebrows were well-groomed, and colognes were frequently worn' yet he is careful
6 to point out that: 'Although the young men we interviewed often wore expensive designer
7 labels, most had multiple low-wage service jobs.' The homonormative look, then, is not
8 necessarily an expression of affluence, but in many instances an 'aspirational' marker. To
9 project wealth has a longer history in gay culture and camp humour – when taken to
10 appropriately regal levels, its affected posh mannerisms and sense of theatricality, justifies
11 the slang term 'queen' – yet the brand-conscious 'affluence' of the homonormative look does
12 not exhibit any similar self-reflexive irony. In contrast, its preppy seriousness suggests a
13 certain middle-brow 'blandness' of which the sleek minimalism of Soho's bars is another
14 example. Indeed, the term 'chi-chi', which was used by both journalists and academics to
15 describe homonormative bars, refers to a failed attempt at stylishness that ends up being
16 merely pretentious: in other words, another example of a projection of 'class' which
17 regardless of economic status suffers from a deficit in cultural capital. This, in turn,
18 highlights how attacks on homonormativity, which may appear as class-based critiques from
19 below, can also be condescending judgments of taste and distinction delivered from above.
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32 As discussed earlier, critiques of Soho's consumer-led identity politics began to take shape in
33 the mid-1990s when tensions between gay entrepreneurialism and political activism came out
34 in the open. Often making broader ideological points about consumption and identity, the
35 references to 'chi-chi' bars and the 'designer cultural baggage' of Old Compton Street
36 nevertheless reveal how questions of style informed these critiques. While research on the
37 decline of gaybourhoods and gay villages in the last decade have prioritised sociological and
38 economic explanations such as the digitalisation of sexual culture and the impact of
39 gentrification (Brown, 2013; Ghaziani, 2014; Collins and Drinkwater, 2017), the
40 interconnected shifting politics of style have also played an important role. If sexual minority
41 visibility was predicated on participation in a set of 'sophisticated' consumption practices in
42 the early 1990s, the non-threatening image produced in these spaces and the associated media
43 representations was clearly a reductive one bound to eventually trigger counter-
44 representations. Increasingly, in a political context characterised by greater attention to queer
45 racism, intersectionality, and male cis-gender biases, the fossilised style of many gay villages
46 and gayborhoods would become emblematic of homonormative privileges. Moreover, the
47 spatial formation of the gay village or gayborhood itself has become associated with a 'gay
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ghetto mentality' whereas the geographical desegregation of queer nightlife in the last two decades has been interpreted as an expression of less binary sexual subjectivities and practices (Nash, 2013; Nash and Gorman-Murray, 2014).

Conclusion

Soho's gay village developed in the 1990s in a period which has become associated with the deradicalization and commodification of gay culture in the west. While these processes have varied in different geographical contexts, they were first identified in countries such as the US and the UK, which were at the vanguard of neoliberal restructuring in the 1980s. Here, the argument goes, a largely rights-based agenda prioritising equality over difference replaced an earlier emphasis on the radical transformation of the sexual sphere, structural inequalities and coalition-building with other minorities. The gradual incorporation into heterosexual kinship structures and models of intimacy, which accelerated in the 1990s when gay and lesbian activism increasingly focused on partnership, marriage and adoption rights, is emblematic of one strand of this 'new homonormativity', while a second target for queer critiques has been the overwhelming focus on identity-based consumption. This second strand of homonormativity is not inherently assimilationist, but promotes and celebrates sexual minority culture on narrow commercial terms, which have diminished solidarities with more stigmatised and less marketable minorities. Often displacing the subversive, threatening or queer to remould the image of male homosexuality, this consumer-led respectability politics also marginalised the ongoing of experience AIDS.

In this article, I have argued that Soho's gay village and the media coverage surrounding its development were spatial, embodied and discursive manifestations of some of these sanitising tendencies. In contrast with 1980s media framings, AIDS was almost entirely absent from broadsheet reporting on Soho's gay village in the early 1990s when instead a set of discourses around the 'pink pound', gay visibility, and the design of the new bars and cafés took over. Through its alignment with the hygienic principles of a generic minimalist modernism and the new predominance of a gym-fit hairless physique, a cleanliness aesthetic replaced an earlier set of 'dirty' and 'unhealthy' images of male homosexuality. Yet while Soho's new gay scene indirectly may have displaced local public sex cultures and red-light economies (Hubbard, 2004; Collins, 2004; Andersson, 2012), the prominent notion of the 1990s gay village as emblematic of desexualisation is nevertheless misleading. The

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3 marketing for Soho' gay scene was highly sexualised – and its bars clearly helped to facilitate
4 sexual encounters – even though it represented a hygienisation and gentrification of sexual
5 imagery.
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9 The discursive figure of the affluent 'clean-cut' gay male – however distant from the lived
10 reality of the many (Bell and Binnie, 2000; Sothorn, 2004) – was particularly prominent in
11 the first half of the 1990s when urban gay culture recovered from the traumatic early phase of
12 the health crisis, but AIDS was still a deadly disease. The 'clean break' with the aesthetic
13 themes of earlier forms of urban gay culture was an instance of 'degenerational
14 unremembering' insofar that a new generation forged a new image of male homosexuality
15 largely by displacing its association with AIDS. By the late 1990s, however, the availability
16 of antiretroviral HIV treatment and the liberalisation of the licensing and policing of sex
17 clubs and saunas took place in parallel and new scenes of dance, sex clubs, and 'alternative'
18 queer spaces opened in Shoreditch and Vauxhall in East and South London (Andersson,
19 2009; 2011). The return of queer nightlife to these areas and its accompanying industrial look
20 were driven by gentrification, but also paid homage to the postindustrial aesthetics that gave
21 birth to queer club culture in the 1970s. Thus, in contrast with the 'degenerational
22 unremembering' of Soho's affirmative, but revisionist gay spaces, the last two decades have
23 arguably been characterised by intergenerational remembering: heritage and preservationist
24 attempts have been launched to list and protect older queer venues while LGBTQ history has
25 been incorporated into university curricula, museum exhibitions and the programming of
26 many cultural institutions. Now over a quarter-century old, Soho's gay village and its
27 homonormative aesthetic must also be understood as a historically specific formation shaped
28 by both economic and cultural factors. More than simply a manifestation of the 'pink pound'
29 or the 'sexual politics of neoliberalisation', its political and aesthetic priorities emerged from
30 the stigma and homophobic backlash that had accompanied the first decade of the AIDS
31 crisis.
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