

Chapter 9

Towards Touch-free Spaces: Sensors, Software and the Automatic Production of Shared Public Toilets

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14 Introduction

16 The public restroom, so unattended by social scientists, is surely a site of
17 analytic riches. ... tensions form around who we are, what we are to share, and
18 with whom we are to share it. (Molotch 2008, 61)

20 New software-enabled technologies are changing the social and material production
21 of everyday landscapes, and re-figuring the embodied relationships between people
22 and the environment through touch. The places where people are allowed, obliged
23 and forbidden from touching particular technological objects represent a complex
24 and delicately patterned landscape, but one that is negotiated largely in a habitual,
25 non-conscious fashion. Touching with hands is integral to so much technologic
26 activity and control – the pressing of buttons, pulling of handles, flicking switches,
27 twisting selector dials, and so on. Nearly half the working surface area of the laptop
28 used to compose this chapter is a keyboard and touch-pad ergonomically designed
29 for average human hands to engage with software. And yet touch is an overlooked
30 spatial sense and practice in human geography (although see Hetherington 2003,
31 Paterson 2007, Dixon and Straughan 2010). It is somewhat ironic then that in this
32 chapter we are concerned with the *reverse* situation, as we interrogate the nature of
33 mundane technologies that are designed to work *without* direct human touch.
34 As such, we consider how tools and appliances are being designed and
35 engineered to interact and respond appropriately to people by remotely sensing
36 the presence of human bodies, and offering modes of control based on proximity
37 rather than actual physical touch (there are other non-tactile approaches to
38 computer control such as sound-activated controls and speech recognition
39 interfaces, but these are beyond the scope of this discussion). We want to focus
40 here on electronic/digital technologies, being applied in everyday contexts, that
41 use sensors and software to automatically produce spaces that can react to people
42 or, at a minimum bodily-shaped objects, in meaningful ways without direct
43 contact. An increasing number of examples are evident in public buildings and
44 office environments, such as software-controlled doors that open automatically

1 when a person approaches, lights and air conditioning that turns itself on when 1
2 a sensor detects human motion in a room (and which turns itself off again when 2
3 the space empties), and keyless locks that open with the proximity of contact-less 3
4 radio frequency identification (RFID) cards. Indeed, digital sensors and decision- 4
5 making software are all about us, monitoring background infrastructures, 5
6 supervising utility services, regulating material flows, animating objects and 6
7 environments, and enrolled in solving the myriad tasks of daily living. 7

8 The phenomenal growth and influence of digital technologies on everyday 8
9 activities is due to the emergent and executable properties of software; how it 9
10 codifies the world into rules, routines, algorithms, data lists and structured 10
11 databases, and then executes these to do useful work that changes practices and 11
12 how spaces come into being (Kitchin and Dodge 2011). While software is not 12
13 sentient and conscious it can still exhibit some of the characteristics of 'being 13
14 alive' (Thrift and French 2002, 310). This essence of 'being alive' is significant 14
15 because it means computer code can make things do work in the world in an 15
16 autonomous fashion – that is, it can receive inputs from its environment and 16
17 process this information, make decisions and act on them without human oversight 17
18 or authorisation. When software executes itself in this automatic way it possesses 18
19 what Mackenzie (2006) terms 'secondary agency'. However, because software is 19
20 embedded into familiar objects and enclosed systems in often subtle and opaque 20
21 ways, its presence and power is little considered and is typically only noticed 21
22 when it performs incorrectly or fails (cf. Graham 2009). 22

23 Recently the role of touch to control software has become much more apparent 23
24 and, one might argue, more intensively tactile. The conventional keyboard/ 24
25 mouse input devices are being rapidly supplanted as many of the most desirable 25
26 and successful handheld consumer technologies, such as mp3 players, satnavs 26
27 and especially mobile phones, are operated through sophisticated touch-based 27
28 screen interfaces that are compellingly intimate and intuitive to use. Touch-screen 28
29 interfaces are now rapidly becoming routine, emplaced within innumerable city 29
30 and office spaces such as the control panels of photocopiers, vending machines, 30
31 information kiosks and parking meters. Software is enrolled to bring space into 31
32 being in particular ways, and increasingly to change where people touch surfaces, 32
33 how they touch to control things and make objects perform tasks, and conversely 33
34 how software mitigates the need for touch in certain instances. Yet the effects 34
35 of software on everyday tactilities has not been documented by social scientists 35
36 (although see Paterson 2007). Research is therefore needed that can account for 36
37 the tremendous scale and speed of the growth of code, including within all kinds of 37
38 mundane service spaces, and to understand the productive capacity that software 38
39 has to make the world differently in terms of its materiality, economic relations, 39
40 social processes and everyday practices. This should include those practices most 40
41 intimately associated with the body, such as toileting. 41

42 To begin to explain the nature of this automatic production of touch-free spatiality 42
43 (after Thrift and French 2002) we concentrate our analysis on shared public toilets, 43
44 vital but somewhat disregarded spaces of modern life. The focus of the analysis 44

1 presented here is on ‘globalised’ Western-style public shared toilets that are the 1
 2 norm in UK and Ireland. We do this while also recognising more globally the wide 2
 3 imbalances of access to any formal toilet facilities, and that lack of basic sanitation 3
 4 remains a major cause of unnecessary deaths, reflecting and reinforcing the uneven 4
 5 geography of development across the world (cf. George 2008, Jewitt 2011). 5

6 Bathrooms outside the home are culturally complex spaces, with multiple 6
 7 ambiguous meanings, providing public spaces for very necessary, private activities, 7
 8 but also spaces that are necessarily shared. In using public toilets many people 8
 9 have anxieties around privacy, personal safety and perceived risks of exposure 9
 10 of intimate activities to others and, above all, a sense of vulnerability through 10
 11 enforced sharing of space with strangers (cf. Molotch and Noren 2010). Here we 11
 12 analyse how some toilet spaces are being reshaped, as technologies are applied 12
 13 that seek to render toileting practices into a sequence of touch-free activities, and 13
 14 attempt to diminish direct handling of the materiality of the bathroom surfaces and 14
 15 fixtures. Driven by a range of modernist discourses around hygiene, convenience, 15
 16 and efficiency, it is apparent that many public toilets are now sites of sensors and 16
 17 software deployed to react to humans without direct touching: to flush toilets 17
 18 automatically, to dispense soap and water without touching a lever or turning a 18
 19 tap, and sensing the presence of wet hands waiting for drying. However, the logics 19
 20 of software-enabled automation able to overcome the fear of contamination and 20
 21 subconscious disgust at direct touching of surfaces shared with strange bodies 21
 22 is frequently nullified because the actual deployment of touch-free sensors is 22
 23 typically incomplete and oftentimes haphazard, most evident in the inconsistency 23
 24 and therefore ambiguity involved in walking up to what might or might-not be 24
 25 automatically opening doors. We conclude by considering why the spaces of touch 25
 26 are only ever partially reconfigurable by software technologies, and what this might 26
 27 mean for the automation of other everyday environments and tactile engagements. 27

28 28
 29 29

30 **Toilet Spaces, Toileting Practices** 30

31 31

32 People care a great deal how they pee and shit. Their strivings for decency 32
 33 confront the facilities available to them as well as the social strictures and 33
 34 hierarchies that order who goes where. (Molotch 2008, 60) 34

35 35

36 Daily toileting is an elemental physiological function. It is enveloped in a range of 36
 37 cultural practices and complex social meanings. It is enacted in spaces variously 37
 38 configured to conceal these practices and within architectural forms that reflect and 38
 39 reify these meanings. In Western countries toilets are ubiquitous, found in virtually 39
 40 all dwellings and available to occupants of public buildings in industrialised nations, 40
 41 although their fixtures, materials and layout vary somewhat from place to place (cf. 41
 42 George 2008). For most people in these countries access to specifically designed 42
 43 bathroom spaces, comprising functioning flush water closet (WC) and sink with 43
 44 clean running water, is seen as essential for convenient and comfortable living. 44

1 Toilets are at once mundane, but also an essential service space that everyone 1
 2 uses. Despite its ubiquity, toileting in Western cultures is typically constructed as 2
 3 a most private and solitary function, except for young children. Consequently, the 3
 4 toilet is understood as a taboo space because of the ‘uncivilised’ practices it seeks to 4
 5 conceal from the knowing gaze of others. Understanding the toilet as an ambiguous 5
 6 and taboo space revolves around notions of what is clean and what is dirty. Here, the 6
 7 work of anthropologist Mary Douglas (1966) is useful in explaining that dirty and 7
 8 clean are not innate characteristics, but are culturally constructed categories that arise 8
 9 out of processes of social ordering and the production of normative behaviour. Key 9
 10 to the construction of the category of ‘dirty’ is that it can be defined as ‘matter out of 10
 11 place’ (“Shoes are not dirty in themselves, but it is dirty to place them on the dining 11
 12 table”, Douglas 1966, 36.) ‘Matter out of place’ varies with cultural context, but is 12
 13 seen as entirely natural to those living within a given culture. While the symbolic 13
 14 boundaries between categories seem strong, they must be continuously maintained, 14
 15 for example with prohibitions, rules and purity rituals that seek to keep matter in 15
 16 the correct place and to punish those who transgress. The shared public toilet is a 16
 17 troubling space because such boundaries are particularly at risk. 17

18 The spatiality of being ‘in place/out of place’ (Cresswell 1996) can be finely 18
 19 grained, for example in the differentiating boundaries between ‘clean’ and ‘dirty’ 19
 20 within a bathroom cubicle or even parts of the WC unit. As Bichard et al. (2008, 20
 21 81) note: “[t]oileting residue on the toilet seat can be considered dirty as opposed 21
 22 to it being in the toilet bowl; thus a matter of degree can shift our concept of what 22
 23 we consider clean or soiled.” Often matter becomes ‘out of place’ because of the 23
 24 perceived spatial position of an object relative to ‘dirty’ activities, and also the 24
 25 physical distance to other surfaces that might be harbouring germs. Something that 25
 26 is initially classified as ‘clean’ may come too close to (but not actually touch) a ‘dirty’ 26
 27 object or practice and thus itself become ‘dirty’. Maintaining ‘matter in place’ is not 27
 28 just then the avoidance of direct tactile contact, it is about proximity and notions of 28
 29 acceptable distance. The degree and duration of touch, if it occurs, can also matter. 29
 30 Just a quick touch of a finger tip on a button might be perceived differently from the 30
 31 requirement to give a firm press of a handle with the palm of the hand. 31

32 The work of the categorisation of ‘dirt’ in determining bodily behavioural and 32
 33 social rules rests to a large degree on the notion of disgust. This powerful emotion 33
 34 compels people to avoid the presence and especially direct contact with sites, 34
 35 objects, individuals, activities that are normally classified as ‘dirty’. Contact by sight, 35
 36 smell, sound and especially touch with bodily fluids and human wastes, particularly 36
 37 those of strangers, is widely regarded as particularly disgusting (cf. Miller 1998). 37
 38 Excrement, for example, generates an affective response of revulsion and fear. As 38
 39 ‘matter out place’ it needs to be treated specially – quick disposal that avoids contact 39
 40 with bare hands. Indeed, in a hierarchy of human senses it is touch that can evoke 40
 41 disgust most powerfully because ‘matter out of place’ might possibly enter the body. 41
 42 As such, touching disgusting things is to be avoided at all costs as it implies possible 42
 43 physical contamination through the skin or by ingestion. 43

1 Public toilets are inherently disgusting places because of the unavailability of 1
 2 physical contact by one's own skin onto surfaces used by others, and consequent 2
 3 fear of contamination from other people's bodily residues (faeces, urine, hair, skin 3
 4 flakes, sweat, saliva/spit, vomit, mucous, blood), both seen and unseen (Greed 4
 5 2006; Bichard et al. 2008; Molotch and Noren 2010). In shared toilets this can 5
 6 be accompanied by their associated smells, commingling with the background 6
 7 chemical cleaning products, and the sounds of others performing: groans, farts, 7
 8 sputters and plops, and satisfied sighs. One might also on occasion literally feel 8
 9 the presence others: "[w]e all know ... the sensation of a toilet seat still warm from 9
 10 a prior body, the stranger sensed in so disquieting a way" (Molotch 2008, 61). 10
 11 Affective responses to the toilet space are heightened by disturbances to the general 11
 12 sense of orderliness and maintenance which can be invoked by unidentifiable stains 12
 13 on the cubicle walls, grimy looking smears on surfaces, scratches, cracked tiles, 13
 14 vandalism in the form of graffiti, burn marks, and broken fixtures, the presence of 14
 15 litter and loose toilet paper ('matter out of place'). The extent of these signifiers in 15
 16 aggregate can mark a public toilet as uncared for, and thus unclean. 16
 17 The toilet is then a deeply problematic site, and doubly so when a public facility. 17
 18 It is an arena in which 'matter' from human bodies routinely becomes 'out of 18
 19 place'. Western toilets, with flush WCs, are designed to engender control of such 19
 20 'matter out of place' as far as possible and to remove it quickly and hygienically. 20
 21 The design and use of technological systems for waste control are also accompanied 21
 22 by particular toilet cleaning regimes to disinfect surfaces, along with the necessity 22
 23 to clear occasional blockages and maintain plumbing in working order. Touch-free 23
 24 technologies, as the latest iteration in bathroom design, resonate with the scalar 24
 25 spatiality of disgust and seek to provide automated mechanisms to maintain bodily 25
 26 distance from potential 'matter out of place'. Although users still might see and 26
 27 smell 'matter out of place', and thus have an awareness of sources of disgust, they 27
 28 are protected against physical contact with it. Touch-free technologies are therefore 28
 29 fundamentally about disgust control, although this is usually dressed up in the more 29
 30 delicate language of hygiene and efficiency (see discussion below). 30

31

32

33 **Toilets Technologies**

34

35 [T]he chances of pathogen transmission are very high even in toilets that may 35
 36 appear to look clean, as every door handle (especially the last one out to the 36
 37 street), tap, lever, flush, lock, bar of soap, toilet roll holder, and turnstile, is a 37
 38 potential germ carrier. (Greed 2006, 128) 38

39

40 Even a basic bathroom, in the modern western context, is a highly technological 40
 41 space, reliant on a raft of scientific and engineering developments to make it function 41
 42 as required. Toilets are also tangible contact points between human bodies and the 42
 43 sewer network, a vital but hidden infrastructure to channel, control and remove 43
 44 'matter out of place'. Toilet technologies need to be efficient in performing hydraulic 44

1 tasks. While water flows easily with gravity, it is heavy to move and difficult to 1
2 fully contain, and must be reliably supplied. Many ingenious mechanical solutions 2
3 have been engineered to safely regulate the supply of water – siphonic cisterns, 3
4 self activating cut-off valves, overflow outlets – and, in some senses, to automate 4
5 aspects of toilet space and thereby compensate for human oversight and lassitude. 5
6 Safety is also a particular issue in terms of heating water and carefully separating 6
7 water from the electrical equipment. This might partly account for the relative lack 7
8 of integration of electrical appliances and electronic technologies into bathrooms, 8
9 particularly in comparison to other domestic and work spaces. In many respects, 9
10 the technicity of modern plumbing and bathroom fixtures only becomes apparent 10
11 in failure: a blocked waste pipe reveals just how quickly the convenient sense of a 11
12 normal flush toilet can unravel (cf. Graham 2009). 12

13 A range of plumbing techniques, along with specially designed hygienic 13
14 materials, are deployed in toilets to increase the psychological detachment 14
15 from the physiological acts of defecation and thereby to counteract fears of 15
16 contamination, and they also support ritualistic aspects of cleanliness such as 16
17 hand washing. Examples include the WC u-bend that holds a reservoir of water to 17
18 block sewer smells, a powerful flush that whisks away waste, sinks with running 18
19 water on-demand, the wipe-clean white ceramic tiles that can be easily inspected 19
20 for (visible) dirt. Technological advances in the name of cleanliness, however, do 20
21 not necessarily perform unproblematically. As Greed (2006, 129) comments: “[o] 21
22 stensibly, hygienic equipment, such as electric hand-driers (often imagined to be 22
23 safer than towels) may blow germs back into the atmosphere.” While surfaces may 23
24 appear to be clean, there could lurk hidden hygiene problems in toilets, including 24
25 recent fears of newly resistant ‘superbugs’, evolved, in part, as a result of anti- 25
26 bacterial cleaning regimes. 26

27 Evolving technological solutions have sought to render shared public toilets 27
28 ever more automated in recent decades. Automation is presented as advantageous 28
29 to the users of the toilets and to those who have responsibility for maintaining 29
30 and managing them. Our primary concern here is with development of digital 30
31 technologies that are designed to negate the need to touch toilet fixtures. Such 31
32 automation works, we would argue, because it makes toilet technologies 32
33 progressively more distanced and opaque in use. For example, operation of the 33
34 standard flush WC has evolved from the once common pull chord to physically 34
35 release water from an overhead cistern to a push lever on the side of the WC cistern, 35
36 and now widespread pressing of duo-flush buttons on top of the cistern offering 36
37 choice of big and small flows. The latest trend is touch-free flush controlled by 37
38 waving over a strategically positioned passive infrared (PIR) sensor that activates 38
39 a control circuit to release a calculated volume of water from a hidden cistern 39
40 (Figures 9.1 and 9.2), and the next development is no direct human operation at 40
41 all, where software activates the flush when a sensor detects the user vacating the 41
42 toilet seat. This automation translates into diminishing kinaesthetic skills needed 42
43 to operate the WC, and reduces the duration/intensity of hand touch of control 43
44 surfaces (Table 9.1). It also has fewer external moving parts to be physically 44



Figure 9.1 A typical ‘magic eye’ sensor in a WC cubicle in a shared public toilet in the UK. The physical form of the sensor does not follow function hence the presence of the small explanatory sign indicating usage in text and image. The fact that signage is deemed necessary is indicative that these kinds of touch-free sensors are not yet sufficiently common and standardised to be transparent; it is not necessary to sign the usage of a WC push handle flush

Source: author photograph

manipulated and potentially vandalised. Activities that are harder to automate with touch-free technologies are to do with access in terms of door opening and locking/unlocking, which means the coping practices that Bichard et al. (2008, 80) describe will likely continue:

...users described how locking the toilet cubicle door could only be done with a handful of toilet paper acting as a barrier between the hand and door lock. This behaviour was considered most beneficial before toileting, to prevent unknown and unseen dirt contaminating the more personal areas of the body.

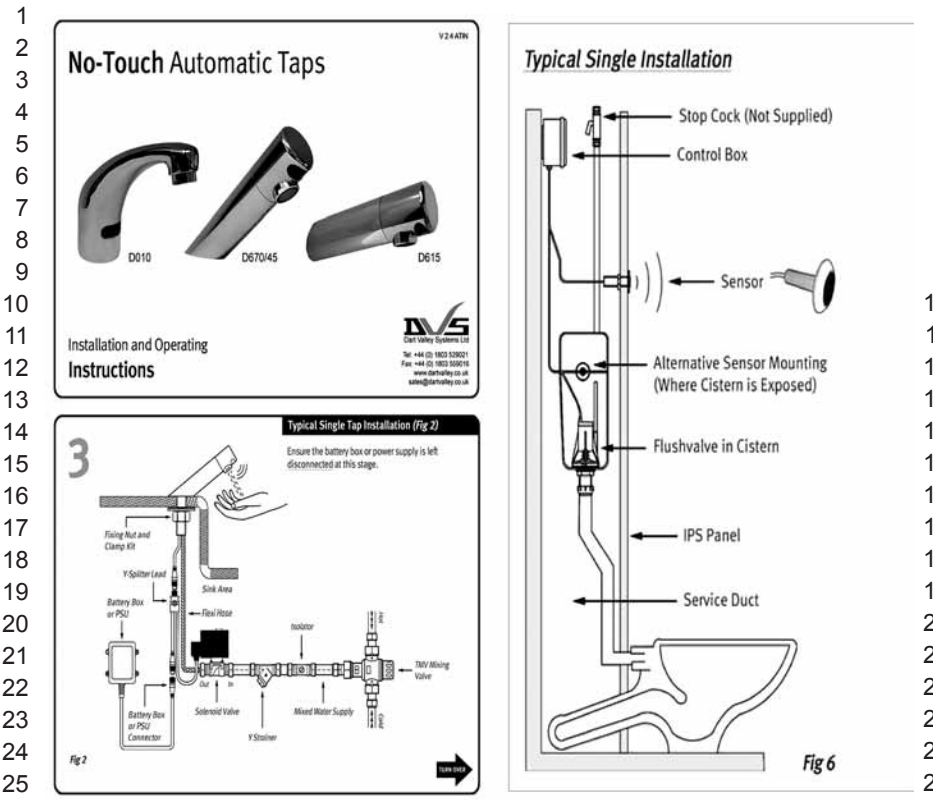


Figure 9.2 Schematics for typical installation of ‘no touch’ automatic taps (left hand images) and wave activated WC flush (right hand image)

Source: Manufacturers pdf brochure, Dart Valley Systems Ltd, <www.dartvalley.co.uk>, 2010

In addition to the WC unit, the most common forms of touch-free bathroom mediation are automatic lighting, taps, hand dryers, urinal flushing, and dispensing of consumables such as toilet paper, soap and towels. Table 9.2 provides a summary of the technologies that are in use in at least some shared public toilets in UK/Ireland. As discussed below very few, if any, shared public toilets have the full spectrum of automation technology installed.

Crucial to the automation of toileting practices to reduce the sense of disgust are digital sensor technologies. Sensors can operate by detecting changed environmental conditions using different parts of the electromagnetic spectrum including light, sound, heat, as well as the presence of physical material such as smoke, water or human bodies. Such detection has been used routinely in public space, including bathrooms, for many years in alarm systems for fire, flooding and security. Typically they work in a passive way, set up to monitor space and

Table 9.1 The evolving WC technologies in relation to changing levels of direct hand touch of control necessary to complete the task

Flushing a WC toilet	Intensity of tactile contact
Manual sluicing away of waste	Multiple potential hand touches, collecting, aiming and pouring water
Release chain to overhead cistern	Firm grip with whole hand and strong yank
Lever release	Press with fingers or palm of hand
Dual flush button	Light ('fingertip') touch activation
Hand wave PIR sensor	No direct touch, active wave of hand
Occupant / body movement sensor	Passive 'walk away' activation, no conscious interaction to flush or tactile contact

remain inert as long as conditions remain 'normal', only triggering a response if a predetermined threshold level is breached, for example when a high particulate level in the atmosphere sets off the smoke alarm. Having multiple sensors and processing software means location indications can be generated. Sensors are most obvious through separate detector boxes mounted on visible surfaces, but the detector circuits can also be integral to the equipment to monitor its operation (e.g., door opening) and detecting an abnormal operation or failure (e.g., measured water flow indicates the failure of a valve).

Technologies have also offered progressively more control over the toilet space for those responsible for their daily cleaning and general management. For example, hygiene control for urinals, with flushing performed as purely mechanical cycle (cistern fills then flushes, and repeats) systems or via direct activation from the user, have been augmented by electrical controls that offered sequences of flushing and remote activation of 'super flush' for cleaning, for example, and also facilitates removal of direct user activation thereby reducing protruding external fixtures for misuse or vandalism. Updating to electronic systems for urinal flushing meant managers could select different timed flush sequences and also monitor for faults. The addition of sophisticated digital controls with a software interface offers programmable settings and a choice of responses to sensor inputs, as well as logging of performance for later analysis. This is evidence of the shift of local to remote control through sensors and software, and accordingly Braverman (2010, 15) reads this change with Bruno Latour's notion of 'centres of calculation', arguing that:

[u]nlike the flushometer, which embodies a gaze that is only present in the space of the washroom itself, the central computer manages the washroom from a central location located elsewhere. Hence, the flushing device is not only programmed initially by the manufacturer but through continuous programming and reprogramming.

Table 9.2 Summary of the range of digital technologies available for installation in shared public toilets

Activity	Technology function	Automation / Sensing	Replaces / Augments
<i>User access</i>	Entrance/exit doors	Automatic opening, PIR sensor detects approach of human body	Manual opening with hand; powered-assistance door activated by button press
	WC cubicle door opening/locking	None	Still largely manual opening with hands, mechanical lock
	Access control, fee payment	Electronic opening barriers, digital sensor count people and checks money, software logging of fees and usage statistics	Manual turnstile with mechanical counter
	Lighting	Timed; automated according to daylight; activation in response to human presence via PIR sensor	Always on; electro-mechanical timing; manual activation by light switches
<i>Toileting</i>			
	Urinal flushing	Programmable settings for variable flush sequences; PIR sensor for flush after use; monitors usage, reports status	Manual activation; electro-mechanical timed flushing
	WC seat cleaning / cover	Activates after flush	
	WC paper dispensing	PIR sensor for dispensing of measured amount; potential to monitor usage, reports status	Manual cleaning; button push for mechanical dispensing of new cover
	WC flushing	PIR sensor for 'wave' activation and also 'walk away' activation; monitors usage, reports status	Manual dispensing with hand
	Sanitary product bin? [More in female WC?]	None?	Manual activation by hand on lever / button
	Accessible WC - Distress alarm / call system	??	Manual disposal into sanpro bins
	[Accessible WC – anything else?]	Digital call circuit routed to control centre; logs usage	Calling for help; electrical alarm trigger and local bell / flashing light to signal attendant
<i>Hand washing</i>			
	Water dispensing	PIR sensor for touch-free activation; automatic cleaning cycles; monitors use and failsafe cut-off	Manual activation by hand using twist or percussion push taps
	Soap dispensing	PIR sensor for touch-free activation	Soap blocks; manual push button dispensing of liquid soap
	Hand drying – air dryers	PIR sensor for touch-free activation; monitors	Paper towels / roller linen towel; manual

	Hand drying – paper towels	usage PIR sensor for touch-free dispensing of measured amount; monitors usage	activation of dryer by push button Manual dispensing by hand touch
<i>Environmental and hygiene control</i>	Flushing (complete system for cleaners)	Simultaneous flushing cycle of all units, super flush for deep hygiene clean; monitors use and failsafe cut-off	Manual flushing of units separately
	Heating, AC, ventilation	Programmable and flexible settings. PIR sensors for activation only when space is in use; reports status and logs operation	Manual controls; electronic timings and thermostatic sensors
	Odour control systems (Ozone generator, perfume spray)	Programmable and flexible settings. PIR sensors for activation only when space is in use; reports status	Electromechanical operation, electronic timing
	Air sanitiser ?? CCTV	?? Networked, digital system to remote centralised control; logging; potential for algorithmic detection of unusual behaviours	Presence of human attendant onsite; analogue television monitored locally
	Metering of usage	Digital meters, logging status, remote reading, detecting and reporting faults	Mechanical meters, manual reading
	Alarms (smoke, fire, flooding, burglary)	Integrated with BMS, networked for remote monitoring, logging status, reporting failures	Electromechanical alarm linked to bells and lights; electronic alarm operating locally
<i>Miscellaneous</i>	Cleaner time & attendance system	RFID identification, reports failure, logs status	Paper based recording; electronic 'punch cards'
	Vending machines?	Monitors stock level and networked to report status and faults	Periodic restocking

1 The ultimate degree of automation for management control is in a sense realised 1
 2 by the automated public toilet, typically a free-standing single-user WC unit in the 2
 3 street that requires payment to use. Usage is time limited and they are fully cleaned 3
 4 automatically after each cycle (cf. Braverman 2010). 4

5 5
 6 6

7 **Promotional Discourses for Automated Toilet Technologies** 7

8 8

9 An examination of the marketing literature of UK toilet technology manufacturers 9
 10 reveals that a wide range of narratives are used to promote touch-free bathrooms 10
 11 that encompass and extend beyond ideas of disgust and ‘matter out of place’. For 11
 12 many manufacturers the addition of sensors and software is a significant means of 12
 13 ‘adding value’ to existing product ranges, to facilitate further sales and/or more 13
 14 profitable pricing structures. Six discourses predominate: 14

15 15

- 16 • perceived hygiene and potentially real health benefits 16
- 17 • additional convenience and comfort 17
- 18 • being ‘modern’ 18
- 19 • easy installation and greater reliability of operation 19
- 20 • enhanced control and configurability 20
- 21 • promise of saving and efficiencies 21

22 22

23 The operationalisation of these discourses is well illustrated by the promotional 23
 24 brochure for typical automatic taps (Figure 9.3). This brochure encapsulates several 24
 25 of the master narratives around such toilet technologies when it states: “DVS No- 25
 26 Touch products allow you to control your water efficiently, conserve energy and 26
 27 cut down on your costs without sacrificing performance and reliability”. Here is 27
 28 the classic ‘win-win’ technology sales pitch: to be more efficient, but still provide 28
 29 the same service. The stress is also on the control afforded, along with claims of 29
 30 reliability. The key visual element in the advertisement is the automatic taps in 30
 31 operation washing (already clean) hands, accompanied by the claim “Save Water 31
 32 – Improve Hygiene”, linking two distinct discourses underlying toilet automation 32
 33 to mutually reinforce each other. 33

34 The appeal to saving resources through efficiency is key, with claims that 34
 35 automation offered by sensors and software can deliver significant reductions in 35
 36 water usage: “Up to 65% savings on water costs” (Figure 9.3). Automated taps 36
 37 programmed to supply an ‘optimal’ burst of water only when hands are directly 37
 38 under the faucet use less water for each cleaning cycle than twist or push taps 38
 39 (Figure 9.4). In a domestic context in UK/Ireland water has typically been 39
 40 supplied unmetered (flat rate annual charging), so there has been little concern 40
 41 with the efficiency of home toilet facilities, but clearly for large institutions with 41
 42 multiple bathrooms in intensive use the charges for water usage are a variable cost 42
 43 that needs to be controlled and ideally reduced. This is doubly so for the costly 43
 44 provision of heated water for hand washing. 44



No-Touch Automatic Taps

No-Touch automatic taps and accessories from Dart Valley Systems incorporate state-of-the-art design and technology and also offer hygienic water dispensing solutions to all market sectors - from hotels to supermarkets, laboratories to hospitals, schools to universities.

Our extensive product range is suitable for use by the elderly or disabled and the superior heavy duty construction offers resistance to vandalism and misuse.

Easy to install, with options for Mains or battery operated, DVS No-Touch products allow you to control your water efficiently, conserve energy and cut down on your costs without sacrificing performance and reliability.

Features

- Up to 65% Savings on Water Costs
- No-Touch Operation
- Hygienic - Helps Avoid Cross Infection
- Easy to Use - Ideal for Disabled or Elderly
- High Performance & Reliability
- Battery or Mains Powered
- Easy to Install & Maintain
- Additional Control Systems Allow Custom Run-Times (this option is not available to all models)

Classic Tap in Situation



**Save Water
Improve Hygiene**

Water Management Systems

D010 Classic Tap

D670/45 Aquarius DM-A45 Tap

WRAS APPROVED PRODUCT

QMS ISO 14001 REGULATORY COMPLIANT

QMS ISO 9001 REGULATORY COMPLIANT

Figure 9.3 A sample page of a sales brochure promoting the virtues of automatic taps for shared public toilets. The layout, typography and ordering of items in the bullet-point list is revealing of the prioritisation of discourses.

Source: Dart Valley Systems Ltd, <www.dartvalley.co.uk>, 2010

Estimated Water Consumption			
	Two Twist Taps	Non-Concussive Push Taps	Automatic Taps
Consumption per hand wash	4 litres	2 litres	1.2 litres
Consumption per day	400 litres	200 litres	120 litres
Consumption per year	100 M ³	50 M ³	30 M ³
Water saving per day	-	200 litres	280 litres
Water Saving per year	-	50 M ³	70 M ³

Figure 9.4 Part of the marketing literature for automatic taps is a comparative chart for potential water savings from updating to no-touch taps over conventional faucets

Source: Dart Valley Systems Ltd, <www.dartvalley.co.uk>, 2010

A contemporary subset of the efficiency discourse in promoting technologies is the appeal to sustainability of operations in addition to cost savings: “saving water is good for the environment” (Figure 9.3). Being seen to be ‘sustainable’ has become a key benchmark for many institutions and corporations, speaking to notions of morality and care for the community. Saving water is one of leading mantras in sustainability, given its iconic status as an essential element for living and its material scarcity in many parts of the world. The automation of toilets can therefore be justified as a sustainable ‘solution’, especially when it is supported by economic rationality.

For building owners and those responsible for managing shared public toilets the appeal to reliability is another powerful discourse. For any technology subject to intensive usage, it must work as intended day in, day out, with minimal care and maintenance. Shared public toilets have long been notorious as sites for malicious damage and bathroom fixtures must be designed in consequence, with marketing claims such as “superior heavy duty construction offers resistance to vandalism and misuse” (Figure 9.3). Here, the benefits notionally flowing out of new toilet technologies are not around touch-free automation per se but, according to British Toilet Association’s ‘best practice guide’ (BTA 2010, 30): “A non-touch system with a concealed cistern provides less opportunity to vandalise the unit and is more hygienic.” In a larger sense, reliability is also bound up with issues of installation and maintenance that are stressed as being ‘easy’ and ‘problem-free’ (Figure 9.3). Such a prosaic appeal should not be dismissed. Given that some touch-free technologies are still relatively new, the stress is on how manufacturers can offer ‘complete solutions’ and ones that can be straightforwardly retrofitted into existing toilet spaces.

Another discourse used to promote toilet technologies is control over the space and new means of knowing for building services managers tied to issues

1 of enhancing safety/security, which has become a fundamental promotional 1
2 discourse in a risk-conscious world. Control is coupled with a configurability that 2
3 promises greater flexibility for cleaning operations. The programmability through 3
4 software means it is possible to change parameters to suit local contexts rather 4
5 than rely on factory defaults often locked into an electronic system. For example, 5
6 in Figure 9.3 the advertisement lists the feature of “Additional control systems 6
7 allow custom run-times”, indicating that manufacturers believe some customers 7
8 will pay more for perceived greater degree of control. Managers can also be 8
9 offered options to override and lock-out water supply to forestall abuse and better 9
10 cope with vandalism. 10

11 Other promotional narratives for ‘touch-free’ technologies, while aimed at 11
12 facilities managers, also stress advantages to patrons, detailing how new toilet 12
13 fixtures work better than existing ones. Discourses around new technologies often 13
14 claim enhanced convenience in tackling existing tasks or wholly new kinds of tasks, 14
15 elemental to claims of being modern. Such promises of convenience are central 15
16 to consumer-oriented societies, with each new round of technology assertively 16
17 claiming to be easier to use than the preceding ones, reducing the time burden to 17
18 complete mundane tasks and the cognitive effort involved in sustaining everyday 18
19 living. Convenience is often stressed for target groups of people who might have 19
20 suffered from the poor design or operation of existing technologies. As Figure 20
21 9.3 notes: “Easy to use – ideal for disabled and elderly”. Other manufacturers 21
22 stress the compliance with disability equality legislation for their automatic toilet 22
23 products. This kind of claim emphasising the positive attributions of being ‘touch- 23
24 free’ however presumes that ‘elderly’ or ‘disabled’ are meaningful categories 24
25 of users, all sharing the same bodily (in)capacities. Research has disputed this, 25
26 showing how some new automation technologies can make toileting harder in 26
27 some contexts for some users (cf. Bichard et al. 2006, 2008). 27

28 In many respects these discourses represent a continuation of an established 28
29 but questionable progressive-modernist narrative that technologies can make life 29
30 better, updated in contemporary contexts in terms of ‘digital dreams’ and the bold 30
31 claims for so-called ‘smart systems’. Bathrooms, with their specialised equipment 31
32 and fittings, have long been sold as sites of modernity and a place for displaying 32
33 one’s tastes and distinctions in terms of consumption. Modern technologies 33
34 are promoted through their capacities to change everyday life for the better by 34
35 ameliorating its supposed constraints, such as taming nature, removing physical 35
36 drudgery, enhancing enjoyment, adding luxury. As such, the technologies of the 36
37 toilet have been, and remain, a way to project social status, with the focus on 37
38 design quality, minimal ornamentation or moving parts, conducive to an historical 38
39 aesthetics of modernity (cf. Gürel 2008). The main role of technologies here is to 39
40 hide the messy mechanical control and necessary hydraulic work being conducted, 40
41 with clean lines that conceal operations and subliminally demonstrate mastery 41
42 over nature, bringing hygienic orderliness to the world (at least within the confines 42
43 of the bathroom space). Such designs mean there are also smooth surfaces and 43
44 fewer visible mechanical elements to harbour germs and disgusting deposits. 44

1	Does Touch-free Technology Make a Difference?	1
2		2
3	[h]owever natural automated fixtures might seem to engineers, they are all not	3
4	natural and can even seem alienating to lay users. (Braverman 2010, 15)	4
5		5
6	A key aim for this chapter was to begin to understand how far digital technology	6
7	can transform everyday practices of touch. We are concerned to understand how	7
8	distinct 'smart' technologies, in the form of sensors and software automation,	8
9	utilises their technicity to transduce the space of shared public toilets differently;	9
10	how they can make a real difference to how people go to the toilet, and how	10
11	they feel about toileting activity in shared public spaces. Sensor technologies for	11
12	touch-free activation are certainly becoming more prevalent in many toilet spaces	12
13	and are clearly being marketed as powerful tools in modifying the practices of	13
14	touching. However it is unclear how far touch-free technologies really work in	14
15	terms of reducing the sense of disgust from direct contact with 'dirty' surfaces	15
16	shared with strangers, thus making this public space more tolerably habitable.	16
17	More conceptually we hope our focus can at least start to provide ways to think	17
18	about how the technicity of code works in automatically affecting spatiality, for	18
19	example in the ongoing cultural categorisation of space as 'dirty / clean', 'safe /	19
20	risky'. Can code itself automate the ordering of the world by ensuring human actors	20
21	keep 'matter-in-place'? The unacknowledged myth being worked towards is that	21
22	touch-free sensors and the secondary agency of software can bring into being <i>fully</i>	22
23	automatic space, like shared public toilets that would offer such highly ordered	23
24	function that surfaces would never become categorised as 'dirty' because 'matter'	24
25	would never be left 'out of place'. Bathrooms as code/space (cf. Kitchin and Dodge	25
26	2011) would thus remake human toileting into a wholly civilised and virtuous practice,	26
27	preventing it from slipping into an uncivilised or immoral state. Code would provide	27
28	the ultimate triumph of modernism over nature by completely disconnecting human	28
29	control over space from the intimate touch of our own corporeality. All embracing	29
30	software automation also offers up the means to avoid the disgusting animality of	30
31	others that we are forced to encounter in shared public toilets.	31
32	However, in spite of advertising and marketing hype and some potential benefits	32
33	from touch-free technologies for enhanced convenience and hygiene, their real	33
34	world implementation is inevitably imperfect. Given that touch-free technologies	34
35	in shared bathrooms are about enhancing the conventionalised boundaries between	35
36	'clean' and 'dirty' in toileting practices by progressively removing the need to	36
37	touch surfaces, the incomplete and inconsistent way they are deployed means they	37
38	can only fail in this task. The incomplete deployment of sensors and software	38
39	across the sequence of activities, including opening and closing doors, means	39
40	that toileting as a whole can never be rendered fully touch-free and the bathroom	40
41	fails to become a completely automated code/space. This incompleteness also	41
42	undermines much, if not all, of the validity of the hygiene discourse used in the	42
43	marketing of touch-free technologies. If software automation in shared toilet	43
44	spaces is genuinely about improving cleanliness then comprehensive, 'end-to-	44

1 end', implementation of touch-free interaction is needed to ensure (near) zero 1
 2 means of germ cross-contamination. Failure at any of the key points in toileting 2
 3 activity by an unavoidable direct touch of a potentially contaminating control 3
 4 surface, such as a door lock, means the complete hygiene chain is broken, that the 4
 5 user's body is no longer safely in the 'clean' category. The results of incomplete 5
 6 and haphazard provision of touch-free technologies in public toilets minimises 6
 7 their value for contaminant control, notwithstanding the fact that in reality some 7
 8 people fail to wash their hands regardless of the technological solutions on offer 8
 9 and normative cultural expectations. Moreover, there is evident inconsistency 9
 10 between touch-free public toilets provision, even within a single institution or the 10
 11 same building, some having no-touch taps and nothing else, others providing only 11
 12 auto-flushing of urinals or hand dryers, and so on. 12

13 Touch-free technology is therefore almost always implemented partially, and 13
 14 in inconsistent ways, which can make for user frustration as people are uncertain 14
 15 how bits of an unfamiliar bathroom are meant to work: 'so where do I wave my 15
 16 hands to get some soap?'. The current lack of standardisation of implementation 16
 17 of touch-free sensors can also cause distress for those who struggle with embodied 17
 18 practices in public toilets (Bichard et al. 2008) and can be subtly disabling for some 18
 19 people. Indeed, simpler mechanical bathroom fixtures are better for some users, 19
 20 and the prosaic operation of a tap can be made more problematic with the addition 20
 21 of touch-free technology because the position of the sensor 'eye' is inconsistent 21
 22 across installations, the speed of response and the duration of water flow varies. 22
 23 This may cause mild frustration in a normatively-abled user, but may prevent 23
 24 a physically or cognitively impaired person washing their hands successfully. 24
 25 Another example is how automated air fresheners dispense chemicals that are 25
 26 harmful to some, aggravating asthma symptoms, and in any case merely masking 26
 27 offensive smells to give the impression of hygiene rather than actually purifying 27
 28 the air to remove dust and bacteria. 28

29 The partiality of toilet code/spaces is indicative, we would argue, of the 29
 30 modernist hubris that underpins so many 'smart' homes discourses and some 30
 31 of the alluring promise of pervasive computing (Dodge and Kitchin 2009). 31
 32 Such discourses represent a desire for 'tidy space', an excessive orderliness and 32
 33 scientifically rationalised behaviour. This can be read as a "modern fetish for the 33
 34 *appearance* of hygiene" which 34

35
 36 does not assure the cleanliness it promises. Instead, it merely obscures dirt; 36
 37 indeed, all natural (and finally, historical) processes. Tidiness in fact is only 37
 38 interested in obscuring all traces of history, of process, of past users, of the 38
 39 conditions of manufacture (the high high-gloss). [...] The tidy moment does 39
 40 not recognise process, and so resists deterioration, disease, aging, putrefaction. 40
 41 (Michaels 1990, quoted in Barcan 2005, 9) 41

42
 43 The danger then is that toileting is set to become an over-determined activity. It 43
 44 could be argued that attempting to make avowedly simple activities touch-free 44

1 with digital sensors and software algorithms is simply unnecessary, and an *excess* 1
2 of automation in the bathroom could be critiqued as an example of disciplining the 2
3 body through a form of ‘technological paternalism’ (Spiekermann and Pallas 2006). 3
4 More tentatively, in step with other discourses extolling the virtues of onrushing 4
5 ‘intelligent environments’, bodies should no longer be considered as anonymous 5
6 entities but instead become identifiable in code in a more differentiated way, with 6
7 their routine activities available to be recorded. While seemingly far-fetched, 7
8 assisted living technologies encourage more ambient surveillance technologies 8
9 deployed throughout the home and the WC is a particular node of concern for 9
10 certain users, especially the elderly (cf. Dodge and Kitchin 2009). Accordingly, 10
11 perhaps a few people will actually volunteer to have *sousveillance* built into the 11
12 toilet bowl, having bathroom sensors and software monitor their every motion, as 12
13 part of a health-obsessed and bodily performance auditing culture. Yet would most 13
14 people actually *want* automated, ‘intelligent’ toilets that identify them and log 14
15 their ‘outputs’? (cf. Braverman 2010). The bathroom and toilet cubicles are one 15
16 of the few remaining private spaces in modern living, as in many public buildings 16
17 these are the only blind spots within routine CCTV coverage. Nonetheless they 17
18 possess the potential to become a new frontier of software surveillance. 18

19 More broadly the task of mapping out the places we can touch, the places where 19
20 we avoid or are compelled to touch, is an interesting challenge for geographers and 20
21 other social scientists, and we believe our focus on public bathroom spaces and 21
22 toileting practices is worth exploring further. The arguments presented are only a 22
23 preliminary consideration of the role of touch-free sensor technologies and software 23
24 automation to remake the space of toilets as ‘clean’ code/space by reconfiguring 24
25 embodied toileting practices. The analysis needs to be extended by drawing upon 25
26 a wider range of empirics from auditing different shared public toilets, for example 26
27 within multiple contexts, ages, and levels of usage, and from a qualitatively 27
28 deeper level of evidence gained by more ethnographic observations of toileting 28
29 practices and the impacts of technologies on underlying meanings and motivations 29
30 of performances. Clearly this kind of study of personal practices would require 30
31 sensitivity given the private nature of toileting and ethical considerations regarding 31
32 research in shared public space (cf. Barcan 2005, Molotch and Noren 2010). 32

33 We believe such studies would be worthwhile to advance understanding of 33
34 the ways various digital technologies work to mediate direct touch in everyday 34
35 situations and as such it could contribute to wider understanding in at least four 35
36 areas of geographical scholarship. Firstly, in terms of affective work looking at 36
37 emotional and sensual geographies, highlighting how the tactile nature of spatial 37
38 experiences are changed by sensors. Secondly, it could contribute useful empirical 38
39 material using ideas around non-representative practices in public environments, 39
40 particularly in relation to technological control over human bodies and how this 40
41 is often deflected or sometimes resisted. Using ontogenic notions one could see 41
42 how toilets come into being as spaces of techno-social practice. Thirdly, such work 42
43 can advance an understanding of the spatial and social implications of pervasive 43
44 computing by mapping out how and why the ‘automatic production of space’ is 44

1 likely to remain partial, using toilets which are vital but overlooked spaces. The 1
 2 problems of putting code to work in mundane places like public toilets, and the 2
 3 fact that it is so incomplete and inconsistent, actually makes it a fascinating site 3
 4 for doing software studies (cf. Kitchin and Dodge 2011). Lastly, this work speaks 4
 5 directly to the changing the nature of what it means to human. As such it can 5
 6 contribute to debates on post-humanism in which technologies of touch change 6
 7 embodied relationships with the material landscape. Is automation as code/space 7
 8 always going to be imperfect, and will the fetishistic desire for fully touch-free 8
 9 interaction ever be realised? Even if code/spaces built with touch-free sensors and 9
 10 complete software automation were realisable, the question remains whether users 10
 11 would actively *want* them, given the deeper psychological impacts that might result 11
 12 from such corporeal disconnection? Touch-free technologies, therefore, are part of 12
 13 what Robert Macfarlane (2007, 203) laments as the “retreat from the real... a 13
 14 prising away of life from place, an abstraction of experience into different kinds of 14
 15 touchlessness”. Software may be able to bring more touch-free spaces into being, 15
 16 but would we ever wish to live a fully touch-less existence? 16
 17
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