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**1966 and All That: Trends and Developments in UK Ergonomics during the 1960's**

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**“1966 and All That”: Trends and Developments in UK Ergonomics  
during the 1960’s**

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## Abstract

The 1960's represent a key decade in the expansion of ergonomics within the UK. In this paper we review trends and developments that emerged out of the 1960's and compare these with ergonomics research and practice today. We focus in particular on the expansion of ergonomics as a discipline within industry, as well as more specific topics such as: the emergence of areas of interest such as computers and technology; automation and systems ergonomics; and, consumer ergonomics. We illustrate our account with a detailed timeline of developments, a set of industrial case studies and the contents of important publications during the decade. A key aim of the paper is to provide the opportunity to reflect on the past and the implications this may have for future directions for ergonomics within the UK.

## Statement of Relevance for Ergonomics Practice

The paper provides practitioners with an insight into the development of ergonomics in the UK during one of the most important decades of its history. This is especially relevant given the fact that in 2009 the Ergonomics Society celebrates its 60<sup>th</sup> anniversary.

## Keywords

General ergonomics; industrial ergonomics; human-machine systems; consumer ergonomics.

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*“Machines are ahead of human beings; things control minds; society is limping and stumbling as it tries to keep up with technological change”* Calvino (1962)

## 1. Introduction

The quote from the Italian writer Italo Calvino was made during a debate held on “industry and literature” at the beginning of the 1960’s. Calvino sums up what were to become dominant themes in later accounts of the period, namely the growth of automation and the increasing role played by technology within society. Both of these themes are important within ergonomics and continue today as sources of debate in research and practical applications of the subject. Similarly, many issues have declined in interest or relevance as compared to forty years ago. Much has been written about the origins of ergonomics (e.g., Waterson and Sell, 2006; Stammers, 2007; Stanton and Stammers, 2008a; Moray, 2008), alongside other discussions centred around pioneers within ergonomics and the future of the discipline. (e.g., Frederic Bartlett). By comparison, little detailed information is available covering specific periods within the development of ergonomics. In this paper we focus on the 1960’s within UK ergonomics for a number of reasons. Firstly, the 1960’s can be seen as a mid-point between the immediate post-war roots and birth of ergonomics, and its subsequent development into a fully fledged discipline. Secondly, during the 1960’s ergonomics became firmly established within industry and made firm steps towards closer engagement with civil, government and industrial users and practitioners (Chapman and Stone, 1964). The late Brian Shackel (1927-2007) in a paper written to celebrate the 50<sup>th</sup> anniversary of ergonomics within EMI (Shackel, 1991 – table 1), viewed the period as a bridge between earlier work on military ergonomics and a later focus on consumer ergonomics in the 1970’s.

Table 1 here

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3 In 2009 the UK Ergonomics Society celebrates its 60<sup>th</sup> Anniversary. It seems timely  
4 and appropriate to stand back and review trends and developments over the period  
5 and compare these with present day ergonomics.  
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### 10 **1.1 Historical sources and materials**

11 We draw on a number of different sources of information relating to the 1960's.  
12 These include general histories covering the immediate post-war period and  
13 subsequent decades (e.g., Sandbrook, 2005; 2006; Thomson, 1965), as well as  
14 publications relating to ergonomics available in books and journals written in the  
15 1960's and more recently. Historians sometimes refer to the interval between 1956-  
16 1974 as the "long 1960's" (Sandbrook, 2006) and accordingly we have used these  
17 dates as starting and end points in the paper. We also make reference to materials  
18 which were used to prepare a history of the Ergonomics Society (Waterson and Sell,  
19 2006 - e.g., the outcomes from interviews held with ergonomists and other prominent  
20 individuals). Finally, some of the materials used in the paper are based on an archive  
21 of material from the late Brian Shackel (e.g., photographs).  
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### 33 **2. Significant events and milestones**

34 The years leading up to the 1960's proved to be eventful ones for ergonomics in the  
35 UK. In 1959 the Ergonomics Research Society (ERS) held its annual conference and  
36 celebrated at the same time the first 10 years of the Society. One account of the  
37 conference at the time (Rodger, 1959), raised the issue of the identity of ergonomics  
38 and what members of the Ergonomics Society had in common - was it simply made  
39 up of individuals drawn from "certain technological wings of certain human sciences,  
40 and their agents and users in industry?". Whilst this question has relevance today  
41 (e.g., current changes to the name of the Ergonomics Society), it is clear that by the  
42 end of the 1960's that the debate had moved on and other matters were taking  
43 precedence (e.g., the involvement of practitioners).  
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54 During the 1950's and to some extent the early part of the 1960's, there was a  
55 concern that within the UK that ergonomics was very much aligned with work study  
56 and the activities of work study engineers (e.g., evaluation of workplace lighting, time  
57 and motion studies). By the end of the decade ergonomics had become established,  
58 not only within the universities, but also within industry. These developments  
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3 accordingly brought about changes to the nature of the discipline, as well as the role  
4 of the ergonomist. Table 2 sets out a timeline covering significant developments  
5 within ergonomics in the UK alongside wider historical events and societal changes.  
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## 21 2.1 Events leading up to the 1960's

### 22 2.1.1 Activities centred around the European Productivity Agency

23 The activities of the European Productivity Agency (EPA) and the close relationship  
24 it had with the ERS during the 1950's helped to establish and raise the profile of  
25 ergonomics within industry. The EPA was a body that worked under the auspices of  
26 the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) and in 1954 a  
27 working party was set up to consider the possibility of an international conference to  
28 promote ergonomics in industry (Edholm and Murrell, 1973, p. 24). The plans for a  
29 conference were subsequently postponed, however, in the meantime the EPA  
30 proposed that a sponsored visit to the USA by a European party should be organised.  
31 The visit to the USA subsequently took place in 1956 with Tom Singleton as the  
32 representative from the UK and K.F.H. Murrell as the organising secretary. The  
33 outcomes from the visit were later presented at a seminar in Leiden in March-April  
34 1957. The title of the Leiden seminar was "Fitting the Job to the Worker" and  
35 involved 7 ERS members including Singleton, Murrell, R. Sell, W.F. Floyd and R.  
36 Stansfield (Edholm and Murrell, 1973, p. 26). In 1959 the plans for an EPA  
37 sponsored conference were revived and the conference was held in March in Zurich.  
38 The conference brought together scientists, employers and trade unionists with the  
39 aim "to change attitudes to work in the field of ergonomics rather than immediately to  
40 convey a great deal of factual material" (Edholm and Murrell, 1973, p. 27). The  
41 Zurich conference led on to a subsequent conference in 1960 sponsored by the  
42 Department of Science and Industry (DSIR).  
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### 2.1.2 Department of Science and Industrial (DISR) Research Conference 1960

At the start of the decade a conference on “Ergonomics and Industry” took place in London (27<sup>th</sup>-29<sup>th</sup> September 1960). The title of the DSIR conference reflected the degree to which ergonomics had taken off as a subject for application within industrial settings and had evolved from its wartime, military roots. Some indication of the importance of the conference can be gathered from the fact that the opening address was given by the then Minister for Science, Viscount Hailsham. Similarly, the fact the conference was sponsored by the government at the time, provides further evidence that ergonomics was taken seriously by politicians and policy makers.

In total over 200 companies were represented at the conference and papers were presented covering a diverse range of industries and services (e.g., London Transport, British Steel, Smiths Instruments). The proceedings from the conference (DSIR, 1961) records that 8 symposia took place, ranging in theme from “The Place of Ergonomics in Industry”, “Ergonomics and Products” to “The Future of Ergonomics”. The latter symposium provides some clues as to what ergonomists were concerned with at the time, as well as their predictions for the future. W.F. Floyd for example, speaking of the problems of defining what was meant by ergonomics commented that:

“I think this puts us in the position of being able to say that there is no such a thing as an ergonomist – yet. I believe that might be when this process reaches maturity, but I do not foresee this happening for a number of years” (DSIR, 1961, p. 161).

In the same symposium Donald Broadbent commented that predictions of the future were likely to be doomed to failure, whilst also suggesting that ergonomics would expand from a consideration of manual labour to a consideration of management issues:

“what will those people [*ergonomists*] be doing? In part, the same things that they are doing today; but only in part. I suspect in the year to come there will be wider applications, with the disconcerting result that the board of directors as well as the man on the shop floor will be the subject of ergonomic study” (DSIR, 1961, pp. 159-160).



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5 The theme of the role of ergonomists in industry and changes to the nature of work  
6 will be addressed later on in the paper in section 4. In the next section, we examine in  
7 more detail the topics of interest that preoccupied researchers and practitioners during  
8 the 1960's.  
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## 12 13 14 15 16 **2.2 Topics of interest in academia and practice**

17 One way of gaining insight into the topics which preoccupied the minds of  
18 ergonomists and related professions (e.g., applied psychologists) is to look at the  
19 types of textbooks and training courses which were published and available for study  
20 over the decade. Table 3 sets out the contents pages of four books that were published  
21 from 1965-1974. In addition, the syllabus for a short course in ergonomics from 1961  
22 is presented in table 4.  
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Looking through the contents of both the textbooks and courses from the 1960's and today the first impression is how little seems to have changed. The comments made by Broadbent (DSIR, 1961) above seem to have partly come true. Many of the topics we would expect to find today in postgraduate courses in ergonomics for example, were being taught, albeit with a different content and emphasis, forty years ago. This is perhaps unsurprising given the nature of ergonomics. However, what has changed the most would seem to be the expansion of the basic core elements of ergonomics (e.g., anthropometry, control and display design) into more specialised areas of investigation (e.g., posture and comfort, human-computer interaction). These changes had implications for the role of the practising ergonomist, moving from someone capable of having an overview of all of the topics in ergonomics spanning anatomy, physiology and psychology, to a more specialist role (section 4.2). In addition, by the end of the 1960's techniques for evaluation and design within ergonomics (e.g., task

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3 analysis) begin to make an appearance. The trend toward the development of methods  
4 and techniques designed for specific application domains within ergonomics  
5 continues up until the present day. The next section focuses in more detail on a  
6 selection of topics which reflect both continuity and change over the course of the  
7 1960's to the present day.  
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## 13 14 15 16 **2.3 Focus on selected topics**

### 17 18 2.3.1 Computers and technology

19 Throughout the 1960s, with the advent of interactive computing, computer  
20 applications were spreading quickly in business and industry. Computer processing  
21 was undertaken by large, mainframe machines that had hitherto been the province of  
22 computer specialists. Now "time sharing" systems enabled a mainframe to service  
23 many remote terminals at the same time and people who were not computer  
24 specialists could experience an interactive dialogue with the computer. At first this  
25 was undertaken using teletype machines but these were soon superseded by visual  
26 display units or terminals (VDT's). The widespread use of interactive computing  
27 raised many human issues and ergonomists quickly became involved in research,  
28 evaluation and design roles. In all three of the case studies to be reported in section 3,  
29 for example, the ergonomic teams were engaged in the development of various forms  
30 human-computer interaction. At first the dominant concerns were familiar hardware  
31 and environmental subjects: the "knobs and dials" of the keyboard and the display,  
32 the workstation and the lighting. Cakir, Hart and Stewart (1980) produced an early  
33 "VDT manual" to provide design guidance on these subjects.  
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48 However, it soon became evident that interactive computing also created some new  
49 challenges for human performance. One was response times. Early forms of time  
50 sharing could produce delays in responses from the computer that could last minutes  
51 at any point in the dialogue and this proved very disruptive to task oriented thought  
52 processes. Today, this problem is only apparent when we want to download large  
53 files and the response speeds have largely disappeared from the research agenda.  
54 However, the issue of software ergonomics that became recognised in this period has  
55 become progressively more significant. Early forms of dialogue with computers were  
56 based on the programming languages used by computer professionals, but these were  
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3 not a good basis for human-computer interaction when the humans were accountants,  
4 clerks, engineers, managers and so on; people who were naïve users with respect to  
5 computers. So the search began for forms of software interaction that would be  
6 natural and easy for the ever-widening population of computer users. By the mid-  
7 seventies this had distilled into the search for usability (Shackel, 1984) and, as  
8 personal computers came into being, “point and click” graphical interfaces exploiting  
9 the capabilities of the mouse were fast becoming the de facto standards for human-  
10 computer interaction. Ergonomists played leading roles in this process. The HUSAT  
11 (Human Sciences and Advanced Technology) Research Institute at Loughborough  
12 University was established in 1970 and specialised in the study of human aspects of  
13 computing technology and many information technology companies such as IBM,  
14 Phillips and British Telecom began to establish human factors groups and usability  
15 laboratories in which to test their new products.  
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28 Although there were a number of attempts to undertake theory-driven research in this  
29 field (e.g. Card, Moran and Newell, 1983), the main emphasis was applied; to create  
30 standards and style guides for interaction design, to establish usability evaluation  
31 methods and to institutionalise usability design as an integral part of the way new  
32 products and systems were developed. By the 1980s human-computer interaction and  
33 usability engineering was developing into a major international sub-discipline  
34 occupying a territory somewhere between computer science and ergonomics. The  
35 first international conference in the INTERACT series was held in London in 1976  
36 and the journal Behaviour and Information Technology was launched in 1981.  
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46 Today human-computer interaction is a feature not just of commercial systems but of  
47 a wide variety of consumer products and it is a testament to workers in this field that  
48 a large proportion of the population can now make regular use of these sophisticated  
49 products without any specialist training. There is now a large army of usability  
50 engineers in companies around the world dedicated to ensuring that new products  
51 meet human factors standards. It is sobering, however, to note that these professionals  
52 are more likely to have computer science qualifications than degrees in ergonomics.  
53 Ownership of this inherently multi-disciplinary subject was always an issue  
54 exemplified by the use of the term human-computer interaction (HCI) by ergonomists  
55 and the term computer-human interaction (CHI) by computer professionals. It was the  
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3 CHI professionals who actually designed usable forms of interaction such as the  
4 graphics interface. Ergonomists who work professionally in this field are increasingly  
5 also gaining qualifications in information technology so that they can play a full role  
6 in the development of new products and systems.  
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### 10 11 12 2.3.2 Automation and systems ergonomics

13 One of the many developments that came about as a result of the increasing  
14 automation of tasks, was the formation of what later became established as systems  
15 ergonomics. Singleton's (1958) work within the shoe industry for example, had  
16 underlined the importance of understanding the combined influence of management,  
17 technology and human-machine components on work and productivity. Likewise  
18 Welford's (1960) booklet in the DSIR series on "Ergonomics and Automation" linked  
19 ideas from systems theory to human and machine performance issues. Sir Harry  
20 Melville's (1964) address to the Ergonomics Society gives some idea of the positive  
21 light in which the systems approach was viewed:  
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31 "The machine and its operator inevitably form a single system in which the  
32 characteristics of both contribute significantly to the performance of the whole. The  
33 human characteristics concerned include not only the basic capacities of the human  
34 body and brain, but also the effects of individual and social experience, the aims,  
35 ambitions, hope and fear that a man brings to any task he performs".  
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42 The symposium held in 1967 on the "Human Operator in Complex Systems" at Aston  
43 University brought together a number of researchers and practitioners from academia  
44 and industry with interests and enthusiasm for systems ergonomics. Singleton (1967)  
45 described how reading the concepts and ideas that had come from systems theory as a  
46 "eureka experience", whilst at the same time noting that there were many who were  
47 sceptical of the systems approach. This had in itself led to a new schism with  
48 ergonomics. In the 1950's there had been tensions between psychologists and  
49 physiologists, by the later 1960's attention was more focused on those who came  
50 from the "knobs and dials" tradition and those who were perceived as "systems men".  
51 Singleton cites research on management decision-making (e.g., the work of Lisl Klein  
52 and colleagues), vigilance and workload, as well as the views of the general public  
53 toward automation as important topics worthy of future investigation. The  
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symposium also contains contributions covering issues such as allocation of function (Whitfield, 1967), automation in meat handling (Shackel et al., 1967) and the role of the operator in specific contexts (e.g., the National Grid – Sell and Pulsford, 1967). It is worthwhile noting in passing that the systems approach in recent years has gained in popularity in a number of domains (e.g., safety and health care ergonomics) and many of the issues mentioned in the symposium (e.g., shortage of hospital beds, motorway crashes – Jones, 1967) are as topical today as compared to over forty years ago.

### 2.3.3 Job and work design

The 1960s was a decade when motivation to work, job satisfaction and job design were important topics on the research agenda. One reason was that many of the industrial jobs in manufacturing at the time involved repetitive tasks and machine pacing and many studies had shown that operators in these jobs had low levels of job satisfaction. They tended to be alienated from both the companies they worked for and the work systems they were part of. The poor industrial relations climate in the UK in particular during this time meant that both industrialists and government were interested in improving the lot of people at work. Many of the researchers in this field came from industrial sociology and occupational psychology, but ergonomists also recognised the applied importance of these issues. Welford, for example, in the Ergonomics Society lecture in 1966 emphasised the need to understand motivation and job satisfaction if we were to fully understand the factors that affected performance at work (Welford, 1966).

Many theories emerged from research in this period. The most popular were the relatively simple and easy to grasp theories of Maslow and Herzberg which could be used to explain the relative roles played in job satisfaction of extrinsic factors, such as pay and recognition, compared with intrinsic factors such as the challenge of the task itself. Later, more sophisticated theories emerged (Parker and Wall, 1998), that demonstrated the role of a wide array of factors in the experience of job satisfaction. These theories had a range of applied consequences from the design of payment systems to management training. However, the recognition of the importance of intrinsic factors fed directly into methods of job design (i.e. the assignment of tasks to work roles in the work system). Several authors (e.g. Trist et al., 1963; Davis and

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Canter, 1956), created lists of job design criteria that emphasised the need for a variety of tasks in a job and discretion and autonomy with respect to how tasks were undertaken. These concepts also became part of broader movements that gained momentum in the 1960s; the development of forms of industrial democracy, the study of the quality of working life and the development of socio-technical systems theory as a systems approach that sought both effective work system performance and worthwhile and satisfying work for people to undertake. Recognition of the importance of implementing these ideas in industrial practice came in the UK through the creation of the Work Research Unit in the Department of Employment and in the European Union through the formation in 1975 in Dublin of the European Foundation for Living and Working Conditions.

There appeared to be rich promise in this era that the application of these theories and methods would produce more satisfying work and that this would help create more effective and adaptable work systems. Today, although this field of study is still being developed, it is not such a prominent research discipline and is receiving less attention from industrialists and government. A possible reason is that most of the low skilled manufacturing jobs that were the focus of concern have moved from the developed world to the developing world as mass production has moved to the Far East. There is now less concern in the developed world for the design of jobs to increase job satisfaction and more concern about job stress. The design solutions currently in vogue are less about job design and more about flexible work schemes that enable workers to achieve a better quality of work/life balance.

#### 2.3.4 Consumer ergonomics and standards

Over the last fifty years UK household income has doubled in real terms according to the latest government statistics (Office for National Statistics, 2008). The beginnings of this trend can be traced back to the 1960's when consumer spending on household products and services began to take off. Some indication of the involvement of ergonomists in the design of consumer products can be judged from the fact that between 1965 to 1973 some 174 references to ergonomics were made in "Design", a popular magazine read by professional designers. Over the decade the magazine published a range of articles written by ergonomists covering a wide range of products and design related issues, including: accidents and design; agricultural

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3 machinery, bathroom ergonomics and product evaluation. Later on, the importance of  
4 ergonomics was recognised by the fact that two people associated with design  
5 ergonomics were involved with the magazine's 1973 consumer good awards (Stuart  
6 Kirk at Loughborough and Bruce Archer at the Royal College of Art).  
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12 During the late 1950's a good deal of research was conducted on the anthropometric  
13 properties of chairs and tables (e.g., Akerblom, 1954; Floyd and Roberts, 1958).  
14 Work on chairs and seating requirements continues to the present day (e.g., Corlett,  
15 2005) and is one of the main (and sometimes only) interpretations of the term  
16 "ergonomic" amongst the general public. Later on, the field of consumer ergonomics  
17 expanded considerably and took in a range of different types of product, some  
18 highlights include:  
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- 26 • Studies of drivers and driving behaviour conducted at the Applied Psychology  
27 Unit in Cambridge by Ivan Brown and colleagues (e.g., the use of car radios and  
28 other concurrent tasks on driving – Brown et al., 1969; see also section 3.2);  
29
- 30 • Work on household appliances and kitchen design conducted by W.F. Floyd and  
31 colleagues at Loughborough University and the Institute of Consumer  
32 Ergonomics in Loughborough (e.g., the usability and anthropometric properties of  
33 household jugs – Floyd, Harding, Kirk and Ward, 1965; the ergonomic design of  
34 kitchens and tasks related to housework – Ward, 1970);  
35
- 36 • The design of coins and the problems associated with the move to decimalisation  
37 of UK currency conducted at the APU in Cambridge by Patricia Wright and  
38 colleagues (e.g., Wright, 1968; Wright et al., 1969)  
39
- 40 • Development of a hospital bed which later became a British Standard, for the  
41 National Health Service by Bruce Archer and colleagues at the Royal College of  
42 Art (The Times Newspaper, 2005).  
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53 By the early 1970's the issue of standards had taken on more importance than it had  
54 in the past within ergonomics. Members of the Ergonomics Society had taken part in  
55 standards committees (e.g., furniture design) since the early 1960's and representation  
56 on other committees increased through the decade. However, a survey by Whitfield in  
57 1972 (Whitfield, 1972) found that of 400 standards relevant to ergonomics, none had  
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3 any actual mention of ergonomics within them. The problem at the time was seen as  
4 poor communication of what ergonomics consisted of, as well as few attempts to  
5 integrate ergonomics into standards. Over the course of time, this appears to have  
6 improved (Stewart, 2000) and ergonomists are today widely involved in the design of  
7 standards, particularly as they relate to information technology.  
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### 12 13 14 2.3.5 Ageing and population change

15 The topic of an ageing population and the impact this had upon the industrial  
16 workforce proved many debates during the late 1950's and early 60's. This is  
17 reflected in the number of papers on ageing in the Ergonomics Society conference  
18 proceedings and the journal "Ergonomics" over the period. In addition, a number of  
19 research groups and centres, some funded by organisations such as DSIR and the  
20 Nuffield Foundation were active across the country (e.g., Liverpool, Bristol,  
21 University College London).  
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30 In 1951, people between the ages of 50-59 represented 43% of the population  
31 compared to 39% in 2003 , whereas the proportion of those aged over 85 increased  
32 from 1.6% in 1951 to 5.5% in 2003 (UK Statistics Authority, 2008). One of the main  
33 issues that attracted the attention of ergonomists at the time was how to retrain older  
34 workers. A typical example is Simon and Wolf's (1963) study which looked at the  
35 reaction times, speed and efficiency of older people when carrying out tasks  
36 involving inspection and visual acuity. Similarly, other papers drawn from industry  
37 concentrated on older workers carrying out inspection tasks such as repairing  
38 telephone exchanges (e.g., Jameeson, 1966). The work of Eunice Belbin at UCL is  
39 notable since it later became influential in the design of training programmes for  
40 older workers (Belbin and Downs, 1964). What is striking about most of the work on  
41 ageing at the time is that it tended to be conducted within the laboratory and involved  
42 experiments measuring reaction times using simulated work-based tasks (e.g., postal  
43 sorting). It was only much later in the 1970's that issues such as the job satisfaction of  
44 older workers or the difficulties they might have had in adjusting to new jobs were  
45 addressed.  
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### 3. Case studies of ergonomics in industry and research

As mentioned earlier on, the 1960's saw the expansion of ergonomics into industry. In particular, ergonomists actively collaborated with a number of trade associations and were employed in a variety of industries (e.g., Boot and Shoe Research Association, Furniture Development Council). We describe here three examples of case studies of ergonomics within companies.

#### 3.1 The Ergonomics Laboratory at EMI Electronics Ltd.

In 1954 Brian Shackel, then working at APU in Cambridge, was invited to establish a team at what was at the time EMI Engineering Development Ltd (later EMI Electronics Ltd) in Feltham, Middlesex. Initially the team were called the "Psychological Research Laboratory" because the name "Ergonomics" was not considered to be sufficiently well established. It became the EMIE Ergonomics Laboratory in 1965.

In addition to being in the music industry, EMI employed large teams of engineers many of whom worked on large military system developments. However, EMI was also very active in developing commercial systems and products and, during the 1960s was at the forefront of UK efforts to develop the first transistorised computers. Brian Shackel saw the role of the Ergonomics Laboratory as to apply ergonomic knowledge and principles to the work of the engineering teams in the company.

"As a service ... the major function of the ...laboratory is to aid project engineers and draughtsman in the design of equipment to ensure compatibility of operation between the machine and the man" (Shackel, 1967 p.4)

##### 3.1.1 Military Ergonomics

Initially the majority of the work undertaken was in relation to military projects. Anderson and Beevis (1970) record that this included work on the interfaces for radar and infrared displays. The group quickly recognised that whilst much of their work was on standalone products, the military work took them into large systems design projects. They became involved, for example, in the design of ship's operations rooms, vehicle environments and fleet information systems. This led to an abiding

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3 concern for systems ergonomics and the role that ergonomics could and should play  
4 at all stages of the development of large systems.  
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### 8 9 3.1.2 Consumer and product ergonomics

10 Outside of the military work of EMIE, the laboratory worked with many other  
11 engineering teams. At the time, Morphy Richards was part of EMI and this gave the  
12 laboratory the opportunity to evaluate and contribute to the design of many domestic  
13 products whilst they were in development. This included electric drills, electric  
14 carving knives, record players and hairdryers (Photograph 1).  
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### 32 3.1.3 Computers and information technology

33 One of the major developments in EMI was what was at the time the largest all-  
34 transistor computer in Europe, the EMIDEC 2400. The team were involved in  
35 prototype development of the control console for the computer in 1959 and were able  
36 to trial and evaluate several different interfaces (Shackel 1962). This led to a strand of  
37 work about human issues in the emerging computer industry that included not only  
38 the hardware interface but also the software interface for interactive computing.  
39 Several members of staff later became prominent contributors to human-computer  
40 interaction a subject that became a major international discipline as the information  
41 age developed (Photographs 2a and b).  
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Photographs 2 (a) and (b) here

### 3.1.4 Large-scale systems

Shackel was concerned that the laboratory should not restrict itself to work on EMI products and systems and secured management agreement to offer the services of the laboratory to other companies. As a result the laboratory was able to work on product and systems development with design teams in a wide variety of environments. As a result of collaborations with Lisl Klein, then social science advisor in ESSO UK (Klein 1976), the laboratory created a mock-up of the bridge of an oil tanker in order to test bridge layout and equipment design for a new fleet of oil tankers. It also ran trials of alternative layouts for a new control room for the ESSO refuelling depot at Heathrow Airport (Shackel and Klein 1976). As Anderson and Beevis (1970) report, the group steadily developed the analytic and design skills to make systematic contributions across a broad range of human issues in complex system design including workload assessment, selection and training, task analysis and design, work group design, man-machine allocation of tasks and the design of equipment, environment and workspaces. This range of techniques was applied in system developments such as the development of an airline reservation system employing 200 reservation clerks and the design of an automated meat handling system for the Port of London (Shackel et al., 1967).

From small beginnings the group grew to over 10 full time professional staff in 1970. Although it had research interests its major contribution was to develop the methods and techniques for working with designers and engineers to translate ergonomics knowledge into forms that could influence the development of products and systems. Anderson and Beevis (1970) conclude that:

‘the presence of a specialised group like this laboratory in industry not only fulfils a need to that industry but by straddling the gap between university research and private consultants, points the way for the proper development of the subject’ (p. 232)

In 1970 Brian Shackel joined Loughborough University to create the HUSAT Group of researchers (later to become the HUSAT Research Institute) and continue his work on human-computer interaction. The Laboratory continues until this day and as a result of various changes of ownership is now part of Quintec Associates. In 2004 it celebrated 50 years of the work of the Laboratory. Today, the Laboratory sustains the

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3 focus on making integrated human factors contributions throughout the development  
4 life cycle of complex, usually military, systems.  
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### 8 9 3.2 Medical Research Council Applied Psychology Unit (MRC APU)

10 The MRC Applied Psychology Unit in Cambridge played an important and  
11 fundamental role in the development and application of UK ergonomics. During the  
12 preparation of the material in Waterson and Sell (2006) for example, the APU was  
13 consistently mentioned by those interviewed in terms of the quality of research it  
14 produced in applied ergonomics and experimental psychology. In addition, the APU  
15 was cited as one of the best examples of successful collaborations between  
16 researchers in ergonomics based at the unit, and their industrial counterparts.  
17 Photographs 3 (a) and (b) show some of the work conducted by the APU during the  
18 war on the redesign of operations rooms (Bartlett and Mackworth, 1950).  
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30 Photographs 3 (a) and (b) here  
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37 Part of its success can be attributed to the influence of Donald Broadbent (1926-1993)  
38 throughout the period (1958-1974) and his role as director of the APU. In his work at  
39 the APU, as well as elsewhere, Broadbent emphasised the need to relate theory to  
40 applied problems. As he stated in one of his books:  
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46 “.. the test of intellectual excellence of a psychological theory, as well as its moral  
47 justification, lies in its application to concrete practical situations” (Broadbent, 1973,  
48 p. 7).  
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53 This ethos seems to have dominated the work of researchers in ergonomics (human  
54 factors) in the APU during the period of Broadbent’s directorship:  
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58 “I think this broad range of human factors research was obviously drawing on, but  
59 also hopefully contributing to, theory development within the unit. The other point  
60 which I think is equally important is the collaborative way in which we set up

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3 research with outside organizations such as British Telecom, British Rail, the Post  
4 Office, the Coal Board, and so on. I think these groups not only benefited from the  
5 theoretical concepts that were being researched and developed within the unit; they  
6 also benefited from the methodology that unit staff were developing.” (Ivan Brown  
7 quoted in Reynolds and Tansey, 2001, p. 37)  
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14 The early work of the APU had been concerned with military problems arising from  
15 work carried out during the second world war such as pilot fatigue, the effects of  
16 environmental stress and the vigilance of radar operations (see Hayward, 2001 and  
17 MRC-CBU, 2005 for more information on the wartime and immediate post-war  
18 history of the APU). Between 1956 and 1970 the number of scientific staff employed  
19 at the APU remained relatively constant (approximately 20 scientists) with increases  
20 over time in the numbers of research assistants and other technical staff working on a  
21 variety of projects. Ivan Brown and colleagues (Brown, Batts and McGougan, 1970)  
22 provided an overview of these projects in a paper published in Applied Ergonomics  
23 and elaborated upon these during the discussion at the Witness Seminar held at the  
24 Wellcome Trust Centre in June 2001 (Reynolds and Tansey, 2001). Amongst the  
25 research topics were:  
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### 36 37 38 3.2.1 Application of psychological theories

39 Research on signal probability and response time and the relationship this had at the  
40 time to information theory (Broadbent, 1958), it's application to industrial inspection  
41 tasks and sonar detection (Colquhoun, 1967). The relationship between sleep loss and  
42 level of awareness over periods of time (Wilkinson, 1961). The application of theory  
43 to practical problems such as the relationship between the perception of written  
44 material and the style of printing used (Poulton, 1960); studies of searching strategies  
45 and fault-finding in electronic equipment (Dale, 1959).  
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### 53 54 3.2.2 Post office studies

55 From 1960 onwards the APU carried out a large number of studies under a  
56 consultancy agreement led by R. Conrad with the Post Office (later the Royal Mail).  
57 Conrad was appointed Human Factors consultant with the Post Office during the  
58 early 1960's and led studies that aimed to design communication systems that were  
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3 capable of being more efficiently used by the general public. These studies would  
4 today fall under the rubric of research in the area of improving the usability of  
5 everyday technologies such as telephones and visual displays. Conrad and his  
6 colleagues carried out studies on a variety of topics including the relationship  
7 between letter-sequence redundancy in short-term memory and the effective recall of  
8 the letters and digits that make up postal codes (Conrad, 1967) and the advantages of  
9 presenting telephone numbers as groups of digits rather than individually expressed in  
10 terms of theories of encoding in memory (Conrad, 1960).  
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### 30 3.2.3 Studies of car driving

31 Ivan Brown and his colleagues produced a number of important studies with practical  
32 implications concerning the influence of fatigue during prolonged driving on the  
33 impairment of skill. Brown's work is also possibly the earliest to address the currently  
34 topical issue of the impact using a mobile phone has upon attention whilst driving  
35 (Brown et al., 1969).  
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### 42 3.2.4 Physiological rhythms and shiftwork

43 A number of studies were carried out on the topic of the relationship between  
44 circadian rhythms and physiological changes such as body temperature, particularly  
45 as they related to shiftwork patterns. These studies had many practical implications  
46 for the design of rotating shift systems including the selection of individuals best  
47 suited to work efficiently according to this type of shift pattern (Colquhoun, 1967).  
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### 54 3.2.5 Designing for everyday life

55 Brown et al. (1971) point to the closer links with Europe which were forming at the  
56 end of the 1960's as one reason why research on designing systems that affected the  
57 general public became more frequent within the APU and elsewhere. For example,  
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3 the conversion to decimal currency in 1971 promoted studies of the visual and tactile  
4 properties of alternative design for decimal coinage (Wright et al., 1969)  
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### 8 9 3.3 British Iron and Steel Research Association (BISRA)

10 Sell (1971) and Crawley (1972) provide small-scale histories of ergonomics-related  
11 research and application within the British Iron and Steel Research Association  
12 (BISRA). BISRA came into existence following the second world war and received  
13 its income initially from a levy on all steel companies within the British Iron and  
14 Steel Federation. Funding was also provided from the USA by The Marshall Plan I  
15 the form of conditional aid funds (provided also to the Tavistock Institute in London).  
16 This was matched at the time by a grant from the Department of Scientific and  
17 Industrial Research (later renamed as the Ministry of Technology). In 1954 the total  
18 income of the BISRA was around £500,000, by 1971 this had risen to approximately  
19 £2.2 million pounds.  
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30 The origins of ergonomic work at BISRA can be traced back to the war time when the  
31 director between 1946-1969 (Sir Charles Goodeve) had been involved with  
32 operational research with the Admiralty. Similar links existed through the  
33 involvement of other individuals working at BISRA with the Ergonomics Society  
34 (Miss I.M. Slade) and previous experience using ergonomics within the aviation  
35 industry (Dr. L.N. Bramley). Some of the research topics carried out at BISRA  
36 included:  
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#### 43 44 3.3.1 Crane cab design

45 At the request of the DSIR the ergonomics group at BISRA became involved in the  
46 redesign of crane control cabs. One of the problems with the existing design of these  
47 types of machinery was that little thought had been given to the field of vision  
48 required by the driver. As a result of the building a workshop model the crane cab  
49 was redesigned and enabled sight lines to be determined for the cab driver, thereby  
50 increasing the safety of the cab as a whole (Sell, Box and Leyshon, 1961).  
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#### 58 59 3.3.2 Physical conditions of work

60 Because of the nature of working in the iron and steel industry, BISRA partly  
concentrated on research aimed at protecting workers against exposure to heat. Some

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3 of this work originated out of research projects in collaboration with the Medical  
4 Research Council's Environmental Physiology Research Unit. Part of this involved  
5 carrying out studies on the effects of radiant heat stress upon performance  
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7 (Ketterington, 1969).  
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### 25 3.3.3 Accidents and safety

26 In collaboration with the Tavistock Institute BISRA carried out investigations of the  
27 accident patterns of recently employed workers at a large Sheffield steelworks. Hill  
28 and Trist (1955) for example, over time workers learnt how to avoid accidents and  
29 that their absence patterns also eventually come into line with other workers in the  
30 rest of the factory. BISRA also carried out research on the effectiveness of safety  
31 posters and demonstrated their effectiveness, particularly within high risk work  
32 contexts (Laner and Sell, 1964).  
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### 40 3.3.4 Process operation

41 DSIR also financed a study of the skills involved in process operation with BISRA  
42 worked with E.R.F.W. Crossman at Oxford University and R.J. Beishon at Bristol  
43 University. This work involved taking measurements of the outputs from a steel mill  
44 and comparing these with recordings of the operator's behaviour. The outputs from  
45 these studies formed the basis of a set of new design recommendations for hot strip  
46 mills (Sell, Crossman and Box, 1961).  
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### 54 3.3.5 Man-computer interaction

55 A variety of different types of studies in what was then known as man-computer  
56 interaction were conducted at BISRA in the mid- to late-1960's. These included  
57 investigations of the legibility of different types of digital displays (Simpson, 1971),  
58 allocation of function and automation, as well as larger-scale simulations of the  
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3 decision-making of operators when interacting with large-scale computer-generated  
4 data (Ketteringham, 1970).  
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#### 10 **4. Changing perspectives in ergonomics**

11 Over the course of the last forty years a huge amount of change has occurred within  
12 industry and society. For example, the three research institutes, laboratories and units  
13 described in section 3 no longer exist. Many other changes have been brought about  
14 to the nature of research and practice within ergonomics (Stanton and Stammers,  
15 2008b). Table 5 sets out some of these.  
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##### 32 4.1 The nature of work

33 Perhaps the single biggest change that has occurred since the establishment of  
34 ergonomics after the second world war have been the changes that have occurred to  
35 the nature of work. In the immediate post-war period, ergonomists were preoccupied  
36 with subjects such as fatigue brought on by jobs or tasks which often stretched  
37 workers to their physical and physical limits. McFarland (1971) describes how some  
38 of the work conducted using the “Cambridge Cockpit” at the APU for example,  
39 demonstrated that pilots routinely suffered from psychological stress, as well as  
40 fatigue brought on by long working periods of flying, which significantly decreased  
41 their levels of skill and timing. During the 1950’s and 1960’s the focus of research  
42 within ergonomics changed to attempts to understand the combined effects of  
43 physical and mental workload, alongside aspects of environmental context and the  
44 tools/machines used by workers (Burger and DeJong, 1962). The increase of  
45 automation in factories in the mid to late 1960’s meant that workers were often in the  
46 position of “machine minders”, as a result topics such as monotony and boredom  
47 began to be studied under the heading of job design (Broadbent, 1961; Edholm,  
48 1970). The impact of UK legislation on Health and Safety during the early 1970’s,  
49 alongside prominent disasters such as the one that occurred at Flixborough in 1974  
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3 changed the nature of research in ergonomics once again. During the 1970's  
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5 ergonomist increasingly began to examine safety and the causes of accidents and  
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7 disasters in more depth as compared to earlier studies (Turner, 1978). The field of job  
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9 design also began to address the issue of workplace stress and the impact this had  
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11 upon worker performance and absenteeism (Cox, 1978).

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14 Within UK ergonomics more widely there has been a great deal of continuity in terms  
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16 of the types of domains which have been investigated and areas where practising  
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18 ergonomists work. Military ergonomics for example, continues to be a focus of  
19  
20 investigation, as well as forming one of the largest areas of employment for  
21  
22 ergonomists. More recently, other areas have risen to prominence (e.g., health care  
23  
24 ergonomics) alongside more traditional domains such as transport (e.g., railway and  
25  
26 aviation ergonomics). What is perhaps more evident is that the predictions made by  
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28 many in the 1960's that employees would spend less time at work and more time in  
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30 leisure activities have not come true.

#### 31 32 4.2 The role of the ergonomist

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34 One of the most frequent comments that came about during the interviews with  
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36 ergonomists active in the Ergonomics Society (Waterson and Sell, 2006) was it was  
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38 possible in the 1960's for one person to have an overview of all of the various aspects  
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40 and components of ergonomics. Many people stressed that the introduction of courses  
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42 at the beginning of the 1960's had resulted in ergonomists who were capable of  
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44 adopting a "holistic" or "whole systems" perspective in tackling applied problems. By  
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46 the end of the beginning of the 1970's it was becoming clearer that ergonomists were  
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48 becoming more specialised. One of the main reasons for this was the growth of the  
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50 discipline and the spread of ergonomics into domains which required detailed  
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52 knowledge and specific skills.

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54 In the very early days following the second world war it appears that those involved  
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56 in ergonomics were trying to establish an identity for themselves. Chapanis (1999)  
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58 notes that human factors researchers and ergonomists were in close competition with  
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60 established professions such as engineering, mathematics and physics. During the  
1960's the growth of ergonomics in industry was more successful in the UK, as  
compared to the USA (Drury, 2008a). In subsequent decades the subject matter of

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3 ergonomics within the UK became more diversified. One negative outcome from the  
4 expansion of ergonomics was that some of its “territory” was lost to other disciplines.  
5 During the 1960’s for example, the subject matter of design was made up of various  
6 interdisciplinary groups (Murrell, 1985) and it was normal for ergonomists to work  
7 alongside designers, engineers and other related professions in pursuit of a common  
8 task (e.g., product design). Over the course of time, two developments seem to have  
9 taken place. Firstly, ergonomists became “decoupled” from design and marginalised,  
10 their activities sometimes seen as relevant, but not essential as compared to other  
11 concerns (e.g., design aesthetics). Sudjic (2008) notes that this development is true of  
12 design as a whole and not just ergonomics, during the 1960’s a paramount  
13 consideration was practicality and meeting the needs of consumers, whereas in the  
14 1980’s and 90’s the emphasis shifted to manufacturer’s perceptions of consumers  
15 needs. A second development was that other disciplines started to use ergonomics  
16 themselves without actually involving ergonomists. For example, in the 1980’s and  
17 90’s human-computer interaction (HCI) came about as a subject in universities and  
18 industry and much of HCI borrowed concepts and ideas from ergonomics. In many  
19 respects the success of ergonomics in industry in the 1960’s also proved to be  
20 something of a disadvantage in subsequent decades.  
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### 37 4.3 Growth of theory and methodology

38 One of the biggest changes to have occurred over the last forty years is the growth of  
39 theory and methodology within ergonomics. At the beginning of the 1960’s it wasn’t  
40 clear what separated ergonomists from other groupings (e.g., work study engineers-  
41 time and motion (Hailsham, 1961). By the end of the 1960’s it was clear that there  
42 was a need for specific methods and techniques which could be used within  
43 specialised domains or to address generic problems in ergonomics (e.g., task  
44 analysis). What is perhaps most interesting about the period is how many of the  
45 studies that are described, irrespective of whether they were industrial or university-  
46 based, involved the use of experiments or laboratory-based investigations. Most  
47 studies involved some sort of tightly controlled experimental procedure where the  
48 types of outcome measures involved reaction times or other quantifiable dependent  
49 measures. In the 1970’s studies became more eclectic and techniques such as error  
50 analysis and reliability assessment started to appear. Only in the 1980’s did the first  
51 qualitative studies start to appear within ergonomics. The first mention of the need to  
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3 assess the costs and benefits of ergonomic interventions can be traced back to the  
4 Society lecture given by Bonjer in 1971 (Bonjer, 1971).  
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#### 8 9 4.4 Other changes

10 In the course of reading through material from the 1960's it is clear that there was a  
11 huge amount of enthusiasm for ergonomics, not only amongst ergonomists  
12 themselves, but also amongst industrialists and researchers from other disciplines.  
13 The era was characterised by a "can do" type of attitude where applying the results of  
14 research to practical problems was common and to a large extent taken for granted.  
15 Amongst ergonomists there was also a great deal of faith in the ability of technology  
16 to deliver clear benefits to society at large (Drury, 2008b). This situation has changed  
17 over the subsequent decades and the drive to establish ergonomics as an academic  
18 discipline has taken on more and more importance. Similarly, during the 1960's it  
19 appears that many people thought they were on the edge of a breakthrough and that  
20 ergonomics would establish itself as a discipline with a clear identity and existence in  
21 its own right. Whether this has been achieved today is a source of continual debate,  
22 however, it seems that there is still a long way to go before these objectives are met.  
23 Much can be learnt from the work carried out by British ergonomists in the 1960's  
24 and it remains to be seen how many issues then current, remerge as topics of interest  
25 in the future.  
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43 suggestions for improvement to the paper.  
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**Table 1: Characteristics of focus of ergonomics over the years (Shackel, 1991)**

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1950s	Military ergonomics
1960s	Industrial ergonomics
1970s	Consumer ergonomics
1980s	Computer ergonomics
1990s	Information ergonomics
2000+	Leisure ergonomics
	Space ergonomics

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Table 2: Timeline of events

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
1949	Ergonomics Research Society formed (July)	Balance of payments crisis for Attlee's government leads to sterling's devaluation against dollar
1950		Attlee Government elected (February)
1951	Symposium held in Birmingham on "Human Factor in Equipment Design" (Floyd and Welford, 1954)	Festival of Britain (May)
		Churchill Government elected (October)
1952	Symposium held in Cranfield on "Fatigue" (Floyd and Welford, 1953)	Queen Elizabeth II crowned
1953	European Productivity Agency (EPA) Meeting held in Zurich	Watson and Crick discover structure of DNA in Cambridge (April)
1954	EMI Laboratory set up by Brian Shackel	Roger Bannister runs the first four-minute mile
1955	Joint MRC/DSIR Conference on "Individual Efficiency in Industry" held in Cambridge – 31 <sup>st</sup> March – 1 <sup>st</sup> April. (Conference was hosted by Sir Frederick Bartlett and attended by a number of industrial representatives).	Eden Government elected (May)
		Commercial TV starts in the UK (September)
1956	EPA sponsored mission to USA (later published as Murrell, 1958)	Clean Air Act passed in Parliament (July)
		First Nuclear Power station opens (Calder Hall) (October)
		Suez Crisis (November)

**Table 2: Timeline of events**

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
1957	Ergonomics journal first issue	Eden resigns as prime minister (Macmillan replaces him) (January)
		UK tests first hydrogen bomb (May)
1958	British Productivity Council produces a film "Fitting the Job to the Worker"	Windscale nuclear reactor disaster Motorway system opens (M6 Preston Bypass)
1959	Ergonomics Research Society Conference – 10 years of Ergonomics	Macmillan Government elected
	Establishment of first professorial Chair in Ergonomics at Loughborough (W.F. Floyd)	
1960	European Productivity Agency Conference, Zurich. DSIR Conference on Ergonomics in Industry	Penguin Books found not guilty of obscenity in the "Lady Chatterley's Lover" case
1961	Publication of Murrell's "Fitting the Job to the Worker"	
	1 <sup>st</sup> IEA Congress (Stockholm)	Russian astronaut Gagarin orbits the earth
	Postgraduate course in Ergonomics set up at Loughborough by W.F. Floyd (Stone, 2009)	
	One year course in ergonomics set at Cranfield (designed for military and civil service personnel)	
	Masters course in Ergonomics (MSc) set up at	



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**Table 2: Timeline of events**

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
1962	Loughborough University DSIR issues “Ergonomics in Industry” Handbooks (later published as Applied Ergonomics Handbook - 1 <sup>st</sup> Edition, edited by Brian Shackel, 1974)	Cuban missile crisis (October)
1963	MSc course in “Work Design and Ergonomics” set up at Birmingham University	France vetoes UK’s entry into Common Market (January)  Robbins Report of Education (new universities are established) (October)  Macmillan resigns as prime minister (Hume replaces him) (October)
1964	Sir Harry Melville addresses the Ergonomics Society Conference – lecture mentions the increasing importance of systems approaches within ergonomics	Abolition of Resale Price Maintenance (opens up the possibilities for transformation of the retail sector)  Wilson Government elected (October)
1965	First undergraduate courses in ergonomics offered at Loughborough University (Stone, 2009) . First graduates from the course in 1968. Social Science Research Council set up (December)	Industrial Training Act  Nationalisation of the Steel Industry (May)  Nuclear Installations Act 1965  Comprehensive School system introduced (July)

Table 2: Timeline of events

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
1966	“Human Operator in Complex Systems” meeting at University of Aston	Death Penalty abolished (November) England win the football world cup (July)
1967	IEA Congress held in Birmingham (held under the patronage of HRH Prince Philip)	Abortion and homosexuality legalised First Heart Transplant Operation (December)
1969	ERS celebrates 20 years of Ergonomics Applied Ergonomics first issue	Concorde aircraft makes its maiden flight Landing on the Moon
1970	Set up of Institute of Consumer Ergonomics (ICE), and HUSAT at Loughborough	Heath Government elected
1971	High involvement of Ergonomics Research Society members with standards and attendance at BSI committees	First British soldier killed during the “troubles” in Northern Ireland (February) Decimalisation introduced North Sea Oil concessions are auctioned (August)
1972	Tom Singleton gives annual Society lecture on Human Error	“Bloody Sunday”, Northern Ireland (August) Expelled Ugandan Asians settle in UK

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**Table 2: Timeline of events**

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
<b>1973</b>	18 UK Universities and Institutes in total offer courses of one form or another in Ergonomics	UK joins European Economic Community  Oil price soars as OPEC cuts supply to US and western Europe.  UK enters recession
<b>1974</b>	Increasing evidence of research on consumer ergonomics (e.g., Whitfield, 1972; Ward, 1974)	Wilson elected after “hung parliament”  Health and Safety at Work Act 1974

**Table 3: Topics of Research – representative book publications**

<b>Publication</b>	<b>Contents</b>
Ergonomics – Man in His Working Environment (Murrell, 1965)	Introduction: the nature of ergonomics Part 1: the elements of ergonomic practice The physical basis of man's perception of his environment The human body: Bones, joints and muscles; metabolism and heat regulation; body size, limits of movement and functioning of limbs; the nervous system. Man as a system component Part 2: practical ergonomics Design factors: layout of equipment; design of seating; design of instrumental displays; compatibility; design characteristics of controls. Environmental factors: environmental temperature and humidity; noise; the visual environment; vibration. Organizational factors: methods of investigating work; the organization of work; inspection; shift work; age.
Psychology of Work (1 <sup>st</sup> Edition, edited by Peter Warr, 1971)	Theory and Application in Psychology (Broadbent) Shiftwork (Wilkinson) Skill Performance and Stress (Poulton) Learning (Annett) Man-Machine Systems (Singleton) Accidents (Kay) Ageing (Griew) Selection (Drenth) Occupational Guidance (Lancashire) Judgements of People at Work (Warr) Decision-making (Sime) Managers – Effectiveness and Training (Fineman) Motivation (Blackler and Williams) Employee Participation (Hespe and Little) Intergroup relations and bargaining (Stephenson) Organisations as psychological environments (Payne)
Introduction to Ergonomics (Singleton, 1972)	The provision of energy The application of forces Problems of body size and posture The effects of climate Limitations of the sense organs The design of controls The design of displays Man/machine information exchange Temporal, social and economic conditions of work Age, fatigue, vigilance and accidents Acquisition of evidence about individual behaviour Acquisition of evidence about system behaviour The design of work Assessment, presentation, and interpretation of evidence Retrospect and prospect
Applied Ergonomics	Industrial use of Ergonomics (Singleton)

**Table 3: Topics of Research – representative book publications**

<b>Publication</b>	<b>Contents</b>
Handbook (1 <sup>st</sup> Edition, edited by Brian Shackel, 1974 – first published as series of booklets issued by DSIR)	Instruments and People (Shackel and Whitfield) Design of Work for the Disabled (Griew) Inspection and human efficiency (Belbin) Ergonomics versus Accidents (Sell) Noise in Industry (Broadbent) Men, Machines and Control (Provins) Thermal Comfort in Industry (Fox) Lighting of Workplaces (Longmore) Seating in Industry (Branton) Layout of Workspaces (Jones) Current trends towards Systems Design (Singleton)

**Table 4: Syllabus for a two-week appreciation course on the “Design of Equipment for Human Use” (Wade, 1961)**

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11	The Body as a Heat Engine and the Problem of Physical Fatigue
12	The Human Being as a Receiver and Processor of Information
13	The Need to Experiment, and the Problems of Experimenting on Human Performance
14	Body Structure and the Limits of Limb Movement
15	The Use of Statistics
16	Anthropometry, Seating and Manual Weight Lifting
17	The Contribution of Motion Study to Equipment Design
18	Photographic Techniques of Motion Study
19	Planning Experiments
20	Display of Information
21	Vigilance and Inspection
22	Control Design
23	The Layout of Equipment
24	The Working Environment: Lighting, Colour Radiant Heat and Noise
25	Load, Speed and Stress
26	The Effect of Ageing on Performance
27	The Application of Ergonomics; Physiology, Anthropometry and Physiology
28	Ergonomics and Automation
29	The Human Factors in Equipment Design
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**Table 5: Changing Perspectives in Ergonomics**

	<b>1940s/1950's</b>	<b>1960's</b>	<b>1970's</b>	<b>Present Day</b>
<b>Characteristics of Work and Society</b>	Manual, repetitive tasks	Increasing automation in the workplace	Health and safety concerns, unemployment	Decline in manufacturing sector and rise of service industries, global working
<b>Characteristics</b>	Dominance of military Ergonomics	Rise of Industrial Ergonomics	Consumer Ergonomics takes off	Health and Safety ergonomics increases in importance
<b>Developments</b>	Fatigue, controls and displays	Systems ergonomics	Safety-critical ergonomics (e.g., Nuclear)	Focus on bespoke methods, tools and techniques within ergonomics
<b>Changes to Academic Ergonomics</b>	No courses in universities, subjects too new	University courses started, short courses for industry	Further expansion of courses and broader coverage of topics	Many courses, although some threats to existence
<b>Changes to Practice</b>	Move from a wartime "back room" operation to industry	Many practitioners in industry	Smaller-scale consultancies begin	Large range of consultancies with a range of sizes, many consultancies specialised in certain areas
<b>The role of the Ergonomist</b>	No real role as such, specialisms (e.g., psychology, physiology)	Generalist – experience of most areas of ergonomics	Increasing specialisation, generalist role dying out	Specialist, expert
<b>Domains</b>	Military, Engineering, Transport, Iron and Steel	Computer ergonomics, Transport	Nuclear, consumer ergonomics	Diverse range of domains, new areas such as healthcare

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For Peer Review Only



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3 **Photographs**  
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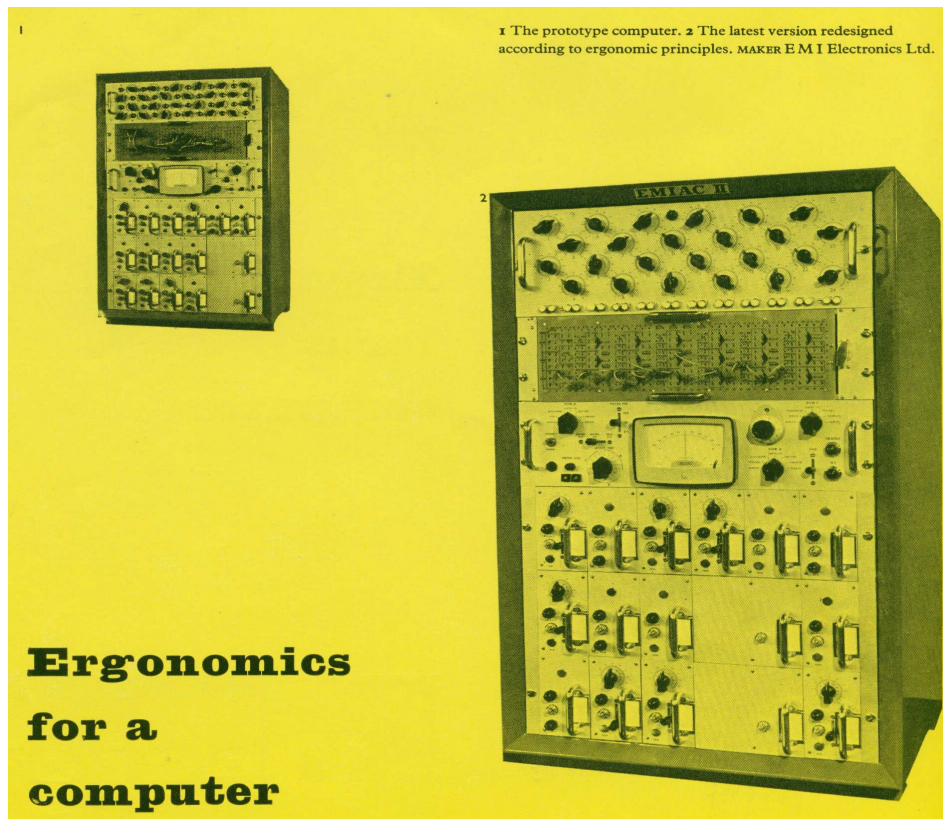
7 **Photograph 1: Faulty position of on-off-switch on electric bread cutter**  
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36 **Caption:** The position of the on-off switch leads to serious risk of slicing the right  
37 thumb (Hesketh and Whittington, Data collection feasibility study on home accidents)  
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Photograph 2 (a): Installation of EMIac analogue computers - prototype



Source: Shackel, B. (1959), Ergonomics for a computer. Design, 120, 36-9, and Shackel, B. (1959) A note on panel layout for numbers of identical items. Ergonomics, 2, 247-253

Source: Shackel, B. (1959), Ergonomics for a computer. Design, 120, 36-9, and Shackel, B. (1959) A note on panel layout for numbers of identical items. Ergonomics, 2, 247-253

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4 **Photograph 2 (b): Installation of EMIac analogue computers - ergonomically**  
5 **redesigned production machine**  
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3 **Photograph 3 (a): Wartime control room showing problems of distance and**  
4 **limited viewing angle of controllers from the plotting table**  
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52 **Caption:** Source – Bartlett and Mackworth (1950) Planned Seeing (Visibility in the  
53 Control Rooms of Fighter Command); Air Publication 3139B, London HMSO.  
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6 **Photograph 3 (b) Improved structure with controllers nearer to and above the**  
7 **plotting table.**  
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31 **Caption:** Source – Bartlett and Mackworth (1950) Planned Seeing (Visibility in the  
32 Control Rooms of Fighter Command); Air Publication 3139B, London HMSO.  
33 Although not published until after WW2 these studies were carried out 1943-5.  
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6 **Photograph 4: MRC APU research in the Post Office**  
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34 **Caption:** In the early 1960s mechanization of letter-sorting envisaged a keyboard  
35 operator copying postcodes to enable mail to be sorted electronically, as illustrated  
36 above. (Source: Reynolds and Tansey, 2003)  
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**Photograph 5 (a): Helmet designed within British Steel**



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Photograph 5 (b) Diagram of inside the helmet and its workings



**Caption:** This breathing protection helmet was developed by ergonomists at the British Steel Corporation led by David R Davies; it received a Design Council Award for innovative Design and a Queen's Award to Industry for the manufacturer



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**“1966 and All That”: Trends and Developments in UK Ergonomics  
during the 1960’s**

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## Abstract

The 1960's represent a key decade in the expansion of ergonomics within the UK. In this paper we review trends and developments that emerged out of the 1960's and compare these with ergonomics research and practice today. We focus in particular on the expansion of ergonomics as a discipline within industry, as well as more specific topics such as: the emergence of areas of interest such as computers and technology; automation and systems ergonomics; and, consumer ergonomics. We illustrate our account with a detailed timeline of developments, a set of industrial case studies and the contents of important publications during the decade. A key aim of the paper is to provide the opportunity to reflect on the past and the implications this may have for future directions for ergonomics within the UK.

## Statement of Relevance for Ergonomics Practice

The paper provides practitioners with an insight into the development of ergonomics in the UK during one of the most important decades of its history. This is especially relevant given the fact that in 2009 the Ergonomics Society celebrates its 60<sup>th</sup> anniversary.

## Keywords

General ergonomics; industrial ergonomics; human-machine systems; consumer ergonomics.

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*“Machines are ahead of human beings; things control minds; society is limping and stumbling as it tries to keep up with technological change” Calvino (1962)*

## 1. Introduction

The quote from the Italian writer Italo Calvino was made during a debate held on “industry and literature” at the beginning of the 1960’s. Calvino sums up what were to become dominant themes in later accounts of the period, namely the growth of automation and the increasing role played by technology within society. Both of these themes are important within ergonomics and continue today as sources of debate in research and practical applications of the subject. Similarly, many issues have declined in interest or relevance as compared to forty years ago. Much has been written about the origins of ergonomics (e.g., Waterson and Sell, 2006; Stammers, 2007; **Stanton and Stammers, 2008a**; Moray, 2008), alongside other discussions centred around pioneers within ergonomics and the future of the discipline. (e.g., Frederic Bartlett). By comparison, little detailed information is available covering specific periods within the development of ergonomics. In this paper we focus on the 1960’s within UK ergonomics for a number of reasons. Firstly, the 1960’s can be seen as a mid-point between the immediate post-war roots and birth of ergonomics, and its subsequent development into a fully fledged discipline. Secondly, during the 1960’s ergonomics became firmly established within industry and made firm steps towards closer engagement with civil, government and industrial users and practitioners (Chapman and Stone, 1964). The late Brian Shackel (1927-2007) in a paper written to celebrate the 50<sup>th</sup> anniversary of ergonomics within EMI (Shackel, 1991 – table 1), viewed the period as a bridge between earlier work on military ergonomics and a later focus on consumer ergonomics in the 1970’s.

Table 1 here

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3 In 2009 the UK Ergonomics Society celebrates it's 60<sup>th</sup> Anniversary. It seems timely  
4 and appropriate to stand back and review trends and developments over the period  
5 and compare these with present day ergonomics.  
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### 10 **1.1 Historical sources and materials**

11 We draw on a number of different sources of information relating to the 1960's.  
12 These include general histories covering the immediate post-war period and  
13 subsequent decades (e.g., Sandbrook, 2005; 2006; Thomson, 1965), as well as  
14 publications relating to ergonomics available in books and journals written in the  
15 1960's and more recently. Historians sometimes refer to the interval between 1956-  
16 1974 as the "long 1960's" (Sandbrook, 2006) and accordingly we have used these  
17 dates as starting and end points in the paper. We also make reference to materials  
18 which were used to prepare a history of the Ergonomics Society (Waterson and Sell,  
19 2006 - e.g., the outcomes from interviews held with ergonomists and other prominent  
20 individuals). Finally, some of the materials used in the paper are based on an archive  
21 of material from the late Brian Shackel (e.g., photographs).  
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### 33 **2. Significant events and milestones**

34 The years leading up to the 1960's proved to be eventful ones for ergonomics in the  
35 UK. In 1959 the Ergonomics Research Society (ERS) held its annual conference and  
36 celebrated at the same time the first 10 years of the Society. One account of the  
37 conference at the time (Rodger, 1959), raised the issue of the identity of ergonomics  
38 and what members of the Ergonomics Society had in common - was it simply made  
39 up of individuals drawn from "certain technological wings of certain human sciences,  
40 and their agents and users in industry?". Whilst this question has relevance today  
41 (e.g., current changes to the name of the Ergonomics Society), it is clear that by the  
42 end of the 1960's that the debate had moved on and other matters were taking  
43 precedence (e.g., the involvement of practitioners).  
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54 During the 1950's and to some extent the early part of the 1960's, there was a  
55 concern that within the UK that ergonomics was very much aligned with work study  
56 and the activities of work study engineers (e.g., evaluation of workplace lighting, time  
57 and motion studies). By the end of the decade ergonomics had become established,  
58 not only within the universities, but also within industry. These developments  
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3 accordingly brought about changes to the nature of the discipline, as well as the role  
4 of the ergonomist. Table 2 sets out a timeline covering significant developments  
5 within ergonomics in the UK alongside wider historical events and societal changes.  
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## 21 2.1 Events leading up to the 1960's

### 22 2.1.1 Activities centred around the European Productivity Agency

23 The activities of the European Productivity Agency (EPA) and the close relationship  
24 it had with the ERS during the 1950's helped to establish and raise the profile of  
25 ergonomics within industry. The EPA was a body that worked under the auspices of  
26 the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) and in 1954 a  
27 working party was set up to consider the possibility of an international conference to  
28 promote ergonomics in industry (Edholm and Murrell, 1973, p. 24). The plans for a  
29 conference were subsequently postponed, however, in the meantime the EPA  
30 proposed that a sponsored visit to the USA by a European party should be organised.  
31 The visit to the USA subsequently took place in 1956 with Tom Singleton as the  
32 representative from the UK and K.F.H. Murrell as the organising secretary. The  
33 outcomes from the visit were later presented at a seminar in Leiden in March-April  
34 1957. The title of the Leiden seminar was "Fitting the Job to the Worker" and  
35 involved 7 ERS members including Singleton, Murrell, R. Sell, W.F. Floyd and R.  
36 Stansfield (Edholm and Murrell, 1973, p. 26). In 1959 the plans for an EPA  
37 sponsored conference were revived and the conference was held in March in Zurich.  
38 The conference brought together scientists, employers and trade unionists with the  
39 aim "to change attitudes to work in the field of ergonomics rather than immediately to  
40 convey a great deal of factual material" (Edholm and Murrell, 1973, p. 27). The  
41 Zurich conference led on to a subsequent conference in 1960 sponsored by the  
42 Department of Science and Industry (DSIR).  
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### 2.1.2 Department of Science and Industrial (DISR) Research Conference 1960

At the start of the decade a conference on “Ergonomics and Industry” took place in London (27<sup>th</sup>-29<sup>th</sup> September 1960). The title of the DSIR conference reflected the degree to which ergonomics had taken off as a subject for application within industrial settings and had evolved from its wartime, military roots. Some indication of the importance of the conference can be gathered from the fact that the opening address was given by the then Minister for Science, Viscount Hailsham. Similarly, the fact the conference was sponsored by the government at the time, provides further evidence that ergonomics was taken seriously by politicians and policy makers.

In total over 200 companies were represented at the conference and papers were presented covering a diverse range of industries and services (e.g., London Transport, British Steel, Smiths Instruments). The proceedings from the conference (DSIR, 1961) records that 8 symposia took place, ranging in theme from “The Place of Ergonomics in Industry”, “Ergonomics and Products” to “The Future of Ergonomics”. The latter symposium provides some clues as to what ergonomists were concerned with at the time, as well as their predictions for the future. W.F. Floyd for example, speaking of the problems of defining what was meant by ergonomics commented that:

“I think this puts us in the position of being able to say that there is no such a thing as an ergonomist – yet. I believe that might be when this process reaches maturity, but I do not foresee this happening for a number of years” (DSIR, 1961, p. 161).

In the same symposium Donald Broadbent commented that predictions of the future were likely to be doomed to failure, whilst also suggesting that ergonomics would expand from a consideration of manual labour to a consideration of management issues:

“what will those people [*ergonomists*] be doing? In part, the same things that they are doing today; but only in part. I suspect in the year to come there will be wider applications, with the disconcerting result that the board of directors as well as the man on the shop floor will be the subject of ergonomic study” (DSIR, 1961, pp. 159-160).

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5 The theme of the role of ergonomists in industry and changes to the nature of work  
6 will be addressed later on in the paper in section 4. In the next section, we examine in  
7 more detail the topics of interest that preoccupied researchers and practitioners during  
8 the 1960's.  
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## 12 13 14 15 16 **2.2 Topics of interest in academia and practice**

17 One way of gaining insight into the topics which preoccupied the minds of  
18 ergonomists and related professions (e.g., applied psychologists) is to look at the  
19 types of textbooks and training courses which were published and available for study  
20 over the decade. Table 3 sets out the contents pages of four books that were published  
21 from 1965-1974. In addition, the syllabus for a short course in ergonomics from 1961  
22 is presented in table 4.  
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Tables 3 and 4 here

Looking through the contents of both the textbooks and courses from the 1960's and today the first impression is how little seems to have changed. The comments made by Broadbent (DSIR, 1961) above seem to have partly come true. Many of the topics we would expect to find today in postgraduate courses in ergonomics for example, were being taught, albeit with a different content and emphasis, forty years ago. This is perhaps unsurprising given the nature of ergonomics. However, what has changed the most would seem to be the expansion of the basic core elements of ergonomics (e.g., anthropometry, control and display design) into more specialised areas of investigation (e.g., posture and comfort, human-computer interaction). These changes had implications for the role of the practising ergonomist, moving from someone capable of having an overview of all of the topics in ergonomics spanning anatomy, physiology and psychology, to a more specialist role (section 4.2). In addition, by the end of the 1960's techniques for evaluation and design within ergonomics (e.g., task

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3 analysis) begin to make an appearance. The trend toward the development of methods  
4 and techniques designed for specific application domains within ergonomics  
5 continues up until the present day. The next section focuses in more detail on a  
6 selection of topics which reflect both continuity and change over the course of the  
7 1960's to the present day.  
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## 13 14 15 16 **2.3 Focus on selected topics**

### 17 2.3.1 Computers and technology

18 Throughout the 1960s, with the advent of interactive computing, computer  
19 applications were spreading quickly in business and industry. Computer processing  
20 was undertaken by large, mainframe machines that had hitherto been the province of  
21 computer specialists. Now “time sharing” systems enabled a mainframe to service  
22 many remote terminals at the same time and people who were not computer  
23 specialists could experience an interactive dialogue with the computer. At first this  
24 was undertaken using teletype machines but these were soon superseded by visual  
25 display units or terminals (VDT's). The widespread use of interactive computing  
26 raised many human issues and ergonomists quickly became involved in research,  
27 evaluation and design roles. In all three of the case studies to be reported in section 3,  
28 for example, the ergonomic teams were engaged in the development of various forms  
29 human-computer interaction. At first the dominant concerns were familiar hardware  
30 and environmental subjects: the “knobs and dials” of the keyboard and the display,  
31 the workstation and the lighting. Cakir, Hart and Stewart (1980) produced an early  
32 “VDT manual” to provide design guidance on these subjects.  
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48 However, it soon became evident that interactive computing also created some new  
49 challenges for human performance. One was response times. Early forms of time  
50 sharing could produce delays in responses from the computer that could last minutes  
51 at any point in the dialogue and this proved very disruptive to task oriented thought  
52 processes. Today, this problem is only apparent when we want to download large  
53 files and the response speeds have largely disappeared from the research agenda.  
54 However, the issue of software ergonomics that became recognised in this period has  
55 become progressively more significant. Early forms of dialogue with computers were  
56 based on the programming languages used by computer professionals, but these were  
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3 not a good basis for human-computer interaction when the humans were accountants,  
4 clerks, engineers, managers and so on; people who were naïve users with respect to  
5 computers. So the search began for forms of software interaction that would be  
6 natural and easy for the ever-widening population of computer users. By the mid-  
7 seventies this had distilled into the search for usability (Shackel, 1984) and, as  
8 personal computers came into being, “point and click” graphical interfaces exploiting  
9 the capabilities of the mouse were fast becoming the de facto standards for human-  
10 computer interaction. Ergonomists played leading roles in this process. The HUSAT  
11 (Human Sciences and Advanced Technology) Research Institute at Loughborough  
12 University was established in 1970 and specialised in the study of human aspects of  
13 computing technology and many information technology companies such as IBM,  
14 Phillips and British Telecom began to establish human factors groups and usability  
15 laboratories in which to test their new products.  
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28 Although there were a number of attempts to undertake theory-driven research in this  
29 field (e.g. Card, Moran and Newell, 1983), the main emphasis was applied; to create  
30 standards and style guides for interaction design, to establish usability evaluation  
31 methods and to institutionalise usability design as an integral part of the way new  
32 products and systems were developed. By the 1980s human-computer interaction and  
33 usability engineering was developing into a major international sub-discipline  
34 occupying a territory somewhere between computer science and ergonomics. The  
35 first international conference in the INTERACT series was held in London in 1976  
36 and the journal Behaviour and Information Technology was launched in 1981.  
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46 Today human-computer interaction is a feature not just of commercial systems but of  
47 a wide variety of consumer products and it is a testament to workers in this field that  
48 a large proportion of the population can now make regular use of these sophisticated  
49 products without any specialist training. There is now a large army of usability  
50 engineers in companies around the world dedicated to ensuring that new products  
51 meet human factors standards. It is sobering, however, to note that these professionals  
52 are more likely to have computer science qualifications than degrees in ergonomics.  
53 Ownership of this inherently multi-disciplinary subject was always an issue  
54 exemplified by the use of the term human-computer interaction (HCI) by ergonomists  
55 and the term computer-human interaction (CHI) by computer professionals. It was the  
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3 CHI professionals who actually designed usable forms of interaction such as the  
4 graphics interface. Ergonomists who work professionally in this field are increasingly  
5 also gaining qualifications in information technology so that they can play a full role  
6 in the development of new products and systems.  
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### 10 11 12 2.3.2 Automation and systems ergonomics

13 One of the many developments that came about as a result of the increasing  
14 automation of tasks, was the formation of what later became established as systems  
15 ergonomics. Singleton's (1958) work within the shoe industry for example, had  
16 underlined the importance of understanding the combined influence of management,  
17 technology and human-machine components on work and productivity. Likewise  
18 Welford's (1960) booklet in the DSIR series on "Ergonomics and Automation" linked  
19 ideas from systems theory to human and machine performance issues. Sir Harry  
20 Melville's (1964) address to the Ergonomics Society gives some idea of the positive  
21 light in which the systems approach was viewed:  
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32 "The machine and its operator inevitably form a single system in which the  
33 characteristics of both contribute significantly to the performance of the whole. The  
34 human characteristics concerned include not only the basic capacities of the human  
35 body and brain, but also the effects of individual and social experience, the aims,  
36 ambitions, hope and fear that a man brings to any task he performs".  
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42 The symposium held in 1967 on the "Human Operator in Complex Systems" at Aston  
43 University brought together a number of researchers and practitioners from academia  
44 and industry with interests and enthusiasm for systems ergonomics. Singleton (1967)  
45 described how reading the concepts and ideas that had come from systems theory as a  
46 "eureka experience", whilst at the same time noting that there were many who were  
47 sceptical of the systems approach. This had in itself led to a new schism with  
48 ergonomics. In the 1950's there had been tensions between psychologists and  
49 physiologists, by the later 1960's attention was more focused on those who came  
50 from the "knobs and dials" tradition and those who were perceived as "systems men".  
51 Singleton cites research on management decision-making (e.g., the work of Lisl Klein  
52 and colleagues), vigilance and workload, as well as the views of the general public  
53 toward automation as important topics worthy of future investigation. The  
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symposium also contains contributions covering issues such as allocation of function (Whitfield, 1967), automation in meat handling (Shackel et al., 1967) and the role of the operator in specific contexts (e.g., the National Grid – Sell and Pulsford, 1967). It is worthwhile noting in passing that the systems approach in recent years has gained in popularity in a number of domains (e.g., safety and health care ergonomics) and many of the issues mentioned in the symposium (e.g., shortage of hospital beds, motorway crashes – Jones, 1967) are as topical today as compared to over forty years ago.

### 2.3.3 Job and work design

The 1960s was a decade when motivation to work, job satisfaction and job design were important topics on the research agenda. One reason was that many of the industrial jobs in manufacturing at the time involved repetitive tasks and machine pacing and many studies had shown that operators in these jobs had low levels of job satisfaction. They tended to be alienated from both the companies they worked for and the work systems they were part of. The poor industrial relations climate in the UK in particular during this time meant that both industrialists and government were interested in improving the lot of people at work. Many of the researchers in this field came from industrial sociology and occupational psychology, but ergonomists also recognised the applied importance of these issues. Welford, for example, in the Ergonomics Society lecture in 1966 emphasised the need to understand motivation and job satisfaction if we were to fully understand the factors that affected performance at work (Welford, 1966).

Many theories emerged from research in this period. The most popular were the relatively simple and easy to grasp theories of Maslow and Herzberg which could be used to explain the relative roles played in job satisfaction of extrinsic factors, such as pay and recognition, compared with intrinsic factors such as the challenge of the task itself. Later, more sophisticated theories emerged (Parker and Wall, 1998), that demonstrated the role of a wide array of factors in the experience of job satisfaction. These theories had a range of applied consequences from the design of payment systems to management training. However, the recognition of the importance of intrinsic factors fed directly into methods of job design (i.e. the assignment of tasks to work roles in the work system). Several authors (e.g. Trist et al., 1963; Davis and

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Canter, 1956), created lists of job design criteria that emphasised the need for a variety of tasks in a job and discretion and autonomy with respect to how tasks were undertaken. These concepts also became part of broader movements that gained momentum in the 1960s; the development of forms of industrial democracy, the study of the quality of working life and the development of socio-technical systems theory as a systems approach that sought both effective work system performance and worthwhile and satisfying work for people to undertake. Recognition of the importance of implementing these ideas in industrial practice came in the UK through the creation of the Work Research Unit in the Department of Employment and in the European Union through the formation in 1975 in Dublin of the European Foundation for Living and Working Conditions.

There appeared to be rich promise in this era that the application of these theories and methods would produce more satisfying work and that this would help create more effective and adaptable work systems. Today, although this field of study is still being developed, it is not such a prominent research discipline and is receiving less attention from industrialists and government. A possible reason is that most of the low skilled manufacturing jobs that were the focus of concern have moved from the developed world to the developing world as mass production has moved to the Far East. There is now less concern in the developed world for the design of jobs to increase job satisfaction and more concern about job stress. The design solutions currently in vogue are less about job design and more about flexible work schemes that enable workers to achieve a better quality of work/life balance.

#### 2.3.4 Consumer ergonomics and standards

Over the last fifty years UK household income has doubled in real terms according to the latest government statistics (Office for National Statistics, 2008). The beginnings of this trend can be traced back to the 1960's when consumer spending on household products and services began to take off. Some indication of the involvement of ergonomists in the design of consumer products can be judged from the fact that between 1965 to 1973 some 174 references to ergonomics were made in "Design", a popular magazine read by professional designers. Over the decade the magazine published a range of articles written by ergonomists covering a wide range of products and design related issues, including: accidents and design; agricultural

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3 machinery, bathroom ergonomics and product evaluation. Later on, the importance of  
4 ergonomics was recognised by the fact that two people associated with design  
5 ergonomics were involved with the magazine's 1973 consumer good awards (Stuart  
6 Kirk at Loughborough and Bruce Archer at the Royal College of Art).  
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12 During the late 1950's a good deal of research was conducted on the anthropometric  
13 properties of chairs and tables (e.g., Akerblom, 1954; Floyd and Roberts, 1958).  
14 Work on chairs and seating requirements continues to the present day (e.g., Corlett,  
15 2005) and is one of the main (and sometimes only) interpretations of the term  
16 "ergonomic" amongst the general public. Later on, the field of consumer ergonomics  
17 expanded considerably and took in a range of different types of product, some  
18 highlights include:  
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- 26 • Studies of drivers and driving behaviour conducted at the Applied Psychology  
27 Unit in Cambridge by Ivan Brown and colleagues (e.g., the use of car radios and  
28 other concurrent tasks on driving – Brown et al., 1969; see also section 3.2);  
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- 30 • Work on household appliances and kitchen design conducted by W.F. Floyd and  
31 colleagues at Loughborough University and the Institute of Consumer  
32 Ergonomics in Loughborough (e.g., the usability and anthropometric properties of  
33 household jugs – Floyd, Harding, Kirk and Ward, 1965; the ergonomic design of  
34 kitchens and tasks related to housework – Ward, 1970);  
35
- 36 • The design of coins and the problems associated with the move to decimalisation  
37 of UK currency conducted at the APU in Cambridge by Patricia Wright and  
38 colleagues (e.g., Wright, 1968; Wright et al., 1969)  
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- 40 • Development of a hospital bed which later became a British Standard, for the  
41 National Health Service by Bruce Archer and colleagues at the Royal College of  
42 Art (The Times Newspaper, 2005).  
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53 By the early 1970's the issue of standards had taken on more importance than it had  
54 in the past within ergonomics. Members of the Ergonomics Society had taken part in  
55 standards committees (e.g., furniture design) since the early 1960's and representation  
56 on other committees increased through the decade. However, a survey by Whitfield in  
57 1972 (Whitfield, 1972) found that of 400 standards relevant to ergonomics, none had  
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3 any actual mention of ergonomics within them. The problem at the time was seen as  
4 poor communication of what ergonomics consisted of, as well as few attempts to  
5 integrate ergonomics into standards. Over the course of time, this appears to have  
6 improved (Stewart, 2000) and ergonomists are today widely involved in the design of  
7 standards, particularly as they relate to information technology.  
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### 12 13 14 2.3.5 Ageing and population change

15 The topic of an ageing population and the impact this had upon the industrial  
16 workforce proved many debates during the late 1950's and early 60's. This is  
17 reflected in the number of papers on ageing in the Ergonomics Society conference  
18 proceedings and the journal "Ergonomics" over the period. In addition, a number of  
19 research groups and centres, some funded by organisations such as DSIR and the  
20 Nuffield Foundation were active across the country (e.g., Liverpool, Bristol,  
21 University College London).  
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30 In 1951, people between the ages of 50-59 represented 43% of the population  
31 compared to 39% in 2003 , whereas the proportion of those aged over 85 increased  
32 from 1.6% in 1951 to 5.5% in 2003 (UK Statistics Authority, 2008). One of the main  
33 issues that attracted the attention of ergonomists at the time was how to retrain older  
34 workers. A typical example is Simon and Wolf's (1963) study which looked at the  
35 reaction times, speed and efficiency of older people when carrying out tasks  
36 involving inspection and visual acuity. Similarly, other papers drawn from industry  
37 concentrated on older workers carrying out inspection tasks such as repairing  
38 telephone exchanges (e.g., Jameeson, 1966). The work of Eunice Belbin at UCL is  
39 notable since it later became influential in the design of training programmes for  
40 older workers (Belbin and Downs, 1964). What is striking about most of the work on  
41 ageing at the time is that it tended to be conducted within the laboratory and involved  
42 experiments measuring reaction times using simulated work-based tasks (e.g., postal  
43 sorting). It was only much later in the 1970's that issues such as the job satisfaction of  
44 older workers or the difficulties they might have had in adjusting to new jobs were  
45 addressed.  
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### 3. Case studies of ergonomics in industry and research

As mentioned earlier on, the 1960's saw the expansion of ergonomics into industry. In particular, ergonomists actively collaborated with a number of trade associations and were employed in a variety of industries (e.g., Boot and Shoe Research Association, Furniture Development Council). We describe here three examples of case studies of ergonomics within companies.

#### 3.1 The Ergonomics Laboratory at EMI Electronics Ltd.

In 1954 Brian Shackel, then working at APU in Cambridge, was invited to establish a team at what was at the time EMI Engineering Development Ltd (later EMI Electronics Ltd) in Feltham, Middlesex. Initially the team were called the "Psychological Research Laboratory" because the name "Ergonomics" was not considered to be sufficiently well established. It became the EMIE Ergonomics Laboratory in 1965.

In addition to being in the music industry, EMI employed large teams of engineers many of whom worked on large military system developments. However, EMI was also very active in developing commercial systems and products and, during the 1960s was at the forefront of UK efforts to develop the first transistorised computers. Brian Shackel saw the role of the Ergonomics Laboratory as to apply ergonomic knowledge and principles to the work of the engineering teams in the company.

"As a service ... the major function of the ...laboratory is to aid project engineers and draughtsman in the design of equipment to ensure compatibility of operation between the machine and the man" (Shackel, 1967 p.4)

##### 3.1.1 Military Ergonomics

Initially the majority of the work undertaken was in relation to military projects. Anderson and Beevis (1970) record that this included work on the interfaces for radar and infrared displays. The group quickly recognised that whilst much of their work was on standalone products, the military work took them into large systems design projects. They became involved, for example, in the design of ship's operations rooms, vehicle environments and fleet information systems. This led to an abiding

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3 concern for systems ergonomics and the role that ergonomics could and should play  
4 at all stages of the development of large systems.  
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### 8 9 3.1.2 Consumer and product ergonomics

10 Outside of the military work of EMIE, the laboratory worked with many other  
11 engineering teams. At the time, Morphy Richards was part of EMI and this gave the  
12 laboratory the opportunity to evaluate and contribute to the design of many domestic  
13 products whilst they were in development. This included electric drills, electric  
14 carving knives, record players and hairdryers (Photograph 1).  
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### 32 3.1.3 Computers and information technology

33 One of the major developments in EMI was what was at the time the largest all-  
34 transistor computer in Europe, the EMIDEC 2400. The team were involved in  
35 prototype development of the control console for the computer in 1959 and were able  
36 to trial and evaluate several different interfaces (Shackel 1962). This led to a strand of  
37 work about human issues in the emerging computer industry that included not only  
38 the hardware interface but also the software interface for interactive computing.  
39 Several members of staff later became prominent contributors to human-computer  
40 interaction a subject that became a major international discipline as the information  
41 age developed (Photographs 2a and b).  
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### 3.1.4 Large-scale systems

Shackel was concerned that the laboratory should not restrict itself to work on EMI products and systems and secured management agreement to offer the services of the laboratory to other companies. As a result the laboratory was able to work on product and systems development with design teams in a wide variety of environments. As a result of collaborations with Lisl Klein, then social science advisor in ESSO UK (Klein 1976), the laboratory created a mock-up of the bridge of an oil tanker in order to test bridge layout and equipment design for a new fleet of oil tankers. It also ran trials of alternative layouts for a new control room for the ESSO refuelling depot at Heathrow Airport (Shackel and Klein 1976). As Anderson and Beevis (1970) report, the group steadily developed the analytic and design skills to make systematic contributions across a broad range of human issues in complex system design including workload assessment, selection and training, task analysis and design, work group design, man-machine allocation of tasks and the design of equipment, environment and workspaces. This range of techniques was applied in system developments such as the development of an airline reservation system employing 200 reservation clerks and the design of an automated meat handling system for the Port of London (Shackel et al., 1967).

From small beginnings the group grew to over 10 full time professional staff in 1970. Although it had research interests its major contribution was to develop the methods and techniques for working with designers and engineers to translate ergonomics knowledge into forms that could influence the development of products and systems. Anderson and Beevis (1970) conclude that:

‘the presence of a specialised group like this laboratory in industry not only fulfils a need to that industry but by straddling the gap between university research and private consultants, points the way for the proper development of the subject’ (p. 232)

In 1970 Brian Shackel joined Loughborough University to create the HUSAT Group of researchers (later to become the HUSAT Research Institute) and continue his work on human-computer interaction. The Laboratory continues until this day and as a result of various changes of ownership is now part of Quintec Associates. In 2004 it celebrated 50 years of the work of the Laboratory. Today, the Laboratory sustains the

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3 focus on making integrated human factors contributions throughout the development  
4 life cycle of complex, usually military, systems.  
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### 8 9 3.2 Medical Research Council Applied Psychology Unit (MRC APU)

10 The MRC Applied Psychology Unit in Cambridge played an important and  
11 fundamental role in the development and application of UK ergonomics. During the  
12 preparation of the material in Waterson and Sell (2006) for example, the APU was  
13 consistently mentioned by those interviewed in terms of the quality of research it  
14 produced in applied ergonomics and experimental psychology. In addition, the APU  
15 was cited as one of the best examples of successful collaborations between  
16 researchers in ergonomics based at the unit, and their industrial counterparts.  
17 Photographs 3 (a) and (b) show some of the work conducted by the APU during the  
18 war on the redesign of operations rooms (Bartlett and Mackworth, 1950).  
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30 Photographs 3 (a) and (b) here  
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37 Part of its success can be attributed to the influence of Donald Broadbent (1926-1993)  
38 throughout the period (1958-1974) and his role as director of the APU. In his work at  
39 the APU, as well as elsewhere, Broadbent emphasised the need to relate theory to  
40 applied problems. As he stated in one of his books:  
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46 “.. the test of intellectual excellence of a psychological theory, as well as its moral  
47 justification, lies in its application to concrete practical situations” (Broadbent, 1973,  
48 p. 7).  
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53 This ethos seems to have dominated the work of researchers in ergonomics (human  
54 factors) in the APU during the period of Broadbent’s directorship:  
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58 “I think this broad range of human factors research was obviously drawing on, but  
59 also hopefully contributing to, theory development within the unit. The other point  
60 which I think is equally important is the collaborative way in which we set up

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3 research with outside organizations such as British Telecom, British Rail, the Post  
4 Office, the Coal Board, and so on. I think these groups not only benefited from the  
5 theoretical concepts that were being researched and developed within the unit; they  
6 also benefited from the methodology that unit staff were developing.” (Ivan Brown  
7 quoted in Reynolds and Tansey, 2001, p. 37)  
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14 The early work of the APU had been concerned with military problems arising from  
15 work carried out during the second world war such as pilot fatigue, the effects of  
16 environmental stress and the vigilance of radar operations (see Hayward, 2001 and  
17 MRC-CBU, 2005 for more information on the wartime and immediate post-war  
18 history of the APU). Between 1956 and 1970 the number of scientific staff employed  
19 at the APU remained relatively constant (approximately 20 scientists) with increases  
20 over time in the numbers of research assistants and other technical staff working on a  
21 variety of projects. Ivan Brown and colleagues (Brown, Batts and McGougan, 1970)  
22 provided an overview of these projects in a paper published in Applied Ergonomics  
23 and elaborated upon these during the discussion at the Witness Seminar held at the  
24 Wellcome Trust Centre in June 2001 (Reynolds and Tansey, 2001). Amongst the  
25 research topics were:  
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### 36 37 38 3.2.1 Application of psychological theories

39 Research on signal probability and response time and the relationship this had at the  
40 time to information theory (Broadbent, 1958), it's application to industrial inspection  
41 tasks and sonar detection (Colquhoun, 1967). The relationship between sleep loss and  
42 level of awareness over periods of time (Wilkinson, 1961). The application of theory  
43 to practical problems such as the relationship between the perception of written  
44 material and the style of printing used (Poulton, 1960); studies of searching strategies  
45 and fault-finding in electronic equipment (Dale, 1959).  
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### 53 54 3.2.2 Post office studies

55 From 1960 onwards the APU carried out a large number of studies under a  
56 consultancy agreement led by R. Conrad with the Post Office (later the Royal Mail).  
57 Conrad was appointed Human Factors consultant with the Post Office during the  
58 early 1960's and led studies that aimed to design communication systems that were  
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3 capable of being more efficiently used by the general public. These studies would  
4 today fall under the rubric of research in the area of improving the usability of  
5 everyday technologies such as telephones and visual displays. Conrad and his  
6 colleagues carried out studies on a variety of topics including the relationship  
7 between letter-sequence redundancy in short-term memory and the effective recall of  
8 the letters and digits that make up postal codes (Conrad, 1967) and the advantages of  
9 presenting telephone numbers as groups of digits rather than individually expressed in  
10 terms of theories of encoding in memory (Conrad, 1960).  
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### 30 3.2.3 Studies of car driving

31 Ivan Brown and his colleagues produced a number of important studies with practical  
32 implications concerning the influence of fatigue during prolonged driving on the  
33 impairment of skill. Brown's work is also possibly the earliest to address the currently  
34 topical issue of the impact using a mobile phone has upon attention whilst driving  
35 (Brown et al., 1969).  
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### 42 3.2.4 Physiological rhythms and shiftwork

43 A number of studies were carried out on the topic of the relationship between  
44 circadian rhythms and physiological changes such as body temperature, particularly  
45 as they related to shiftwork patterns. These studies had many practical implications  
46 for the design of rotating shift systems including the selection of individuals best  
47 suited to work efficiently according to this type of shift pattern (Colquhoun, 1967).  
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### 54 3.2.5 Designing for everyday life

55 Brown et al. (1971) point to the closer links with Europe which were forming at the  
56 end of the 1960's as one reason why research on designing systems that affected the  
57 general public became more frequent within the APU and elsewhere. For example,  
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3 the conversion to decimal currency in 1971 promoted studies of the visual and tactile  
4 properties of alternative design for decimal coinage (Wright et al., 1969)  
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### 8 9 3.3 British Iron and Steel Research Association (BISRA)

10 Sell (1971) and Crawley (1972) provide small-scale histories of ergonomics-related  
11 research and application within the British Iron and Steel Research Association  
12 (BISRA). BISRA came into existence following the second world war and received  
13 its income initially from a levy on all steel companies within the British Iron and  
14 Steel Federation. **Funding was also provided from the USA by The Marshall Plan**  
15 **I the form of conditional aid funds (provided also to the Tavistock Institute in**  
16 **London).** This was matched at the time by a grant from the Department of Scientific  
17 and Industrial Research (later renamed as the Ministry of Technology). In 1954 the  
18 total income of the BISRA was around £500,000, by 1971 this had risen to  
19 approximately £2.2 million pounds.  
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30 The origins of ergonomic work at BISRA can be traced back to the war time when the  
31 director between 1946-1969 (Sir Charles Goodeve) had been involved with  
32 operational research with the Admiralty. Similar links existed through the  
33 involvement of other individuals working at BISRA with the Ergonomics Society  
34 (Miss I.M. Slade) and previous experience using ergonomics within the aviation  
35 industry (Dr. L.N. Bramley). Some of the research topics carried out at BISRA  
36 included:  
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#### 43 44 3.3.1 Crane cab design

45 At the request of the DSIR the ergonomics group at BISRA became involved in the  
46 redesign of crane control cabs. One of the problems with the existing design of these  
47 types of machinery was that little thought had been given to the field of vision  
48 required by the driver. As a result of the building a workshop model the crane cab  
49 was redesigned and enabled sight lines to be determined for the cab driver, thereby  
50 increasing the safety of the cab as a whole (Sell, Box and Leyshon, 1961).  
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#### 58 59 3.3.2 Physical conditions of work

60 Because of the nature of working in the iron and steel industry, BISRA partly  
concentrated on research aimed at protecting workers against exposure to heat. Some

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3 of this work originated out of research projects in collaboration with the Medical  
4 Research Council's Environmental Physiology Research Unit. Part of this involved  
5 carrying out studies on the effects of radiant heat stress upon performance  
6 (Ketterington, 1969).  
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16 Photographs 5 (a) and (b) here  
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### 25 3.3.3 Accidents and safety

26 In collaboration with the Tavistock Institute BISRA carried out investigations of the  
27 accident patterns of recently employed workers at a large Sheffield steelworks. Hill  
28 and Trist (1955) for example, over time workers learnt how to avoid accidents and  
29 that their absence patterns also eventually come into line with other workers in the  
30 rest of the factory. BISRA also carried out research on the effectiveness of safety  
31 posters and demonstrated their effectiveness, particularly within high risk work  
32 contexts (Laner and Sell, 1964).  
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### 40 3.3.4 Process operation

41 DSIR also financed a study of the skills involved in process operation with BISRA  
42 worked with E.R.F.W. Crossman at Oxford University and R.J. Beishon at Bristol  
43 University. This work involved taking measurements of the outputs from a steel mill  
44 and comparing these with recordings of the operator's behaviour. The outputs from  
45 these studies formed the basis of a set of new design recommendations for hot strip  
46 mills (Sell, Crossman and Box, 1961).  
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### 54 3.3.5 Man-computer interaction

55 A variety of different types of studies in what was then known as man-computer  
56 interaction were conducted at BISRA in the mid- to late-1960's. These included  
57 investigations of the legibility of different types of digital displays (Simpson, 1971),  
58 allocation of function and automation, as well as larger-scale simulations of the  
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3 decision-making of operators when interacting with large-scale computer-generated  
4 data (Ketteringham, 1970).  
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#### 10 **4. Changing perspectives in ergonomics**

11 Over the course of the last forty years a huge amount of change has occurred within  
12 industry and society. For example, the three research institutes, laboratories and units  
13 described in section 3 no longer exist. Many other changes have been brought about  
14 to the nature of research and practice within ergonomics (Stanton and Stammers,  
15 2008b). Table 5 sets out some of these.  
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Table 5 here

##### 32 4.1 The nature of work

33 Perhaps the single biggest change that has occurred since the establishment of  
34 ergonomics after the second world war have been the changes that have occurred to  
35 the nature of work. In the immediate post-war period, ergonomists were preoccupied  
36 with subjects such as fatigue brought on by jobs or tasks which often stretched  
37 workers to their physical and physical limits. McFarland (1971) describes how some  
38 of the work conducted using the “Cambridge Cockpit” at the APU for example,  
39 demonstrated that pilots routinely suffered from psychological stress, as well as  
40 fatigue brought on by long working periods of flying, which significantly decreased  
41 their levels of skill and timing. During the 1950’s and 1960’s the focus of research  
42 within ergonomics changed to attempts to understand the combined effects of  
43 physical and mental workload, alongside aspects of environmental context and the  
44 tools/machines used by workers (Burger and DeJong, 1962). The increase of  
45 automation in factories in the mid to late 1960’s meant that workers were often in the  
46 position of “machine minders”, as a result topics such as monotony and boredom  
47 began to be studied under the heading of job design (Broadbent, 1961; Edholm,  
48 1970). The impact of UK legislation on Health and Safety during the early 1970’s,  
49 alongside prominent disasters such as the one that occurred at Flixborough in 1974  
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3 changed the nature of research in ergonomics once again. During the 1970's  
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5 ergonomist increasingly began to examine safety and the causes of accidents and  
6  
7 disasters in more depth as compared to earlier studies (Turner, 1978). The field of job  
8  
9 design also began to address the issue of workplace stress and the impact this had  
10  
11 upon worker performance and absenteeism (Cox, 1978).

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14 Within UK ergonomics more widely there has been a great deal of continuity in terms  
15  
16 of the types of domains which have been investigated and areas where practising  
17  
18 ergonomists work. Military ergonomics for example, continues to be a focus of  
19  
20 investigation, as well as forming one of the largest areas of employment for  
21  
22 ergonomists. More recently, other areas have risen to prominence (e.g., health care  
23  
24 ergonomics) alongside more traditional domains such as transport (e.g., railway and  
25  
26 aviation ergonomics). What is perhaps more evident is that the predictions made by  
27  
28 many in the 1960's that employees would spend less time at work and more time in  
29  
30 leisure activities have not come true.

#### 31 32 4.2 The role of the ergonomist

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34 One of the most frequent comments that came about during the interviews with  
35  
36 ergonomists active in the Ergonomics Society (Waterson and Sell, 2006) was it was  
37  
38 possible in the 1960's for one person to have an overview of all of the various aspects  
39  
40 and components of ergonomics. Many people stressed that the introduction of courses  
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42 at the beginning of the 1960's had resulted in ergonomists who were capable of  
43  
44 adopting a "holistic" or "whole systems" perspective in tackling applied problems. By  
45  
46 the end of the beginning of the 1970's it was becoming clearer that ergonomists were  
47  
48 becoming more specialised. One of the main reasons for this was the growth of the  
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50 discipline and the spread of ergonomics into domains which required detailed  
51  
52 knowledge and specific skills.

53  
54 In the very early days following the second world war it appears that those involved  
55  
56 in ergonomics were trying to establish an identity for themselves. Chapanis (1999)  
57  
58 notes that human factors researchers and ergonomists were in close competition with  
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60 established professions such as engineering, mathematics and physics. During the  
1960's the growth of ergonomics in industry was more successful in the UK, as  
compared to the USA (Drury, 2008a). In subsequent decades the subject matter of



1  
2  
3 ergonomics within the UK became more diversified. One negative outcome from the  
4 expansion of ergonomics was that some of its “territory” was lost to other disciplines.  
5 During the 1960’s for example, the subject matter of design was made up of various  
6 interdisciplinary groups (Murrell, 1985) and it was normal for ergonomists to work  
7 alongside designers, engineers and other related professions in pursuit of a common  
8 task (e.g., product design). Over the course of time, two developments seem to have  
9 taken place. Firstly, ergonomists became “decoupled” from design and marginalised,  
10 their activities sometimes seen as relevant, but not essential as compared to other  
11 concerns (e.g., design aesthetics). Sudjic (2008) notes that this development is true of  
12 design as a whole and not just ergonomics, during the 1960’s a paramount  
13 consideration was practicality and meeting the needs of consumers, whereas in the  
14 1980’s and 90’s the emphasis shifted to manufacturer’s perceptions of consumers  
15 needs. A second development was that other disciplines started to use ergonomics  
16 themselves without actually involving ergonomists. For example, in the 1980’s and  
17 90’s human-computer interaction (HCI) came about as a subject in universities and  
18 industry and much of HCI borrowed concepts and ideas from ergonomics. In many  
19 respects the success of ergonomics in industry in the 1960’s also proved to be  
20 something of a disadvantage in subsequent decades.  
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### 37 4.3 Growth of theory and methodology

38 One of the biggest changes to have occurred over the last forty years is the growth of  
39 theory and methodology within ergonomics. At the beginning of the 1960’s it wasn’t  
40 clear what separated ergonomists from other groupings (e.g., work study engineers-  
41 time and motion (Hailsham, 1961). By the end of the 1960’s it was clear that there  
42 was a need for specific methods and techniques which could be used within  
43 specialised domains or to address generic problems in ergonomics (e.g., task  
44 analysis). What is perhaps most interesting about the period is how many of the  
45 studies that are described, irrespective of whether they were industrial or university-  
46 based, involved the use of experiments or laboratory-based investigations. Most  
47 studies involved some sort of tightly controlled experimental procedure where the  
48 types of outcome measures involved reaction times or other quantifiable dependent  
49 measures. In the 1970’s studies became more eclectic and techniques such as error  
50 analysis and reliability assessment started to appear. Only in the 1980’s did the first  
51 qualitative studies start to appear within ergonomics. The first mention of the need to  
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3 assess the costs and benefits of ergonomic interventions can be traced back to the  
4 Society lecture given by Bonjer in 1971 (Bonjer, 1971).  
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#### 8 9 4.4 Other changes

10 In the course of reading through material from the 1960's it is clear that there was a  
11 huge amount of enthusiasm for ergonomics, not only amongst ergonomists  
12 themselves, but also amongst industrialists and researchers from other disciplines.  
13 The era was characterised by a "can do" type of attitude where applying the results of  
14 research to practical problems was common and to a large extent taken for granted.  
15  
16 **Amongst ergonomists there was also a great deal of faith in the ability of**  
17 **technology to deliver clear benefits to society at large (Drury, 2008b).** This  
18 situation has changed over the subsequent decades and the drive to establish  
19 ergonomics as an academic discipline has taken on more and more importance.  
20 Similarly, during the 1960's it appears that many people thought they were on the  
21 edge of a breakthrough and that ergonomics would establish itself as a discipline with  
22 a clear identity and existence in its own right. Whether this has been achieved today is  
23 a source of continual debate, however, it seems that there is still a long way to go  
24 before these objectives are met. Much can be learnt from the work carried out by  
25 British ergonomists in the 1960's and it remains to be seen how many issues then  
26 current, remerge as topics of interest in the future.  
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**Table 1: Characteristics of focus of ergonomics over the years (Shackel, 1991)**

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1950s	Military ergonomics
1960s	Industrial ergonomics
1970s	Consumer ergonomics
1980s	Computer ergonomics
1990s	Information ergonomics
2000+	Leisure ergonomics
	Space ergonomics

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Table 2: Timeline of events

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
1949	Ergonomics Research Society formed (July)	Balance of payments crisis for Attlee's government leads to sterling's devaluation against dollar
1950		Attlee Government elected (February)
1951	Symposium held in Birmingham on "Human Factor in Equipment Design" (Floyd and Welford, 1954)	Festival of Britain (May)
		Churchill Government elected (October)
1952	Symposium held in Cranfield on "Fatigue" (Floyd and Welford, 1953)	Queen Elizabeth II crowned
1953	European Productivity Agency (EPA) Meeting held in Zurich	Watson and Crick discover structure of DNA in Cambridge (April)
1954	EMI Laboratory set up by Brian Shackel	Roger Bannister runs the first four-minute mile
1955	<b>Joint MRC/DSIR Conference on "Individual Efficiency in Industry" held in Cambridge – 31<sup>st</sup> March – 1<sup>st</sup> April. (Conference was hosted by Sir Frederick Bartlett and attended by a number of industrial representatives).</b>	Eden Government elected (May)
		Commercial TV starts in the UK (September)
1956	EPA sponsored mission to USA (later published as Murrell, 1958)	Clean Air Act passed in Parliament (July)
		First Nuclear Power station opens (Calder Hall) (October)
		Suez Crisis (November)

**Table 2: Timeline of events**

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
1957	Ergonomics journal first issue	Eden resigns as prime minister (Macmillan replaces him) (January)
		UK tests first hydrogen bomb (May)
1958	British Productivity Council produces a film "Fitting the Job to the Worker"	Windscale nuclear reactor disaster Motorway system opens (M6 Preston Bypass)
1959	Ergonomics Research Society Conference – 10 years of Ergonomics	Macmillan Government elected
	Establishment of first professorial Chair in Ergonomics at Loughborough (W.F. Floyd)	
1960	European Productivity Agency Conference, Zurich. DSIR Conference on Ergonomics in Industry	Penguin Books found not guilty of obscenity in the "Lady Chatterley's Lover" case
1961	Publication of Murrell's "Fitting the Job to the Worker"	
	1 <sup>st</sup> IEA Congress (Stockholm)	Russian astronaut Gagarin orbits the earth
	Postgraduate course in Ergonomics set up at Loughborough by W.F. Floyd (Stone, 2009)	
	One year course in ergonomics set at Cranfield (designed for military and civil service personnel) Masters course in Ergonomics (MSc) set up at	

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**Table 2: Timeline of events**

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
1962	Loughborough University DSIR issues “Ergonomics in Industry” Handbooks (later published as Applied Ergonomics Handbook - 1 <sup>st</sup> Edition, edited by Brian Shackel, 1974)	Cuban missile crisis (October)
1963	MSc course in “Work Design and Ergonomics” set up at Birmingham University	France vetoes UK’s entry into Common Market (January)  Robbins Report of Education (new universities are established) (October)  Macmillan resigns as prime minister (Hume replaces him) (October)
1964	Sir Harry Melville addresses the Ergonomics Society Conference – lecture mentions the increasing importance of systems approaches within ergonomics	Abolition of Resale Price Maintenance (opens up the possibilities for transformation of the retail sector)  Wilson Government elected (October)
1965	First undergraduate courses in ergonomics offered at Loughborough University (Stone, 2009) . First graduates from the course in 1968. Social Science Research Council set up (December)	Industrial Training Act  Nationalisation of the Steel Industry (May)  Nuclear Installations Act 1965  Comprehensive School system introduced (July)

**Table 2: Timeline of events**

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
1966	“Human Operator in Complex Systems” meeting at University of Aston	Death Penalty abolished (November) England win the football world cup (July)
1967	IEA Congress held in Birmingham (held under the patronage of HRH Prince Philip)	Abortion and homosexuality legalised First Heart Transplant Operation (December)
1969	ERS celebrates 20 years of Ergonomics Applied Ergonomics first issue	Concorde aircraft makes its maiden flight Landing on the Moon
1970	Set up of Institute of Consumer Ergonomics (ICE), and HUSAT at Loughborough	Heath Government elected
1971	High involvement of Ergonomics Research Society members with standards and attendance at BSI committees	First British soldier killed during the “troubles” in Northern Ireland (February) Decimalisation introduced North Sea Oil concessions are auctioned (August)
1972	Tom Singleton gives annual Society lecture on Human Error	“Bloody Sunday”, Northern Ireland (August) Expelled Ugandan Asians settle in UK



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**Table 2: Timeline of events**

Date	Developments within UK Ergonomics	Developments within UK and elsewhere
<b>1973</b>	18 UK Universities and Institutes in total offer courses of one form or another in Ergonomics	UK joins European Economic Community  Oil price soars as OPEC cuts supply to US and western Europe.  UK enters recession
<b>1974</b>	Increasing evidence of research on consumer ergonomics (e.g., Whitfield, 1972; Ward, 1974)	Wilson elected after “hung parliament”  Health and Safety at Work Act 1974

**Table 3: Topics of Research – representative book publications**

<b>Publication</b>	<b>Contents</b>
Ergonomics – Man in His Working Environment (Murrell, 1965)	Introduction: the nature of ergonomics Part 1: the elements of ergonomic practice The physical basis of man's perception of his environment The human body: Bones, joints and muscles; metabolism and heat regulation; body size, limits of movement and functioning of limbs; the nervous system. Man as a system component Part 2: practical ergonomics Design factors: layout of equipment; design of seating; design of instrumental displays; compatibility; design characteristics of controls. Environmental factors: environmental temperature and humidity; noise; the visual environment; vibration. Organizational factors: methods of investigating work; the organization of work; inspection; shift work; age.
Psychology of Work (1 <sup>st</sup> Edition, edited by Peter Warr, 1971)	Theory and Application in Psychology (Broadbent) Shiftwork (Wilkinson) Skill Performance and Stress (Poulton) Learning (Annett) Man-Machine Systems (Singleton) Accidents (Kay) Ageing (Griew) Selection (Drenth) Occupational Guidance (Lancashire) Judgements of People at Work (Warr) Decision-making (Sime) Managers – Effectiveness and Training (Fineman) Motivation (Blackler and Williams) Employee Participation (Hespe and Little) Intergroup relations and bargaining (Stephenson) Organisations as psychological environments (Payne)
Introduction to Ergonomics (Singleton, 1972)	The provision of energy The application of forces Problems of body size and posture The effects of climate Limitations of the sense organs The design of controls The design of displays Man/machine information exchange Temporal, social and economic conditions of work Age, fatigue, vigilance and accidents Acquisition of evidence about individual behaviour Acquisition of evidence about system behaviour The design of work Assessment, presentation, and interpretation of evidence Retrospect and prospect
Applied Ergonomics	Industrial use of Ergonomics (Singleton)

**Table 3: Topics of Research – representative book publications**

<b>Publication</b>	<b>Contents</b>
Handbook (1 <sup>st</sup> Edition, edited by Brian Shackel, 1974 – first published as series of booklets issued by DSIR)	Instruments and People (Shackel and Whitfield) Design of Work for the Disabled (Griew) Inspection and human efficiency (Belbin) Ergonomics versus Accidents (Sell) Noise in Industry (Broadbent) Men, Machines and Control (Provins) Thermal Comfort in Industry (Fox) Lighting of Workplaces (Longmore) Seating in Industry (Branton) Layout of Workspaces (Jones) Current trends towards Systems Design (Singleton)

**Table 4: Syllabus for a two-week appreciation course on the “Design of Equipment for Human Use” (Wade, 1961)**

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11	The Body as a Heat Engine and the Problem of Physical Fatigue
12	The Human Being as a Receiver and Processor of Information
13	The Need to Experiment, and the Problems of Experimenting on Human Performance
14	Body Structure and the Limits of Limb Movement
15	The Use of Statistics
16	Anthropometry, Seating and Manual Weight Lifting
17	The Contribution of Motion Study to Equipment Design
18	Photographic Techniques of Motion Study
19	Planning Experiments
20	Display of Information
21	Vigilance and Inspection
22	Control Design
23	The Layout of Equipment
24	The Working Environment: Lighting, Colour Radiant Heat and Noise
25	Load, Speed and Stress
26	The Effect of Ageing on Performance
27	The Application of Ergonomics; Physiology, Anthropometry and Physiology
28	Ergonomics and Automation
29	The Human Factors in Equipment Design
30	Relations of the Designer with Management and Work People
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**Table 5: Changing Perspectives in Ergonomics**  
1940s/1950's

	1940s/1950's	1960's	1970's	Present Day
<b>Characteristics of Work and Society</b>	Manual, repetitive tasks	Increasing automation in the workplace	Health and safety concerns, unemployment	Decline in manufacturing sector and rise of service industries, global working
<b>Characteristics</b>	Dominance of military Ergonomics	Rise of Industrial Ergonomics	Consumer Ergonomics takes off	Health and Safety ergonomics increases in importance
<b>Developments</b>	Fatigue, controls and displays	Systems ergonomics	Safety-critical ergonomics (e.g., Nuclear)	Focus on bespoke methods, tools and techniques within ergonomics
<b>Changes to Academic Ergonomics</b>	No courses in universities, subjects too new	University courses started, short courses for industry	Further expansion of courses and broader coverage of topics	Many courses, although some threats to existence
<b>Changes to Practice</b>	Move from a wartime "back room" operation to industry	Many practitioners in industry	Smaller-scale consultancies begin	Large range of consultancies with a range of sizes, many consultancies specialised in certain areas
<b>The role of the Ergonomist</b>	No real role as such, specialisms (e.g., psychology, physiology)	Generalist – experience of most areas of ergonomics	Increasing specialisation, generalist role dying out	Specialist, expert
<b>Domains</b>	Military, Engineering, Transport, Iron and Steel	Computer ergonomics, Transport	Nuclear, consumer ergonomics	Diverse range of domains, new areas such as healthcare

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