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1 Issues of interpretation and understanding: a social semiotic framework to inform teaching
2 of civil engineering and project communications

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20 **Abstract**

21 Civil engineers and project managers must control and manage the project management
22 discourse with the client and other stakeholders or risk slippages to time, cost and
23 programme. This paper explores how communicative choices and the representation of
24 project requirements and engineering issues is intrinsic to effective civil engineering work.
25 Using a social semiotic framework, the paper contributes to civil engineering learning by
26 revealing how various engineering communications (e.g. schematic drawings; visual images)
27 function in civil engineering contexts. The research builds upon civil engineering
28 communication scholarship, highlighting the significance of representational choices for
29 affecting engineering work. The social semiotic and multimodal informed analysis clarifies
30 processes of cognition, interpretation and understanding at play when civil engineers
31 interact with project stakeholders. The findings inform civil engineering education and the
32 teaching of communication skills: communication composition being intrinsic to effective
33 civil engineering work.

34

35 *Keywords:* communication; stakeholder management; cognition; social semiotics;
36 multimodality; design work; cognition.

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42 **Practical Applications**

43 The paper presents a framework for assisting and guiding civil engineers and project
44 management professionals in the formulation and review of communicative resources (e.g.
45 visual images; drawings; schematics) used in civil engineering and project management
46 work. The social semiotic framework, validated through case study evidence from a hospital
47 construction project, informs the teaching of civil engineering communication skills:
48 communicative choices and the representation of project requirements and engineering
49 issues being intrinsic to several aspects of civil engineering work, including risk
50 management, stakeholder engagement and planning and control. The theoretical insights
51 address the role of authors and readers of sign communications in civil engineering work,
52 and clarify the processes of cognition and interpretation at play when engineers interact
53 with other professionals and project stakeholders with various communicative resources.
54 The paper adds to the body of knowledge concerning communication in civil engineering
55 contexts and informs the teaching of communication skills for professional civil engineers.

56

57 **Introduction**

58 Effective communication has long been recognised as essential for civil engineering and
59 project management success (ASCE 2019). Industry codes of practice (e.g. CIOB 2022; ASCE
60 2019) highlight communication as critical to processes and practices: communication being
61 linked to effective stakeholder engagement and management (Turkulainen et al 2015). The
62 UK Chartered Institute of Building (CIOB) (2018) notes communication as a core standard for
63 project management learning, whilst in the United States, the American Council for
64 Construction Education (ACCE) (2021) has similar stipulations, noting that written

65 communications and oral presentation skills be taught that are appropriate for civil
66 engineering and project management disciplines. However, the significance of routine
67 methods of communication used by civil engineers (e.g. schematic drawings; visual images)
68 often escapes notice despite their importance to effect the civil engineering discourse.
69 Additionally, whilst academic work has highlighted the importance of communication, for
70 example, Ninan et al. (2020) highlighting the significance of social media and information
71 communications technology (ICT) for external stakeholder management on megaprojects,
72 and Datta et al. (2020) identifying the centrality of communication in addressing the
73 “knowing-doing gap”, little research into how civil engineering resources function in an
74 engineering project has been conducted.

75 Such an empirical enquiry is important because in civil engineering projects, communication
76 occurs not just from person-to-person, but also from project resource to person:
77 interactions between humans and resources also being legitimate instances of
78 communication. This paper explores how project resources carry intention and meaning
79 from the originator to the reader/viewer through their composition; an issue which may be
80 understood clearly through semiotics. The significance of semiotics for understanding
81 project communications has been noted previously (c.f. Gluch and Raisanen, 2009; Collinge
82 and Harty, 2014). This paper extends such work by utilizing a social semiotic framework of
83 analysis to examine and critique resources used in the civil engineering project management
84 discourse: social semiotics being the analysis of sign constructs used in social situations. A
85 social semiotic informed analysis enables a deeper and more reflective understanding of the
86 role of signs in social situations, the implications of sign deployment and the motivational
87 drivers underlying their formulation (Kress, 2010).

88 Clarification of the interpretive and cognitive processes at play when communication
89 resources are mobilised reveals how issues such as stakeholder management, risk
90 management and planning/control are effected by communicative resources. Several
91 contributions are made. Firstly, social semiotics and multimodality are presented as valid
92 analytical approaches for the review and formulation of resources used in civil engineering
93 work. Secondly, theoretical contributions are made concerning issues of interpretation and
94 cognition: particularly how resources trigger cognitive interpretive codes and lexicons of
95 knowledge (Eco 1979). These theoretical contributions inform existing understandings of
96 the teaching of communication skills required of civil engineers. Thirdly, civil engineering
97 communication is revealed as inherently social semiotic: everyday resources impacting work
98 significantly through their communicative properties. Such an insight is valuable for civil
99 engineers active in the profession as the deeper understanding of communicative processes
100 contributes to civil engineering education scholarship.

101 The paper has the following overall research questions:

- 102 - How do communicative choices affect the civil engineering discourse?
- 103 - How can various communicative resources be understood conceptually and theoretically?
- 104 - How can processes of cognition, interpretation and understanding be better understood
105 when civil engineers communicate?

106 **Background and Paper Organisation**

107 Civil engineering projects are complex, information-intensive collaborations (ICE, 2020)
108 where communication is central to effective work execution (Winch and Kelsey, 2005). In
109 the iterative cycles of communication (Emmitt and Gorse 2007), varieties of resources are

110 used to propel the process forward (e.g. sketches and drawings; physical models; bills of
111 quantities; digital images). Whilst such resources are integral to civil engineering work, they
112 are less well understood conceptually or theoretically. Additionally, as resources are often
113 disseminated and shared with multiple stakeholders, appreciation of how project resources
114 are interpreted and understood from a cognitive perspective is also merited.

115 Civil engineering resources are important for the communication and relationship building
116 process, being semiotic devices (being composed of sign constructs). For example, a project
117 brief will communicate client needs and requirements in words and numbers (e.g. costs;
118 dimensions); an image of a building may communicate architectural aesthetics via color and
119 graphics in a landscaped environment; a Gantt chart will communicate project timeframe
120 and work package connections through colors, lines and words. Whilst Lloyd and Busby
121 (2001) highlight the importance of language and word exchange in social design interactions
122 (i.e. designers using words and language to articulate their thoughts as opposed to
123 architects, who prefer to use drawings and sketches), Bogers et al. (2008) reflect how
124 designers often use images to clarify concepts. More recently, the study of Datta et al.
125 (2020) into how 4D visualisations help project teams identify risks highlighted the
126 significance of interpretation and representations of project work.

127 The paper examines civil engineering communications using social semiotics. Semiotics is
128 the study of signs used in communicative interactions (Cobley, 2010); the overarching aim of
129 semiotics being to study the production and comprehension of sign constructs as
130 manifesting in human and non-human spheres (Danesi, 2010, p.135). Social semiotics is
131 oriented towards understanding the role of signs in social situations, the implications of sign
132 deployment and the motivational drivers underlying their formulation (Kress, 2010).

133 Arguably, deeper understandings of communication are needed to explore different aspects
134 of civil engineering work. For example, whilst planning and control is recognised as
135 important for establishing shared understandings of objectives and risks (Winch and Kelsey,
136 2005), analysis of how civil engineering resources impact such processes has been limited.
137 Similarly, if civil engineers are tasked with monitoring time, cost and quality, then
138 understanding the impact (real or potential) of the resources used on those parameters is
139 informative for future civil engineering work. Moreover, if we accept that project control is
140 beyond the capability of one individual – control existing at a number of levels in a number
141 of places (APM, 2019) – then understanding the role of civil engineering resources in the
142 planning, risk and control process is important. Such findings should also inform the
143 teaching and understanding of civil engineering communications pedagogy.

144 The paper begins by reviewing the teaching of civil engineering communications and social
145 semiotics/multimodality theories of communication. A methodology section reviews the
146 empirical work undertaken and presents an analytical framework used to examine various
147 civil engineering resources. The paper proceeds to examine a number of resources drawn
148 from a hospital construction project in the UK: these resources being used successively to
149 inform various stakeholders, communicate ideas, control the discourse and influence the
150 trajectory of cost, risk and quality. A following discussion explores issues of interpretation
151 and cognition more closely, relating the findings to current civil engineering educational
152 thinking on communication. A closing conclusion draws the insights of the paper together.

153 **Teaching of Civil Engineering Communication**

154 The ASCE Body of Knowledge (2019) notes communication as an essential professional skill
155 for civil engineers: the text providing a review of cognitive domain and affective domain
156 levels of achievement (p.42-43). As noted by the ASCE (2019):

157 “Successful civil engineers communicate effectively and persuasively using appropriate
158 interpersonal skills with technical and nontechnical audiences in a variety of settings.
159 Effective communication conveys information clearly, correctly, and succinctly and includes
160 not only the skills to transmit information, but also to verify that the receiver has correctly
161 understood the information.” (p.43)

162 The ASCE BoK (2019) goes on to note:

163 “Persuasive communication shapes, reinforces, or changes the response of the receiver.
164 Although all communication can persuade, it is important that civil engineers know how to
165 communicate in a manner intentionally designed to persuade others. Persuasive
166 communication leads to a noticeable response and action by the receiver. Not all
167 communication by civil engineers is intended to be persuasive, but when persuasion is
168 needed, civil engineers must be adept in the skills of persuasive communication, while
169 maintaining the highest ethical standards.” (p.43)

170 Professional associations such as the CIOB (2018), the ASCE (2019) and ACCE (2022)
171 highlight the importance of teaching communication skills to engineering and project
172 management students and professionals. Although not noted in the ASCE Bok (2019),
173 semiotics is intrinsic to all instances of communication (Cobley, 2010), civil engineering
174 communications also being inherently semiotic in nature.

175 As noted in the ASCE Bok (2019),

176 “An appreciation of the receiver’s perspective is also essential for the communication to be
177 effective and persuasive. This appreciation is particularly important when communicating
178 with diverse stakeholders and communicating technical issues to nontechnical audiences.”
179 (p.44)

180 This recognition of the importance of persuasion and how others will interpret and
181 understand communications in time-constrained and pressured civil engineering contexts
182 should not be under-estimated.

183 In detailing typical pathways for the fulfilment of the communication skills outcome, the
184 ASCE BoK (2019) notes that in the cognitive domain, the communication outcome is
185 expected to be fulfilled through a combination of undergraduate education and mentored
186 experience (p.45), with self-development being advised to address communication
187 outcomes in the affective domain. The excellent guidance, whilst valid, does not proceed to
188 offer any deeper theoretical or conceptual explanations to clarify how effective and
189 persuasive civil engineering communications may be achieved. For example, the ASCE Body
190 of Knowledge (2019) does not address the semiotic nature of communication or direct any
191 readers to any relevant theories to explain the processes of interpretation and
192 understanding occurring. It is the intention of this paper to make a further contribution to
193 the civil engineering community in this respect.

194 **Social Semiotics and Multimodality**

195 Social semiotics and multimodality have evolved as disciplines of enquiry over a short time
196 period (cf. Veltri 2015; Jewitt et al. 2016). The interest is partly due to the growth of digital
197 technologies for both work and leisure, and recognition of the visual and multimodal as
198 legitimate fields of enquiry (cf. Boxenbaum et al. 2018). The concepts underlying social

199 semiotics, multimodality and visual semiotic studies are closely shared (see Van Leeuwen
200 (2005) for an exhaustive review): each being oriented towards understanding the role of
201 signs in social situations. Social semiotics and multimodality are appropriate and valid for
202 understanding civil engineering communications as projects are recognised as social
203 processes where communication is central to design development (Chiu 2002): multiple
204 modes of communication (i.e. written text, numbers, images, verbal dialogue) often being
205 used in combination to convey information to others. Whereas both social semiotics and
206 multimodality examine the role of signs in social situations, multimodality examines how
207 different modes of communication work in combination.

208 In the built environment field, a number of scholars have engaged with multimodality and
209 social semiotics. Ravelli and McMurtrie (2016) examined a variety of built structures (e.g.
210 libraries; shopping centres; tower blocks) as forms of multimodal texts “to be read” as
211 meaning-making resources in the landscape. Such works examine how buildings
212 communicate in non-verbal ways (cf. Barthes 1979; Rapoport 1990). Semiotics has also been
213 referenced in works clarifying the distribution of meaning in architect’s communications
214 (Medway 1996), that view construction as a complex of signs (Medway and Clark 2003) and
215 work recognising physical built environments as reflecting the representations of other
216 semiotic modes (Markus and Cameron 2002). Collinge (2019; 2017; 2015) noted how
217 construction project engineering and design may be understood as a social semiotic
218 practice, where the representational transformations of requirements over time may be
219 examined and understood using semiotics and multimodal theories of analysis. The
220 adaptability and flexibility of semiotics and multimodality for academics was noted by
221 Hiippala (2017): semiotic enquiry being an adaptable and amenable approach for

222 researchers investigating issues of cognition in various domains. The analytic framework
223 (Figure 1) references scholarly work that has previously applied semiotic analytic techniques
224 to the architecture and built environment fields.

225 The framework combines theories of semiotics, visual social semiotics and multimodality,
226 proposing a methodological alignment so that project resources of different materiality (i.e.
227 drawings; digital images, objects) can be analysed using the same concepts as, “no semiotic
228 mode can be considered without attention to its material” (Bateman and Wildfeuer 2014,
229 182). The framework (figure 1) distinguishes text from visual image sign communications
230 (multimodal being a combination of the two). The relevant analytic concepts for each
231 semiotic are noted in the figure, together with relevant academic works using them. It
232 should be noted that although semiotic analysis uses a certain terminology, it provides an
233 effective suite of techniques, as Harrison (2003, p.154) notes,
234 “The method is quite complex and introduces a great deal of new terminology which can
235 appear pedantic to the outsider...but the method is effective in bringing out hidden
236 meanings.”

237 The concepts within the figure 1 framework are detailed below the figure.

238

239 **Coded/non-coded signs**

240 Non-coded signs are easy to understand compared to those requiring specialised knowledge
241 (coded signs) (Barthes 1967). Coded signs are used amongst communities or professions to
242 facilitate quicker communication (e.g. sign language); coded signs requiring a higher degree
243 of cognitive knowledge, often necessitating the initiation of educational activities from one
244 party to another. In projects, the client may need to be “educated” about issues through the

245 sharing of coded languages (e.g. schematic drawing scales), whereas non-coded signs
246 require no explanation, simplifying the communicative interaction considerably. Whether a
247 sign is coded or non-coded depends upon the cognitive knowledge of individuals interacting
248 with a sign (i.e. their interpretive knowledge).

249 **Denoted/connoted signs**

250 A denoted sign gives a direct, uncomplicated message to be understood. Connoted, or
251 “second-order meanings” are cultural. First level significations (denotations) act as a basis
252 for second level significations (connotations), as Barthes (1967, 1977) states,

253 “The first system (denotation) becomes the signifier of the second system (connotation) ...
254 the signifiers of connotation are made up of the signs of the denoted system.”

255 In civil engineering and project management work, a rough sketch and a digital image may
256 both depict a room, but whether the representation is “professional” or “amateur” in
257 connotation may influence how a client reacts towards it.

258 **Linguistic/iconic signs**

259 Barthes (1977) notes that language often accompanies iconic signs (e.g. diagrams) to
260 function as either anchorage or relay. As anchorage, words (which may be denotative or
261 connotative) label that which is depicted: as relay, text complements an image by adding
262 further meanings. In such cases, text (as a semiotic resource) adds meaning to another
263 semiotic resource (e.g. image; diagram). Iconic signs resemble their object in some way (e.g.
264 photographs, maps, diagrams), having a physical connectivity with an object and are used
265 extensively in construction project work. Penn (2000) notes that linguistic and iconic signs
266 work in different ways, text being a more “laborious” medium than visual imagery, where

267 meanings are conveyed concurrently. Such issues are significant when linguistic and iconic
268 signs are combined as the compositional choice effects how readers relate to and
269 comprehend representations.

270 **Open/closed signs**

271 One method by which sign authors can determine reader interpretation is through the
272 employment of “open” or “closed” signs. Eco (1979) describes “open-texts” (e.g. poems;
273 impressionist paintings, modernist sculpture) as having greater interpretive possibilities
274 than “closed-texts” (e.g. instruction manuals; acts of law). Authors of signs in project
275 management interactions may well consider how “open” or “closed” they are to
276 interpretation as such issues could conceivably affect the project management process.

277 **Visual social semiotic concepts**

278 Visual social semiotic concepts (Kress and van Leeuwen 2006) are employed to examine
279 what an image represents and the nature of the representation. Distinctions can be made
280 between narrative and conceptual visualisations: narrative images “telling stories” about
281 events or situations; conceptual images “defining” or “classifying” people, places or things.
282 As Jewitt and Oyama (2001) state, the choice is important since the decision to represent
283 something in narrative or conceptual form provides a key to understanding the discourse
284 which mediate their representation. Visual social semiotic work also employs a number of
285 concepts (representational; interactive; compositional) to expose how visual images make
286 relationships between viewers and authors of signs, with semiotic choices reflecting the
287 intention, motivations and narrative strategies of sign authors: visuals being examined from
288 a “grammatical” perspective.

289 **Multimodality**

290 Multimodality (Jewitt, Bezemer, and O'Halloran 2016) clarifies how communication is
291 characterised by the co-deployment of multiple sign resources concurrently, combinations
292 of signs cohering and interacting to convey meanings together. Multimodal ensembles of
293 signs (e.g. text, color, image) can be used to convey meanings collectively (Kress 2010) with
294 meanings being distributed across different semiotic modes concurrently (Jewitt and Kress
295 2003). Whilst separate semiotics may be analysed individually, multimodality examines
296 what modes combine together and their relational coherence (Kress 2010): the distribution
297 and weighting of semiotic resource use being critiqued through a multimodal analysis (c.f.
298 Bateman 2014; Hiippala 2015).

299 **Interpretation and Understanding**

300 Signs connect the social world of their use with the cognitive understandings of people, the
301 principle being embodied in Eco's (1979) Model Reader concept (figure 2). The Model
302 Reader indicates how effective communication depends upon shared interpretations and
303 understandings between sign authors and readers. As a referential model, the Model
304 Reader highlights how shared interpretations and understandings are critical for effective
305 communication: signs and semiotic resources being the vehicles and mechanisms of
306 meaning.

307 Eco's Model Reader (1979) highlights shared interpretations and understandings as critical
308 for effective communication: signs and semiotic resources being the vehicles for the
309 achievement of understanding between parties. Eco (1979) contended that although
310 authors of signs align them to the imagined interpretative schemas of readers, sign receivers

311 have the potential to understand in their own way, referencing their own interpretive
312 schemas. Barthes (1968) referred to personal levels of knowledge that readers possess as
313 “lexicons of knowledge”. Both “codes” and “lexicons of knowledge” refer to the cognitive,
314 but in different ways: whilst readers must possess interpretive codes to interpret signs
315 effectively, these codes invoke certain levels of understanding (or lexicons of knowledge).
316 The Model Reader (figure 2) demarcates how authors and readers extrapolate meanings
317 from communicative exchanges by referencing shared interpretive codes and lexicons of
318 knowledge.

319 Whilst Eco (1979) describes the process of interpretation as being a continuous, complex,
320 interconnected cognitive “coming and going” by the reader (p.36), in civil engineering and
321 project management, layers of meaning are generated that have a cumulative effect. For
322 example, a proposed design schematic reviewed by a project team will be discussed,
323 questioned and critiqued, adding further meanings to the schematic.

324 The paper now proceeds to describe the methodological approach adopted to explore the
325 above issues further.

326 **Methodology**

327 A study into communications on a National Health Service (NHS) civil engineering hospital
328 project in the UK examined a series of project resources, interviewing NHS representatives
329 and project/civil engineering professionals in order to understand the communication
330 processes occurring; NHS hospital projects being recognised as complex and challenging for
331 engineers and project management professionals (Collinge, 2015). A series of 21 semi-
332 structured independent interviews were conducted with the researcher. The 21 interviews
333 were a representative sample for the study as all had direct experience of hospital

334 engineering and project management work. Additionally, the interviewees had interacted
335 with or co-created the resources analysed in the paper. Table 1 details the interviewees by
336 professional occupation. The interviews were recorded by the researcher, transcribed and
337 then examined in detail by the researcher working alone; interviews being supplemented by
338 the collection of project resources (e.g. schematic drawings, PowerPoint slides, visual
339 images of the proposed hospital) which interviewees referred to when explaining their
340 insights. In the selection of materials, the contention of Prior (1997) was followed, who
341 states,

342 “Qualitative research can not only start with the investigation of things (rather than
343 persons), but can also examine links and connections between objects that cannot speak,
344 yet nevertheless bear messages.” (77)

345 The relational link between the various resources examined was hospital patient room and
346 ward design and visioning. The researcher analyzed each resource separately, but in
347 sequence, as used on the hospital construction project itself using the social semiotic
348 analytic framework (figure 1). The analysis of each resource was completed independently
349 by the researcher, with interviewee insights complimenting the independent analysis of
350 each resource. Treating separate civil engineering resources as a form of discourse for
351 analysis (Bateman and Wildfeuer 2014) is valid as civil engineering resources are produced
352 successively through a project: requirements shifting in semiotic form as successive
353 resources are produced for interpretation and discussion (Collinge, 2017). The analysis of
354 the changing semiotic forms of project requirements enables a visually expressed narrative
355 to be discerned.

356 Whilst interviewees reflected on each separate resource and provided insights into project
357 communication practices, it was clear that civil engineer and project professional efforts to
358 'understand' and 'engage' with NHS stakeholder interests often equated to how their
359 designs would be understood and interpreted. It was evident that NHS interviewees
360 engaged and related to a project via the designs presented to them, interpreting them
361 against personal cognitive understandings of a fully functional and operational hospital
362 facility.

363 **Empirical Analysis**

364 The paper now proceeds to examine a series of project resources used on an NHS hospital
365 project using the social semiotic framework (figure 1), supplementing the analysis with
366 interviewee views and opinions of the resources as communicative devices.

367 **Project Brief**

368 "We have a huge job at the start of a project to go through all of their written requirements.
369 And they can be quite specific..." (Medical Planner 1)

370 Every project begins with a project brief. On hospital construction projects, patient room
371 design is significant, with visioning and observation of patients being important. The
372 importance of getting patient room design correct was noted by an interviewee who
373 commented,

374 "If you get one ensuite room wrong, you have got 600 wrong, haven't you? We don't want
375 any mistakes." (NHS Head of Planning)

376 Patient room requirements are initially presented in briefing documentation using text
377 statements, such as,

378 “The location of washing and toilet facilities should be ensuite. Washing and toilet facilities
379 should be positioned such that they maximise visibility into the rooms.”

380 “Privacy and dignity of patients should be assured wherever possible and space allowances
381 around patients should be sufficient to provide for this. This could include space for visitors
382 to sit with patients and adequate space between chairs and seating.”

383 Such statements may be examined using concepts from the framework of analysis (figure 1).

384 The text statements are non-coded sign constructs as no specialized knowledge is required
385 to understand the English language used. They are also direct and instructional, being
386 denotative in meaning: direct messages are conveyed to design teams on what they should
387 provide. No background history or organisational detail accompany the requirement
388 statements, so connotative meanings are minimized. This is a deliberate decision of the
389 hospital as author of the text: the minimalist statements giving no insight into organisational
390 culture of the client. Their minimalist nature prompts designers to question and probe the
391 client, as an interviewee noted,

392 “The documents may be written months or years before the bid comes to market...so the
393 documents often don’t have the full story behind them. We often have to tease out the
394 drivers behind the requirements.” (Project Director)

395 Medway (1996) notes how written texts can be used to mask emotions and associated
396 feelings people may have regarding certain subjects, which spoken, face-to-face
397 communications would reveal. Therefore, as well as being official statements of need, the
398 statements also mask any personal feelings towards requirements; the text being a
399 strategically neutral medium of communication.

400 The hospital also does not prioritize any of these requirement statements, but the onus is
401 upon designers to tease out preferences and opinions once briefing dialogue begins. As an
402 interviewee reflected,
403 “It is a process of communication...so we would interpret the brief, do some design work
404 and have our meeting with them and challenge some of the notions: why is there a need for
405 100% in-patient single rooms? It is about challenging and questioning some of the
406 requirements.” (Medical Planner 1)

407 **Initial designs**

408 “It will start with a 2 dimensional, just a plan. Whatever the brief is, I have sketch plan
409 without any visual features of any kind and that will be depending on the scale and nature
410 of it.” (NHS Manager)

411 Initial design work produces sketch drawings of room spaces that meet spatial
412 requirements; designers transforming text and numeric specifications into schematic
413 drawings. An immediate representational shift occurs from the brief text and numerals to
414 the drawn lines and shapes of the schematic. Such schematics may not be presented to the
415 client, but do provide a base for further patient room design, and are therefore important.
416 Design work necessarily requires the use of a semiotic that is efficient, effective and useful;
417 drawing being preferable to either spoken or written text (Medway, 1996).

418 Figure 3 is an isometric drawing subsequently produced by designers. The isometric
419 represents a patient room and as a multimodal resource, combining visual imagery with
420 text.

421 The isometric facilitates swift understanding of room dimensions and room contents for a
422 client audience; both text and visual image elements (i.e. colors; internal room fixtures) are
423 non-coded sign constructs, being immediately understandable to a viewer. This
424 compositional choice assists viewers when engaging with the drawing. The text and visual
425 image elements are connected by labelling lines: selected room elements being labelled
426 with text to provide linguistic anchorage for the visual image that denotes specific items.
427 However, only 8 elements are labelled on the image: the isometric authors directing viewer
428 attention to these elements. Whilst two images are labelled, one remains label-free. It is
429 valid to argue that too many text labels would clutter up the drawing, detracting from it
430 being an effective mode of communication.

431 The isometric makes liberal use of iconic visual signs to represent room furnishings and
432 fittings: iconic signs resembling their objects of reference. A construction connotation is
433 achieved via an absence of color and absence of decorative detail on the furnishings in the
434 isometric. The use of white space and white interior features gives the room an unfinished
435 resonance; the 4 color combination (brown; green; beige; blue) being used minimally. The
436 lack of detail on the isometric and the use of white indicates that the room is unfinished, in
437 an early phase of design; such details encouraging viewers to see the isometric as the
438 product of professional designers. The effect is enhanced by the overall composition;
439 three separate views of the patient room are given: 1 floor plan view; 2 angled perspective
440 views. Although the floor plan view may be a less familiar representation for hospital
441 employees, the isometric remains a non-coded semiotic composition as no specialized
442 knowledge is required to understand it. Communicating effectively with the client, and
443 opening up the design process for their input is important at this stage of the design
444 process:

445 “Part of that is about communication, so my design team understand a 2D drawing but the
446 client may not understand it...To move them away from decisions they don't need to make
447 and get involved with so that they are streamlined onto what is important and how they can
448 help us.” (Clinical Design Manager)

449 Whilst sign choice contributes to overall communicative effect, the design team focus on
450 certain issues through the isometric drawing. For example, 8 room elements are highlighted
451 for attention; it is reasonable to assume that designers want the client to look at these
452 issues in the design meeting. The isometric room drawing is a good example of how a
453 client-facing resource needs to strike the correct balance between embodying design
454 knowledge and also being flexible to change. Although the isometric lacks numeric room
455 measurements, dimensional requirements have been transferred to this isometric drawing;
456 but designers do not represent the dimensions because viewer attention may be taken in
457 another direction if they had. Therefore, through semiotic composition, some
458 requirements (room dimensions) are closed down, whilst others (room features) are opened
459 up for examination: the text, color and image combination focusing attention on room
460 features and the en-suite bathroom detail.

461 The isometric is a narrative representation of a patient room as the room is not represented
462 conceptually or in an abstract way. But the narrative representation is qualified: viewers are
463 invited to imagine how a room may function but no specific persons or actions are depicted.
464 A narrative representation usually presents a story, but the absence of people or actions
465 here leaves it to the viewer to imagine a scenario; the designers not influencing viewer
466 engagement by depicting such signs. The compositional effect makes the isometric a
467 neutral conveyor of information.

468 Viewer attention and interaction is obtained via compositional effect: the room is depicted
469 from above to give a feeling of power over the subject matter. The size of room images and
470 the interior features also creates an appropriate social distance between viewer and subject
471 matter to facilitate engagement and examination. Saliency (viewer attention) is obtained
472 via compositional choice: the 4 colors, isometric perspective, text font size and 3 separate
473 images. The multimodal combination of semiotic modes is an important characteristic of
474 how the isometric works as a communicative device.

475 Compositionally, the isometric has information value for the client, conveying design team
476 ideas about patient room design and fitting out. For designers, information value would be
477 obtained from client reaction to the proposals. Thus, the isometric room drawing prompts
478 client thinking and contributions in certain directions, some room requirement issues (e.g.
479 clinical, regulatory and functional issues) being totally absent from the isometric.

480 The modality of the isometric (i.e. how real the patient room is) is debatable. The use of
481 visual semiotic elements has moved the design towards physical realisation (i.e. away from
482 briefing text formulations), but the representation is still open to change and amendment.

483 An interviewee commented how competing design teams will interpret requirements
484 differently, producing contrasting solutions:

485 “The brief will have been done to a certain level and is quite prescriptive and in line with
486 building standards, but they will always interpret. Things like generic rooms are good
487 examples. You would think they are quite simple. We have 50 odd generic rooms...we have
488 already said what we want, we have already drawn them and shown them what we want
489 but they will bring their own interpretation to it.” (NHS Head of Planning)

490 As noted, designers are careful that representations should encourage further client input
491 into the design process, and semiotic composition facilitates such an input.

492 **Ward corridor schematic**

493 “The way I encourage my team to work is to do the design but then kind of overlay it with
494 the interpretation, so they can see you have good sight lines from that nurse base into those
495 rooms. And you would actually do a little diagram that illustrates that.” (Healthcare Sector
496 Leader)

497 The ward corridor schematic (figure 4) is a further iteration of hospital design, the schematic
498 being presented to the client in order to discuss ward design issues and visioning sight lines.

499 The schematic is a combination of textual and visual semiotics, constituting a multimodal
500 design resource to give a close-up of 4 patient rooms in addition to a general ward plan.

501 The schematic gives a 2D representation of a ward corridor, combining text with visual
502 images. It is an informative device for multiple professional interests: information being
503 conveyed to architects, building contractors and designers through communicative signs
504 (i.e. furniture placement; door positioning, distances between elements). The schematic
505 conveys a design vision to the client, meanings being conveyed by coded and non-coded
506 signs that have denotative and connotative meanings.

507 Denotative signs convey physical and spatial realities of the ward through lines, spaces and
508 shapes; the denotative signs being both coded (e.g. “Type 3” and “SHWR”) and non-coded
509 iconic signs (e.g. beds; toilets; sinks). The coded signs require explanation if not understood;
510 the non-coded signs do not require explanation. Connotative meanings are also conveyed

511 by the overall schematic aesthetic: this representation suggesting design work is moving
512 towards formality as the schematic drawing composition has a distinct “construction” feel.

513 The schematic engages with client requirements regarding patient room design, but is
514 limited in the information it conveys. Issues such as room light penetration, noise levels,
515 staff working patterns and medical equipment are not represented by the schematic, the
516 schematic instead focusing upon physical elements rather than organizational issues.

517 Visioning and “sight-lines” are represented with red shadings that emanate from nurse
518 stations on the ward. These are coded visual signs and may require explanation. Designers
519 could have represented visioning in a variety of ways, but the 2D schematic representation
520 influences the choice of semiotic sign choice in this instance. With the red visioning sight
521 lines, the design team are presenting their interpretation of the requirement in their own
522 way, integrating it with the patient ward design and informing the client that it is being
523 addressed (and potentially satisfied). As Kress (2010) states,

524 “What the sign maker takes as criterial determines what she or he will represent about that
525 entity.” (p.70)

526 The representation of requirements may lead the client to question their validity, as an
527 interviewee noted regarding how visioning issues were questioned following their visual
528 representation:

529 Semiotic representation can therefore be instrumental in how the client may interpret and
530 understanding their own requirements; new meanings being facilitated through their
531 representation in visual image forms.

532 As hospital construction design work proceeds, representations must necessarily begin to
533 engage building service and M&E (mechanical and engineering) issues. As an interviewee
534 noted,

535 "We had bedrooms down either side and then we had an internal spine with support
536 accommodation. 50% of that was all M&E space and they looked at that and thought "we
537 could have so many rooms in that space but it is all duct work". But you can't do anything
538 about it as it is building regulations." (Clinical Design Manager)

539 Ward schematics such as figure 4 immediately invoke issues of interpretation and
540 understanding amongst stakeholders as the signs depicted may not be completely
541 understood. There are elements of the ward corridor schematic that are not easily
542 understood by a non-construction audience: for example, the coded terms (SHWR; Type 3;
543 hatched areas). A hospital Manager commented upon stakeholder engagement with such
544 drawings,

545 "We will look at their drawings, we will talk about it, and then whoever is really around the
546 table will say what they do or don't like. Or the matron might be there, and she will say that
547 something will not work. There is understanding issue. We can look at a drawing 10 times
548 and not see an issue, but a matron will see it on first look. We get clinicians who say that we
549 want this and this. But medics have their own interests."

550 The quote indicates the significance of stakeholder interpretations of the signs depicted on
551 a design drawing. The NHS Manager digressed on how important issues are often not
552 recognized on drawings. One example concerned the plan for a ward where male and
553 female patients were monitored by separate nurse teams, the architects not recognising
554 that one nurse team could monitor both sets of patients adequately,

555 "It would have cost £250k plus £250k to run that as 2 separate teams per year but if you just
556 join these teams together, you will have 1 team, but the architect didn't come along and
557 think of that which was a bit of a surprise."

558 A similar example concerned the design of an entrance to a radiology department at the
559 request of a hospital Director. In this case, necessary fire regulations had not been
560 considered carefully, resulting in doors that were impractical and dangerous in an
561 emergency scenario:

562 "And she wanted a grand entrance on the hospital street that said "Radiology" and a set of
563 double doors...But there were serious fire regulatory issues with the doors. But I saw it and
564 it changed almost overnight. What they described would work but they (the architect) often
565 do not take that extra step of "how will it really be like for a patient"? He hadn't taken that
566 extra step of visualizing something. The really good ones will do that automatically. (NHS
567 Manager)

568 The insights reveal how designers may interpret design proposals differently to client
569 stakeholders, lacking the same cognitive knowledge as their client partners.

570 As a social semiotic resource, the ward corridor schematic works on several levels. It
571 functions through signs that convey direct information about the ward configuration and
572 the central column of services. The inclusion of visioning lines shows how designers are
573 representing other important client requirements; the use of red shapes linking together
574 different design resources and briefing meetings with the client. More directly, the
575 schematic informs the work of the hospital construction professionals, communicating the
576 ideas of designers whilst conveying their professional credentials to a client audience.
577 Finally, the schematic can be a facilitator of learning and understanding as signs potentially

578 trigger cognitive interpretations amongst project stakeholders that may be different to
579 hospital design teams. Such multiple interpretations can be a cohesive force in briefing and
580 design work.

581 **Patient room images**

582 “They want to get our attention, seduce us.” (NHS Manager)

583 Images can be produced by designers through the briefing phase, providing a more visual
584 view of room spaces.

585 Figure 5 is an image of a patient room produced during design phase work. The image is
586 composed of signs that are non-coded, denotative and iconic, the image showing a scene
587 from a patient room, with interior furnishings and people being depicted through visual
588 imagery. The images convey meanings that do not require explanation, attempting to give a
589 realistic view of what patient rooms would look like and how people may use them. Visual
590 imagery is here used for presentational effect; the power point slide not being used to
591 initiate interactional work with the client, but rather to convey how a future patient room
592 would look.

593 Space and visibility issues appear to be emphasized by the composition. The arrangement
594 of room contents and views from the corner of the room convey an idea of space to the
595 viewer. This is complemented by giving the people in the images lots of space and visibility.
596 Some of these messages are questionable when the images are scrutinized. For example,
597 the length of the bed appears distorted. Although 3D imagery can sometimes cause
598 distortions of perspective, the benefits of using 3D over 2D representations was defended
599 by an interviewee,

600 “It is not going to be exactly right because the parallax and the eye and the way that these
601 3D environments work is kind of screwy...but it does show that it either works or doesn't
602 work.” (BIM Manager)

603 However, the contrasting length of patient beds could lead to the supposition that the
604 image authors wished to emphasize space and visibility issues to the client audience.

605 The image presents a narrative account of action, depicting people doing things. This
606 connects with client desire to know how rooms function, but also leads the viewer to begin
607 imagining narrative scenarios themselves. By depicting people, designers have started to
608 formulate stories around the patient room designs, but have also provided the client with a
609 potential starting point for their own functional and operational insights. Thus, the inclusion
610 of narrative signs on the images can provide a story for how a design may work whilst also
611 prompting the viewer to formulate their own narratives.

612 The image also work subtly in other ways. Viewers are engaged with events in the room as
613 a “detached equal”: the horizontal view (rather than an above or below rendering) and the
614 degree of distance from the events (the observer being in the corner of the room)
615 combining together to achieve this effect. Such visual effects have been noted by Kress and
616 van Leeuwen (2006). With these visual techniques, designers have set up an interpersonal
617 relationship between client viewer and the patient room design: the images invite client
618 engagement, but from a pre-determined perspective decided by the design team. The use
619 of visual semiotic resources enables this to happen.

620 For the client, information value resides in how the patient rooms would appear and their
621 potential functionality. For designers, information value resides in client reaction to them.
622 Whilst salience (viewer attention) is obtained via visual graphic elements, modality

623 (realness) of the images is greater than on previously analysed resources, but remains
624 questionable as 3D imagery can distort views of reality and perspective.

625 Despite their visual nature, an NHS Facilities Manager commented that room functionalities
626 on such images can often missed, with floor, furnishings, wall colorings and light fixtures
627 within rooms all having implications for functionality and cost of space:

628 "Architects are more concerned with appearance than practicalities...an architect always has
629 an opinion of what the inside of this building should look like, what color scheme should be
630 in there, what kind of lighting, type of furnishing but not thinking this is a hospital and not a
631 hotel...the type of people using this area and how long the lightings and furnishings would
632 have to last as cost is of paramount importance to us in the NHS."

633 That visual images can trigger stakeholder interpretations that are distinctly different to
634 designers. Project stakeholders may interpret designs from their own professional
635 perspectives; signs triggering cognitive understandings that other project participants may
636 not possess, stakeholders relating to designs with different personal cognitive levels of
637 knowledge (Barthes, 1967). The insights validate Eco's Model Reader (1979) concept that
638 designers actively try to interpret from a client perspective, although their interpretations
639 may be limited. Figure 2 shows how design resources can trigger different levels of
640 understanding amongst project stakeholders, with denotations leading to connotative
641 understandings.

642 That design resources have interpretive flexibility does not detract from the probable
643 purpose of the patient room images for the design team, as explained by the above social
644 semiotic analysis and emphasized by an interviewee comment:

645 “They will always focus in upon a selection which they think tell the story the best way they
646 can. It will be the design team who do the selecting process. They try and make things
647 really clear for the client, expressing what we are trying to convey...in many cases they are
648 storytellers...trying to tell a story and from a design perspective they are great at doing
649 that.” (BIM Manager)

650 An NHS Project Manager commented upon the use of visual images in briefing work,
651 “One of the things you increasingly see from bidders is the use of computer generated
652 images but I am always wary. You can often find visual rhetoric in the representations, so
653 the representation is embellished to make it look better than the final physical product.
654 And if you think about the PFI process as being a very competitive with 2 bidders, they are
655 spending millions of pounds to win the bid, they have every incentive to try and make their
656 design as appealing as they can.”

657 A Project Director also noted how different stakeholder groups bring their own sets of
658 requirements to the table:

659 “Different staff groups, including doctors, nurses, clinicians, director of clinical care will all
660 bring with themselves their requirements...so if you are looking at putting a glass screen in
661 front of a new patient bedroom, they will be looking at the crash eventualities...can we open
662 the door, can we get past that chair...you are looking at all of those aspects, it is not just a
663 “here is a room with the furniture in”

664 That individuals can bring personal and professional sets of requirements with themselves
665 to the table is another notable characteristic of briefing and design work. Different
666 stakeholders will potentially interpret a hospital design proposal from their own

667 understandings: a design image (such as the nurse station slide) may invoke multiple and
668 diverse stakeholder interpretations.

669 The visual image was used by designers to present an aesthetically pleasing representation
670 of patient room spaces. Semiotic analysis reveals how such images have been composed to
671 have a social impact in the competitive briefing context; the strategic intention of the design
672 team being made evident through choice of compositional effects. The images are more
673 presentational than practical design tools.

674 The analysis noted that despite the narrative imagery and the emphasis upon space and
675 visibility, stakeholders may still relate to the design with their own cognitive understandings
676 based upon professional experience and knowledge. It is possible that hospital design team
677 may not possess such knowledge. As a resource of design, the images are used in a later
678 phase of briefing work, where designers are looking for affirmation of their room design
679 from the client.

680 **Discussion – Practicality issues**

681 In noting that communication is an essential professional skill for civil engineers, the ASCE
682 Body of Knowledge (2019) provides a review of cognitive domain and affective domain
683 levels of achievement (p.42-43). The different levels of demonstrated ability/achievement
684 detailed for these domains may be linked directly to semiotics theories of communication
685 and the analytical techniques detailed in the paper. For example, the required ability to
686 “Formulate effective and persuasive communication to technical and nontechnical
687 audiences” (Cognitive Level) links to the Model Reader concept of Eco (figure 2) and the
688 choice of semiotic to use in civil engineering work.

689 Mobilisation of the semiotic concepts and framework detailed in this paper would be
690 possible at several stages of the civil engineering education journey to reinforce the
691 criticality of communication in civil engineering work. For example, undergraduates and
692 postgraduate classes on communications skills/processes could integrate the Eco theory and
693 semiotic framework into learning outcomes. Additionally, the insights of the paper could be
694 integrated into self-development of communication skills and semiotic peer-review of
695 project communications prior to their use.

696 The examination of resources from the hospital project revealed how they function as
697 communicative devices through their semiotic composition (i.e. being composed of
698 coded/non-coded; denotative/connotative; visual social semiotic signs). From the empirical
699 evidence, it is clear that semiotic choices were intrinsic to the civil engineering
700 communications occurring; specific meanings being conveyed through sign constructs (e.g.
701 room sizes; equipment/furniture placement). The sharing of resources with more
702 stakeholders multiplies understandings and interpretations, with effective stakeholder
703 engagement work requiring a sharing and open discussion of engineering ideas, often
704 around a shared resource. Useful knowledge for engineers can emerge from such
705 discussions, which contrasts to the neutral and anonymised requirement statements that
706 commonly initiate civil engineering projects.

707 The significance of resources to open up, mask or highlight certain engineering issues
708 (through semiotic composition) was evidenced: such choices being significant in a time
709 constrained project lifecycle. The strategic motivation of sign authors (both client and civil
710 engineers) was evident through the analysis: the composition of resources reflecting the
711 desires of parties in the communication process. It may be noted that requirements remain

712 a tangible link to the client through successive iterations of design, so the representational
713 transformation of requirements through semiotic resources provide practitioners
714 opportunities to create linkages between meetings spread across several weeks or months.
715 Therefore, semiotic resources are key to developing the relationship between parties and
716 maintaining a flow of continuity between engineers and other parties.

717 **Theoretical and Pedagogical Issues**

718 As noted earlier in the paper, the Model Reader concept of Eco (1979) clarifies how
719 communication works from cognitive and social perspectives (figure 2). The data presented
720 in the paper provides tangible evidence of the validity of the Model Reader for civil
721 engineering communicative exchanges. However, the Model Reader of Eco (1979) should
722 be qualified: whilst engineers actively produce communicative signs, attempting to interpret
723 them from the perspective of an audience, they can fail to interpret them in the same way.
724 Interpretive codes (Eco, 1979) and lexicons of knowledge (Barthes, 1967; 1977) (figure 2)
725 inform our understanding of interpretative events: whilst interpretative codes may
726 sometimes be shared (i.e. the key to a schematic drawing), lexicons of knowledge may not
727 be. Which meanings and understandings derive depends upon the signs displayed as well
728 as the different interpretive frameworks of persons interacting with them. Unforeseen
729 interpretations may occur in spite of civil engineer efforts to educate project stakeholders
730 (i.e. to provide them with an interpretive code). Civil engineers should be mindful of the
731 possibility of such occurrences happening.

732 Civil engineering pedagogy should recognise the social semiotic nature of communicative
733 resources used in civil engineering work, so that future professionals are aware of the
734 theoretical and conceptual nature of their communicative choices. The author contends

735 that it would be possible to integrate the social semiotic framework into technical
736 communication skills classes for civil engineers and project managers. The empirical insights
737 also reveal how project resources can trigger educational and learning activities between
738 parties (e.g. a facilities manager will have a different interpretation to an NHS manager).
739 The inherent usefulness of visualisations was evidenced: new meanings emerging from
740 representations that use visual rather than textual semiotics. It can be argued that the
741 visible manifestation of requirements engages individual stakeholder attention, triggering
742 cognitive understandings and interpretations: meanings being either co-produced in
743 interactive dynamics or being proposed by either client or designers through semiotic
744 resource use.

745 The terms detailed in the semiotic framework (figure 1) provide the conceptual apparatus
746 by which images and resources should be composed for audiences in civil engineering
747 contexts. To assist in practical usage, a simple checklist of questions can help to prompt a
748 review of resources before their active use in meetings/presentations:

749 - Is the image/resource easily understandable for the intended audience?

750 - Can it or should it be simplified?

751 - Does it address the civil engineering issues in order for work to move forwards?

752 - Is there a correct balance between information and visual aesthetic?

753 **Conclusion**

754 Scholars regularly emphasize the criticality of communication skills for everyday professional
755 practice (e.g. Froehle et al. 2022; Pourmand et al. 2021; Pradhananga et al. 2022). Whilst
756 previous work has rightly noted the importance of representational choices and cognition in

757 engineering practice (Barner and Brown, 2021), with semiotics and engineering resource
758 functionality (i.e. schematics; images; text documents) being identified as important (c.f.
759 Simpson, 2014; Simpson and Archer, 2019), no previous work has systematically employed a
760 social semiotic framework to deconstruct the functionality of engineering resources in a civil
761 engineering context.

762 The empirical insights of the paper provide evidence of the importance of the functionality
763 of project resources (e.g. schematics; images; drawings) when mobilised in the project
764 discourse. The semiotic composition of resources can impact stakeholder management and
765 the overall project management trajectory by the representational choices of resource
766 authors. Civil engineering resources enable project teams to engage various stakeholders in
767 cooperative, interactive processes of learning through the proactive use of modes of
768 communication. In this process, sign communications contribute both procedurally (via
769 delivery of data) and socially (as relationship building resources), either opening up or
770 closing down design issues in strategic ways. It is through this semiotic exploration of civil
771 engineering resources that the paper builds upon the work of scholars who have identified
772 semiotic processes as intrinsic to project management and civil engineering
773 communications. The theoretical and conceptual contributions add further to our
774 understandings of communication in civil engineering. The insights may complement the
775 teaching of civil engineering communication skills whilst supporting professionals in the field
776 when reviewing and refining their communications.

777 Data Availability Statement

778 All data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available
779 from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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| <i>NHS interviewees</i> | <i>Project/Civil Eng. interviewees</i> |
|---|--|
| NHS Project Manager 2 | Project Director 2 |
| NHS Head of Programme Development 1 | Design Director 2 |
| NHS Commissioning Manager 1 | Medical Planner 2 |
| NHS Design Development Manager 1 | Company Director 1 |
| NHS Building Services & Energy Engineer 1 | Operations Manager 1 |
| NHS Head of Clinical Planning & Development 1 | Client Relations Manager 1 |
| NHS Head of Facilities 1 | Clinical Design Manager 1 |
| NHS Clinical Healthcare Planner 1 | Healthcare Sector Leader 1 |
| | Building Information Modelling (BIM) Manager 1 |

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905 Table 1: Interviewees by professional occupation

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