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1 **EI1913**

2 **Issues of Interpretation and Understanding: Social Semiotic Framework to Inform**
3 **Teaching of Civil Engineering and Project Communications**

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 Civil engineers and project managers must control and manage the project management
9 discourse with the client and other stakeholders or risk slippages to time, cost and
10 programme. This paper explores how communicative choices and the representation of
11 project requirements and engineering issues is intrinsic to effective civil engineering work.
12 Using a social semiotic framework, the paper contributes to civil engineering learning by
13 revealing how various engineering communications (e.g. schematic drawings; visual images)
14 function in civil engineering contexts. The research builds upon civil engineering
15 communication scholarship, highlighting the significance of representational choices for
16 affecting engineering work. The social semiotic and multimodal informed analysis clarifies
17 processes of cognition, interpretation and understanding at play when civil engineers
18 interact with project stakeholders. The findings inform civil engineering education and the
19 teaching of communication skills: communication composition being intrinsic to effective
20 civil engineering work.

21

22

23 **Practical Applications**

24 The paper presents a framework for assisting and guiding civil engineers and project
25 management professionals in the formulation and review of communicative resources (e.g.
26 visual images; drawings; schematics) used in civil engineering and project management
27 work. The social semiotic framework, validated through case study evidence from a hospital
28 construction project, informs the teaching of civil engineering communication skills:
29 communicative choices and the representation of project requirements and engineering
30 issues being intrinsic to several aspects of civil engineering work, including risk
31 management, stakeholder engagement and planning and control. The theoretical insights
32 address the role of authors and readers of sign communications in civil engineering work,
33 and clarify the processes of cognition and interpretation at play when engineers interact
34 with other professionals and project stakeholders with various communicative resources.
35 The paper adds to the body of knowledge concerning communication in civil engineering
36 contexts and informs the teaching of communication skills for professional civil engineers.

37 *Keywords:* communication; stakeholder management; cognition; social semiotics;
38 multimodality; design work; cognition.

39

40 **Introduction**

41 Effective communication has long been recognised as essential for civil engineering and
42 project management success (ASCE 2019). Industry codes of practice (e.g. CIOB 2022; ASCE
43 2019) highlight communication as critical to processes and practices: communication being
44 linked to effective stakeholder engagement and management (Turkulainen et al 2015). The

45 UK Chartered Institute of Building (CIOB) (2018) notes communication as a core standard for
46 project management learning, whilst in the United States, the American Council for
47 Construction Education (ACCE) (2021) has similar stipulations, noting that written
48 communications and oral presentation skills be taught that are appropriate for civil
49 engineering and project management disciplines. However, the significance of routine
50 methods of communication used by civil engineers (e.g. schematic drawings; visual images)
51 often escapes notice despite their importance to effect the civil engineering discourse.
52 Additionally, whilst academic work has highlighted the importance of communication, for
53 example, Ninan et al. (2020) highlighting the significance of social media and information
54 communications technology (ICT) for external stakeholder management on megaprojects,
55 and Datta et al. (2020) identifying the centrality of communication in addressing the
56 “knowing-doing gap”, little research into how civil engineering resources function in an
57 engineering project has been conducted.

58 Such an empirical enquiry is important because in civil engineering projects, communication
59 occurs not just from person-to-person, but also from project resource to person:
60 interactions between humans and resources also being legitimate instances of
61 communication. This paper explores how project resources carry intention and meaning
62 from the originator to the reader/viewer through their composition; an issue which may be
63 understood clearly through semiotics. The significance of semiotics for understanding
64 project communications has been noted previously (c.f. Gluch and Raisanen, 2009; Collinge
65 and Harty, 2014). This paper extends such work by utilizing a social semiotic framework of
66 analysis to examine and critique resources used in the civil engineering project management
67 discourse: social semiotics being the analysis of sign constructs used in social situations. A
68 social semiotic informed analysis enables a deeper and more reflective understanding of the

69 role of signs in social situations, the implications of sign deployment and the motivational
70 drivers underlying their formulation (Kress, 2010).

71 Clarification of the interpretive and cognitive processes at play when communication
72 resources are mobilised reveals how issues such as stakeholder management, risk
73 management and planning/control are effected by communicative resources. Several
74 contributions are made. Firstly, social semiotics and multimodality are presented as valid
75 analytical approaches for the review and formulation of resources used in civil engineering
76 work. Secondly, theoretical contributions are made concerning issues of interpretation and
77 cognition: particularly how resources trigger cognitive interpretive codes and lexicons of
78 knowledge (Eco 1979). These theoretical contributions inform existing understandings of
79 the teaching of communication skills required of civil engineers. Thirdly, civil engineering
80 communication is revealed as inherently social semiotic: everyday resources impacting work
81 significantly through their communicative properties. Such an insight is valuable for civil
82 engineers active in the profession as the deeper understanding of communicative processes
83 contributes to civil engineering education scholarship.

84 The paper has the following overall research questions:

- 85 - How do communicative choices affect the civil engineering discourse?
- 86 - How can various communicative resources be understood conceptually and theoretically?
- 87 - How can processes of cognition, interpretation and understanding be better understood
88 when civil engineers communicate?

89 **Background and Paper Organisation**

90 Civil engineering projects are complex, information-intensive collaborations (ICE, 2020)
91 where communication is central to effective work execution (Winch and Kelsey, 2005). In
92 the iterative cycles of communication (Emmitt and Gorse 2007), varieties of resources are
93 used to propel the process forward (e.g. sketches and drawings; physical models; bills of
94 quantities; digital images). Whilst such resources are integral to civil engineering work, they
95 are less well understood conceptually or theoretically. Additionally, as resources are often
96 disseminated and shared with multiple stakeholders, appreciation of how project resources
97 are interpreted and understood from a cognitive perspective is also merited.

98 Civil engineering resources are important for the communication and relationship building
99 process, being semiotic devices (being composed of sign constructs). For example, a project
100 brief will communicate client needs and requirements in words and numbers (e.g. costs;
101 dimensions); an image of a building may communicate architectural aesthetics via color and
102 graphics in a landscaped environment; a Gantt chart will communicate project timeframe
103 and work package connections through colors, lines and words. Whilst Lloyd and Busby
104 (2001) highlight the importance of language and word exchange in social design interactions
105 (i.e. designers using words and language to articulate their thoughts as opposed to
106 architects, who prefer to use drawings and sketches), Bogers et al. (2008) reflect how
107 designers often use images to clarify concepts. More recently, the study of Datta et al.
108 (2020) into how 4D visualisations help project teams identify risks highlighted the
109 significance of interpretation and representations of project work.

110 The paper examines civil engineering communications using social semiotics. Semiotics is
111 the study of signs used in communicative interactions (Cobley, 2010); the overarching aim of
112 semiotics being to study the production and comprehension of sign constructs as

113 manifesting in human and non-human spheres (Danesi, 2010, p.135). Social semiotics is
114 oriented towards understanding the role of signs in social situations, the implications of sign
115 deployment and the motivational drivers underlying their formulation (Kress, 2010).
116 Arguably, deeper understandings of communication are needed to explore different aspects
117 of civil engineering work. For example, whilst planning and control is recognised as
118 important for establishing shared understandings of objectives and risks (Winch and Kelsey,
119 2005), analysis of how civil engineering resources impact such processes has been limited.
120 Similarly, if civil engineers are tasked with monitoring time, cost and quality, then
121 understanding the impact (real or potential) of the resources used on those parameters is
122 informative for future civil engineering work. Moreover, if we accept that project control is
123 beyond the capability of one individual – control existing at a number of levels in a number
124 of places (APM, 2019) – then understanding the role of civil engineering resources in the
125 planning, risk and control process is important. Such findings should also inform the
126 teaching and understanding of civil engineering communications pedagogy.

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

136 **Teaching of Civil Engineering Communication**

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

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

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

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

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

158 As noted in the ASCE Bok (2019),
159 “An appreciation of the receiver’s perspective is also essential for the communication to be
160 effective and persuasive. This appreciation is particularly important when communicating
161 with diverse stakeholders and communicating technical issues to nontechnical audiences.”
162 (p.44)

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

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

177 **Social Semiotics and Multimodality**

178 Social semiotics and multimodality have evolved as disciplines of enquiry over a short time
179 period (cf. Veltri 2015; Jewitt et al. 2016). The interest is partly due to the growth of digital

180 technologies for both work and leisure, and recognition of the visual and multimodal as
181 legitimate fields of enquiry (cf. Boxenbaum et al. 2018). The concepts underlying social
182 semiotics, multimodality and visual semiotic studies are closely shared (see Van Leeuwen
183 (2005) for an exhaustive review): each being oriented towards understanding the role of
184 signs in social situations. Social semiotics and multimodality are appropriate and valid for
185 understanding civil engineering communications as projects are recognised as social
186 processes where communication is central to design development (Chiu 2002): multiple
187 modes of communication (i.e. written text, numbers, images, verbal dialogue) often being
188 used in combination to convey information to others. Whereas both social semiotics and
189 multimodality examine the role of signs in social situations, multimodality examines how
190 different modes of communication work in combination.

191 In the built environment field, a number of scholars have engaged with multimodality and
192 social semiotics. Ravelli and McMurtrie (2016) examined a variety of built structures (e.g.
193 libraries; shopping centres; tower blocks) as forms of multimodal texts “to be read” as
194 meaning-making resources in the landscape. Such works examine how buildings
195 communicate in non-verbal ways (cf. Barthes 1979; Rapoport 1990). Semiotics has also been
196 referenced in works clarifying the distribution of meaning in architect’s communications
197 (Medway 1996), that view construction as a complex of signs (Medway and Clark 2003) and
198 work recognising physical built environments as reflecting the representations of other
199 semiotic modes (Markus and Cameron 2002). Collinge (2019; 2017; 2015) noted how
200 construction project engineering and design may be understood as a social semiotic
201 practice, where the representational transformations of requirements over time may be
202 examined and understood using semiotics and multimodal theories of analysis. The

203 adaptability and flexibility of semiotics and multimodality for academics was noted by
204 Hiippala (2017): semiotic enquiry being an adaptable and amenable approach for
205 researchers investigating issues of cognition in various domains. The analytic framework
206 (Figure 1) references scholarly work that has previously applied semiotic analytic techniques
207 to the architecture and built environment fields.

208 The framework combines theories of semiotics, visual social semiotics and multimodality,
209 proposing a methodological alignment so that project resources of different materiality (i.e.
210 drawings; digital images, objects) can be analysed using the same concepts as, “no semiotic
211 mode can be considered without attention to its material” (Bateman and Wildfeuer 2014,
212 182). The framework (figure 1) distinguishes text from visual image sign communications
213 (multimodal being a combination of the two). The relevant analytic concepts for each
214 semiotic are noted in the figure, together with relevant academic works using them. It
215 should be noted that although semiotic analysis uses a certain terminology, it provides an
216 effective suite of techniques, as Harrison (2003, p.154) notes,

217 “The method is quite complex and introduces a great deal of new terminology which can
218 appear pedantic to the outsider...but the method is effective in bringing out hidden
219 meanings.”

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

221

222 **Coded/non-coded signs**

223 Non-coded signs are easy to understand compared to those requiring specialised knowledge
224 (coded signs) (Barthes 1967). Coded signs are used amongst communities or professions to
225 facilitate quicker communication (e.g. sign language); coded signs requiring a higher degree

226 of cognitive knowledge, often necessitating the initiation of educational activities from one
227 party to another. In projects, the client may need to be “educated” about issues through the
228 sharing of coded languages (e.g. schematic drawing scales), whereas non-coded signs
229 require no explanation, simplifying the communicative interaction considerably. Whether a
230 sign is coded or non-coded depends upon the cognitive knowledge of individuals interacting
231 with a sign (i.e. their interpretive knowledge).

232 **Denoted/connoted signs**

233 A denoted sign gives a direct, uncomplicated message to be understood. Connoted, or
234 “second-order meanings” are cultural. First level significations (denotations) act as a basis
235 for second level significations (connotations), as Barthes (1967, 1977) states,
236 “The first system (denotation) becomes the signifier of the second system (connotation) ...
237 the signifiers of connotation are made up of the signs of the denoted system.”

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

241 **Linguistic/iconic signs**

242 Barthes (1977) notes that language often accompanies iconic signs (e.g. diagrams) to
243 function as either anchorage or relay. As anchorage, words (which may be denotative or
244 connotative) label that which is depicted: as relay, text complements an image by adding
245 further meanings. In such cases, text (as a semiotic resource) adds meaning to another
246 semiotic resource (e.g. image; diagram). Iconic signs resemble their object in some way (e.g.
247 photographs, maps, diagrams), having a physical connectivity with an object and are used

248 extensively in construction project work. Penn (2000) notes that linguistic and iconic signs
249 work in different ways, text being a more “laborious” medium than visual imagery, where
250 meanings are conveyed concurrently. Such issues are significant when linguistic and iconic
251 signs are combined as the compositional choice effects how readers relate to and
252 comprehend representations.

253 **Open/closed signs**

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

260 **Visual social semiotic concepts**

261 Visual social semiotic concepts (Kress and van Leeuwen 2006) are employed to examine
262 what an image represents and the nature of the representation. Distinctions can be made
263 between narrative and conceptual visualisations: narrative images “telling stories” about
264 events or situations; conceptual images “defining” or “classifying” people, places or things.
265 As Jewitt and Oyama (2001) state, the choice is important since the decision to represent
266 something in narrative or conceptual form provides a key to understanding the discourse
267 which mediate their representation. Visual social semiotic work also employs a number of
268 concepts (representational; interactive; compositional) to expose how visual images make
269 relationships between viewers and authors of signs, with semiotic choices reflecting the

270 intention, motivations and narrative strategies of sign authors: visuals being examined from
271 a “grammatical” perspective.

272 **Multimodality**

273 Multimodality (Jewitt, Bezemer, and O’Halloran 2016) clarifies how communication is
274 characterised by the co-deployment of multiple sign resources concurrently, combinations
275 of signs cohering and interacting to convey meanings together. Multimodal ensembles of
276 signs (e.g. text, color, image) can be used to convey meanings collectively (Kress 2010) with
277 meanings being distributed across different semiotic modes concurrently (Jewitt and Kress
278 2003). Whilst separate semiotics may be analysed individually, multimodality examines
279 what modes combine together and their relational coherence (Kress 2010): the distribution
280 and weighting of semiotic resource use being critiqued through a multimodal analysis (c.f.
281 Bateman 2014; Hiippala 2015).

282 **Interpretation and Understanding**

283 Signs connect the social world of their use with the cognitive understandings of people, the
284 principle being embodied in Eco’s (1979) Model Reader concept (figure 2). The Model
285 Reader indicates how effective communication depends upon shared interpretations and
286 understandings between sign authors and readers. As a referential model, the Model
287 Reader highlights how shared interpretations and understandings are critical for effective
288 communication: signs and semiotic resources being the vehicles and mechanisms of
289 meaning.

290 Eco’s Model Reader (1979) highlights shared interpretations and understandings as critical
291 for effective communication: signs and semiotic resources being the vehicles for the

292 achievement of understanding between parties. Eco (1979) contended that although
293 authors of signs align them to the imagined interpretative schemas of readers, sign receivers
294 have the potential to understand in their own way, referencing their own interpretive
295 schemas. Barthes (1968) referred to personal levels of knowledge that readers possess as
296 “lexicons of knowledge”. Both “codes” and “lexicons of knowledge” refer to the cognitive,
297 but in different ways: whilst readers must possess interpretive codes to interpret signs
298 effectively, these codes invoke certain levels of understanding (or lexicons of knowledge).
299 The Model Reader (figure 2) demarcates how authors and readers extrapolate meanings
300 from communicative exchanges by referencing shared interpretive codes and lexicons of
301 knowledge.

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

307 The paper now proceeds to describe the methodological approach adopted to explore the
308 above issues further.

309 **Methodology**

310 A study into communications on a National Health Service (NHS) civil engineering hospital
311 project in the UK examined a series of project resources, interviewing NHS representatives
312 and project/civil engineering professionals in order to understand the communication
313 processes occurring; NHS hospital projects being recognised as complex and challenging for
314 engineers and project management professionals (Collinge, 2015). A series of 21 semi-

315 structured independent interviews were conducted with the researcher. The 21 interviews
316 were a representative sample for the study as all had direct experience of hospital
317 engineering and project management work. Additionally, the interviewees had interacted
318 with or co-created the resources analysed in the paper. Table 1 details the interviewees by
319 professional occupation. The interviews were recorded by the researcher, transcribed and
320 then examined in detail by the researcher working alone; interviews being supplemented by
321 the collection of project resources (e.g. schematic drawings, PowerPoint slides, visual
322 images of the proposed hospital) which interviewees referred to when explaining their
323 insights. In the selection of materials, the contention of Prior (1997) was followed, who
324 states,

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

328 The relational link between the various resources examined was hospital patient room and
329 ward design and visioning. The researcher analyzed each resource separately, but in
330 sequence, as used on the hospital construction project itself using the social semiotic
331 analytic framework (figure 1). The analysis of each resource was completed independently
332 by the researcher, with interviewee insights complimenting the independent analysis of
333 each resource. Treating separate civil engineering resources as a form of discourse for
334 analysis (Bateman and Wildfeuer 2014) is valid as civil engineering resources are produced
335 successively through a project: requirements shifting in semiotic form as successive
336 resources are produced for interpretation and discussion (Collinge, 2017). The analysis of

337 the changing semiotic forms of project requirements enables a visually expressed narrative
338 to be discerned.

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

346 **Empirical Analysis**

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

350 **Project Brief**

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

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

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

359 Patient room requirements are initially presented in briefing documentation using text
360 statements, such as,

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

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

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

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

375 “The documents may be written months or years before the bid comes to market...so the
376 documents often don` t have the full story behind them. We often have to tease out the
377 drivers behind the requirements.” (Project Director)

378 Medway (1996) notes how written texts can be used to mask emotions and associated
379 feelings people may have regarding certain subjects, which spoken, face-to-face
380 communications would reveal. Therefore, as well as being official statements of need, the

381 statements also mask any personal feelings towards requirements; the text being a
382 strategically neutral medium of communication.

383 The hospital also does not prioritize any of these requirement statements, but the onus is
384 upon designers to tease out preferences and opinions once briefing dialogue begins. As an
385 interviewee reflected,

386 “It is a process of communication...so we would interpret the brief, do some design work
387 and have our meeting with them and challenge some of the notions: why is there a need for
388 100% in-patient single rooms? It is about challenging and questioning some of the
389 requirements.” (Medical Planner 1)

390 **Initial designs**

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

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

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

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

414 The isometric makes liberal use of iconic visual signs to represent room furnishings and
415 fittings: iconic signs resembling their objects of reference. A construction connotation is
416 achieved via an absence of color and absence of decorative detail on the furnishings in the
417 isometric. The use of white space and white interior features gives the room an unfinished
418 resonance; the 4 color combination (brown; green; beige; blue) being used minimally. The
419 lack of detail on the isometric and the use of white indicates that the room is unfinished, in
420 an early phase of design; such details encouraging viewers to see the isometric as the
421 product of professional designers. The effect is enhanced by the overall composition;
422 threeseparate views of the patient room are given: 1 floor plan view; 2 angled perspective
423 views. Although the floor plan view may be a less familiar representation for hospital

424 employees, the isometric remains a non-coded semiotic composition as no specialized
425 knowledge is required to understand it. Communicating effectively with the client, and
426 opening up the design process for their input is important at this stage of the design
427 process:

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

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

444 The isometric is a narrative representation of a patient room as the room is not represented
445 conceptually or in an abstract way. But the narrative representation is qualified: viewers are
446 invited to imagine how a room may function but no specific persons or actions are depicted.

447 A narrative representation usually presents a story, but the absence of people or actions
448 here leaves it to the viewer to imagine a scenario; the designers not influencing viewer
449 engagement by depicting such signs. The compositional effect makes the isometric a
450 neutral conveyor of information.

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

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

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

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

468 “The brief will have been done to a certain level and is quite prescriptive and in line with
469 building standards, but they will always interpret. Things like generic rooms are good

470 examples. You would think they are quite simple. We have 50 odd generic rooms...we have
471 already said what we want, we have already drawn them and shown them what we want
472 but they will bring their own interpretation to it.” (NHS Head of Planning)

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

475 **Ward corridor schematic**

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

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

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

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

490 Denotative signs convey physical and spatial realities of the ward through lines, spaces and
491 shapes; the denotative signs being both coded (e.g. “Type 3” and “SHWR”) and non-coded

492 iconic signs (e.g. beds; toilets; sinks). The coded signs require explanation if not understood;
493 the non-coded signs do not require explanation. Connotative meanings are also conveyed
494 by the overall schematic aesthetic: this representation suggesting design work is moving
495 towards formality as the schematic drawing composition has a distinct “construction” feel.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

533 The quote indicates the significance of stakeholder interpretations of the signs depicted on
534 a design drawing. The NHS Manager digressed on how important issues are often not
535 recognized on drawings. One example concerned the plan for a ward where male and
536 female patients were monitored by separate nurse teams, the architects not recognising
537 that one nurse team could monitor both sets of patients adequately,
538 "It would have cost £250k plus £250k to run that as 2 separate teams per year but if you just
539 join these teams together, you will have 1 team, but the architect didn't come along and
540 think of that which was a bit of a surprise."

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

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

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

553 As a social semiotic resource, the ward corridor schematic works on several levels. It
554 functions through signs that convey direct information about the ward configuration and

555 the central column of services. The inclusion of visioning lines shows how designers are
556 representing other important client requirements; the use of red shapes linking together
557 different design resources and briefing meetings with the client. More directly, the
558 schematic informs the work of the hospital construction professionals, communicating the
559 ideas of designers whilst conveying their professional credentials to a client audience.
560 Finally, the schematic can be a facilitator of learning and understanding as signs potentially
561 trigger cognitive interpretations amongst project stakeholders that may be different to
562 hospital design teams. Such multiple interpretations can be a cohesive force in briefing and
563 design work.

564 **Patient room images**

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

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

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

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

583 “It is not going to be exactly right because the parallax and the eye and the way that these
584 3D environments work is kind of screwy...but it does show that it either works or doesn't
585 work.” (BIM Manager)

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

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

595 The image also work subtly in other ways. Viewers are engaged with events in the room as
596 a “detached equal”: the horizontal view (rather than an above or below rendering) and the
597 degree of distance from the events (the observer being in the corner of the room)
598 combining together to achieve this effect. Such visual effects have been noted by Kress and

599 van Leeuwen (2006). With these visual techniques, designers have set up an interpersonal
600 relationship between client viewer and the patient room design: the images invite client
601 engagement, but from a pre-determined perspective decided by the design team. The use
602 of visual semiotic resources enables this to happen.

603 For the client, information value resides in how the patient rooms would appear and their
604 potential functionality. For designers, information value resides in client reaction to them.
605 Whilst salience (viewer attention) is obtained via visual graphic elements, modality
606 (realness) of the images is greater than on previously analysed resources, but remains
607 questionable as 3D imagery can distort views of reality and perspective.

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

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

616 That visual images can trigger stakeholder interpretations that are distinctly different to
617 designers. Project stakeholders may interpret designs from their own professional
618 perspectives; signs triggering cognitive understandings that other project participants may
619 not possess, stakeholders relating to designs with different personal cognitive levels of
620 knowledge (Barthes, 1967). The insights validate Eco's Model Reader (1979) concept that
621 designers actively try to interpret from a client perspective, although their interpretations

622 may be limited. Figure 2 shows how design resources can trigger different levels of
623 understanding amongst project stakeholders, with denotations leading to connotative
624 understandings.

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

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

633 An NHS Project Manager commented upon the use of visual images in briefing work,

634 “One of the things you increasingly see from bidders is the use of computer generated
635 images but I am always wary. You can often find visual rhetoric in the representations, so
636 the representation is embellished to make it look better than the final physical product.

637 And if you think about the PFI process as being a very competitive with 2 bidders, they are
638 spending millions of pounds to win the bid, they have every incentive to try and make their
639 design as appealing as they can.”

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

642 “Different staff groups, including doctors, nurses, clinicians, director of clinical care will all
643 bring with themselves their requirements...so if you are looking at putting a glass screen in

644 front of a new patient bedroom, they will be looking at the crash eventualities...can we open
645 the door, can we get past that chair...you are looking at all of those aspects, it is not just a
646 “here is a room with the furniture in”

647 That individuals can bring personal and professional sets of requirements with themselves
648 to the table is another notable characteristic of briefing and design work. Different
649 stakeholders will potentially interpret a hospital design proposal from their own
650 understandings: a design image (such as the nurse station slide) may invoke multiple and
651 diverse stakeholder interpretations.

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

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

663 **Discussion – Practicality issues**

664 In noting that communication is an essential professional skill for civil engineers, the ASCE
665 Body of Knowledge (2019) provides a review of cognitive domain and affective domain
666 levels of achievement (p.42-43). The different levels of demonstrated ability/achievement

667 detailed for these domains may be linked directly to semiotics theories of communication
668 and the analytical techniques detailed in the paper. For example, the required ability to
669 “Formulate effective and persuasive communication to technical and nontechnical
670 audiences” (Cognitive Level) links to the Model Reader concept of Eco (figure 2) and the
671 choice of semiotic to use in civil engineering work.

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

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

690 The significance of resources to open up, mask or highlight certain engineering issues
691 (through semiotic composition) was evidenced: such choices being significant in a time
692 constrained project lifecycle. The strategic motivation of sign authors (both client and civil
693 engineers) was evident through the analysis: the composition of resources reflecting the
694 desires of parties in the communication process. It may be noted that requirements remain
695 a tangible link to the client through successive iterations of design, so the representational
696 transformation of requirements through semiotic resources provide practitioners
697 opportunities to create linkages between meetings spread across several weeks or months.
698 Therefore, semiotic resources are key to developing the relationship between parties and
699 maintaining a flow of continuity between engineers and other parties.

700 **Theoretical and Pedagogical Issues**

701 As noted earlier in the paper, the Model Reader concept of Eco (1979) clarifies how
702 communication works from cognitive and social perspectives (figure 2). The data presented
703 in the paper provides tangible evidence of the validity of the Model Reader for civil
704 engineering communicative exchanges. However, the Model Reader of Eco (1979) should
705 be qualified: whilst engineers actively produce communicative signs, attempting to interpret
706 them from the perspective of an audience, they can fail to interpret them in the same way.
707 Interpretive codes (Eco, 1979) and lexicons of knowledge (Barthes, 1967; 1977) (figure 2)
708 inform our understanding of interpretative events: whilst interpretative codes may
709 sometimes be shared (i.e. the key to a schematic drawing), lexicons of knowledge may not
710 be. Which meanings and understandings derive depends upon the signs displayed as well
711 as the different interpretive frameworks of persons interacting with them. Unforeseen
712 interpretations may occur in spite of civil engineer efforts to educate project stakeholders

713 (i.e. to provide them with an interpretive code). Civil engineers should be mindful of the
714 possibility of such occurrences happening.

715 Civil engineering pedagogy should recognise the social semiotic nature of communicative
716 resources used in civil engineering work, so that future professionals are aware of the
717 theoretical and conceptual nature of their communicative choices. The author contends
718 that it would be possible to integrate the social semiotic framework into technical
719 communication skills classes for civil engineers and project managers. The empirical insights
720 also reveal how project resources can trigger educational and learning activities between
721 parties (e.g. a facilities manager will have a different interpretation to an NHS manager).
722 The inherent usefulness of visualisations was evidenced: new meanings emerging from
723 representations that use visual rather than textual semiotics. It can be argued that the
724 visible manifestation of requirements engages individual stakeholder attention, triggering
725 cognitive understandings and interpretations: meanings being either co-produced in
726 interactive dynamics or being proposed by either client or designers through semiotic
727 resource use.

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

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

733 - Can it or should it be simplified?

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

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

736 **Conclusion**

737 Scholars regularly emphasize the criticality of communication skills for everyday professional
738 practice (e.g. Froehle et al. 2022; Pourmand et al. 2021; Pradhananga et al. 2022). Whilst
739 previous work has rightly noted the importance of representational choices and cognition in
740 engineering practice (Barner and Brown, 2021), with semiotics and engineering resource
741 functionality (i.e. schematics; images; text documents) being identified as important (c.f.
742 Simpson, 2014; Simpson and Archer, 2019), no previous work has systematically employed a
743 social semiotic framework to deconstruct the functionality of engineering resources in a civil
744 engineering context.

745 The empirical insights of the paper provide evidence of the importance of the functionality
746 of project resources (e.g. schematics; images; drawings) when mobilised in the project
747 discourse. The semiotic composition of resources can impact stakeholder management and
748 the overall project management trajectory by the representational choices of resource
749 authors. Civil engineering resources enable project teams to engage various stakeholders in
750 cooperative, interactive processes of learning through the proactive use of modes of
751 communication. In this process, sign communications contribute both procedurally (via
752 delivery of data) and socially (as relationship building resources), either opening up or
753 closing down design issues in strategic ways. It is through this semiotic exploration of civil
754 engineering resources that the paper builds upon the work of scholars who have identified
755 semiotic processes as intrinsic to project management and civil engineering
756 communications. The theoretical and conceptual contributions add further to our
757 understandings of communication in civil engineering. The insights may complement the

758 teaching of civil engineering communication skills whilst supporting professionals in the field
759 when reviewing and refining their communications.

760 **Data Availability Statement**

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

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885 Table 1: Interviewees by professional occupation

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

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