Intersecting Spaces

Exploring Architectural Students’ Meaning-Making through a Social Semiotic Multimodality Lens

Volume One

By

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Abstract

Intersecting spaces is a qualitative case study that examines a third-year group of undergraduate architectural students’ meaning-making in an Irish Higher Education (HE) Institute of Technology (IoT) through a social semiotic multimodality lens. Architectural students face many challenges in their studies but a core undertaking concerns their capacity to address the rhetorical component of making architecture. The research addressing architectural communication through a social semiotic multimodality lens, particularly in an Irish architectural education setting, is limited.

My constructivist leanings underpinned my decision to develop a case study, and use four research tools, a focus group, observation, a questionnaire, and semi-formal interviews. My main research question considers to what extent the multimodal communication resources the participants use, during an observed review, work together to enact meaning? The research forming the frame for this study embodies five intersections between the architectural and social semiotic multimodality domains, namely ‘the environment’, ‘rhetorical component’, ‘resources’, ‘multimodality’, and ‘communication and learning’.

Several main findings emerge. The participants’ level of insider knowledge relates directly to their ability to access and participate fully in the shared knowledge and skill base repertoire of the community of practice at the research site and shapes their rhetorical meaning-making. The participants’ multimodal literacy levels regarding choosing and using multimodal resources across the analogue and digital environment influences their ability to make rhetorical meaning. The dynamic nature of the orchestrated ensemble in the observed review underlines the performative aspect of the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making from the social semiotic multimodality angle.

In foregrounding the overlapping architectural communication and social semiotic multimodality aspects of the architectural participants’ meaning-making, this study addresses my main research question. The study builds on architectural design and communication research by exploring the issue through an unfamiliar lens and contributes as an exemplar to the limited social semiotic multimodality research focused on meaning-making in the Irish architectural education context.
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<td>CABE</td>
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<td>LO</td>
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1 Framing the Research

Introduction

This piece of educational insider research (Mercer, 2007, pp.1-18) is a qualitative case study about architectural students’ meaning-making. Architectural students face a multitude of challenges during their studies, but a core undertaking involves developing their capacity to address the rhetorical component of making architecture regarding the meaning-making process and the architectural object itself (Cross, 1999b, pp.27-28; Eco, 1980; Hattenhauer, 1984; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005; van Schaik, 2014). The research literature addressing architectural communication through a social semiotic multimodality lens, however, particularly in an Irish architectural higher education (HE) setting, is in short supply.

In this study, I examine a third-year undergraduate architectural student group’s meaning-making efforts and the performative aspect of the multimodal literacy practices and rhetorical strategies deployed by them during an interim review in design studio, the research setting (Allan, 2013; Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Halverson, Bass, & Woods, 2012; Jewitt, Bezemer, & O’Halloran, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010). These students were studying architectural design at an HE, Institute of Technology (IoT), in the North West of Ireland where I work as an academic full-time. Describing architectural students’ learning in design studio in multimodality and rhetorical terms is not typical in architectural design
pedagogy, although it is a well-established premise that architecture has a rhetorical component (Allan, 2013; Eco, 1980; Hattenhauer, 1984; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005; van Schaik, 2014). Rather, it is more usual to speak about architectural pedagogy regarding the creative, critical, reflective, reflexive problem-solving nature of the designing process (Ochsner, 2000; Schön, 1984, 1987, 1991). Still, teaching and learning activities are considered multimodal and semiotic because they occur via multimodal communicative resources in multi-layered communication ensembles (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.12-14; Stein & Newfield, 2006, p.2; Taylor, 2016, p.85). In this thesis, I argued architectural design studios are social semiotic multimodal teaching and learning sites in which tutors and students use the communicative means available in their meaning-making efforts (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Stein & Newfield, 2006).

The term rhetorical is used architecturally to refer to the symbolic meaning, or interpretation, aspect of architecture (Whyte, 2006, p.153). Architecture is rhetorical because it “persuades” (p.71) its users’ to respond to the architecture in specific ways (Hattenhauer, 1984). Architectural devices like the staircase, for example, are thought to not only convey function but influence the behaviour of those who use them (Eco, 1980, p.14). Further, architecturally, the term rhetorical relates to the values the designer intends the architecture to represent and connote to those who use, or interact with, the building or architectural object (Crilly, Good, Matravers, & Clarkson, 2008; Eco, 1980; Hattenhauer, 1984, p.72; van Schaik, 2014; Whyte, 2006, p.153). Many scholars acknowledge architecture characterises and conveys social, cultural and economic aspects of society (Jones, 2011; Kress, 2010; Löw & Steets, 2014, pp.214-216; Unwin, 2003; van Leeuwen, 2005; van Schaik, 2014). That is, designers design architecture to encompass and communicate specific values or meaning, like minimalism or inclusivity, via its physical attributes, including its size, geometry and materiality. Then, social semiotics concerns the study of the resources people use to produce “communicative artefacts and events and interpret them…” (van Leeuwen, 2005, p.xi). The ‘what’ and ‘how’ of meaning-making in diverse cultural settings worldwide is at the heart of social semiotic investigations (van Leeuwen, 2005, p.93). In this study, I drew on theory and methods from both architecture and social semiotics to investigate architectural meaning-making as a social semiotic endeavour (van Leeuwen, 2005, pp.1-3). I discuss
the rhetorical component of making architecture taking social semiotic multimodality theories into account in more detail in Chapter Two, ‘Intersections’.

In the social semiotic multimodality literature about communication and learning there is an emphasis on the multilateral relationship between the social, pedagogic, and the semiotic in contemporary life (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.8). Multimodal ensembles are thought to construct meaning architecturally via the orchestration process associated with using available resources, like gestures, talk, drawings, images, photos, and artefact, together in communicative interaction (Murphy, 2003, 2005; Swales, Barks, Ostermann, & Simpson, 2001). In this study, I examined how the participants constructed and represented their meaning-making through their orchestrated ensembles in one observed review to address my main research question and related sub queries about knowledge production in this setting (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.135-136; Halverson et al. 2012, p.4; Kress, 2010, pp.56-57). The research activity involved documenting each resource’s meaning potential, what Norris (2004a) and others (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010) refer to as affordance or functional specialism.

Please refer to Figure 2 below to view the range of analogue and digital media at play in a previous design-work exhibition in this setting.

Figure 2: Design exhibition. (Source: Exhibition archive)

The architectural communicative and representational landscape is evolving and diversifying in complex ways. Arguably a “social semiotic multimodality theory of
communication” (p.29) provides the processes for grasping and detailing the contemporary situation holistically (Kress, 2010). Further, communicating via the digital environment is gaining predominance over more traditional representational forms in the architectural setting, as it is in other sociocultural contexts (Dernie, 2014). Giving rise to opportunities and challenges relating to the symbiotic relationship between communication and learning (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.42; Dernie, 2014). Also, because communication practices are evolving rapidly, older communication models and their accompanying linguistic terminologies are not necessarily helpful ways to document what is happening currently in different sociocultural situations like the architectural education context (Kress, 2010).

Architectural educators are aware contemporary architectural communicative practices are multifaceted and experience the underlying tensions associated with navigating the analogue and digital environment regularly (Dernie, 2014). Yet, few architectural education researchers explore these issues from a social semiotic multimodality standpoint (Allan, 2013). Embracing the idea that architectural communication is a social semiotic multimodality endeavour however, is a helpful way to problematise and interrogate the communication knowledge and skills architectural students engage with during their meaning-making efforts. Also, adopting the social semiotic multimodality lens is a means to contribute to the debate about what theoretical frame and which communicative theories and practices architectural educators need to embrace and implement to ensure the communicative knowledge and skills their students develop are relevant to architectural practice (Dernie, 2014; Kress, 2010).

Figure 3 and 4 below illustrate the multifaceted visual and textual aspect of meaning-making in the research site. The artefacts on display include a life-size model, physical objects, analogue diagrams, sketches and scaled drawings, plus, a scaled digital model, sections, and interior views with materials selections. The work is a mixture of individual and group-based projects.
Figure 3: Student work 1 - mixed media. (Source: Exhibition Archive)

Figure 4: Student work 2 - mixed media. (Source: Exhibition Archive)
The design studio, regarded an essential element of architectural education worldwide, is a core component of the architectural pedagogy at the research site (Akalin & Sezal, 2009, p.14; Koch, Schwenensen, Dutton, & Smith, 2002, p.3; Ochsner, 2000, p.194; Oxman, 1999). In design studio, typically, the students solve increasingly complex design problems as they progress through their studies. The review associated with design studio projects, referred to as a crit or jury, is a core pedagogical tool in this setting (Anthony, 1987,1991; Parnell, Sara, Doidge, & Parsons, 2007; Kurt, 2009; Morton, 2006; Sara & Parnell, 2004; Schön, 1984). External architectural practitioners often get invited to attend and contribute to the dialogue between academics and students about the design work for formal review sessions (Anthony, 1991, 1987; Sara & Parnell, 2004, p.1).

Figure 5 is a photograph of the design studio and review space at the research site. Please refer to Appendix 2 (Volume Two, p.403), for a larger-scale version.

Figure 5: The design studio.

The interim crit for the participants’ response to the preliminary precedent, that is architectural building or object exemplar, task was a convenient setting in which to explore the participants’ multimodal meaning-making efforts. This type of review is a concrete example of multimodal communicative and meaning-making interaction in a particular media space (Halverson, et al. 2012, p.5; Norris, 2004; Thomas, 2016). Undoubtedly, architectural review settings are multimodal interaction sites, as scholars
say we draw on every available communicative mode while we work and interact with other people in these kinds of situations (Norris, 2004, p.16). Such spaces (Figure 6) give learners the opportunity to develop their emergent architectural identity during their design conversations with themselves, their tutors, and colleagues, and the specific materials of the designing situation (Cohen, Wilkinson, Arnold, & Finn, 2005; Gee, 2003; Norris, 2004; Sara & Parnell, 2004; Schön, 1987, 1988, 1991). Learning about the creation and production of architecture via precedent study, is a key design studio pedagogical strategy in the research site, and I deal with this topic in detail in Chapter Three, ‘The Research Setting’.

![Figure 6: Getting ready for the ‘crit’.](image)

Additionally, as I draw on the notion that learning is a social semiotic multimodality endeavour in all learning settings, it seemed apt to go about this research activity multimodally (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.42; Stein & Newfield, 2006, p.2). Clearly, there is no one right way to produce evidence in research endeavours; rather, it is about knowing what forms of data are suitable (Thomas, 2016, p.7). I generated the evidence in this project using multimodal means via administering the research tools; the data is multimodal, and I used a social semiotic multimodality lens to interrogate what emerged from analysing that evidence (Figure 7). Therefore, it made sense to me to tell the research story using multimodal means (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011).
The writing below follows the following format. First, I set out my main research question and related subqueries. Then, I give a brief overview of my constructivist viewpoint, and afterwards address my conceptual approach to the research activity as theorised story line. Fourthly, I outline the overall aim and focus for the project. Sixth, I set out the rationale for the study. Afterwards, I sketch out the scope of the investigation and introduce the niche for the project. Next, I discuss some guiding principles and several key terms. I conclude with a chapter summary and introduce Chapter Two, ‘Intersections’, which addresses the substantive theories for constructing the analytical frame (Hatch, 2002).

**Research Questions**

As I indicated above, I am interested in the ways architectural students use multimodal communicative resources during their architectural studies to make meaning, and in uncovering the ways these resources in use as orchestrated ensembles contribute to knowledge production in this pedagogic setting (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010; Stein & Newfield, 2006). My main research question is:

- To what extent do the multimodal communication resources the participants deploy work together to enact architectural meaning during the review for the initial precedent study phase of the designing activity?
I have some sub-queries relating to my principal research question that form the guiding framework for the research activities (Tomlinson, 1989) namely:

• What are the roles of the different representational and communicative resources in this architectural education setting?
• What kind of relationship exists between the various multimodal resources in the orchestrated ensemble?
• How are the participants using these communicative resources to make meaning?
• What are the performative characteristics of the multimodal communication resources deployed by the participants during the precedent review and accompanying tasks?
• What are the effects of these multimodal ensembles in use, on the emerging meaning-making as knowledge production?

The case study subject matter, the participants’ meaning-making activities, is actual and situated as their meaning-making efforts are real life events in a distinct education context and locale (Tomlinson, 1989, p.160). My approach to questioning moves from the general into the particular, takes the participants and my terms of reference into account, and emphasises the material and situated nature of the participants’ meaning-making (Driver & Erickson, 1983; Tomlinson, 1989). Consequently, I took into account, in the broadest sense possible, Tomlinson’s (1989) ideas about hierarchical focusing as an interviewing approach. Overall, hierarchical focusing entails moving from the general into a detailed level of questioning and making decisions about the “openness-closed” (p.159) framing dimension of questioning and analysing. I return to this topic again in Chapter Four when I address my approach to building the case study.

Constructivist Stance

My constructivist leanings underlie my decision to develop a case study and use the four research tools I mentioned previously to generate data to address my research questions. I view the research activity as an individual and co-constructivist process, in which foregrounding my participants’ views and my voice is important (Denscombe, 2010; Geertz, 1973, Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). The notion that all the activity relating to the
research produces what emerges, is a core aspect of the constructivist paradigm (Hammersley, 2011; Tomlinson, 1989). That is, the findings I document and the conclusions I draw are not independent of my research process (Hammersley, 2011, p.9). The research activities and the constructive writing about the research, shape the research experience (Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007, p.6). Thus, I am theorising that the learning and teaching taking place in the architectural programme at the research site, is a social and constructivist endeavour (Crotty, 1998; Giddens, 1976; Savery & Duffy, 2001). Situated in an architectural Community of Practice (CoP), a subculture, of the architectural HE and professional practice community in Ireland (Wenger, 1998a; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). Also, I rely on the notion a CoP involves people learning and interacting regularly to develop common interests and goals (Wenger et al., 2002, p.4), a concept I deal with in more detail later. For these reasons, I found it helpful to conceptualise and go about the research in a way that reflects this constructivist perspective. Accordingly, building a case around the participants’ meaning-making efforts from a social semiotic multimodality perspective, by examining this phenomenon from the vantage points using the focus group interview, observation, questionnaire, and interview processes offered, seemed a logical way to proceed with the study (Denscombe, 2010; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007).

I am mindful, however, adopting a constructivist stance is not trouble-free. Critics sometimes claim what the constructivist researcher produces reflects or expresses what Hammersley (2011) refers to as the “specific socio-cultural identities and interests of the researcher” (p.10). What this means, is that people may believe my research story merely reflects my social and personal characteristics (Hammersley, 2011, p.9-10). Another related issue concerns the fact individuals make a distinction between what a person holds is true and what is true (Hammersley, 2011, p.13). Nonetheless, I agree with Hammersley’s (2011) assertion there are no “absolute givens” (p.20) in research investigations and the knowledge I generate in this study stems from intuitive and deliberate construction work. Moreover, I accept the work I do reflects the cultural means available to me in the here and now and aligns with my position in the world as an architectural educator, doctoral student, and researcher. What I produced is a partial representation of a larger architectural meaning-making reality, from a constructivist, architectural, semiotic, and multimodal standpoint. I did not operate on the premise I
could capture the whole reality of the architectural students’ meaning-making efforts, nor did I attempt to present the findings in that way (Hammersley, 2011, p.20).

**Conceptualising the Research Story**

As I grappled with and I must say, prayed about, who I am as a researcher and how I should approach the study overall, I focused on how to organise and communicate my research story effectively. I drew on Golden-Biddle and Locke’s (2007, p.17) notion of a “theorised storyline” (p.17) to help me structure my thinking and discern the most powerful way to bring the theoretical and practical aspects of the project together coherently in the account. Consolidating our social experiences in narrative forms is considered an established way to represent our worlds (Bruner, 1991, p.4). While how we do so is said to be constrained by our cultural circumstances, our mastery of the narrative form, the range of “prosthetic devices” (p.4) we adopt, what Golden-Biddle and Locke (2007) refer to as our rhetorical moves, and those people who shape our thinking (Bruner, 1991).

This piece of research is about a group of individuals, the participants, faced with making meaning concretely while they addressed an important learning task, the preliminary precedent study, in the design studio setting. The stories that affect us most deeply are thought to be those in which actual people deal with important real-life issues and become transformed in the process (Franklin, 1994; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007; Mezirow, 1991). I needed a way to understand and write coherently about the different research activities; what informs the project theoretically; how to go about the study overall; what tools to use to generate the data; who the main characters are; what the field data says, and what it means architecturally from a social semiotic multimodality perspective (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010). Therefore, I decided to adopt what Golden-Biddle and Locke (2007) call a “narrative perspective” (p.18) to structure my thinking, action, and writing, and tell the research story using a building metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Using this rhetorical device helped me understand and document the research via a familiar construction model (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.5). I chose the building metaphor because I have a constructivist outlook; a standpoint that underpins and structures my thoughts and actions as an architectural educator and
practitioner (Crotty, 1998; Giddens, 1976). What Mezirow (1991) would refer to as my habits of expectation. These habits affect the way I think and express myself across all communicative modes, and importantly in this instance, literally, (Crotty, 1998; Giddens, 1976; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.3; Mezirow, 1991). In my narrative, I theorise the niche for the ‘case’, the participants meaning-making, sits in a gap (Figure 8) intersecting architectural and social semiotic multimodality communication theory and praxis structures (Eyal, 2010).

![Figure 8: Siting the ’case’](image)

Theory takes on several roles in the research story. Firstly, theory provides the foundation for my case study overall as a constructivist assembly, the ideology that underpins and informs every aspect of how the case develops (Hatch, 2002). Secondly, theory supplies the structural frame for scaffolding the meaning-making, a way of theorising about the ways people make meaning multimodally taking into account architectural and social semiotic multimodality thinking. Thirdly, theory provides the social semiotic multimodality lens through which I interrogate the multimodal data (Balarin, 2009; Evans, Gruba, & Zobel, 2011; Jewitt, 2009). Then, I am theorising the research methods, the discussing, observing, questioning, and interviewing, are the tools I use to build the case. The multimodal data generated during the fieldwork using the research tools, is the ‘stuff’ of the case, the building fabric (Figure 9). The findings,
conclusions and implications going forward are the outputs from the testing process associated with interrogating the data, particularly the multimodal observation transcripts, through the social semiotic multimodality lens (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007).

![Figure 9: The case edifice.](image)

**Overall Aim and Focus**

The overarching goal of this case study is to extend the empirical evidence about architectural students’ multimodal social semiotic meaning-making practices (Snow, Morrill, & Anderson, 2003, p.187). The focus is on examining contemporary architectural meaning-making through a social semiotic multimodality lens thereby learning about the social semiotic multimodality domain from a specific example in a distinct field, architecture. My main aim is to extend other scholars’ work in the architectural education and social semiotic multimodality research fields via, engaging with theory; producing evidence through the data collection process; and analysing and interpreting that evidence while considering architectural and social semiotic multimodality theories to produce findings both the architectural education and social semiotic multimodality fields can draw on in a transferable manner (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt et al., 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Thomas, 2016, p.17).
Rationale for the Project

The main inspiration for this investigation relates directly to the complex contemporary communication and technology landscape which emerges out of, and is profoundly impacting, global societal structures and behaviours (Jenson, 2008; Kress, 2010; Nicol & Pilling, 2000; Worthington, 2000). One of the core mission objectives of the Irish HE institution the participants and I are members of, concerns producing graduates capable of engaging with and performing efficiently as knowledge producers and consumers in society in a global sense (Hunt, 2011; Institute of Technology, Sligo, 2009, 2016). Making rhetorical architecture, and the social semiotic multimodality communicative meaning-making processes associated with its production, are significant occurrences that connect to and reflect social, including communication, political and economic issues worldwide (Jones, 2011; Lasswell, 1979; Löw & Steets, 2014). Producing architecture and the quality of created architecture and its spaces, in a rhetorical sense, impacts on peoples’ lives (Commission for architecture & the built environment, 2008). If one is interested in understanding the contemporary communication landscape in a particular setting, then probably developing an understanding of what is going on in the current situation, and the guidelines and agencies of control that produced the current state of affairs is important (Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Kress, 2010). Kress (1993, p.177) suggests for instance, adopting the social semiotic multimodality view of meaning-making allows researchers to make connections between meaning-making at a micro-level out towards the macro-level as a component of ongoing historicity.

Further, the motivation for this research emerges out of a need to firstly, examine the ways a distinct group of architectural students produce knowledge multimodally and semiotically as they become socialised into the specific forms of architectural culture their CoP represents. Secondly, it emerges out of a need to make a small contribution, as example, to scholars’ knowledge about the semiotic, active, and interactive character of constructing architectural reality (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005; Stevens, 1995). Researchers say that while it is acknowledged architectural designing produces knowledge, there is a lack of consensus about what mechanisms to use for recognising, delineating, and evaluating contributions to knowledge or teaching
and learning practices pertaining to domain-specific knowledge (Williams, Ostwald, & Fuller, 2007, p.10).

Also, the justification for this project stems from the fact that exploring architectural students’ meaning-making provides the opportunity to highlight the foundational role architecture plays in forming society via its production processes to address the supposed negative perception and underrepresentation of architecture’s import, in a sociological sense, in both the social sciences and humanities domain (Deckker, 2014). Then, the impetus for this piece of work relates to, firstly the fact research evidence draws attention to a significant disparity between current architectural education approaches, and the contemporary practitioner’s knowledge and skill requirements (Coleman, 2010; Dent & Whitehead, 2002; Heape, 2015; Nicol & Pilling, 2000; Worthington, 2000). Secondly, a related demand to address the interactive component of architecture via addressing contemporary communication theory and practices in architectural education to unlock architectural students’ potential to work collaboratively (Coleman, 2010; Heape, 2015; Nicol & Pilling, 2000; Worthington, 2000).

Again, the basis for this project arises out of a necessity to tackle the complex developments in architectural communication conventions, and the relationships between analogue and digital communicative means to address the view architectural exchanges are even more dependent on visual imagery as the primary currency in the current digital communication era (Jenson, 2008). The reasoning behind the project also links to the proposition the foundation for experiential inquiries in the design field includes constructing first-hand knowledge about designing and its associated activities (Fricke, 1996).

My interest in the subjects of this case study, the participants and their meaning-making efforts, concerns the fact I related to these students in various ways. First, the participants were part of the student cohort I teach as an architectural educator, a role I am passionate about. Also, I had an interest in how these students went about making meaning multimodally using different multimodal resources, like talk, text, gesture, movement, drawing, sketch, image, and model (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010). Again, my desire for knowledge about this phenomenon stems from the
fact I taught these students the theory component of a ‘context and theory’ module that primarily concerned ‘how to do’ architectural design using the intellectual and practical tools associated with this activity in a representational, communicative, and meaning-making sense, including, choosing, and using the multimodal resources mentioned previously (Bezemer & Kress, 2010; Dernie, 2014; Gänshirt, 2007; Jewitt, 2009; Kasprisin & Pettinciri, 1995).

For these reasons, arguably, there is a space for a case study like this to examine and throw the spotlight on the ways rhetorical architectural meaning comes about multimodally using available communication resources, in a distinct locale, in an integrated, active, and holistic way. By adopting a social semiotic multimodality lens, perhaps I can better explain contemporary architectural meaning-making in an education context and/or imagine it differently from before (Thomas, 2016).

The Scope of the Study
Accordingly, the research project is explanatory. I did not measure any aspect of the architectural student contributors’ learning. I limited the study to:

- Collecting information that underpinned the participants’ meaning-making in the review via the focus group interview discussion, questionnaire, and semi-formal interviews;
- Mapping and documenting the respondents’ meaning-making during the observed review;
- Examining and appraising the outcomes from the data collection by analysing, interpreting and interrogating the data drawing on architectural design communication and social semiotic multimodality thinking, including the sign-making, shaping, and transformative components of Bezemer and Kress’s (2016) social semiotic multimodality frame.

Investigating how the participants’ motivation or goal-setting skills affected their response to the precedent task was not part of the study. I did not undertake to determine or evaluate the lecturers’ competence teaching on the programme. Nor did I
try to ascertain if the participants could become expert in the unique knowledge and skills associated with the architectural design domain. Exploring the impact, HE and architectural education policy has on the contributors’ learning experience in detail, was also outside the scope of this endeavour. However, it was necessary to comment on the general societal and cultural shaping influences concerning architecture, academic expectations, and conventions, and take the research site’s contextual factors into account because they underpin and influence the ways the participants and I went about making rhetorical meaning (Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010). That is not to say any one of the delimited factors was not a significant research focus. Arguably, each issue is worthy of investigation as a project or policy analysis but the study focus, and time constraints, meant it was better to view these concerns as opportunities for future research.

This project was about, and a record of, one group of architectural students’ multimodal learning, in one real life setting; responding to one of many precedent tasks during a single design project for the academic year 2015-2016. I focused on collecting evidence about this group of participants’ meaning-making during the review associated with that task. So, the research activity was not only “contextually and culturally” bounded (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.695) it also took place during a fixed period (Thomas, 2016). The case is a specific one (Stake 2005, p.444; Thomas, 2016; Yin, 2009). Thus, the primary goal of this writing was to produce an in-depth account of how the multimodal resources the respondents orchestrated as an ensemble, during the observed review, work individually, collectively, and interdependently, to enact meaning (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010). As I said earlier it was my intention this case study could serve as a concrete example of the analytical category associated with the social semiotic strand of multimodality in both fields related to the study, architecture and social semiotic multimodality (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Thomas, 2016, p.18).

Introducing the Space for the Study

**Niche**

While there is a large body of architectural education and social semiotic multimodality research across a diverse and multifaceted landscape associated with communication
and meaning-making, I did not come across many architectural studies focusing primarily on mapping multimodal meaning-making semiotically, and none in an Irish architectural education context from a social semiotic multimodality perspective. One of the studies I did find helpful was Morton’s (2006) evaluative investigation into the way Australian architectural students incorporate imagery into their presentations. Morton’s (2006) study, which draws on semantic analytical approaches, has a somewhat similar focus and perspective as this project. Morton (2006) explores the roles, and relationships between the visual, verbal and action resources deployed by architecture students in their design presentations. Although Morton (2006) is paying close attention to the visual mode, from a semiotic multimodal standpoint. Then, Murphy’s (2003, 2005) ethnographic and anthropological investigations also focuses on rhetorical meaning-making and interaction but in an architectural work-place setting. While Bezemer & Kress’s (2016) accounts of social semiotic multimodality meaning-making in a medical education context, share some common educational characteristics with architectural education. These commonalities are mainly about, firstly, the directed problem-solving, pedagogical approaches deployed in both contexts; and secondly, the fact they occur in a practicum, a core component of both types of study intended to simulate a professional setting. What seems to be lacking, so far, is an in-depth account of using a range of multimodal resources collectively, as an orchestrated ensemble, to construct meaning actively from a social semiotic multimodality perspective in a distinct Irish HE and architectural education context. In this study, I addressed this gap through investigating the participants’ meaning-making during an interim informal review associated with the initial precedent task of one design project. I focused on finding out and explicating what was going on in this research setting, and the extent to which the participants orchestrated ensemble produced architectural meaning from a social semiotic multimodality perspective (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009).

Further, I am of the view a small-scale case study, like this endeavour, is a different kind of investigation from those research projects where the expectation is generalisation will follow on from the outcomes of exploring something representative of a larger body (Thomas, 2016, p.4). Rather, I adopt the view this case study involved investigating one, practical, and concrete phenomenon (Thomas, 2016), the architectural respondents’ multimodal meaning-making. My intention was to build up a multifaceted view of what
was going on regarding architectural communication theories and social semiotic multimodality concepts, and in the process, produce an account embodying what Ryle (1968) terms ‘thick description’ of the participants’ meaning-making efforts from both an architectural and social semiotic multimodality perspective (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, Jewitt, 2009). Also, it likely the findings represented in these thick descriptions could be of use, in a practical and transferable way, in other design education contexts (Hammersley, 2011; Thomas, 2016, p.4; Yin, 2009). For this reason, it is likely the main place my work belongs, in a contributory sense, is in the gap intersecting architectural communication and social semiotic multimodality theory and practice.

**Uniqueness**

In my doctoral studies, ‘original’ means gaining substantive first-hand knowledge about architectural multimodal meaning-making through an unfamiliar lens, social semiotic multimodality theory, in a distinct Irish architectural education setting that has not been the focus of such research until now (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010; Thomas, 2016). A way of building on what previous research says about architectural communicative meaning-making practices from a social semiotic multimodality standpoint and placing the new study in relation to those other similar studies as one distinct exemplar (Thomas, 2016, p.20). Possibly, a key feature of this kind of investigation concerns the fact the researcher starts from the premise each social setting has a set of unique and shared characteristics that both sets it apart from, and connects it to, other similar situations (Thomas, 2016, p.203).

*Figure 10: The social semiotic multimodality spotlight.*
Clearly, producing an original entity or interpretation for something as an individual, gaining first-hand knowledge about architectural students’ multimodal meaning-making in this case for example, whether that explanation originated with someone else previously, is a valid example of creativity (Welling, 2007, p.164; Akalin & Sezal, 2009). Further, adapting existing knowledge in its customary setting involves a “creative cognitive operation” (Welling, 2007, p.167); a process requiring inventiveness. Adapting knowledge in this way involves integrating reality into an existing conceptual organisation and includes the “creative adaption of existing conceptual structures to fit normally occurring variations” (Welling, 2007, p.167). For me, this related to the process of examining a specific example of architectural meaning-making critically through the unfamiliar lens of social semiotic multimodality (Thomas, 2016).

**Assumptions**

In the study, I assumed the participants addressed the relevant knowledge and skills about representation and communication in the modules associated with both areas. Also, I accepted the focus in those modules, from an academic point of view, may be on developing the capacity of these students to choose and use the analogue and digital technologies associated with visual reasoning, because using these tools is a fundamental part of making architecture (Dernie, 2014; Gänshirt, 2007; Jewitt, 2009; Kasprisin & Pettinciri, 1995). Also, I operated on the basis the course team was competent to teach the requisite knowledge and skills associated with architectural designing that meet programme learning outcomes (LO) and professional accreditation criteria. Then, I worked on the understanding the architectural students taking part in the research could become expert in the unique knowledge and skills associated with architecture including architectural representation, communication, and meaning-making in this setting.

Nevertheless, although I assumed the participants could learn the requisite knowledge and skills, questions arose about their meaning-making during the study that indicated those contributing to the research had problems learning the relevant design knowledge and skills. Also, while I presumed the lecturers on the programme were competent to teach the requisite knowledge and skills, deficits in expertise in either area may well have impacted negatively on the respondents’ meaning-making during the research activity.
As a final point, a range of general factors also influenced the participants’ meaning-making activities including their motivations; prior knowledge base; their previous design experiences; feelings of fear; degree of confidence; overall attitudes; and their problem-solving strategies including deliberate goal setting (Eysenck, 2009; Locke & Latham, 2002, 2006).

**Guiding Principles**

I would like to comment now on some architectural and other general meaning-making principles shaping me as an architect and architectural educator, and so influencing me as a researcher and constructivist meaning-maker in the research setting. All research links to theory in some way and arguably, the researcher’s theoretical orientation shapes the way they approach and conduct the whole research process (Balarin, 2009; Denscombe, 2010; Sikes, 2004; Thomas, 2016; Wellington, 2015).

Firstly, I operate on the basis learning and so meaning-making is constructive (Oxman, 1999), involves transformation (Mezirow, 1990; 1991), and is influenced by the metaphors or habits of expectation we incorporate into our habitual thinking and doing actions (Baxter-Magolda & King, 2012; Deshler, 1991; Kitchener & King, 1991; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Mezirow, 1990; 1991; Roth, 1991). Then, I draw on theories about constructivism that hold knowledge creation is a constructive process (Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Crotty, 1998; Geertz, 1973; Giddens, 1976; Savery & Duffy, 2001). Thirdly, I rely on architectural education theories underlining the notion that learning to make architecture is like learning a language (Oxman, 1986; Unwin, 2003) and includes, but is not limited to, the following areas:

- Specific forms of thinking, for instance abductive thinking, where the designer starts with an aspired value that is rhetorical and constructs the theoretical frame and outcome through the designing process iteratively (Dorst, 2011);
- Exploring precedents to develop one’s design vocabulary and learn how architecture is manifested in response to specific ideology (Clark & Pause, 2012; Unwin, 2003);
- Developing knowledge and skills about spatial morphology, which involves architectural geometry; and selecting and using different representational and
communicative resources during the design process to produce, test, represent, and communicate design proposals (Akalin & Sezal, 2009; Anthony, 1991; Casakin, 2007; Casakin & Kreitler, 2010; Cross, 1982; 1999; Lawson, 2006; Ochsner, 2000; Oxman, 2002; 1999; Salama, 2005; Suwa & Tversky, 2001; Teymur, 2001; van Schaik, 2008).

Lastly, I draw on architectural, multimodal communication and social semiotic theories underpinning the idea that architectural meaning-making is a semiotic process and so rhetorical (Broadbent, Bunt, & Jencks, 1980; Eco, 1980; Hattenhauer, 1984; Kress, 2010; Stein & Newfield, 2006; van Leeuwen, 2005; van Schaik, 2014). I move on now to explain several important terms running through the research story.

**Architecture**

Creating, and producing architecture involves engaging with our world and our existence in it spatially, an activity requiring us to shape physical objects as we go about realising our concrete and abstract ideas (van Schaik, 2014, p.13). Standard definitions of architecture describe it as the design of buildings (Unwin, 2003). However, the practice of architecture also has an association with ‘place’, where place has cultural, social, political, and physical characteristics in any given context (Jivén & Larkham, 2003; Jordan, Raubal, Gartrell & Egenhofer, 1998; Krenz, 2010; Unwin, 2003, p.21; van Schaik, 2014). Another description of architecture suggests architectural ideas originate in the mind, and architecture is the physical manifestation of innovation, imaginings externalised, concretised, and developed through two and three-dimensional (2D and 3D) drawings, sketches, and models (Akalin & Sezal, 2009, p.15; Wittgenstein, 1958).

**Architectural Knowledge**

Knowledge encompasses several forms, like information, or expertise (Akin & Akin, 1996, p.2; Lawson, 2004). Where expertise relates to high-level proficiency expressing logical and practical domain knowledge (Feldhusen, 2005, p.68). Architectural designing is acknowledged by scholars to be a “knowledge rich activity” (p.3) because of its complex nature (Heylighen & Neuckermans, 2000). Architectural knowledge encapsulates cultural and scientific knowledge embodied in built form and related specialist knowledge
production sites. Knowledge that encompasses but is not limited to, history, theory and methods; different plan or layout prototypes, and, structure and assembly principles; services; and environmental science including lighting, sound, and materials (Heylighen and Neuckermans, 2000; Oxman, 1986, pp.22-23). Then, designers, processes, and products, are said to embody architectural or design knowledge (Cross, 1999a, pp.5-6). Consequently, research concerning firstly, how people design and secondly, the strategies relating to designing including communication, are also potential knowledge production sites (Cross, 1999a, pp.5-6). Lastly, investigating precedents yields design information, which could, theoretically at least, inform the designer’s decision-making about how to compose new architecture, a knowledge-producing activity (Cross, 1999a, pp.5-6).

The thinking underpinning the way knowledge production occurs in an architectural context, and the value of the different kinds of knowledge generated in this arena, like many other professional domains, is challenging and contested. An intimate but tense relationship exists between HE institutions and the professions regarding their mutual concern in controlling the production and application of specialised knowledge (Griffiths, 2004, p.709). Access to a dedicated knowledge base, like architecture and the built environment, is a crucial aspect of professional education and practice in all professional fields (Griffiths, 2004, p.709). Presently, however, more people in society are questioning what knowledge is and its purposes across society (Delanty, 2001, pp.1-3).

Examples of questions surfacing in the literature relating directly to this project concern inclusiveness and identity, cross disciplinary practice, and sustainability and digitisation. Today, meaning-making occurs in myriad ways in contemporary societal settings as people solve problems in diverse contexts not always related to formal education processes; academia is often no longer the most important knowledge production site (Delanty, 2001, p.3). Consequently, disciplinary boundaries have become conflated as multidisciplinary working practices are emphasised and held to be the norm. Potentially, formal educational institutions could take on a reconstituted and innovative communicative role in knowledge production as sites of “interconnectivity” (p.6) by developing and advancing communication channels between different knowledges,
including the scientific and cultural, in the contemporary knowledge society in which communication is a primary source of social cohesion (Delanty, 2001).

**Meaning-Making, Multimodality, and Social Semiotics**

As I said at the outset, architecture has both a communicative and rhetorical function (Cross, 1999b, pp. 27-28; Hattenhauer, 1984, p. 71; Whyte, 2006, p. 153). I intimated in my opening remarks that in architectural circles, rhetorical meaning concerns how architectural designers and their creations influence people and promote or reflect values and beliefs in different eras and movements, like modernism or the international style (Crilly et al., 2008, p. 425; Hattenhauer, 1984, p. 72; Whyte, 2006, p. 153). In this project, I adopted the following explanations for terminology regarding meaning-making from a social semiotic multimodality perspective.

Firstly, I understood meaning-making to be a multi-semiotic material social practice in which the participants construct the multimodal communication ensembles they need to communicate and progress their design ideas as they interpret, assemble and make meaning in the architectural learning environment (Kress, 2010; Stein & Newfield, 2006; van Leeuwen, 2005). Secondly, I recognised multimodality is a mixture of semiotic modes, for example, gestures, talk and text, and sketch, diagram or technical drawing, and physical model (Kress, 2010; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006; van Leeuwen, 2005). Thirdly, I took the view a mode is what Kress (2010) and other multimodality scholars, like Jewitt (2009) and Bezemer and Mavers (2011), refer to as one way, like a drawing for example, of constructing, representing and communicating something semiotically. Then, I recognised social semiotics is a field of study involving theories about signs and symbols in different communicative modes and diverse cultural and societal contexts (Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005). Fifthly, I adopted the notion the terms ‘semiotic’ or ‘multimodal’ communicative resources refer to all the activities people use to communicate and make meaning referred to above. Also, I accepted the idea these terms refer to the various technologies like a pencil, pen, or computer, and such substantive means as modelling card or clay, blades, and textiles (Kress, 2010; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006; van Leeuwen, 2005, p. 1). Seventh, I assumed social semiotic multimodality analysis is concerned with, and offers, the opportunity to analyse the full range of communication,
and so knowledge producing, tools the participants employ during the observed review and accompanying tasks, including, talk, text, gesture, gaze, movement image and artefact (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009). Finally, I used the words meaning-making, learning, and knowledge production interchangeably in this writing because I adopted the social semiotic multimodality view an inextricable link exists between communication and learning in any learning situation (Bezemer & Kress, 2008; Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2010).

**Communities of Practice**

Earlier, I intimated the participants’ meaning-making took place within a CoP which involves people working together over prolonged periods in ways that contribute to the formation of their identities (Amin & Roberts, 2008; Lave & Wenger, 1991, pp.29-30; Wenger, 1998a; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002, p.4). Thus, I subscribe to the idea becoming an architectural practitioner at the research site involves both adopting the characterisation or identifier of ‘architectural designer’ and giving this identify identifiable meanings through one’s engagement in design praxis (Wenger, 1998a, pp.103-105). In this study, I relied on the idea that the participants were learning specific ways of engaging in design activities with other people, including their peers and tutors, and in this way, their competence acquired its merit and meaning (Wenger, 1998a, p.104). However, although many researchers present CoP in a positive light, particularly in organisational contexts, scholars also highlight the fact that the CoP paradigm has limitations and is the subject of much debate and critique (Kerno, 2006, p.69; Roberts, 2006, p.623). Below I discuss several related CoP shortcomings that arguably occur at the research site, to some degree, that might have contributed to the meaning-making challenges the participants identified, and I observed, during this project.

Time constraints, for example, are said to be a core limiting feature of a CoP regarding engaging in all the activities required to enable members to become full and competent participants (Kerno, 2008, p.73). Time in this instance relates to the capacity of members of a given CoP to engage in what Kerno (2008) refers to as “prolonged, sustained discourse” (p.73). Participants in this study, including international multilingual students and other students with different learning needs, indicated in their responses in their
interviews and questionnaires that firstly, time constraints were a constant source of pressure; and secondly, they required additional time to address their learning challenges more efficiently. Time demands and pressures that could be attributed to, partially at least, semesterisation and reduced contact time ensuing from government moves to deploy academics more efficiently time-wise for economic reasons (Raidió Teilifís Éireann (RTÉ), 2013, March 27; Steer, Spours, Hodgson, Finlay, Coffield, Edward, et al., 2007).

Another key limitation concerns the fact that a CoP usually operates within an established institution, and so needs to synchronise its activities with that organisation’s hierarchical structures (Kerno, 2008, p.74). Members of the architectural CoP at the research site must navigate and respond to this organisation’s underlying power dynamics daily (Kerno, 2008, p.74). However, a CoP is considered most constructive when its members operate as equal partners; so that they can solve problems together, negotiate ideas, share relevant knowledge and practices directly, and reflect critically together to foster ground-breaking praxes (Kerno, 2008, p.74). If members of the CoP at the research site, for example, were more focused on adhering to this IoT’s hierarchical conventions than getting the most out of their CoP, in a collaborative and innovative learning sense, then probably the status quo prevailed. That is, the hierarchical power dynamics operating in this CoP might have limited the participants’ access to, and participation in, this CoP (Roberts, 2006, p.627).

Lastly, there was a chance that, what Wenger (1998a) calls, “the wisdom of peripherality” (p.144) might have been invisible to my colleagues and I as full participants in this CoP. Peripherality, in this instance, refers to those stocks of knowledge and experience considered marginal and/or ignored, and so not taken into account by those operating within the “established regime of competence” (Wenger, 1998a, p.144). Wenger (1998a, pp.144-145) points out that it is essential to let these peripheral and core activities interact, because it is in these reflective and reflexive interactions that CoP members are likely to find the new experiences and forms of competence necessary to create new knowledge. However, the participants’ disclosures and my observations during this project indicated that it was likely the opportunities to allow peripheral or other ‘newer’ voices shape the meaning-making, and so embrace the richness of thinking and experience that international students or other separate learners considered ‘differently
enabled’ offered, might have been overlooked at times by the course team and I (Kerno, 2008, p.75; Roberts, 2006, p.628 Thompson, Bacon & Auburn, 2015).

Concluding Comments

In this chapter, I introduced my research study about architectural students’ rhetorical meaning-making in design studio during an interim review. I explained the research investigation focused on answering my main research question and related subqueries about the extent to which the multimodal communicative resources the participants deploy work together to produce knowledge in this setting. I signalled my approach to the project links to constructivist thinking about knowledge. I made it clear why I am telling the story of the architectural students’ multimodal social semiotic meaning-making through a construction narrative. I indicated architectural students’ meaning-making as communicative, social semiotic multimodality work has not been addressed extensively in either the architecture or social semiotic multimodality research literature and not at all in research about architectural education in the Irish HE IoT sector. I pointed out the fieldwork generated knowledge of an experiential character, providing the data and so the means for testing contemporary thinking about rhetorical architectural communication and learning, in an Irish architectural education setting, through a social semiotic multimodality lens. I explained I intended this project to achieve two distinct but interconnected ends. Firstly, to augment current architectural design and communication thinking about how to use communicative resources semiotically and multimodally in a distinct architectural education context to generate architectural knowledge. Secondly, to make a contribution to social semiotic multimodality research about meaning-making in a distinct setting; a significant feature of research endeavours in the social semiotic multimodality domain (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Jewitt, Bezemer & O’Halloran, 2016). I indicated there are several overlapping interests between the two research strands. Then I set out some guiding principles and terminologies built-into the research story. Finally, I described the CoP model operating in the research site and I documented several related CoP limitations that could have affected the participants’ meaning-making. In the next chapter, I build the theoretical frame for the study via addressing the intersecting literature underpinning, informing, and shaping the research project.
2 Intersections

Introduction

In this chapter, I develop the analytical frame and construct the space for the study by considering literature in both the architectural and social semiotic multimodality fields across five junctures that contain overlapping ideas relating directly to my research queries about the participants’ meaning-making (Hatch, 2002, p.39; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007, p.24; Wolcott, 2005, p.179). Placing my study within a recognisable theoretical framework by linking my findings to an existing body of theory about rhetorical architectural meaning-making taking social semiotic multimodality thinking into account, is a central aspect of this study and telling my research story (Hatch, 2002, p.39; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007, p.23; Wolcott, 2005, p.179). For that reason, my primary concern here is dealing with what Hatch (2002, p.39) refers to as the substantive theories. That is, those ideas that informed and shaped my choice of research questions about the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making; my approach to the fieldwork; and the subsequent analysis and interpretation of the participants’ meaning-making efforts. Significantly, these five intersections reveal space between the two research strands for contributing to both fields (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Eyal, 2010; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010).
In this study, I drew on Golden-Biddle and Locke’s (2007, p.17) notion of a “theorised storyline” (p.17) to structure my research account. Previously, I explained theory takes on different roles in the research story including:

- Explicating the foundational thinking underlying and informing every aspect of how this case developed as a constructivist assembly (Hatch, 2002), a characteristic I deal with in more detail in Chapter Four, ‘Building the Case’.
- Supplying the structural frame for scaffolding the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making, matters I address in this chapter. A way of thinking about and interrogating how the participants make rhetorical meaning multimodally while considering architectural and social semiotic thinking (Balarin, 2009; Evans, Gruba, & Zobel, 2011; Jewitt, 2009).

In Chapter One, I highlighted a need to comment on several environmental factors influencing how the participants and I went about meaning-making in the research setting. I address these concerns in the first juncture between the two research strands, ‘The Environment’. The second juncture, ‘The Rhetorical Component’, builds on the first intersection via exploring the idea that architectural meaning-making is a rhetorical endeavour, another critical overlap between the architectural and social semiotic multimodality research domains. In the third juncture, ‘Resources’, I present the specific attributes of nonverbal, verbal, literal and visual communication modes that underpin and relate directly to meaning-making in the research site. Exploring the roles, relationships and dynamic interplay between the different communication modes deployed by the participants in their meaning-making efforts was an essential aspect of answering my research questions and a core intersection between the two research strands that I explore in juncture four. Ultimately, I was concerned with uncovering the mechanisms underpinning the participants’ meaning-making as knowledge production, a primary consideration in both fields, and I address this matter in juncture five, ‘Learning and Communication’.

Like many other aspects of the thesis document, the writing in this chapter evolved during the doctoral journey to reflect my growing understanding of ‘what’ literature and ‘which’ scholars would help me construct the story of the participants’ semiotic and multimodal
meaning-making efforts most efficiently. The theories about architectural design and communication, in conjunction with social semiotic multimodality thinking, were the means, what Thomas (2016) calls the “explanatory framework” (p.138), for understanding, interpreting, and explaining the participants’ meaning-making through the social semiotic multimodality lens. I am characterising the literature work generally, and specifically in this chapter, as a multi-layered construction of different materials into an integrated whole, that produces what Golden-Biddle and Locke (2007) call “synthesised coherence” (p.25). Working between and across disciplinary boundaries and exchanging ideas in ways that generate space for multiple values and realities to connect is a recommended research approach for constructivist researchers (Gergen & Gergen, 2004, pp.71-91).

The collective corpus about the topics I cover is wide-ranging and substantial. Therefore, I present works in each intersection that contribute to my understanding of architectural meaning-making as a constructivist, architectural and social semiotic multimodality endeavour and speak to my data, analysis and interpretations, and so are essential for resolving my research queries. Also, I present works that relate to and align in some way to each other and all the other literature I draw on in my research work (Bayard, 2008, pp.8-9). Thus, my arrangement of related works and relevant citations across the five junctures is intended to inform and situate my deliberations and provide the location for my study in the intersections between the two fields (Eyal, 2010; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007, pp.19-26).

**The Environment**

Several common research themes cohere across the architectural and social semiotic multimodality research domains that have implications for this study regarding the significant influence exerted by the environment on communication and/or knowledge production, thereby producing the first juncture. Firstly, researchers acknowledge we live in a time of unprecedented technological advancement and constant change (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Coleman, 2010; Jenson, 2008; Jones, 2011; Lasswell, 1979; Nicol & Pilling, 2000; Worthington, 2000). Secondly, scholars agree the rapidly evolving and complex nature of the contemporary communication landscape is profoundly impacting
societal structures and behaviours in a global sense (Jenson, 2008; Nicol & Pilling, 2000; Worthington, 2000). Thirdly, the marketplace is considered a critical driving force in society, influencing and in turn influenced by many prominent societal, cultural, and state institutions (Delanty, 2001, 2013; Fourcade, & Healy, 2007, p.285; Kress, 2010, p.49).

Sociological Discourse

Although at a macro level, society encapsulates social cohesion as a single body like a nation state, on a micro level, societies consist of individual establishments and configurations, social, cultural, political, and economic (Delanty, 2013, p.68). Currently, ethical statements permeate policy-making and the communicative operations characterising its practices (Fourcade & Healy, 2007, pp.303-305). A focus on principled governance exists, encompassing transparency, accountability, and integrity standards. Moreover, governance agents employ the instruments intended to produce these principles to monitor nations, state entities like HE institutions, and commercial bodies (Fourcade & Healy, 2007, p.303). Using steering instruments like HE funding, targets, and standards mechanisms (Steer et al., 2007).

The globalised rise of the English language has contributed to the spread of neo-liberal and neo-conservative dogmas about the individual, family, state, and marketplace, which has created a split between the state, who project ethical, integrative values, and those involved in the marketplace, who promote consumerist values (Kress, 2010, pp.49-52). The market versus state standpoint is said to effect and frame communication thinking and choice in distinctly different ways (Kress, 2010). For instance, the socially responsible model is thought to perpetuate communicational guidelines that shape and direct communicational mode preferences and resultant meanings. The customer, choice-based standpoint, on the other hand, presupposes the mutability of social forms materialises as a corresponding flexibility in communicational practices (Kress, 2010, p.50).

At the research site, the participants and I experience and navigate the different “life-worlds” (Schütz & Luckmann, 1973, pp.3-4) involved in the conflict between socially responsible behaviour and consumerist values, in our everyday existence. We live and
participate in Irish society in a distinct location, the Northwest of Ireland, as members of diverse CoP. Educationally, we operate within a specific kind of HE state-funded institution. We navigate its regulating processes daily as members of our architectural CoP and must also contend with and respond to, external regulatory bodies like the RIBA and RIAI during our meaning-making efforts (Delanty, 2013, p.70). Further, the evolving nature of the technological and communicational landscape is posing significant educational challenges as academics and students struggle to manage the diverse and complex factors shaping communication in this HE environment.

**The Social Semiotic Multimodality View**

The resources and tools people use to make meaning are said to be above all affected and formed by social and economic considerations and circumstances (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.20-21; Jewitt, 2009; Jewitt et al., 2016; Kress, 2010, pp.47-48; van Leeuwen, 2005). An underlying assumption exists in social semiotic multimodality circles, a culture or societies’ tools of “representation, production and dissemination” (Kress, 2010, pp.48-49), and the possibilities or affordances they offer, operate within a framework of what is socially achievable within that culture at any given time (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.20-21; Jewitt, 2009, pp.15-16; Kress, 2010, pp.48-49). What emerges is the options, circumstances and environs are negotiated by people with diverse interests in different social groups. As a result, peoples’ communicative behaviours and their resources and technologies adapt, at different times and degrees, to the prevailing conditions, including social, economic and technological advances (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.21; Jewitt, 2009, pp.15-16; Kress, 2010, pp.48-49). Thus, contemporary communication practices, like those in operation at the research site, are thought to develop as power disperses through the mechanisms underlying the conventions and regulatory agencies of current social forms (Kress, 2010, p.51).

**Architecture**

Transformations in the construction sector

As the communication and the technological landscape continues to mutate, the building industry has emerged as a dominant player on the world stage (Jones, 2011; Lasswell, 1979; Nicol & Pilling, 2000). The rise of the knowledgeable client has transformed
communicative relationships between all participants involved in the building industry. The architect’s role is radically altered, with some researchers claiming the architect is taking on a more compliant role in the industry to the detriment of their professional autonomy (Coleman, 2010, p.201; Lasswell, 1979; Nicol & Pilling, 2000; Worthington, 2000). Much of the reported tension existing between clients and architects resulted from their communicative interactions (Lawson & Pilling, 1996, pp.82-89). Improving communicative practices surfaces as a core requirement for developing the client’s sense of project ownership, and a proficiency both architectural practitioners and clienteles needed to continue to improve (Lawson & Pilling, 1996, p.89). Other related challenges reported in the research literature concern a call for architectural practitioners to continuously develop and update their knowledge and skills throughout their professional lives to cope with, the rise of the knowledgeable client; the fast-paced nature of technological and communicative advances; and the evolving information society (Nicol & Pilling, 2000, p.1; Worthington, 2000).

These tensions and issues manifest themselves in the research site in many ways including via firstly, our responsibilities addressing our institution’s core mission to produce graduates who can engage and perform efficiently as knowledge producers and consumers in diverse societal settings (Hunt, 2011; Institute of Technology, Sligo, 2009, 2016). Secondly, these concerns arise while we are addressing the pressures inherent in configuring our architectural programme’s curriculum and delivery to embody the acknowledged and pertinent practice concerns about continuously developing communication and other professional skills. Thirdly, these issues surface while we are managing the challenges navigating the complex nature of the analogue and digital environment presents (Dernie, 2014).

The business, creative and public service discourse
Other researchers investigated these complex societal shifts from a different angle, via exploring how professionals explain and justify the work they do in their changing circumstances (Cohen et al., 2005, p.776). Their findings point to the significant implications the different business, creative and service-oriented discourses evident in architectural practice have for architectural identity, practice, and education (Cohen et
al., 2005). In the creative discourse, for example, the architect is construed in expert terms. While in the business dialogue, there is a competitive edge to the conversation with practitioners perceiving themselves outranked by the client and competing for power with the contractor (Cohen et al., 2005, pp.785-789). Then the public authority discourse emphasised the need for architecture to serve the public good in tandem with the notion the architect is a public servant. The distinctive nature of these three discourses had implications for this study because it raised questions about the way our programme team’s response to each discourse at the research site was affecting our institutional roles, shaping the curriculum going forward, and impacting on our students’ meaning-making efforts and graduates’ prospects within the profession.

Architectural education

Ongoing problems are said to characterise architectural education’s response to the complex changes taking place in society generally and the technological and communication landscape specifically (Coleman, 2010), issues the architectural programme at the research site is not exempt from. A view emerges, a shift from an educational paradigm rooted in the humanities, towards one geared to expedite the built environment has divested architecture of much of its intellectual and moral ethos (Coleman, 2010, p.201). Also, there is a perception that a rift is developing between theory, history, and practice, with a resultant decline in the quality of knowledge production in architectural education (Coleman, 2010, p. 202; Purcaru 2002; Vesely, 2004).

Nevertheless, the dual function of architectural schools is to firstly, produce graduates with an institutionalised form of “cultural capital” (p.112), a degree in architecture, and secondly, offer graduates a particular type of “embodied capital” (Stevens, 1995, p.111) that is the result of being socialised into the institutionalised order of a particular architectural education environment (Gray, 2013, p.198; Stevens, 1995). In other words, the socialising process involves internalising a set of inherited outlooks that shape the graduates’ reactions and behaviours as both producers and consumers of culture within society. In this study, this enculturation process related to the participants’ access to, and participation in, the architectural CoP operating in the research site. The shared
meaning-making repertoire of this CoP has evolved over many years in response to the situation outlined above, and the criteria embodied in the institutional, governmental and professional accreditation standards referred to earlier and discussed in more detail in Chapter Three, ‘The Research Setting’ (Wenger, 1998a; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002).

In the social semiotic multimodality literature, access and participation in a CoP’s shared meaning-making repertoire are put forward as essential requirements for that community to succeed and develop inclusively (Kress, 2010, p.47). However, in this study, multilingual students from distinct cultural backgrounds and other students with different learning needs, including those experiencing dyslexia, acknowledged and indicated, via their responses in the questionnaires, interviews and multimodal meaning-making behaviours during the observed review, they faced considerable challenges gaining access to and participating fully in this CoP. Further, my findings suggest these challenges affected their rhetorical meaning-making adversely.

In research that focuses on international students’ experiences of HE, scholars claim that academics need to consider how to fully embrace the rich cultural heritage international students bring to their studies and assist them in their “intercultural adaptation” (p.167) process more efficiently; while simultaneously giving themselves the opportunity to develop their intercultural understanding (Gill, 2007, pp.167-169). In the research documenting students’ experiences of dyslexia, scholars maintain we need to consider the idea that those experiencing dyslexia are in fact “differently enabled” (Thompson et al., 2015, p.1328), rather than “disabled” (p.1328). Chanock (2007) and Cooper (2006) argue that people experiencing dyslexia are simply exhibiting ‘different’ attributes of being human that Cooper (2006) labels “specific learning differences” (p.1). Interestingly, these scholars claim that our current education systems produced, and are failing, those experiencing dyslexia for the following reasons. Firstly, these systems were set up to maintain the status quo in a socio-political and economic sense, particularly regarding their focus on the value of societal norms for literacy. Secondly, implementing such systems hinges on the authority of those responsible for imposing learning in specific ways that do not necessarily value diversity (Chanock, 2007, p.35; Cooper, 2006, pp.9-10;
Thompson et al., 2015, pp.1329-1339). Thus, our current education systems are thought to:

- Favour and “equate literacy with intelligence and the capacity for socio-economic success” (Thompson, 2015, p.1329);

And

- Adopt systematic or sequential meaning-making over more holistic approaches, possibly, partially at least, because systematic learning is thought to be more straightforward to observe and assess (Chanock, 2007, p.35; Cooper, 2006, p.3; Thompson et al., 2015, p.1329).

Although, inclusivity is a well-established research focus in architecture, studies concerned primarily with the impact of access and participation challenges on international students or other students experiencing specific learning differences in a distinct architectural education context is limited (Holgate, 2015; Manley, de Graft-Johnson & Lucking, 2011; Manley & de Graft-Johnson, 2013). Swales et al. (2001), for instance, focused on the inherent flaws in the review system and its contested educational value to address how to help international Masters of Architecture students manage the review setting more resourcefully from a rhetorical meaning-making perspective. Nevertheless, they suggest investigating the difficulties international students grapple with in an architectural education context, is an undeveloped area of study (Swales et al., 2001). Holgate (2015, p.91), on the other hand, sought to develop effective strategies surrounding implementing support procedures for architectural students experiencing dyslexia in his interview-based inquiry. Manley and de Graft-Johnson (2013, p.915) explored inclusiveness in the architectural profession to identify the optimum tactics for supporting differently-enabled people to pursue architecture as a profession. Their findings led to a recommendation that architecture schools need to be more pre-emptive about creating inclusive cultures and attitudes to design via their curriculum development and delivery practices (Manley & Graft-Johnson, 2013, pp.923-925). However, in their work, they did not focus on the ways specific groups of students with different learning needs cope with the nuts and bolts of meaning-making in a distinct setting. This gap presented an opportunity for me to play a part in this study via explicating the way two distinct student groups, international students and those
experiencing dyslexia, were grappling with access and participation challenges in the research site from a meaning-making perspective.

Studying the sociological in an architectural education arena entails firstly, an exploration of how architectural students produce knowledge during their educational studies and become socialised into the specific forms of architectural culture their CoP represents as a subculture of the larger architectural world as one form of social reality (Gray, 2013; Stevens, 1995). Secondly, such inquiry involves appraising the CoP’s customs and values, power structures and roles as they are concretised via talk, and other communicative modes (Cuff, 1991, p.111). All types of education, formal and informal, are understood to indoctrinate some level of “cultural capital” (p.112) into the learner (Stevens, 1995). An occurrence that Bourdieu (1990) calls “habitus” (p.54), a concept I found helpful that relates to Gadamer’s (2004) theorising about the historical horizon and Berger & Luckmann’s (1991) views about habitualisation. Habitus is described as a kind of internal law or embodied history, what Bourdieu (1990) refers to as the “active presence of past experiences” (p.54) that he asserts regulates individuals’ behaviours over time more consistently than other formalised conventions. Habitus, as a term and concept, is used by architectural researchers to delineate the distinctive nature of the design studio within distinct CoP in architectural education contexts (Gray, 2013, p.198; Stevens, 1995).

In this project, these ideas were core considerations. Particularly as they related to, and underpinned, the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making efforts during the precedent task and observed review as they went about deconstructing, assimilating, communicating and drawing on other practitioners’ thinking and modelled ways of designing using multimodal resources to address programme LOs for both the precedent task and associated review (Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Eilouti, 2009, p.342; Hopkins, 2012; Lawson, 2004, p.449; Oxman, 1986; Unwin, 2003, 2007). However, as I indicated earlier exploring the mechanics of rhetorical meaning-making in specific architectural education settings remains an under-developed research focus (Gray, 2013, p.196). In this project, I responded to this situation to contribute to the existing body of work about rhetorical architectural meaning-making in a distinct setting (Allan, 2013; Gray, 2013, p.196).
The Rhetorical Component
In Chapter One, I intimated that making architecture is a rhetorical activity (Crilly et al., 2008; Eco, 1980; Hattenhauer, 1984, Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001, pp.5-6; van Schaik, 2014; Whyte, 2006, p.153). Further, I suggested that architecture embodies the designers’ rhetorical intent, the symbolic meaning the designer intends the architecture to communicate to its users (Crilly et al., 2008; Eco, 1980; Hattenhauer, 1984; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001, pp.5-6; van Schaik, 2014). Moreover, I proposed that social semiotics is primarily concerned with the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of meaning-making in diverse cultural settings (van Leeuwen, 2005, p.93). The idea that architectural meaning-making is communicative and symbolic, and so semiotic work is a shared principle, guiding knowledge production in both the architectural and social semiotic multimodality field that establishes a second and fundamental intersection between the two research strands (Crilly et al., 2008; Eco, 1980, Hattenhauer, 1984; Jewitt & Oyama, 2001; Kazmierczak 2003; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001, pp.5-6; van Leeuwen, 2005; Vesely, 2004; Whyte, 2006).

Semiotics
The field of social semiotics is not considered a standalone domain. Operating in an interdisciplinary way across separate fields emerges in the research literature as a defining feature of studies concerning semiotics and multimodality (Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005, p.1). The social semiotic lens, like the design focus, provides the stimulus for formulating questions, like my research queries about the participants’ meaning-making, and finding ways to actively search for answers about the events under investigation (van Leeuwen, 2005, p.1). Moreover, answering such questions, as I do in this study, is known to require examining the environment in which people make meaning actively; the roles, and relationships between the different communicative resources for making meaning in each context; and the people involved as meaning makers or social agents (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; van Leeuwen, 2005, p.1).

The term ‘semiotic resources’ incorporates recognisable behaviours and entities at play in social communication fields, which embody theoretical and concrete semiotic capacities or affordances (Gibson, 2015) resulting from their historical use and
observable characteristics those using the resource recognizes and judges necessary (Hattenhauer, 1984, p.72; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005). The term ‘semiotic resources’ also encompasses the potential applications users discover based on their requirements and pursuits in different social situations (van Leeuwen, 2005, p.4). In this investigation, exploring architectural meaning-making through a social semiotic multimodality lens was based on the idea every mode in use in the architectural setting is part of an interconnected system incorporating all the material, cultural, and semiotic resources and their associated technologies, and, the non-material conceptual tools, like emphasis or coherence, that mould meaning-making in this social situation (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.17-18; van Leeuwen, 2005, p.1).

**Intersecting Architectural Meaning-Making and Social Semiotics**

Part of the overlapping debate about architectural meaning-making as rhetorical communication relates to the complex nature of making architecture multimodally and rhetorically (Eco, 1980, Hattenhauer, 1984; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001, pp.2-6; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). Much of Eco’s (1980) discussion, for instance, focuses on typological conventions, especially those concerning functional, sociological and iconic architecture types (Jones, 2011, Lasswell, 1979). Likewise, Whyte (2006, p.177) supposes, architecture communicates multiple meanings depending on the way we experience it, whether it is via plans, images, text, edifice, or inhabitable space.

The correlation between the designer’s rhetorical intentions, how those intentions are realised in the design, and the meanings their clients, users, and audiences ascribe to their architectural outputs is another common research focus that links to and underpins my investigations; particularly regarding the precedent study task (Crilly et al., 2008; Hershberger, 1969; Kazmierczak 2003; Vesely, 2004; Whyte, 2006, pp.155-156). Designing is conceptualised in several ways in these deliberations that relates to my conception of meaning-making in the research site as both an architectural and social semiotic multimodality undertaking. Firstly, designing is comprehended as a semiotic interface mediating the mental processes shaping the user’s response to the designed object (Kazmierczak, 2003). Secondly, designing is viewed as a historical referent incorporating how multiple meanings of buildings evolve as they are designed, built,
occupied and then read, in which the medium used to describe meaning in each of these phases shapes the message’s production and how it is interpreted (Medway & Clark, 2003; Purcaru, 2016; Whyte, 2006, pp.155-156). Thirdly, designing is considered regarding the designers’ deliberate attempts to influence how the output is interpreted versus how consumers infer designer intent (Crilly et al., 2008).

Another related and pertinent facet of the rhetorical debate about architecture that I draw on in this project, concerns the fragmented nature of architectural representation regarding creativity and production in the face of the ongoing complex societal conditions, and technological advancements discussed earlier (Spector, 2011; Vesely, 2004). Currently, many individuals are thought to have what Max Stackhouse (1972) calls “splintered identities” (p.3), as they live out their lives dealing with conflicting ideologies, ethical standpoints, and competing business interests (Delanty, 2013, p.68; Fourcade & Healy, 2007, pp.303-305; Kress, 2010, pp.49-50; Stackhouse, 1972, p.3). Many architects reacting to these circumstances are thought to incorporate and emphasise only those mores that give their architectural work a unique and innovative quality (Spector, 2011; Vesely, 2004, p.13). Perhaps they behave in this way, to respond to the opposing nature of state-based ethics and marketplace consumerist values. Also, maybe architects operate in this manner to address the business-oriented discourse and the competitive component of professional practice addressed earlier (Cohen et al., 2005; Coleman, 2010, p.201; Nicol & Pilling, 2000; Worthington, 2000). Researchers say such practitioners often abandon the shared historical and rhetorical references and objectives underwriting the enduring cultural significance of architecture (Spector, 2011, p.24, Vesely, 2004, p.13).

However, to understand what architectural designing and architecture meaning are, against this backdrop, it is necessary to appreciate representation’s role in the making and experiencing of architecture (Altürk, 2008; Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2010; Vesely, 2004, p.14). A detailed history of architectural representation is not possible here. However, outlining several core theories concerning the rhetorical nature of representation and its evolving role in architectural production is essential because these concepts support the foundational premise in this study architectural meaning-making, which is reified via multimodal representations or orchestrations, is a social semiotic
multimodality endeavour. Moreover, these considerations point to the problems associated with firstly, shifting into a mainly digital environment; and secondly, the fragmentation of society as it relates to the tensions considered previously (Altürk, 2008; Delanty, 2013, p.68; Fourcade & Healy, 2007, pp.303-305; Kress, 2010, pp.49-50; Spector, 2011; Stackhouse, 1972, p.3; Vesely, 2004).

First, architecture and representation are known to be linked in two main ways (Altürk, 2008, p.133). The first correlation concerns the rhetorical connection between an architecture and its referents (van Schaik, 2014, p.33). The referent can be either internally focused on historical precedent or the design process, or outward looking towards prevailing cultural, political and economic interests (Altürk, 2008, p.133). The second is between architecture and its representations in different media, analogue and digital, including but not limited to diagrams, sketches, drawings, annotation and writing, models and imagery (Altürk, 2008, pp.133-135). Architectural drawings are portrayed as combining a rhetorical, mapping, notational, or visualisation role concerning addressing and communicating architectural contents regarding making the abstract real (Bafna, 2008, pp.536-537; Eris, Martelaro, & Badke-Schaub, 2014). Thus, architectural representations are thought to operate as a symbolic, constructive, and depiction referent (Altürk, 2008, p.133; Bafna, 2008, pp.539-540; Vesely, 2004). The above points about representation were core considerations in this study.

Architectural projects typically commence with a set of functional requirements, and usually a visualisation or concept for the intended outcome (Ochsner, 2000; Vesely, 2004, p.14). The above strategy is a well-established design project protocol deployed at the research site for all student projects. The functional requirements and the rhetorical, conceptual frame usually emerge out of the designer’s design knowledge and experiences (Ochsner, 2000; Vesely, 2004, p.14). Usually, the designing output embodies one result from numerous options (Harfield, 2007, p.163; Vesely, 2004, p.14). Refining the design solution via multimodal resources is thought to be achievable because these communicative means concretise the possibilities in the present moment making them available to the designer. Therefore, the designers’ emerging and refined solutions become representations of the hidden semiotic potential or affordances, and surface and foreground their characteristics (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.20-21; Crilly et al., 2008;
Notably regarding this research, even though architectural representation is a way to grasp the complexities of reality, what is produced is known to be subject to, and constrained by, the designer’s, or student participants’ in this case, intellectual, affective, and psychomotor skills (Dernie, 2014; Gänshirt, 2007; Vesely, 2004, p.15). Nonetheless, architectural representation is viewed as being fundamentally a form of making something which did not exist previously. A creative action transforming possibilities via concrete expression using multimodal means to give form to, or concretise, creative thought that has rhetorical intent (Crilly et al., 2008; Gänshirt, 2007; Hershberger, 1969; Kazmierczak 2003; van Schaik, 2014; Vesely, 2004, p.15). These ideas relate to van Schaik’s (2014) description of the kind of multimodal conversations practitioners engage in while designing, as outlined below, and Schön’s (1984, 1987; 1991) theorising about the role of reflective and reflexive thinking in design conversations with the substantive materials of the design situation.

Between the hand that draws and models and the eye that sees and recalls; between the library of peers and mentors of the designer and the designing hand/eye; between design partners who bring their own conversations into the conversation that shapes the design; between the designer and the clients, each bringing their ‘little worlds’ into play in the conversation that holds the designing (van Schaik, 2014, p.87).

Secondly, architectural representation is delineated in the literature presented here as having an inextricable connection to theory via, our historical actuality (Kress, 2010; Purcaru, 2016, p.17; Vesely, 2004, p.14); and poiēsis, and “creative imitation” (p.14), or mimēsis (Vesely, 2004, p.14). Where, theory in its original denotation, refers to discourse and an ideal way of life embodying authenticity. Poiēsis, a Greek philosophical term, extends the meaning of praxis to include intentional and knowing action. Mimēsis (ibid), another Greek term, is an imitative endeavour encompassing a creative element and so not limited to literal replication (Purcaru, 2016, p.,17). Four important interconnected research considerations are related to the above. Firstly, the idea currently, the meaning of theory is being diminished from its original philosophical connotation of being both
discourse and a way of life guiding poiēsis, to being simply notional. Secondly, poiēsis previously isolated or separated from praxis is now standing in for it. Thirdly, the core of poiēsis, the intentional, knowing driving making is being replaced by queries about the physical production process. Lastly, creative or rhetorical action is being practised and interpreted as praxis juxtaposed with theory rather than being understood and performed more holistically and fluidly considering the first three characteristics (Purcaru, 2016, p.17). These shifts in perspective and practice are said to be related to ongoing technological transformations and the resultant productive ethos evident in much of contemporary societies’ meaning-making activities, including HE, which have profoundly affected architectural representational and meaning-making practices in both an education and practice context (Vesely, 2004, pp.19-21).

Resources
I am mindful an extensive theoretical and empirical corpus exists about each communicative mode separately and collectively from diverse theoretical positions and angles in both research strands, producing a third juncture. The research directly geared towards architectural students’ rhetorical meaning-making from a social semiotic multimodality angle focusing on the use of all three resources is limited, however, and typically concerns the designing activity and associated review rather than specific tasks like the precedent study, the focus of attention in this project (Allan, 2013; Morton & O’Brien, 2005; Morton, 2006, 2009; Swales et al., 2001). In this investigation, I responded to this situation to extend the corpus about the roles, relationships and dynamic interaction between modes in architectural meaning-making during the precedent study from a social semiotic multimodality standpoint. Still, I found the work of the scholars referred to above and all the other scholars I draw on here particularly valuable for understanding and questioning the way the participants used nonverbal, talk, text, and visual means semiotically in their orchestrated ensembles in communicative interaction.

Overview
Discussing the role of gestures in architectural meaning-making may seem a strange place for an architect to start a conversation about communicative resources given the perceived dominant role of visual media in architecture (Eris et al., 2014; Kasprisin &
However, gestural movements are considered the initiators for externalising, conveying and concretising design ideas; while other modes, including drawings and diagrams, talk, and text are deemed further more precise expansions of these communicative means (Gänshirt, 2007, p.100; Lemke, 1998). Where gestures are movements of the body or instruments held by the body, which signify meanings which we must interpret to understand (Flusser, 2014, pp.2-4). Gestural movements are said to become concretised in a visual architectural sense via firstly, the constructed sketch or diagram, model, drawing and perspective; and secondly, the producing and substantive making of the architectural object (Eris et al., 2014, p.560; Gänshirt, 2007, pp.98-101). The legendary architectural napkin or envelope doodle encapsulates perfectly a vision of designers’ initial gestures, as they move their hands and bodies to make marks physically in a sketch or diagrammatic form to express and concretise their early design thoughts (Day & Orthel, 2015, p.1519; Gänshirt, 2007, p.107). As the designer’s thinking develops, these initial analytical outputs become the preliminary non-scaled and then scaled planimetric, sectional, elevational and 3D drawings, and models, that frame the design conversation. Eventually, these artefacts evolve into the blueprints required to understand and produce the architectural building (Day & Orthel, 2015, p.1521; Gänshirt, 2007, pp.98-101; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006; Purcell & Gero, 1998, p.389).

Talking and writing are known to develop in similar ways, words become sentences, and then complete thoughts, in turn evolving into argumentative units that lead to review and hypotheses (Gänshirt, 2007, p.101). Later, these verbalised and written theories direct computations and decisions that calibrate the ‘design and build’ program (Gänshirt, 2007, pp.98-101). Thus, the designer represents specific characteristics of the world that must be read and resolved more accurately as the designing activity progresses; and so, these constructions become the measures for answering questions about the meaning of these design features (Gänshirt, 2007, p.103). The above considerations, like van Schaik’s (2014) earlier quotation about the design process, and Schön’s (1984, 1987, 1991) deliberations about conversing with the substantive materials of the situation seem to confirm my acceptance and other scholars’ conjectures about the symbiotic relationship between thinking and using one’s body to do the doing.
involved in using gestural, oral, written, and visual means semiotically in contexts like this research setting (Aicher, 2015, p.5; Gänshirt, 2007; Wittgenstein, 1958).

**Gesture, Posture, and Spatial Positioning Resources**

In general, nonverbal resources are considered ways of expressing viewpoint, attitudes, needs, feelings and meanings communicatively (Eunson, 2012, p.256; Gorden, 1980, p.315, 1992, p.104). More particularly, nonverbal modes are said to serve several significant roles in the design context including aiding reasoning and communication, and, being a tool for manipulating hardware and software in the digital environment (Cash & Maier, 2016; Eris et al., 2014). In this study, I drew on this thinking as I focused on the participant's dynamic behaviour, particularly gestural interaction with other modes, to uncover the performative aspect of their meaning-making practices in the observed review. However, I also used these theories when I deliberated about other nonverbal resource usage regarding proxemics and chronemics (Gorden, 1980, p.314). Proxemics concerns the use of interpersonal space, and in this project, relates to the way the crit space was organised, including seating arrangements, and the distance between presenter, peers and tutors (Gorden, 1980, pp.314-315). Chronemics involves time, in this instance how much time each participant got to present, and, encompasses pacing and silence (Gorden, 1980, pp.314-315).

As a newcomer to the theories underpinning the use of nonverbal communication modes, I found several scholars’ research helpful as I set about understanding how gestural behaviour contributes to meaning-making at the research site. McNeill (1992) developed a coding system that includes four kinds of gestural activity, “iconic”, “metaphoric”, “deictic”, and “beat” (McNeill, 1992, pp.75-76). While, Murphy (2003), drawing on McNeill (1992) addressed gestures from a communicative perspective in architectural settings (Murphy, 2003, p.33). The role of deictic and beat gestures remain as a specific functional aspect of gestural action in Murphy’s (2003, pp.33-35) model, that is, to point to, or denote parts of the dialogue. However, he shifts the role of, and understanding about gesturing generally, and iconic, and metaphoric gestures particularly, away from what is depicted, to the act of representation in context (Murphy, 2003, pp.33-35). Where iconic gestures represent something physical figuratively, like
using one’s hands to represent a book; and metaphoric gestures are utilised to depict abstract concepts, like using one’s hands to represent a heart to tell someone you love them (Murphy, 2003, p.35). In a later study, Murphy (2005, pp.118-125) found gestures help architects portray imagined three-dimensional space by putting their talking and drawing into action via pointing at and mimicking what various architectural components outlined in other modes, like drawn openings, for instance, do. Murphy’s (2005) findings were a crucial resource for me as the mechanisms he uncovered in his research regarding the use of gestures in tandem with other modes, like talking, pointed the way for me to uncover how the participants in this study made meaning actively during the observed review, a key research objective.

Figure 12 shows a general example of each kind of gesture, and Figure 13 below shows an excerpt from the observed review in which Participant Two’s (ASP2) use of gestural movement and other nonverbal means, while speaking, portray different aspects of the precedent she is explaining to her colleagues and tutors. In my notes on the excerpt from ASP2’s multimodal transcript, I highlighted an issue concerning ASP2’s misuse of gestures.

Figure 12: Deictic, beat, iconic, and metaphoric gesture examples (unknown authors, n.d.).
In this excerpt, ASP2 uses gestural actions, eye contact, facial expression, head and bodily movement, and speaking to direct attention to, point at, underline, (deictic) and mimic (iconic) position to portray aspects of the building context she is presenting her analytical findings about (Murphy, 2003).

However, it must be said the explaining task would have been considered more effective and aligned with academic expectations in this CoP if she had referred to the planimetric drawings on her presentation sheets, or better still included larger scale plans, rather than relying on sectional drawings and gestural movements to explain the layouts and contextual features during the presentation.

Then her gestural actions including mimicry could have supported her critical analysis and portrayal of the building context rather than compensate for what she did not show her audience. In this instance, her gestural actions highlight what is omitted rather than confirming ASP2's analytical proficiency (Murphy, 2005).

Figure 13: Using gestures, talk, and artefact. (Source: Appendix 1D2, Volume Two, p.362)
Similarly, Visser (2009, p.1) presents four functions for gestures in a design context that I draw on as they relate to Murphy’s (2003) considerations. First, depictive, that is pointing out or denoting something. Second, directorial, a way of handling dialogue, interaction, or practical design actions. Third, drawing attention to or highlighting something. Fourth, adjusting discussion and interaction. Lastly, confirming or supporting other modal interactions. Other scholars, who I bring into play during my analysis, also draw attention to the fact gestural movements interact dynamically with other modes to communicate meaning in diverse contexts (Cash & Maier, 2016; Godwin, 2003; Hutchins & Palen, 1997; Norris, 2011; Wardak, 2016). Moreover, several researchers I relied on during my analysis, shed light on the intricate sequential and framed time and space-based nature of gestural behaviour (Cash & Maier, 2016; Hutchins & Palen, 1997; Kress, 2009a; Murphy, 2003, 2005; Norris, 2011).

The meanings associated with all these meaning-making actions may differ in separate situations both vis-à-vis intent and interpretation (Kress, 2009a, pp.57-59). Kress (2009a, pp.57-58) talks about this issue regarding the “reach” (p.58) of different communicative resources relating this concept to each mode’s affordances, what Kress (2009a) calls “material… …drawn into semiosis as mode” (p.58). In this study, I drew on all the functional applications for gestural movements discussed here to inform and guide my critical deliberations surrounding the participants’ meaning-making behaviours during the observed review.

Writing and Talking
Writing and talking are established core components of producing architecture and an essential ingredient of the designing activity (Cuff, 1991, p.122; Dias et al., 2013, pp.76-77; Dong, 2007, p.6; Medway, 1994; 1996b; Medway & Clark, 2003; Spector & Damron, 2013, p.4). Spoken or written communication is, in fact, considered an integral component of design and production activity, if sometimes regarded as an ancillary task (Cuff, 1991, p.122; Dias et al, 2013; Lawson, 2004; Medway, 1994, p.86, 1996b; Morton & O’Brien, 2005; Spector & Damron, 2013, pp.5-6). Further, architecture does not form or represent a single account; but instead is a multifaceted, multimodal construction (Senturer & Istek, 2000, p.73). In the current information age, the designed object is
considered the hub of mixed materials, and, the sum of all the different evidence and actions, including talk and text, that influence and shape its making and embedded meanings (Spector & Damron, 2013, p.6). Dong (2007) argues that the notion language, both verbal and textual, can materialise design concerns “performativity” (p.6), a term devised by Austin (1975) to delineate the ability of talk and text to accomplish action communicatively. From a performative standpoint, a designed artefact is thought to be materialised through verbal and textual action oriented means via firstly, “aggregation” (p.6), that is melding and combining ideas and concepts; secondly “accumulation” (p.6), the process of providing a framework for ideas and concepts; and lastly “appraisal” (p.6) which relates to evaluating ideas to direct future action (Dong, 2007).

Writing is organised through grammar and syntax and employs words, sentences, and paragraphs. Further, writing draws on various graphical resources like font type and size; highlighting via bolding and italicising; spacing; framing or layout, punctuation marks like commas and periods; and colour. Also writing is produced in and on different mediums (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.33-34; Kress, 2010, pp.143-145). Talking shares some of writing’s lexical features but the substance of speech, utterance via sound, is distinct from the graphic material of writing. Sound embodies resources like loudness and softness, pitch and intonation, duration and silence, which people use to stress elements of their speech, and encompasses their speaking rhythms (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.33-34; Kress, 2010, pp.144-145). Both modes share semiotic characteristics. For instance, they produce and signify meaning via intensity, but they do so differently. Writing does so via font size, spacing, and highlighting, while speaking accomplishes intensity through loudness (Kress, 2010, pp.144-145). From the social-semiotic standpoint, these qualities are said to concern equivalent but different functional specialisms (Kress, 2010, pp.144-145).

Architectural practitioners, including the participants, must sell their designs to others, and a fundamental component of this is known to involve speaking about the design decisively and persuasively (Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.7). The design studio is regarded as a primary space for developing proficiency using communicative resources rhetorically and multimodally (Akalin & Sezal, 2009, p.14; Dannels, 2005; Koch et al., 2002; Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.7; Stevens, 1995). However, oral and written communication skills often
play a subsidiary role in the studio at the research site where the emphasis tends to be on expressing visual reasoning via diagrams, drawings, models, and visualisations (Dias et al., 2013, p.133; Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.7). In fact, researchers say, and my experiences confirm, tutors involved in teaching students about oral communication still teach and reference materials that focus on universal presentation skills, rather than, focusing on the different language forms used in spoken architectural discourse, and the way to successfully realise design presentations linguistically for various audiences and social contexts (Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.8).

Nevertheless, holding the audience’s attention is known to be a critical aspect of useful architectural student reviews. Swales et al. (2001, p.445) identified two rhetorical steps associated with this process that have import here, as both relate to my deliberations about the participants’ oral strategy during the observed review. The first move involved students providing a design interpretation at different degrees of precision, logic, and generalisation; and the second entailed them synthesising these readings in ways that were convincing to their reviewers (Swales et al., 2001, p.445). Several important interchanges coordinated these speaking activities as the presentation unfolded (Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-446). Firstly, the presenter’s site description in the introductory phase usually incorporated somewhat simple syntax in the present tense and many deictic gestures towards the planimetric site representations, possibly because this phase concerns contextual rather than generative information (Swales et al., 2001, p.445). Second, the student typically used the first-person singular to reflect their critical decision-making processes; their terminology became more abstract; and their movements and gestural activity towards the artefacts declined as they revealed their design reasoning framework to their audience (Swales et al., 2001, p.445-446). Then as the student progressed to discuss the details of their design output, he or she drew out all the different design components, like structure, layout, and spatial qualities. At this stage, the student used several multimodal strategies to connote the experiential qualities of their architecture as if it were a real entity. Including providing a spoken description using the present tense to describe how the architectural composition evolved, while moving about the crit space, and gesturing at all the different artefacts incorporated into their presentation (Swales et al., 2001, p.446). These strategical actions appeared to provoke their audience into visualising and experiencing the
envisioned architecture as if it were existent (Swales et al., 2001, p.446). Swales et al’s discoveries support Murphy’s (2005), and other scholars’, finding, designers construct and reify characteristics of an architecture or space via their multimodal meaning-making interactions with others (Luck & McDonnell, 2006, p.142; Medway, 1996a, p.501).

In this project, the above rhetorical protocols provided an invaluable template for deconstructing the participants’ presentations during the review. Further, what emerges from these considerations that informed this research is the idea that designers draw on different communicative modes’ unique functional features to aggregate, accumulate, and appraise, as they actively construct design outputs using a variety of modes interactively (Dong, 2007; Kress, 2010, pp.147-148; Kress et al., 2001, p.107).

**Architectural Drawings as Analytical Diagram**

Architectural drawing is characterised as a fluid, and iterative process involving all kinds of visual media a designer uses to translate ideas into concrete reality (Dernie, 2014; Do, 2002; Gänshirt, 2007, pp.98-101; Unwin, 2007). The term ‘drawing’ is a common word in architectural circles and across the literature in both research strands. The expression encompasses, all two and three-dimensional images made up of dots, lines, colour and shapes; as well as, sketches, diagrams, and preliminary, detailed design and technical plans, sections, elevations, working drawings, and perspectives (Dernie, 2014; Do, 2002, p.153; Gänshirt, 2007).

Designers use assorted types of drawings for different purposes. Firstly, designers utilise drawings to manage differing degrees of complex thought concurrently. Secondly, designers use drawings to help them remember and recognise key concepts and data details from the possible permutations they identify. Thirdly, drawings are employed by designers to guide problem framing via testing emerging resolutions. Fourthly, designers utilise drawings to foreground the foundational aspects of emerging solutions (Chastain, Kalay, & Peri 2002, p.238; Cross, 1999b, pp.35-36; Gänshirt, 2007, pp.98-101). Then, architectural diagrams, which are another form of architectural drawing, are said to be the principal tools designers use to:
• Visualise and concretise their initial concepts;
• Recall and document historical and contemporary examples;
• Integrate complex functional arrangements and building systems into unified ensembles;

And
• Test and compare potential solutions before they evolve these drawings into the formal, scaled blueprints that guide building production (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.ix; Bar-Eli, 2013, p.472; Do & Gross, 2001, p.2; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Eris et al., 2014, pp.561-562; Medway, 1994).

Further, using drawings diagrammatically is a vital component in analytical work, like precedent study, because designers are involved in evaluating the visual world (Balmer & Swisher, 2012; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.44; Gänshirt, 2007; van Schaik, 2014; Unwin, 2007). This is a process, researchers say, which provides the means for designers to mine for distinct pieces of information in complex circumstances (Balmer & Swisher, 2012; Brawne, 2003; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.44).

From a semiotic perspective, architectural drawings are known to represent real or imagined places or buildings and serve specific purposes semiotically, like blueprints to guide the building process (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, pp.156-165). Architectural practitioners are known to utilise architectural drawings semiotically via the positioning of elements in two or three-dimensional space, physically or virtually, using scale, dots, lines, colour, and shape denoted by graphical symbols including but not limited to circles or spheres, rectangles, or cubes, and triangles and pyramids (Kress, 2010, pp.147-148). “Overtracing” (Do, 2002, pp.153-154) is a common diagrammatic feature, taught and adopted in the research site, in which the students repeatedly overlay marks on top of previous drawing work as their thinking develops. How the graphical entities are organised determines their relationships and the meanings they depict (Kress, 2010, pp.147-148; Do, 2002, p.153). For instance, diagrams can incorporate the above signs to represent firstly, abstract concepts, like communal space; secondly, objects like furniture; processes, the way things work, like circulation; and fourthly, specific spatial functions, such as eating (Figure 14), (Do & Gross, 2001, p.3). Notably, the participants were taught ‘how’, and were expected to use diagrams in the ways outlined here, in design studio and
during the precedent task and associated observed review. Diagramming is something architectural scholars know students must practice repeatedly to develop their capacity to express and concretise their design thinking as they journey towards becoming proficient designers (Bilda, Gero, & Purcell, 2006, p.587; Eris et al., 2014).

Typically, architectural practitioners classify diagrams by their subject matter or operational features what Downing & Hubka (1986) refer to as “abstraction, visualisation, and intensification” (p.45). Abstracting and visualising are corresponding means through which designers refine and condense their ideas and afford them spatial form. Intensification, is the way to segregate and separate various architectural components to zoom in on specific architectural traits (Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45). Please refer to Figures, 15, 16, and 17 for an example of each operational feature in diagrammatic form.
Figure 15: 1. Analysing inside and outside by Unknown Author (n.d.). 2. “Interior (and some exterior) elements” of architecture by Unknown Author (ca. 2008).

Figure 16: “120527_PANCHOLI.JAYEN_23 SECTIONS-02” visualisation by Pancholi, J. (2012).

Figure 17: Isolating roof typologies Unknown Author (n.d.).
A rationalist approach is sometimes adopted by designers to examine selected architectural precedents to show pre-existing patterns or principles (Downing & Hubka, 1986, pp.50-51). Figure 18 shows a mathematical proportioning system overlaid onto the façade of The National Gallery, in London, to demonstrate how the Gallery’s composition conforms to the ‘Golden Ratio’ principles.

Figure 18: “The Golden Ratio” proportioning system by Blackwell, T. J. (2012).

Other designers adopt a structuralist perspective typically to explore universal objects (Figure 19) to uncover their inherent and systematising elements (Downing & Hubka, 1986, pp.50-51).

Figure 19: “Structure and Façade System”. Exploring universal objects by Singapore University of Technology and Design (SUTD), (ca. 2012-2018).
While those looking through an empiricist lens utilise diagrams to examine concrete occurrences derived from sensate data that is usually ‘place’ specific and experientially based (Downing & Hubka, 1986, pp.50-51). Figure 20 below illustrates how the sun impacts on a design over a specific period.

![Figure 20: “Bioclimatic Analysis” sensate data by theOtherDada (tOD), (2013).](image)

Diagrams incorporate many diagrammatic forms using different architectural drawing types as an analytical tactic. Below I present several more examples that relate directly to the types of diagram the participants were expected to produce in their design work including precedent study. I make use of both Downing & Hubka (1986, pp.46-48) and Chaplin’s (2014, pp.1-74) classifications and building references.

Abstract visualisations (Figure 21) illustrate nonvisual or sensate data, like light, and imaginary interpretations (Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.47). In the digitally produced section below, the use of lines, planes, colour and translucency are intended to capture the atmosphere of the interior.
Figure 21: “Project 03 Interim Crit 03” light and concept visualisations by Pancholi, J. (2013).

Space and form diagrams (Figure 22) document and analyse architecture’s physical subject matter like structure, materials, volume, style, and systems (Chaplin, 2014; Downing & Hubka, 1986). The way the drawing’s creator uses line and colour below helps to hint at the materials and their physical and visual attributes, thereby accentuating the configuration’s spatial dimension. Again, this 3D exploded view is a digital production.

Figure 22: “China Wood Sculpture Museum” by MAD Architects (2013).
Context diagrams (Figure 23) document and analyse buildings’ physical and cultural environs, like climate, topography, vegetation and surroundings (Chaplin, 2014; Downing & Hubka, 1986). The digitally constructed ‘pavilion in context’ image below captures the qualities of the space and illustrates how planting and vegetation contribute to the overall atmosphere.

Figure 23: “UWM09 nextfest RENDERING. The pavilion in context” by Patt, T. (2008).

Usage or functional diagrams (Figure 24) normally highlight spatial settings for human activities (Chaplin, 2014; Downing & Hubka, 1986). The 3D sectional perspective below highlights how the spatial functions are distributed horizontally and vertically in the building while also showing connections between the interior and exterior space.

Figure 24: Analysing inside and outside by Unknown Author (n.d.).
Programmatic diagrams concern the functional layout of buildings, and they are used to visualise how the spatial activities relate to each other and the building form. Often in the form of planimetric (plan), sectional or axonometric drawings (Chaplin, 2014, p.13). Usually, plans and sections are constructed and interpreted together for better understanding. Architectural graphical symbols including dots, lines, colour, numbers, arrows, and annotation are used to construct the planimetric and sectional drawings shown below (Figure 25). Typically, numbers and colours are used in conjunction with a legend, for coding purposes, to make it easier to read the drawings. Scaled human figures are utilised to connote scale (Anderson, 2002, p.238).

Figure 25: Hotel Project – Ground, first and second floor plans and section. (Source: student archive)
Concept or parti diagrams (Figure 26) relate to initial design ideas which often evolve into visible realities in the built architecture (Chaplin, 2014, p.59).

Figure 26: From concept “Drawing” (Piano, R., 2013) to realised artefact. “Centre Culturel Tjibaou” (Sekundo, 2007).

Circulation diagrams connect building forms and functions to the movement patterns of a design concept (Chaplin, 2014, p.21). At the research site, students are taught to analyse data about function and represent this data in matrices before translating these into scaled relationship diagrams, and then into 2D or 3D diagram forms including models. In Figure 27 below the main circulation routes through the building are explained using dotted lines, arrows, and colour.

Figure 27: “Circulation” 3D diagram by Synthesis Design and Architecture (SDA), (2012).
The multiple uses analogue and digital architectural drawings and diagrams serve, highlighted in these discussions, underpin our pedagogical approaches to the visual mode at the research site, and I relied on the ideas presented here throughout my analytical work regarding the participants’ visual representations for the observed review. Before moving on to discuss multimodality, I comment briefly on working in the digital environment, a key tool for producing architectural meaning in the research site.

**The Digital Environment**

Working in the computer environment is driven by distinct resources and “digital design culture” (Oxman, 2006, p.230), supported by complex new technologies for architecture form generation that must be learnt and navigated, using a range of thinking, making tools, and interfaces (Chastain et al., 2002, p.238; Oxman, 2006, pp.230-234). Today, the computer or other digital hardware and their associated software amalgamate nonverbal, verbal, and visual resources into a meta-design tool for creating and mediating design (Altürk, 2008; Coleman, 2010; Gänshirt, 2007, p.101; Oxman, 1999, 2006, 2008). Oxman (2006, pp.243-244) outlines two key distinctions between working in the analogue and digital environment that impact on the participants’ meaning-making. When a designer works in the analogue environment on paper, or indeed with modelling materials, he or she interacts physically and directly with the shapes made (Oxman, 2006, p.243), whereas in the digital environment the designer is involved with implementing a computer-based interface (Oxman, 2006, p.243). Moreover, a different kind of input and level of enactment is necessary for these circumstances (Chastain et al., 2002, p.238; Oxman, 2006, p.243). Oxman (2006, p.243) delineates these differences as “external” (p.243) versus “internal” (p.243) interactions, where the former concerns more traditional analogue processes and the latter entails operating via the intermediary of “digital environments, computational processes, or mechanisms” (Oxman, 2006, pp.243-244). CAD, for instance, a Computer-Aided Design programme, now encompasses relationships between the digital model and the physical entity in a two-way relationship via integration with the production process. (Chastain et al., 2002, p.238; Oxman, 2006, pp.246-247). Learning to make architectural meaning in the digital environment is complex, challenging and time-consuming and my findings suggest students experiencing
specific learning differences like dyslexia (Cooper, 2006) can find navigating the digital terrain particularly daunting.

What becomes apparent from the discussion in juncture three is the fact that using nonverbal, verbal, and visual resources to produce meaning semiotically in an architectural setting is a complex, dynamic multimodal activity. That is, using multimodal resources requires the designer to think and act on many levels simultaneously using all three forms of communication in both the analogue and digital environment and I develop this discussion in juncture four, ‘Multimodality’ (Aicher, 2015; Dernier, 2014; Gänshirt, 2007).

**Multimodality**

Many scholars concur research about multimodality involves responding to the transformations occurring in the communicational and technological landscape resulting from globalisation, technological advances and changing employment practices (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009; Jewitt, 2009; Jewitt et al., 2016; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005). Multimodality proponents working in different research fields claim communication embodies complex processes that produce meaning through all available communicative modes (Allan, 2013; Eris et al., 2014; Jewitt, 2009; Jewitt et al., 2001; Kress, 2010; Kress et al., 2001; Norris, 2004). Moreover, researchers agree multimodality research describes peoples’ multimodal meaning-making interaction (Adami, 2016; Halverson et al., 2012; Kress, 2010; Kress et al. 2001; Wardak, 2016). Scholars working across the architectural and social semiotic multimodality domains show exploring meaning-making as a multimodal endeavour allows researchers to investigate the complexities of contemporary communication while addressing much-debated questions about societal change in many areas including education (Allan, 2013; Archer, 2006; Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Flewitt, 2006; Iedema, 2003; Jewitt, 2009; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001; Kress, 2010, 2011; Stein & Newfield, 2006; Taylor, 2014; 2016). Examining the ways individuals construct their identities through multimodal means is another established research focus in both research streams (Norris, 2004). Thus, the understanding people draw on different communicative modes in complex ways in diverse meaning-making interaction
settings, establishes the fourth juncture between both research strands (Jewitt et al., 2016).

**Multimodality**

Multimodality is said to be both a standpoint and a method for constructing and interpreting the ways individuals go about meaning-making using the sign systems accessible to them in any social situation as forms of representation (Adami, 2016; Halverson et al., 2012, p.4; Kress, 2010; Norris, 2004, p.24). From a multimodality perspective, people involved in representation and communicative interactions employ an assortment of modes continuously (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Flewitt, 2006; Kress, 2009a, 2010; Jewitt, 2009; Taylor, 2014). Significantly for this study, from a multimodal perspective, all communicative modes can contribute equally to meaning-making in any context (Jewitt et al., 2016, pp.18-19).

Acknowledging it is necessary to examine how different kinds of meaning-making come together into “integrated multimodal wholes” (p.18) is a fundamental point of departure for multimodality research (Jewitt et al., 2016). The belief the modes in a multimodal ensemble fulfil distinct communication purposes is yet another foundational premise (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009, p.14; Jewitt et al., 2016, pp.18-19; Kress, 2010; Norris, 2004). Then, the modes meaning-makers choose and the way they group them is known to affect the meaning-maker, the meaning, and how people interpret those meanings (Jewitt, 2009, p.15; Kress, 2000, p.339). Another core premise relates to the notion the interaction between the modes in an individual’s orchestrated ensemble is part of the production of, and significant for, their meaning-making (Jewitt, 2009, p.15; Kress, 2010; Bezemer & Kress, 2016). The fifth principle concerns the idea that meanings are affected by the established conventions operating in any societal context; while the conventions themselves are being shaped continuously by what motivates and grabs the sign-makers’ interest in each setting (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Bourne & Jewitt, 2003; Jewitt, 2009, p.15; Kress, 2010; Norris, 2004). In other words, sign-makers choose, modify, and remake meaning via a process of deconstructing, interpreting, and reinterpreting signs (Jewitt, 2009, p.16). Lastly, scholars stress the fact that meaning-
making actions can have multiple meanings depending on the circumstances in which they occur (Kress, 2009a, pp.57-59; Norris, 2004, pp.18-19).

There are, however, underlying challenges associated with analysing multimodal meaning-making. Although each communication resource encompasses its own set of potentialities and limitations within an overarching organisational system, today, these roles and possible significations are conflated, mainly because of digitisation (Iedema, 2003, p.38; Kress, 2010). Using the mediating activity, the orchestrated ensemble, as the “unit of analysis” (p.159), as I did in this research study, is one established way of overcoming the issues the complex, multifaceted nature of the meaning-making endeavour present (Norris, 2004, pp.159-160). These sentiments reflect Murphy’s (2003) earlier conjecture about analysing gestural action as representation in context.

Several other observational suppositions emerge in multimodality-oriented research that also have import for my research work because they relate to key concerns underpinning my research questions regarding the rhetorical power of the semiotic roles of communicative modes and the performative, interactive nature of orchestration in the architectural context. Firstly, there are practicalities designers must discuss, in text or talk, that drawings or gestures cannot communicate so readily or efficiently. Secondly, drawings exist as objects, so possibly cannot be discursive in quite the same way talk or writing can, which is why architects, or design students in this instance, point to, gesture at, do the writing or talking about, design drawings and artefacts. Thirdly, reference can be made in one medium to a text in another medium, for instance, a student may gesture at, and speak about, space organisation as it is laid out in planimetric and sectional drawings as Figure 13 (p.59) illustrated. Fourthly, there can be simultaneous shared reference across media, a student or tutor may discuss and write, or draw and explain something verbally as part of a problem-solving exercise (Medway, 1996b, pp.36-37).

**Orchestrated Ensembles.**

Orchestrations are, in fact, carefully constructed modal combinations in which the meaning-making constituents incorporate material from available communicative resources to impart specific meaning concerning each mode’s rhetorical affordances.
(Kress, 2010, p.274). Additionally, researchers indicate orchestrated ensembles, as semiotic meaning-making tools (Kress, 2010), are not neutral in use, constituted and exercised as they are in distinct cultural, historical, and power situations (Stein & Newfield, 2006, p.2). In this project, both matters concerned how the participants made meaning while negotiating the shaping influences and conventions operating in the CoP at the research site. Typically, the meaning-maker constructs a multimodal ensemble with the audience, the orchestration-site and its main features in mind (Kress, 2010, p.274). Significantly, the audience’s disposition, what Kress (2010, p.74) refers to as “interest”, is said to affect their focus towards, and the way they engage with or frame the orchestrated ensemble, and, their interpretation of the message (Kress, 2010, pp.274-275). Thus, meaning-making is a twofold process about a person instigating and signifying meaning for someone, a stimulus that Kress (2010, p.74) labels a “prompt”, and the other person, the message receiver, inwardly directed making a new sign while engaging with the instigator’s prompt (Kress, 2010, pp.274-276). Hence, orchestration delineates choosing, creating, and constructing the semiotic materials considered fundamental to meet the sign-makers’ interests, which are concretised as the semiotic object, or text, as an ensemble, via its design and constructing practices (Kress, 2010, pp.275-276).

In architectural settings, research evidence shows designers collaborating in face-to-face interactions, use communicative modes multimodally. Using gestural actions, often deictic, via orchestrating the different printed and digital visual resources, and models, in play in this setting which are usually displayed on horizontal surfaces, the walls in the interaction space, and on digital screens (Wardak, 2016, pp.1-4). Other communicative resources come into play also. For example, the speaker’s gaze, and their body movements and position can draw attention to significant visual resources in the interaction as they talk (Wardak, 2016, p.5). Also, moving objects via touch and manual manipulation can bring unlooked-at material into the conversation (Wardak, 2016, p.5). While participants can use speech, or another mode, collaboratively via completing each others’ utterances, or gestures, thereby confirming the other interlocutor’s actions or dialogue about some facet of the design discussion (Wardak, 2016, p.5). Further, using gestural action, like facial expression, with modulated speech is known to modify the meaning of words, positively or negatively (Wardak, 2016, p.6). This practice description
of architectural multimodal interaction encompasses characteristics similar to those of Swales et al.’s (2001) findings concerning the roles talking, artefacts and nonverbal resources serve in Masters of architecture students’ multimodal interactions to bring the imagined building to life for their audiences (Swales et al., 2001, p. 446). Other research evidence shows gestural activity, again mainly deictic gestures but also other nonverbal means, also play a significant role in effective novice student presentations as an orchestrating resource, mediating dialogue about and interaction with, the visual and physical artefacts on display (Morton, 2006, p.32). In this research, my analysis suggested deictic gestures and movement, including pointing at, underlining, tracing a finger along parts of drawings, moving towards or away, were deployed by the participants to establish a relationship between themselves and their audience. Also, the above gestural actions were used by the participants to focus the audience’s attention on salient features of the drawings on display, or introduce a key image, thereby integrating the visual media into the presentation efficiently via nonverbal and verbal means (Morton, 2006, p.143).

Arguably, the interactions outlined above produce multi-layered representations (Hutchins & Palen, 1997). Gestures overlaid on different parts of the physical artefacts, including planimetric, and sectional drawings; verbal accounts superimposed on the gestures; gaze superimposed on both gesture and talk to connect with the audience or artefact, are complex meaning structures (Hutchins & Palen, 1997, p.35). In these kinds of interaction, the visual media are there to provide a coherent depiction of the architecture; and in the participants’ case, physical evidence of learning.

Nevertheless, while the different types of media representing the architecture do different kinds of work in the interaction, they are not representations of the state of the architecture. For instance, mechanically controlled air changes designed into a building’s operating systems cannot appear directly in architectural drawings; whereas gestures performed beside and on top of drawings, could help the audience understand via mimicking how they work (Hutchins & Palen, 1997, p.37). Also, the planimetric layout is not dimensionally identical to the architecture’s physical layout because it is a scaled representation of those spaces. The dots, lines, colours and shading making up the plan produces a representation that permits the viewer to make abstract interpretations. For
instance, about where people enter and leave spaces, by looking and reading, and/or following the presenter’s tracing finger onto the openings drawn in the wall planes on the plan. Again, gestures overlaid on the planimetric drawing or diagram could denote meaningful actions in the building, moving here, to go out that door-opening there, into a courtyard here (Hutchins & Palen, 1997, pp.37-38). Then, the talking layer of the orchestration serves purposes other modes cannot accomplish. For instance, using tense markers, like the present tense or active verbs, and other linguistic devices to intimate temporal relationships among actions. The gesture is immediate; whereas speaking positions the actions within a temporal frame as a re-enactment of, or a proposed action. Talk also denotes the speaker’s relationship to the actions and belief states emerging out of the action. *I designed it this way because... ...this means as users we would experience this ...and in this way address that...* Hence, the presenter speaks firstly, of his or her state of knowledge; secondly, a condition shared by those involved in the interaction; and thirdly, a relation between him or herself to the shared condition (Hutchins & Palen, 1997, pp.38-39). Giving any layer pre-eminence is thought to undermine the orchestration, it is a complex interconnected performance. However, one or two resources can be in the foreground as the interaction unfolds, but importantly all are equally necessary (Hutchins & Palen, 1997, p.39).

What emerges from these research deliberations is how complicated, and multifaceted using nonverbal, verbal, and visual resources is, while operating multimodally in any setting; and how dynamic, socially situated, and interwoven the interplay between nonverbal, verbal, and visual communicative resources is, in the orchestrated multimodal interaction. Also, the discussion substantiates how helpful focusing on the interaction, as I did in this investigation, is for uncovering, documenting, and interpreting the semiotic roles and relationships of the different communicative resources in meaning-making in distinct situations (Norris, 2004).

For the project, all the above premises were central to documenting and explicating the participants meaning-making via their orchestrated ensembles during the observed review. Nonetheless, reviews were pedagogical instruments at the research site, and so meaning-making in this context involved the participants demonstrating they were drawing on the knowledge and skills required to perform the precedent task; and,
showing they knew how to go about designing, constructing, and orchestrating architectural messages in ways that conformed to academic expectations. From a teaching perspective, there remains the question of how design educators can better recognise, interpret, and facilitate students’ ongoing journey developing their capacities to think and do designing (Bass & Eynon, 2009).

**Learning and Communication**

In the previous juncture, I focused on how architectural knowledge production involves transforming the social world multimodally (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009, p.166; Vowles, 2000, p.260). There are two implicit assumptions in those discussions that had import for this study, however, that those taking part can, firstly, create, assemble, understand, and implement, the nonverbal, talk, text and visual resources in play in their orchestrations; and secondly, they know how architectural buildings and their representations come to be and work (Cross, 1999a, 1999b; Gänshirt, 2007; Hutchins & Palen, 1997, pp.37-38; Kress, 2010; Wittgenstein, 1958). Still, the participants had to develop their design plus technical knowledge, skill, and vocabulary to reason rationally and intuitively in a design sense (Kahneman, 2011; Lawson, 2006). Also, they had to learn to physically make architectural marks using gestures with the pen, pencil, modelling scalpel, or computer mouse, to outwardly express their thinking via the model, diagram or drawing (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Dorst, 2011; Kahneman, 2011; Lawson, 2004, 2006; Schön & Wiggins, 1992; Wittgenstein, 1958; Yee, 2012). Moreover, the participants had to study architectural discourse and discover ‘how to’ gesture, move, speak and write architecturally to express themselves discursively (Dias et al., 2013; Morton & O’Brien, 2005; Murphy, 2003, 2005; Spector & Damron, 2013).

The architectural curriculum at the research site is complex and multi-layered and integrating design, technological, digital, professional and research dimensions into educational, and learning practices continue to be considered a problematic and contested process (Williams et al., 2007, p.10). Research evidence shows becoming proficient using any one of the communicative, or cognitive tools referred to above, requires capacity, education, and sustained practice (Lawson, 2004; Lawson & Dorst, 2005; Feldhusen, 2005), hence the accepted notion of the central role of the design

Learning is delineated in general terms, and in both the architectural and social semiotic multimodality research literature as a communicative, productive, transformative, and motivated endeavour (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Biggs, 2012; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Kress et al., 2001; Marton, 1981; Mezirow, 1991, 2000; Shuell, 1986, p.415; Stein & Newfield, 2006; Vowles, 2000; Vowles et al., 2012; Webster, 2005). Further, communication and learning are considered inextricably linked activities by many scholars researching in the general, architectural and social semiotic multimodality domains, thereby establishing the fifth point of overlap between the architectural and social semiotic multimodality research strands.

For instance, examining the state of teaching and learning as obverse social activities is an established educational research focus (Biggs, 2012; Challis, 2002; Williams et al., 2007). Further, studies that investigate design studio as a primary site of architectural knowledge production and enculturation into professional practice, is also a general investigation theme (Kurt, 2009; Vowles, 2000; Vowles et al., 2012; Webster, 2005). The role sketching plays in the designing conversation is a common architectural research subject and is explored from many qualitative angles, including protocol analysis (Do, 2002; Schön & Wiggins, 1992; Suwa & Tversky, 1997). Additionally, Dong (2007) examines how language can produce design actively, and Kazmierczak (2003) explicates the links between design as communication and forms of meaning. Exploring meaning-making from a semiotic angle also surfaces in design research contexts, specifically regarding uncovering and delineating the roles and relationships of one or sometimes several communicative resources in the design process (Eris et al., 2014; Gänshirt, 2007; Luck & McDonnell, 2006; Medway, 1994, 1996b; Medway & Clark, 2003; Morton, 2006; Murphy, 2003, 2005). In the social semiotic multimodality literature I draw on here, researchers consider meaning-making in many diverse learning situations, and, study semiosis across different disciplinary subject areas and in various kinds of texts (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Cope & Kalantzis, 2009, p.166; Hutchins & Palen, 1997, p.2; Jewitt et al.,
Learning and Sign-making as Communicative Endeavour

From a constructivist standpoint, learning is thought to involve developing one’s prior knowledge and skills productively while carrying out complex cognitive and practical activities in specific social contexts (Biggs, 2012, p.42; Dong, 2007, p.6; Kurt, 2009, p.401). Examining how the learner thinks about the material they engage with and employ in their meaning-making efforts, is also considered a significant aspect of the teaching and learning process (Marton, 1981, p.182; Shuell, 1986). I found Marton’s (1981, p.180) contribution helpful and supportive of the social semiotic multimodality standpoint I adopt in this study as he suggests how people learn, the process of learning, and what they learn, the mental activity associated with learning, are two indivisibly linked features of learning that establish what Marton (1981) calls a “logical unity” (p.180). In turn, a concept concerning synthesising the active and mental processes associated with learning that relates to our conceptions of the world (Marton, 1981). Moreover, a related view with import here, surfaces in the sociological literature that because people are what Smith & Deemer (2000) refer to as “knowing subjects” (p.877), which for me relates to human consciousness (van Schaik, 2014); our conceptions of knowledge and claims to knowledge are intimately bound up with our understandings of what counts as knowledge. The views I present here encompass a constructivist interpretation of ‘being’ in the world in which meaning-making or learning involves “constructing and making” (Smith & Deemer, 2000, pp.877-878).

Social semiotic multimodality scholars (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress et al., 2002; van Leeuwen, 2005) affirm producing meaning requires intentional, or what Kress et al. (2001) refer to as “motivated” (p.152) action. Moreover, the sign-makers’ “interests” (p.152), the matters that motivate and determine a person’s meaning-making, are articulated via the suitable and credible communicative resources they select as “signifiers” (p.152) to give form to meaning in a particular context as new signs (Kress, et al., 2001). Kress et al., (2001) portray learning as a “dynamic process of sign-making” (p.152).
Communication is understood to be a fundamental aspect of designing, in a professional and educational sense, because architectural designing is considered a social process, and representation is thought to be a core constituent of constructing architectural meaning (Vowles, 2000, pp.260-261; Suwa & Tversky, 1997, p.386). Similarly, other architectural scholars focus on the tripartite relationship between, the designer’s communicative intent; how that intent is realised via representation and then manifested in the designed object; and the interpretation, or “reconstructed meaning” (p.45) inferred by the recipient (Crilly et al., 2008; Eco, 1980, p.27; Kazmierczak, 2003, p.45). Kazmierczak (2003) proposes design graphics, as data, communicate meaning because as designers design, they configure distinct graphical symbols to represent conceptual relationships that are then interpreted or reconstructed by themselves in the design process and later by those who interact with them as representations of the designed object (Kazmierczak, 2003, pp.46-48; Suwa & Tversky, 1997, p.386; Vowles, 2000, pp.260-261; Wittgenstein, 1958).

The Social Semiotic Multimodality Frame for the Study

I used a social semiotic multimodality lens in this research project to interrogate how the participants employed the multimodal resources on hand to produce meaning, a core objective of social semiotics and multimodality (Adami, 2016; Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.6; Halverson et al., 2012, p.4; Kress, 2010; Norris, 2004, p.24). The sign is considered the departure point for meaning-making in social semiotics, where the signified concerns the connoted, and the signifier, the substantive material through which meaning is expressed (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.3-4; Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.20). Within this frame, meaning-making as learning, or sign-making, entails using communicative tools, the socially shaped and re-shaped culturally available material resources of a community (Faulconbridge, 2010, p.2842; Takayama, 2009, p.2; Wenger, 1998a). As I have intimated previously, such resources include, gesturing, moving, talking, writing, and the visual means required to produce meaning in materially evident, or concretised ways (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.17-18; Kim, 2013, p.87).

The social-semiotic frame embodies three characteristics that have implications for my analysis of the participants’ learning efforts during the precedent task and review. First,
the meaning-maker decides what communicative resource, the “signifier” (p.20), is suitable to convey meaning in response to a specific “prompt” (p.20) (Bezemer & Kress, 2016). Thus, the connection between meaning and its concrete expression is “motivated” (p.20) not coincidental (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.4; Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.20; Kress, 1993, p.173). Consequently, the relationship between signs and their manifestation is moulded by, and materialises, the meaning-makers’ concerns or “interests” (p.20) (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.20; Kress, 2009b, p.29; Kress & Selander, 2012, p.267). Secondly, the sign, made by the signifier, is always affected by the surroundings in which it is formulated and its status within that setting (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.4; Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.20; Kress, 1993, p.174; Kress, 2009b, p.33). Thirdly, each resource has a set of unique meaning capacities and so generates distinct social consequences (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.20-21; Kress & Selander, 2012, p.267). Following on from this, signs, and their outcomes in one mode, differ from signs and impacts in another mode because each communicative resource has different affordances (Gibson, 2015) for meaning-making (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.20-21; Kress, 2009a, p.56). In practice, meaning-makers, like the participants, are known to draw on existing signifiers in specific settings in all modes (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.20-21; Kress, 2009a, pp.56-57).

Semiotic resources for meaning-making
Semiotic resources include the “material” (p.27) and “nonmaterial” (p.27), or abstract measures embodied in each communicative mode, that mould the cultural and social domain (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.27-28; Lemke, 1998; van Leeuwen, 2005, pp.3-4). Within the social semiotic frame, all modes, together with their nonmaterial semiotic configurations, are considered one amalgamated realm incorporating a community’s cultural semiotic meaning-making resources (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.27-28; Jewitt, 2009, p.23). For example, the abstract tool “intensity” (p.18) has various semiotic meanings concerning, “emphasis, focus, foregrounding and highlighting” (p.18) (Bezemer & Kress, 2016). These meanings can be realised, in many ways. For instance, via hue saturation for colour; degree of illumination in lighting; how loud the sound is in speech; via capitalising letters and bolding in writing; via speed and movement in gesture; and in a more general way via focus or “positioning” (p.18) (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.18).
Again, gaze can be modified by intensity via direction and extent; an element in a drawing can be made to stand-out using layout, colour, size or different line weights, as Figure 28 shows; and texts made distinctive via genre (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.27-28; Ching, 2015, p.56).

![Figure 28: Emphasis, using line weight to denote cut lines in the plan. (Source: Ching, 2015, p.56)](image)

Then social concepts like, “integration, solidarity and community” (p.28) have their semiotic equivalent in a classification like “coherence” (p.28) (Bezemer & Kress, 2016). Coherence is realised via sound in talk; and in writing or drawing via making marks on surfaces (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.28). Two other semiotic principles common to all modes also have import here as they relate to the participants’ meaning-making. Bezemer & Kress (2016) label these “framing” (p.28) and “salience” (p.28). First, framing delineates what is incorporated in a unit and what is not at different levels (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.28; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, pp.176-177; van Leeuwen, 2005, p.7). For example, in architectural drawings, graphical symbols like rectangles, squares or circles are used to group various representational aspects, see Figure 29 below (Ching, 2015, p.213). While paragraphs belong with subheadings grouped within headings, linked to the title in writing. Whereas in speech, intonation or silence could be used to frame and give coherence to what is being said (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.28-29).

![Figure 29: Framing in architectural drawings. (Source: Ching, 2015, p.213)](image)
Second, salience concerns focus and is realised semiotically via foregrounding various elements while underplaying other components. For instance, in an architectural representation or artefact salience is realised through relative positioning, sizing, graphical techniques for highlighting like hatching, use of different materials, or colour as Figure 30 indicates (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.28; Ching, 2015, p.149; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.177).

![Figure 30: Salience. Highlighting the circulation path in a concept model using colour. (Source: student work archive)](image)

Significantly, from a social semiotic multimodality standpoint, the physical output from the meaning-making process, like the visual artefacts the participants orchestrated in the observed review, is understood to constitute the signs of learning and so, transformation (Kress, 2009b, p.22; Kress, 2010, pp.295-296). In situations where the meaning-maker generates new semiotic resources, they are said to enhance or transform their representational abilities. Whereas, if the meaning-maker as sign-maker creates abstract resources in the meaning-making process, then the view is they extend or transform their intellectual capacities, as demonstrated in designing artefacts like architecture using unique conceptual frames like the ‘wrapping the restaurant in canvas’ concept denoted in Figure 31 (Kress, 2009b, p.33).

![Figure 31: “Canvas” project (Nendo, 2003).](image)
Mimesis

People’s capacity for social action and interaction is known to be assimilated mimetically via culturally situated learning processes (Wulf, 2008, p.60). As I indicated in juncture two, mimesis is an imitative learning endeavour encompassing a creative component (Purcaru, 2016, p.17). Gebauer & Wulf (1995, p.5) outline four significant mimetic aspects that underscore the views about learning discussed above. Firstly, mimesis pertains to people identifying with each other equivalently. Secondly, mimesis encompasses a mental and active element in an extricable relationship. Thirdly, originally mimesis connoted physical action as it emerged out of oral cultures, thus, the concept is held to have a rhetorical character. Fourthly, regarding action, mimesis incorporates a performative feature, as an actualisation, a representation of what is mimetically indicated. Architecturally, one might say the designed object or built artefact manifests the architect’s response to cultural ideology as a mimetic enactment, regarding signs, practices and imaginings (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.50; Gebauer & Wulf, 1995, p.5). Thus, mimesis entails transformation (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.50). Sign-making or meaning-making is considered mimetic as it produces new signs as an act and a sign of creativity in response to established practices, resulting in an ongoing process of transformative engagement, as “interpretation, inner transformation and integration” (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.50). The ideas presented here about mimetic action are critical considerations because they authenticate the learning process associated with precedent study whereby the students learn about designing mimetically via critically deconstructing, interpreting and reconstructing several practitioners’ thinking, modelled design process, and designed output (Akalin & Sezal, 2009; Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Hopkins, 2012; Lawson, 2004, 2006; Ochsner, 2000; Oxman, 1986; Unwin, 2003, 2007).

Signs of engagement and learning in institutional settings

The relations in and across modes is a central issue within social semiotic multimodality research, as it was in this project, because it pertains to learning multimodally (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.7). Within the social semiotic multimodality frame, re-making signs using distinct resources is an acknowledged means for learning and involves “transduction” (p.57), remaking signs across modes (inter-modal, p.63) and “translation” (p.63) remaking signs within a mode (intra-modal, p.63) often referred to as
transformation (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.175; Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.57-63). Both kinds of change are thought to produce new meanings. While, any sign or meaning-making in any mode is considered a sign of knowing and reveals and makes evident the sign-makers’ interest (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.58-59; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.174). Further, because each mode’s affordances are distinct, sign-makers are understood to, firstly, demonstrate learning uniquely; secondly, learn differently; and thirdly, reveal an interest based on differing knowledge or knowledge levels or both (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.58-60). The thinking is, the more extensive the meaning-maker’s resource repertoire, the bigger the evidence base and so opportunities for meaning-making (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.59-60).

Modes offer both opportunities and restrictions regarding making meaning “outwardly” (p.61) as different forms of artefacts, and so probably mould opportunities for learning via interpretation by others (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.61; Medway, 1996b, pp.34-35). Secondly, the orchestrated modal ensemble offers a distinct environ for interacting with part of the social domain that can be read as prompts for engagement (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.61). For instance, what the students learn from reading about a designer’s ideology is different from seeing that ideology put into practice architecturally via analysing architectural drawings or visiting the building in question physically or virtually via film. Thus, distinct kinds of multimodal ensembles offer opportunities for remodelling or transposing meaning inwardly via analysis as learning (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.61-62). Thirdly, resources, singularly or in an ensemble give the students opportunities to show this learning, make it visible, or materialise it outwardly (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.61-62). Thus, multimodal learning exploits the distinct affordances of each resource so that the learning offers different, comprehensive, insights into the world being explored (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.8; Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.62).

In this study, I used the theories discussed here to frame and inform my analytical and interpretive deliberations regarding the participants’ meaning-making as learning. The process of mimesis, transduction and translation discussed above constitutes and describes the crux of what the participants were required to do during the precedent study process. Thus, these considerations have significant consequences for identifying, analysing and interpreting the participants’ signs of learning.
Concluding Comments

In this chapter, I addressed substantive theories in both research domains across five overlapping areas of interest that informed and guided this research process and subsequent analytical deliberations (Hatch, 2002). I did so to situate the investigation within a recognisable theoretical framework (Hatch, 2002, p.39; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007, p.23; Wolcott, 2005, p.179). I made it clear, constructing intersections between the two research strands that link to answering my research queries is a fundamental component of locating my work in the architectural and social semiotic multimodality landscape (Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007, pp.19-26). I signalled the five junctures draw attention to space between the two research strands that offer me an opportunity to contribute to both fields by building on the existing research in these areas (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Eyal, 2010; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010).

In **juncture one**, the environment, I considered sociological, social semiotic multimodality and architectural ideas about the impact of the environment on knowledge production and the impact of policy considerations on HE. Also, I explicated theories addressing the split between the state and marketplace, and the contradictory inclusive versus consumerist values, and outlined how these tensions manifest themselves in the research site (Kress, 2010, pp.51-52). I made it clear the participants and I needed to navigate these two life-worlds daily (Schütz & Luckmann, 1973, pp.3-4). Significantly, I pointed out firstly, while social semiotic multimodality scholars advocate access and participation in a CoP’s shared meaning-making repertoire is an essential prerequisite for that community to develop, my findings show this is a problematic issue as several participants faced serious challenges in this regard that adversely affected their meaning-making (Kress, 2010, p.47; Holgate, 2015; Manley & de Graft-Johnson, 2013). Secondly, investigating the specific complexities international or dyslexic students grapple with during their meaning-making efforts in an architectural education context was considered to be an underdeveloped research focus and this opened up an opportunity for this project to build on the limited extant research (Holgate, 2015; Manley & de Graft-Johnson, 2013; Swales et al., 2001).
Also, I explored the changes in the construction industry that relate to transformations in the communication and technological landscape, and the fact responding to these challenges entails architectural practitioners continuously updating their knowledge and skills base (Dernie, 2014; Lawson & Pilling, 1996, pp.82-89; Nicol & Pilling, 2000, p.1; Worthington, 2000). I explained these issues manifest themselves in the research site via:

- Addressing our institutions’ core mission to produce graduates who are efficient knowledge producers and consumers in diverse societal settings;
- Configuring our architectural programme’s curriculum and delivery to embody the pertinent need for continued professional development;
- Managing the challenges that the complex analogue and digital environment presents.

In the subsequent discussion about the creative, business and public service discourse evident in architectural practice I explained these debates distinctive characteristics raises questions about the way our programme teams’ response to each discourse shapes our institutional roles, the curriculum, our students’ meaning-making and graduates’ professional prospects.

In the segment about architectural education, I considered how the dual purpose of architectural education is to firstly, produce graduates with a degree in architecture. Secondly, it aims to offer graduates a set of inherited outlooks that shape their reactions and behaviours as both producers and consumers of culture within society (Bourdieu, 1990, p.54; Stevens, 1995, p.112). I made the point, in this study, the enculturation process concerns the participants’ access to, and participation in, the CoP conventions operating in the research site. For this project, these ideas were core considerations, specifically regarding the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making efforts to address programme learning outcomes during the precedent task and associated review efficiently. I pointed out investigating how architectural students produce knowledge and become socialised into the architectural culture their CoP represents in specific settings remains an under-developed research focus (Gray, 2013, p.196). I explained I
responded to this situation in the project to expand the existing research about rhetorical architectural meaning-making in a distinct setting (Allan, 2013; Gray, 2013, p.196).

In the second juncture about the rhetorical component, I signalled the core issues in social semiotics concerns the what and how of meaning-making in diverse settings (van Leeuwen, 2005, p.93). I highlighted the idea architectural meaning-making is symbolic is a shared principle underpinning knowledge production principles in both the architectural and social semiotic fields. I explained I chose the literature in this juncture because I found the principles embodied in these works essential for framing and addressing my investigations into:

- Architectural meaning-making as a social semiotic multimodal endeavour;
- The way architectural representation as semiosis is taught and embodied in the participants’ meaning-making;
- The problematic nature of representation in the analogue and digital environment.

I signalled the social semiotic lens like the design focus, provides the stimulus for formulating questions, like my research queries about the participants’ meaning-making; and, is known to require examining, the environment; the roles and relationships between the different communicative resources; and the people involved as meaning makers or social agents (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; van Leeuwen, 2005, p.1). In this study exploring architectural meaning-making through a social semiotic multimodality lens was based on the idea every mode in use was part of an interconnected system of material, non-material, cultural and semiotic resources that moulded meaning-making in each social situation (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.17-18; van Leeuwen, 2005, p.1).

In the segment about intersecting architectural and social semiotic meaning-making I explained the relationship between the designer’s rhetorical intentions, how those intentions are realised, and the meanings the users ascribe to the architecture is another shared research focus underpinning my inquiries (Crilly et al., 2008; Hershberger, 1969; Kazmierczak 2003; Vesely, 2004; Whyte, 2006, pp.155-156). Further, I pointed out
designing is theorised in several ways in these deliberations that relate to my conception of meaning-making in this project. Then, I signalled I draw on other theories informing the rhetorical debate about the fragmented character of architectural representation in the face of the complex societal conditions, and technological advancements (Spector, 2011; Vesely, 2004). I indicated understanding architectural designing and meaning against this backdrop requires knowledge about the purposes representation serves in the making and experiencing of architecture (Altürk, 2008; Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2010; Vesely, 2004, p.14). Crucially, regarding this research, I pointed out even though architectural representation is a way to grasp the complexities of reality, what is produced is considered subject to, and constrained by, the designer’s, or student participants’ in this case, intellectual, affective, and psychomotor skills (Dernie, 2014; Gänshirt, 2007; Vesely, 2004, p.15).

In the last segment, I explored theories delineating architectural representation as having an inextricable connection to theory via, our historical actuality (Kress, 2010; Purcaru, 2016, p.17; Vesely, 2004, p.14); poiēsis, and “creative imitation” (p.14), or mimēsis (Vesely, 2004, p.14). Also, I looked at shifts in perspective concerning these concepts that are thought to be related to ongoing technological transformations; and the resultant productive ethos evident in much of contemporary society’s meaning-making activities, including HE. I highlighted the fact that these changes have affected architectural representational and meaning-making practices profoundly in both an educational and practice context (Vesely, 2004, pp.19-21).

In the third juncture concerning resources I indicated the research directly related to architectural students’ rhetorical meaning-making regarding the use of nonverbal, verbal and visual modes, is limited, and typically concerns the designing activity and associated critique process rather than a specific task like precedent study, the focus of attention in this research (Allan, 2013; Morton & O’Brien, 2005; Morton, 2006, 2009; Swales et al., 2001). Also, I discussed the notion that nonverbal behaviour puts designers’ talking and drawing into action concerning the experiential aspect of architecture, and indicated these theories have significant implications for answering my research questions about the performative aspect of the participants orchestrated ensemble (Murphy, 2005). The role and operational features of writing and speaking in this evocative semiotic process
also surface in the research literature as a significant component of the active meaning-making process (Medway, 1996b; Swales et al., 2001). Exploring the way analytical diagrams help designers externalise and concretise their design thinking was an important consideration regarding my research questions about the roles and relationships of different modes in the participants’ meaning-making activities (Cross, 1999; Gänshirt, 2007). Uncovering and describing the ways designers are known to make meaning semiotically using a range of graphical symbols was an essential prerequisite for the analytical discussion in this study (Chaplin, 2014; Downing & Hubka, 1986; Kress, 2010; Do & Gross, 2001). Moreover, addressing the theories underpinning the distinctive nature of working in the digital environment provided valuable insight for understanding the participants meaning-making in that environment (Altürk, 2008; Coleman, 2010; Gänshirt, 2007, p.101; Oxman, 1999, 2006, 2008). In this study, I relied on the theories discussed in this juncture to explicate and interpret the participants’ meaning-making in the precedent task and observed review. Moreover, the theories and views delineated in this intersection appear to support the architectural accreditation criteria our programme responded to and our programme curriculum and stated module learning outcomes. Apart from revealing the functional purposes the different communication resources could and do serve in this research setting the literatures presented in this juncture point to the interconnected, equivalent and dynamic interaction between modes in the meaning-making activity (Cash & Maier, 2016; Hutchins & Palen, 1997; Jewitt et al., 2016, pp.18-19; Norris, 2011; Murphy, 2003, 2005; Visser, 2009; Wardak, 2016).

In juncture four I discussed the theories and concepts regarding multimodality that underpin and frame my conception of the participants dynamic meaning-making. I indicated multimodality is considered both a perspective and a way to construct and interpret how people construct meaning using the available sign systems in their circumstances as forms of representation (Adami, 2016; Halverson et al., 2012, p.4; Kress, 2010; Norris, 2004, p.24). Also, I highlighted researchers’ findings about the equivalent value of nonverbal, verbal and visual modes in meaning-making and how different modes can be foregrounded in specific instances as visual expression often is at the research site (Eris et al., 2014; Dias et al., 2013; Jewitt, 2009, p.14; Jewitt et al., 2016, pp.18-19; Norris, 2004., pp.16-17; Taylor, 2014; Unwin, 2007; Yee, 2012). I explicated key foundational
premises associated with multimodality, and several challenges concerning the conflated nature of the roles and possible significations in a contemporary context that researchers indicated are connected to digitisation (Iedema, 2003, p.38; Kress, 2010). I pointed out, using the orchestrated ensemble for the unit of analysis, as I did in this study, offers a way to deal with the complex analytical process associated with multimodality (Norris, 2004, pp.159-160).

In the segment about orchestrated ensembles, I discussed the multimodal meaning-making process as it relates to architecture and social semiotics. I pointed out I related these theories to how the participants make meaning while dealing with the shaping influences and conventions operating in the CoP at the research site. I referred to the role the different modes serve in architectural education Masters’ students’ multimodal interactions to show gestural activity also plays a significant role in undergraduate student presentations as an orchestrating resource (Swales et al., 2001; Morton, 2006, p.32). I highlighted the multi-layered aspect of representations in the architectural meaning-making event while explicating several restrictions in the process to show the orchestrated ensemble is a complex interconnected representation entity (Hutchins & Palen, 1997). Also, I highlighted how significant focusing on the interaction is in the analytical process to confirm my decision to do so in this study (Norris, 2004). For this study, the theories addressed in this juncture were central to documenting and explicating the participants meaning-making via their orchestrated ensembles during the observed review. Nevertheless, I stressed the review was primarily a pedagogical instrument at the research site.

In *juncture five* I addressed the theories directly related to learning and communication in the research site that frame the process as a constructivist, communicative, productive, transformative, and motivated endeavour. I related these theories to the view communication is considered a core aspect of designing in which representation is understood to be a core constituent of constructing and interpreting architectural meaning (Kazmierczak, 2003, pp.46-48; Suwa & Tversky, 1997, p.386; Vowles, 2000, pp.260-261; Wittgenstein, 1958).
In the segment concerning the social semiotic multimodality frame for the study, I signalled the theories presented informed and underpinned my analytical focus. I discussed three main characteristics of this framework that impacted on my analysis of the participants’ learning efforts concerning the ways, their interests, the prompts involved, and, the relationships between both in tandem with the environmental factors and CoP conventions, shaped their meaning-making (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.4; Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.20; Kress, 2009b, pp.20-33; Kress, 1993, p.173; Kress & Selander, 2012, p.267). I outlined theories concerning semiosis including the material and nonmaterial resources for meaning-making that underpin meaning-making in the research site. Also, I signalled the physical output from the meaning-making effort, including the visual artefacts the participants orchestrated in the observed review, is understood to constitute the signs of learning and so, transformation (Kress, 2009b, p.22; Kress, 2010, pp.295-296). In the next subsection concerning mimesis, I pointed out the theories presented about mimetic action were important for this project because they related to and explained the learning process associated with precedent study. In the final subsection regarding signs of engagement and transformation, I addressed the relationships in and across modes, a fundamental concern of addressing meaning-making within a social semiotic multimodality frame (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.7). I explicated the core concepts of transduction and translation as they relate to signs of engagement and learning as meaning-making and related this thinking to the work the participants did during the precedent task and associated review (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.175; Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.57-63).

**Locating the Study**

In this study, I drew on, incorporated and fused theories and concepts from both research strands across the empirical and theoretical literature discussed in the five junctures in this chapter, by building on the work of scholars concerned directly with meaning-making in specific architectural settings (Allan, 2013; Holgate, 2015; Manley & de Graft-Johnson, 2013; Morton, 2006; Morton & O’Brien, 2005; Swales et al., 2001). I intended to situate this study as an exemplar in the identified gap in the intersections between the research work about meaning-making from an architectural and social semiotic multimodality standpoint in both research strands. I did so to address the limited research done to date.
in an Irish HE architectural education context that explores the meaning-making efforts of undergraduate students during a specific task, precedent study, from a social semiotic multimodality standpoint. As I said in the introductory chapter the main place my work belongs, in a contributory sense, is in the gap intersecting architectural communication and social semiotic multimodality theory and practice. Thus, I am placing the new study in relation to those other similar studies as one distinct exemplar (Thomas, 2016, p.20).

I move on now to Chapter Three, ‘The Research Setting’, where I discuss the contextual factors underpinning and framing this research investigation.
3 The Research Setting

Figure 32: Design studio at the research site. (Source: Institution website)

Introduction
In this chapter, I discuss several central features of the architectural education experience at the research site. I begin the discussion with some further details about CoP, and then I consider the architectural education context for this research project. Also, I outline some key points about the design studio, the design process, and the architectural review as they relate to this research setting before moving on to discuss the nature of precedent study and its role in architectural pedagogy. I do so to frame the discussion in the following chapters regarding the methodological concerns associated with building the case and addressing the materials of the situation, which concerns my findings, interpretations and emerging conclusions.

Community of Practice Context
In Chapter One, I explained the participants’ learning took place within an architectural CoP (Wenger, 1998a; Wenger et al., 2002). Also, I indicated I relied on the idea that a CoP is a group of people regularly interacting to develop common interests and goals in ways that contribute to the formation of their identities (Lave & Wenger, 1991, pp.29-30; Wenger, 1998a, pp.103-105; Wenger et al., 2002, p. 4).

Further, I acknowledged that I was mindful the CoP paradigm had limitations and was the subject of many critiques (Kerno, 2008; Roberts, 2006). I considered three interconnected limitations of the CoP model in that chapter that I suggested exist to some degree in the CoP at the research site, and I acknowledged it was likely these constraints...
contributed to the distinct learning challenges that the participants highlighted, and I observed, during this study. Limitations arising from:

- Time constraints (Kerno, 2008, pp.73-74);
- The hierarchical power dynamics operating in this HE institution (Kerno, 2008, p.74);
- The fact that knowledge and experience of a peripheral nature, often possessed by the participants, might have been disregarded or invisible to my colleagues and I, thereby affecting the participants’ capacity for progression and innovation (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998a, p.144).

Nevertheless, despite these limitations, Wenger’s (1998a, 1998b, 2000, 2001) paradigm provided a useful analytical instrument for considering the CoP at the research site from an architectural and social semiotic multimodality angle (Benzie, Mavers, Somekh, & Cisneros-Cohenour, 2005, p.182; Morton, 2012). Within Wenger’s, (1998a, p.54) concept a CoP is a distinct community. A community that firstly focuses on and operates in a distinctive knowledge domain. Secondly, a CoP that develops expertise in this domain and a body of shared practice via interacting and addressing issues, developing solutions and new insights. Thirdly, a CoP that builds a collective body of knowledge via these means (Wenger, 2001, p.1). The emphasis in this model, like the constructivist, architectural and social semiotic multimodality views on meaning-making I discussed earlier, is on the active and social aspects of learning (Wenger, 1998a).

A CoP is characterised in the research literature as a transforming presence within society functioning both as a catalyst for learning, and a frame within which, peoples’ individual and collective iterative experiences build expertise (Faulconbridge, 2010, p.2842; Takayama, 2009, p.2; Wenger, 1998a). CoPs are known to operate as hubs of active engagement, social relationships, collective and shared knowledge, skills, and practices that open the door to concrete forms of transformation within society, or organisations in a global sense (Faulconbridge, 2010; Morton, 2012; Takayama, 2009, p.6; Wenger, 1998a, p.62).
Several significant factors associated with this model of CoP emerge that firstly, relate to answering my research questions about the performative aspect of the participants’ meaning-making endeavours, and secondly, cohere with the constructivist, architectural and social semiotic multimodality view of meaning-making informing this investigation. First, participating in CoP and constructing your identity within these communities, is a core characteristic of learning from the social angle. Second, the actual dynamics of interacting encompasses the knowledge produced. Thirdly, the environment is a core catalyst for the interacting and consequently shapes the knowledge and expertise produced in practice. Finally, CoP, and by inference, their members, come alive, or ‘become’, in the actual process of interaction (Wenger, 1998a, pp.11-12; Wenger et al., 2001, p.1). A process of constant engagement that Takayama (2009, p.2) like Wenger (1998a) argues fosters deep learning and expertise.

The Architectural Education Context

Those in power, using the idiom language of “new economy and knowledge society” (Cope and Kalantzis, 2009, p.168) advocate education, or learning, is crucial to social and economic development. Also, that human capital, a key barometer of being successful, in a competitive sense, is equivalent to, or even surpasses the value of permanent resources, what Cope and Kalantzis (2009) refer to as “fixed capital” (p.169), that is wealth or financial assets. Still, these researchers say we should hold no false impressions about the corporate culture, and its associated “co-option” (p.170) discourse, forms of social exclusion remain prevalent (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009). Arguably, the environment learners operate in impacts on their learning profoundly. This assessment relates to the constructivist view, although we learn individually, other people shape and influence our learning because we learn from them and with them in each of our social relationships and settings (Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Jarvis, Holford, & Griffith, 2003, p.42). What this means regarding this research study is, it is likely the participants’ personal circumstances, their physical and social background, and their educational experiences at the research site, impacted on their approach to learning, including what they studied and how they learned.
Background

The architectural design programme the participants and I were members of had been in existence for over eighteen years, and it was situated in an Irish HE institution, an IoT, a distinct segment of the larger Irish HE context. This institution has been in existence for over forty-five years. The IoT sector and the Irish HE landscapes matured and evolved to reflect the changes Irish society faced during this period. The curriculum for the architectural programme was written in the form of productive learning outcomes (Kennedy, Hyland, & Ryan, 2007), and carefully mapped to criteria embodied in Irish, British and European architectural education policies and directives like The National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 (Hunt, 2011), The Royal Institute of Architects of Ireland’s (RIAI, 2016) statement of policy on education, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and the International Union of Architects (UIA) 2005 charters. The key actors, those who exerted power in this setting, include many international and national government agents, like the European Union (EU), UNESCO, the UIA, the Irish Higher Education Authority (HEA), and professional bodies as epitomized by the RIAI, and the RIBA. Undoubtedly, these bodies exercise power as government agents using the different levers or controls referred to earlier, including funding, targets, and standards, to steer HE and architectural education (Steer et al., 2007, p.175).

Policy steering concerns the mechanisms by which national governments, who have stepped back from directly controlling the administration of public services like HE, drive and manage policy using a range of controls like those I mention above (Steer et al., 2007, p.175). Policy texts evolve and change in practice because many authors contribute to their construction, interpretation, and mediation in unique ways in various locales and contexts (Ball, 1993, p.12). Also, policies normally produce a set of conditions which delimit choices about how to go about their implementation, rather than prescribing action (Ball, 1993, p.12). While I was not focusing on the policy aspect of architectural meaning-making in this project, the above factors warranted attention because they were important underlying influences affecting firstly, how the established conventions for meaning-making in this CoP came about and continued to develop; and secondly, the ways the participants and I went about making meaning in the design studio research...
setting in response to these expectations and conventions (Ball, 1993; Berger & Luckmann, 1991).

The Design Studio

Many researchers agree design studio is a primary feature of architectural education (Akalin & Sezal, 2009, p.14; Koch et al., 2002; Ochsner, 2000, p.194; Oxman, 1999). Future architectural professionals are moulded in this setting through a process of directed creative problem-solving, commonly referred to as ‘the design process’, and, through interaction with tutors and peers via enculturation (Akalin & Sezal, 2009, p.14; Kress, 2010; Stein & Newfield, 2006; Ochsner, 2000. P.194; Mezirow, 1991). The design studio at the research site is a practicum in which the students learn to design through the mechanism of responding to open-ended or directed design problems during the design process. Further, in this setting, students must show they are aggregating, blending, evaluating, and transforming learning from the associated theoretical components underpinning designing during the designing activity (Dong, 2007; Ochsner, 2000, p.194). Producing ‘novel’ architectural solutions to problems posed in design studio is a fundamental pedagogical aspect, as it is in most architectural programmes (Akalin & Sezal, 2009, p.14; Ochsner, 2000, p.194).

I should point out though that the students’ education experiences include all aspects of their journey besides design studio. Explicit dimensions like internal and external lecture series and field trips, and, all the implicit factors, like sharing knowledge and experiences informally at mealtimes or on field trips are also a fundamental part of becoming an architect (Webster, 2008, p.66). Further, I am mindful that design studio practice and particularly its associated reviews have limitations, and are known to sometimes validate hierarchical social relations, suppress dialogue, and authorise the use of what Dutton (1991) calls “acceptable knowledge” (p.165), knowledge deemed relevant by those in authority, within a competitive context (Dutton, 1991; Webster, 2007). A situation that relates to my previous comments about how the hierarchical structures of an organisation could constrain a CoP members’ meaning-making activities (Kerno, 2008).
Moreover, research findings intimate, design pedagogy and studio practice need to evolve to generate a more positive and collaborative working environment for architectural students that relates to:

- The notion architecture has the potential to positively impact peoples’ lives; and so students need to encounter what Koch et al., (2002) identify as a “culture of optimism” (p.20) in design studio, but also via external or non-school based activities, for instance working collaboratively with a local community to improve its social circumstances;
- Instilling the confidence in students that through their studies they will become equipped to:
  - Address the radical transformations taking place in society worldwide effectively, and deal with the ways the profession is developing in response to these shifts;
  - Manage the impacts of the new technological and communication landscape;
  - Serve their communities and provide architectural leadership to guide innovation in the creation of the built environment (Koch et al., 2002, pp.4-20).

**The Design Process**

The design process is, and represents a way of, engaging with, and internalising, the process of creative discovery (Ochsner, 2000, p.195). Hence, learning to design in an architectural education setting normally requires the student designer to embrace a distinct method of going about making architecture and architectural meaning. The participants in this project learned a four-stage design process method during their studies which is akin to Torrance (1976) and Kleiman’s (2005, p.17) creative model. The process includes preparation time or a preliminary stage, an incubating phase, periods of illumination and lastly time to refine one’s response. However, using the design process is not simply a matter of applying the steps, it is not that straightforward. Van Schaik (2008) claims:
...architects know that the complex problem they work with cannot be solved parameter by parameter” (p.26). ...What really happens is that when we embark on a quest, we become well primed about our prospective journey and we seek out everything we can know about its likely course... (p.26). ...But the way is made clear not by a logical step-by-step system, though such a process may be a necessary part of beginning the quest, but by some unexpected concatenation that suddenly brings everything together... Often we sleep on it and wake with our solution (p.26).

Van Schaik’s (2014) description echoes and expresses Kahneman’s (2011, p.26) concept about fast, or intuitive thinking processes, and slower, intentional, directed, reasoned, systematic procedures (Kahneman, 2011, pp.26-28). Figure 33 below encapsulates several principal components of the cyclic design process addressed pedagogically in the research site.

![Design process](image)

*Figure 33: The design process. (Source: student work archive)*

**The Architectural Review**

The architectural review is still a core component of our assessment process in the research site (Sara & Parnell, 2004; Stuart-Murray, 2010). Crits in this research setting range in type from: firstly, the formal end-of-year presentation, when external
professional practitioners may be present and expected to contribute; secondly, the less formal weekly reviews associated with the project brief tasks, like the review for the precedent task; to thirdly, informal desktop reviews in which the student engages in discussion with one or more design tutors or their peers at their drawing board. Although the architectural review is a long-established form of teaching and assessment in architectural schools worldwide, a perception exists in architectural circles its continued pedagogic use incorporates and concerns the wider social processes about power and agency I raised previously (Anthony, 1991; Vowles, 2000; Webster, 2007; Wilkin, 2000). The architectural review is, in fact, considered a complex social event as an assessment of representation and reproducer of social relations (Cuff, 1991; Vowles, 2000, p.259; Webster, 2005, 2007; Wilkin, 2000). The crit may be a way to ensure specific kinds of students, personality, and talent-wise, thrive, thereby maintaining established design traditions (Wilkin, 2000, p.100).

Further, the criteria used to determine quality regarding the content emerges from and becomes delineated through the ways a community constructs itself as a CoP within the wider context of architecture and society, thereby endorsing some criteria at the expense of others (Vowles, 2000, p.259). At a practical level, research evidence suggests staff and students do not always pay close attention to all the project work on display during the appraisal process, neither do they consider it in an integrative fashion, or refer to theory and precedent to provide evidence for their considerations (Stuart-Murray, 2010). Also, researchers say sometimes the discussion between students and staff embodies descriptive rather than analytical language, and this is indicative of surface rather than deep learning (Stuart-Murray, 2010; Biggs, 2012; 2003). Other architectural scholars, echoing Koch et al.’s (2002) sentiments about design studio culture, advocate the challenge going forward for architectural academics involves surfacing, and questioning established assumptions about the review on an ongoing basis. Also, as I indicated earlier, scholars maintain the challenge includes finding ways to foster a more creative, flexible, and reflexive environment regarding balancing power relations, promoting critical dialogue, and ensuring the review experience is a positive one for all participants (Sara & Parnell, 2004, p.2; Vowles, 2000).
What emerges from these discussions is firstly, a continuing need for academics in the research site to review this pedagogic vehicle for its appropriateness regarding content, form, and procedure, if the crit is to remain a core feature of teaching and assessment in a positive and constructive sense (Vowles, 2000, p.264). Also, it is clear there is an opportunity to rethink the role of design crits given the number of findings highlighting its inherent flaws (Webster, 2007, p.26). If we reject the assumption, there must be a crit at the end of every project, this creates the space to utilise other kinds of student-oriented assessment events like self-evaluation, peer review, exhibitions, and post portfolio review (Webster, 2007). These alternative assessment tools are part of our pedagogic repertoire at the research site, but we still rely on the review forms highlighted earlier as a core component of our pedagogic approach.

The Precedent Study

In cultural terms, all acts of making architecture has a poetic, what architectural practitioners like van Schaik (2014) refers to as a “reading” (p.13), an interpretation, or what semioticians, like Kress (2010) or van Leeuwen, (2005) call a rhetorical component relating to its origins and realisation. Without the practical, poetic perspective, researchers say architecture would struggle to express and exert its influence on society positively and become reduced in importance to being simply a symbolic background for shortlived consumption (van Schaik, 2014, p.13).

Architecture, as a rhetorical, communicative, or representational object, is thought to lend itself to analysis because it is liable to fix a set of given relationships regarding how it is produced and organised (Lasswell, 1979, pp.25-26), thereby generating a state of mutual expectancy between the building as a communicator of the instigator’s intent, and the audience, those who engage with the architecture as a realised inhabitable object (Lasswell, 1979, pp.25-26). As I intimated in Chapter One, scholars spanning the sociological, semiotic and architectural domains acknowledge architecture incorporates and signifies the social, cultural and economic configurations of different societies (Jones, 2011; Kress, 2010; Löw & Steets, 2014, pp.214-216; Unwin, 2003; van Leeuwen, 2005; van Schaik, 2014).
According to Mayo (1996, p.76), many architects relate their design thinking to ideological beliefs and values to structure their “communicative and design processes” (p.76). Nonetheless, the value of drawing on the insights gleaned from studying architectural exemplars manifesting specific forms of thinking, process, function, and design to inform one’s design thinking is the subject of much ongoing debate (Carver, 2011, p.85; Rifkind, 2011; Weddle & Neveu, 2011, p.6). Critically examining historical and/or contemporary architectural precedents, is a fundamental part of our teaching and learning practices at the research site, as it is in many architectural education settings and the subject of the design task that was the focus of this investigation. Yet, although the literature I draw on here refers to the significance, if somewhat contested nature, of precedent study and offers strategies for practitioners and students to adopt regarding their deconstruction via a creative and critical interpretation process (Bloom, 1972; Rifkind, 2011, p.66), these scholars do not explicate how designers, architectural undergraduates in this instance, grapple with the deconstructive process. Even though these researchers recognise addressing architecture’s historical underpinnings remains relevant pedagogically, because recognising historicity continues to be a stated requirement in many architectural professional bodies accrediting criteria (including the RIAI and RIBA), influencing meaning-making in this research site (Weddle & Neveu, 2011, p.6).

The main reasons for addressing architectural precedents on our programmes is to firstly give students chances to broaden their awareness of how architecture and architectural meaning develops, in a making sense, in different types of functional typologies, and architectural designing societal contexts, historically and currently (Eilouti, 2009, p.342). Secondly, researching precedents allows students to expand and develop their design vocabulary and designing strategy via engaging with a tried and tested vocabulary and way of going about designing (Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Hopkins, 2012; Oxman, 1986; Unwin, 2003, 2007). Academics at the research site expect students to use the learning from the deconstructive and analytic process constructively as “a point of departure” (Lawson, 2004, p.449) to firstly, inform their conceptual framework for their design projects; and secondly, frame and support their design decision-making (Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Hopkins, 2012; Oxman, 1986; Unwin, 2003). In this way, the outcomes from precedent study, usually expressed verbally, textually, visually, and sometimes physically
via models, potentially contribute to their design ideas and architectural meaning-making methods and outputs in design studio while they are responding to a design problem (Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Eltouri, 2009, p.342; Lawson, 2004). Figures 34 and 35 below represent two typical precedent analytical diagram sheets.

Investigating precedents is ordinarily one of the main research tasks our students carry out in each of their design studio projects. Typically, although precedent research commences early-on in the design process, analysing precedents flows through the ongoing research and designing activities because it is an iterative process. Fostering a systematic and methodological approach to research in the students’ learning activities is at the heart of my teaching practices about precedent studies. Finding ways to help architectural students adopt these practices was an underlying contributor to my research focus and choice of the focus group interview, questionnaire, observation, and semi-structured interview research tools. I move on now to Chapter Four to discuss the methodological concerns concerning building the case.

Figure 34: Precedent study. (Source: Student work archive)
Figure 35: “Work of Carrere & Hastings”. (Learn From. Build More, 2011)
4 Building the Case

Introduction
In this chapter, I address the factors underlining my constructivist and qualitative approach to the research activity as they relate to my overall approach and choice of research tools. Afterwards, I discuss the research participants including setting out the main reasons for selecting the third-year cohort as my sample population. Then, I consider my approach to the research methods, as building tools, and set out the procedures associated with implementing the focus group interview, observation, questionnaire, and semi-structured interview processes. Next, I discuss how I dealt with the ethical considerations that influenced how I went about designing and implementing the four research tools to generate the data to answer my research questions. I conclude with a summary and introduce Chapter Five which presents the materials of the situation, the results, findings, analysis, and interpretation.

Factors Influencing the Approach to the Research Activity
In this project, I drew on constructivist, architectural and social semiotic multimodality thinking that holds producing knowledge is not merely a matter of scientific discovery via what is observed objectively or empirically (Crotty, 1998, p.20). Rather, the objects within the world become reified, or concretised, as human consciousness engages with them actively to produce meaning (Andrews, 2012, p.40; Crotty, 1998, p.43; Hammersley, 2011; van Leeuwen, 2005). Also, within the social constructionist frame, firstly, society is recognised as existing both subjectively and objectively, and secondly, members share meanings, thereby producing “a taken-for-granted reality” (Andrews, 2012, p.39; Gibson, 2015; van Leeuwen, 2005, p.5). I understand the term constructionism normally applies to situations where the emphasis is on the collective creation and imparting of knowledge, whereas constructivism, as an expression, relates to epistemological concerns that address people’s meaning-making (Andrews, 2012; Crotty, 1998). In the positivist tradition, there is a perception amongst its advocates that reality exists separately from human consciousness and is there to be examined and understood; so “knower is distinct from knowing” (p.13) (Crotty, 2003, p.58; Denscombe, 2010; Hatch, 2002, pp.7-13). My theoretical perspective, however, is aligned with the
constructivist view that although a “concrete world” exists (Lave & Wenger, 1991, pp.21-22) we construct knowledge as we interpret our experiences; knowledge that evolves and changes as other understandings emerge (Denscombe, 2010; Hatch, 2002, p.13; McNiff & Whitehead, 2003). Also, I believe that although we learn individually, we also learn from and with others in different social contexts, and this includes the architectural education setting (Jarvis et al., 2003, p.42). Thus, the idea that architectural students develop their design thinking capacity via actively constructing their portrayal of their design thinking, individually and collectively in design studio, is a foundational premise of this study (Oxman, 1999, p.110).

The power of deconstructing social reality lies in showing that things could be different, and transformed for the better (Willig, 1998). My reading of the literature established that in principle at least, within a constructivist paradigm, people can construct and transform their daily realities (Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Burr, 1998; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Willig, 1998). From a constructivist perspective, interconnected groups of discourses, praxes and configurations, embedded in our social relationships, produce social reality (Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Burr, 1998, p.19; Gergen & Gergen, 2004; Gubrium & Holstein, 2008; Hammersley, 2011). In this project, I drew on on the notion that discourses are a means for connecting and synthesising language (in all its forms), behaviour, beliefs and values, and a way of using signs, implements, and entities, to produce distinctive, identifiable social identities (Gee, 2014, pp.65-66).

A “problem-solving language frame” (p.160) is known to have dominated the design literature and the design domain since the 1960s (Harfield, 2007). I grew up in an architectural household. My father was an architect, and he trained and practised architecture from the 1950s up until the end of the 1990s. Arguably, he was engaged with and immersed in this problem-solving architectural discourse all through the 1960s when I was a teenager and subsequently when I commenced my architectural studies. Probably, I took on board some aspects of this way of thinking and doing through the normal course of his paternal relationship with me (Anthony, 1991). Then, I studied architecture in Ireland from the beginning of the 1970s until the early 1980s. More than likely, I also engaged with the constructivist nature of architectural discourse and practice during my studies via engaging with my tutors and peers across the different subject
areas, in the design studio, and then later in practice. Thus, I think it is plausible to suggest my meaning schemes and meaning perspectives (Mezirow, 1991; Roth, 1991) and the metaphors I use in my daily encounters (Deshler, 1991; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), have been influenced and modified to integrate and reflect the constructivist, problem-solving attitudes underpinning my meaning-making experiences at home and later on during my architectural and post-graduate studies, and, my professional practice experiences in an architectural and HE setting (Harfield, 2007).

My constructivist viewpoint underlay and framed how I thought and acted in many ways in this research and the education context. For instance, as I said at the outset my constructivist perspective affected how I theorised and went about this study. Secondly, my standpoint influenced the ways I engaged with what it meant to use communication resources to make architectural meaning within a multimodal social semiotic framework (Kress, 2010; Stein & Newfield, 2006; van Leeuwen, 2005). Further, it is likely my constructivist disposition (Crotty, 1998; Geertz, 1973; Giddens, 1976; Goodenough, 2003) shaped the way I taught architectural students about precedents generally and the precedent analysis process particularly.

Consequently, my constructivist leanings underpinned my decision to use case study as an overall approach to this project and framed my decision to utilise a staff focus group interview, and a questionnaire, observation, and semi-structured interviews with the participants to generate data. As I said earlier, I viewed the research activity as an individual and co-constructivist process, in which it was essential to create a space to air the participants’ views and my ideas (Denscombe, 2010; Geertz, 1973, Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). Probably, I could have adopted other qualitative approaches, like action research for instance. McNiff and Whitehead (2003) describe action research as an approach that involves investigating a phenomenon in one’s practice via action and then reflecting on the outcomes before taking future action. Nonetheless, I theorised the teaching and learning occurring in the architectural programme at the research site is a social and constructivist process (Crotty, 1998; Giddens, 1976; Savery & Duffy, 2001). For this reason, I found it helpful, and significantly, authentic to conceptualise and go about the research in a manner that reflected this perspective (Lombardi, 2007).
Further, studying one or several examples of a specific phenomenon in a real-life setting to produce a detailed account of what happens, and, explore the relationships and processes associated with this occurrence are established aspects of the case study approach (Aaltio & Heilmann, 2010; Denscombe, 2010, p.52; Stake, 2005; Thomas, 2010, 2011, p. 511, 2016; Yin, 2009). Denscombe (2010, p.52), points out focusing on one or two events, as was the case in this project, is a key feature of case study. Then, I developed an in-depth account, what Ryle (1968) coined as, and Geertz (1973) refers to, as “thick description” (p.3), of the ways the participants orchestrated multimodal communication resources semiotically, during an initial precedent study review, for one design project, in one specific designing event. This case story embodies particularity; it represents an instance of one kind of multimodal social semiotic meaning-making (Bruner, 1991, pp.6-7; Thomas, 2010, p.580, 2016, pp.226-227).

My decision to construct a case study using the four research tools referred to above also relates to the types of ongoing problems I face in my educational practice. For instance, I teach students about architectural precedents and how to go about interpreting them in the theory component of the ‘context and theory module’ across the first three years of their studies. Cases or precedents are well-established learning vehicles for educational purposes (Aaltio & Heilmann, 2010, pp.69-70; Clark & Pause, 2012; Goldschmidt & Sever, 2010; Unwin, 2003, 2007). However, one of the issues I encounter involves students investigating and using the findings from their precedent study superficially, rather than reading these exemplars critically and employing the results as a stimulus for inspiration and innovation (Lawson, 2006, p.221). One reason this may happen is the fact the students carry out their evaluation remotely primarily via a desktop, library and studio-based research process concerning published multimodal material; they do not visit every architectural precedent physically (Lombardi, 2007). Even though, field trips do occur every year to ensure students engage with architecture physically (Lawson, 2004, p.452). Resolving this issue is thought to involve making theoretical findings meaningful in some way experientially, through engaging with the analytical process actively via “communication, visualisation and simulation technologies” (p.2), and drawing on the findings repeatedly during the design process so the details remain easy to recall and use creatively (Lawson, 2004, p.452; Lombardi, 2007, p.2). Generally, I focus on implementing the precedent task actively, via the physical
processes associated with reading the precedent critically multimodally. I do so to, help architectural students identify and engage with historical and contemporary prototypical patterns and themes; and inform and develop their visual reasoning capacity, design strategies, designing vocabulary, and emerging design outputs (Clark & Pause, 2012, p. vi). Nonetheless, despite these intentions and the practical component in my teaching approach, there is a likelihood that students may not engage with, or use, the precedent task diagnostically while designing (Lawson, 2006, p.452; Unwin, 2003, p.23).

Another general problematic aspect concerns the fact the context for this architectural programme is shaped by governmental, professional body and institutional learning goals for architecture in Ireland and Europe. For instance, thinking critically about architecture is a common LO in Irish architectural HE and further afield; and has been so for a long time (Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government, 2009; Higher Education Authority, 2010b; Quality and Qualifications Ireland, 2014; Royal Institute of British Architects, 2014). There are two problems associated with this. Firstly, it is likely the precedent study could legitimise accepted architectural norms through implementing governmentally and institutionally ‘acceptable’ knowledge (Dutton, 1991; Vowles, 2000; Wilkin, 2000). Secondly, there is a practical contextual problem about the ways the current political HE environment in Ireland affects how the architectural programme at the research site operates. Over the last decade, a public service embargo on staff recruitment in HE in Ireland resulted in less staff being available to deliver existing and newly developed programmes (Raidió Teilifís Éireann (RTÉ), 2013). At the research site, the institutional response to this restriction involved reducing student contact hours to use staff more efficiently. The reduced contact hours affected all subject areas including representation. Previously, I indicated this reduction in contact time probably caused problems for participants in this study, particularly those experiencing distinct learning challenges, and possibly had a negative impact on their meaning-making efforts in design studio where selecting and using multimodal communication resources is considered fundamental to the design process (Akalin & Sezal, 2009; Lawson, 2006; Ochsner, 2000; Oxman, 1986).
Lastly, the research activity included discussions with colleagues, and observing, questioning, and interviewing participants who were aware the observation, questioning and interviewing was part of a formal research process. Denscombe (2010) draws attention to “the interviewer effect” (p.179) and highlights participants may well respond in these circumstances in ways they believe fulfil the researcher’s expectations and so affect the data generated during the fieldwork processes. Secondly, as I said at the outset, this endeavour was a piece of insider research, and research evidence shows there are several underlying concerns about this type of project (Mercer, 2007). For instance, it was likely, my prejudices and values impacted on the project, affecting what I ‘saw’ and what I ‘missed’ (Kahneman, 2011, pp.30-33). Therefore, I needed to uncover and deal with these issues (Denscombe, 2010). Also, my identity, in this context as lecturer, design tutor and colleague, probably influenced how the staff and participants reacted to me in the staff focus group discussions, and in the observational, questioning and interview processes (Denscombe, 2010, p.178). I took on board the advice about being receptive and neutral during these activities, to promote the environment for the contributors to feel comfortable about participating in the process (Denscombe, 2010, p.179).

Nevertheless, the data gathering processes associated with implementing the different research tools gave me a chance to find out and document what was going on in this social setting from several angles (Denscombe, 2010; Opie, 2004; Thomas, 2016, p.4). That is, the holistic nature of the case study approach offered me the opportunity to explore and address the multi-layered aspects of the participants’ architectural meaning-making in this setting while investigating the issues directly related to my research questions, and interrogating the findings through the social semiotic multimodality lens (Denscombe, 2010; Stake, 2005; Thomas, 2011, p.514, 2016; Yin, 2009).

The Research Participants

I got permission from my institution to ask the third-year student cohort to participate in the project. These students were part of an honours BA in Architectural Design programme in an Irish Institute of Technology (IoT) in Higher Education (IHE) setting with Part 1 RIBA (Royal Institute of British Architects) accreditation. At the time of this study
the total student cohort on the BA in Architectural design programme numbered about 60 across the four years, and the student body was a distinct blend of school leavers and more mature students from Ireland, the UK, Eastern Europe, Italy, Spain, Brazil, the Philippines, India, and China. This meant students contributed to a diverse community heritage regarding their lived experiences (Baxter Magolda & King, 2012). Usually, students join the course in the first year, and one or two people transfer onto the programme in later years, from similar courses in Ireland or further afield. Normally, each class cohort (numbers range 3-32) incorporates several European Erasmus and International students, who stay for a semester or the full year. The age group across the programme ranges from 18-60 plus years. Currently, there are more females than males with a ratio of about 70:30. The third-year cohort numbered 9 and was a mix of male and female, school leaver, mature students and European and International students. Eight students participated in the study. Their ages varied from 19 to 60 plus. Ordinarily several European and International students join the third-year for a semester or the full year depending on their entry route and individual circumstances; however, no external entrants joined the third-year group for the academic year 2015-2016.

I gained access to the third-year cohort without much difficulty because I worked in the Institution that is the research site and I was a lecturer and design studio tutor on the architectural programme that was the focus of the research activity. I negotiated successfully with my colleagues to, discuss the research with them, and gain access to the third-year group; be present as an observer at the precedent review; administer the questionnaire; and carry out the semi-structured interviews. This meant any emerging access issues were more about negotiating suitable meeting times and spaces with my participating colleagues and the participants. Travel and expenses associated with carrying out this project were minimal because the research was situated in my workplace (Denscombe, 2010). I asked the third-year group to take part in the study for several reasons. Firstly, as I reiterated earlier, I carried out this study in my teaching practice with a view to discovering the extent to which multimodal communication resources actively affect meaning-making in a specific architectural education context from a social semiotic multimodality perspective (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005). The second reason I chose this sample population tallied with an aspiration that what I might find out may help me develop and refine my
teaching approaches to support the architectural students’ rhetorical meaning-making efforts at the research site. Thirdly, I chose the third-year group specifically rather than another year cohort because third-years were probably mature enough as learners (Baxter Magolda & King, 2012; Kitchener & King 1991) to address my research queries via the observation, questionnaire, and interview process; it is likely the first and second years’ knowledge, and skill base using multimodal communication resources would not yet be developed sufficiently (Baxter Magolda & King, 2012); and the final-year group were under too much pressure with their thesis design projects and dissertation work to be in a position to participate fully without feeling they were compromising their studies. Fourthly, I did not teach this student group in design studio in the third-year, so I was not involved in marking their project work for the design event that would be the focus of the research activity. This was important from an ethical perspective because my observations could not translate or be perceived as translating into adverse grades for the project (Denscombe, 2010; Fontana & Frey, 2005). I explained I was not involved in marking or interested in measuring any component of the review while setting out my research interests and intentions to the participants at our initial meeting (Hatch, 2002, p.46). Fifthly, I picked this third-year sample group because they probably represented a typical example of the type of third-year architectural students who were studying on architectural programmes in other HE IoTs in Ireland (Denscombe, 2010). Sixthly, if this sample shared similar attributes with other architectural students in an Irish IoT context then hopefully the findings that emerged from this research process could make some contribution to architectural teaching and learning practices in those contexts and perhaps further afield. Most architectural programmes in Ireland, the UK and Europe are aligned with and responding to European policy directives and criteria about architectural education and HE (UNESCO/UIA, 2005; The Bologna Declaration, 1999; The Council of the European Communities, 1985).

The Fieldwork - The Research Tools and Procedures

Overview

During the fieldwork, I discussed the research and data generating processes with my colleagues to refine and review my research tools including sequencing the fieldwork activities. Secondly, I witnessed first-hand and then appraised how the respondents used
multimodal communication resources to produce architectural meaning semiotically via observing what happened during the precedent review (Tomlinson, 1989). Thirdly, I generated some background information and investigated the participants’ meaning perspectives via implementing the questionnaire and the subsequent analytic process to uncover some of the inherent interests driving their meaning-making activities (Deshler, 1991; Kitchener & King, 1991; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Mezirow, 1991; Roth, 1991). Finally, I explored the participants’ architectural meaning-making efforts with the respondents in the retrospective interviews and subsequently by myself in the analytic process to uncover their experiences of and perceptions about using multimodal communication resources semiotically in the precedent task and associated review. Also, I documented and interpreted the textual, visual and physical artefacts, including, drawings, images and photographs the participants produced during the precedent task and presented during the review; because I adopted the idea these products are semiotic tools (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Denscombe, 2010; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2005). All the data produced during the fieldwork was analysed considering contemporary thinking about architectural communication and social semiotic multimodality theories. Then I interrogated the findings through a social semiotic multimodality lens to build the case around the participants’ meaning-making efforts during the review (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Jewitt et al., 2016).

As I said in Chapter One, I conceptualised and theorised that the semiotic meaning-making was an activity that Fontana and Frey (2005) refer to as being “contextually and culturally bounded” (p.695). I understood this to relate to the fact I explored the meaning-making phenomenon in a specific HE setting, an IoT in Ireland, with a distinct group of architectural students, the third-year cohort, embedded in the architectural subculture that the architectural programme at the research site represents.
To recap, my main research question was:

- To what extent do the multimodal communication resources the participants deploy work together to enact architectural meaning during the review for the initial precedent study phase of the designing activity?

Thus, I evaluated this meaning-making phenomenon from several angles to construct a detailed account of the ways the multimodal communication resources, the participants employed during the precedent review, were working together to produce knowledge (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Denscombe, 2010; Dong, 2007; Kress, 2010; Murphy, 2003, 2005; Swales et al., 2001; van Leeuwen, 2005).

Using several research tools to generate the qualitative data provided me with the means to cross reference, triangulate and so corroborate the data produced from these processes during the analysis phase (Denscombe, 2010; Stake, 2005; Thomas, 2016; Wellington, Bathmaker, Hunt, McCulloch, & Sikes, 2005; Yin, 2009). Essentially, I used different forms of interviewing. I intended the first, a focus group discussion between four-course team colleagues and I, to help me review the student-based research tools and their sequencing in the different data production processes. I aimed the second, a self-administered questionnaire at gathering factual and opinion-based background information about the respondents’ life history including date of birth, nationality, and educational experiences, and identifying some of their perceived personal and
architectural values, and beliefs, as my literature work had highlighted sign-making, is motivated by the sign makers’ interests (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2009b, p.20). The questionnaire questions were open and closed in nature. I planned the third, the semi-structured interview to be a more flexible, and fluid interaction between the participants and I in which I asked mainly open-ended questions about their use of multimodal communication resources to make rhetorical architectural meaning during the precedent task and review activity (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.702-705). I drew on Kress (2010) to construct a frame for the guiding script and Tomlinson’s (1989) method of “hierarchical focusing” (p.162), mentioned previously, to structure the interviews. This method concerns uncovering each interviewee’s constructs and uses a framework mainly as a guiding tool (Tomlinson, 1989). I adopted a participatory observation approach for the observational activities to generate first-hand information about how the participants constructed architectural meaning in the precedent review (Angrosina, 2005; Denscombe, 2010; Opie, 2004).

However, I do not know how the participants behaved outside fieldwork events. Additionally, I am not sure of, nor did I focus on the institutional environment’s impact (building space) on the participants’ meaning-making efforts in detail. Also, I think it is important to reiterate I worked under two principal assumptions. Firstly, I presumed I am qualified to teach the participants about precedents, in conjunction with assessing their assignment outputs about this task. Moreover, secondly, I accepted the participants could engage with the learning about precedents constructively, theoretically and practically (Denscombe, 2010; Wellington et al., 2005).

There were several issues associated with carrying out the research activities in the manner I set out above. Firstly, during the research activities, I needed to consider how my long-standing and close relationship with my colleagues and the participants as their lecturer affected me as a researcher and impacted on my research role in the interviewing and observation processes (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.715). This meant I needed to be mindful of and address how my bias influenced me in this research context, and think about the ways my lecturing and design critiquing role might affect my colleagues and the respondents’ participation and responses in the research activity. Another issue concerned the veracity of the accounts I constructed from the observing
and interviewing interactions (Fontana & Frey, 2005). I hoped the fact I showed the completed transcripts to the participants to check for any inconsistencies negated this likelihood somewhat. Also, I needed to consider how to address the problem of my colleagues and the participants telling me things they thought I wanted them to say in their responses to help the research process positively (Denscombe, 2010, p.179). I tackled this problem directly when I explained the research aims, and my participatory role in the research activities to my colleagues and the participants at meetings convened for that purpose and obtaining informed consent before the fieldwork commenced. Moreover, I included an explanation of the research and the participants’ role in the fieldwork on the questionnaire document (Fontana & Frey, 2005) (Please refer to Appendix 10 in Volume Two). Another problematic aspect stemmed from the fact my sample population was small so using statistics to generalise my findings to a larger population was questionable. However, my research account does not contain any statistical representations other than a comment on how many respondents took part in the study and fieldwork (Opie, 2004). This research was an account, a piece of constructivist and interpretative work.

As I said above, before commencing any of the data gathering activities I invited my colleagues first of all, and then the third-year cohort to meetings at an agreed time and place on-site outside timetabled class times where I set out the background and overall aims of this research project, and, the ways I proposed to deal with the data ethically, before inviting my colleagues and then the third-years to participate in the research activity as participants and to seek their informed consent to do so (Denscombe, 2010; Hatch, 2002; Wellington, 2015). I stressed the dynamic, co-constructive nature of both parties’ engagement with me in the research activities and explained my constructivist perspective (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). I discussed and agreed on a date for completing the consent form and a location for the completed forms. The introduction to the research and handing out and obtaining signed consent forms from staff and the third-year group took a fortnight to complete.

Once I received signed consent forms, I organised a time and meeting-place on-site to conduct the focus group discussion with my colleagues in December 2015. After the focus group interview concluded I constructed a transcript, asked my colleagues to
review the transcript to check for inaccuracies or errors, and then I carried out a first reading of the data, using a constant comparative analysis approach (Hatch, 2002; Thomas, 2016; Saldaña, 2015). Afterwards, I decided to simplify the information sheet and reviewed and revised the research activities order for the fieldwork with the student participants. Initially, I intended to administer the questionnaire first before the observation process took place. However, I decided to carry out the observation first, then administer the questionnaire, and finally engage in the semi-formal interview process with the participants. I rescheduled the fieldwork activities mainly to address my colleagues’ pertinent concern that filling out the questionnaire first could potentially shape and so alter the participants’ natural response to the precedent task and their presentation in the observed review. If the participants’ response to the task had been altered in this way it could have affected what emerged from the analysis process (Denscombe, 2010; Thomas, 2016). I have structured the discussion about the research tools which follows below in the order I implemented the tools during the research activity.

**The Staff Focus Group Interview Approach**

I took the view any kind interviewing, particularly a group interview, is neither an impartial nor an individually conducted process (Fontana & Frey, 2005, pp.695-696). This was because I conceptualised interviewing in any form would be yet another interactional and co-constructivist practice involving several people making meaning in specific contexts with varying degrees of agency (Fontana & Frey, 2005, pp. 695; Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). I use the term ‘focus’ here to delineate the kind of group interview I conducted (Thomas, 2016, p.192). The emphasis was on exploring one topic, the research tools; and the discussion took place between a group of individuals, my colleagues and I, who share professional and educational characteristics and experiences (Fontana & Frey, 2003, p. 71; Hatch, 2002, p.24). I asked one central open-ended lead question concerning the effectiveness of my research tools to generate the data I needed to answer my research questions, and I intervened with other queries as the discussion progressed and relevant issues emerged (Thomas, 2016, p.192). I was mindful that although the interaction was nondirective, I designed the process to pose the questions,
and manage and facilitate the discussion between myself and my four colleagues (Fontana & Frey, 2003, p.72; Thomas, 2016, p.192). I did not invite the two third-year design tutors to participate because they were leading the observed review and I wanted to reduce opportunities for influencing how they conducted the event or graded the participants’ performance (Denscombe, 2010; Thomas, 2016). As I said earlier, the main reason for conducting the focus group interview concerned my decision to firstly, establish the effectiveness of my proposed research tools and their sequencing in the research activity; and secondly, collect information from different sources to augment, corroborate, triangulate and verify my construal of the observed review (Denscombe, 2010; Hatch, 2002, p.24; Opie, 2004).

I framed the focus group interview activity as a social encounter where my colleagues and I constructed knowledge about, how to use the proposed research tools during the fieldwork, and in what order; and how effective these activities would be for producing the data to address my research queries (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004, p.114). However, I was aware sometimes one voice could predominate in this kind of interview situation, and I needed to ensure all parties had opportunities to contribute to the discussion, another reason I took on the facilitation role (Fontana & Frey, 2003, p.73). Although this process was collaborative, there was an individual aspect to using this research tool, relating to the subsequent analytical and interpretive processes. Even though I sent a copy of the transcript to each respondent to get their feedback and check for inaccuracies, I moved on to analyse and interpret the transcript individually. Also, although I chose to use an open-ended questioning approach I was aware there was an underlying and inherent structure to the group interviewing because I operated in a specific setting, I had a set of identified participants, a site, and one focused guiding question and related sub-queries (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.706; Tomlinson, 1989).

Constructing the research process account about the group interview interaction probably involved me as a “guide and translator” (p.707) of “academic, cultural mores” (p.707) in this research context (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Further, as the respondents and I were already working with and using architectural language regularly, I am hopeful this generated an atmosphere of mutual understanding and shared meanings in the group interviewing interactions (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.713). Arguably, I know the language
and culture of my colleagues because of our shared architectural backgrounds and my established and continuing engagement with them in our daily educational meaning-making practices in the CoP at the research site (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.707; Wenger, 1998a, pp.37-38). However, I was mindful that there was a chance my colleagues and I might overlook those aspects of each others’ knowledge and practice that we took for granted or did not see (Wenger, 1998a, pp.144-145). A chance we might continue to uphold the status quo rather than question our beliefs about architectural education (Chanock, 2007, p.35 Cooper, 2006, pp.9-10; Kerno, 2008, pp.73-75; Roberts, 2006, pp.627-628; Vowles, 2000).

Likewise, it was likely that my colleagues formed an impression of me during the years we have worked together. During this time, I took on various roles in the course team including programme chair. However, there may be discrepancies between what I espouse as my stance and approach to education and academic collegiality, what I do in practice, and how my colleagues perceive my values and behaviour as a colleague and academic. Fontana and Frey (2005, p.707) suggest how we are perceived by our research subjects is important because their perceptions can shape the research activity positively or negatively. Nonetheless, my relationship with my colleagues is well-established, and the positive nature of my daily interactions with them all probably helped me gain their trust and build rapport in the focus group interview interaction (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.708; Thomas, 2016, p.192).

Although I appreciate using a range of techniques to capture non-verbal communications while interviewing is important, I focused mainly on the dialogue in this instance because I did not want to continually disrupt the conversation between the respondents and I in the group discussion to take notes because I am deaf and wear hearing aids. I needed to look at my colleagues speaking to ensure I heard what they said to guide the interaction effectively (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.713). I paid attention to the nonverbal features from time to time, in order to record how my colleagues were using nonverbal language and gestural cues to reinforce the meanings of the words they used to communicate their views about the research focus and associated tools (Angrosino, 2005; Tomlinson, 1980).
The Process

I agreed both time and space for the focus group interview with participating colleagues and we met at lunch-time on December 9, 2015, for an hour and a half in a pre-booked on-site library seminar room. I sent each colleague a copy of proposed consent forms, questionnaire, and semi-structured interview scripts electronically on November 29, 2015, so they could read these documents ahead of our discussions. Before the interview commenced, I arranged the space physically to organise the seating arrangements around the centrally placed rectangular meeting table, so that I could maintain eye contact with each colleague during our discussions (Opie, 2004). I recorded the focus group interview with an audio device placed centrally on the meeting table. At the beginning of the discussion, I expressed my thanks to my colleagues for participating and introduced the lead question regarding the effectiveness of my research tools. As the meeting progressed, I asked and answered questions as issues surfaced. At the end of the interview process, I expressed my thanks to each participant for taking part and gave them details about the next steps. Once the meeting had concluded I uploaded the recording to my password protected computer.

The Observation Activity

Approach

Two different types of observational research approach surface in the research literature (Angrosina, 2005; Denscombe, 2010; Opie, 2004). The first of these methods which Denscombe (2010) refers to as “systematic observation” (p.196) is more usually associated with producing quantitative data that is analysed statistically. The second type of observational activity which he calls “participant observation” (p.196) is normally utilised by researchers to gain access to real-life situations, openly or sometimes covertly, to learn about the culture and processes of the group under investigation in an unobtrusive manner (Denscombe, 2010, pp.196-197).

In this study, I utilised the second type of approach to collect information openly. The data generated in this process is the core object of analysis and central to answering my research questions (Thomas, 2016). Also, the data generated during the observed review augments the data that emerged from the questionnaire and interviewing and provides
reciprocal evidence for checking for inaccuracies and misinterpretations, as a way of cross-referencing, triangulating and validating the data overall (Denscombe, 2010; Opie, 2004). Observational research primarily involves producing knowledge to share it publicly; and for that reason, I planned the observational process meticulously, video and audio recorded the event, and then reflected critically on what occurred via repeatedly viewing the video footage and listening to the audio during the analytical and interpretative process. Using observation as a research tool openly gave me the chance to be physically present, see, and so directly generate and record, first-hand data about the participants’ construal of architectural meaning during the precedent review, a real-life event (Denscombe, 2010; Opie, 2004, pp.122-123; Mondada, 2012, p.308; Tomlinson, 1989). Another important facet of observing the respondents in this real-life setting was the opportunity the observational activity offered me to look at something “familiar” (Opie, 2004, p.122) anew through a social semiotic multimodality lens, to gain a more critical and objective understanding of how they go about constructing architectural meaning semiotically during the precedent task and review (Thomas, 2016).

Observing the participants was not straightforward from the researcher or participatory viewpoint. Denscombe (2010, p.198) suggests we forget almost everything we see and the process of forgetting and seeing is not a hit and miss affair. A pattern to the forgetting and recalling process occurs which he calls selective recall (Denscombe, 2010, p.198). In other words, the mind filters information and our physical and emotional state affect what remains and what goes (Denscombe, 2010, p.198). If this is so, then I must consider the fact, I saw what I expected to see during the observational event; and I may have filtered out anything that I registered as unpleasant based on my previous review experiences with these students; or possibly exaggerated desirable behaviours. However, as I videotaped each presentation and used an audio recording device, hopefully, the constant reviewing and reflective process associated with constructing the multimodal transcript during the analysis process offset these problems somewhat.

As it stands, even before I engaged in this research process, I noticed patterns in the students’ construal of architectural meaning during reviews. At the beginning of their studies many architectural students I normally interacted with in design studio tended to rely more on text and talk, limiting their use of diagrams, sketches and models, possibly
because their knowledge and skill using these forms of visual language will have been in the early stages of development (Lawson, 2004). As they progressed through the programme and their knowledge and skills using multimodal communication resources developed, mainly visual means, the volume of visual and physical representations increased and the amount of descriptive talk and text diminished. This response is the accepted norm. Indeed, some students find themselves written off as weaker design students if they firstly, continue to rely on, what others consider to be superficial, descriptive talk and text, to explain their design work, and secondly, experience ongoing difficulty expressing analysis in visual and physical multimodal modes. However, it is clear from my literature work and from my findings that while visual means are indeed crucial to the architectural communicative and knowledge production process, nonverbal and verbal modes usually play a fundamental and equally important interconnected role in knowledge production in the design setting (Dias et al., 2013; Medway, 1994, 1996b; Morton & O’Brien, 2005; Swales et al., 2001). Even though, one or other of these resources, including visual means, may predominate in the communicative interaction at different times during the meaning-making process (Dong, 2007; Eris et al., 2014; Gänshirt, 2007; Murphy, 2003; van Schaik, 2014). Thus, the issue I identified experientially may relate to students not fully appreciating or acknowledging what each mode offers semiotically, in a design situation, and/or not understanding how each resource can be used effectively or critically in any given design meaning-making orchestration including the review situation (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Swales et al., 2001).

I am mindful the participants may have changed or modified their behaviour during the review because I was there as a researcher in an observing role (Denscombe, 2010; Opie, 2004). I am hopeful if this did happen it did so in the opening moments of the respondents’ presentations, and then as the presentation proceeded and the participants became more involved in communicating their findings, they relaxed. Arguably students are familiar with my presence as an outside contributor to reviews in the ordinary course of their design studio interactions. Another important matter concerned how I could go about the observational activity as objectively as possible as a researcher given the fact that although I am not a design tutor in the third-year I have been teaching the participants about precedents for two years and acted as an outside contributor to formal reviews at the end of first and second-year projects. I accept my ongoing teaching
experiences probably influenced what I saw and how I interpreted what I witnessed (Denscombe, 2010; Fontana & Frey, 2005; Opie, 2004). I raised these issues directly with the participants during the initial briefing meeting when I explained the purpose of the observational activity, what I was looking at, and how I would conduct the observational activities. During the research activity, I videoed and audio-taped the proceedings, and I generated some field notes immediately after the observed review event and hopefully these measures went some way towards addressing the problems raised above because the ensuing videos, audio transcripts and notes gave me a useful way to check for misinterpretation and bias (Opie, 2004, p.123).

Although continuous interaction is a feature of observational research, I was not able to continually interact with the respondents during the precedent task because of the nature of this study (Denscombe, 2010; Opie, 2004). Firstly, this piece of research was intended for educational purposes within a specified period. Secondly, the research activity was in an education setting going about its daily affairs; so continuously interacting with the respondents was not a possibility and probably would have been intrusive. Thirdly, the relatively short academic year and the small number of projects that run in the two semesters limited when I could observe the precedent review stage. However, I took on a participatory observation role in this study in the sense that I interacted with the subjects because I watched, listened to, and video recorded the precedent review presentations and ensuing dialogue; and noted and categorised many of the nonverbal interactions that took place (Opie, 2004, p.128). I did not ask the respondents or any of their non-participating colleagues any questions, nor did I prompt answers to any emerging issues to maintain some degree of objectivity about the observation procedures (Opie, 2004).

The Process

After the initial briefing meeting to discuss and explain what I was looking at during the observational process one of the first steps I tackled from a procedural perspective was to ask myself questions about the following five areas to create an observational checklist, and to help me structure the construction of the multimodal observation transcripts, drawing on Opie’s considerations for that process (2004, p.125):
1. Verbal and visual interaction
   a. What do the participants say?
   b. What multimodal resource, that is, words, text, images or artefact, do they use and refer to, to communicate?
   c. How do they deploy these resources semiotically?

2. Nonverbal interaction
   a. What do the participants do physically while explaining the procedural steps and outcomes associated with the precedent task?
      i. How do the participants use their crit space spatially and physically during the review?
      ii. What gestural actions do the participants utilise during the review?
      iii. How do they use bodily positioning?

3. Affective interaction – feelings and emotions
   a. How do the architectural student respondents behave during the review to communicate their feelings or attitudes - confidence, openness, composure, anxiety, nervousness, or defensiveness?
      i. Verbal communications – speech, tone of voice
      ii. Nonverbal communications – movement, gesture, facial expressions including eye contact;

4. Cognitive
   a. How do the participants draw on and use multimodal language ensembles to externalise and concretise their thinking regarding the precedent task?
      i. What are the signs of engagement from a social semiotic multimodality standpoint?
      ii. What are the signs of learning from a social semiotic multimodality point of view?

During the observation process and in the subsequent analysis phase I paid close attention to the ways the respondents used non-verbal communication tools like: utilising interpersonal space; integrating silences with pacing their speech; using bodily movement and posture including, open or closed movements, friendly or hostile movements, attentive gestures, and level of eye contact; and attempting to note any
changes in volume, pitch and tone (Gorden, 1980, p.335). I anticipated this last aspect, would be difficult for me to note because of my deafness; unless speech is strongly emphasised in some way, I do not always pick-up on this aspect of the communicative process. Nonetheless, I paid close attention to all the above because research evidence highlighted the significant role nonverbal communications play in semiotic meaning-making activities (Denscombe, 2010; Fontana & Frey, 2005; Gänshirt, 2007; Gorden, 1980; Murphy, 2003, 2005; Swales et al., 2001). Initially, I was not going to videotape the observational activity because I worried doing so might be obtrusive. However, as it is an accepted review practice for the architectural students, particularly during the opening vertical project which runs every year across all four years, I decided the benefits outweighed the negatives particularly for a deaf person like myself, so I videoed the proceedings and recorded them using an audio device to ensure I had two sources of recorded dialogue to cross-check for accuracy from a ‘hearing’ perspective during the transcription phase (Opie, 2004). Again, because of my hearing difficulties, I did not attempt to make detailed notes during the videoing process. Instead, I focused on capturing each presentation as accurately as I could within the spatial conditions that existed in the third-year studio, where the reviews took place. Also, I wrote up a series of reflective notes immediately after the event while the things I noticed were still fresh and I embedded these in the multimodal observation transcripts.

The observational event took place mid-morning during the two-hour studio-based review for the precedent study on Thursday, March 3, 2016. I observed and recorded each participant’s presentation. As I said earlier, usually, we allot about ten to fifteen minutes to each student during informal reviews. However, during the observed event, there were variances in this practice. The tutors allowed some students more time than others to document their findings, so allotted times were not strictly adhered to and this appeared to put the final presenter under some pressure because as she said in her interview, she needed to leave for work promptly when studio concluded. Usually, each student has about five minutes to present their findings, and then the design tutors spend another five minutes asking the students questions about their work and giving them feedback. Often, the feedback flows through the presenting process.
During the initial briefing meeting with the participants to discuss the observation process I ensured the participants had an opportunity to discuss and understand what I would be looking at before the observational events took place; as doing so is considered ethically sound practice and helps to set up the boundaries for the activity (Opie, 2004, p.125).

**The Questionnaire Approach**

I designed the questionnaire to gather some factual background information about the participants, and, capture their opinions about their current meaning-making experiences, meaning perspectives, and some of the general and architectural metaphors they incorporated into their daily lives (Kitchener & King, 1991; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Mezirow, 1991; Roth, 1991). (Please refer to Appendix 10 which is a copy of the questionnaire). In the questionnaire, I asked questions about the participants’ life history including, factual questions about the participants’ birth date, birthplace, nationality, place of residence and educational background; and opinion based material about their family environment, learning approaches, the metaphorical concepts that they relied on generally and architecturally, their personal and architectural values and beliefs, reasons for studying architecture and selecting the research institution. I asked these types of questions to investigate the participants’ meaning perspectives and use of metaphors during their meaning-making efforts (Kitchener & King, 1991; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Mezirow, 1991; Roth, 1991). Being physically present during the questionnaire process meant I could respond to any queries the participants had about filling out the paper-based questionnaire. The questionnaire itself contained a detailed introduction and explanation reiterating the research aims and each question’s purpose, with some sample answers to help the participants to fill it out. I made it clear in the questionnaire introduction which questions required factual responses and those that were opinion based (Fontana & Frey, 2005). The participants were encouraged to surface their personal and architectural values and beliefs during design studio. So, it is likely they were familiar with and so able to answer the opinion-based questions in the questionnaire concerning their values and beliefs. Once the questionnaires were completed, the participants gave me the hard-copy, and I secured them in a locked filing cabinet.
The Process

I administered the questionnaire after lunch on Wednesday, March 9, 2016 during a free two-hour time-table slot. The main procedural issues concerned:

1. Ensuring I designed the questionnaire in a coherent and consistent manner regarding format and layout, and this included providing a detailed explanation about how to fill it out;
2. Having the right mix of factual and opinion-based questions of the right kind in the correct order;
And
3. Organising an agreed time and location to administer, complete, and return the questionnaire (Opie, 2004).

My sample population was small, so the time required to process the questionnaire reflected this. Additionally, it meant the costs of producing, administering and analysing the questionnaire and the questionnaire responses were minimal as I produced them and made copies. Organisational issues primarily related to managing to negotiate and set-up time and space to meet with the participants to administer the questionnaire in a way that did not interfere with their studies.

The Semi-Structured Interviews Approach

Like the focus group interview, I framed the retrospective semi-structured interview activity as a social interaction where the participants and I actively constructed knowledge together about their meaning-making activities during the review (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004, p.114). Likewise, although this interviewing process was collaborative, there was also an individual aspect to using this research tool regarding the analytical and interpretive processes associated with the data analysis stage. Even though I sent the interview transcripts to each participant to get their feedback and check for inaccuracies and errors during the transcription process, I moved on to analyse and interpret the interview transcripts individually in a similar fashion to the focus group interview transcripts. Again, like the focus group interviews, although I chose to use a semi-
structured and more fluid interviewing approach I am aware there was an underlying and inherent structure to the interviewing because as I said earlier I operated in a distinct setting, I had a set of identified respondents, the third-year cohort, and a guiding script (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.706; Tomlinson, 1989). (Please refer to Appendix 11 in Volume Two which is a copy of the semi-structured interview guiding script).

Arguably, I also understood the language and culture of the respondents because of my continuing engagement in the meaning-making activities taking place in the setting under investigation (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.707). As I said previously, I have been a teaching staff member for a long time actively contributing to the programme’s ongoing development. Also, I am embedded in the research site, as a subject lecturer and design tutor, actively working with the participants to develop their architectural knowledge and skills base. A large part of this role involves introducing the students to architectural language and helping them to develop a working knowledge and fluency using this language in different architectural contexts using multimodal communication resources (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.707). I took on the role of an informant, in a sense, (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.707) in this research because I was an insider (Mercer 2007). Again, constructing the research process account, including the interview interaction, involved me as “a guide and translator of cultural” (p.707) traditions (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Further, as the respondents and I were already working with and using architectural language regularly, I am hopeful I generated an atmosphere of mutual understanding and shared meanings in the interviewing interactions (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.713).

Moreover, it is also likely the participants had already developed an impression of me as I was teaching them the theory component of the ‘context and theory module’ for two years and I participated on internal panel critiques in design studio as a critic during the formal reviews which normally take place at the end of each semester in each year. During this time, I tried to present myself as a senior student, one of many resources available to the architectural students, rather than someone who is an expert with an exclusive hold on the knowledge they require access to. Also, I emphasised the co-constructivist nature of the learning journey during design theory classes and in the design studio environment. However, the situation with the participants, like my relationship with my colleagues, did embody problematic aspects. For instance, there
may have been discrepancies between what I espoused as my stance and approach to teaching and learning, my behaviour in practice, and how the participants perceived my values and behaviour as a lecturer and design tutor. As I intimated earlier how we present ourselves to our research subjects has important consequences because once our “presentational self is cast” (p.707) it affects respondents’ perceptions which may influence the research activity positively or negatively (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Nonetheless, my relationship with the participants was also well-established, and my positive daily interactions with the group probably fostered confidence and built rapport in the interview interaction where I took on the role of the interviewer (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.708).

Earlier I indicated I drew on Tomlinson’s (1989, p.162) hierarchical focusing strategy to frame the interviewing. My understanding of Tomlinson’s (1989, p.162) model suggested I needed to address the following steps while planning, designing, and implementing the interview research activity:

1. Reviewing the key concepts associated with the theoretical domains that underpinned this study as I “construed” (p.162) them;
2. Identifying the main ideas and elements associated with rhetorical architectural meaning-making using multimodal communication resources that related to my research focus and whose “construal” (Tomlinson, 1989, p.162) I hoped to obtain from the interviewees;
3. Producing and representing a “hierarchical” (p.162), in other words, ranked set of questions, to investigate the key questions and concepts in a contextualised way, using this schedule as a structuring device to guide and record the participants’ interview responses during the interviews;
4. Executing the interviews as open-endedly as I could, using a tape recorder to record the proceedings, and utilising the strategies outlined in point three as non-directively as possible to minimise what Tomlinson (1989) refers to as “researcher framing and influence” (p.162);
5. Producing exact and literal transcripts and then analysing these given the protocols inherent in each transcription using the tape recordings to guide this process (Tomlinson, 1989, p.162).
For my purpose, this approach was advantageous because it provided the freedom for the conversations to develop more spontaneously while ensuring I addressed the key questions I identified in advance. As I said previously, although Fontana and Frey (2005, p.713) intimate using a range of techniques to capture non-verbal communications while interviewing is important, I focused more on this aspect of communicating in the observation process, rather than in the participants’ (or staff focus group) interviews. I did so because I did not want to continually disrupt the conversation between the respondents and I to take notes. Again, because of my deafness, I needed to look at the participants speaking to ensure I heard what they said. I did jot down brief summaries within each section, however, and related these notes back to the participants at the end of each section, to give them a chance to respond to any inaccuracies and as a way of preparing for the next section. Nonetheless, I paid attention to the nonverbal features of the interaction periodically, as I did in the staff focus group discussion. Again, I did so to record how the interviewees were using gestural and other nonverbal cues to reinforce the meanings of the words and other multimodal components they used to communicate their experiences and perceptions of the architectural meaning-making activities from the precedent task to me in the interviews (Angrosino, 2005; Tomlinson, 1980).

The Process

I agreed both a time and place for the interviews with the participants and invited them to bring their physical outputs from the precedent and review with them to their interview. I pre-booked an on-site library seminar room for a series of slots, spanning a week from Wednesday, March 9, 2016 to Wednesday, March 16, 2016, for each interview which was about an hour in duration. I prepared and agreed on a timetable for the interviews with the participants. Before the interviews commenced, I arranged the space physically to organise the seating arrangements so that I could maintain eye contact with the interviewee without making them feel uncomfortable. Usually, this entails sitting at an angle rather than directly opposite the interviewee (Opie, 2004). At the beginning of the interview, I outlined its function and how this linked to my guiding questions, before setting out how the interview would unfold. Then I showed the interviewee the recording process. The audio recording device was placed on the table between us. I began each interview with several questions about the respondent’s
current circumstances to break the ice before turning on the audio device. After that, I relied on my guiding framework to conduct the interviews. In the interview, I referred to the participant’s presentation materials for the precedent task. I concluded the interview sections with a summary of the main points to get feedback from the interviewee. At the end of the interaction, I expressed my thanks to each participant for taking part and gave them details about the next steps. Again, once each interview had concluded I uploaded the recording to my password protected computer.

**Ethical Considerations**

In the previous section, I set out my approach and the procedures I adopted, during the research activities, to discuss the research tools with my colleagues, observe the participants during the precedent review, administer the questionnaire, and interview them afterwards about their meaning-making experiences. I took care to address the main types of ethical concerns this type of study raises during these procedures. The research literature highlights the importance of taking the utmost care to ensure research subjects do not come to any physical or psychological harm during any part of the research process (Denscombe, 2010; Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.715; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009). Additionally, the research literature indicates responding to these concerns involves:

- Seeking and obtaining informed consent from the participants and explaining the overall research goals and objectives and their involvement in it, and describing the way data generated during the research activity would be employed in the research and later on;
- Addressing the respondent’s right to privacy by protecting their identity;
  And
- Guarding the research subjects from any type of physical or psychological injury (Denscombe, 2010; Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.715; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009).

In my ethics application to the University, which the ethics committee approved, I explained I was not identifying the institution, location or subjects who were part of this research project. To achieve this goal, I kept the signed consent forms confidential, and
anonymised the records that related to the textual, visual and physical outputs associated with the focus group interview, precedent review, questionnaire, observation, and interviewing processes. I did this, so the participants would not be identifiable in the report or literature resulting from the research. To that end, I kept and will continue to keep the research materials on a password protected computer and an external hard-drive in a locked filing cabinet off campus.

My research project involved anonymised data, and the research had the primary aim of being educational, that is, this was a piece of research undertaken as part of an Education Doctoral programme and was necessary for the EdD degree award. Also, I did not anticipate any physical or psychological problems concerning the research activity because my colleagues and the participants were adults and the research took place in their normal educational environment. The ways I went about the research activities, that is, focus group interview, observing the precedent review, administering a questionnaire, and interviewing the participants retrospectively about their meaning-making efforts during the precedent review, was like and shared many of the characteristics that underlay the teaching practices that then shaped how my colleagues and I operated, and the architectural students’ learning environment and experiences at the research site. Particularly during course team meetings and in design studio where students were familiar with dialoguing with tutors about their work; and observation is normal practice particularly during reviews which happen informally and formally at regular intervals during the students’ design projects over the academic year (Schön, 1991).

I made it clear to the architectural students at the outset participating in the project was voluntary and those who agreed to contribute were free to withdraw at any point. Also, I ensured the respondents understood they could refuse to answer any question posed in the questionnaire or interview interaction. I addressed all these matters in the preliminary meeting to explain the research and obtain informed consent from the architectural students to participate before the research activity commenced. During the analysis phase, I transcribed the observational proceedings recordings and interviews myself and sent a digital copy to each participant for verification. Afterwards, I kept the
materials, including the transcripts and audio and video records in a locked cabinet in a secure location.

However, I should point out I videotaped the observed review event and like many education researchers who use video as a data source I carried out a detailed analysis of strategically selected chunks and clips (Derry et al., 2010, p.10). I chose video clips that helped me carefully describe and document the roles of, and relationships between the different multimodal communicative resources the participants deployed during their presentation to address my research queries about their rhetorical practices within a social semiotic multimodality frame (Derry et al., 2010, p.10). For that reason, I could not use masking techniques on the video stills (Flewitt, 2006, p.33). Although I used video clips, I codified and anonymised personal information to provide for a level of participant anonymity and now the visuals chosen are represented in matrices format as visual imagery to restrict any further manipulation (Derry et al., 2010, p.36; Flewitt, 2006, p.33). Also, I took care to discuss my research goals and data generation process, including videoing the observed review, at my initial meeting with the students. Further, I included all the specifics on the consent form (Appendix 7, Volume Two) to ensure the participants were fully aware how all the data would be used and for what purposes (Derry et al., 2010, p.36). Video recording was regularly employed by the participants to document project activities, particularly during the vertical projects across all four years which typically run at the beginning of the first semester. The students used their phones or video-recorders to generate video footage or clips which they made use of in their presentations during the review for those projects. Further, it was likely the participants saw video recording as a socially accepted practice as they produce videos socially and educationally on various social media platforms including Facebook (Derry et al., 2010, p.37).

Another problematic ethical issue concerns how involved the researcher is with the group under investigation and how that involvement could affect the research activity overall (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p.715). As I outlined earlier, I operated in the research site as a lecturer and design tutor as this was a piece of insider research (Mercer, 2007). To address this situation as ethically as possible I explained my research role to the prospective respondents at the initial meeting and moved to assure them there was no
academic consequence associated with taking-part or not taking-part in the study. I went
about the research activities openly during the observation, questionnaire and interview
processes (Denscombe, p.179). Also, I addressed this matter somewhat by creating a
space for two of the research activities, the questionnaire and interviews, to take place
outside the participants’ daily schedule. I could not achieve this for the observational
activity because I needed to be present when the respondents were going through a live
review because I explored the meaning-making in its naturalistic setting (Angrosina,
2005). However, during the observation process associated with the precedent review,
I behaved unobtrusively during their presentation and subsequent dialogic interactions.
I made it clear at the outset if any respondent were uncomfortable with any aspect of the
observation work and communicated that to me confidentially I would withdraw from
their reviews. This did not happen. Finally, I attempted to surface and account for my
existing presuppositions about the respondents and consider how these matters might
affect how I interpreted their accounts of the meaning-making during the research
activities and analysis processes and while I was writing up this report.

Arguably, the participants benefited from their involvement in the research activities.
This benefit related to the fact the questionnaire and interview process gave each
respondent a chance to articulate their construal of their architectural meaning-making
and the role of the multimodal communications resources in that process for the
precedent task and accompanying review event that was the focus of the data collection
phases (Tomlinson, 1989). Hopefully, the critical and reflective practice that underpinned
and characterised being involved in the research activities helped the respondents,
review and modify their approaches to the precedent task in subsequent projects
positively, and develop a better awareness of how the multimodal resources they were
learning to use affected their designing efforts actively (Kitchener & King, 1991).

Concluding Comments
In this chapter, I documented my overall approach to the research including the reasons
I chose to use a focus group interview, observation, a self-administered questionnaire,
and semi-structured interviews to generate data about the participants’ rhetorical
meaning-making efforts using multimodal communication resources. Also, I discussed
some of the main factors influencing my approach to the research activities. I addressed my methodology for using the research tools and their associated implementation procedures and set out some of the ways I ensured I went about the study ethically. I move on now to discuss my findings and interpretations in Chapter Five, ‘The Materials of the Situation’.
5 The Materials of the Situation

Introduction

In this chapter, I endeavour to develop an analysis that is firstly, empirically convincing, and secondly, extends first-hand as well as theoretical evidence about architectural students’ architectural meaning-making from a social semiotic multimodality perspective (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.197; Snow et al., 2003, p.182). As I said at the outset, I view the research process as an individual and co-constructivist endeavour and so foreground both my own and the participants’ voices (Denscombe, 2010; Geertz, 1973, Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). Other voices are significant in the critical process also. Namely, the scholars I engaged with during the study and in the literature work in Chapter Two whose theories and research findings informed and shaped my analytical thinking (Snow et al., 2003, p.182).

Further, I aim to explicate and show the workings of my analytic process, so my readers understand how my themes, interpretations, and conclusions emerged (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.197). Figure 37 below, an excerpt from my early research notes (Appendix 13, p.454, Volume Two), maps the main elements I considered, to construct a detailed account of the participants social semiotic multimodal meaning-making (Holliday, 2002, pp.125-126).

Lastly, I endeavour to present transferable findings and interpretations that answer my research questions and link to existing research literature that sum up and structure the primary segments of my data regarding my main emerging thematic areas. Namely, insider knowledge and multimodal literacy; roles, relationships, and orchestration (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.197; Snow et al., 2003, p.183).
Figure 37: Working with the materials of the case. (Source: Holliday, 2002, pp.125-126)
My study is a small-scale examination of a unit incorporating eight students and four participating academics; engaging in three and one research activities respectively, over a relatively short period, in moderately sized physical spaces (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.121). Because the crit is a recurring, conventionalised feature of everyday life in this CoP, the practices happening in this situation are probably regarded as routine and unremarkable by its members (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.123). Thus, as I intimated previously, exploring the participants’ meaning-making through the social semiotic multimodality lens gave me the opportunity to look at something familiar in a new way (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010; Thomas, 2016). These dimensions provided me with a point of departure for sorting, condensing, and theorising about my data (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.121). The transcription, analysis, and interpretation process were ongoing from December 2015.

This chapter is organised into two parts. In Part One, I address the multimodal transcription and analytic process for the focus group interview, observation, questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. In Part Two, I address each thematic area mentioned above to present my findings, interpretations and emerging conclusions.

**Part One - The Analytic Process**

*Transcription*

Several phases characterised my analysis including, “data condensing”, and “data display”, diagnosis and verification (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014, p.11). I used mainly inductive analytical approaches, including thematic analysis, as I constructed, and interpreted the multimodal transcripts from the different data production activities and interrogated my findings and interpretations through the social semiotic multimodality lens (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Derry et al., 2010, p.10; Hatch, 2002; Holliday, 2002; Kvale, 2007; Mavers, 2012; Poland, 1995, 2001; Saldaña, 2016; Thomas, 2016). Essentially the themes and categories that emerged from the coding work were the building blocks for my interpretative process (Thomas, 2016, p.204).
The Data

The data corpus is made up of data sets generated from administering my four research instruments, which serve different purposes in the analysis prompting my decision to use several analytic tools within the overarching social semiotic multimodality framework (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.78; Hatch, 2002, pp.161-166). The focus group is an antecedent, the multimodal observation transcript is the primary object of analysis, the questionnaire is also a framing component, and the semi-structured interviews are part of the post-observation reflective process (Saldaña 2016, p.2; Thomas, 2016, p.13). The data comprised, audio recordings; research notes; analytic memos; video footage, video stills; spatial photos; and, photos of the students’ drawings, sketches, diagrams, and imagery (Denscombe, 2010, p.273).

The Transcription Process

The focus group, observation, and semi-structured interview audio recordings were initially transcribed and annotated using ‘Scrivener’ writing software and then transferred into Word during the “first-cycle” (Saldaña 2016, p.67) coding process (Denscombe, 2010, pp.275-276). I found using the Scrivener platform invaluable as I could listen as I transcribed, and repeat segments of the audio recordings multiple times without losing my place. However, I transcribed the audio recordings in different ways. The focus group data was intended to provide information regarding the research tools effectiveness and related viewpoints about the research study. For that reason, readability was an important consideration in the transcription process, and I paid close attention to sentence structure and punctuation including omitting interjections from the final transcript (Denscombe, 2010, p.275). I transcribed the semi-structured interviews in the same way because this data served to corroborate the observation analysis and emerging findings, and again readability was an important consideration. The questionnaire, on the other hand, had to be transcribed verbatim because I was transferring what the participants wrote in hard copy into an electronic format. Also, I was examining what the participants said to uncover their stated interests regarding their studies (Denscombe, 2010, p.275). I transcribed the observation audio verbatim because the participants’ meaning-making during the observed review was the main object of analysis concerning
semiosis. However, I did add punctuation marks to provide some level of sentence structure (Denscombe, 2010, pp.275-276; Poland, 2001, pp.632-633).

Issues

The focus group recording was the most difficult to transcribe because of my hearing disability. My four colleagues and I conversed around a large table in the library seminar room, and those who were seated further away from the microphone were harder to hear in the recording. With the benefit of hindsight, it would have been easier had I used an omnidirectional recorder and a video device (with built-in audio) to record the proceedings. I found being able to move between the audio and video recordings for the observation transcription process invaluable for cross-checking I was transcribing what was being said accurately (Denscombe, 2010, pp.276-277; Poland, 2001, p.632). Nonetheless, videoing the focus group could have created other problems regarding focusing on what was being said or having to involve a third party to record the process which might have impacted negatively on the proceedings (Denscombe, 2010, pp.276-277). More generally, I was not prepared for the difficulties that arose while visually representing the multimodal observation transcripts and overlaid analysis comprehensively in the doctoral document. Producing composite graphics was a time-consuming and at times frustrating endeavour (Mavers, 2012, p.3).

Further, people spoke over each other, interrupted each other, used interjections, pauses and silences, and spoke in disjointed and run-on sentences in the interviewing and observation events (Denscombe, 2010, pp.276-277; Poland, 2001, p.632). I removed interjections and added punctuation in the interview transcript so that the conversation made sense in a written form particularly for those not present during recording or not party to the shared terminology operating in this CoP (Denscombe, 2010, p.276; Poland, 2001, p.632). However, I did not restructure the dialogue in the multimodal observation transcript because I needed to understand talking’s role in the participants’ meaning-making interaction to answer my research queries, and pauses, silences and interjections are considered an essential rhetorical component of structuring dialogue (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.33-34; Kress, 2010, pp.144-145).
Then, two of the participants are not native English speakers and their accents, and the fact they often constructed sentences incorrectly, complicated the transcription process further. Also, I was not familiar with transcription conventions, therefore, I kept my notation simple so that I would remember what symbols to use while transcribing (Denscombe, 2010, p.277). I drew on the Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE, 2007) transcription guidelines and I produced a legend for the transcription process. I did not show intonation unless it was emphatic, nor did I notate emphasis or accent. I did, however, indicate pauses and silences. For this reason, it is fair to say in some ways the data was reconstructed in the transcribing process and so possibly lost some of its meaning (Denscombe, 2010, p.277).

Finally, I considered the fact that what the respondents said during the focus group and semi-structured interviews might be mediated by my presence and the way I posed questions and responded to the dialogue as the interaction progressed during the group and individual interviews (Holliday, 2002, pp.107-108). Although I framed these events as co-constructivist meaning-making activities and briefed the participants about my overall approach, how I behaved on the day probably affected the way the participants responded. Thus, some of what the respondents said may not represent what they were thinking (Denscombe, 2010; Geertz, 1973; Holliday, 2002, p.108; Holstein & Gubrium, 2004).

Other challenges posed by the transcription process related to my previous comments about readability (Kvale, 2007, p.44; Poland, 2001, p.633). I was aware verbal interaction often appears incoherent to those who read it, and I did not want to present the participants in a way that compromised their integrity (Poland, 2001, p.633). To address these contradictory concerns, I restricted my interventions to removing interjections and adding punctuation marks in the interview transcripts. As I said above, I did not restructure the observation dialogue component of the multimodal observation transcripts. In this instance, the dialogue could be read in context in the transcript which included video stills showing nonverbal actions and visual media representations. The multimodal nature of the observation transcript probably made it easier to understand the dialogue even when it appeared less structured than written prose (Mavers, 2012, pp.2-3).
Analytical Approach

I first considered my analytic moves while contemplating how to administer the four research tools to generate the data necessary to answer my research questions (Kvale, 2007, pp.121-122; Miles et al., 2014, pp.9-10). The social semiotic multimodality lens provided me with an overarching framework as I looked for patterns of meaning across the focus group interview, observation, questionnaire and semi-structured interviewing data (Hatch, 2002, p.161). In the early stages, I assigned codes and thematic ideas to field notes, interview transcription, the questionnaire matrix and the preliminary observation matrices (Mavers, 2012, p. 5; Miles et al., 2014, pp.9-10; Thomas, 2016, pp.204-205). As matters progressed, I sorted and analysed my data to identify semantic relationships (Figure 38. See Appendix 13, Volume Two, p.455), themes, and categories, making notes and analytic memos throughout (Spradley, 1979, pp.110-111). The process led to emerging final themes across the data sets and a small set of suppositions regarding insider knowledge levels; the dynamic nature of the interplay between modes in the participants’ orchestrations; and literacy concerns associated with the participants’ signs of engagement and learning (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Miles et al., 2014, pp.10-11).

I analysed the multimodal data manually using composite analysis approaches to condense the data, drawing on and linking back to the theories and strategies I uncovered in my literature work (Derry et al., 2010, p.10; Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.195). My deafness, however, had a significant impact on the time and effort it took me to produce the multimodal transcripts across the data sets. The upside of this extended multiple listening and viewing activity was that the sustained engagement provided ongoing opportunities to analyse what was going on concurrently with the transcription activity (Hatch, 2002; Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.196; Miles & et al., 2014; Poland, 2001, p.630; Saldaña, 2016; Thomas, 2016). I carried out what Miles et al. (2014, p.69) and others,
refer to as preliminary or first-cycle coding to begin ascribing meaning to the data within a multimodal architectural social semiotic framework (Hatch, 2002, p.148; Lofland & Lofland, 2006, pp.198-200; Saldaña, 2016, p.67; Thomas, 2016, p.187). Further, the early analytic activity then shaped my decision-making about the emerging themes. In turn laying the foundations for the focused coding for generating the evidence required to address my research queries (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, pp.198-201; Saldaña, 2016, p.67; Thomas, 2016, p.187). Figure 39 below is a visual representation of the condensing process. The kinds of questions I asked myself about the data during the “mindwork” (Wolcott, 2002, p. 102) associated with the analytic phase included, ‘What does this segment represent?’ ‘What is this piece of data an example of?’ ‘What is going on?’ ‘What is the participant saying?’ ‘How do the structure and context surrounding the meaning-making serve to support, transform or obstruct, these meaning-making orchestrations?’ (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.201).
Figure 39: The data condensing process. (Source: Saldaña, 2016, p.14)
Focus Group Interview with Colleagues

Initially, I endeavoured to capture the ideas that surfaced in the focus group discussion, and then I grouped these thematically reductively until four central themes emerged (Miles et al., 2014, pp.10-11). I moved from establishing twenty-three labels to four codes or what Spradley (1979, pp.110-111) calls “cover terms” relating to, the research project, multimodality, architectural precedents, and learning. I grouped all the coded elements that related semantically to what Spradley (1979, pp.110-114) denotes as “included terms” within these four specific domains. For instance, I attached ideas materialising from the dialogue that related to precedents, like the role of precedent exploration in architectural education, and the nature of precedent study, including its iterative and mimetic characteristics, to the precedent study (cover term) label as examples of rationale, function, cause-effect semantic relationships (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.50; Gebauer & Wulf, 1995, p.5; Spradley, 1979, pp.110-111). In the initial matrix, I had columns for codes, label descriptors, notes, analytic memos and quotations. I produced a preliminary and then final summary sheet to group the emerging themes collectively as the analytic process continued. In the extracts below (Figures 40, 41, and 42) I highlight how the concern relating to which research tool should be administered first, progressed.
During my reflective and analytical process following the focus group interview, I identified the order in which I administered the research tools was a significant consideration, from an ethical and practical standpoint, that I must respond to, a research project concern.

My colleagues' dialogue raised pertinent concerns about administering the questionnaire first regarding the negative impact doing so would have on the participants' meaningful-making efforts during the observed review process from a research perspective, ethically and practically.

I took on board their comments and reordered the research events so that I carried out the observation first, then administered the questionnaire and finally, conducted the semi-structured interview process.

Figure 40: Extract questionnaire matrices. (Source: Appendix 1A: focus group matrices, Volume Two, p.302)
Figure 41: Extract questionnaire matrices - summary sheet B. (Source: Appendix 1A: focus group matrices, Volume Two, p.299)
Figure 42: Extract questionnaire matrices - summary sheet A. (Source: Appendix 1A: focus group matrices, Volume Two, p.299)
Observation

I reflected critically on the observation process via multiple video footage viewings and repeatedly listening to the audio recordings. As I transcribed and viewed, I made decisions about which video footage components would best delineate the roles, relationships and orchestration element (Denscombe, 2010; Opie, 2004, pp.122-123; Tomlinson, 1989). As the analysis progressed, I included layers of textual and visual information regarding studying the observation, questionnaire, and interviewing processes (Mavers, 2012, pp.2-3). The multimodal observation transcripts matrices included columns for written dialogue, video footage stills, observation notes and reflective notes to self, visual media, and written description and explanation about the participants’ nonverbal communications (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.194; Miles et al., 2014, pp.9-10). Please refer to Appendix 1D1-1D8 (Volume Two, pp.358-402). In the example below (Figure, 43), I highlight a note I added regarding what ASP1 said during her interview about the way the time slots variances impacted on her performance during the review.

Transcribing and constructing the observation transcripts multimodally in the manner I did was founded on my decision to explore the participants’ meaning-making through the social semiotic multimodality lens (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.7; Mavers, 2012, p.2). Also, this decision was based on considering what was required to answer my queries about the roles, relationships between, and performative aspect of the nonverbal, talk, text and visual means in the participants’ orchestrations during the review (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.7; Mavers, 2012, p.5). I was aware asking myself questions ‘multimodally’ about how the participants used communicative resources while they carried out the precedent task was a way of getting at the meaning inherent in their communicative processes (Spradley, 1979, p.156). Further, examining how the different modes related to each other in the orchestration via multimodal means was essential to uncover the semiotic function the modes performed within the sign-making complex in the meaning-making process (Kress, 2010; Spradley, 1979, p.156).
Figure 43: Excerpt ASP1 multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D1, Volume Two, p.358)
Therefore, the multimodal observation transcripts matrices are multimodal constructions, and they include video stills, dialogue clips from the audio recordings relating to the video footage, and written commentary drawing on the questionnaire and interviews analysis (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.192). I am aware I might be in unchartered waters regarding the theoretical dimensions of multimodal transcription. However, I adopted the constructivist view architectural representation, and social semiotic multimodality theories, influenced my decision-making about the construction and representation process (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.193). Also, I consider the research to be semiotic work as I analysed, interpreted and reconstructed the participants’ meaning-making through the social semiotic multimodality lens using multimodal resources (Kress, 2020; van Leeuwen, 2005). Moreover, I accept the central role I had in the research story, regarding questions about how to frame the multimodal observation transcripts, what to include and show, and what to leave out (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, pp.193-194; Kress, 2010).

Many of the above decisions emerged during the research design phase and literature work regarding the overlapping interests between architecture and social semiotic multimodality in Chapter Two (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.194). Essentially, I theorised the multimodal observation transcripts represented core evidence for building the case around the participants’ meaning-making in this research study (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.194). The video stills clips were chosen to represent multimodal interaction as it unfolded temporally and to capture all the different communicative resources being deployed in this setting to delineate, analyse, and interpret semiosis (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.194). Further, the choices I made regarding the video extracts were informed by my rhetorical aims to communicate the workings of the participants’ meaning-making (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.194). Lastly, I took the position the transcripts were not standalone artefacts because they are part of my doctoral journey and so are framed by that process (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, pp.194-197).

**Questionnaire**

Uncovering what the meaning-making activities meant to the participants engaged in producing meaning semiotically was an essential consideration in my deliberations
(Erickson, 1985, p.19; Hatch, 2002, p.7; Kress, 2010). I transcribed the completed forms into an electronic format verbatim, and then as the examination proceeded I constructed a matrix divided into two parts. In the first half, I included the participants’ written responses in columns for the questions concerning facts, and then those regarding values and beliefs. In the second half, I added notes to each of the participants’ responses (Appendix 10, Volume Two, p.430). In the extracts below (Figures 4 & 45), firstly, I have highlighted ASP4’s commentary about the way her distinct cultural heritage and language difficulties impacted on her as a learner in this setting. Secondly, I reflect on the implications regarding learning and literacy.
Figure 44: Excerpt ASP4 questionnaire matrix. (Source: Appendix 1B, Volume Two, p.321)
Reflecting on the impact of ASP4’s Syrian background, distinct alphabet, culture, architectural forms, terminologies, materials, values and beliefs, on her learning experiences.

Increases the amount of time it takes her to learn as she navigates these differences, including trying to absorb and make sense of the shared practices and beliefs in this research setting – in turn impacts negatively on completing design tasks as prescribed.

Perception language difficulties hindering concreting her design thinking.

These reflections informed my emerging findings about the problems facing this group of architectural students gaining access to and participating fully in the shared stocks of knowledge in the CoP at the research site.

Figure 45: Extract ASP4 questionnaire matrix. (Source: Appendix 1B, Volume Two, p. 322)
Semi-structured Interviews

I drew on Kress (2010, pp.1-343) to structure and compose the semi-structured interview guiding script under headings based on Kress’s (2010) framework. I translated these criteria to relate to the participants’ meaning-making actions during the precedent study process namely, discourse (design thinking), design (deconstructing the precedent), production (designing and preparing your presentation materials) and dissemination (the review). These criteria formed my analysis frame, although some data became attached to more than one category as analysis progressed (Appendix 11, Volume Two, p.440) (Hatch, 2002, pp.161-166). Further, the criteria linked directly to the semiosis process inherent in constructing orchestrated ensembles, and this made it easier to relate the emerging themes from the interviews to what emerged from analysing the multimodal observation transcripts (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2010). Again, I began the transcription and analytic process by transcribing the audio recording using Scrivener and later transferring this into Word. Once the participants verified their transcripts, I constructed a series of matrices in Excel first and then later Word to correlate and summarise questions and responses. In the example below (Figure 46) issues concerning managing the digital environment regarding research, and problems relating to insider knowledge and literacy about how to use visual resources analytically are surfacing as ASP2 shows me her presentation sheets during her responses to question 1B which concerned the ways the designer’s ideas were realised in their architecture.
In these extracts, the ASP quotations are colour coded on the right-hand side, my commentary from the initial matrix is to the left of quotations, also colour coded to match related quotation. Analytic memos are in the long column.

Here my reflections are pointing to the possibility there may be a teaching issue concerning FS in DS and or a related insider knowledge/literacy and mindwork problem regarding the way the ASP use the material they find during their desktop research deductively to fill in gaps in the materials they sourced via a via what they require to construct the precedent story. ASP was showing me visual materials from her presentation artefacts as she spoke that did not support her discussion (from an academic expectation viewpoint), this happened during the RP also.

Figure 46: Extract interview summary sheets, Q1B. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.332)
**Concluding Comment**

In sum, I organised the data sets into what Miles et al. (2014, p.12) call “compressed” constructs to produce the coded thematic summaries for the focus group interview, questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews (Saldaña 2016, pp.3-4). The literature work continued alongside the analysis work and informed the inferences that began to emerge which I captured in notes and analytic memos (Hatch, 2002, p.181; Miles et al., 2014, p.13). The conclusions resulting from the iterative analysis are mainly diagnostic and generative, though sometimes deductive because I had an overarching analytic frame and specific research questions (Denscombe, 2010, pp.272-273; Derry et al. 2010, p.10; Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.195). I saw myself as the central lynchpin in an interactive analytical process concerning the participants, the data and the theories I explored in the literature work (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.196).

Editing and analysing continued in an integrative fashion in the writing process as I drew on the data sets and decided what to emphasise in the main body and what should remain in the background in the appendices (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.195). Thus, I remained involved in an ongoing transduction and translation process during the transcription, analysis, and interpretation phase, and while writing this document, as I explicated what was going on in this research setting to answer my research questions (Bezemer & Mavers, 2011, p.196).

The results that emerged from analysing and interpreting the focus group transcripts helped me review and refine my overall approach to the project and informed my intentions regarding administering the research tools. The results and subsequent interpretations that surfaced from transcribing and analysing the questionnaire and semi-structured interview transcripts informed, supported and corroborated the multimodal observation transcripts analytic process (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The findings and interpretations materialising from constructing and analysing the multimodal observation transcripts constituted the core component of answering my research questions about the participants’ meaning-making from the social semiotic multimodality viewpoint.
Before I move onto the findings, interpretations and ensuing conclusions I should point out the outcomes from the analysis process embody the “situated, context-specific data” (p.143) I generated in this distinct architectural meaning-making site (Dannels, 2005, p.143; Lawson & Dorst, 2005, p.3). I cannot say, nor do I intend to imply, these results represent the whole story or that they could be generalised across all architectural students’ meaning-making contexts (Dannels, 2005, p.143; Hammersley, 2011; Thomas, 2016, p.4; Yin, 2009). Although it is likely the emerging conclusions point to similarities in architectural students’ multimodal social semiotic meaning-making practices in other architectural programmes and for that reason are transferable in a practical way (Dannels, 2005, p.143; Hammersley, 2011; Thomas, 2016, p.4; Yin, 2009). As I said at the outset, what I produced is a partial representation of a larger architectural meaning-making reality (Hammersley, 2011, p.20).

Part Two - Findings, Interpretations and Emerging Conclusions

Three thematic areas concerning insider knowledge, literacy, and dynamic interplay, emerged and evolved while I was condensing, analysing and interpreting the evidence (Miles et al., 2014, p.12; Thomas, 2016, pp.204-207). Acknowledging, corroborating, and adopting these thematic considerations framed my decision-making regarding selecting specific extracts to address my research queries (Miles et al., 2014, p.13; Taylor, 2014, p.408). For that reason, there are overlapping features in the questionnaire, interview and multimodal observation transcript extracts, regarding the premises I discuss. Further, as I indicated previously, I put the observed review centre-stage, and I relied on and synthesised my findings and interpretation regarding the other fieldwork to corroborate my findings, interpretations and emerging conclusions (Taylor, 2014, p.408).

Setting the Scene

The curriculum for our programme is written in the productive form in common with most HE institutions in Ireland, Britain and Europe (Kennedy et al., 2007). Moreover, the programme’s ethos, curriculum, and course modules encompass criteria incorporated in the HE policy documentation concerning architectural education referred to earlier including the Quality and Qualifications Ireland (QQI, 2014) awards standards for
architecture and RIBA (2014) validation procedures. Therefore, the general Irish societal environment, along with government and professional accreditation bodies’ policies affect and inform the programme’s overall vision, subject content, and teaching and learning approaches. The conventions embodied in course documentation and pedagogical practices the participants must assimilate and adopt in this CoP stem from and relate to these policies’ criteria as well as the general HE policies that shape the students’ daily lives in this Irish HE IoT institution (Ball, 1993; Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Wenger, 1998a). Thus, the programme’s lecture content, design studio projects, and assessment processes stem from specific LO outlined in curriculum module documentation that, as I said above, are based on, aligned with, and mapped to a range of architectural education policy documentation (Figure 47. See Appendix 15, Volume Two, pp.177-178 for the full map).

Below, I address some of the conventions and shared practices operating in this CoP relating to the research focus that underscores the ‘becoming’ process many scholars highlight is a fundamental component of transformation (Faulconbridge, 2010; Morton, 2012; Takayama, 2009, p.6; Wenger, 1998a, p.62). Afterwards, I move on to discuss my research findings, interpretations and ensuing conclusions.
### Figure 47: Mapping to RIBA criteria. (Source: Programme Curriculum, BAAD, 2014, p.68)

In this map, communication resources are mentioned in RIBA criteria GC 1.1 and addressed in DS in Year 1, 2, and 3, but assessed in Year 4.

The other highlighted, RIBA criteria, GC 2 and GC 3 concern the historical and theoretical aspects of architecture and the related arts, technologies and human sciences.
Curriculum and Conventions

The academic focus in design studio at the research site involves helping students extend, consolidate, and integrate the knowledge and skills they address across the subject areas into their design work efficiently. By the time their final project commences in the second semester, the third-year student is considered a well-established member of this CoP. Nonetheless how the students perceive their learning context is known to directly affect their interests and disposition towards the learning experience and their decision-making for future action which is also understood to impact on their meaning-making endeavours from the social semiotic multimodality angle (Biggs, 1993, p.75; Kress, 2010).

In Figure 48 I include extracts from RIBA and QQI criteria about communication and relate these to third-year representation LO. What I find noteworthy is how generic the descriptors about communication are in both policy examples. Also, if you refer to the full extracts in Appendices 14, 15 and 16 (Volume Two, pp.457-471), you can see communication is not addressed directly in detail anywhere else in either document. Instead, it appears both texts encompass a set of validation conditions which probably delimit how educators address contemporary communication theory and practice (Ball, 1993, p.12).

Educators, like ourselves, must demonstrate, via the academic curriculum and education practices particularly student portfolios, multimodal communicative resources are being competently deployed in the design context in ways that conform to the conceptions of quality and standards inherent in validation criteria. Otherwise, our programmes may not receive or retain accreditation. Thus, the multimodal outputs from the programme, including the students’ work, must conform to conventional professional principles about architectural meaning-making. Consequently, it is likely our curriculum’s design and our programme delivery via our pedagogical approaches are actively reinforcing and legitimising the status-quo concerning architecture’s education and professional practices (Steer, et al., 2007, p.175; Vowles, 2000; Wilkin, 2000).
Figure 48: From policy to programme learning outcomes. (Source: Appendix 14, 15 and 16, Volume Two, pp.457-471)
The course team at the research site meet regularly to discuss and refine the programme’s ethos, aims, objectives, and subject content, including architectural representation, analogue and digital. During these conversations, we make decisions about how to integrate the theoretical and practical components to meet professional accreditation criteria in a way that reflects our distinctive regional focus (Figure 49).

![The undergraduate programme is characterised by four core themes:](image)

**Place** – A connectedness to place through interpreting and responding to the characteristics embodied in existing buildings, with an awareness of the wider context and existing community and the occupation of space;

**Existing Buildings** – Our industry relevant re-use agenda develops the potential and sustainability of the built environment into the future with a focus on new and exciting ways to re-imagine our existing built environment through utilizing a broad spectrum of adaptive re-use typologies;

**Interior** – A vision of architecture where the interior environment is both influenced by, and influential upon, the whole built environment;

**Environment** – Integrated technologically informed solutions which acknowledge environmental responsibility as an underlying philosophy for design in the built environment.

*Figure 49: Programme vision. (Source: IoT website)*

Our formal input regarding architectural communication focuses mainly on teaching procedural knowledge and skills, in the analogue and digital environment, associated with choosing and using different communicative resources collectively in various design related situations that conform to accreditation criteria as the LOs in Figure 48 indicates. Constructing multimodal communicative ensembles and orchestrating them proficiently in distinct scenarios is something educators at the research site address, but not from the social semiotic multimodality perspective. Instead, the focus is on the productive, analytical, and reflexive problem-solving aspects of designing and communicating design output (Allan, 2013; Ochsner, 2000; Schön, 1984, 1987, 1991).

The participants had the opportunity to gain access to, and participate in this shared knowledge-base and communicative repertoire in several ways including via:
• Engaging and assimilating learning across the knowledge bases and skills incorporated in different subject modules including representation (Webster, 2005, p.267);
• Formative and summative assignment feedback in each module including design studio (Webster, 2005, p.267);
• Interacting with their tutors and peers socially and educationally across the programme and in design studio enculturation processes like the review that is the focus of this research (Webster, 2005, p.267).

The Review Scenario for the Observed Review Event
The observed review took place in the third-year design studio. The crit areas in this space are approximately two-metre-high medium-density fibreboard (MDF) bays constructed in U-shaped configurations around the room’s perimeter (Figure 50). How students organise these spaces and use the crit bay walls as visual aids is considered an important pedagogical aspect of communicating their design work effectively at the research site, as doing so is known to help focus, illustrate and reinforce their thinking about the role of representation in designing (Dannels, 2005, p.147).

Figure 50: The design studio.
The participants were required to pin their precedent study responses to present their findings during the observed review. While the two design tutors manage design studio and direct the learning process, ultimately, the students must organise each learning task. All the academics on the course team work hard to model, and foster, a friendly, collaborative environment as Figure 51 reveals (Sara & Parnell, 2004).

Figure 51: Extract interview summary sheets, Q4A and Q4D. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.349 & p.356)

The review is intended to give the students, a useful learning opportunity, collectively and individually; an opportunity to contribute commentary on others’ work; receive feedback on their work-in-progress; practice orchestrating a communicative ensemble as a way of selling their work and developing their ideas (Kress, 2010; Norris, 2004; Sara & Parnell, 2004, p.1). A critical aspect of ‘performing’ well in the review from the academic position involves the students ensuring the visual analytical evidence is in place that relates to the spoken and gestural message being conveyed by them during the review (Dannels, 2005, p.147; Holgate, 2008, p.7).
While the design studio setting remained constant throughout the observed review (Figure 53), at the end of each crit, the next presenter left their place amongst the audience and moved into their individual crit space to present their response to the precedent task outlined in the project brief.
Project Brief

Affordable housing is a well-established and critical design consideration worldwide (Salama & Alshuwaikhat, 2006, p.35). Housing is the subject of national policy in Ireland as it is in many countries dealing with the fact demand for housing exceeds existing building stocks (Department of Housing, Planning & Local Government, 2017, p.1; Salama & Alshuwaikhat, 2006, p.36). In fact, increasing the housing supply to address homelessness in Ireland is an ongoing governmental issue (Figure 54).

The ‘Social Housing’ brief opened with several significant architectural quotations about designing dwellings from well-known architectural practitioners positioned under several iconic housing design images (Figure 55). In these quotations, which were undoubtedly chosen by the tutors to express the intended project focus, core concept terms associated with designing affordable housing signalled the way forward for the participants. These core heterogeneous conceptual considerations included sustainability (using natural resources responsibly), positive design (subjective well-being), passive design (using natural elements, like the sun’s energy, to heat, cool or light...
a building while minimising energy consumption), spatiality, light and materiality, and financial considerations.

Further, the ideas conveyed in the quotations (Figure 55) reflect the designers’ design standpoints, thereby denoting what architectural discourse or ideology looks like in print and what it looks like visually viz-a-viz the architectural imagery (Kress, 2010, pp.199-200). The diverse issues interwoven into the design conversations about dwelling represented in these quotations is an established feature of design discourse (Kuhn, 2001, p.350). Further, the abstract concepts the quoted designers mention point to the contemporary fragmented nature of architectural discourse concerning ethical and consumerist values, thereby reflecting the wider societal situation in a political, social, and economic sense (Delanty, 2013, p.68; Kress, 2010, pp.49-50).

As you can see from my comment (Figure 55), I noted several participants reuse some of this terminology orally in their reviews, although few represented these terms directly on their presentation sheets. My concern related to emerging questions about whether the evidence, embodied in the participants’ presentation artefacts, oral expressions or orchestrations, showed the participants had a critical understanding of:

- What these concepts meant in design terms;
- How they related to the broader discourse;
• How such issues were addressed and manifested in the precedents they examined (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; pp.13-16; Kress, 2009b, p.22; Kress, 2010, pp.295-296).

The project’s stated goal was to inspire ground-breaking solutions to housing and highlight how societal and technical aspirations can be realised through sustainable, intelligent design (Figure 56). Intelligent design relates to integrating a building’s structure, assembly, systems, and services, to produce sustainable, flexible, technologically advanced, cost-efficient, and environmentally responsive architectural building solutions that allow the user to regulate their local environments efficiently for human comfort (So & Wong, 2002, p.208; Wong, Li, & Wang, 2005).

While the brief contained clues about what designers consider significant housing issues, and the tutors’ stance on the design considerations, the concepts and underlying discourse is not discussed in detail. Nor is there explicit direction about the way the precedent task links to and could mediate the diverse issues highlighted in the brief. However, I should point out these topics are supposed to be addressed elsewhere in subject content as they relate directly to RIBA and QQI criteria (Figures 57 & 58).
### GC4
**Adequate knowledge of urban design, planning and the skills involved in the planning process**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>theories of urban design and the planning of communities</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>the influence of the design and development of cities and current planning policy</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>the planning control legislation, including social, environmental and economic aspects and the relevance of these to design development</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### GC5
**Understanding of the relationship between people and buildings, and between buildings and their environment, and the need to relate buildings and the spaces between them to human needs and scale**

| 1 | the needs and aspirations of building users | O | O | O | O | O | O | O | X | X |
|---|-------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | the impact of buildings on the environment, and the precepts of sustainable design | O | O | O | O | O | O | O | O | X | X |
| 3 | the way in which buildings fit into their local context | O | O | O | O | O | O | O | O | X | X |

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**Figure 57: Mapping to RIBA criteria 2.** *(Source: Programme curriculum, BAAD, 2014, p.68. Appendix 15, Volume Two, pp.462-464)*

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### GC9
**Adequate knowledge of physical problems and technologies and the functions of buildings so as to provide them with internal conditions of comfort and protection against the climate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>principles associated with designing optimum visual, thermal and acoustic environments</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>systems for environmental comfort realised within relevant precepts of sustainable design</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>strategies for building services, and ability to integrate these in a design project</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Figure 58: Extract QQI Awards Standards- Architecture.** *(Source: Quality and Qualifications Ireland, 2014, p.5. Appendix 14, Volume Two, p.460)*

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175
From the social semiotic multimodality angle, I understood the project brief to be a piece of multimodal semiotic work that mediates curriculum and accreditation policy considerations (Ball, 1993; Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Kress, 2010; Wenger, 1998a). The signs the tutors made, via writing and imagery, were probably intended to, and materialised what the tutors were interested in and focusing on, and, their intentions for the direction the brief should take (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.50-51; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.174). The brief was, in fact, a distinct kind of multimodal pedagogical ensemble that offered the participants opportunities for transposing or reconstructing meaning inwardly via analysing the text (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.61-62). However, the students needed to know how to deconstruct this brief (including unpicking their tutors’ rhetorical moves) and do the necessary “mindwork” (Wolcott, 2002, p.102) to, uncover and address the significant issues and underlying discourse; understand their tutors focus and intent; and link what was being said to what was required in the precedent and other design related tasks. Deconstructing briefs is an ongoing pedagogical activity in every year and the subject knowledge they incorporate is addressed theoretically and practically across the programme and so is a form of embodied shared knowledge and practice within this CoP (Berger & Luckmann, 1991; Kress, 2010; Wenger, 1998a). However, I am not sure the participants had assimilated the ‘insider’ knowledge or resources repertoire necessary to analyse and address this brief effectively regarding the precedent task (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.59-60). The evidence suggested otherwise, and I revisit this topic later.

I found the precedent aspect of the brief problematic (Figure 59). The tutors stated the participants must use the analytical techniques they outlined but did not specify where these were in the text (Figure 59). Nonetheless, investigating the design terminologies and finding out more about the architectural practitioners’ views quoted in the text were probably intended departure points for the research process. This issue possibly relates to academic expectations about the participants’ proficiency level in the third-year (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.58-60). Several participants spoke about their difficulties accessing the necessary multimodal information for at least one of the assigned precedents, mainly the competition entry, during the interviews (Figure 60). ASP8 said she sourced and deconstructed a non-assigned precedent for that reason drawing on the
verbal direction given in design studio (Figure 61). Whereas ASP5 indicated he stayed with his allocated precedents and did not seek further direction (Figure 62).

The participants’ different response actions raised a question concerning the wisdom of relying on verbal instructions. If the precedent protocols had been written into the brief and delivered orally, at least students encountering difficulties would have had both an aural and a permanent record, and a chance to clarify the written instructions for the precedent undertaking at the time the brief was introduced (Beacham & Alty, 2006, pp.76-77). However, currently, it is not a standard pedagogical practice to provide this level of detail in design briefs in later years in the research site as the project briefs typically become more open-ended frames for discussion as the student progresses (Kuhn, 2001, p.349; Kvan, 2001, p.348). Additionally, I followed the sources the participants sent me to verify the matters they raised in the interviews about sourcing data. Uncovering additional relevant data, led me to question the participants’ assumed competency and literacy regarding managing working in the digital environment skilfully (Ala-Mutka, 2011, p.21).

The research literature I explored in Chapter Two draws attention to the fact using digital technologies does not necessarily result in “advanced digital competence”, in a theoretical and praxis sense (Ala-Mutka, 2011, p.5; Oxman, 2008). Further, architectural education is in a state of flux regarding the debate about operating in the digital environment generally and designing digitally. Some academics, like myself, are reluctant to put aside teaching students to work in the analogue environment entirely to focus solely on adopting the emerging theoretical vocabularies and design process associated with using digital technologies because of the acknowledged connection between visual reasoning and drawing by hand (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.ix; Bar-Eli, 2013, p.472; Do & Gross, 2001, p.2; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Eris et al., 2014, pp.561-562; Medway, 1994; Oxman, 2008, p.111). Nonetheless, as I intimated elsewhere becoming literate in either environment requires education and sustained engagement (Ala-Mutka, 2011; Lawson, 2004; Lawson & Dorst, 2005; Feldhusen, 2005). A core issue for the programme at the research site concerns whether it is feasible or possible to become proficient in both environments over the four-year programme, and, address all the other necessary
theoretical and practical components mentioned earlier in ways that conform to accreditation criteria (Lawson, 2004; Lawson & Dorst, 2005; Feldhusen, 2005).
We have now seen that this 'boom' was unsustainable and many of Ireland's leading practices have re-evaluated the importance of domestic design. We can see this through a series of successful projects that are defined through the principles of good architectural practice: choreographing context and programme, specifically as well as the generic, issues of cost efficiency and innovation, modern methods of construction as well as arts. Sustainability, ecology, complex planning policy and the needs of the client and building users.

The objective of this project is to encourage innovation in house and housing design to show new social and technological ambitions can be met by intelligent design. As architects, we must remember that the housing is not in isolation, but is one contributing to the local. As such we are under an obligation to adhere to sustainable values, to create buildings which have a long life and re-use, and which are able to accommodate evolving uses for changing patterns of life and need.

To paraphrase J.K. Stirling, the good house develops style and grows with its inhabitants, the style of the house being the style of the family, not the architect.

**Figure 59: Project brief excerpt 3. Precedent study.** (Source: Appendix 3, Volume Two, p.406)
Figure 60: Extract interview summary sheets, QIC. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.334)

Figure 61: Extract interview summary sheets, Q2A. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.337)

Figure 62: Extract interview summary sheets, Q2C. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.341)
The Precedent Study Task

Several planned learning intentions for the precedent task underpinned the project brief namely:

- An overarching view the students extend their existing design vocabulary and develop a position concerning the specific design issue being considered via using multimodal communicative resources during their research, and the collaborative dissemination process (Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Hopkins, 2012; Oxman, 1986; Unwin, 2003, 2007; Wenger, 1998a, pp.55-61);
- An academic expectation the students consolidate their learning experiences about the design process via critically deconstructing, interpreting and reconstructing several practitioners’ thinking, modelled design process, and designed output (Akalin & Sezal, 2009; Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Hopkins, 2012; Lawson, 2004, 2006; Ochsner, 2000; Oxman, 1986; Unwin, 2003, 2007);
- A stated academic objective, linked to assessment procedures, the students’ output from the precedent tasks and associated reviews provides the evidence they have addressed precedents efficiently.

Thus, the third-year students must demonstrate they carry on critical and interpretative conversations with their cultural and design heritage via choosing and orchestrating multimodal communicative resources to analyse, interpret, reconstruct, represent, and draw conclusions about the precedents they engage with analytically during their studies (Rifkind, 2011, p.66). This pedagogical focus relates to my earlier discussion concerning the three-way relationship existing between the designer’s rhetorical communicative intent; how that intent is realised via multimodal representation, and then manifested in the designed object; and the interpretation, inferred by the recipients, the participants, their colleagues and tutors in this instance (Crilly et al., 2008; Eco, 1980, p.27; Kazmierczak, 2003, p.45; Webster, 2005, p.274).

During my analytic work, questions arose about whether the meaning-making evidence embodied in the participants’ presentation artefacts, oral expressions and orchestration demonstrated the students had a critical understanding of social housing considerations.
Also, I queried whether the participants were choosing and using multimodal resources efficiently during the observed review (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; pp.13-16; Kress, 2009b, p.22; Kress, 2010, pp.295-296). Lastly, I questioned the observed dynamic facets of multimodal interaction in the participants’ meaning-making in the review, including putting their representations into action using gestures and talk (Murphy, 2005, pp.118-125; Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-446).

**Insider Knowledge and Multimodal Literacy**

The first finding emerged from examining the challenges two participants raised regarding their learning experiences relating to their distinct cultural background and resultant time pressures (Kerno, 2008, p.73; Kress, 2010, p.47). Both students had been living in Ireland for ten years, but neither were fluent English speakers. In their questionnaire answers, ASP4 and ASP8 referred to what they called ‘language barriers’ and described the negative impact these barriers had in their studies (Figures 64 & 65). Both students acknowledged they required extra time, to assimilate information efficiently, and provide them opportunities for sustained engagement to develop their designing competencies (Gill, 2007, p.p.167-168; Kerno, 2008, p.73; Lawson, 2004; Lawson & Dorst, 2005; Feldhusen, 2005). Further, ASP4 and ASP8 recognised they were struggling to cope with the multifaceted and complex dimensions of learning to become an architectural designer in tandem with managing their cultural and language-based struggles (Figure 64 & 65). Additionally, both mentioned specific learning qualities or habits they adopted that may be hindering their ability to develop their multimodal meaning-making abilities (Wenger, 1998a).

The challenges both students highlighted were important considerations as they related directly to gaining full access to and being able to participate fully in architectural meaning-making in this CoP (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000, p.13; Holgate, 2015; Kerno, 2008, pp.73-75; Manley & de Graft-Johnson, 2013; Wenger, 1998a). Both students had to satisfy institutional requirements regarding their English fluency before gaining admittance to the programme. However, these requirements related to general language usage and so were not geared towards the complex discipline-specific terminology that architecture embodies (Swales et al., 2001, p.441). Over the years,
many of our international students facing similar challenges had focused on developing their visual literacy skills to manage and compensate for their lack of written or oral fluency in English (Swales et al., 2001, p.441). Our international cohort on the architectural programme will expand over the next five years as recently we signed memorandums of agreement with several Asian and Indian colleges. Thus, acknowledging and explicating the problems ASP4 and ASP8 raised was a critical aspect of responding reflexively to the inclusivity challenges their issues highlighted regarding their semiotic multimodal meaning-making (Kress, 2010).

In her questionnaire, ASP8 pointed to her high expectations as a factor that made learning in a second language more stressful. ASP8 indicated she frequently overworked (Figure 64, column 3) and so could not present her output effectively because she was tired and emotional (Holgate, 2008, p.10; Sara & Parnell, 2004). Moreover, ASP8 intimated developing her drawing skills and visual reasoning capacity continued to be a significant concern that she acknowledged required much practice on her part. Also, she suggested her language challenges complicated and extended the amount of time she required to assimilate the theoretical learning in the historical, theory and technological subjects (Figure 64, Column 3). ASP8 also pointed out she had a knowledge and skills problem regarding working with the architectural software the participants address for digital representation. Some of these programmes (Revit, and Photoshop) are taught module components while the students must learn others themselves via online resources (Sketch-up). ASP8’s stated difficulties managing both the analogue and digital environment (Figure 64, Column 4-5) probably complicated matters further because learning in both environments requires sustained engagement, particularly the self-taught digital aspect (Ala-Mutka, 2011).

I should point out other participants also signalled a prerequisite for additional time, via their questionnaire and interview responses, albeit for distinctly different reasons. For instance, two participants, ASP5 and ASP6, mentioned time-based challenges stemming from their experiences of dyslexia. ASP2 remarked on the ‘jump’ she had to make switching from one learning domain to another, and time-based pressures stemming from having to learn new skills from scratch (Figure 63). Moreover, these students and other participants’ responses and orchestrations indicated they had adopted unhelpful
coping strategies also that probably restricted their rhetorical meaning-making, and their ability to take part fully in this CoP. This finding pointed to the problematic aspect of assuming students can gain access to and participate fully in a formal learning situation via attempting the prescribed learning activities.

| ASP2 | Because we are supposed to have the sketch plans and sections and we are still at bubble diagrams [to show relationships] stage. And as for a model not a hope and oddly enough, like yesterday I was starting again to get frustrated. Because I am slow, I don't find it easy, this is a huge jump for me actually. Because I am not skilled in drawing and you know none of it comes naturally. All that creative side comes naturally, but not the drawing, and I have to push myself, and to understand even how then this thing is going to be constructed. I have to really think about it. But then I was starting to think oh God I need so many rooms and like those staircases, stairs in this development. And if I had got the model, I would be able to work out whether I have got enough head height and all of that kind of thing. And, you know, where was I going to put my courtyard? And would it be better at one side, or at the front of the corner? Could it fit underneath my staircase? ...I mean we only got the brief last Monday and it's as though we have gone, like what's the word? from receiving it to sketch design tomorrow. We skipped bits that we would normally, you know, agonise over. Concepts! A lot of them are still even agonising over what their concept is going to be. I mean I never seem to have that issue, thanks be to God, because you know I think if I was, like, agonising to that degree I would be losing the plot. Now whether, you know, I can follow it through [concept] that's the thing. And I can understand that we have a finite time schedule now. This all has to be done in the next few weeks after Easter. |

| Figure 63: Extract ASP2 interview summaries, Q3C. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.347) |

I interpreted ASP8 and ASP4’s, and other participants’, acknowledged time-related pressures to mean that my colleagues and I needed to consider how to help international students, and other students with distinct learning needs, manage their requirements for additional time in an increasingly compressed learning environment (Kerno, 2008). Time-related pressures that I indicated in Chapter One were probably related to semesterisation, modularisation and government moves to deploy academics more efficiently (Steer et al., 2007; Raidió Teilifís Éireann (RTÉ), 2013, March 27). I interpreted both international students’ comments about their culture-based challenges to mean that it was likely my colleagues and I needed to extend our intercultural understanding regarding our international cohort and develop strategies to help them progress their intercultural adaptation more efficiently (Gill, 2007, pp.167-168). Also, I understood that ASP8 and ASP4’s, and other participants’, acknowledged learning challenges and adoption of unhelpful learning habits probably indicated that we needed to question our values and beliefs about architectural education and review our pedagogical practices.
periodically going forward if we are to instil confidence in ourselves and our students that:

- We recognise, value and assimilate the richness and diversity of experience each of us brings to our CoP;
- The knowledge and skills we teach students in the design studio are a vital component of becoming a competent designer, and worth the effort required to adopt them (Kerno, 2008, p.75; Koch et al., 2002; Roberts, 2006, p.628; Thompson et al., 2015).

The example that follows illustrates some of the challenges the two students from distinct cultural backgrounds faced while addressing the precedent task (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.58-60). Also, the chosen example allows me to begin the task of interrogating the participants’ meaning-making through the social semiotic multimodality lens.
The need for more time and sustained engagement surface here

Driven to improve life and work experiences

Signalling language difficulties and impact on studies, again relates this to needing more time

Time management issue relating to need for increased amount of time for learning in this complex changing environment

Signalling need for sustained engagement and practice

Positive response to RP viewed as a learning opportunity. Difficulties managing emotions and expresses fear about not having enough knowledge

Figure 64: Extract ASP8 questionnaire. (Source: Appendix 1B, Volume Two, p.328)
Figure 65: Extract ASP4 questionnaire. (Source: Appendix 1B, Volume Two, p.321)
Access, Participation and Multimodal Literacy

Example One

In her questionnaire and interview responses, ASP4 drew attention to her problems expressing her thinking, which she perceived to be more mathematically than philosophically inclined (Figure 65, Column 1 & Figure 66). Also, she admitted she avoids diagramming relying instead on talking to describe her design output (Figure 65, column 5). This latter point was a serious pedagogical issue because generating analytical diagrams by hand, as opposed to relying on describing other peoples’ architectural representations, is a core communicative tool for developing and expressing visual reasoning, and considered a key sign of learning in the architectural education context (Holgate, 2008, p.7). Further, ASP4 stated her architectural values were driven by a need to deliver the optimum experience for the user, environmentally, functionally and experientially (Figure 65, Column 3). However, she acknowledged she found it difficult to analyse and interpret designers work (Figure 65, Column, 3 & 5). A fundamental learning component in precedent study, designing as meaning-making and developing one’s architectural identity (Akalin & Sezal, 2009; Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Holgate, 2008, p.7; Hopkins, 2012; Lawson, 2004, 2006; Ochsner, 2000; Oxman, 1986; Parnell et al., 2007, pp.123-124; Unwin, 2003, 2007). ASP4 attributed this problem to a cultural knowledge challenge concerning architectural context, viz-a-viz styles, which she indicated she attempted to address through reading ‘more’ architectural texts (Figure 65, Column 3). I noted ASP4, like several of her colleagues, mainly focused on factors associated with sustainability in her presentation (Figure 66). I understood in her case this probably partially reflected her acknowledged issues regarding interpreting other designers’ work while also revealing her cultural, practical and ethical interest in, and values about, people and the environment. That is, this social housing consideration was probably something she was already familiar with, and interested in (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2010).
Figure 66: Extract ASP4 interview and questionnaire. (Source: Appendix 1B and 1C, Volume Two, p.338, p.346 & p.321)
Avoiding diagramming probably compounds ASP4’s knowledge and skill gap concerning precedent study and so impacted negatively on her efforts to develop her rhetorical meaning-making capacity (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.33-34; Cross, 1999b, pp.35-36; Dernie, 2014; Gänshirt, 2007, pp.98-101; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, pp.155-156). Further, I interpreted her acknowledged problems around ‘doing’ analysis to mean ASP4 probably found it difficult to recognise and/or assimilate the design process habits designer’s model. This was another underlying LO in the precedent task and an essential part of the ‘becoming’ associated with full participation in this CoP (Wenger, 1998a). Also, I interpreted her acknowledged challenges to indicate she missed the opportunity to participate fully in identifying and discerning what architectural discourse or rhetoric is, via what it looks like in print and imagery, or what it means through the analysis process. Further, I understood her acknowledged problems possibly denoted she had difficulty recognising and assimilating the way the designer transduces and translates discourse into architectural strategy, then into architectural language and mechanism, and on into designed artefact (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.57-63; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.175; Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7). My deliberations regarding the way ASP4’s stated problems impacted on her meaning-making negatively related to the social semiotic multimodality view, re-making or interpreting signs using distinct resources is an acknowledged means of learning, or transformation (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.57-63; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.175; Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7).

In her responses to interview questions about the review ASP4 maintained she was receptive to feedback and did not have a problem with negative comment provided it was offered constructively, was evidence-based and not the result of a misunderstanding (Figure 66). However, in her questionnaire, she admitted she needs positive affirmation and found constant negative commentary demotivating (Figure 65, Column 6). ASP4 raised this aspect again in her interview responses (Figure 67). Nevertheless, her meaning-making actions and outputs suggested she experienced difficulties understanding and responding to tutors’ feedback actively, regarding the challenges addressed above that probably contributed to her tutors giving her ongoing direction that she may have viewed negatively. Also, perhaps our student-focused, active learning environment ran counter to her cultural traditions regarding education which she has
indicated in classroom discussion incorporated a passive approach to learning (Brookfield, 2006, pp.146-147).

In the clip that follows (Figures 68 & 69), ASP4 presents her findings for the second precedent, which was a competition entry focusing on contemporary designs for social housing. My notes on the extract concern the descriptive nature of ASP4’s talk, her lack of fluency using the English language, and highlights the problems regarding her choice and use of the visual mode. My comments are intended to link her orchestration back to her acknowledged language problems, difficulties choosing and using visual means for analytical purposes, and her literacy issues concerning analysing architectural discourse and other designers’ work represented in written texts. Although, I should point out most participants exhibited similar issues at some point during their orchestrations (Murphy, 2003, 2005; Swales et al., 2001).
Figure 68: Extract ASP4 multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D4, Volume Two, pp.370-371)
In her interview, ASP4 acknowledged she positions work strategically on her review wall (Dannels, 2005, pp.146-147). Confessing, the work she is confident about is hung at eye level, and work she is not sure about or does not understand is “put down low” (Figure 70).
Both the top and bottom sheet she hung for Precedent Two was devoid of analytical annotation, although the material ASP4 did not refer to on the lower sheet contained essential visual information. The planimetric drawings, sections, and elevational data on this sheet incorporated critical visual components of telling the architectural analytical story (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.1; Chaplin, 2014; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Holgate, 2008). During the clip illustrated above (Figures 68-69), ASP4 spoke about Precedent Two while simultaneously gazing at and interacting physically with her presentation sheet via pointing at and superimposing her finger on several different drawings on the top right-hand sheet (Figure 71).
At the beginning of Clip 1, although ASP4 drew attention to the fact the competition entry was based on sustainability principles (Figure 68) she did not show or express analysis relating findings from Precedent Two to Precedent One or the other ideas concerning social housing discourse, an academic expectancy regarding precedent study I highlighted earlier (Clark & Pause, 2012, p.xiii; Hopkins, 2012; Oxman, 1986; Unwin, 2003, 2007; Wenger, 1998a, pp.55-61). Following on from her first point, she superimposed her forefinger on a 3D sectional drawing as she spoke about the building’s functions (Figure 72) while ignoring the plans, sections and elevations on the lower sheet which incorporated the conventional drawings and graphical symbols architects use to represent and explain spatial layout in tandem with 3D drawings (Chaplin, 2014; Downing & Hubka, 1986).

At this point, ASP4 interacted with the presentation sheets via gaze and gesture, while she mainly spoke at, and about, the drawings descriptively and impersonally rather than to the two tutors and her peers (Figures 68-69). While ASP4 did identify some of the building’s intended functional activities (Figure 72) drawing on several modes, she did not adopt conventional rhetorical moves to show she could analyse, interpret, and relate different kinds of architectural data using each mode’s functional specialisms (Medway, 1996b; Swales et al., 2001). For instance, ASP4 could have related 3D information to plans and sections visually using graphical language to highlight significant aspects of the drawings regarding addressing the brief. She could have critically reflected on the building’s spatial configuration verbally, for instance, while referring to the relevant related characteristics of social housing that grabbed her attention, regarding the brief. Moreover, ASP4 could have mimicked aspects of the building’s circulation and spatial attributes gesturally to animate the visual representations for her audience (Chaplin, 2014; Downing & Hubka, 1986; Medway, 1996b; Murphy, 2003; Swales et al., 2001). Instead, ASP4 focused mainly on reading, in a descriptive more than interpretative sense, the visual information on the top right-hand sheet to explain her findings verbally from memory as she spoke about what she learned, while pointing at and overlaying her finger on the visuals (Figures 71 & 72).

Thus, ASP4’s orchestration did not conform to academic meaning-making conventions regarding using speaking in tandem with gestures and architectural drawings, analytically
(Allan, 2013; Swales et al., 2001). That is, she did not use planimetric and sectional drawings together with talking and deictic gestures to explain, illustrate and animate layout and functional data like circulation paths (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.ix; Bar-Eli, 2013, p.472; Do & Gross, 2001, p.2; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Eris et al., 2014, pp.561-562; Medway, 1994; Murphy, 2003).

Figure 72: Extract ASP4 multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D4, Volume Two, p.370)

ASP4 moved on to speak about the building’s structure while continuing to gaze at, turn her body towards, and superimpose her finger on an exploded 3D view of the buildings structural/assembly components (Figure 73) while mentioning insulation and airtightness levels rather than explaining how the building fitted together from a structural perspective. Thus, a mismatch occurred between the concept she introduced verbally, structure, and what she went on to say, and highlight on the drawing she superimposed her finger on, regarding insulation and airtightness (Figure 73).

Figure 73: Extract ASP4 multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D4, Volume Two, p.371)
ASP4’s visual construction for Precedent Two was restricted to drawing over, colouring in, and simplifying several reproductions of the digitally sourced media she relied on in her presentation. I suspect, for the reasons she mentioned previously, ASP4 found it difficult to apprehend, interpret and relate the individual pieces of information she found online. As I said earlier, she did not match or analyse the corresponding information as expected. Thus, she missed the opportunity to relate site and layout plans to sections, elevations and 3D exploded views using analytical annotation, frames, and graphical symbols like arrows (Do & Gross, 2001, p.3). In fact, she simplified some sourced data via removing the explanation and some of the visual graphics (Figure 74). I considered her response pointed to the complicated nature of working analytically digitally while also confirming the participants’ stated language, drawing and interpretive meaning-making issues (Altürk, 2008; Coleman, 2010; Gänshirt, 2007, p.101; Oxman, 1999, 2006, 2008).

Later on in her orchestration (Figure 75, Clip 2), DST1 drew attention to ASP4’s descriptive response and lack of synthesis regarding the analytical process I highlighted earlier was a key factor in carrying out the precedent task effectively (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.ix; Bar-Eli, 2013, p.472; Do & Gross, 2001, p.2; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Eris et al., 2014, pp.561-562; Medway, 1994). At this point, ASP4 turned to gaze at DST1 and continued to gesture at the drawings while he commented on her descriptive presentation. While ASP4 attempted to address his feedback verbally while talking about the spatial qualities and open-planning strategy, her efforts were hampered because she missed an opportunity to use the planimetric layouts and sections on the lower sheet to
support her verbal commentary and show how the spatial arrangement could be reconfigured to support her comment about adaptability.

ASP4 presented no deductive analysis in the form of personally generated diagrams, visual imagery or annotation to identify, explain and relate the ideological, functional, sensate and contextual aspects of Precedent Two, a key academic expectation (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.ix; Bar-Eli, 2013, p.472; Chaplin, 2014; Do & Gross, 2001, p.2; Downing & Hubka, 1986, pp.45-49; Eris et al., 2014, pp.561-562; Medway, 1994). For instance, she did not present any interior images to help her discuss and show the designer’s intentions for the open-plan layout and experiential and ‘stylistic’ aspects regarding materials, light, colour, and fit-out (Figure 76). ASP4’s omissions and lack of analysis illustrate the difficulty I pointed out in Chapter One regarding students responding
superficially to the precedent task, rather than reading exemplars critically and multimodally (Lawson, 2006, p.221).

Figure 76: Unused interior imagery. (Source: designers’ website)

ASP4 stood close to her presentation materials with her body at an angle to the hung sheets on her crit wall, the two design tutors, and colleagues for much of her review. In her interviews, she disclosed she is a trained singer who enjoys performing for an audience (Figure 77). However, she turned to make eye contact with the two tutors and her colleagues infrequently, probably because she needed to look at the drawings to use them as prompts as she had neither headlines nor script to refer to. In fact, when I asked her about note-taking during her interview, she highlighted a cognitive issue related to working in a second language concerning her difficulties thinking in either Aramaic or English that she implied, and I inferred, had affected her capacity to analyse or process information efficiently (Figure 78).

Figure 77: Extract ASP4 interview summaries. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.353)
Figure 78: Extract ASP4 interview summaries, Q4D (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.356)

If we adopt Gadamer’s (2004, pp.301-303) theories about the need to consider how our current horizon affects our interpretations, it becomes easier to understand how ASP4 could miss salient features of the Western architecture she examined to respond to the brief. I interpreted ASP4’s questionnaire replies to mean it is likely she still has an underdeveloped Western architecture cultural reference bank to anchor herself to, problems using the English language, and a related challenge concerning analysis and interpretation (Figures 78 & 79). I understood this latter issue could be partly the result of ASP4 relying more on reading (literally) texts (Figure 79) rather than, immersing herself in Western architecture culture experientially via field trips, or using the digital environment to experience architecture virtually to develop her intercultural understanding (Gill, 2007, p.167; Lombardi, 2007, p.2). Partly, because of the language challenges, she raised in her questionnaire responses (Figure 79). Possibly, ASP4 found it hard to ‘see’ (in an interpretive sense) Western structural, assembly, material and sensate data she had little or no prior knowledge of because she was so focused on trying to translate and understand the written component of the text (Kahneman, 2011, pp.30-33). Making multimodal notes (visual and written) and ‘doing’ the precedent task using multimodal means, in the analogue and the digital environment, might have helped ASP4 address her challenges more effectively (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.61-62; Lombardi 2007, p.2; Schön & Wiggins, 1992).
Not addressing the precedent task and preparing for the presentation process via making diagrams, notes or headlines put ASP4 at a serious disadvantage from a rhetorical meaning-making perspective. It is likely she forgot much of the audio, textual and visual data she engaged with during her research and I already highlighted she acknowledged she hid things she found it difficult to interpret (Denscombe, 2010, p.198; Kahneman, 2011, pp.30-33; Schön & Wiggins, 1992). Consequently, it was hard for her to have a critical conversation with the substantive issues because, as she recognised, she had not yet assimilated the insider knowledge concerning architectural context and theory and had difficulty understanding and analysing designers’ work (Figure 79). The fact ASP4 avoided developing her analytical thinking visually and textually via diagramming by hand, compounded the problem further (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; pp.13-16; Kress, 2009b, p.22; Kress, 2010, pp.295-296; Schön & Wiggins, 1992).

On the academic side, providing differentiated instruction is a well-known aspect of inclusive education approaches (Maydosz & Raver, 2010, p.178). As I indicated earlier the precedent tasks were not broken down in the project brief, and this means ASP4, ASP8 and their colleagues with similar or different learning challenges, may have been
working in the dark, in a learning sense (Maydosz & Raver, 2010, p.178). Addressing the needs of diverse students are underlying principles and objectives regarding our teaching, learning, and assessment strategy (2016-2018) at the research site (Figures 80 & 81). However, my observations and analysis suggested incorporating such strategies routinely in our academic practices was a work in progress, often hampered by having to conform to institutional timelines via semesters and formal accreditation processes (Kerno, 2008, pp.73-75; Maydosz & Raver, 2010, p.178).

Figure 80: Extract 1 from teaching, learning and assessment strategy at the research site. (Source: IoT website)

Figure 81: Extract 2 teaching, learning and assessment strategy at the research site. (Source: IoT website)

If our international students' access to, or full participation in, the shared knowledge and skill base of our architectural CoP is obstructed because their background or literacy-related learning challenges are not taken into account or addressed effectively in class, then potentially the rhetorical meaning-making capacity of the CoP is impeded (Kress, 2010, p.47). Therefore, as I intimated earlier, the problems I observed in ASP4’s meaning-making highlighted there probably was a need for my colleagues and I to review our current pedagogical practices to address rhetorical meaning-making at the research site.
more inclusively and efficiently (Gill, 2007, pp.167-168; Kerno, 2008, pp.73-75; Kress, 2010; Holgate, 2015; Maydosz & Raver, 2010).

Writing and structuring the project briefs so learning tasks are routinely broken down into differentiated protocols, for instance, is a recognised way for tutors to signpost clearly what students must do to complete tasks successfully (Holgate, 2015, p.90). Explaining complex architectural terms orally, and literally in tandem with visual examples could help students like ASP4 record and process unfamiliar vocabulary more resourcefully (Maydosz & Raver, 2010, p.182). Expanding our online repertoire to exploit further the opportunities digital technologies offer learners to research critically and experience architectural culture virtually, are two more acknowledged pedagogical strategies that could help students from diverse backgrounds assimilate architecture’s culture more readily (Lombardi, 2007, p.2; Holgate, 2015, p.90). If we extend Katayama & Crooks’ (2003 p.293) and Maydosz and Ravers’ (2010, p.179) theorising about note-taking to include multimodal resources, then embracing multimodal note-making practices could help students like ASP4 encode data more efficiently via paraphrasing and organising information actively across modes. Then, when students are required to recall and use this knowledge, as the participants must do during their studies, their multimodal note-taking or interpretative output might be easier to retrieve than the information in other peoples’ resources including written and visual texts (Maydosz & Raver, 2010, p.179). The above strategies might help students like ASP4 adopt more meaningful rather than superficial approaches to learning in the architectural setting (Biggs, 2012, p.40).

Looking at ASP4’s meaning-making through the social semiotic multimodality lens allowed me to examine the converging factors that contributed to her partial access to the CoP shared knowledge and skills bank. Also, viewing the meaning-making through this lens gave me the opportunity to examine her multimodal literacy challenges concerning ‘communication as learning’ holistically, rather than focusing on one or two of the indicators as if they were distinct problems (Kress, 2010). ASP4’s orchestrated ensemble intimated she had difficulty using any of the multimodal resources available to her in this CoP, cognitively and practically, to construct rhetorical meaning in a way that conformed to academic expectations advantageously. From the social semiotic multimodality angle, she was making signs. Therefore, her sign-making efforts seemed to
be signs of knowing (Kress, 2010). Nevertheless, the signs ASP4 produced during the precedent task and observed review reflected what she could focus on, discern, and do, relying on her existing knowledge and skill base regarding communication as learning (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.58-60).

The question remains whether her meaning-making efforts transformed her in a way that enhanced her capacity for acting in this CoP as an architectural designer (Kress, 2010, p.295). ASP4’s orchestration during the observed review demonstrated, while she was showing signs of learning, she had difficulty remaking signs within and across modes, an essential component of transformative engagement and a key part of rhetorical meaning-making (Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, p.7). If ASP4’s meaning meaning-making repertoire remains restricted because her acknowledged cultural challenges and associated learning problems (Figure 79) are not addressed, then probably it remains difficult for her to construct rhetorical architectural meaning (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.59-60). Further, her partial multimodal meaning-making repertoire reduced what she could draw on in this environment as prompts for engagement (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.61). ASP4’s orchestration signals she had a multimodal literacy problem regarding accessing, drawing on, and being able to use the semiotic potential the available communicative modes offered for meaning-making in this setting (Jewitt, 2009, p.15; Kress, 2010; Bezemer & Kress, 2016). Also, I interpreted ASP4’s limited capacity to work and express herself fluently in any of the modes in her multimodal ensemble to mean it was difficult for her to show and materialise what she was learning outwardly (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.61-62). My discussion here points to my emerging conclusion about the inextricable relationship between access, participation, multimodal literacy and effective meaning-making from a social semiotic multimodality angle (Kress, 2010).

I move on now to examine multimodal literacy from a different angle. I chose the example that follows because it illustrates the learning challenges highlighted above further, as well as, addressing several of the obstacles students experiencing dyslexia encounter as they develop their proficiency working in and across the analogue and digital terrain during their rhetorical meaning-making efforts (Chanock, 2007; Cooper, 2006).
Here ASPE is drawing attention to his perception students' decision making is hampered by the negative and contradictory views expressed by tutors in class and reviews.

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<td><strong>Figure 82</strong>: Extrac ASP6 questionnaire. (Source: Appendix 1B, Volume Two, p.325)</td>
<td><strong>Review event - the comments seem to be negative focused and often directly contradict information of lecturer. The focus is often on what is most of the weakest component of the presentation for example:</strong> What is the space? How wide is it? How long is it? I didn't look at areas as part of the study 2. I believe that all spaces should function for the current users whether in what I do or how I do it. The family is extremely important to me. First, my family, second, extended relations, third, community, local people and fourth people to come. What we leave behind says a lot about us.</td>
<td><strong>Function, proportion, scale, empathy and attention to construction detail underpin his architectural values. His personal values are positive while those he subscribes to those in authority are negative.</strong></td>
<td><strong>ASPE reveals he does most of his research and assignment work in the digital environment because it is easier to interact with textual information in that environment as well as being able to draw on audio and visual means to learn.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Like ASP6, ASP6 acknowledges he relies on his memory to prepare for the RF using the brief to structure his thinking. He acknowledges he often forgets to make salient points. The M4 tools he finds difficult to use he understands as pedagogical resources.</strong></td>
<td><strong>ASPE hears, remembers and focuses on negative feedback. He synthesizes ideas of the lecture. It becomes obvious that the lecturer wants you to design a particular thing using a particular strategy. The self-expression of personal ideas is stamped, stopped, twisted and manipulated to those personal ideas or interpretation of your idea. The feedback gives clear guidance on what you should go and what you have to do to get there. I often think about the film 'Eduardo Rita' and how at the end the old man speaks with the other students. But she could not see what she had lost in self-expression. Positives - I have learned to discern and can justify my choices to a greater or lesser extent while taking on board feedback no matter how negative as a positive building block.</strong></td>
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| **I believe that all spaces should function for the current user whether or not they are. Buildings should blend into their surroundings, stand up, not out. They should look as if they fit the space both in proportion and scale. There is as much beauty in a well-contracted row of terrace houses as a form of art in function as there is any of the paintings by people like Constable.** | **I tend to get a lot of my information from the internet by computer. As I have issues reading I feel I interpret this information a bit better, I feel that I can read and understand a picture better than text and often listen to presentations by architects on my laptop to help my understanding of what they are trying to achieve. I have spent forty odd years looking at and designing spaces for people and it matters little what you want someone to do in a space or how you believe they should use a space as most people like to personalize the space for themselves (I call this nesting). It is as important to design in the opportunity to do this as it is to design a well-functioning space.** | **When driving or just sitting I spend time considering what I might say and try to build up a group of points to hit. Usually I forget some or miss an important one. When looking at what I put on the wall it is as much as possible for what the belief says for that day. I will look at what I am working on and how it can express this idea I want to get across, if I understand it then I can answer questions on it. I don't have a next hand so models don't come easy and my patience to make them is very small with no positive feedback on models I feel I am shouldering water up a hill.** | **My memories of review stem from the top part of a black point, the specific idea of the lecture. It becomes obvious that the lecturer wants you to design a particular thing using a particular strategy. The self-expression of personal ideas is stamped, stopped, twisted and manipulated to those personal ideas or interpretation of your idea. The feedback gives clear guidance on what you should go and what you have to do to get there. I often think about the film 'Eduardo Rita' and how at the end the old man speaks with the other students. But she could not see what she had lost in self-expression. Positives - I have learned to discern and can justify my choices to a greater or lesser extent while taking on board feedback no matter how negative as a positive building block.** | **ASP6 has been analysing architectural drawings to produce buildings for over forty years and he expresses strong convictions about designing architecture so that clients can influence and personalize their environment.** | **ASP6 reveals he does most of his research and assignment work in the digital environment because it is easier to interact with textual information in that environment as well as being able to draw on audio and visual means to learn.** |
Example Two

ASP6 is a mature student, educated in the UK and Ireland during the 1950s. His questionnaire replies (Figures 82 & 83) highlighted some of the challenges people experiencing dyslexia encountered at that time educationally, regarding being discriminated against, or mistreated by peers and tutors because of misconceived ideas about their cognitive abilities (Cooper, 2009, p.66; Holgate, 2015, p.88). His answers about his early-years and current architectural educational experiences, specifically those concerning the review, were negatively couched (Figures, 82 & 83). I speculated if there was a connection between these early traumatic experiences, his working life and worldview, and the way he regarded and engaged with his rhetorical meaning-making experiences at the research site (Kasworm, 2010, pp. 59-60).

Figure 83: Extract ASP6 questionnaire. (Source: Appendix 1B, Volume Two, p.325)

ASP6’s critical stance was reflected in his strong choice of words when he responded to the questionnaire questions regarding the review (Figure 82, Column 6). He did not answer all the queries in the questionnaire directly, going off on a tangent for instance in the question about himself as a learner, focusing instead on writing about his negative review perceptions (Figure 82, Column 1). Nevertheless, I should point out this lack of connection between question and response is a recognised dyslexia problem that may have contributed to his written reply (Beacham & Alty, 2006, pp.76-77). Conversely, he used inclusive and positive language when he wrote about his personal and professional values regarding his family, and community-oriented focus (Figure 82, Columns 2, & 3). Further, ASP6 worked as a builder for most of his adult life (Figure 82, Column 4).
expressed deep-rooted convictions in his questionnaire replies, probably stemming from his building experiences, about what people want from their buildings, ideas that have probably shaped his position about architecture, and affected his architectural meaning-making practices at the research site (Kasworm, 2010, pp. 59-60; Kress, 2010).

In his questionnaire answers, ASP6 indicated that he was ‘bullied’ at school (Figures 83); so it seems likely he suffered some form of derision that could have contributed to a poor self-image as a learner (Brookfield, 2006, pp.145-146). Further, ASP6’s replies shown in Figure 82, Column 1 and 6, intimated he questioned the value of the tutors’ feedback during reviews and perceived it to be the result of the tutor’s opinion rather than evidence-based comment intended to move his thinking forward. I understood his response could indicate resistance, a position that is often adopted by working adults drawing on prior unsuccessful learning experiences (Kasworm, 2010, pp. 59-60; Ziskin, Torres, Hossler & Gross, 2010, p.96). Also, I considered his comments to be partially related to the established perception that sometimes students’ problems with, or resistance to, learning, stems from the fact educators can overestimate students’ readiness for the learning experience they proffer (Brookfield, 2006, pp.147-148).

I make these points because research evidence suggests the way a learner, like ASP6, identifies with their learning situation, influences their interests and outlook regarding their learning experience, shapes their judgements concerning action, and affects their meaning-making endeavours (Biggs, 1993, p.75; Kress, 2010). Moreover, these ideas relate to scholarly thinking about the difference between the aspirational and what happens while students and academics go about the becoming that characterises learning within any formal professional training setting (Sambell & McDowell, 1998, pp.392-393).

In the interview extracts shown below (Figures 84 & 85) we get a glimpse of the challenges a student with dyslexia faces in an architectural education setting while using and navigating both the analogue and digital communicative terrain. ASP6 asserted he experienced severe reading difficulties because of his dyslexia (Figure 84). He indicated he found it easier to operate in the digital environment because doing so allowed him to engage with learning aurally and visually, which along with talking and interacting, were
his preferred learning modes (Figures 84). Further ASP6 said when reading, he preferred to do so in the digital environment because the computer screen acts as a controlling mechanism allowing him to see and read small amounts of text at a time (Figure 84). However, ASP6 acknowledged he found it difficult to process, retain, and recall data presented in the written mode, no matter how he reads it (Figure 84). These concerns are recognised processing challenges for those experiencing dyslexia in current teaching and learning organisations (Cooper, 2006, p.1, 2009, p.66; Beacham & Alty, 2006, pp.76-77; Mortimore & Crozier, 2006, p.236). Further, in his interview, ASP6 intimated this is the reason he included no analytical text on his presentation artefacts (Figure 85). Again, like ASP4 and ASP8, his stated struggles with the written mode may obstruct his progress regarding developing his designing capabilities because of his challenges engaging critically with architectural discourse embedded in design related literature, such as the design project brief which was mainly a written text with few visual illustrations (Beacham & Alty, pp.76-77; Cooper, 2006, 2009).

Figure 84: Extract ASP6 interview summaries. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.337)
While ASP6 said he reads visual information without difficulty (Figure 84), like ASP4, ASP6 also admitted elsewhere in his interview responses (Figure 86) he relied more on using other peoples’ representations than producing diagrams by hand during the analytical process (Figure 86). This feature of his meaning-making suggested to me that he could also experience many of the accumulated negative effects avoiding diagramming brings in addition to the knowledge and skills challenges that result from his experiences of dyslexia. These challenges included but were not limited to, finding it hard to understand, deconstruct and interpret the designers’ ideological thinking and how it becomes materialised in the design output during the design process (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.57-63; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.175; Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7). Overall, I interpreted ASP6’s acknowledged learning challenges and coping behaviour to mean he found it hard to re-make or interpret signs using multimodal resources, which I indicated previously was an acknowledged means of learning, and transformation (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.57-63; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.175, and Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7).

Further, as I intimated above, ASP6 admitted he interprets most architectural matters visually, and although he relied on his memory to recall data while communicating his
critical understanding, ASP6 indicated he often forgot significant information embedded in the text he had engaged with (Figure 87). I interpreted this recall issue to mean, like ASP4, that ASP6 might also have been filtering out those matters he found it hard to see, understand, and interpret in textual form (Denscombe, 2010, p.198; Kahneman, 2011, pp.30-33; Schön & Wiggins, 1992).

ASP6’s acknowledged difficulties signalled his multimodal meaning-making repertoire, like ASP4 and ASP8, might be partial and restricted, thereby limiting his capacity for meaning-making including his ability to connect with, assimilate, interpret, and draw on architecture’s discipline-specific knowledge incorporated in writing, such as lecture notes and recommended texts, plus all the literature he engages with online (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.59-60).

Reading around this issue during my literature work, reminded me I needed to take a step back from assuming our existing approaches to teaching and learning at the research site were fit for purpose (Holgate, 2015, pp.88-89). Again, I was mindful that scholars claim our education systems are failing those experiencing dyslexia because they favour sequential over more holistic approaches to education, and so perpetuate societal norms regarding literacy (Chanock, 2007, p.35; Cooper, 2006, pp.9-10; Thompson et al., 2015, pp.1329-1339). However, the course team does adopt a flexible approach to assessment for those students who have difficulty with written assignments, utilising a range of project-based approaches as alternatives. Architectural education has long valued other forms of criteria for appraising intellectual capability given the importance attributed to visual reasoning approaches in designing (Dias et al., 2013; Eris et al., 2014; Holgate, 2015, p.89; Kasprisin & Pettinciri, 1995; Unwin, 2007; Yee, 2012). Nonetheless, much of the recommended reading and course material is in the form of texts, written handouts, or notes, although most coursework is available in an electronic format (Holgate, 2015, p.89). Additionally, the strategies mentioned above do not address ASP6’s acknowledged diagramming issue which, in his case, could have been related to his information processing challenges and pointed towards a motor skill difficulty (Beacham & Alty, 2006, p.76).
A person who has learning challenges stemming from dyslexia is characterised in the research literature as having problems with reading or decoding the written word (Thomson & Watkins, 1998). However, people experiencing dyslexia are known to encounter other cognitive issues relating to, “short-term memory; visual and or sound data processing; physical co-ordination and motor skills” (Beacham & Alty, 2006, p.76). Research evidence shows people experiencing dyslexia can face ongoing problems with many activities including:

- Reading and writing;
- Organising themselves and managing time;
- Recalling detailed lists and sustaining focus over extended periods;
- Learning, comprehending and “recalling written or spoken words” (p.76);
- Locating and “navigating textual information” in either the analogue or digital environment (Beacham & Alty, 2006, p.76).

Current learning strategies for individuals experiencing dyslexia include multi-sensory teaching and learning techniques namely, visual, auditory, tactile and kinesthetic strategies. Nonetheless, researchers say, while the digital environment encompasses a multi-sensory aspect, operating in the digitised environment does not conform entirely to recognised multi-sensory approaches (Beacham & Alty, 2006, p.78). Moreover, even though some researchers suggest working with digitally produced learning materials can help dyslexic students, other scholars have established dyslexic learners experience problems working online (Beacham & Alty, 2006, pp.77-78) namely:

- Having to repeatedly read written words;
• Misreading or losing their place in the text;
• Finding it hard to concentrate on the computer screen and experiencing related visual discernment problems;
• Not understanding and remembering difficult words;
• Finding it difficult to make links between information conveyed to them via audio recordings;
• Experiencing difficulty assimilating and recalling symbols or word arrangements (Beacham & Alty, 2006, p.77).

ASP6 indicated while he preferred to work digitally, he had difficulty navigating the digital environment in ways that related directly to the issues addressed above. He admitted he had difficulty remembering how he had coded information and folders online. Often, he could not get back to sites where he discovered relevant data, find the folders where he had stored downloaded information, or locate the data he created himself (Figures 88 & 89). Also, ASP6 acknowledged he had difficulty making models and producing drawings manually (Figure 82, Column 5) which, as I indicated earlier, I inferred pointed to a motor skill issue (Beacham & Alty, 2006, p.76). Further, although ASP6 did not mention digital representation, it was likely his acknowledged processing problems operating online made working with architectural representation software problematic because these software programmes require the user to produce drawings using layers to represent different kinds of information. I elaborate on this point below.
Now more than ever, architectural designing involves managing multiple levels of digitised information during the design process, with data emerging from one phase contributing to and delimiting the next step (Dernie, 2014; Kurt, 2009, p.402). Except what happens when, as ASP6 indicated, you cannot remember where you stored early process work or get back to related theoretical data? If you do not remember what layers you produced parts of the early design drawings on or how to find them in the
digital representation software? If you cannot recall what you called a Word file or where you stored the most recent copy of a drawing file or any other assignment file?

In his interview responses, ASP6 intimated he had developed coping strategies to manage some of these learning challenges (Figures 89 & 90). He indicated he relied on his colleagues to prompt him about significant data or identifiers like designers’ names, via conversation or helping him locate missing data. ASP6 acknowledged he used these prompts as inputs online as a way to locate and get back to the sites he uncovered information on previously, or locate files using their names as identifiers (Figure 90). He intimated he used conversation and interaction to inculcate knowledge into his memory so that he could recall and use it at a later date (Figures 89 & 90). Consequently, I interpreted his comments to mean that he needed to interact with his colleagues socially as design knowledge sources and used that knowledge physically to assimilate and retain information for future use (Cross, 1999a, pp.5-6; Wenger, 1998a). His modus operandi related in some ways to Schön & Wiggins’ (1992) observation designers build meanings via the thinking, talking and doing associated with designing, and Cross’s (1999a, pp.5-6) contention design knowledge resides in people and designing processes. As well as partially reflecting the philosophical, architectural and social semiotic multimodality view meaning-making involves working with signs executed by communicative modes as instruments (Aicher, 2015; Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Gănshirt, 2007; Wittgenstein, 1958). However, I wondered what happened when ASP6 did not have direct access to the people who constitute his major link to the knowledge he requires?

Researchers draw attention to a range of well-established assistive-technology software tools that support reading, writing, acquiring information, administration, and cognitive practices (Parette & Peterson-Karlan, 2007, pp.388-390). Such technologies include screen readers, screen magnification software, text readers, speech input software like ‘Dragon Naturally Speaking’, and alternative input devices. Also, the Microsoft software, including Word and Powerpoint, students use, incorporates help sections and recall mechanisms. These software programmes also contain digitised assistive-technology like text-to-speech facilities and Cortana, a virtual assistant, that helps you carry out a range of tasks, including locating files and identifying your search history. Students, like ASP6, can (or may not) use the inbuilt help these programmes offer as a form of compensatory
assistive-technology device. The inbuilt help gives students, like ASP6, access to what Parette & Peterson-Karlan (2007, pp.388-389) refer to as a “floor of opportunity” (p.388) that potentially helps them improve their academic performance because using the assistive-technology tool allows them to utilise software at the required level. At the research site, students experiencing learning challenges like dyslexia have access to ‘texthelp’ ‘read and write gold’ via our access office. From an academic perspective integrating online instructional technologies with assistive-technology involves ensuring there is a convergence between the two types of intervention (Parette & Peterson-Karlan, 2007, p.390).

However, as I said earlier, research evidence suggests using digital technologies in of itself does not lead to proficiency (Ala-Mutka, 2011). Instead, developing competency is understood to require moving from an instrumental skills base towards generative and strategic capacity (Ala-Mutka, 2011, p.5). In Chapter Two, I highlighted the fact, in an architectural situation, working online is driven by resources for form generation and information mapping like Autodesk’s Revit. As I intimated in that chapter, nonverbal, verbal and visual resources are merged in these environments into conceptual design tools for mediating the design process (Altürk, 2008; Coleman, 2010; Gänshirt, 2007, 215

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**Figure 90: Extract ASP6 interview transcript- coping strategies.**
p.101; Oxman, 1999, 2006, 2008). Producing architectural output online requires the designer to manipulate a computer-based interface and a different kind of cognitive input and productive level is required in this situation (Chastain et al., 2002, p.238; Oxman, 2006, pp.243-244). I interpreted these ideas about the complex mechanics of working digitally and developing proficiency in this environment and ASP6’s acknowledged literacy issues to indicate, it was likely the ongoing challenges he faced delayed or impeded his capacity for developing his proficiency and multimodal literacy levels regarding working online. I move on now to explore ASP6’s meaning-making efforts to explicate the way he used the available communicative resources given his stated learning challenges. My notes on the extracted segments (Figures 91-93) relate to his multimodal orchestration.
Figure 91: Extract ASP6 multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D6, Volume Two, p.388)
Figure 92: Extract ASP6 multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D6, Volume Two, pp.388-389)
Figure 93: Extract ASP6 multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D6, Volume Two, p.389)
In the one minute and fifty-second clip shown above ASP6 was presenting his precedent task outputs for the second precedent (Figures 91-93). ASP6 produced and pinned three presentation sheets at eye level, with one hung on the side wall projecting into the studio and the other two pinned on the crit wall facing into the room within the u-shaped bay he shared with ASP7 (Figure 94).

![Image of ASP6 presenting](image)

*Figure 94: Extract ASP6 multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D6, Volume Two, p.389)*

In his interview responses, ASP6 indicated he copied the data he sourced online into Microsoft software and then traced over the plans, sections, 3D views and visualisations he collected for Precedent One while responding to the task (Figure 95). Whereas for Precedent Two, on one sheet he replicated the plans, sections, axonometric 3D views, and interior visualisations and restricted his intervention to colouring in portions of the plans (Figures 95 & 96). On the second sheet, he followed the protocol he adopted for Precedent One.

![Image of ASP6 interview summary](image)

*Figure 95: Extract ASP6 interview summaries, Q2C (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.341)*
He did not refer to the second sheet containing his personally generated drawings for this precedent at any point during the clip relying instead on the sheet containing the replicated images (Figure 96). As I said earlier, he attributed the lack of annotation to his dyslexia issues, plus he indicated that he interpreted his tutors’ comments about architectural drawings to mean the drawings should be able to communicate efficiently without annotation (Figure 96).
However, although ASP6 included many essential visual components required to tell the architectural analytical story, site context information was missing except for the diagrammatic axonometric view showing the housing street layout (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.1; Chaplin, 2014; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Holgate, 2008). Further, like ASP4, ASP6’s presentation sheets contained no analytical information linking his findings for this precedent to the other example or back to the social housing discourse outlined in the project brief. Then, the planimetric drawings he represented indicated layouts for three different house types. However, it was not clear which house type the two sections on the top of his sheet were vertical cuts through (Figure 96). Moreover, no overlaid visual or textual analysis existed to demonstrate ASP6 had engaged with the precedent critically. Again, like ASP4, ASP6 did not use conventional diagramming techniques to translate and relate contextual information and functional layout drawings to sections and elevations or 3D views. Further, several times during the presentation ASP6 spoke about the building while gazing and gesturing at or superimposing his finger on one kind of drawing when he needed to be referring to another drawing type. For example, he explained the roof lights and courtyard were primary natural light sources in the building while superimposing his finger on an axonometric layout diagram (Figure 98), rather than referring to the sections and 3D model on his sheet to support his comment and put his visual representations into action via his talk and gestures (Murphy, 2005, pp.118-125; Swales et al., 2001, p.446).
Then, although ASP6 incorporated interior views on his presentation sheets, like ASP4, he presented no visual deductive analysis in the form of personally generated diagrammatic information to translate and relate the ideological, functional and experiential aspects of Precedent Two, a core academic expectation (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.ix; Bar-Eli, 2013, p.472; Chaplin, 2014; Do & Gross, 2001, p.2; Downing & Hubka, 1986, pp.45-49; Eris et al., 2014, pp.561-562; Medway, 1994).

I interpreted ASP6’s visual response to indicate he had not yet assimilated the knowledge and skill base required to draw on, make decisions about, and use the semiotic functions the visual mode offered him to work analytically in this meaning-making scenario productively (Balmer & Swisher, 2012, p.ix; Bar-Eli, 2013, p.472; Do & Gross, 2001, p.2; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Eris et al., 2014, pp.561-562; Medway, 1994). Also, his visual response suggested to me, like ASP4, he probably experienced many of the
accumulated adverse cognitive effects avoiding diagramming brings in addition to the knowledge and skills challenges that result from his dyslexia. Again, my considerations concerning ASP6’s acknowledged dyslexia-related learning problems related to the social semiotic multimodality thinking re-making or interpreting signs using multimodal resources is an acknowledged means of learning, and transformation (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.57-63; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.175; Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7).

Still, this was not the full story regarding ASP6’s multimodal meaning-making efforts. I realised from analysing and comparing my research data it would be unwise to conclude ASP6 did not engage with the task critically at any point while responding to the precedent task. The clues for this statement were embedded in the questionnaire and interview matrices as well as in the multimodal observation transcript for his review. First, ASP6 intimated his working life was characterised by and embodied forty-years of building experience (Figures 84, Column 4). If, as Cross (1999a, pp.5-6) suggests, design knowledge exists in people then it is reasonable to suppose ASP6 had a well-established stock of architectural knowledge and skills to draw on when he joined the programme that helped him gain access to and participate in the CoP at the research site (Berger & Luckmann, 1991, p.49; Norris, 2004, Wenger, 1998a, 1998b, Wenger et al., 2002). Secondly, ASP6 emphasised (Figures 88, 89 & 90) he drew on other peoples’ design knowledge in face-to-face settings to help him manage his dyslexia-related learning issues (Berger & Luckmann, 1991, p.49; Cross, 1999a, pp.5-6; Norris, 2004, Wenger, 1998a, 1998b, Wenger et al., 2002). As I indicated earlier, I interpreted this to mean ASP6’s preferred modus operandi involved relying on verbal and kinesthetic communicative resources to assimilate knowledge and skills (Eris et al., 2014, p.565). That is, the evidence suggested he drew on the semiotic potential talking and gestures offered via social interaction to learn, retain, recall, and use information for future meaning-making endeavours (Cross, 1999a, pp.5-6; Eris et al., 2014; pp.564-565; Kress, 2010, pp.143-148; Wenger, 1998a). In a way, this is not surprising given ASP6’s acknowledged cognitive processing issues. Researchers draw attention to the fact kinesthetic reasoning lowers the cognitive load and so frees up the mind to do other work including facilitating the recall process (Goldin-Meadow, 1999, p.427). Thirdly, during our face-to-face interview ASP6’s orchestrated conversation, gesturing, and interactions with his presentation materials provided testimony that led me to conclude he had
engaged critically with the buildings he examined during the precedent task (Figures 99 & 100). Nevertheless, no physical record of his signs of engagement and learning would have remained once ASP6 finished speaking and interacting had I not recorded the interaction formally for this research (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.50-51; Hutchins & Palen, 1997; Kress, 2009a, p.55; Murphy, 2003, 2005; Norris, 2011). Fourthly, while I cannot say that ASP6 drew on verbal and gestural means effectively throughout his observed review, there were instances when he did do so as my commentary in Figure 101 indicates.

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266  ASP6:  Yeah, yeah. Well the evidence is that you have two large walls, one on either side of you, so you are completely contained left to right [occupier].

271  ASP6:  You have an internal garden and an internal courtyard. You have small-- two very small windows looking to the road. Your street view is actually obstructed by a balcony area which has only got windows on one side of it.

274  inside in the apartment. So you are actually looking through a balcony window, out onto your terrace or your balcony area, through a secondary opening, before you can see outside.

280  ASP6:  It is internally focused. You have huge big windows internally into your little courtyard, and everything is focused on you being inside your unit.

965  ASP6:  The layouts work very well. Yeah, the layout works fine just this thing-- you have these huge big walls all around you. Your garden was inside two huge big walls. It was actually up eight feet to ten foot off the ground. It is on top of your garage.

972  ASP6:  So even when you are in your garden you were totally isolated because you couldn’t get to the ground. You know.

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Figure 99: Extract ASP6 interview transcript.

508  RM:  And you have all the evidence, but if you weren’t there to talk it, we wouldn’t know you had done all that analysis. And you have done all that analysis.

512  ASP6:  But I do that all the time. I freely admit, I can talk it but I am not good at putting it down [in writing].

521  ASP6:  I would spend hours, and hours, and hours, researching it and I would find images that suited what I was thinking about.

Figure 100: Extract ASP6 interview transcript.
In this example, I uncovered some of the challenges that a student experiencing dyslexia faced during his multimodal meaning-making efforts. ASP6’s stated problems with reading and writing pointed to the likelihood he had issues engaging critically with architectural knowledge embedded in design related literature including assignment material like the project brief (Beacham & Alty, pp.76-77). Further, although he said he could interpret visual media, ASP6 admitted he relied more on interpreting other peoples’ representations than making analytical diagrams to aid his visual reasoning.
capacity. An aspect of his meaning-making practices I construed to indicate he also had issues re-making or interpreting signs using multimodal resources thereby limiting his opportunities for learning, and transformation (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.57-63; Bezemer & Kress, 2008, p.175, and Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7). In his interview dialogue, ASP6 intimated he preferred to work digitally to produce his architectural work because doing so gave him opportunities to engage with learning visually and aurally, his favoured learning modes besides talking and social interaction. Nevertheless, ASP6 acknowledged he experiences many of the common cognitive issues people with dyslexia encounter, including finding it difficult to process, retain and recall written information; identify files or locate data; and generate physical models and drawings (Beacham & Alty, 2006, pp.76-77; Mortimore & Crozier, 2006, p.236). Further, although ASP6 did not discuss digital representation, it was likely his acknowledged processing problems affected his digital design work because many architectural drawing software programmes require the user to produce drawings using multiple layers for different kinds of information. ASP6’s stated multimodal literacy issues pointed to the likelihood he faced an uphill battle navigating both the analogue and the digital environment (Oxman, 2006, pp.243-244).

The presentation clip illustrated in Figures, 91, 92, and 93 pointed towards the conclusion ASP6’s multimodal meaning-making during the observed review was problematic in several ways. Firstly, ASP6 did not include overlaid visual and textual analysis on the sheets he presented during his presentation. As a result, he neglected to provide the physical evidence, required to establish he engaged with the task analytically from an academic perspective (Bezemer & Kress, 2016). Thus, ASP6’s limited visual approach to the task coupled with his omissions regarding orchestrating talk, text, visuals and gestures simultaneously in an integrative way indicated he also had issues materialising what he was learning outwardly (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.61-62). Given ASP6’s acknowledged cognitive and practical problems I interpreted his meaning-making actions to indicate he had a multimodal literacy issue making it difficult for him to draw on the semiotic potential of the different communicative resources fully during his meaning-making endeavours (Jewitt, 2009, p.15; Kress, 2010; Bezemer & Kress, 2016). My discussion here points to my emerging conclusion about the inextricable connection between becoming
literate multimodally, managing the analogue and digital environment and rhetorical meaning-making (Kress, 2010).

**Roles, Relationships, and Orchestration**

In this segment, I focus on the roles of, and relationships between, the modes in the participants’ orchestrated ensembles to develop my analysis and emerging conclusion about the dynamic aspect of the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making.

One of the matters that struck me forcefully during my deliberations concerns the animated interplay I observed between the nonverbal, oral, literal and visual modes in the participants’ multimodal orchestrations during the observed review. In Chapter Two, I established investigating the roles, relationships, and dynamic interplay between modes is a principal departure point in research concerning multimodality (Jewitt et al., 2016, p.18). At the research site, communicating multimodally architecturally is addressed in all subject areas. Communicating multimodally as a form of learning is an integral component of each topic and a core aspect of design studio (Akalin & Sezal, 2009; Cuff, 1991; Koch et al., 2002; Ochsner, 2000; Oxman, 1999; Schön, 1984, 1987, 1991; Webster, 2005, p.267). In an architectural context, gesturing, writing, talking and drawings are understood to be mediating means through which the imagined building, the final output, comes into being (Dias et al., 2013, pp.76-77). Even then the multimodal communicative process does not end. As the building is open to interpretation and reinterpretation as users and viewers interact with the meanings embodied in its material manifestation (Eco, 1980; Whyte, 2006, p.177). Scholars stress architects, and by inference design students, must communicate their design on different levels semiotically to accommodate these factors (Medway, 1996b; Dias et al., 2013). Medway (1996b, p.26) highlights several relationships between gestural action, writing, speaking and visual means in orchestration that have import here regarding the participants’ meaning-making during the review namely:

- Using one resource to refer to something in another mode, such as pointing deictically at an image;
• Referring to entities simultaneously across modes, such as speaking while sketching and or gesturing mimetically;
• Employing modes distinctly communicatively, including gesturing, speaking, writing or drawing alone.

Gestures
Gestural activities are the communication resource least attended to by academics and students in the research setting. During the interviews, I asked the students about the role of nonverbal resources in their presentation while addressing questions about the observed review. The participants’ responses indicated they perceived their gestural activity to be mainly instinctive and serving a supportive role in the review meaning-making activity (Figure 102 & 103). One student, ASP2, drew attention to the mimetic aspect of gestural action (Figure 102), (Wulf, 2008, p.60). Nevertheless, several participants indicated they consider how to use gestures deictically to interact with their presentation artefacts, or kinetically regarding moving and using the crit space advantageously (Figure 102 & 103), (Murphy, 2003). The participants’ reactions indicated they view gestural activity positively as dynamic, something that provokes interest and attracts their audience’s attention (Figures 102 & 103). However, several students also perceived gestural activity negatively, in the sense gestures can distract or be a sign of nervousness. Interestingly choreographing gestures was an activity several participants believed could be construed as behaving falsely, even though representation is itself a strategised activity (Bafna, 2008, pp.536-537; Eris et al., 2014). Most of the participants’ orchestrations at some point during their presentation underlined how gestural activity could put design talk and drawings into action via the pointing at, moving towards and away, and mimicking aspects of the architectural components illustrated in other modes (Murphy, 2005, pp.118-125).
Figure 102: Extract interview summary sheets, Q4C. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.353)

Research Notes

Asp1 — Instinctual, natural, and part of a person’s way of expressing themselves. Does not think about it deliberately. Links gestural activity to showing animation, interest, dynamic. On the downside, links gesturing to struggling to articulate oneself verbally and using gestures as support. Perceives choreographing gestural activity negatively, might be perceived as behaving falsely.

Asp2 — Acknowledges use of gestural activity continually, instinctual, again sees gestural activity in a supporting role something that helps you speak with more confidence. Mentions pointing to something. Sees it as habitual — “like putting the jacket on.”

Asp3 — Acknowledges he uses all kinds of gestures continually. Uses his hands to demonstrate and explain. Again instinctual, does not realise he is gesturing. Views gestural activity positively, holds the audience’s attention, engaging, a visual stimulant, a distraction.

Asp4 — A trained performer and so her perception is she uses gestural activity deliberately regarding position and movement. Asp5 is nervous speaking publicly. So, he has organisation issues and he links gestures to managing his emotions. He mentions his dyslexia as something that inhibits his behaviour.
And I find it hard to speak out in front of everybody, rather than talk to somebody one to one.
And I get a bit nervous, and I slip up, and I don’t bring up stuff that I should have in my mind, like the work. But in terms of presenting and using my hands and stuff, I generally know what I do is, I’ll talk about the stuff, and I try to have as much eye contact with the listeners as possible.

But I do have to refer back to the sheet in front of me, to make sure I have the right information.
So, I point at it, and say “this is what I am talking about in this section”.
I know what it is. I have been challenged about it on occasions because of -- I was a previous instructor for five years. So, we had to do presentations for the regular class, and I did several training courses, and I am used to standing up and stuff. So yes, I am aware of it. I have never seen myself on TV. So, I am intrigued to know what my non-verbal communication is like.

You need to look at the audience rather than the sheet. I try to make eye contact now and then.
The problem is that you can get distracted by you, especially if somebody looks totally confused --
as to what you are saying.

And sometimes I don’t think I do the waving at the hands. I would probably point to the drawing and point to stuff like that.
I don’t know that I do the hand waving gestures.
Oh, pointing yeah. I would be calculating what I would be going to point at, and why. So, the pointing would definitely be deliberate.

So, you don’t necessarily decide you are going to point at anything?
I do. I would keep key things that I wanted to point out in case the presentation didn’t go as I already told that.

Okay, you said at the start of this (talking about the review for the precedent study) that you felt you had people’s attention. How did you know people’s attention, because that’s all part of body language? How did you know?

Do you try to make eye contact throughout the presentation?
Yes, I do, I think.
Would that be the main way that you would read whether someone was interested?
It would be my main way yes.
Okay. You wouldn’t recognise it in any other way?
No, not really. So, basically, I would -- the main way I would read that someone has -- I think in their interest.

Sometimes I realise this <laughs> but sometimes if I -- I don’t know it depends on the way how you are feeling, your mood and everything.
Okay. So, you weren’t having a good day that day. So, what did that mean in terms of your non-verbal communication?
So, it will be more kind of tentative, this and that ([inaudible segment]) <laughs>.
Okay so you actually do think about your non-verbal?
If be like in a good mood, and like, I would be a hundred per cent sure about my work. I would be very verbal. I always talk sharper.
But that is your talking. ([inaudible segment]) and hands <laughs>.
You would use gestures, right.
Sometimes I do just thinking like “they are your lecturers and they know more than you” so I can’t be disappointed to be more right or wrong.

Figure 103: Extract interview summary sheets, Q4C. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.354)
In the composite image below (Figure 104), I put together a collection of video stills from the multimodal observation transcripts of all eight participants’ gestural activity during their observed reviews that relate to the roles of gestures in the meaning-making event. The notes link the gestural behaviour the participants deployed to the functions their behaviour served in the meaning-making activity, namely to:

- Make a connection with and express interest to others via movement, gaze and facial expression;
- Mediate the drawings and talking to put both into action via pointing at, superimposing fingers on or tracing over to draw attention to or highlight an aspect of the drawing, and/or reinforce or support ideas expressed verbally;
- Connote stance or attitude;

It was evident during my analysis, and the medley (Figure 104) illustrates, while the participants considered gesturing to be mainly instinctual, gestures were deployed continuously by the participants in the review, and played an important part in their meaning-making orchestrations (Eunson, 2012, p.256; Gorden, 1980, pp314-315, 1992, p.104). Also, my deliberations clarified the way gestures can help architectural designers depict imaginary three-dimensional space by putting their talking and drawing into action via pointing at and mimicking how different architectural mechanisms expressed in other modes, like height, width or position for example, operate (Murphy, 2003, 2005, pp.118-125; Visser, 2009). I interpreted my observations about the participants’ gestural activity to point towards the conclusion the participants’ gestures were interacting dynamically with other communicative resources to support and communicate meaning, thereby corroborating other scholars findings about multimodal interaction (Cash & Maier, 2016; Godwin, 2003; Hutchins & Palen, 1997; Norris, 2011; Wardak, 2016).
Figure 104: Composite from participants multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D, Volume Two, pp.357-402)
Speaking and Writing

Although speaking and writing are addressed across the programme, the most time and resources are given over to teaching students how to use visual means to develop their visual reasoning capacity for designing and representing their design outputs (Eris et al., 2014; Kasprisin & Pettinciri, 1995; Dias et al., 2013; Unwin, 2007; Yee, 2012). Talking and writing, while acknowledged as important and fundamental components of design related activities, are still thought to support the core activity of designing in this research setting (Dias et al., 2013, pp.76-77). The students are required to write essays in all years and an extended essay and design report in final-year to demonstrate their capacity to express their thinking discursively about a range of architectural issues. Nonetheless, these activities are subordinate to the visual realisation of projects and design thesis (Dias et al., 2013, pp.76-77; Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.7).

Up to now, the course team had not formally addressed the oral rhetorical moves students could adopt with gestures to animate their imagined building or convince their audiences of the merit of their deliberations (Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-446; Webster, 2005, p.277). Although oral presentations are a core component in design studio and other subjects (Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.8; Murphy, 2005, pp.118-125; Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-446; Webster, 2005, p.277). As I indicated previously, hitherto, our focus regarding developing communication competencies tended to stress the visual and written element, and oral communication skills advice leaned towards public speaking guidelines while emphasising the need to use and explain architectural terminology fittingly (Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.8). This stance materialised itself negatively in the participants’ attitude towards the oral orchestration component in the observed review. Many participants focused solely on preparing their presentation artefacts output and did not leave enough time to get ready to present orally and multimodally. Although the course team stress how vital it is to prepare the oral and multimodal messages you want to convey during classes and design studio tutorials (Dannels, 2005, p.147). During the interviews several participants intimated they had abandoned headlines and/or script prompts, for instance, relying on their memory or hung artefacts instead to guide their orchestration; thereby limiting their opportunities to engage with their audience
interactively because they had to continuously look at their presentation materials while presenting their findings (Figure 105).

Nonetheless, talking is an established aspect of producing architecture even if it is sometimes regarded as taking on a supportive role (Cuff, 1991, p.122; Dias et al., 2013, pp.76-77; Dong, 2007, p.6; Medway, 1994; 1996b; Medway & Clark, 2003; Spector & Damron, 2013, p.4). As I indicated in the section concerning the project brief, my deliberations led to questions about whether the evidence embodied in the participants’ orchestrated ensembles showed they had a critical understanding of, firstly what social housing concepts meant in design terms; secondly, how they connected with the broader housing discourse; and finally, how these ideas were manifested in the architecture they examined, critical academic considerations for the task (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; pp.13-16; Kress, 2009b, p.22; Kress, 2010, pp.295-296). In the composite image below (Figure 105).
During my analysis, I considered Dong’s (2007, p.6) ideas about the performative aspect of design language regarding, combining ideas in an integrative manner, offering a frame for ideas and concepts, and making decisions concerning future action. Also, I wondered how the participants persuaded their audience to accept their ideas during the review, given the design studio and associated review process are considered primary spaces for developing the ability to use communicative resources rhetorically (Akalin & Sezal, 2009, p.14; Dannels, 2005; Koch et al., 2002; Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.7; Stevens, 1995; Webster, 2005, p.277). I questioned if the participants managed to “hold the floor” for instance via adopting similar rhetorical moves to those Swales et al. (2001, pp.445-446) identified in their research? Namely:

- Interpreting their analysis at differing levels, so that they were synthesising their deliberations in ways that conformed to established academic conventions about speaking, in tandem with gestures towards their representational material;
- Using the present tense and gestures when referring to the drawings, and the first person to denote their critical engagement as they engaged with their audience (Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-446);
- Connoting the experiential aspect of the architecture they examined, via using the present tense to describe how the designs manifested and objectified the designers’ abstract intentions while moving about and gesturing towards the relevant architectural artefact to trigger their audience into experiencing the imaginary building (Luck & McDonnell, 2006, p.142; Medway, 1996a, p.501; Swales et al., 2001, p.446; Webster, 2005, p.277).

From my analysis of the observation and multimodal observation transcripts, I noted several participants drew on the terminology in the brief mentioning sustainability directly, and all the other participants used terminology that reflected sustainable design thinking indirectly. Most of the participants developed their talk about this issue
discursively, albeit it simply, via either using the term or providing an explanation of how sustainable practices were implemented functionally (Webster, 2005, p.277) using a mixture of tenses (Figures 106 & 107). Further, although few participants linked their discussion to other social housing concepts raised in the project brief directly, most did so indirectly. For example, several participants talked about how the building systems supported the way the architecture functioned which related to the intelligent design principle (Figures 106 & 107) (Webster, 2005, p.277). I interpreted this finding to indicate that although the participants might not have described their exemplars underpinning ideology in terminology that connected directly to concepts outlined in the project brief they did, in fact, address this thinking indirectly verbally via their dialogue and partially via their visual representations. However, for the most part, their conversation emphasised how the building worked regarding these principles rather than what values the design objectified (Webster, 2005, p.277). As the participants were a third-year group of undergraduate students, I suggest they might not have developed their capacity or be expected to interpret their analysis at the same level as Master’s students. Nonetheless, the participants did deliberate about their findings using architectural terminology, explanation in a mixture of tenses, in tandem with gestures towards or on their representational material (Figure 106). Also, they did utilise the first person singular to denote their considerations and the past tense while referring to the designers’ intent or what the literature they engaged with had to say about the design (Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-447). Thus, they drew on and highlighted the functions different modes serve in orchestrated ensembles during their presentations, thereby confirming the dynamic aspect of using communicative resources interactively.
Figure 106: Extract composite multimodal observation transcripts. (Source: Appendix 1D, Volume Two, pp.357-402)
Figure 107: Extract participants observation transcripts.
Moreover, I inferred the participants’ use of silences and interjections to be moments of recollection, and opportunities to take time to think, as they gathered their thoughts to make a point about some feature of the precedent they were addressing (Kress, 2010, pp.146-147). However, tutors and students interrupted or spoke over each other frequently when the other person paused or spoke in a disjointed way which could have hindered the first speaker from elucidating their thoughts coherently or made them lose track of what they wanted to say (Figures 109 & 110). These interruptions (See Legend, Figure 108 for notation symbol) led me to consider whether, or how, we understand or value the verbal component of the orchestration during the review, particularly the silences, interjections and disjointed talk as learning moments. The above deliberations pointed to the conclusion students, and staff, did not seem to be drawing on the full semiotic potential verbal modes offered to promote their design ideas convincingly. That is, they did not adopt established rhetorical moves for holding the listener’s attention (Swales et al., 2001., p.446; Morton & O’Brien, 2005, p.10).

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Figure 108: Legend for verbal transcription. (Source: VOICE Project, 2007)

- Quotation marks for direct speech or thoughts within narrative “…”
- Disjointed, restarts or repetitious text = - -
- [explanation added by researcher]
- [anonymised names and or locations, as well as corrections for readability]
- Comma [,] for pauses and punctuation
- Double brackets for inaudible segments or guessed text ((inaudible/guessed))
- <interruptions of one person’s speech by another – starting to and talking before previous speaker has finished>
- Question mark for rising intonation =?
- <Laughter and other sounds>
- CAPITAL LETTERS for emphasised speech
During the review, the participants focused on explaining the general architectural features of the housing exemplars while referring to their impact on the surrounding context and how the building performed functionally and technically (Figure 110). Nearly everyone referred to access, overall geometrical aspects and orientation, spatial layout, particularly the open-planning flexible feature of the designs, the potential future adaptability of the configurations, and, highlighted design considerations regarding circulation, light, materials, structure, assembly and building systems (Figures 106 & 107).
Nevertheless, none of the participants described how the designs manifested the designers’ conceptual intentions for the experiential aspects of the design directly verbally. Although several participants did include interior images on their presentation sheets, they did not overlay any textual or diagrammatic analysis on the visual reproductions to show they had engaged critically with this aspect of the precedent. Therefore, I took this to signify the participants missed an opportunity to prompt their audience into experiencing the sensate qualities of the imaginary building as if it were built (Luck & McDonnell, 2006, p.142; Medway, 1996a, p.501; Swales et al., 2001, pp.446-447). I inferred this verbal omission related directly to the fact firstly, only two students had a script for prompts and secondly, the overlaid visual analysis required to help the participants interpret the experiential features of the buildings verbally was missing from many presentation artefacts. Thus, I deduced this aspect of the analysis might have got overlooked verbally during the crit because the participants did not draw on or use the full functional repertoire the visual mode offered to construct their visual materials. I interpreted this to indicate their ability to use talk and gestures to their best advantage was restricted and or blocked by their partial use of the visual mode, thereby illustrating an inextricable link between modes during communicative interaction (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2010).

Visual Mode
For the most part, the participants’ interview responses indicated they had conducted desktop research in the design studio for the precedent task relying on their laptops to access textual and visual information about the precedents they examined. The participants acknowledged they visited the designers’ websites, the competition website, and sourced planning information, design reports, and marketing information in pdf format. I gathered from their interview replies participants went through similar procedures to capture the textual and visual information they sourced online using software tools like ‘snip-it’ or ‘Jing’ to transfer the written and visual information into Word, Publisher or PowerPoint before beginning the analysis process (Figures 111, 112 & 113). Also, the participants’ answers seemed to indicate they adopted different tactics for analysis depending on their preferred way of working. ASP1 stated she created a framework to sort her data based on the headlines she identified in her research and
prior learning to make decisions about the issues she would address (Figures 111 & 112). Also, ASP1 explained she condensed data via redrawing and translating the sourced diagrams before scanning her work into the digital environment to use on her presentation sheets (Figures 111 & 112). Likewise, ASP2 adopted a similar translation and analytic process (Figure 112). Conversely, several participants acknowledged they did not produce analytical drawings for the precedent task relying instead on replicating them on their presentation sheets, with or without overlaid analysis (Figure 113, circled. Refer to Figure 110 also).

I found this approach surprising and unexpected given the fact the roles, and relationships between different kinds of architectural drawings and diagrams are addressed extensively and repeatedly by academics at the research site as a fundamental constituent of developing the visual reasoning capacity associated with designing in the design process (Dernie, 2014; Do, 2002; Gänshirt, 2007, pp.98-101; Unwin, 2007). Also, I should point out again, academics at the research site, like many architectural scholars, consider diagramming by hand to be:

- A process of configuring graphical symbols to show abstract relationships that are interpreted and reinterpreted during the design process by the designer and by those who interact with them as representations of the designed building and objectified values of the designer (Kazmierczak, 2003, pp.46-48; Suwa & Tversky, 1997, p.386; Vowles, 2000, pp.260-261; Webster, 2005, pp.274-277; Wittgenstein, 1958).

Aside from the acknowledged tensions balancing the different kinds of workload working in the analogue and digital environment presented not developing one’s capacity for visual reasoning via diagramming pointed to a fundamental shortcoming in the participants’ third-year meaning-making practices. Also, this discovery pointed back to the problematic nature of managing the complex task of integrating the design,
technological, digital, professional and research dimensions of the architectural curriculum from both the academic and student perspective (Williams et al., 2007, p.10).

I took the participants’ acknowledged shortfall regarding using visual language to indicate several participants were not drawing on and using all the semiotic functions the visual mode embodies in the meaning-making endeavour efficiently regarding the level they were at currently in their learning journey (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Kress, 2010). In turn, pointing to the conclusion for several participants their meaning-making knowledge and skill base repertoire remained partial and restricted, thereby limiting their rhetoric multimodal meaning-making capacity (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Kress, 2010, pp.147-148).
Figure 112: Extract interview summaries. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.336)
Extract interview summaries. (Source: Appendix 1C, Volume Two, p.337)
Concluding Comment

In this chapter, I constructed a detailed account of the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making practices (Holliday, 2002, pp.125-126). I set out the workings of my analytical process to show how my themes, interpretations and conclusions emerged (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.197). I presented findings and interpretations I considered transferable that answered my research question about the extent to which the multimodal communication resources the participants used, during the observed review, worked together to enact meaning. I did so while considering the theories and research findings across the five intersections between the architectural and social semiotic multimodality research strands that informed and shaped my analysis process (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.197; Snow et al., 2003, p.183). I explored my findings, interpretations and emerging conclusions multimodally drawing on the examples I presented regarding the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making efforts and learning challenges regarding insider knowledge, multimodal literacy, and roles, relationships and orchestration. Thus, I believe I produced an analysis that is empirically credible and contributes first-hand as well as theoretical evidence about the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making from a social semiotic multimodality perspective (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.197; Snow et al., 2003, p.182). I move on now to the final chapter to discuss my conclusions about architectural meaning-making through a social semiotic lens, my contribution to knowledge, and the limitations of this study before closing this research story with some thoughts about the way forward.
6 Conclusions

This case study provided an insider’s view of a distinct group of Irish architectural students’ rhetorical meaning-making efforts from an architectural and social semiotic multimodality perspective. During the project I focused on appraising the performative aspect of the participants’ multimodal literacy practices and rhetorical strategies during the observed review for an initial precedent task for one project during their academic studies in 2015-2016 (Allan, 2013; Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Halverson et al., 2012; Jewitt, Bezemer & O’Halloran, 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2010). The interim crit for the participants’ response to the precedent task was a convenient setting in which to explore the participants’ meaning-making endeavours because it provided an actual example of multimodal communicative meaning-making via the observed review orchestration (Halverson et al. 2012, p.5; Norris, 2004; Thomas, 2016).

My constructivist outlook framed my decision to develop a case study and my choices regarding using a questionnaire, observation and semi-structured interviews to generate data about the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making. Again my constructivist perspective underscored my belief it was important to let my participants’ voices be heard in the research story while foregrounding my voice (Denscombe, 2010; Geertz, 1973, Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). At the outset, I signalled theory took on several distinct roles as the research story progressed. Namely, providing the foundations for the study overall; the structural frame for scaffolding the participants’ meaning-making; and a way of theorising about architectural students meaning-making through a social semiotic multimodality lens (Balarin, 2009; Evans et al., 2011). Thus, the project’s main aim was to extend the empirical evidence about architectural students’ meaning-making from a social semiotic multimodality angle (Snow et al., 2003, p.187). I theorised the niche for the case, the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making, existed in a gap encompassing five nodes intersecting architectural and social semiotic multimodality communication theory and practice (Eyal, 2010; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007, pp.19-26). Therefore, the study focused on examining architectural students’ rhetorical meaning-making to learn about the social
semiotic multimodality domain via investigating a specific example in a distinct field, architecture, to produce findings both the architectural education and social semiotic multimodality fields could draw on in a transferable manner (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Jewitt et al., 2016; Jewitt, 2009; Thomas, 2016, p.17).

Overall the inspiration for the research related directly to the complex nature of the contemporary architectural communication and technology landscape emerging from and influencing societal systems worldwide (Jenson, 2008; Kress, 2010; Nicol & Pilling, 2000; Worthington, 2000). A related significant motivating factor concerned the established need to examine the ways architectural students are enculturated into the specific forms of architectural culture their CoP or educational environment represents because architectural knowledge production remains a contested and contestable research focus (Williams et al., 2007, p.10). Also, my desire for knowledge about the participants’ meaning-making emerged out of my teaching practices regarding helping students develop their capacity for choosing and using multimodal communicative resources to construct rhetorical architectural meaning effectively (Bezemer & Kress, 2010; Dernie, 2014; Gänshirt, 2007; Jewitt, 2009; Kasprisin & Pettinciri, 1995). From the outset I intended to build a detailed and multifaceted view of what was going on in this setting regarding the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making endeavours that other architectural educators, particularly those operating in the HE, IoT sector in Ireland, could draw on in a practical manner (Hammersley, 2011; Thomas, 2016, p.4; Yin, 2009).

Consequently, my main research question concerned the extent to which the multimodal communication resources, the participants employed, operated together to enact architectural meaning during the observed review for the initial precedent phase of the designing activity for one project in design studio. During the literature work in Chapter Two, I addressed the substantive theory concerning architectural meaning-making considering the social semiotic multimodality perspective. The data I produced during the fieldwork and my analysis of the findings indicated I had obtained the evidence I needed to address my research queries about the roles of, and relationships between, the different representational and communicative
resources in the participants’ orchestrated ensembles as dynamic interactions. This outcome helped me establish how the students were using multimodal modes to produce rhetorical meaning during the precedent task and observed review and consider what the impact of their multimodal ensembles was on their emerging meaning-making, as knowledge production, from a social semiotic multimodality standpoint. The results obtained from the study, which are summarised below, seem to confirm the multilateral and dynamic relationship between the social, pedagogic, and semiotic in meaning-making in this setting (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, p.8).

Through the Social Semiotic Multimodality Lens

While offering many insights for understanding the roles and relationships of all the available communicative resources in the participants’ multimodal meaning-making from the social semiotic multimodality perspective the findings, interpretations and emerging conclusions presented in the previous chapter together produced the following conclusions about the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making efforts during the precedent task and observed review:

1. The participants’ level of insider knowledge appears to be related directly to the student’s ability to access and participate fully in the shared knowledge and skill base repertoire of the CoP at the research site and shapes and affects their rhetorical meaning-making potential;

2. The participants’ multimodal literacy levels regarding choosing and using nonverbal, talk, text and visual modes, in and across the analogue and digital environment, seems to shape and influence their ability to make rhetorical meaning in this setting proficiently;

3. The dynamic nature of the orchestrated ensemble in the observed review appears to underline and confirm the performative aspect of the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making from the social semiotic multimodality angle.
Insider Knowledge and Multimodal Literacy

My findings seem to indicate participants involved in the study from diverse backgrounds face serious challenges gaining access to and participating fully in the shared knowledge and skills rhetorical meaning-making repertoire of this CoP, affecting their meaning-making efforts adversely. International participants’ distinct cultural backgrounds and associated language challenges and other students’ specific learning differences, such as experiencing dyslexia, appear to have impacted directly on their ability to develop their multimodal literacy levels across the subject areas and in design studio (Beacham & Alty, 2006, pp.76-78; Mortimore & Crozier, 2006, p.247).

Moreover, the evidence indicated the unhelpful learning characteristics and coping strategies ASP4 and ASP6 acknowledged they adopted for the precedent task and exhibited during the observed review influenced and shaped their meaning-making endeavours negatively (Brookfield, 2006, pp.139-174). Notably, it looks as though avoiding making analytical drawings compounded their knowledge and skill challenges concerning the precedent task and impacted negatively on their efforts to present their findings efficiently in line with established architectural meaning-making conventions (Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-447; Webster, 2005, p.277). That is, the students’ problems producing analytical diagrams seemed to be contributing to their difficulty understanding and analysing design ideology and how it becomes materialised in the designed object during the design process (Bar Eli, 2013, p.474; Suwa & Tversky, 1997). Moreover, ASP4 and ASP6’s limited visual approach to the precedent task, coupled with their omissions regarding orchestrating talk, text, visuals and gestures integratively during the observed review, pointed to the conclusion they have issues materialising what they are learning outwardly (Bezemer & Kress, 2016, pp.61-62). The information processing, making diagrams, and orchestration issues taken together, although they stem from distinctly different origins in ASP4 and ASP6’s case, appear to confirm the notion it is the re-making of signs or interpreting signs using multimodal resources that facilitates and provides signs of learning and transformation (Bezemer & Kress’s,2008, p.175; Bezemer & Jewitt, 2009, pp.6-7). My analysis and interpretations of these students’ different challenges pointed to the
conclusion there is a need for the course team to integrate differentiated instruction and assistive-technology approaches more fully into our pedagogical practices to respond reflexively to the recognised benefits of adopting inclusive education approaches and address the different learning challenges referred to above (Holgate, 2015; Maydosz & Raver, 2010, p.178; Suwa & Tversky, 1997).

Further, the results seem to indicate ASP6’s learning challenges stemming from his experiences of dyslexia could make developing his proficiency working in the digital environment problematic regardless of the assistive-technology available mainly because of the way the digital environment is currently structured and operated (Ala-Mutka, 2011; Cooper, 2009; Parette & Peterson-Karlan, 2007, pp.388-390; Thompson et al., 2015). My analysis of ASP6’s interview responses and orchestration appeared to suggest he learns via social interaction drawing on other people as knowledge sources and information prompts (Cross, 1999). In the computer environment, however, producing architectural output requires the designer to manipulate a computer-based interface and so operate via the intermediary of computational mechanisms (Oxman, 2006, pp.243-244). I interpreted these ideas about the complex mechanics of working digitally to point to the conclusion ASP6’s acknowledged learning style and information processing problems might undermine his efforts learning and using the complex technologies supporting architectural form generation. These technologies require the designer to manipulate visual and written data on multiple levels while operating a complicated computer-based interface (Oxman, 2006, p.243). Overall, I interpreted this finding to point to the conclusion it is likely the ongoing literacy challenges ASP6 faces managing, navigating and using digital technologies, could delay or impede his capacity for developing his proficiency and multimodal literacy levels regarding working online.

The students’ response to the precedent task indicated the project brief provided the stimulus for and guided the way the participants went about meaning-making during the review (Kress, 2010, pp.69-70). However, my analysis regarding the acknowledged learning challenges discussed above pointed to the conclusion there is a need for academics at the research site to consider breaking down the tasks in the
project brief in more detail. Setting out the tasks in detail would help us respond reflexively to established differentiation teaching approaches aimed at assisting those students with learning challenges understand what they need to do in the learning task and provide them with direction to guide their meaning-making efforts more efficiently (Beacham & Alty, 2006; Holgate, 2015; Mortimore & Crozier, 2006).

**Roles, Relationships and Orchestration**

Most of the participants’ orchestrations at some point during the review underlined how gestural activity could put design talk and drawings into action via the pointing at, moving towards and away, and mimicking aspects of the architectural components illustrated in other modes (Jewitt et al., 2016, p.18; Murphy, 2005, pp.118-125). I interpreted my observations and analysis about the participants’ gestural activity to point towards the conclusion the participants’ gestures were interacting dynamically with other communicative resources to support and communicate meaning during the review, with distinct modes doing different and sometimes similar semiotic work in the orchestration (Cash & Maier, 2016; Dias et al., 2013; Eris et al., 2014; Jewitt, 2009, p.14; Godwin, 2003; Jewitt et al., 2016, pp.18-19; Hutchins & Palen, 1997; Norris, 2004., pp.16-17, 2011; Taylor, 2014; Unwin, 2007; Wardak, 2016; Yee, 2012).

Further, the results from my observations analysis appear to indicate that although all the participants might not have described their exemplars underpinning ideology in terminology that connected directly to concepts outlined in the project brief most did, in fact, address this thinking indirectly verbally via their dialogue and partially via their visual representations. Nevertheless, as I pointed out, for the most part, their conversation emphasised how the building worked regarding these principles rather than what values the design objectified (Webster, 2005, p.277). My deliberations about the participants’ (and staffs’) pauses, interjections and disjointed talk pointed towards the judgement that students and staff did not seem to be aware of, or drawing on, the full semiotic potential verbal modes offered to promote their design ideas convincingly because they did not adopt established rhetorical moves for holding the listener’s attention (Swales et al., 2001., p.446; Morton & O’Brien, 2005,
Further, my analysis of the findings, regarding the participants’ omissions and missed opportunities to draw fully on the established architectural functional specialisms the visual mode offers during the precedent task and observed review, implied for some participants their visual meaning-making knowledge and skill-base repertoire remains partial and restricted. As a result, their rhetoric meaning-making capacity was limited, making it difficult for them to express their learning outwardly in ways that conformed to academic expectations (Bezemer & Kress, 2016; Downing & Hubka, 1986, p.45; Kress, 2010, pp.147-148). Nonetheless, the participants did deliberate about their precedent findings using architectural terminology, explanation in a mixture of tenses, in tandem with gestures towards or on their representational material. Also, they deployed the first person singular to denote their considerations and the past tense while referring to the designers’ intent or what the literature they engaged with had to say about the design (Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-447). All established rhetorical moves for animating design during architectural reviews (Swales et al., 2001, pp.445-447). Consequently, my analysis and the evidence appear to confirm the performative aspect of using communicative resources interactively (Norris, 2004).

Overall the results obtained in the study seem to support findings reported in other studies about the roles and relationships between nonverbal, verbal and visual modes in architectural students meaning-making a rhetorical activity (Allan, 2013; Dannels, 2005, pp.144-146; Morton & O’Brien, 2005; Morton, 2006; Swales et al., 2001; Webster, 2005, pp.274-278). Also, the findings seem to corroborate Kress’s (2010, pp.63-64) contention communicative resources are always used together in ensembles with each mode doing specific work in the meaning-making activity that relates to each resource’s functional specialisms. Thus, the findings point towards meaning-making’s multimodal character and the conclusion communication in an architectural setting is semiotic work (Jewitt, 2009; Jewitt et al., 2016; Kress, 2010, pp.69-70). The qualitative data indicates the interconnected nature of multimodal meaning-making during the orchestration. Even though at times speech dominated and other times the visual artefacts or gestures took centre stage the multimodal
ensemble as an integrated unit was an essential component of the meaning-making effectiveness (Kress, 2010, pp.69-70). Consequently, the dynamic interplay between the modes seems to be a core defining feature of how effective the participants’ meaning-making efforts were in the observed review (Kress, 2010, pp.69-70).

**Contribution to Knowledge**

Even though the results from this study appear to corroborate the findings from the scholarly work done to date, the output from the project also gave me an opportunity to add to the relatively small body of knowledge about architectural students’ rhetorical meaning-making through the social semiotic multimodality lens (Thomas, 2016). Further, focusing on, documenting, and examining some of the challenges architectural students faced regarding accessing and participating fully in the CoP at the research site allowed me to make connections between rhetorical meaning-making at a micro-level out towards the macro-level regarding inclusive educational approaches to HE in an Irish context (Kress, 1993, p.177). Specifically, the results point to the conclusion that architectural academics need to find ways to, further develop their intercultural understanding and fully embrace the rich cultural heritage international students bring to architectural education to foster their “intercultural adaptation” effectively (Gill, 2007, pp.167-168). Secondly, the results indicate that architectural academics must consider the notion students experiencing dyslexia are in fact “differently enabled” (p.1328) with specific learning differences (Cooper, 2006, p.1; Thompson, Bacon & Auburn, 2015, p.1328). For this reason, we need to develop more effective tools and strategies specifically geared towards addressing these students’ strengths and weaknesses to help them manage and navigate the ongoing challenges operating across both the analogue and digital communication domain entails (Chanock, 2007, p.35). These points link back to Cope and Kalantzis’ (2009, p.170) comments regarding the fact societal exclusion remains an ongoing concern regardless of the value placed on education as a mechanism for social and economic development.
**Making a Difference**

If we truly aspire to put our institutional teaching and learning strategy aims about inclusive education into action, then the course team and I need to consider carefully what the participants were telling us via this study about their challenges regarding their rhetorical, social semiotic meaning-making efforts. Below I set out some recommendations emerging from my conclusions to contribute to the theories and concepts I addressed in this thesis about architectural education pedagogy as social semiotic meaning-making practice that my colleagues and I, as well as, other Irish architectural educators, could draw on in our teaching and learning practices.

First, I suggest my colleagues and I must move to embed architectural differentiated instruction approaches into our curriculum and pedagogical strategies to support rhetorical meaning-making in line with our stated teaching and learning strategy objective to address our increasingly diverse student body’s requirements (Maydosz & Raver, 2010, p.178). Secondly, my conclusions highlight how important it is for my colleagues and I to respond to the benefits of writing design project briefs and other coursework tasks so that learning task protocols and outcomes are delineated in our teaching materials to: signpost to students what they must do to complete each task efficiently; address current theorising about the need to embed differentiated teaching strategies in pedagogical practices to help students experiencing different kinds of learning challenges (Holgate, 2015, p.90; Thompson et al., 2015, p.1328). Thirdly, a related pedagogical outcome points to the necessity for architectural educators to explain complex architectural terms orally and literally routinely, in tandem with visual examples, to help students record and process complex vocabulary more resourcefully (Maydosz & Raver, 2010, p.182). Fourthly, my conclusions suggest architectural educators should consider expanding their online teaching repertoire to exploit further the opportunities digital technologies offer learners via teaching them ‘how to use’ the digital environment to research critically and experience architectural culture virtually in all subject areas (Ala-Mutka, 2011; Lombardi, 2007). My fifth recommendation relates to reinforcing the requirement for students to develop their capacity to make multimodal notes physically via written or visual means (Biggs, 2012,
Lastly, the outcomes from my analytical deliberations point to a mandate to disseminate the findings in this thesis concerning the inextricable relationship between access, participation, multimodal literacy and effective rhetorical meaning-making. This mandate is directly related to advocating and supporting a more proactive response, across Irish architectural education, to inclusivity in HE. In so doing, architectural educators can reiterate, confirm and respond to Manley and de Graft-Johnson’s (2013) assertion, architectural educators must act decisively to create inclusive cultures and attitudes to design via their curriculum development and delivery, and this includes managing the complex issues working in the digital environment presents in practice regarding students with distinct learning challenges (Manley & Graft-Johnson, 2013, pp.923-925).

Limitations

In Chapter Four I set out to present transferable findings and interpretations concerning insider knowledge, multimodal literacy, and dynamic interplay (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p.197; Snow et al., 2003, p.183). For me, the limitations of this investigation are related to the ways my findings might be transferable or considered relevant to other instances of architectural students rhetorical meaning-making (Denscombe, 2010, p.301). The fact this case study was a small-scale project could be construed as both an advantage and disadvantage by other research scholars (Denscombe, 2010, p.300). On the one hand, the small number of participants allowed me to explore the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making in detail in light of the theories I addressed in the literature work. On the other hand, the students’ unique characteristics as a group of learners posed some challenges.

Two of the participants had learning challenges stemming from the fact they are from distinct cultural backgrounds and English is their second language. Two different participants were dealing with dyslexia. All the participants bar one was a mature student as only one of the eight participants entered our architectural programme close to the time they finished their secondary school education. Thus, seven of the participants gained admittance to the programme based on their prior learning and
work experiences. Three of these students worked in the building industry directly and one in the textile industry before commencing their studies at our institution. All the participants acknowledged they experienced several of the learning challenges documented in the previous chapter albeit for distinctly different reasons relating to their distinct multimodal literacy issues stemming from: having to develop their intercultural understanding and learn in a second language; or having to deal with dyslexia; or more generally coping with returning to education as a mature worker or switching discipline. Nonetheless, the research situation made for an interesting mix of variables given Kress’s (2010) contention members of an individual society need to have full access to and participate in their CoP for that group to flourish.

The emerging conclusions should be considered taking these factors into account and so the findings, as I intimated at the outset, are partial as they relate to this small group of students embodying their specific qualities and attributes in a distinct locale at a specific moment in time.

Further, I did not measure any aspect of the architectural student contributors’ learning. I did not undertake to determine or evaluate the competence of the lecturers’ teaching on the programme. Nor did I try to ascertain if the participating participants had the cognitive capacity or not to become an expert in the unique knowledge and skills base associated with the architectural design domain. Exploring the impact, HE and architectural education policy had on the contributors learning experience in detail, was also outside the scope of this endeavour. Nonetheless, the results from this study seem to point to the conclusion at least four of the participants have learning challenges that appear to be compromising their rhetorical meaning-making efforts.

In this study, I examined multimodality, social semiosis and the architectural and social semiotic multimodality perspective about rhetorical meaning-making to document and analyse the participants’ rhetorical meaning-making. Thus, the results obtained from the study emerged from a synthesis of these aspects. However, exploring all these areas probably means I adopted a wide-angled lens to look at architectural
rhetorical meaning-making holistically from the social semiotic multimodality standpoint rather than focus in on one specific area, like the integration of the visual representations into the presentation, as several other studies concerning architectural students’ rhetorical practices did (Allan, 2013; Morton & O’Brien 2005; Morton, 2006). For this reason, I think it fair to suggest had I adopted a narrower focus I could have delved even more deeply into one or two of the aspects I considered.

Nonetheless, the data and the analysis are grounded in the reality of the participants’ meaning-making efforts, their expressed views about the meaning-making and my first-hand observations of their orchestrations during the observed review (Denscombe, 2010, p.304).

**The Way Forward**

However, as I bring this doctoral research journey to a close, I do not see this study as an endpoint. Instead, I view completing my studies as the beginning of an exciting next chapter regarding building on and developing aspects of the doctoral journey in further research concerning architectural students rhetorical meaning-making. I needed to begin the journey towards understanding architectural students rhetorical meaning-making by considering all the factors relating to multimodal meaning-making from a social semiotic multimodality angle to develop a theoretical and practical foundation for future research. Given my colleagues and I must deal with the digitised nature of architectural practice regardless of the established tensions and concerns (Coleman, 2010), and cope with a diverse student cohort then continuing to explore how to help students from diverse backgrounds navigate rhetorical meaning-making in the CoP at the research site more effectively seems to be a significant future research focus. Exploring the challenges architectural students with dyslexia face for instance, during a whole year or more of their studies across the Irish IoT HE architectural context might help to build a fuller picture of the specific difficulties these architectural students face producing rhetorical meaning drawing on multimodal communicative resources in both the analogue and digital environment.
For the moment, there is much to consider regarding putting effective strategies in place based on the outcomes from this study viz-a-viz considering and adopting established differentiation approaches and assistive-technology and refining these techniques so that they are purposely tailored towards the distinct challenges architectural students face during their rhetorical meaning-making efforts to promote the students’ self-efficacy.
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