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Review

## Approaches to design collaboration research

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### Abstract

This survey of architectural design collaboration identifies and categorizes strong research from the past 10 years. It starts by describing how the research ranges in focus, scale, and structure, then clarifies how different projects fit in a continuum from conceptual theory to pragmatic application. It explains how conceptual frameworks and standards enable interdisciplinary exchange by envisioning and structuring interaction. It then highlights specific interaction studies and compares methods for analyzing how media affects teamwork. The paper continues by explaining the promise of innovations, such as tangible interfaces and interactive artwork, and concludes by identifying areas for further development.

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### 1. Introduction

Facilitating group design is a complicated operation. Defining the tasks involved, clarifying the social processes and encoding the processes are critical to developing effective tools. Collaboration tools facilitate teamwork by promoting communication and by consolidating project information and making it accessible. By helping teams organize and clarify roles, tasks, and scheduling, they can increase efficiency. They can enable interdisciplinary work by illustrating specialized terminology or by mediating between different building models.

How collaboration researchers approach these tasks depends on how they envision the design process and how they see the computer's role. As a

result, research projects vary in focus, scope, and structure. With these different outlooks, the projects fall within different parts of the research and development pipeline. This survey of recent conference papers in architectural design collaboration highlights achievements and reveals deficiencies.

### 2. Ways to approach collaboration

What do collaboration researchers see as the *focus* of their investigation? Many focus on how software can produce more useful artifacts for an interdisciplinary design team. This means looking carefully at how data can convey information between group members and considering issues such as file formats, data organization, and information flow. For example, the commercial software developers' International Alliance for Interoperability (IAI) has set up Industry Foundation Classes (IFC) so that all building project

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51 information is vendor-independent [1]. By contrast,  
 52 other researchers start from the human side, looking at  
 53 how people think, how groups work together, or how  
 54 they can work with computers. The social science  
 55 view assumes that individual motivations or social  
 56 hierarchies and interactions should drive the data  
 57 structures or programs that support them. For exam-  
 58 ple, from observing teams, Sonnenwald [2] has de-  
 59 fined key positions of intragroup stars, mentors,  
 60 sponsors, etc. who play complementary roles in suc-  
 61 cessful groupwork. Identifying role types and interac-  
 62 tion is a necessary step towards tailored tools. For  
 63 digitally mediated interaction, computer interfaces  
 64 play a major part in how people relate to each other.  
 65 When researchers choose to work on immersive  
 66 environments or mobile tools, they focus on how  
 67 the equipment changes interaction.

68 In refining how software is applied to specific  
 69 activities, the *scope* of the project shapes findings.  
 70 The complexity of the experiment, as in number of  
 71 data types, phases of design, and number of collabo-  
 72 rators, determines the kind of information that is  
 73 discovered. Case studies of professional or education-  
 74 al situations allow unexpected factors to emerge, but  
 75 do not provide definitive findings. Controlled experi-  
 76 ments let us understand critical factors by artificially  
 77 limiting variables to create rigorous data. In the latter  
 78 case, the work is created to be measured, whereas in  
 79 the former case, measurement or observation is sec-  
 80 ondary to the work.

81 The scope of the project is related to how much  
 82 *structure* is imposed. Smaller teams and simpler  
 83 projects require less-structured communication. For  
 84 example, an e-mail listserv that broadcasts messages  
 85 to all can work for a small group or a less-active  
 86 medium-size group. For a larger team, project com-  
 87 munication needs to be sorted, tagged, and filtered by  
 88 information type, topic, ownership, and viewing per-  
 89 missions. In a similar manner, more complex graph-  
 90 ical data requires hierarchical or object-oriented  
 91 building models.

### 92 3. Types of projects

93 Compared to other fields, architectural research  
 94 methods vary quite widely in procedures and execu-  
 95 tion. Projects fall along a development spectrum from

abstract concept through schematic implementation to 96  
 detailed application and testing. Academic projects 97  
 tend to remain at a proof of concept stage, while the 98  
 commercial efforts often refine an interface for the 99  
 market, relying on established technical concepts. The 100  
 latter is illustrated by commercial collaboration serv- 101  
 ices, or Architectural/Engineering/Construction (AEC) 102  
 project extranets, that have chosen to focus on the 103  
 technically simple electronic paper trail: online docu- 104  
 ment organization and access supplemented by com- 105  
 munication and scheduling tools. By tailoring docu- 106  
 ment markup and tracking systems to particular AEC 107  
 interactions [CAD drawings, requests for information 108  
 (RFIs), submittals, punchlists, and logs], companies 109  
 such as E-builder's TeamBuilder, Bricnet Project 110  
 Center, and Autodesk's Buzzsaw.com have sought to 111  
 increase efficiency and reduce administrative costs. 112  
 The failure of many extranet firms is due more to the 113  
 conservative nature of the building industry than to 114  
 the technical problems with the software. AEC firms 115  
 were reluctant to entrust project data to systems with 116  
 untested reliability, security, and sustainability [3]. 117

Examining three categories of projects can high- 118  
 light progress and further possibilities: conceptual 119  
 frameworks, interaction studies, and new interfaces. 120

#### 121 3.1. Conceptual frameworks 122

Visioning papers explain the mechanisms and 123  
 future of the AEC collaboration process. They con- 124  
 solidate, analyze, and extrapolate from existing infor- 125  
 mation, putting it into conceptual and societal 126  
 frameworks. They are most effective when they sup- 127  
 port visionary speculations with evidence in innova- 128  
 tive pilot projects. In the early 1990s, Mitchell [4] 129  
 projected how urban life and design practice would be 130  
 changed by computer networks. By seeding the idea 131  
 at a fortuitous moment, he influenced designers' 132  
 adoption of networked teamwork. Tzonis [5] reviews 133  
 the history of design collaboration and explains the 134  
 challenge of interdisciplinary communication as the 135  
 need to overcome different mindsets and vocabularies. 136  
 He proposes "bridgeheads" that clarify meanings and 137  
 values in disagreements through translations or new 138  
 languages, noting how his students' projects are 139  
 attempting to create them. 140

141 Researchers addressing the big picture can choose  
 142 to create a comprehensive AEC model that recognizes

143 inherent complexity, work on the whole process in  
144 abstracted simplicity, or select part of the process for  
145 examination.

146 The comprehensive systems recognize the specific  
147 identity of building systems and components and  
148 define data categories so that their roles and relation-  
149 ships can be facilitated. For example, in the work for  
150 collaborative design learning, Tuncer et al. [6] define  
151 categories of building information for the Web so that  
152 searches for information can be more intelligent.  
153 Placing information about a window mullion in the  
154 context of glazing systems and wall apertures allows  
155 gathering of related information. Khemlani and Kelay  
156 address how walls represented as split edges of cells  
157 can accommodate both readings of spaces and edges.  
158 This allows the same building data to be evaluated in  
159 terms of performance measures from many disciplines  
160 (space adjacency, circulation efficiency, amount of  
161 wall, etc.) While the many categories in these projects  
162 (and the IAI's IFC, ConDocs, AIA Layer standards,  
163 and architectural CAD systems<sup>1</sup>) recognize the func-  
164 tion and relationships of elements, they constrain the  
165 definition of a building. They can offer more com-  
166 prehensive views of a building project than more  
167 generic geometric descriptions. Consequently, the  
168 systems can be burdensome to learn and overly  
169 detailed for simple projects.

170 A different tactic is to abstract the complex mech-  
171 anisms of the AEC collaboration process and distill  
172 them into succinct diagrams and descriptions. Huang  
173 [8] examines information workflow in architectural  
174 offices and then proposes how industrial design opti-  
175 mization could be applied to them. His papers de-  
176 scribe clear paradigms by generalizing and simplify-  
177 ing many cases. In them, he clarifies the design  
178 process mechanism and provides an approach for  
179 improvement rather than development specifics.

180 Modeling data constructs, standards, or software  
181 specifications can facilitate interdisciplinary projects.  
182 Cohen explains that standards can help temporary  
183 alliances become productive quickly, in the way that  
184 medical emergency teams do. Because they can rely  
185 on established procedures, doctors, nurses, and tech-  
186 nicians who are total strangers can work together  
187 effectively [9]. Kiviniemi explains that standards are

188 particularly relevant when considering the whole life  
189 cycle of a building, rather than just its design and  
190 construction phase. Including facilities management  
191 and maintenance considerations in building collabo-  
192 ration tools provides a much longer period for amor-  
193 tizing expenses and increases the potential for  
194 efficiencies [10]. Junge et al.'s [11] VEGA project  
195 addresses the need for standards by establishing how  
196 different disciplines' data can be interchanged through  
197 communicating layers. VEGA's domain-specific  
198 applications depend on an interactive translator that  
199 gives and takes information from a database. This  
200 type of ambitious project requires a large development  
201 team and a long implementation time to generate  
202 usable results, making it risky in a time of quickly  
203 changing technology.

### 3.2. Interaction studies: how media works with social organization

#### 3.2.1. Comparing media: text and audio and video

204  
205  
206  
207  
208 In contrast to large-scale conceptual models, stud-  
209 ies of social interaction are selective in scope and  
210 content. They often set up scenarios for testing how  
211 prototype equipment affects social relationships. The  
212 projects relate to other Computer Supported Cooper-  
213 ative Work (CSCW) research and benefit from inter-  
214 disciplinary thinking.

215 Maher has led a number of research projects  
216 exploring the possibilities of shaping online commu-  
217 nities from early studies of text-based Multi-User  
218 Dungeons (MUDs) and Multi-User Dungeons Ob-  
219 ject-Oriented (MOOs) [12] with Cicognani. Her book  
220 on Virtual Design Studios explains the technology  
221 required for remote joint projects and the kinds of  
222 interaction enabled. She used the International Journal  
223 of Design Computing's DCNet'98 conference to in-  
224 volve participants testing the robustness of 3D brows-  
225 er plug-ins for accessing live presentations [13].

226 Maher and Kvan have compared how specific  
227 media fosters or constrains design tasks, trying to  
228 understand how an individual responds to a mediated  
229 interaction scenario. Maher's group has set up con-  
230 trolled tests to compare, for example, how individuals  
231 rely on audio, video, and text channels for conveying  
232 information [14]. Wong and Kvan have found that  
233 responsive audio and interactive text are more impor-  
234 tant than videos on the faces of the partners [15].

<sup>1</sup> For a discussion of using functional categories for architec-  
tural models, see Ref. [7].

235 Switching in between application sharing and picture-  
236 in-picture face video can take focus away from the  
237 task at hand.

### 239 3.2.2. Protocol analysis

240 Understanding group interaction requires protocol  
241 analysis, that is, tracking, examining, and summariz-  
242 ing the activity. Protocol analysis projects define  
243 categories of verbal or graphic acts, create mapping  
244 schemes, apply them to small group design scenarios,  
245 and explain what the mapping reveals. The Design  
246 Studies journal regularly publishes collaboration  
247 papers from environmental and industrial design that  
248 show how to map speech acts or graphic gestures to  
249 operative categories (see work by Cross, Gold-  
250 schmidt, and Gero for example). The projects address  
251 one or more of the following: devising ways for  
252 individuals to interact, trying a new tracking scheme  
253 (categorizing and graphing the operations), and un-  
254 derstanding the mechanism of the tracked design  
255 interaction. Looking at the journal's annual best  
256 papers gives an overview of this specialization.<sup>2</sup>

257 Several projects provide insight into group dynam-  
258 ics by tracking interaction using video or 3D graphics.  
259 The visuals summarize interaction to date for both  
260 participants and observers.

### 262 3.2.3. Tracking interaction with graphics: ETH

263 The book *Bits and Spaces* edited by Engeli covers  
264 a spectrum of the ETH CAAD group's experiments in  
265 digital media as a vehicle for interaction. The group,  
266 led first by Schmitt and then Engeli, has experimented  
267 in how group dynamics can be orchestrated and  
268 automatically graphed. For example, in the influential  
269 PhaseX project, a teaching team talented in program-  
270 ming and aesthetics provided interactive Web pages  
271 so their students could build off each other's projects.  
272 Using different themes that exercise specific software  
273 applications, the assignments ask the students to  
274 design geometric models that are uploaded and shared  
275 on through the Web. The Web interface helped stu-  
276 dents to view each other's projects and download  
277 them as a basis for the next transformation. The  
278 stronger teaching exercises shown in *Bits and Spaces*  
279 imbue spaces with meaning either through strong

280 themes such as identity or by integrating text into  
281 graphic compositions.

282 Alternative views through the database of design  
283 schemes provide different entry points for understand-  
284 ing. The PhaseX Website showed each project's prog-  
285 eny and parents as individual images (inworld) and as a  
286 color-coded genetic tree (outworld). The data mapping  
287 builds on the Muriel Cooper's Visible Language Work-  
288 shop at MIT's Media Lab, looking at how information  
289 can be mapped onto 3D space. By locating related  
290 graphical submissions close together, the authors de-  
291 velop a context of adjacencies and juxtapositions.

### 293 3.2.4. Tracking interaction with graphics: Kyoto VDS

294 Similar innovation is seen in Yamaguchi's alternate  
295 mappings of Virtual Design Studio interactions. They  
296 condensed the VDS interaction into a partnership-  
297 based "Tug of War" chart or time-based charts. In  
298 the Tug of War chart, each of three participants was  
299 assigned an X-, Y-, or Z-axis, and then each project  
300 was located according to the partners involved and the  
301 degree of collaboration. Two kinds of time-based  
302 charts show the amount of participation on any given  
303 day by organizing design submittal icons, thumbnails,  
304 and feedback markers. Graphs of team interaction  
305 provide insight at a glance into the kind of participa-  
306 tion and the rhythm of the project contributions.

### 308 3.2.5. Tracking interaction with video awareness

309 An alternative to projects facilitating and tracking  
310 design data exchange is the presence awareness proj-  
311 ects. Their goal is to provide possibilities of casual  
312 interaction by letting people share peripheral aspects  
313 of each other's working life. Following work with  
314 video walls done at Xerox PARC [17], experiments  
315 have looked at using transferred ambient sound or  
316 desktop glimpses [18] to increase peripheral con-  
317 sciousness and perhaps stimulate more intentional  
318 interaction. To convey personal behavior while pro-  
319 viding privacy, some projects allow participants to  
320 choose the visibility of their activities or signal  
321 openness to social interaction.

### 323 3.2.6. Video for physical/virtual hybrids

324 Intentional versus background video collaboration  
325 projects are based on the belief that human expression  
326 and nonverbal skills are more important than the  
327 format, artifacts, or medium of design. By capturing  
328

<sup>2</sup> For a range of approaches, see Ref. [16].

328 spontaneous expressions and gestures, audio and  
329 video can reveal motivations for and responses to  
330 design proposals. Environmentally sized video walls  
331 for educational design collaborations allow for simul-  
332 taneous videoconference, data presentation, and data  
333 markup. Guillermo Vasquez de Velasco of Texas  
334 A&M and Renate Fruchter of Stanford are both  
335 involved with setting up and testing these facilities.  
336 The Stanford Center for Integrated Facility Engineer-  
337 ing (CIFE) lab has set up a wall of three rear-  
338 projection screens with sensors to allow gestural  
339 mouse control that has been used conducting inter-  
340 disciplinary AEC classes and demonstration projects.  
341 Artistic video experiments play with the boundary  
342 between virtual and physical space. For example,  
343 Lonsway and Anders are exploring the theoretical  
344 implications of having a projected virtual person  
345 imposing onto their real space, in a method akin to  
346 event media walls.

### 348 3.2.7. Tracking interaction

349 Some projects preserve a degree of privacy through  
350 abstraction. For example, Gavin's Theatre of Work  
351 system creates a 3D environment according to how a  
352 shareware system is used by a team [19]. To reveal  
353 invisible work relationships, the project maps interac-  
354 tion between individuals onto a 3D world. Through  
355 the use of Hillier's Space Syntax analysis, it then  
356 suggests how adjacencies could be optimized. Another  
357 project that uses a video camera for awareness  
358 abstracts the output to preserve privacy. To track the  
359 activity of elder residents, video is blurred or down-  
360 sampled into a very coarse array of pixels to allow  
361 monitoring of health problems and accidents while  
362 minimizing intrusion [20].

363 Many awareness projects, like other CSCW or  
364 virtual community projects, do not deal specifically  
365 with the design process, but have findings that are  
366 important for AEC collaborations. For example,  
367 Kim's [21] explanation of how structured roles,  
368 events, and subniches are critical for a thriving com-  
369 munity holds true for all platforms, even though they  
370 were derived from studying low-tech MUDs and  
371 MOOs.

### 373 3.2.8. Case studies of groupwork in action

374 Studying collaboration behavior in architectural  
375 education and practice complements technological

376 development. Studies analyzing design communica-  
377 tion need reliable, robust software to examine subtle  
378 aspects of design interaction. Some projects make an  
379 argument for accessible tools, explaining that tools  
380 like telephone and e-mail facilitate even the most  
381 sophisticated discussions, while visionary prototypes  
382 often show more future potential rather than immedi-  
383 ate pragmatic solutions.

384 Since the first Virtual Design Studio experiments,  
385 schools have used the Internet for testing technology  
386 and observing pedagogical interaction.<sup>3</sup> Many schools  
387 have facilitated remote interaction with peer institu-  
388 tions and expert professionals using such devices such  
389 as remote critics on a videoconferencing cart and  
390 remote rapid prototyping. For overviews of academic  
391 collaboration projects, see Dave and Danahy's [23]  
392 and Craig and Zimring's [24] reviews of precedents as  
393 a context for their own efforts. Educational projects  
394 provide the opportunity to manipulate the tasks, team  
395 structure, and technology in ways that are impossible  
396 in practice. Noteworthy international projects have  
397 been run by Kvan, Morozumi, Wojtowicz, Andia,  
398 and Vasquez.

399 Architectural collaboration would benefit from  
400 detailed ethnographic studies that have been done  
401 more frequently of professional engineering offices  
402 [25]. Results of these fly-on-the wall observations can  
403 provide illuminating results. For example, Espinosa et  
404 al. [26] found the increased delegation (more special-  
405 ization) among team members that collaboration sys-  
406 tems may lead to poorer decision making because  
407 fewer team members have overlapping views of  
408 relevant information.

409 Partnerships between schools and firms give prac-  
410 ticing professionals conceptual ideas while involving  
411 students and faculty as participants and observers in  
412 real projects. For example, Fischer has developed his  
413 "4D" animations of the building process partly  
414 through these partnerships. The 4D system facilitates  
415 construction sequencing and helps identify scheduling  
416 bottlenecks by linking frames of an animated 3D  
417 building model to a construction schedule. Design  
418 and construction professionals join students in inter-  
419 actively examining stages of real projects, turning on  
420 and off layers to see conflicts between specific dis-  
421 ciplines and site access availability. They use a triple

<sup>3</sup> For initial ideas, see Ref. [22].

422 wide computer projection screen for videoconferenc-  
423 ing while sharing project visualizations.

424

### 425 3.3. *New interfaces for interaction*

#### 426 3.3.1. *3D collaborative virtual environments (desktop)*

427 New user interfaces are important for collaboration  
428 because they increase the ways that people can relate  
429 to each other. Rather than accept conventions for  
430 communication, the best research projects explore  
431 new metaphors through new modes or artifacts of  
432 communication. For example, the first online building  
433 projects made a new kind of urban design possible.  
434 Fuchs and Martinico [27] created procedures and  
435 standards so that designers from any location could  
436 add 3D CAD buildings to shape a new urban land-  
437 scape. This was echoed by Websites such as 3D  
438 AlphaWorld that encouraged users to build territories  
439 as part of online communities. Soon afterwards,  
440 Caneparo's labs [28] each developed 3D systems  
441 with avatars and text-based chat to support interac-  
442 tion between multiple users. Each created robust  
443 environments and characters, one with an Italian  
444 classical flavor and the other with charming Japanese  
445 characters.

446 More recent innovations in VRML quality have  
447 come from Japan. Lee and Iki [29] demonstrate a  
448 customized interface to allow for the interactive view-  
449 ing and editing of animated windmills. The project  
450 allows contributors to simulate different styles of  
451 windmills and different kinds of wind in evaluating  
452 urban design possibilities. Fukuda et al.'s [30] project  
453 integrates lighting simulation into VRML modeling.  
454 By streamlining how radiosity renderings are brought  
455 into VRML, and by developing special night-lighting  
456 effects, they bring up the quality of VRML simula-  
457 tions so that they are useful for sophisticated aesthetic  
458 judgments. Both groups show how their own propri-  
459 etary software and seemingly basic tools like Quick-  
460 time VR and VRML can be crafted into visually  
461 stunning graphics to support public participation in  
462 urban design.

463 Rather than mimicking the built environment or  
464 following literal metaphors, Gu and Maher are ex-  
465 ploring how virtual worlds can dynamically adapt to  
466 participants' interest. The proposed environment  
467 would reflect behaviors negotiated between user-cen-  
468 tered agents and place-centered agents. This would

allow visitors to their virtual museum to collaborative  
with the artists shaping the exhibition [31].

471

#### 472 3.3.2. *Sketch and gestural input*

473 University of Washington's Design Machine Group  
474 (DMG) has looked at how to make the input, annota-  
475 tion, and editing of 3D models be more natural. By  
476 parsing down a designer's basic actions, they can map a  
477 slim set of sketch strokes or hand shapes to essential  
478 form-making operations. At CAAD Futures 2001, the  
479 group presented Space Pen [32] for 2D markup of  
480 VRML models and VR Sketchpad for sketched-based  
481 VRML model generation [33]. The latter uses the  
482 Electronic Cocktail Napkin's recognition of hand-  
483 drawn symbols to trigger wall generation and symbol  
484 insertion.

485 Recent DMG work has looked at gestures and  
486 physical interfaces. A video camera captures the shape  
487 of a gloved hand against a contrasting background and  
488 derives depth from the hand size [34]. These computer  
489 interface innovations facilitate person-to-person inter-  
490 action around server-based geometric models.

491

#### 492 3.3.3. *Physical interfaces*

493 Ishii has been working on collaboration since his  
494 early Clearboard video projects that allowed drawing  
495 partners to face each other, look into each other's eyes,  
496 and yet see the drawing information right-reading. His  
497 Tangible Media at the MIT Media Lab works on how  
498 electronically enhanced physical objects can be repos-  
499 itories for shared information and tools for communi-  
500 cation. In an urban design project, wooden building  
501 block shapes could be moved around a table with  
502 sensors so that sun shadows and reflections could be  
503 shown for different times of daylighting conditions  
504 and different surface materials. A more recent project  
505 allows a landscape designer to sculpt a tactile clay  
506 model whose shape is captured and then modified  
507 with projected transformations [35].

508

#### 509 3.3.4. *Immersive collaborative VR and interactive environments*

510 Whereas videoconferencing has always been about  
511 bringing people together, more typically, immersive  
512 VR has been centered on an individual. Davidson and  
513 Campbell brought critics together to tour and critique  
514 virtual worlds. The viewers of their spaces could use  
515 miniature models to select viewing options [36]. More  
516

517 recently, Schnabel and Kvan [37] compared how pairs  
518 of students could perform simple 3D design tasks with  
519 an immersive versus a standard desktop interface.  
520 Tracking the content of the partners' conversations,  
521 they found that design comments dominated over  
522 navigation and interface comments. In reviewing the  
523 results, they felt that 3D interactivity aided design,  
524 providing better control of the elements.

525 Artworks shown at SIGGRAPH 2001 showed off  
526 some of the spatial potentials of collaborative VR. In  
527 Murakami's Contact Water project [38], face-to-face  
528 participants wearing view-through head-mounted dis-  
529 plays could see each other and toss interactive animated  
530 figures to each other. The location and orientation of  
531 the players' helmets and specially marked paddles were  
532 picked up by sensors so that views could dynamically  
533 adjusted. Each player would see the animated dolphin  
534 composited into the video feed of the scene. While the  
535 appearance of the project is very light-hearted, its  
536 ramifications for 3D design are deep. The processes  
537 enabling a local group to play together with sea  
538 creatures would also allow remote or local groups to  
539 interact with a 3D design.

540 In the future, ubiquitous computing, in terms of  
541 both environmentally embedded devices and mobile  
542 wireless devices, will shape many team design proj-  
543 ects. Streitz et al. [39] have created schematic concept  
544 environments with integrated information panels and  
545 physical prototypes for digitally enhanced workplace  
546 furnishings. Inexpensive motion and heat sensors are  
547 allowing artists and designers to shape new kinds of  
548 interactive environments [40]. Wireless handheld  
549 computers allow visitors to Cornell University to  
550 access location-specific data and add their own cor-  
551 rections [41].

#### 552 4. Conclusion: remaining challenges

553 While the amount of energy going towards digital  
554 design collaboration has been great, efforts could be  
555 more carefully aimed. Research shortcomings rein-  
556 force the need to develop standards, interdisciplinary  
557 dialogue, and new interfaces. The most common  
558 problem is redundant or insular work. Many efforts  
559 to tailor Web technology for designers make small  
560 improvements over existing examples. They show  
561 how difficult it is to take advantage of past projects

562 and make significant advances, especially in a com- 562  
563 petitive atmosphere. Even with careful study of other 563  
564 strategies and approaches, developers may need to 564  
565 recreate previously developed features as a base for 565  
566 further work. In a sense, the research world is chal- 566  
567 lenged by the same interoperability that plagues 567  
568 CAAD practice. 568

569 Many of the research efforts would profit greatly 569  
570 from collaboration with other disciplines. The CAAD 570  
571 field is full of tool builders and visionary designers 571  
572 who could use social scientists to help them tune 572  
573 technology to fit design activities<sup>4</sup> and evaluate 573  
574 efforts. Related developments in CSCW, Virtual Envi- 574  
575 ronments, 3D Web formats, and interface design 575  
576 provide important results for team design work. Using 576  
577 communication tools for interdisciplinary research 577  
578 effort could help bridge academic, professional, and 578  
579 commercial developer communities. Currently, papers 579  
580 on industrial and engineering design processes are 580  
581 rarely mentioned in architectural research conferen- 581  
582 ces. Because design is such a wide-ranging pursuit, 582  
583 ideas from related traditions could bring out new 583  
584 discoveries. 584

585 Perhaps there is a lesson in the failure of the project 585  
586 extranets. Even if a tool is easy to use and facilitates 586  
587 routine tasks well, some people just do not want a new 587  
588 tool. The risk of handing over all project information 588  
589 to an untested system was too great: they could not 589  
590 see the kind of security and reliability. To win new 590  
591 users, technology must be both functional and appeal- 591  
592 ing. In that sense, the Contact Water project gives a 592  
593 clue: we enjoy a sense of delight in everyday tasks. 593

594 What is going to make a difference? Better inter- 594  
595 faces for communicating design information and stan- 595  
596 dardized file information and procedures could 596  
597 streamline team interaction. We need to optimize 597  
598 the emerging systems by closely observing and evaluating 598  
599 them in both controlled and open-ended professional 599  
600 situations. For communication tools to be most useful, 600  
601 they must integrate visualization with building per- 601  
602 formance and provide useful functionality throughout 602  
603 the building life cycle. To work well from pre-design 603  
604 to facilities management, the tools need to be both 604  
605 flexible and robust. They need to facilitate large 605  
606 modifications to early organizational decisions while 606

<sup>4</sup> For an example of a social guide to technical interaction, see Ref. [42].

607 supporting later development of complex databases.  
 608 Rather than simulating what is possible in face-to-face  
 609 interaction, we need to use opportunities to find  
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