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#### Invitation

This Editorial is largely given over to an invitation to take part in a seminar series being led by Ken Baynes, and, of course, I must explain why. Ken Baynes is a Visiting Professor in the Department of Design and Technology at Loughborough University and consequently these seminars will be organised through Loughborough's Design Education Research Group (DERG).

The titles of these seminars are:

- · Modelling and Intelligence.
- · Modelling and Design.
- · Modelling and the Industrial Revolution.
- · Modelling and Society.
- · Modelling and the Future.

The role of modelling in designing has been a key research interest of the DERG since its establishment, but it has never been more important as Ken Baynes's introduction to the seminar series makes clear (see next column). It is easy to say that designing is to do with creating preferred futures, but much harder to explain and understand how that can be achieved.

The first of these seminars will take place at the Design and Technology Association's International Research Conference at Loughborough on Tuesday 30 June 2009. It is hoped that the second will take place at the 1st International Visual Methods Conference at the University of Leeds in September 2009. An Orange Series publication will be available for free download about a month before each seminar via the DERG website, where details of venues and associated audio files and PowerPoint presentations will also be posted: (http://www.lboro.ac.uk/departments/cd/research/groups/ed/index.htm)

There is no denying that current initiatives relating to STEM are important, but many commentators have noted the absence of 'design' in much of the emerging thinking, not least, Richard Kimbell in his reflection (in this journal issue) on the current review of primary education in England. It is truly vital that the significance of such omissions is understood and that the role of modelling in designing, and hence in shaping the future is fully appreciated. Ken Baynes and his colleagues at the Design Education Unit at the Royal College of Art (e.g. Bruce Archer and Phil Roberts) took part in what can viewed as parallel debates in the 1970s. Time and circumstances have moved on and it is not the same debate, but we need a similar outcome. Design and designing need to be recognised for what they are and the vital roles that they play. Some commentators trace the origins of design and technology to those debates in the 1970s, and it is time

both to revisit and renew the fundamental ideas and concepts that provide its foundations. We hope the emerging discussions will be of interest to all the readers of this journal and look forward to many related contributions.

#### Introduction...Professor Ken Baynes

Unlike other animals, human beings do not survive only by adapting to their environment, they also change their environment. Not only do they change the natural environment, they also create a human environment. This human environment is a complex of ideas, institutions, knowledge, communications, systems, things and places. It is dynamic. Human culture is itself constantly changing. Each generation of people are part of a process by which they are subtly different from the generation before and will, in turn, have children who are subtly different from them.

People's impact on the planet has been substantial and, in the last two hundred years, has become potentially dangerous. Using the human environment as their base, people have begun to deplete and damage the natural environment. Over much of the earth's surface the evidence of human activity overshadows the natural world. The ravenous appetite of industrialisation is directly responsible for destroying plants and animals and depleting and polluting the land, the oceans, and even (through global warming) the atmosphere.

Of course, human beings have not set out to damage their home planet. The paradox is that the negative impact on the natural world comes from some of the most creative and intellectually daring of people's activities. Science, technology and design have interacted with the driving force of free market economics to shape contemporary culture. In many fields of enquiry, the human mind finds itself exploring ideas and worlds of meaning that would, quite literally, have been unthinkable a hundred or even fifty years ago.

Evolutionary biologists have tried to identify the circumstances and capabilities that have led homo sapiens to occupy such a dominant position. They focus on our 'general purpose intelligence'. It is this that allows us not only to learn from experience but also to react in new ways to new situations. However, humans do more than react. They are curious and speculative. They are constantly trying to construct a framework of meaning to explain the world and their place in it. They make artefacts not only to achieve practical goals but also, in the form of art, to embody and express meaning. They often try to preserve the status quo but equally they may want to try something new, almost for

its own sake. This desire to open up new possibilities goes beyond any narrow interpretation of problem solving. Problems are indeed solved but there is also a search for new horizons. Ironically, the search for new horizons may produce new problems so that a part of the dynamic of 'progress' is the emergence of unforeseen and unwanted side effects.

Since the industrial revolution, material culture has hugely expanded in scope, far outstripping our grasp of the intellectual, economic, technological and social forces at play. It almost seems that our genius for making new things is out of control. We often find that the results of technological and design activity are not what we thought they would be. The ramification and multiplication of things has results far beyond everyday practicality. The organisation of the world of things implies matching changes in the organisation of the world of people. For example, new communications technologies reach into lived experience and affect how people view themselves and how they relate to one another. It turns out that changes in technology impinge on spiritual and aesthetic values as much as they do on work or shopping or travel.

In view of its importance in the contemporary world, the mental capacity involved in shaping the environment has been surprisingly little studied. Compared with the significance attributed to language, it is allocated an inferior position. However, the argument advanced in this seminar series is that the very survival of human civilization depends precisely on our developing a better understanding of this aspect of ourselves.

Cognitive science now recognises that the mind engages with the world through the medium of mental models. These represent or stand for external reality as presented through the senses. They are neurological constructs which can be manipulated neurologically. Memory uses models of past experience. This enables us to learn from our actions, to store knowledge and to have a sense of continuity with our ancestors. Even more remarkably, the mind can also model things which do not exist. These can be fantasies but equally they can be plans for the future — proposals for things, events or institutions which might one day be brought into existence.

Designing is one of a number of 'intentional activities' through which humans shape the future. The particular arena for design is material culture in all its complexity. Material culture is not simply 'practical', it is the result of beliefs and desires, ideals and values as much as functional necessity. A useful way of looking at material culture is to say that there are always two aspects to 'function': function in

the sense of physical performance; and function in the sense of carrying cultural and other human values or messages. The two are inseparable. Performance and values interact with each other to create an environment which attempts to achieve the purposes of human beings.

Although the focus of professional design activity is material culture, this does not mean that it is solely concerned with shaping the future of 'things'. The contents of material culture take their significance from the human activities which they support and enable. Design activity is essentially concerned with human behaviour and human potential far beyond the obvious boundaries of 'things', reaching out into the wider field of intentional activity in general. Material culture is a dynamic and changing arena which is as much about what people do and want as the physical world they inhabit. In fact, it links the two.

Although design activity is a universal aspect of human societies, its character varies dramatically between one culture and another. The way designing is carried out, who does the design work and who controls what is done, depends on the beliefs, values, resources, political organisation and technological know-how of a particular culture. Living in a democratic society dominated by the market economy gives us a view of design which is very different from that which prevailed in medieval times. Beliefs, values and economic priorities have a powerful influence. Contrast, for example, the prominence of social buildings (hospitals, town halls, water works, libraries) in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries with the cathedrals, monasteries and castles of the thirteenth century. Design effort goes where society wants it to go, or where power directs it.

In pre-industrial societies, it is often difficult to distinguish designing from making. The maker or craftsperson was also the designer and more often than not he or she was reproducing something made before. Skill in making developed and refined what was made and demand sometimes led to incremental improvements in details of the product. However, there was not specialist design activity. Rather it was design activity fully embedded in craftsmanship.

Design activity, practiced as a specialism, emerged as society grew more complex and embarked on ambitious attempts to shape and control the environment. Inevitably, those in power were in control. Early design specialists included architects for temples, memorials and palaces; experts on water and irrigation; and military engineers. It is clear that these prototype 'professionals' made use of modelling techniques: they were often depicted with drawings or

physical models and it is clear from what they designed that they made effective use of basic mathematical modelling.

For example, the emergence of a cadre of navel architects in the Tudor period reflected the growing competition for trade with distant lands and the matching developments in naval warfare. Contemporary illustrations show these new professionals at work using drawings and mathematics as modelling tools, first to explore the design of innovative ships and then to control their production. The same period saw a dramatic development in map-making and the graphic design of maps. These maps were needed not only by mariners but also by merchants and politicians who were looking across the seas for wealth and power. They provided a picture or model of a wider world and were a key to gaining power over it. They could be used to show conquests and to record the rights of new ownership.

In classical times, the Roman architect Vitruvius had already written on the importance of models in architecture and engineering. His work, in turn, influenced Renaissance designers. By the eighteenth century the stage had been set for the explosion of design activity that marked the Industrial Revolution. Throughout this time, the key modelling media were drawings and numbers. In the new graphic forms of technical, engineering and architectural drawing, the two came together to create a very flexible, well-understood medium for developing and communicating proposals for future designs.

The value of modelling in relation to design was clearly recognised in Britain, France and North America in the nineteenth century, though the term 'modelling' was not used. Skill in sketching, measured drawing, technical drawing and model making were an essential part of the training of architects, engineers and industrial designers as well as soldiers, surveyors, cartographers and many others. Skilled artisans were expected to be able to make informative sketches. Publishing technical illustrations to convey ideas and proposals became widespread.

It was less widely understood that drawing was not simply a way of conveying information but also a tool of the imagination. There was a clear picture of designers — particularly engineers — as people who shaped the future. How they did it, what mental processes they used, and what tools they used to do the job was not much considered. Skills in the key modelling media were taught but there was little theory to explain why they were effective or how a designer should go about the job of designing.

The twentieth century saw the emergence of much polemic on design and its role in society. Some of this had a theoretical flavour and there was a re-evaluation of design activity from radical social perspectives. The best known venue for these developments was the Bauhaus in Weimar, Germany. This institution proved extremely influential and suggested that rational and systematic approaches to design and designing would prove appropriate in an industrial, mass democracy. In fact, the Bauhaus was building on attitudes to design already visible in the work of nineteenth century engineers who believed that form should follow function and that rational and scientific principles should be paramount. Design theorists in the 1920s and 30s certainly suggested what designers should think about and where they should direct their energies. However, in spite of the growing interest in psychoanalysis, there was little speculation about the way the designer's mind worked or what, if any, special capacities it had.

The Second World War gave a further decisive boost to science and rational management. It was believed – rightly-that the War had to an important extent been a struggle between scientific elites for technological supremacy. The command of superior technology gave victory. At the same time, the conflict gave birth to the computer, a modelling tool which in a remarkably short time has come to dominate every area of life and every area of design activity from animated films to aeronautics.

It was quickly recognised that design, even in architecture, engineering and industrial design, was in practice a rather chaotic process, lacking systematic rigour and a viable theoretical base. The 1960s saw new interest in the management of design, the psychology of design and the systematisation of design into a bureaucratic process. Much of this was driven by the Cold War and the Space Race but it was also a response to the demand for large and complex design teams to work together on social housing, hospitals, schools, new technological equipment, motorways and airports. The nature of the post-War economy needed designers to form teams and become a part of management.

One result of this was a new interest in design methods. The proposition was that if designers used the appropriate methods throughout the course of a particular piece of design work, the resulting design would be fit for its purpose. It soon became clear that this was optimistic. However, what also became clear was that designers relied on a distinctive mode of thought which could be identified and fitted into emerging theories of intelligence. Very recently exciting developments in neuroscience have begun to shed light on the status of the brain as a living, biological electro-chemical system with extraordinary powers of 'mind', particularly learning and imagination.

Evolutionary biologists are now able to interpret the capacity and nature of the human brain as an outcome of the evolutionary niche occupied by humankind. Disciplines such as semiotics and epistemology have begun to explain how it is that words and images convey human meaning and can inspire human action. Educational psychologists place the development of mind in the context of each child's unique genetic heritage and the singular experience of being born and growing up in a particular environment.

The aim here is to utilise some of these insights to explain more precisely how it is that designers can in fact design. I hope one effect will be to remove some of the mystique from design activity and to show that it is a common or 'normal' aspect of ordinary human behaviour.

Is this important? I argue that it could hardly be more important. In the light of the environmental challenges facing society, it is essential that we gain a better insight into what might be called 'designerly thinking'.

It could be said that the ability to use models as a way of shaping the future – designerly thinking – is one of the most dangerous of all human characteristics! It is the use of mental and externalised models in conjunction with our adaptable 'general purpose' intelligence that has allowed us to achieve dominance over the whole of the natural word. Specialist design modelling, when associated with science, technology and the market economy has led to an extraordinary expansion of the made world. This has been driven by economic growth but has also created economic growth. Design has had the key role of bringing technology to market, creating and helping to sell a stream of innovative products and services. Taken almost for granted in the 'developed' world, they are totally inaccessible to very large segments of the world's population. It remains far from certain that these taken for granted products and services could ever be extended to the whole of the world's population without causing catastrophic environmental collapse.

The challenge is that the widespread use of 'designerly thinking' has, over a period of two hundred years, changed the material circumstances of many people's lives and revolutionised the cultural climate in which they live. It has now become urgently necessary that society should better understand how this mental capacity 'works' and how it can be focused on imagining the existence of an alternative lifestyle capable of being sustained into the future.

Ken Baynes Burley-on-the-Hill, 2009 This issue Richard Kimbell's Relection 'Between Rocks and Hard Places' provides an appropriate challenging perspective on the current review of primary education. It also makes the need for intellectual leadership, which can support policy formation clearly evident.

There are then four research papers. Brynjar Ólafsson and Gisli Thorsteinsson from University of Iceland trace the history of the development of the Icelandic curriculum in this area. From its early origins in the Sloyd tradition, its evolution illustrates both the transition from craft-based values and the development of the individual to the value sets of industrial societies and concerns about issues such as innovation. It is a fascinating history with much to inform current policy debates.

The paper by Keelin Leahy *et al*, of the University of Limerick also concerns curriculum design at a national level. It discusses potential issues with the current Irish curriculum and presents empirical evidence concerning learning styles of the students. It is too easy to forget that 'one size does not fit all' the students who are taught through a curriculum, and this is a timely reminder to all those who would centralise decision-making. 'Locally' teachers can respond to the individual needs of their students, but not if they are constrained within tight national guidelines.

Pål Kirkeby Hansen's paper analyses at a case study of the enhancement of the understanding of natural science principles through designing and making a technological product, which was undertaken to support the needs of Norwegian students. The links to current STEM initiatives is evident. The relationship between 'science' and 'designing' needs further detailed research and provides rich opportunities for international collaboration.

The final research paper by Aede Hatib Musta'amal *et al* explores a strategy for gathering empirical evidence concerning links between computer aided design (CAD) and creativity. It seeks to identify a framework of creative behaviours that have been related to creativity by cognitive psychologists, and then observe such behaviours in the use of CAD. It is thus as interesting for the method as the empirical results, although they indicate its potential. Such a framework could also be considered in relation to other design modelling methods, classroom observation and the formative assessment of designing activities.

There are also reviews by Tim Lewis and Stephanie Atkinson of two important research publications. Tim Lewis reviews *Researching Technology Education* by Howard Middleton. This book brings together examples of the use

of a different research methods in the context of technology education and hence provides important support to researchers in design and technology education. Stephanie Atkinson reviews *The Cultural Transmission of Artefacts, Skills and Knowledge. Eleven Studies in Technology Education in France* by Jacques Ginestié. This book makes research conducted over the last 20 years in France, and published in French, available to non-French speakers, which is a major contribution towards international co-operation in this emerging research field.

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