



William Playfair (22 September 1759 – 11 February 1823) was a <u>Scottish</u> engineer and <u>political economist</u>, the founder of <u>graphical methods of</u> <u>statistics</u>.^[1] He invented several types of <u>diagrams</u>: in 1786 the <u>line</u>, <u>area</u> and <u>bar chart</u> of economic data, and in 1801 the <u>pie chart</u> and circle graph, used to show part-whole relations.



Two decades before Playfair's first achievements, in 1765 <u>Joseph Priestley</u> had created the innovation of the first timeline charts, in which individual bars were used to visualise the life span of a person, and the whole can be used to compare the life spans of multiple persons. According to <u>James R. Beniger</u> and Robyn (1978) "Priestley's timelines proved a commercial success and a popular sensation, and went through dozens of editions".



These timelines directly inspired Wiliam Playfair's invention of the <u>bar chart</u>, which first appeared in his *Commercial and Political Atlas*, published in 1786.

Playfair was driven to this invention by a lack of data. In his Atlas he had collected a series of 34 plates about the import and export from different countries over the years, which he presented as <u>line graphs</u> or surface charts: line graphs shaded or tinted to show the difference [skip back to slide].

Because Playfair lacked the necessary series data for Scotland, he graphed its trade data for a single year as a series of 34 bars, one for each of 17 trading partners, In this bar chart Scotland's imports and exports from and to 17 countries in 1781 are represented. "This bar chart was the first quantitative graphical form that did not locate data either in space, as had coordinates and tables, or time, as had Priestley's timelines. It constitutes a pure solution to the problem of discrete quantitative comparison".



John Snow (15 March 1813 – 16 June 1858) was an English physician and a leader in the adoption of anaesthesia and medical hygiene. He is considered one of the fathers of modern epidemiology, in part because of his work in tracing the source of a cholera outbreak in Soho, London, in 1854

Snow was a skeptic of the then-dominant <u>miasma theory</u> that stated that diseases such as cholera and <u>bubonic plague</u> were caused by pollution or a noxious form of "bad air". The <u>germ theory of disease</u> had not yet been developed, so Snow did not understand the mechanism by which the disease was transmitted. His observation of the evidence led him to discount the theory of foul air. He first publicised his theory in an 1849 essay, *On the Mode of Communication of Cholera*, ^[14] followed by a more detailed treatise in 1855 incorporating the results of his investigation of the role of the water supply in the <u>Soho</u> epidemic of 1854. ^{[15][16]}

By talking to local residents (with the help of <u>Reverend Henry Whitehead</u>), he identified the source of the outbreak as the public water pump on Broad Street (now <u>Broadwick Street</u>). Although Snow's chemical and microscope examination of a water sample from the <u>Broad Street pump</u> did not conclusively prove its danger, his studies of the pattern of the disease were convincing enough to persuade the local council to disable the well pump by removing its handle.

Snow used a dot map to illustrate the cluster of cholera cases around the pump. He also used statistics to illustrate the connection between the quality of the water source and cholera cases. He showed that the Southwark and Vauxhall Waterworks Company was taking water from sewage-polluted sections of the Thames and delivering the water to homes, leading to an increased incidence of cholera. Snow's study was a major event in the history of public health and geography. It is regarded as the founding event of the science of epidemiology. Snow's map, demonstrating the spatial clustering of cholera deaths around the Broad Street well, provided strong evidence in support of his theory that cholera was a waterborne disease. Snow used some proto-GIS methods to buttress his argument: first he drew Thiessen polygons around the wells, defining straight-line least-distance service areas for each. A large majority of the cholera deaths fell within the Thiessen polygon surrounding the Broad Street well. Next, using a pencil and string, Snow redrew the service area polygons to reflect shortest routes along streets to wells. An even larger proportion of the cholera deaths fell within the Broad Street well.



In 1858 nurse, statistician, and reformer Florence Nightingale published Notes on Matters Affecting the Health, Efficiency, and Hospital Administration of the British Army. Founded Chiefly on the Experience of the Late War. Presented by Request to the Secretary of State for War. This privately printed work contained a color statistical graphic entitled "Diagram of the Causes of Mortality in the Army of the East" which showed that epidemic disease, which was responsible for more British deaths in the course of the Crimean War than battlefield wounds, could be controlled by a variety of factors including nutrition, ventilation, and shelter. The graphic, which Nightingale used as a way to explain complex statistics simply, clearly, and persuasively, has become known as Nightingale's "Rose Diagram."



Map of Napoleon's army by Charles Joseph Minard. Minard was a pioneer of the use of graphics in engineering and statistics. He is most well known for his cartographic depiction of numerical data on a map of Napoleon's disastrous losses suffered during the Russian campaign of 1812. The illustration depicts Napoleon's army departing the Polish-Russian border. A thick band illustrates the size of his army at specific geographic points during their advance and retreat. This graphic is notable for displaying six types of data in two dimensions: the number of Napoleon's troops; the distance traveled; temperature; latitude and longitude; direction of travel; and location relative to specific dates.[2] This type of band graph for illustration of flows was later called a Sankey diagram, although Matthew Sankey used this visualisation 30 years later and only for thematic energy flow).



When you hear the word visualisation, you might think of a bar chart or a pie chart.



Daniel Wakelin





Late 15th century morality play. A poem converted into a play.



Tom Phillips, 1960s









India infographic 1950s - Chittaprosad Bhattacharya - cartoonist



Celia Yunior - growth of IT industry in Kerala, income disparity



Celia Yunior – growth of IT industry in Kerala, income disparity



Celia Yunior - positions of power and control in administrations



History – a construct

THEORIES OF VISUALISATION



The **principles of grouping** (or **Gestalt laws of grouping**) are a set of principles in <u>psychology</u>, first proposed by <u>Gestalt psychologists</u> in the early 20th century to account for the observation that humans naturally perceive objects as organized patterns and objects, a principle known as <u>Prägnanz</u>. Gestalt psychologists argued that these principles exist because the mind has an innate disposition to perceive patterns in the stimulus based on certain rules.

For example, the law of common fate. Birds may be distinguished from their background as a single flock because they are moving in the same direction and at the same velocity, even when each bird is seen—from a distance—as little more than a dot. The moving 'dots' appear to be part of a unified whole. The law of common fate is used extensively in user-interface design, for example where the movement of a <u>scrollbar</u> is synchronised with the movement (i.e. cropping) of a window's <u>content viewport</u>; The movement of a physical mouse is synchronised with the movement of an on-screen arrow cursor, and so on.

The principle of similarity states that, all else being equal, perception lends itself to seeing stimuli that physically resemble each other as part of the same object, and stimuli that are different as part of a different object.

The Gestalt law of proximity states that "objects or shapes that are close to one another appear to form groups".

The principles of similarity and proximity often work together to form a Visual Hierarchy. Either principle can dominate the other, depending on the application and combination of the two. For example, in the grid to the left, the similarity principle dominates the proximity principle and you probably see rows before you see columns.

The principle of closure refers to the mind's tendency to see complete figures or forms even if a picture is incomplete

The law of good continuation. When there is an intersection between two or more objects, people tend to perceive each object as a single uninterrupted object.

	Graphic Resources	Correspondence	Design Uses	Bertin, J. (1967). Semiologie
Marks	Shape Orientation Size Texture Saturation Colour Line	Literal (visual imitation of physical features) Mapping (quantity, relative scale) Conventional (arbitrary)	Mark position, identify category (shape, texture colour) Indicate direction (orientation, line) Express magnitude (saturation, size, length) Simple symbols and colour codes	 Bertin, J. (1967). Semiologie graphique. Paris: Editions Gauthier-Villars. English translation by WJ. Berg (1983)as Semiology of graphics, Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press Blackwell, A.F. and Engelhardt, Y. (2002). A meta-taxonomy for diagram research. In M. Anderson&B. Meyer&P. Olivier (Eds.), Diagrammatic Representation and Reasoning, London: Springer-Verlag, pp. 47-64. Engelhardt, Y. (2002). The Language of Graphics. A framework for the analysis of syntax and meaning in maps,charts and diagrams. PhD Thesis, University of Amsterdam. MacEachren, A.M. (1995). How maps work: Representation, visualization, and design. Guilford.
Symbols	Geometric elements Letter forms Logos and icons Picture elements Connective elements	Topological (linking) Depictive (pictorial conventions) Figurative (metonym, visual puns) Connotative (professional and cultural association) Acquired (specialist literacies)	Texts and symbolic calculi Diagram elements Branding Visual rhetoric Definition of regions	
Regions	Alignment grids Borders and frames Area fills White space Gestalt integration	Containment Separation Framing (composition, photography) Layering	Identifying shared membership Segregating or nesting multiple surface conventions in panels Accommodating labels, captions or legends	
Surfaces	The plane Material object on which marks are imposed (paper, stone) Mounting, orientation and display context Display medium	Literal (map) Euclidean (scale and angle) Metrical (quantitative axes) Juxtaposed or ordered (regions, catalogues) Image-schematic Embodied/situated	Typographic layouts Graphs and charts Relational diagrams Visual interfaces Secondary notations Signs and displays	

Bertin, Richards, MacEachren, Blackwell&Engelhardt and Engelhardt.

One approach is to take a holistic perspective on visual language, information design, notations, or diagrams. Specialist research communities in these fields address many relevant factors from low-level visual perception to critique of visual culture. Across all of them, it can be necessary to ignore (or not be distracted by) technical and marketing claims, and to remember that all visual representations simply comprise marks on a surface that are intended to correspond to things understood by the reader. The two dimensions of the surface can be made to correspond to physical space (in a map), to dimensions of an object, to a pictorial perspective, or to continuous abstract scales (time or quantity). The surface can also be partitioned into regions that should be interpreted differently. Within any region, elements can be aligned, grouped, connected or contained in order to express their relationships. In each case, the correspondence between that arrangement, and the intended interpretation, must be understood by convention or explained. Finally, any individual element might be assigned meaning according to many different semiotic principles of correspondence.



Graphic resources "Planar dimensions" Retinal variables





Take a framework like this and formally encode it.

The grammar of graphics was the foundation for the \underline{R} package <u>ggplot2</u>



Grammar of graphics is great for people who think about visualisation in such rareified planes of abstraction, but it is not really suited to the mental models and expertise of most end-users. So we have simplified alternatives such as the Excel chart picker, which reframe the pipeline in terms of concrete examples. This is perhaps limiting in terms of the types of visualisations you can achieve, but is vastly more usable. Another point in the spectrum is Tableau's chart designer. This came out of Christopher Stolte's PhD work at Stanford in the late 90s, early 2000s.



The directionality of data -> visualisation in the grammar of graphics can also be limiting. What about visualisation -> data?



- Structural: e.g., Bertin, Wilkinson/Wickham
- Perceptual/cognitive: e.g., Bertin, Cleveland & McGill
- Aesthetic/designerly: e.g., Edward Tufte (Visual Display of Quantitative Information)



Yi, J. S., Kang, Y.-A., Stasko, J., & Jacko, J. (2007). Toward a deeper understanding of the role of interaction in information visualization. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, *13*(6), 1224–31. https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2007.70515

Lam, H. (2008). A framework of interaction costs in information visualization.*IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*,14(6), 1149–56. https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2008.109

LATENT SEMANTIC ANALYSIS



An example of a term-document matrix with a weighting function (tf-idf). M, D, and T refer to the term-document matrix, the set of all documents in the corpus, and the set of all terms in the corpus, respectively. T_1 is an example of a common word that occurs frequently in documents, whereas T_3 , T_4 , and T_6 are comparatively rarer words and receive a higher weight. (**B**) An illustration of the dimensionality-reduction step of LSI. U, Σ , and V^T are truncated and become Σ_k , U_k , and V^T_k , respectively. C, D, and T refer to the set of LSI topics, documents, and terms, respectively. Here, we illustrate a reduction to three dimensions.

These matrices can then be used as a distance metric for both terms and documents. Any two documents can be compared by computing the cosine distance between their corresponding column vectors in V^T. Likewise, any two terms can be compared by computing the cosine distance between their corresponding row rectors in U.









BRAINCEL











