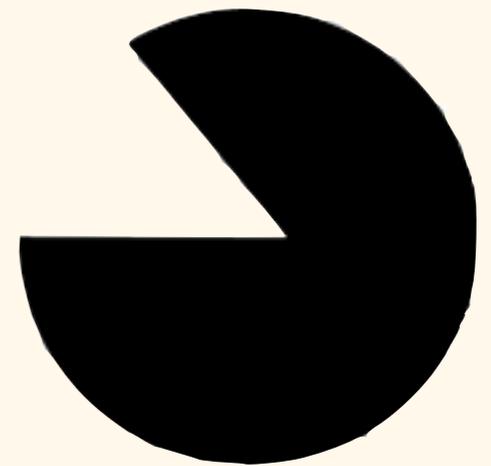
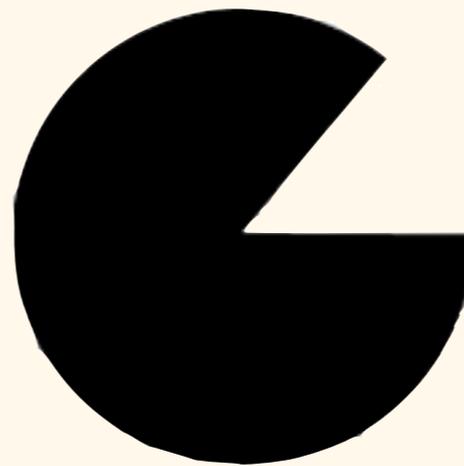
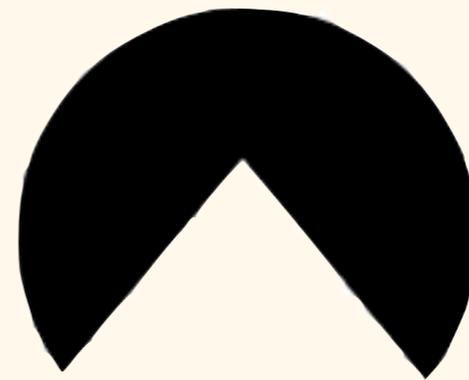
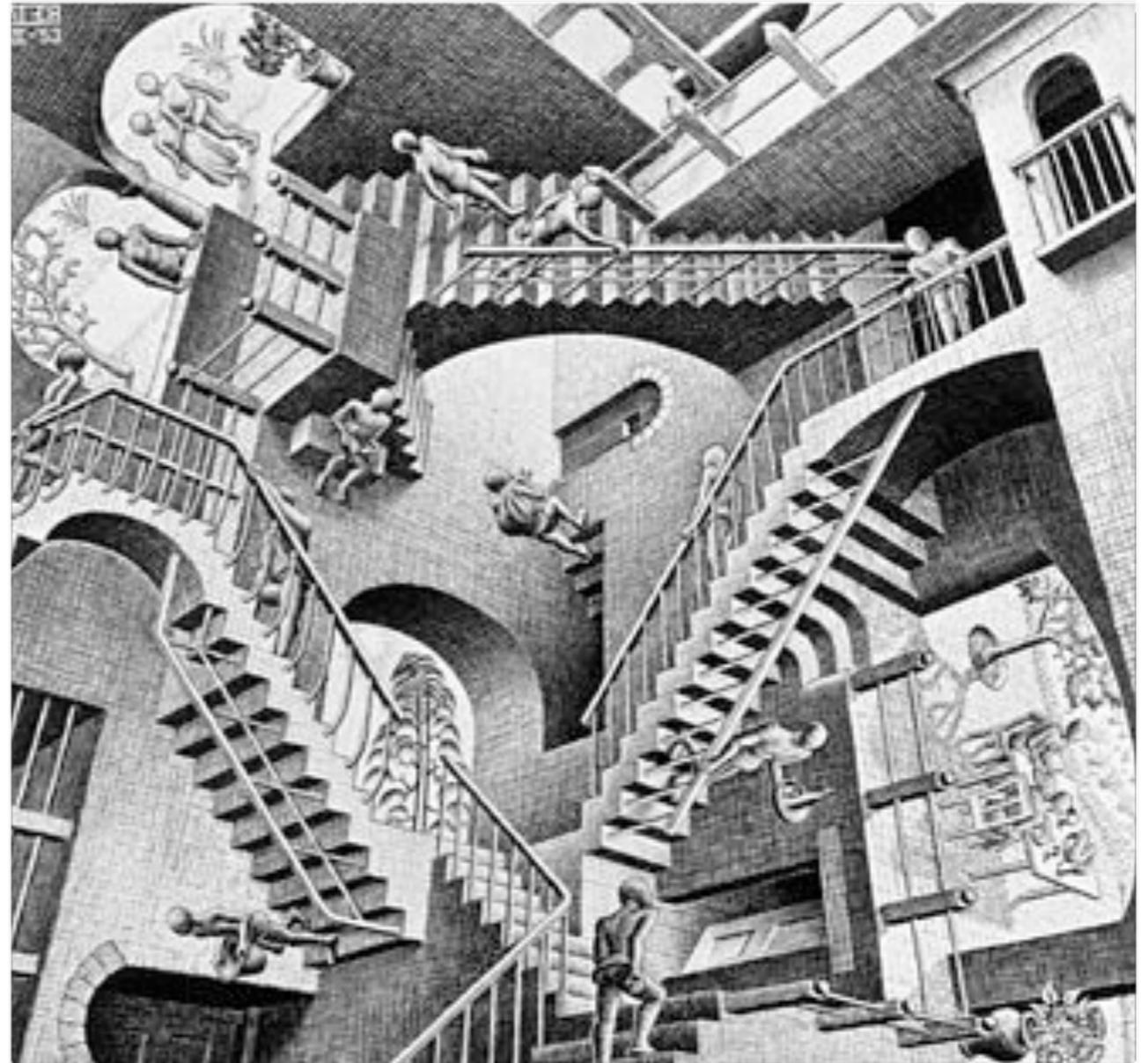
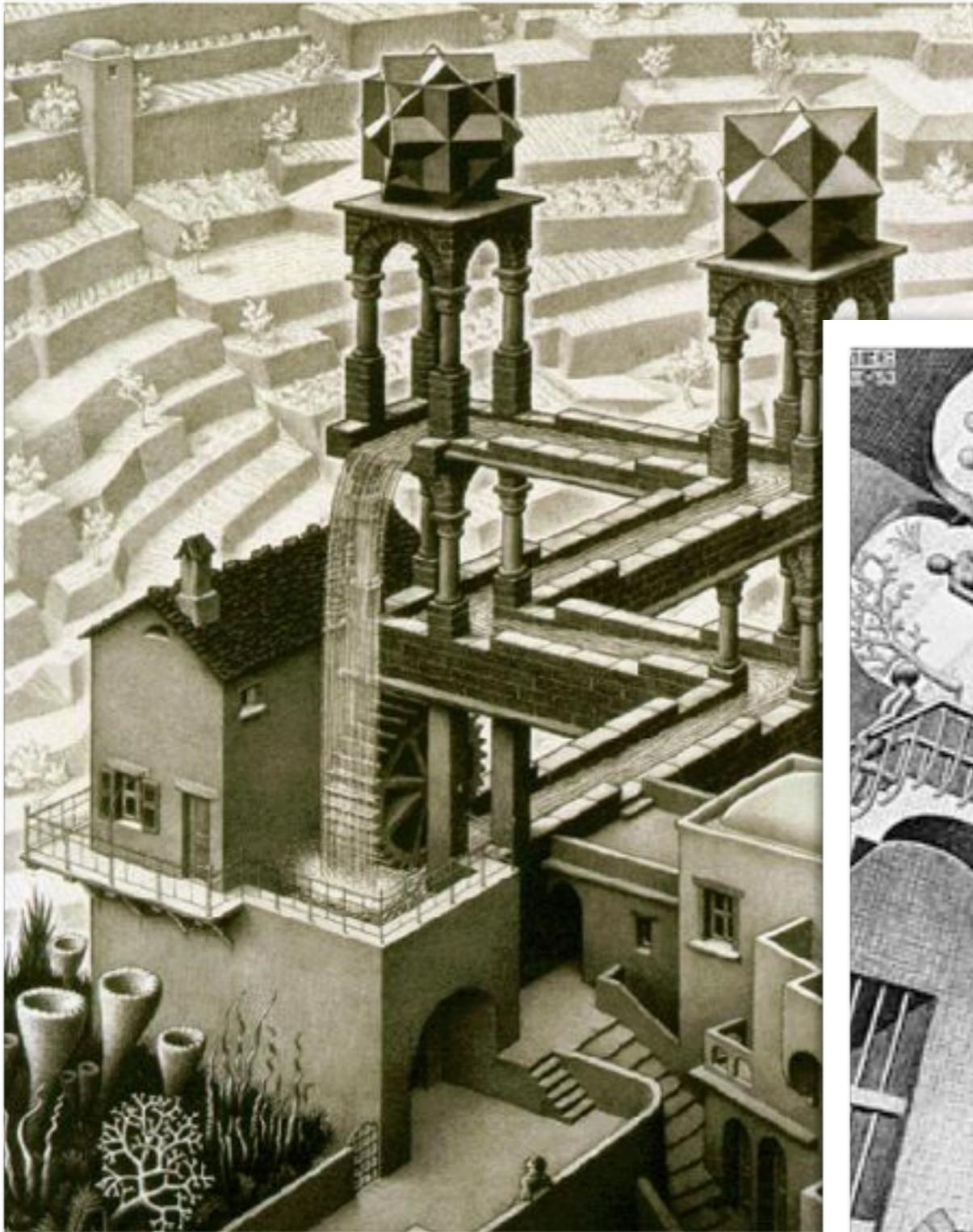


Preattentive properties & Gestalt perception





M.C. Escher, "Waterfall" https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Escher_Waterfall.jpg

M.C. Escher, "Relativity" https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Escher%27s_Relativity.jpg

“If information is presented orally, people remember about 10%... That number goes up by 65% if you add a picture.”

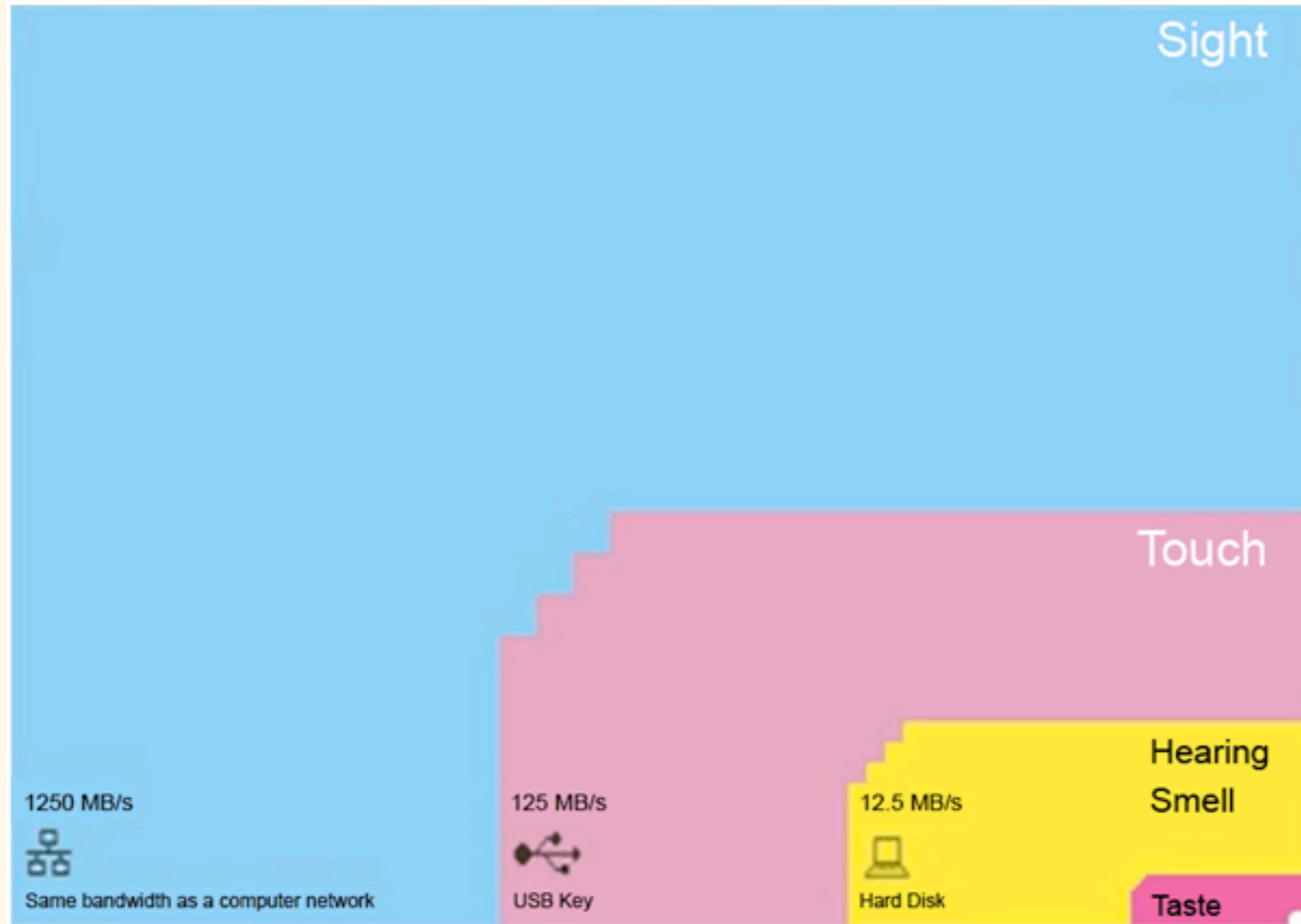


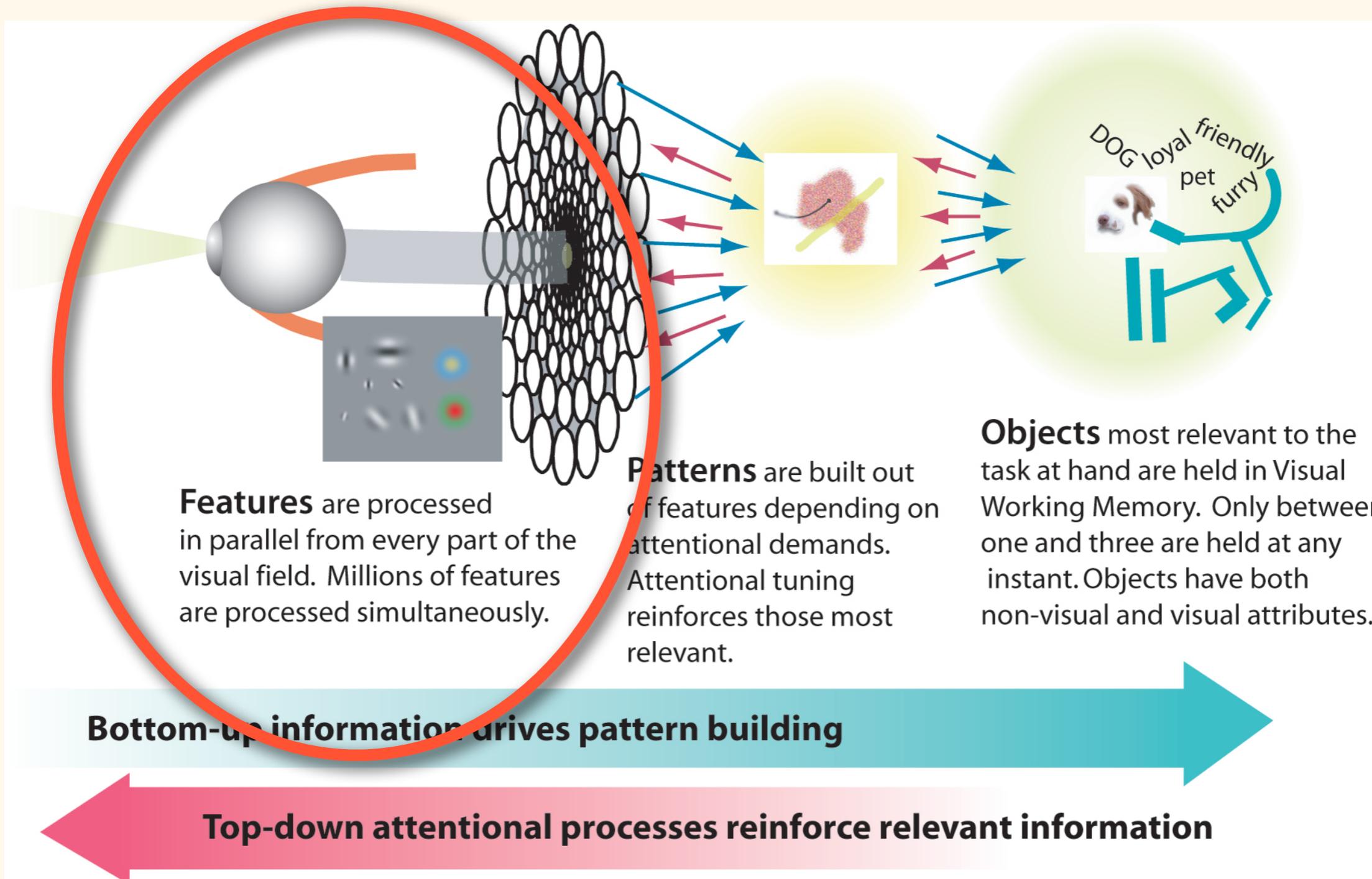
Paul Martin Lester



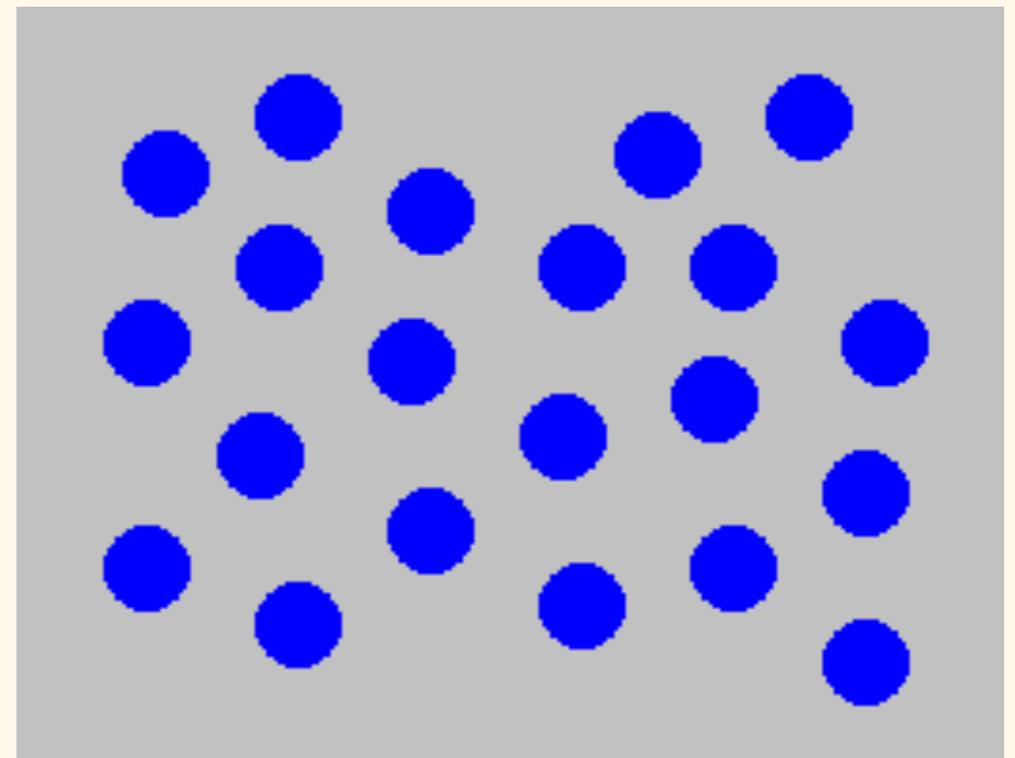
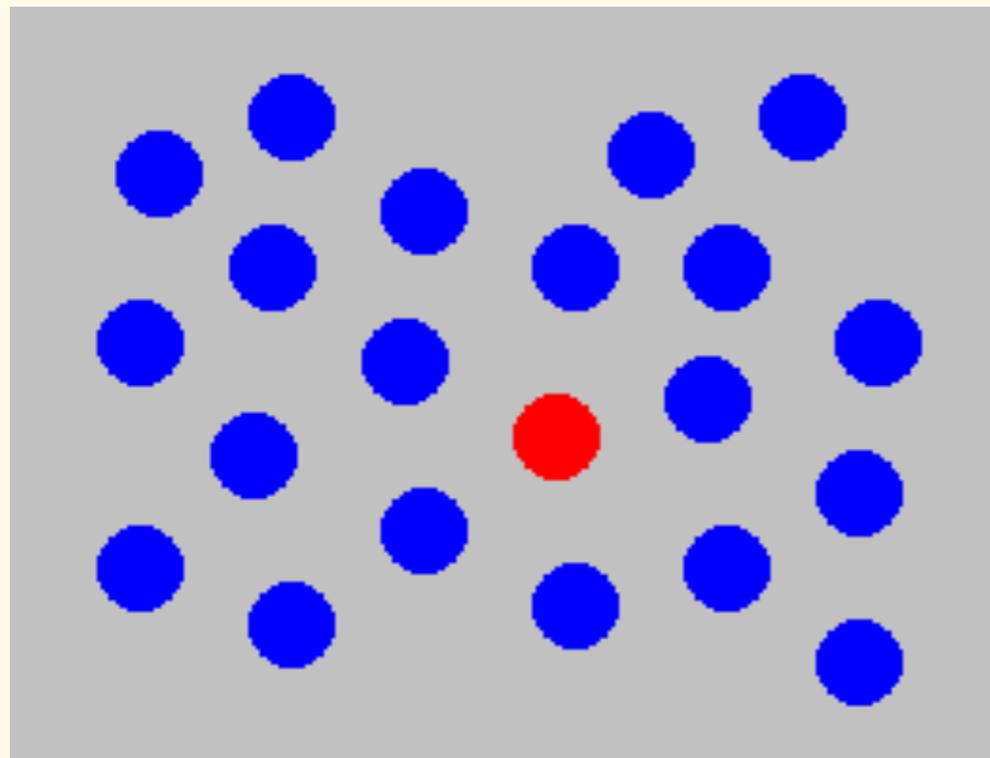
Jerome Bruner

Our toolbox starts with our eyes and visual cortex.



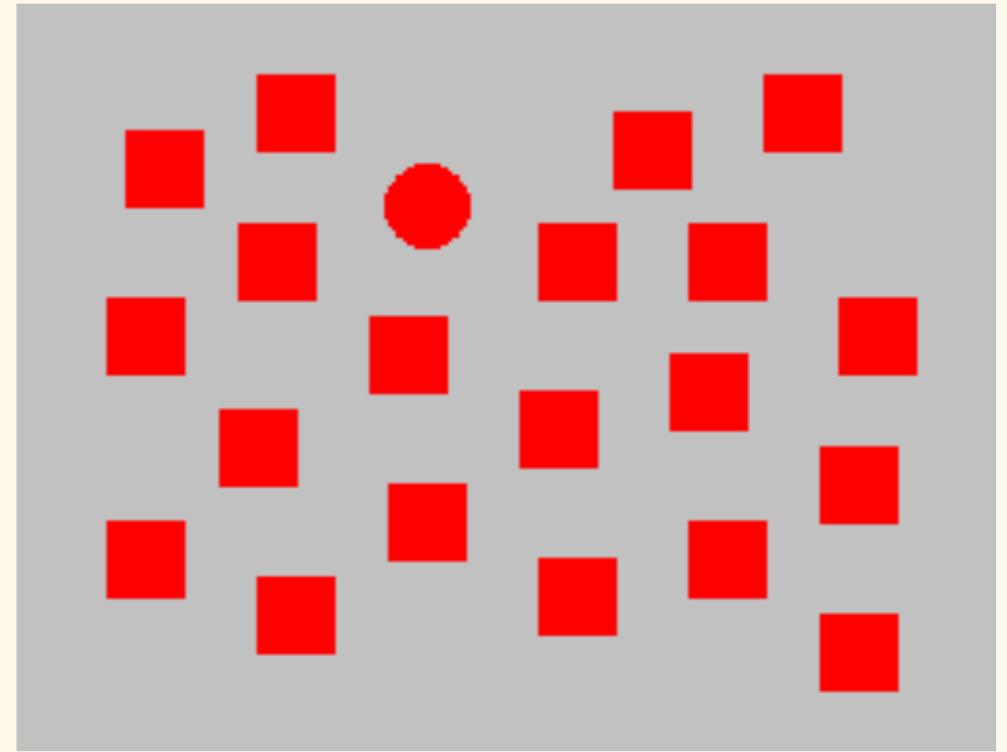
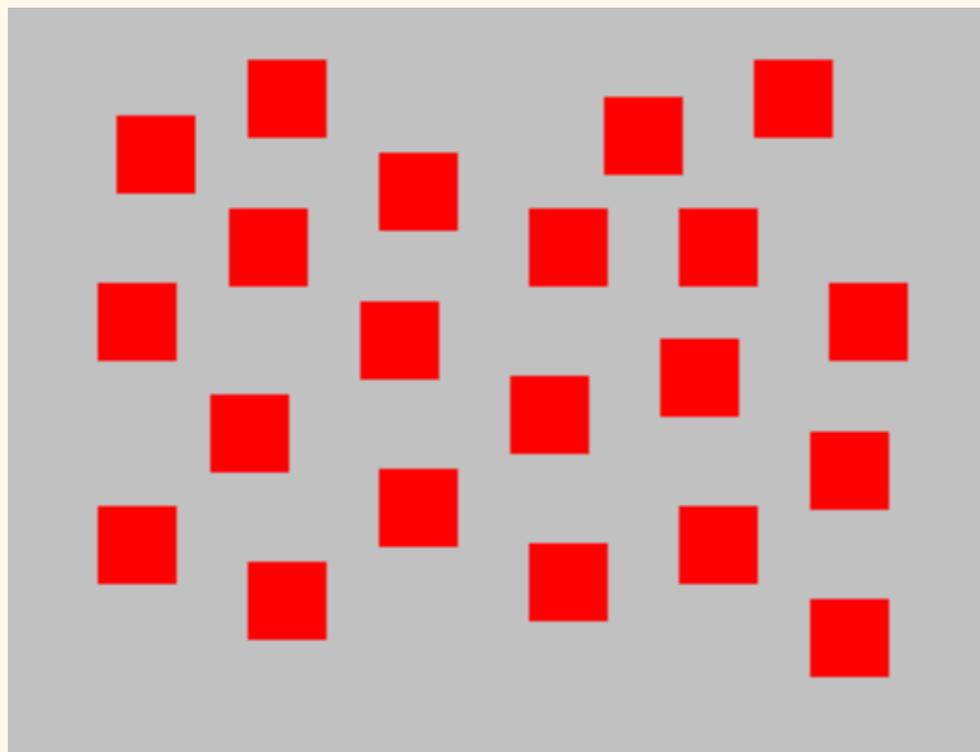


Certain visual inputs are processed almost instantaneously, and in parallel:



Is there a red circle present?

Certain visual inputs are processed almost instantaneously, and in parallel:



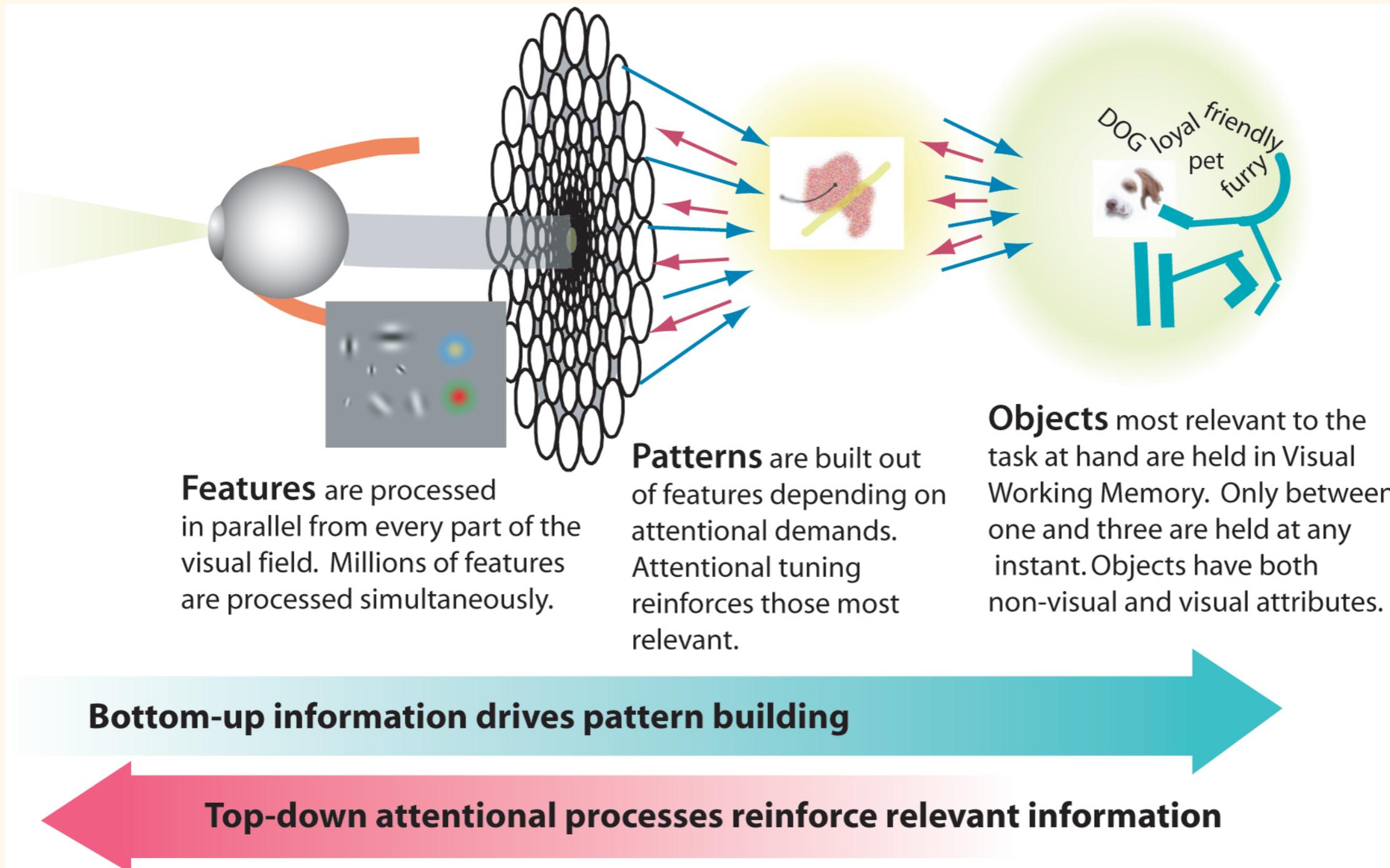
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Certain visual inputs are processed almost instantaneously, and in parallel:

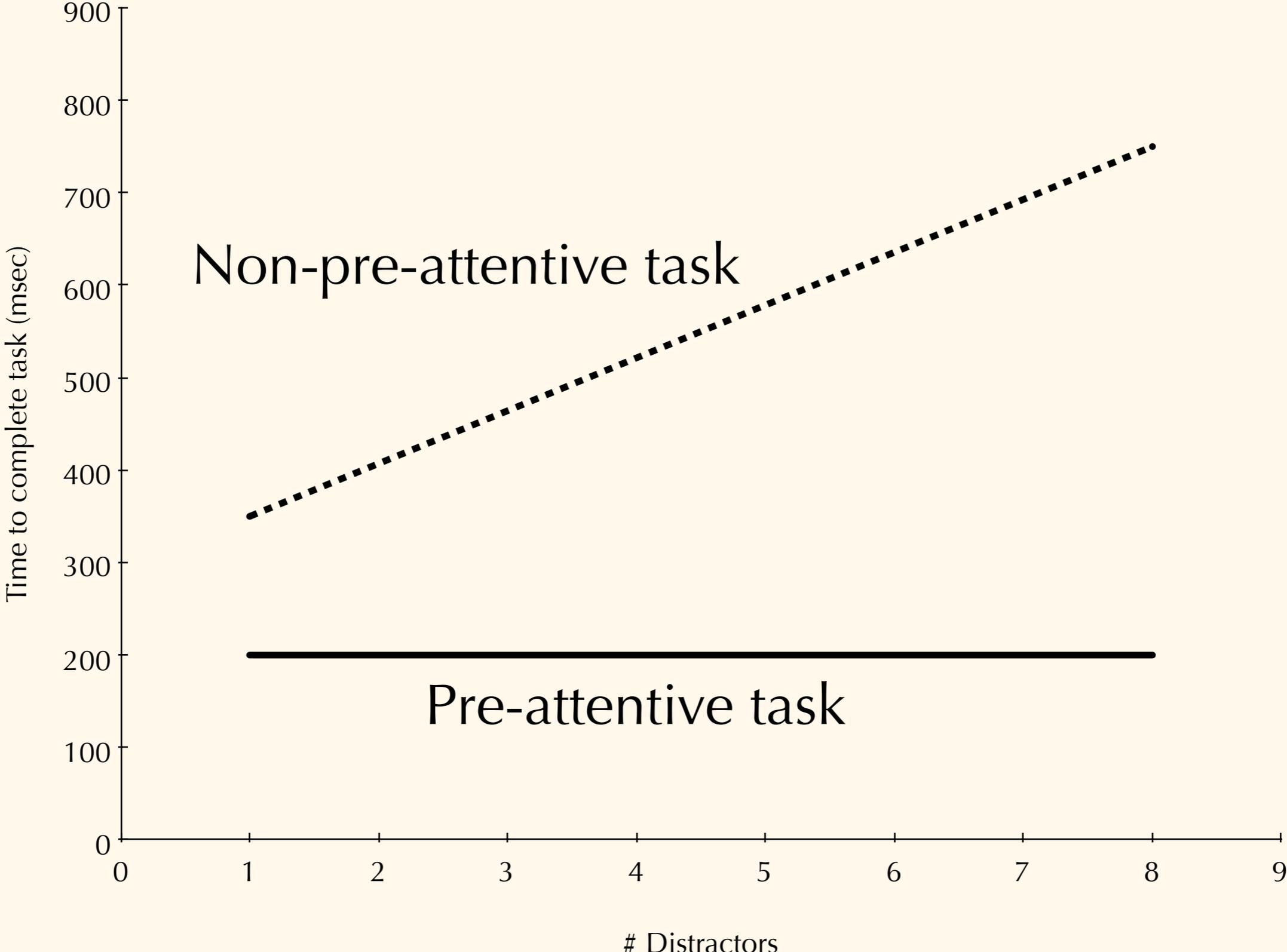


Is there a boundary?

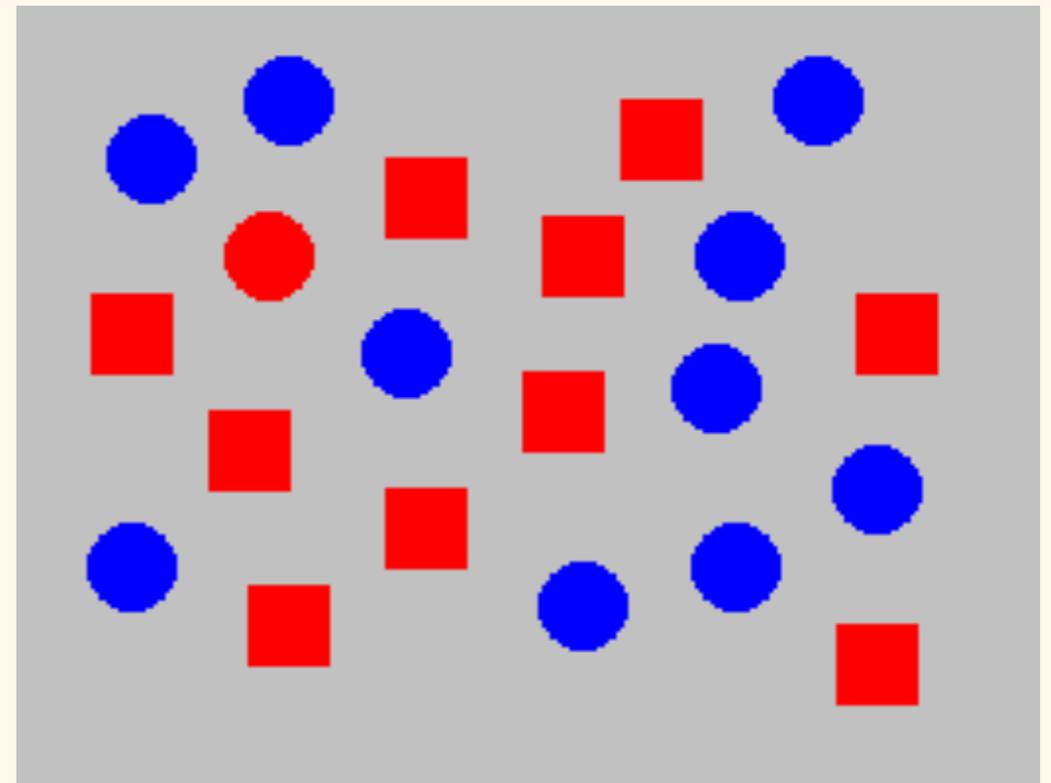
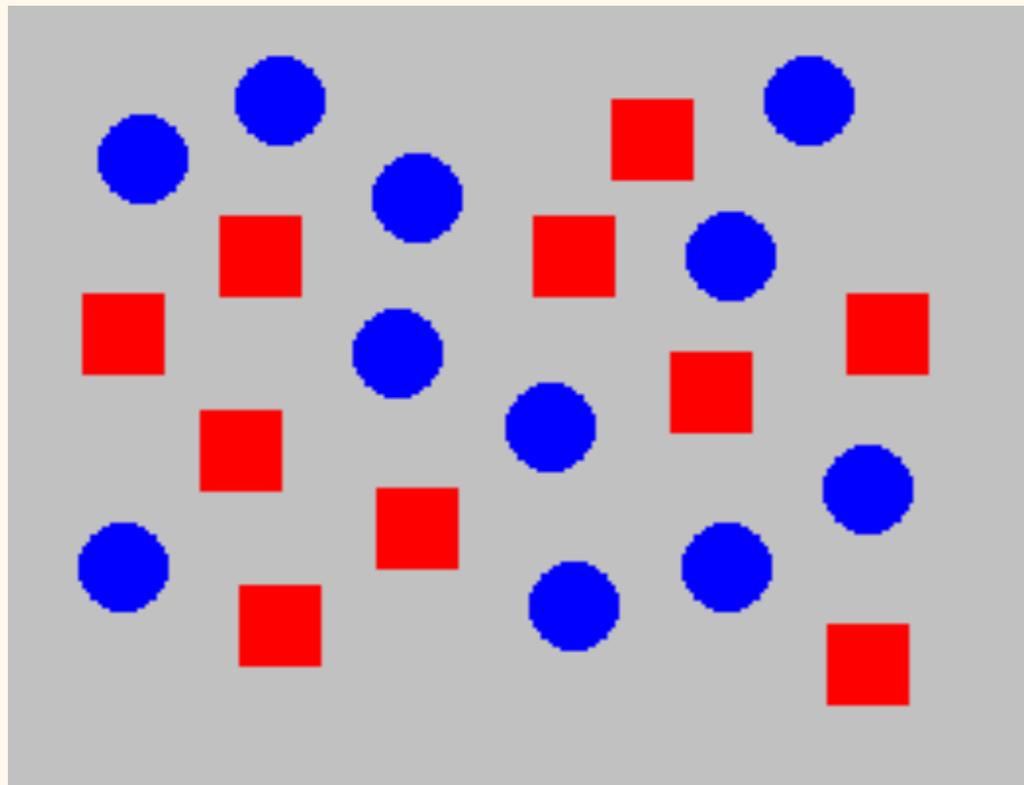
This “pre-attentive” perception happens very early in the vision pathway.



A pre-attentive task takes the same amount of time irrespective of the number of distractors.

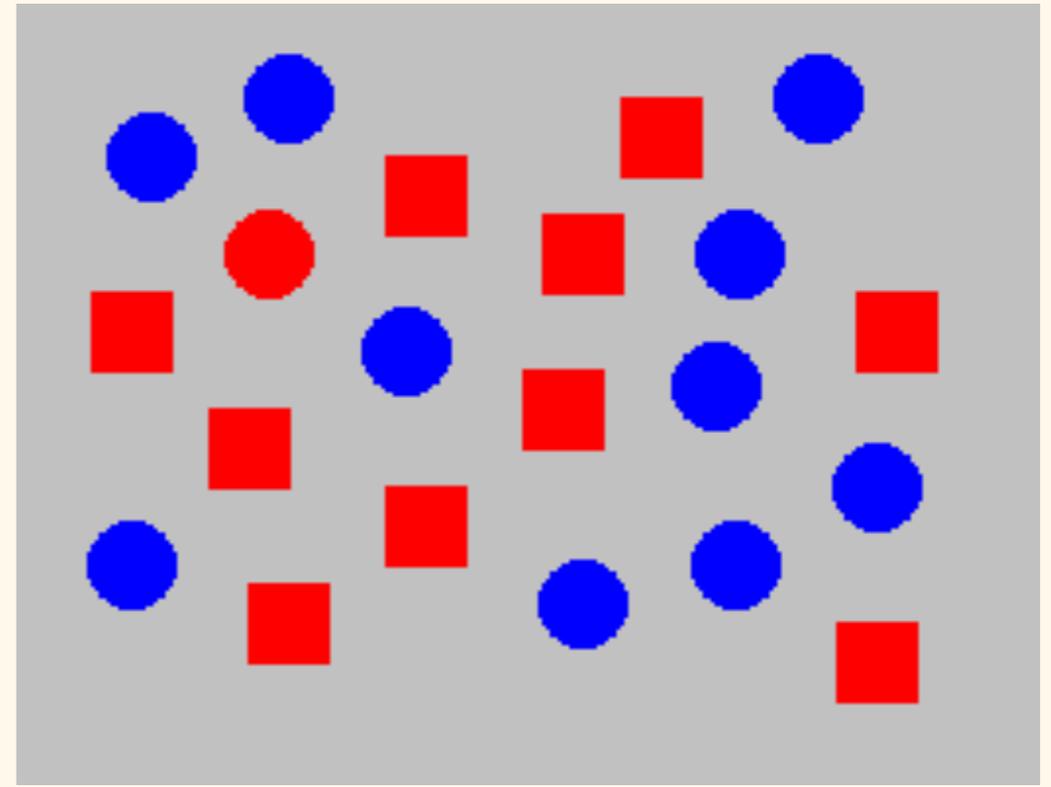
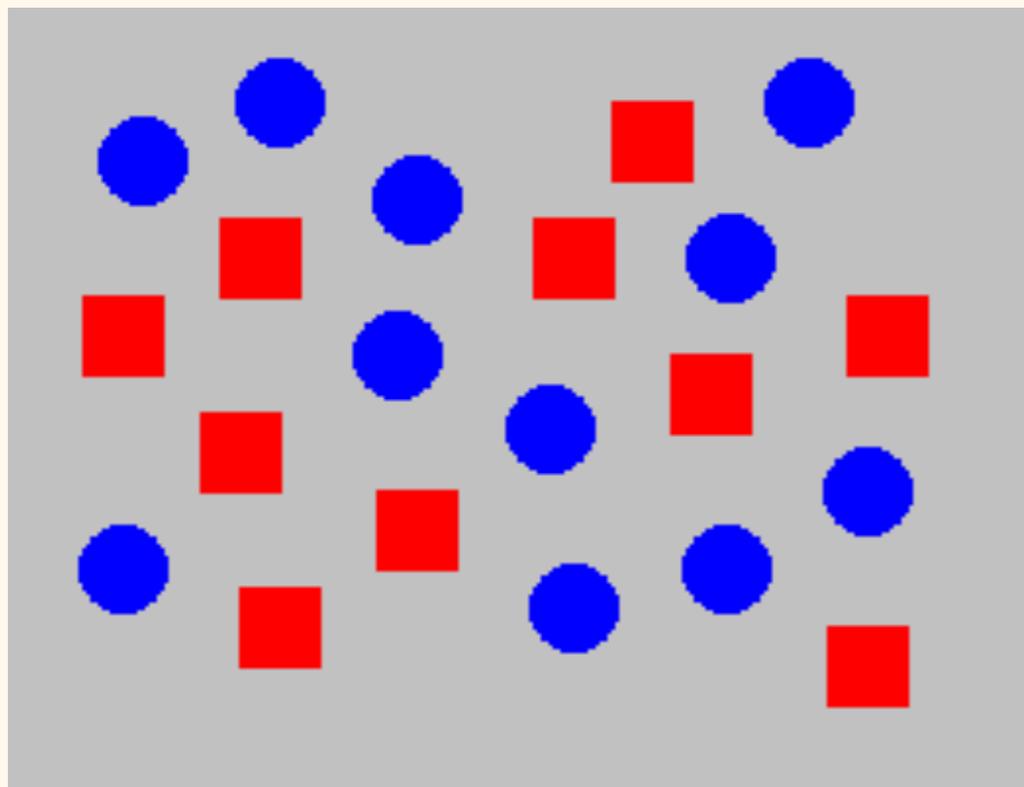


Interestingly, this only works when the distractors differ on the same feature:



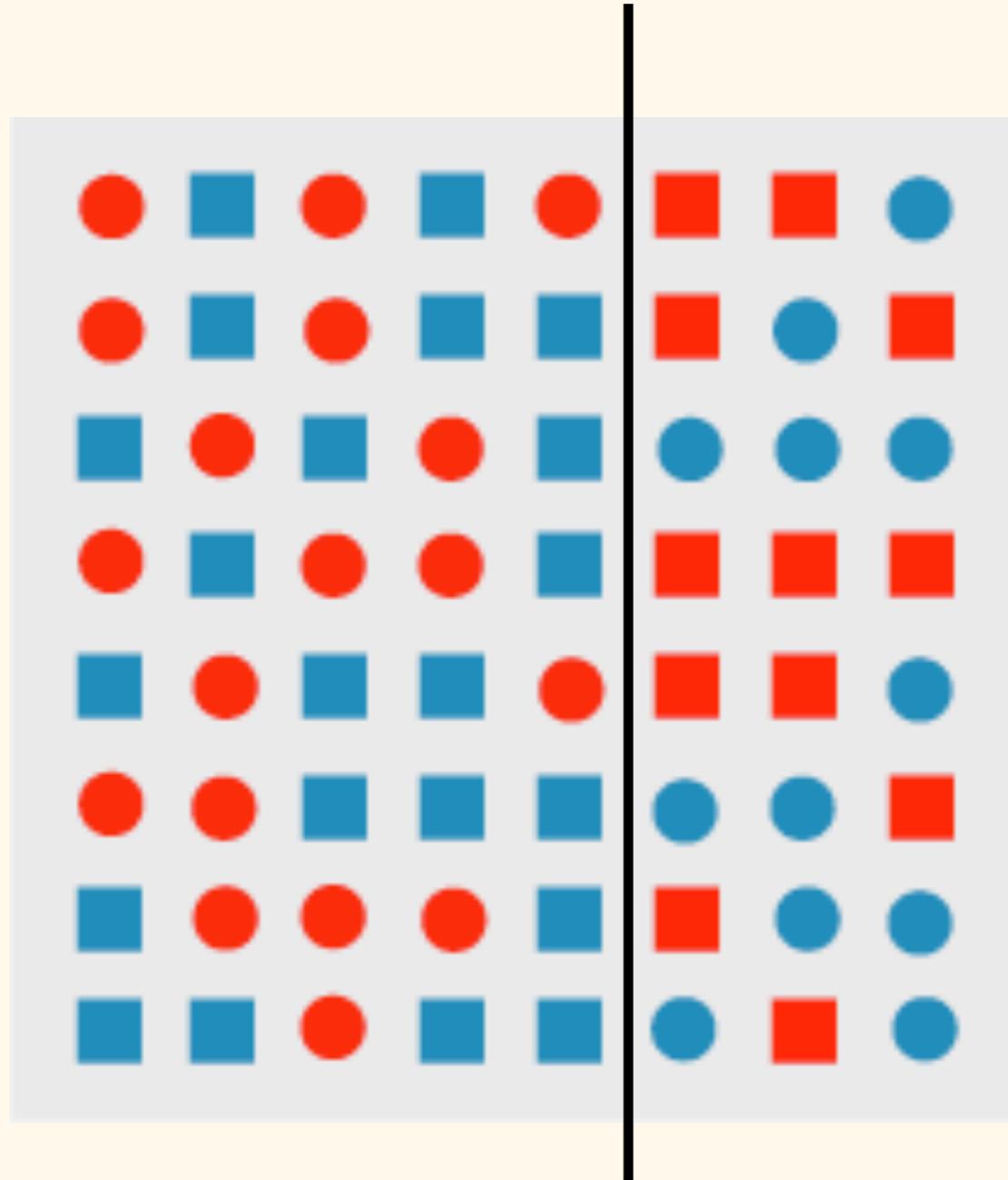
Is there a red circle present?

Interestingly, this only works when the distractors differ on the same feature:



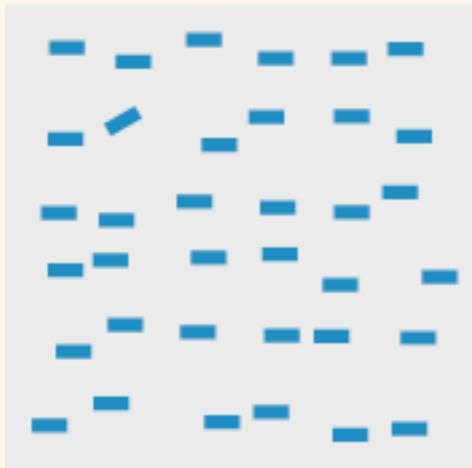
We must fall back on linear scanning when there is a “conjunction” of features.

Interestingly, this only works when the distractors differ on the same feature:

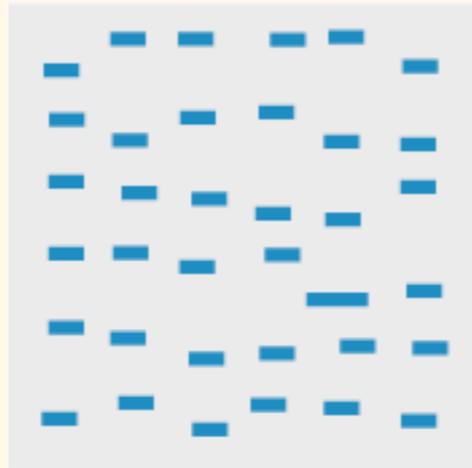


Is there a boundary? (hint: yes!)

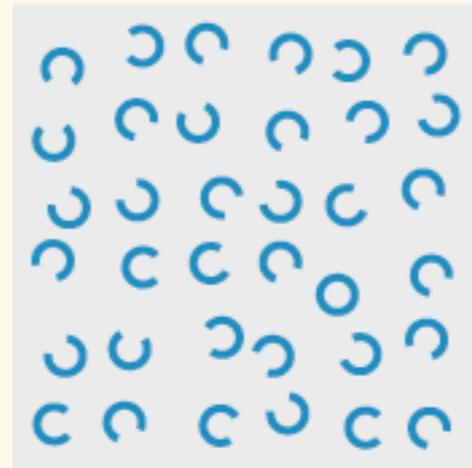
Color and shape are only a few of the pre-attentive visual properties:



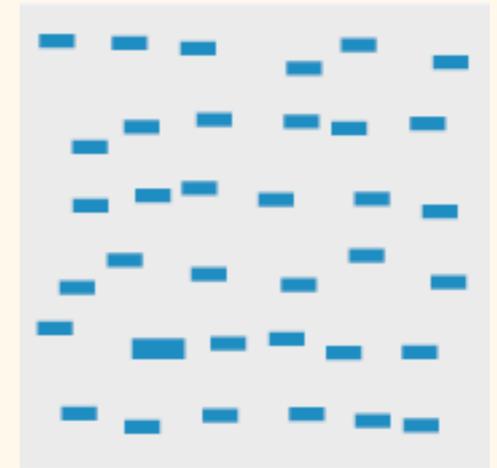
Orientation



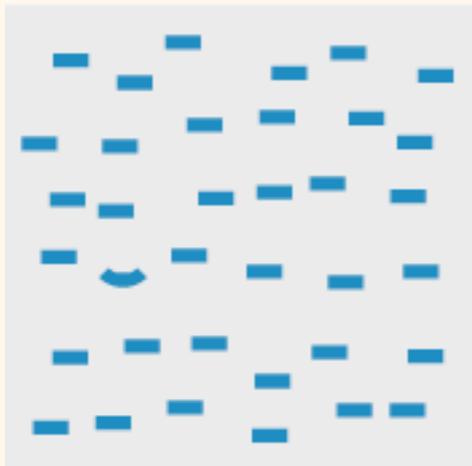
Length



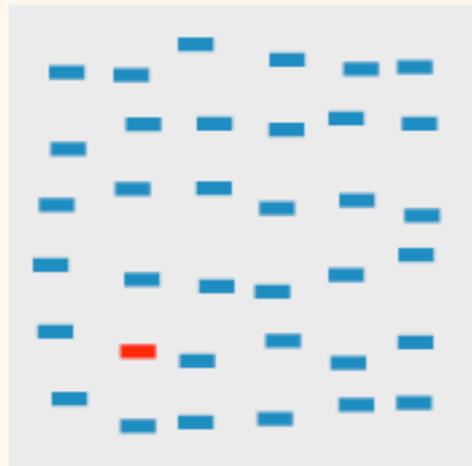
Closure



Size

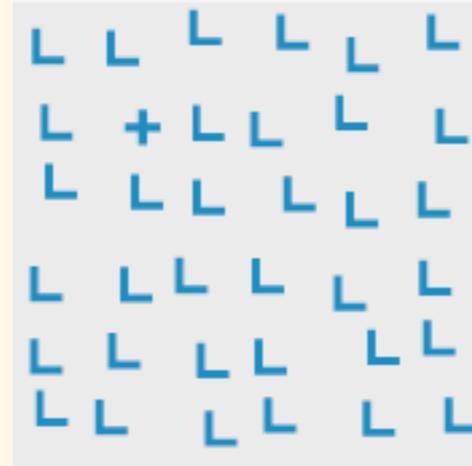


Curvature

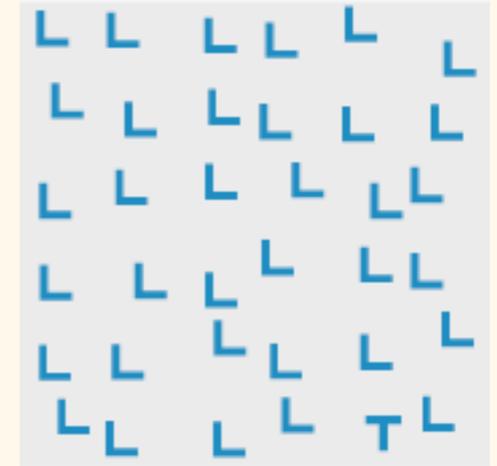


Color

*(hue & intensity
operate independently)*

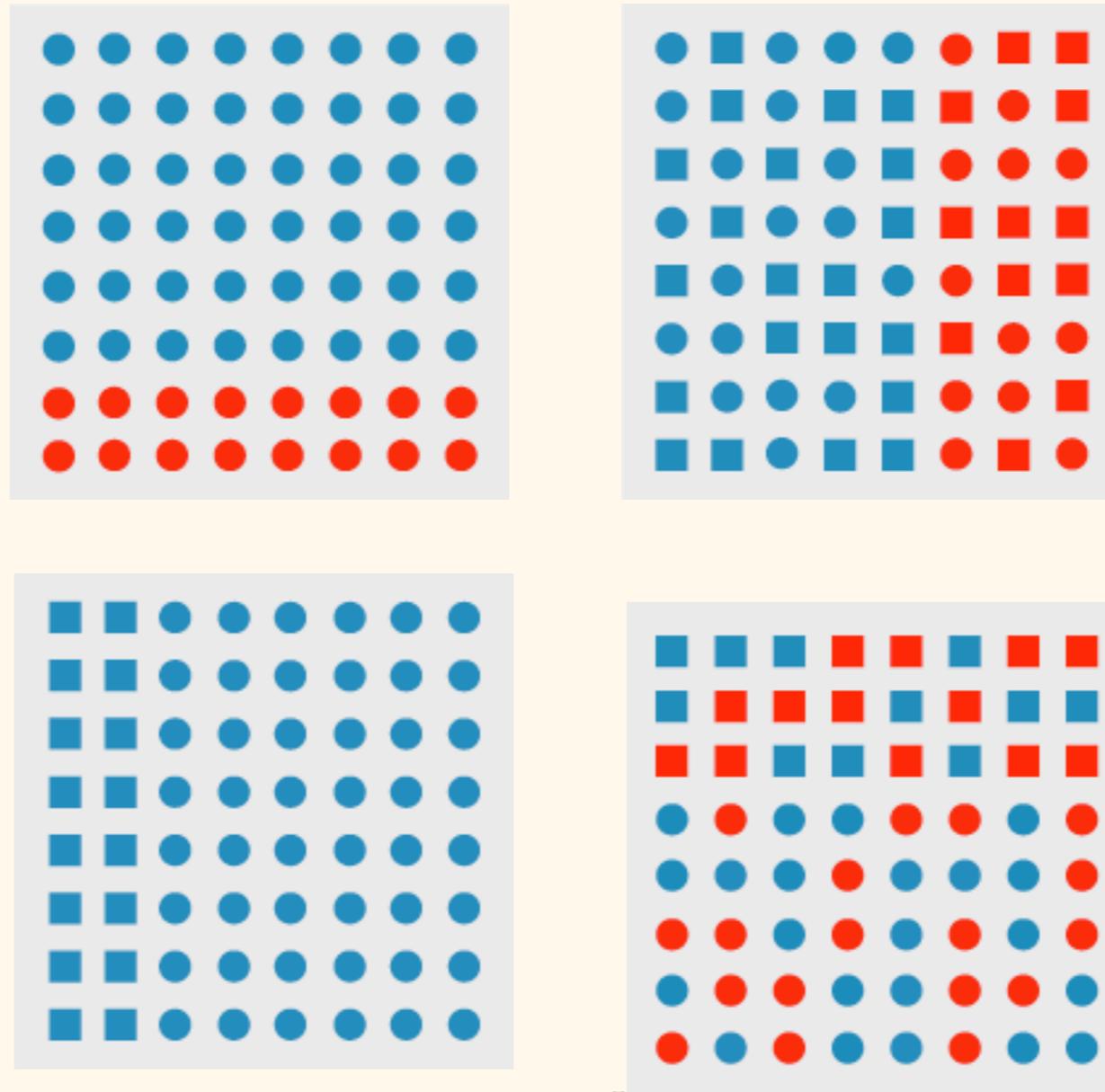


Terminators



Intersection

Note that these various features are not created equal!



We seem to have a strong bias towards color perception over shape perception, etc..

What does all of this mean?

1. Certain tasks that depend on pre-attentive features can sometimes be done “for free” by our brains:

Target detection

Boundary detection

Region tracking

Counting (estimation)

2. The more of our story we can tell using pre-attentive features, the faster and better our viewer will “get it.”

3. We can easily mess up our viewer's ability to interpret our visualization by "triggering" pre-attentive perception inappropriately!

Many of the things that make a bad visualization "bad" can be traced back to problems in this area!

Another perspective: Gestalt perception

“Gestalt”:

“An organized whole that is perceived as more than the sum of its parts.” (Ox. Am. Dict.)

Possibly a mis-translation?

“The whole is other than the sum of its parts.”

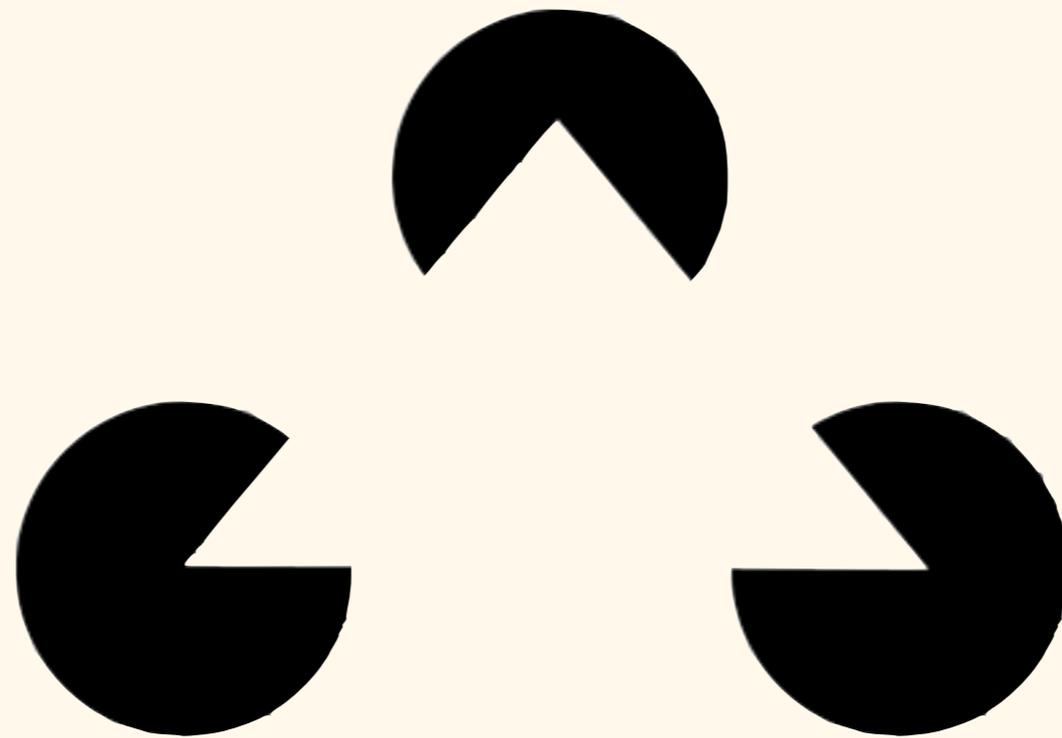
— Kurt Koffka (1886–1941)

The basic idea:

Our brains operate less on individual points, lines, etc....

... but rather on higher-level constructs...

... which is what our perceptual systems are optimized for.



We immediately see “triangle!”, not “circles with wedges removed...”



We don't see "leg", "ear", etc., but rather "entire dog".

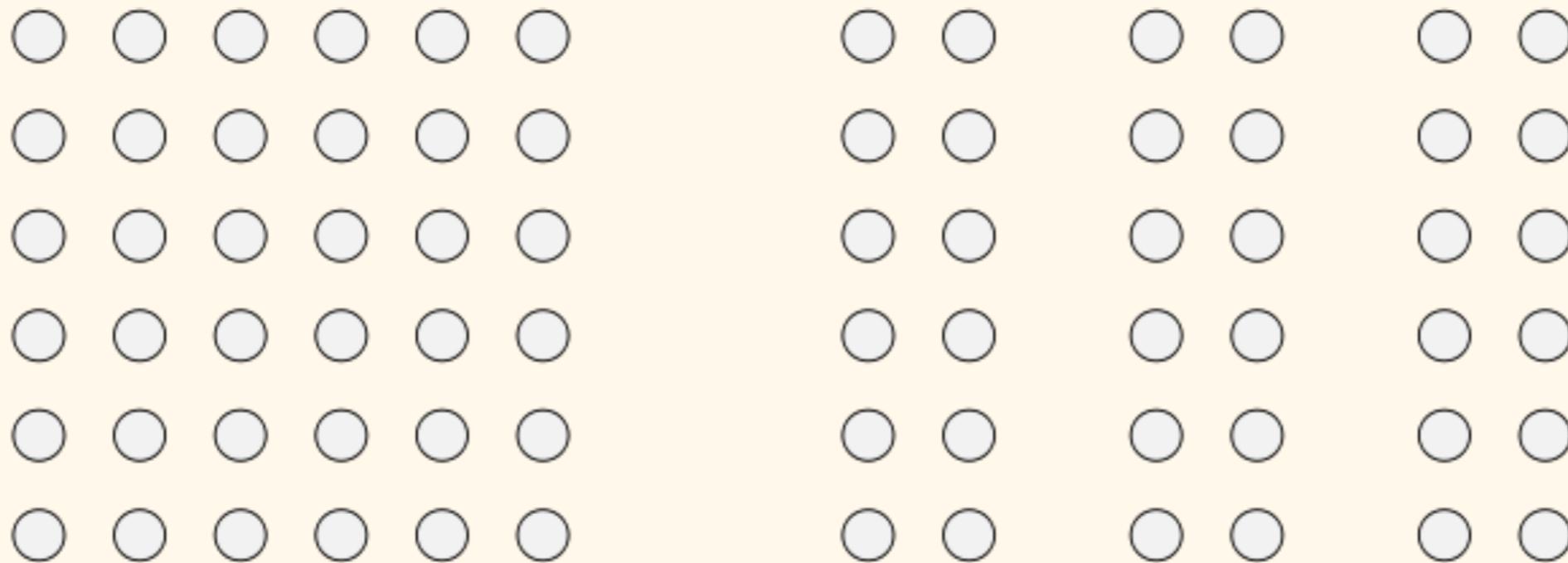
“Gestalt Principles” (Prägnanz):

To make sense of the world around us, our brains use several different heuristics:

1. Proximity
2. Similarity
3. Closure
4. Symmetry
5. Continuation
6. Figure & Ground

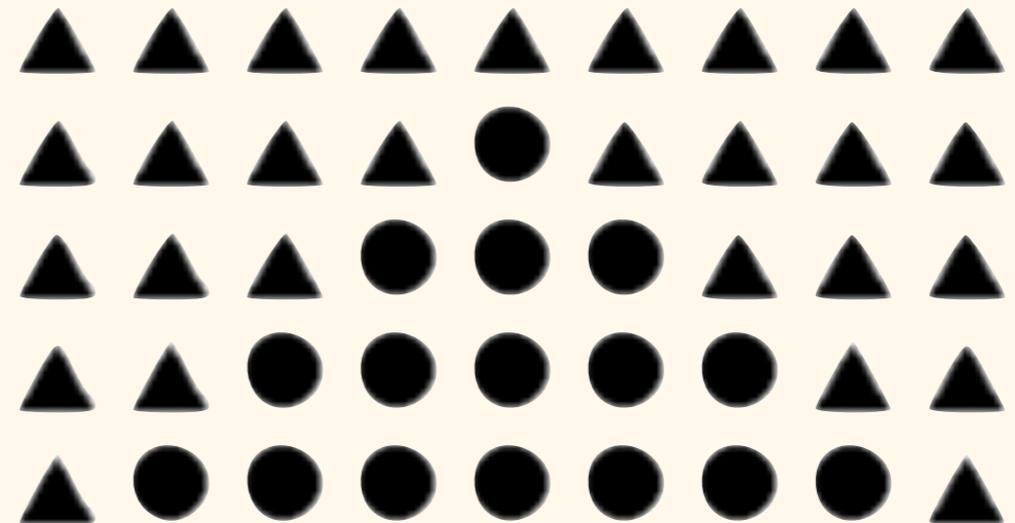
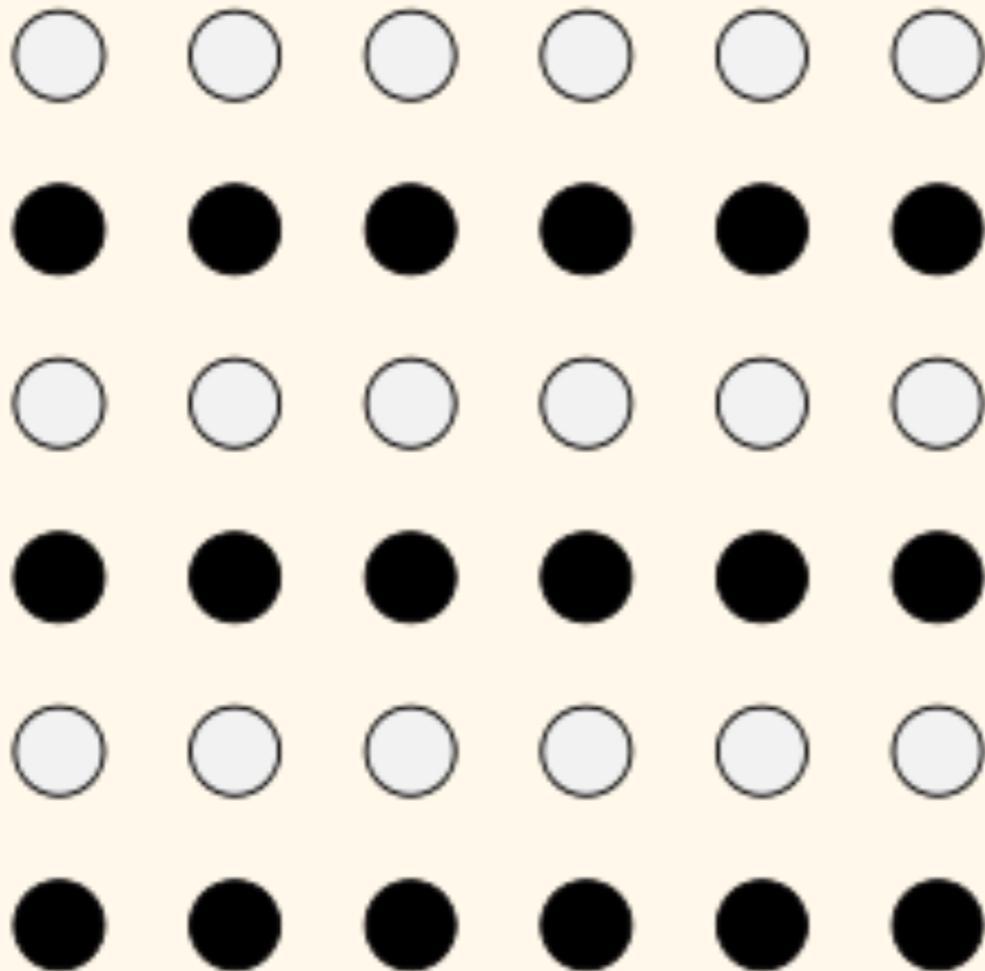
Proximity:

Stimuli that are in proximity to one another are perceived to be grouped together.



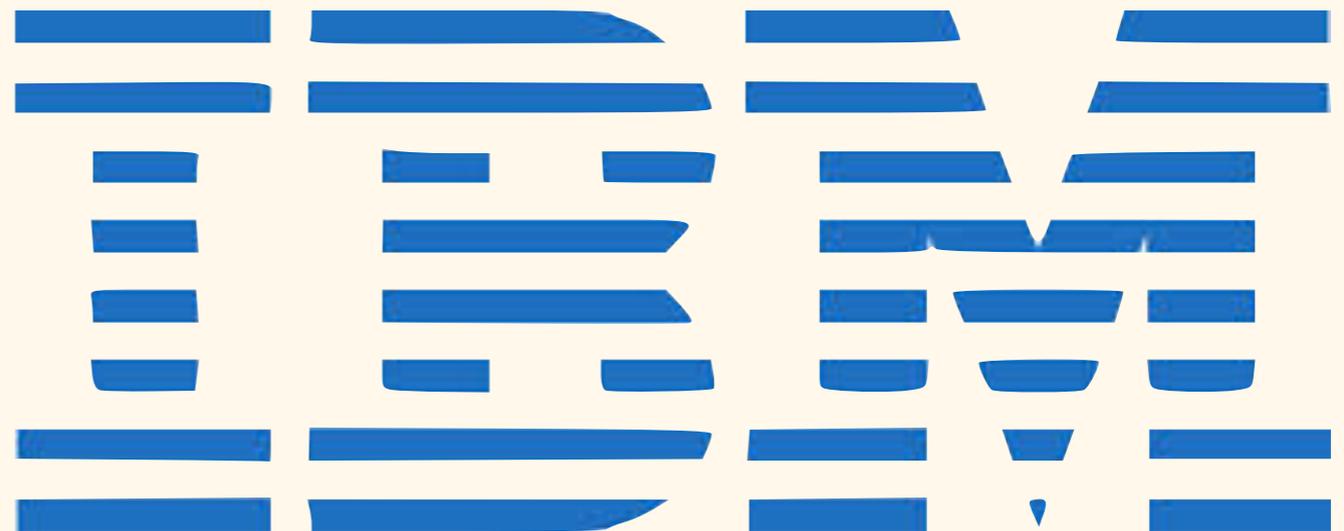
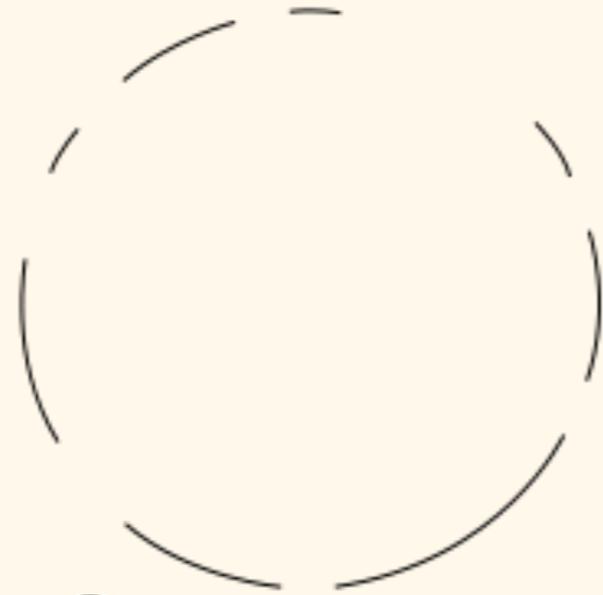
Similarity:

Elements are grouped together if they are similar to one another.



Closure:

We see complete shapes in incomplete contexts.



Symmetry:

We naturally group things by central symmetry.

[] { } []

How many groups of elements are there?

Continuation

We try to follow the “simplest” path for connected/continuing elements:

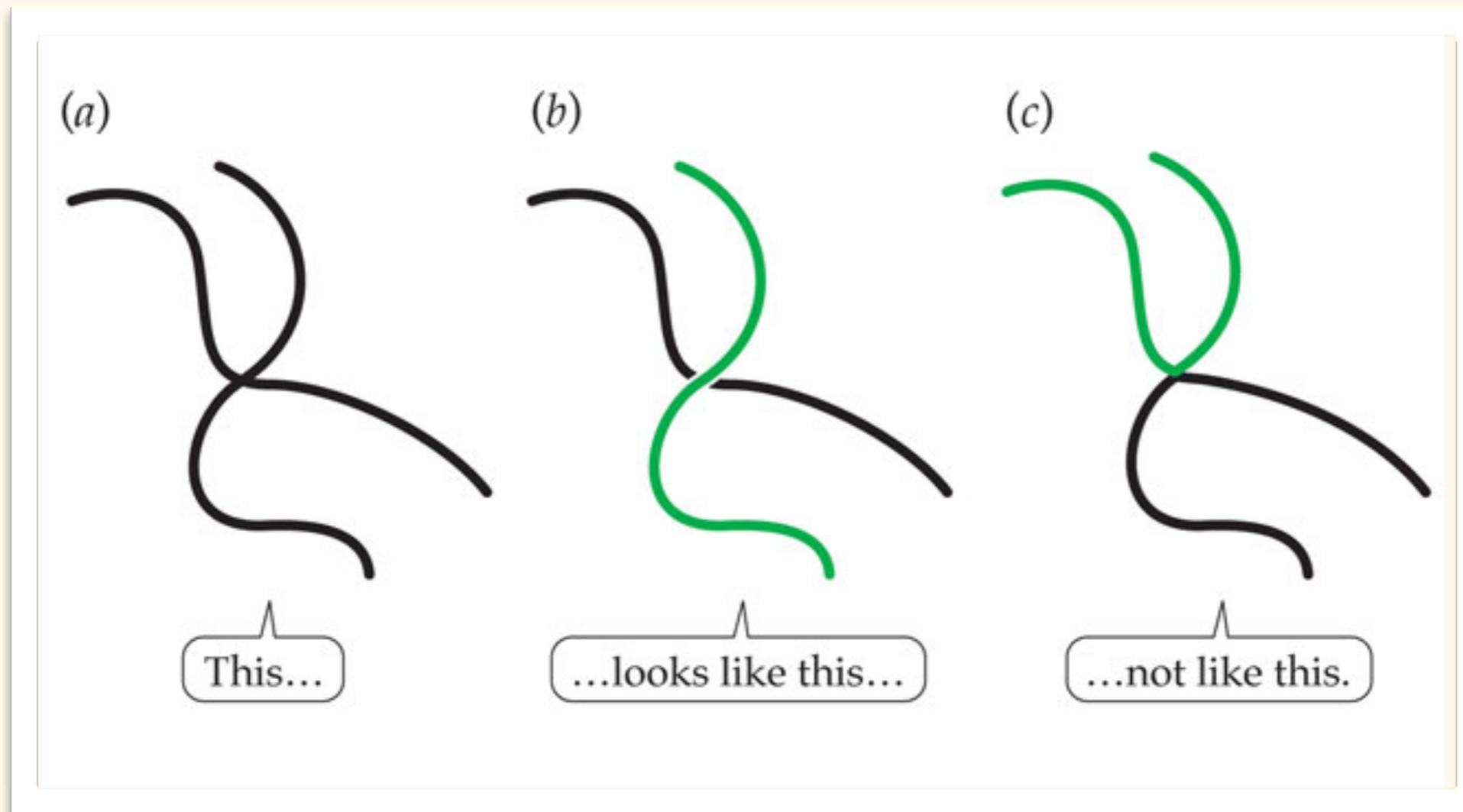
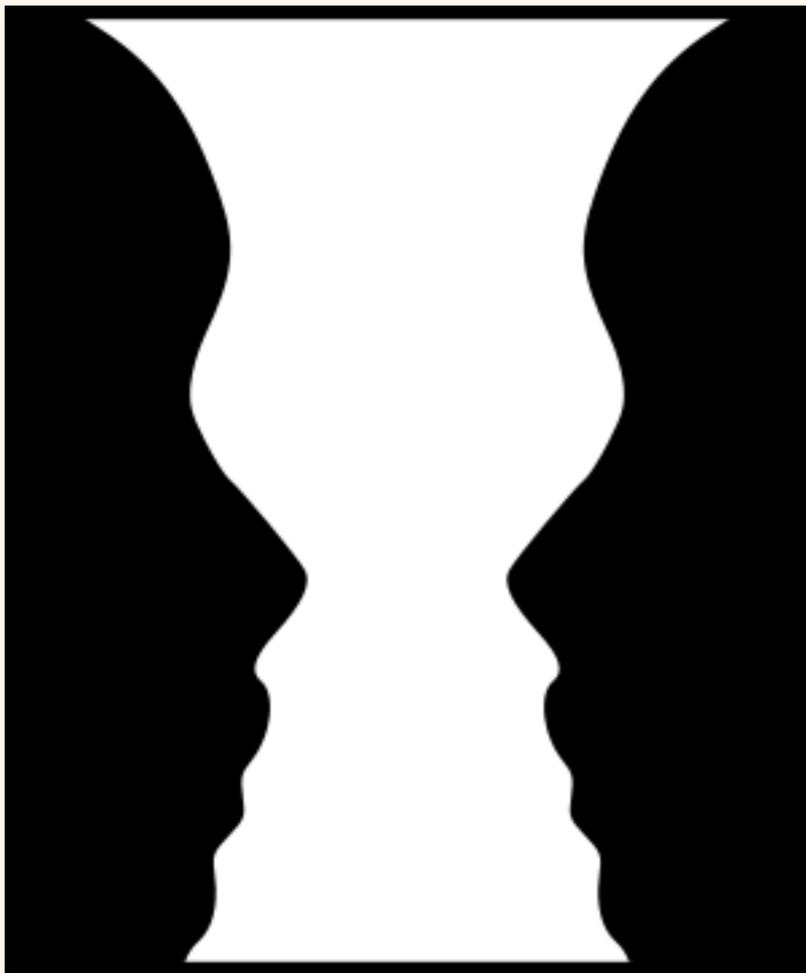


Figure & Ground

We try and separate a *figure* from its *background*.

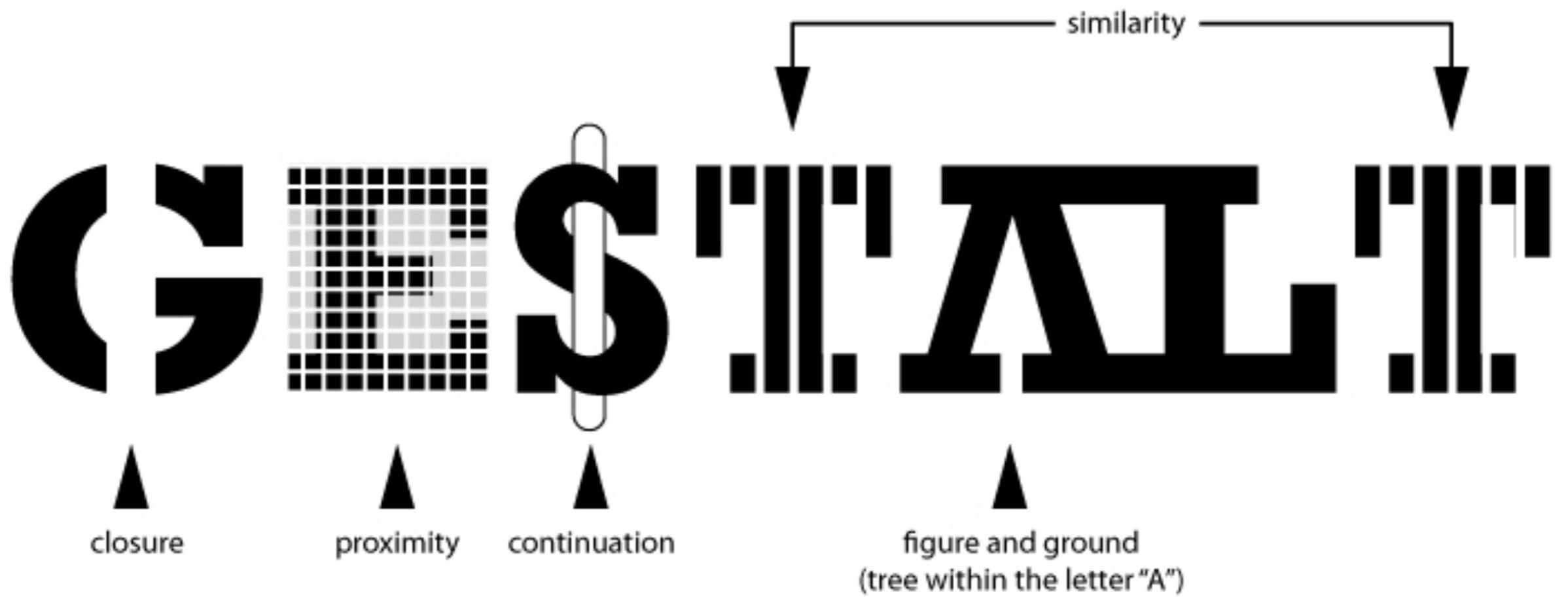


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VANDERBILT
UNIVERSITY



In summary:

Our brains take lots of perceptual
“shortcuts” ...

... which can either help or harm our
visualizations!

KNOWLEDGE IS POWER.

Let's get a bit more practical...

“The purpose of visualization is insight, not pictures.”

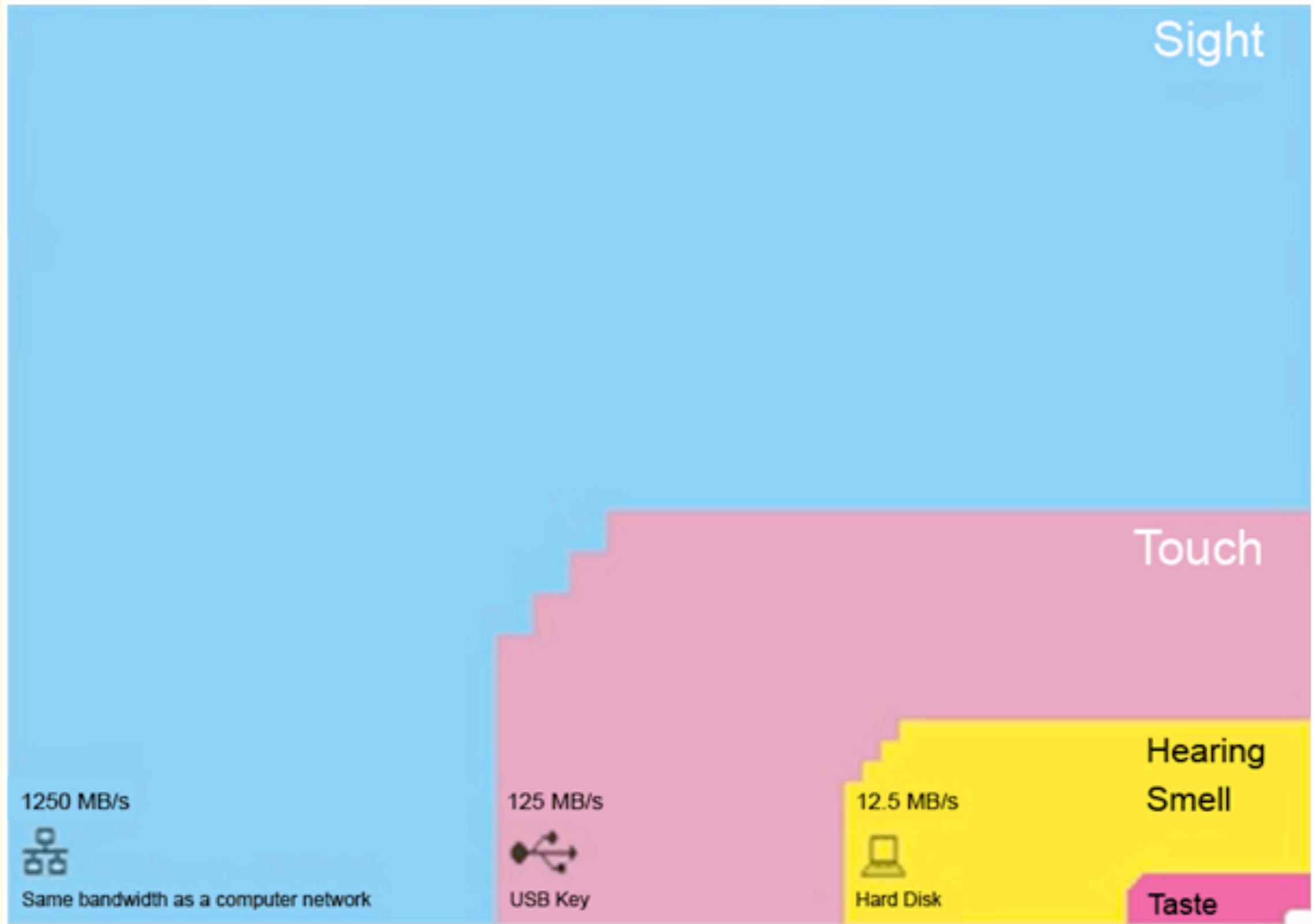


Ben Shneiderman
1947–



Alberto Cairo
1974–

“Graphics, charts, and maps aren’t just tools to be seen, but to be read and scrutinized.”



Visualizations support several basic tasks:

Presenting

“What variables and dimensions are we talking about?”

Enabling comparisons

“Is *this* quantity over here different from *that* quantity over there?”

Organizing

“Which things are grouped with what other things?”

Showing relationships

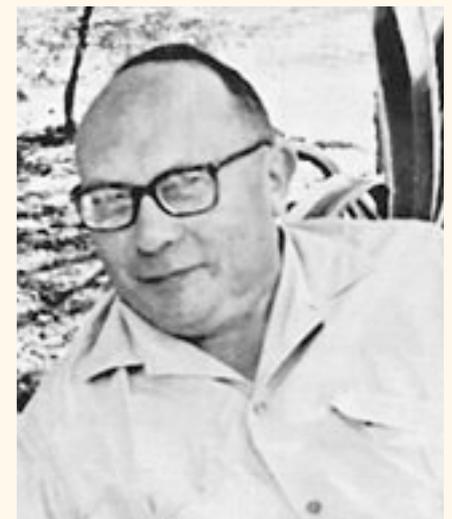
“Which other variables are linked/related to this variable?”

Different visualizations might have different purposes:

Data processing: to facilitate intensive, detailed analysis of data

Communication of information resulting from an analysis.

The former entails comprehensivity; the latter necessitates abstraction & simplification.



Jaques Bertin
1918–2010

Let's get a bit more practical...

A visualization is made up of several basic graphical primitives:

“Marks:”



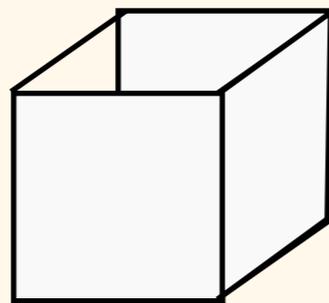
Points



Lines



Areas



Volumes

The second category of tools are the basic graphical primitives:

“Attributes of marks:”

Location

Texture

Orientation

Motion/Animation?

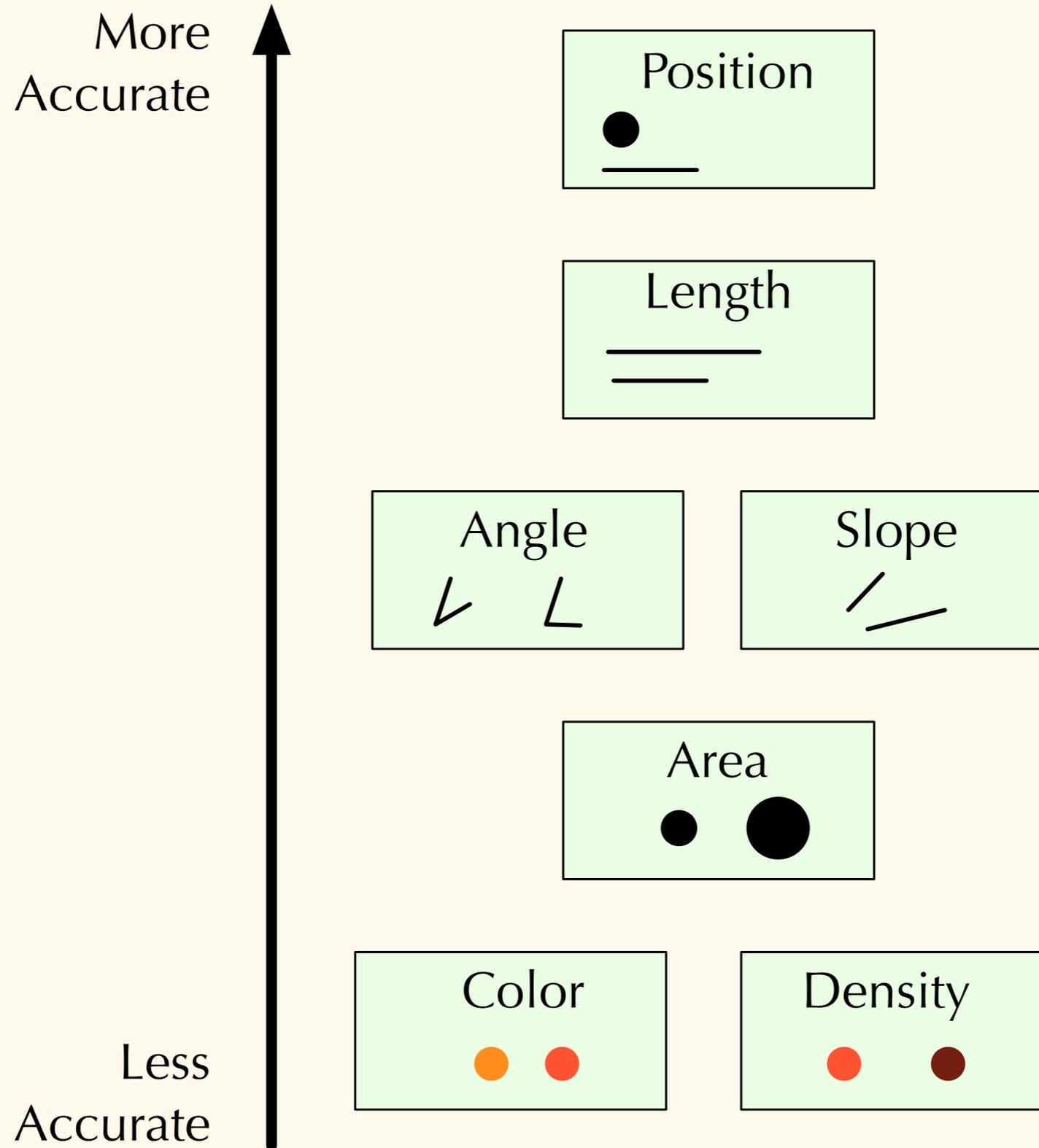
Size

Interactivity?

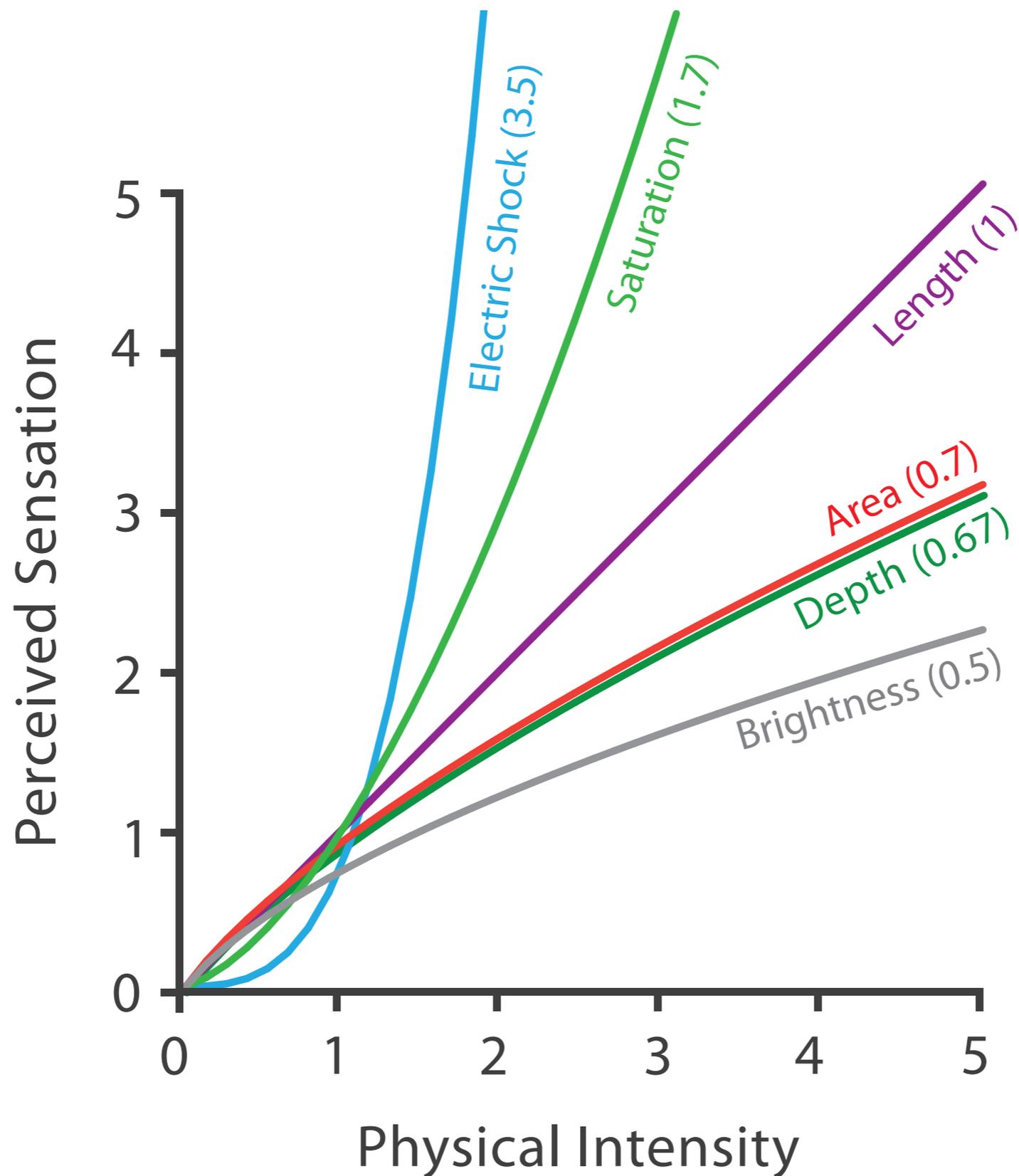
Color

Can you think of more?

Graphical primitives are not created equal!



Steven's Psychophysical Power Law: $S = I^N$

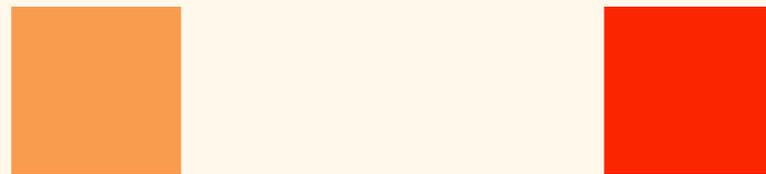


In other words:

Humans are better at telling that one line is twice as long as another line...

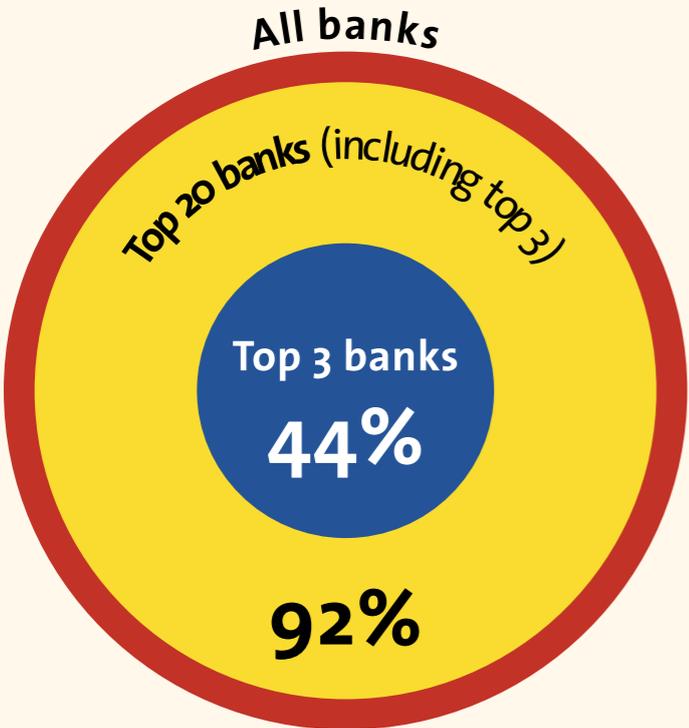


... than they are at telling that one square is twice as red as another square.

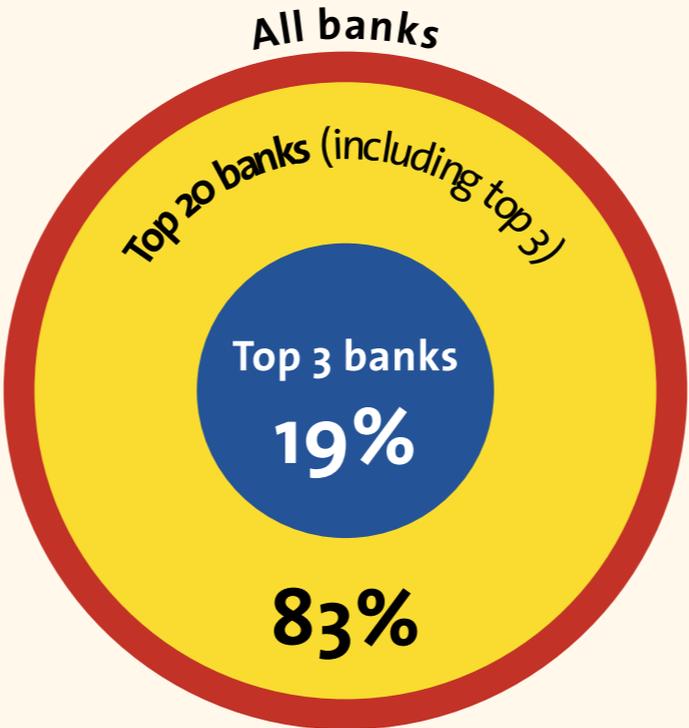


Therefore: using attributes from the bottom of the hierarchy for *quantitative* interpretation is probably a bad idea!

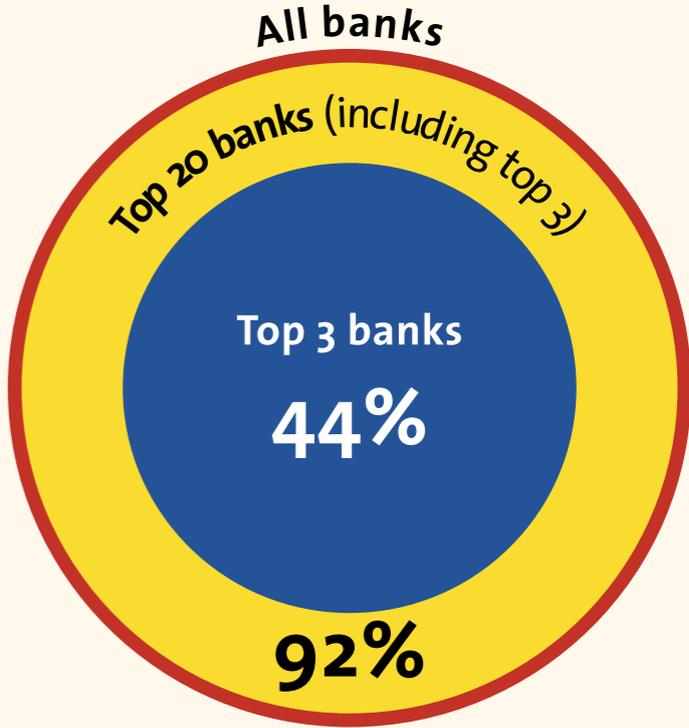
Area is another tricky one:



In The New York Times



Actual percentages of
The New York Times diagrams



Correct diagram of
The New York Times data

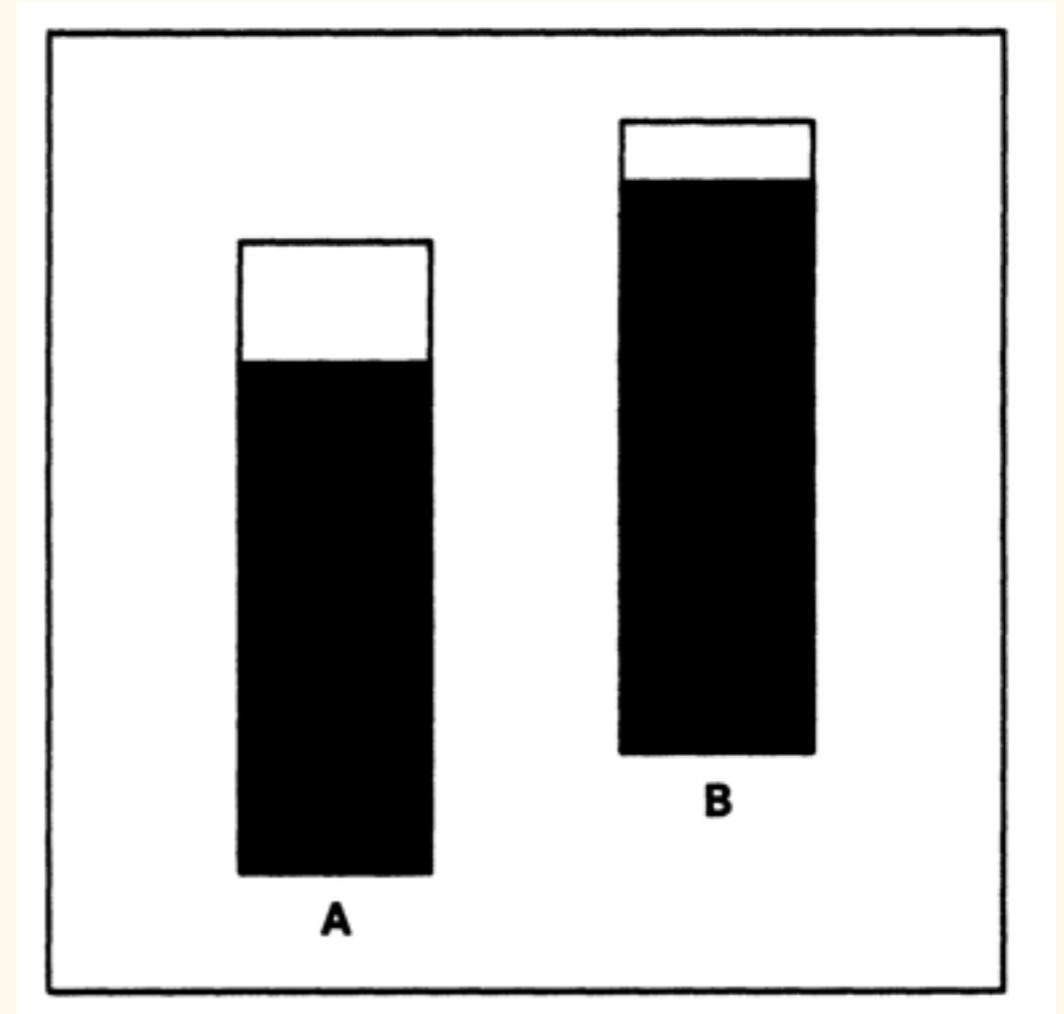
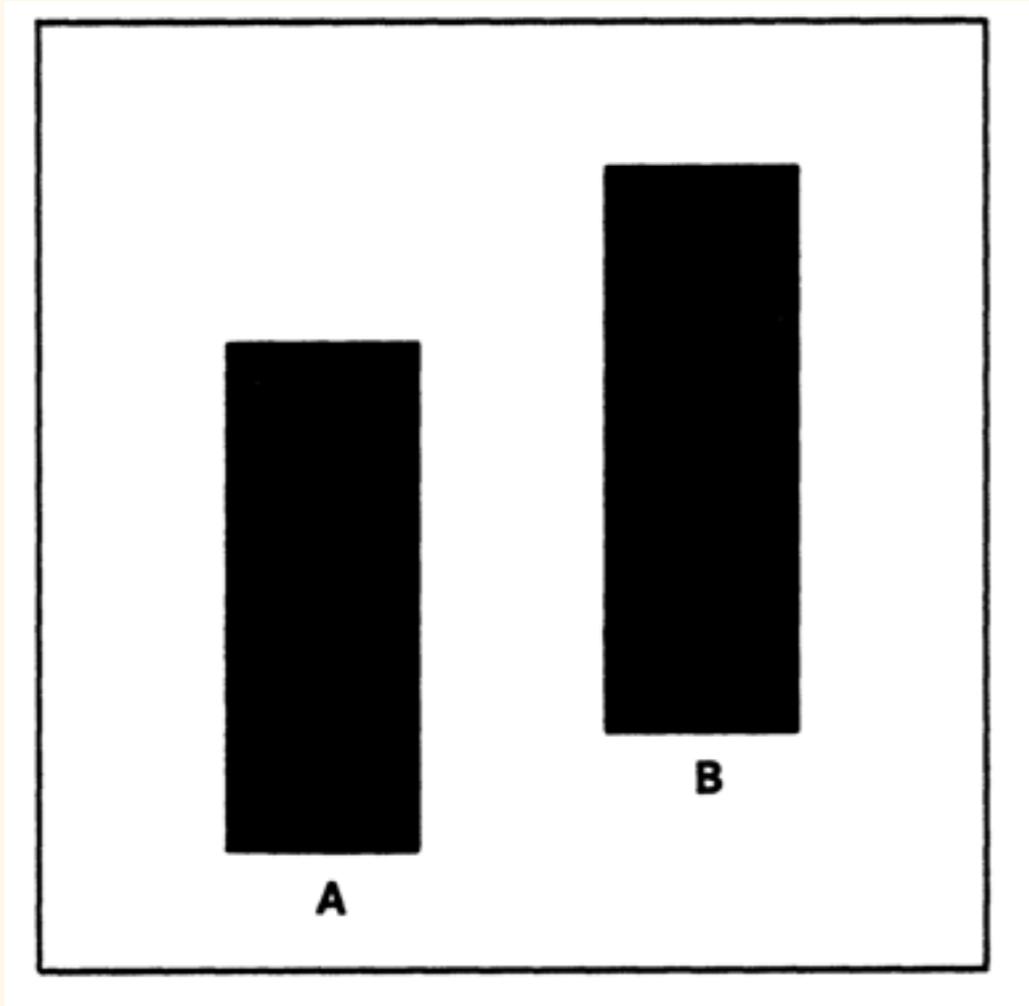
This is why so many people are anti-pie-chart!

And, context matters a lot!

Length is *usually* a very accurate choice...

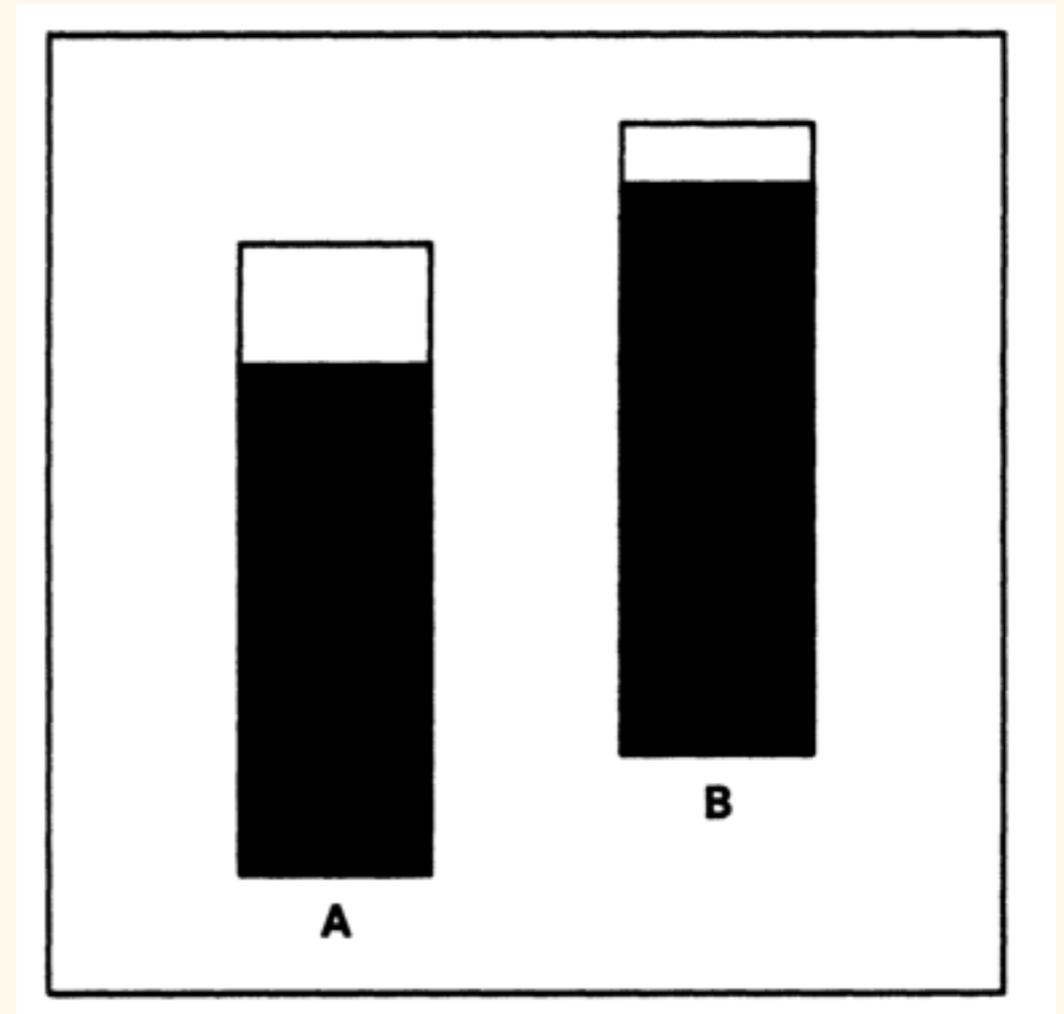
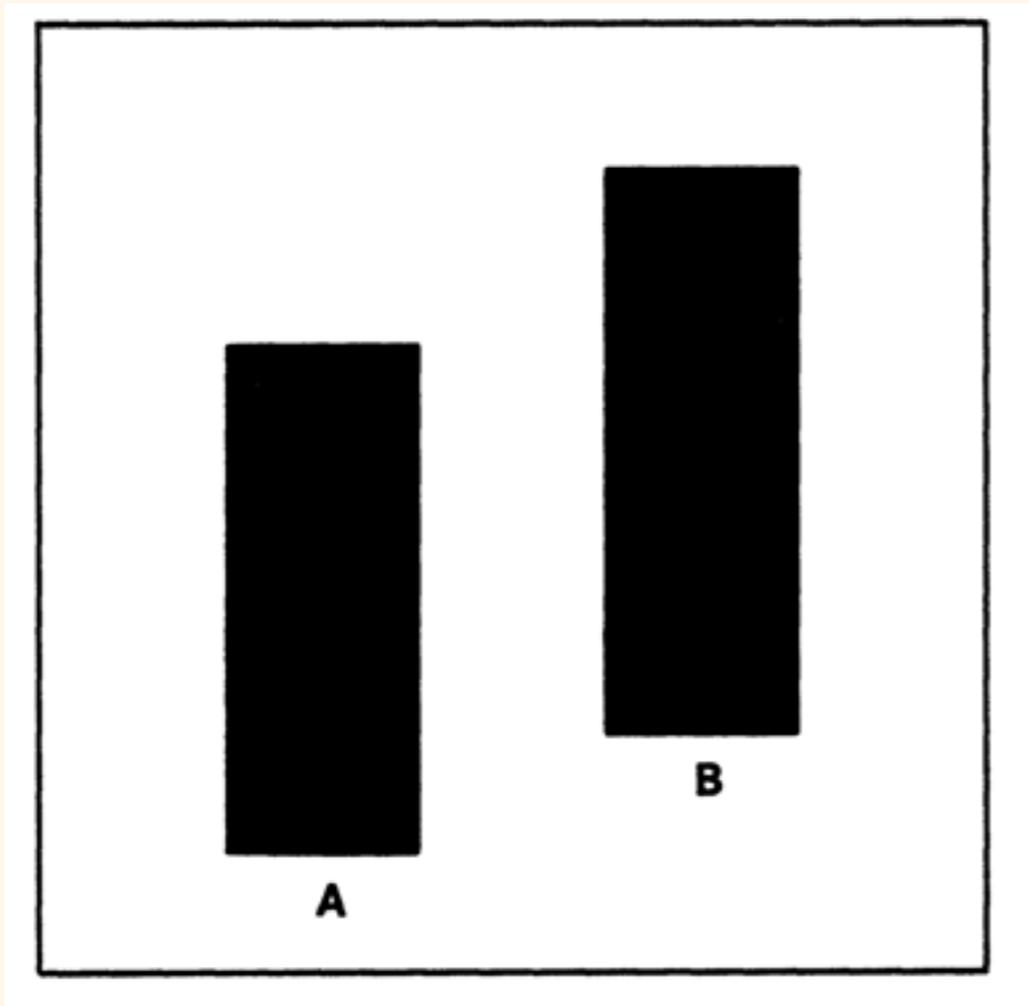
Except when it isn't!

And, context matters a lot!



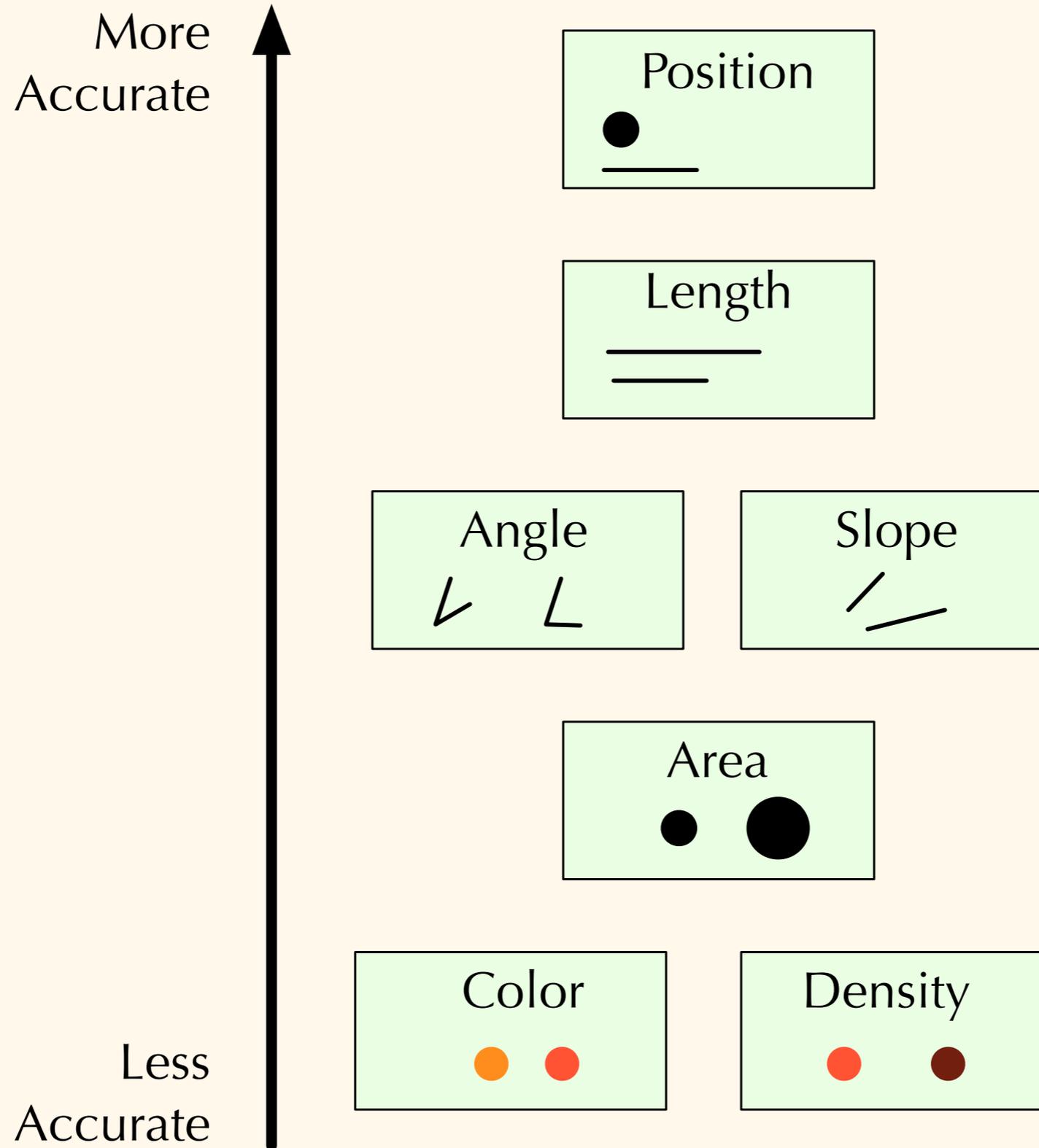
The black bars differ in *absolute* length exactly as much as do the white bars...

Also, context matters a lot!



... but the white bars are *relatively* more different, and so the difference is more apparent (Weber's Law).

Graphical primitives are not created equal!



Graphical Perception: Theory, Experimentation, and Application to the Development of Graphical Methods

WILLIAM S. CLEVELAND and ROBERT MCGILL*

The subject of graphical methods for data analysis and for data presentation needs a scientific foundation. In this article we take a few steps in the direction of establishing such a foundation. Our approach is based on *graphical perception*—the visual decoding of information encoded on graphs—and it includes both theory and experimentation to test the theory. The theory deals with a small but important piece of the whole process of graphical perception. The first part is an identification of a set of *elementary perceptual tasks* that are carried out when people extract quantitative information from graphs. The second part is an ordering of the tasks on the basis of how accurately people perform them. Elements of the theory are tested by experimentation in which subjects record their judgments of the quantitative information on graphs. The experiments validate these elements but also suggest that the set of elementary tasks should be expanded. The theory provides a guideline for graph construction: Graphs should employ elementary tasks as high in the ordering as possible. This principle is applied to a variety of graphs, including bar charts, divided bar charts, pie charts, and statistical maps with shading. The conclusion is that radical surgery on these popular graphs is needed, and as replacements we offer alternative graphical forms—*dot charts*, *dot charts with grouping*, and *framed-rectangle charts*.

KEY WORDS: Computer graphics; Psychophysics.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nearly 200 years ago William Playfair (1786) began the serious use of graphs for looking at data. More than 50 years ago a battle raged on the pages of the *Journal of the American Statistical Association* about the relative merits of bar charts and pie charts (Eells 1926; Croxton 1927; Croxton and Stryker 1927; von Huhn 1927). Today graphs are a vital part of statistical data analysis and a vital part of communication in science and technology, business, education, and still, graph design.

* William S. Cleveland, Bell Laboratories, Murray Hill, NJ; John Chambers, Ramo Systems, Inc., San Francisco, CA; Colin Mallows, Frederic Ives Laboratories, JASA reviewers for this article.

largely unscientific. This is why Cox (1978) argued, "There is a major need for a theory of graphical methods" (p. 5), and why Kruskal (1975) stated "in choosing, constructing, and comparing graphical methods we have little to go on but intuition, rule of thumb, and a kind of master-to-apprentice passing along of information. . . there is neither theory nor systematic body of experiment as a guide" (p. 28–29).

There is, of course, much good common sense about how to make a graph. There are many treatises on graph construction (e.g., Schmid and Schmid 1979), bad practice has been uncovered (e.g., Tufte 1983), graphic designers certainly have shown us how to make a graph appealing to the eye (e.g., Marcus et al. 1980), statisticians have thought intensely about graphical methods for data analysis (e.g., Tukey 1977; Chambers et al. 1983), and cartographers have devoted great energy to the construction of statistical maps (Bertin 1973; Robinson, Sale, and Morrison 1978). The ANSI manual on time series charts (American National Standards Institute 1979) provides guidelines for making graphs, but the manual admits, "This standard . . . sets forth the best current usage, and offers standards 'by general agreement' rather than 'by scientific test'" (p. iii).

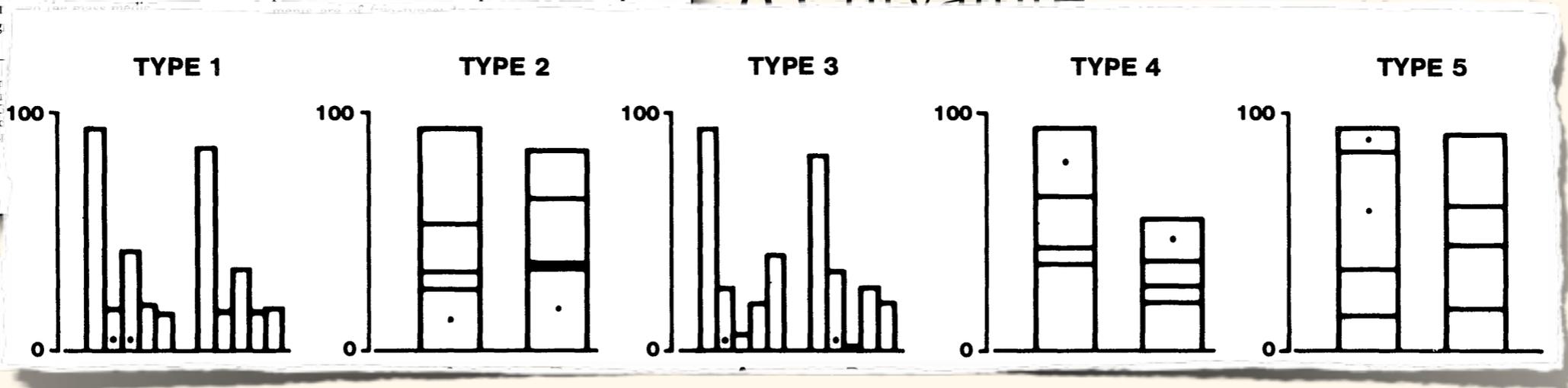
In this article we approach the science of graphs through human graphical perception. Our approach includes both theory and experimentation to test it.

The first part of the theory is a list of elementary perceptual tasks that people perform in extracting quantitative information from graphs. In the second part we hypothesize an ordering of the elementary tasks based on how accurately people perform them. We do not argue that this accuracy of quantitative extraction is the only aspect of a graph for which one might want to develop a theory, but it is an important one.

The theory is testable; we use it to predict the relative performance of competing graphs, and then we run experiments to check the actual performance. The experi-

10 Basic Perceptual Tasks:

1. Position along common scale
2. Position along non-aligned scales
3. Length
4. Direction
5. Angle
6. Area
7. Volume
8. Curvature



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Still, graph design for data analysis and presentation is

largely unscier
“There is a maj
(p. 5), and why
structing, and c
to go on but int
to-apprentice p
neither theory p
guide” (p. 28–;

There is, of
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TYPE 2 (POSITION)

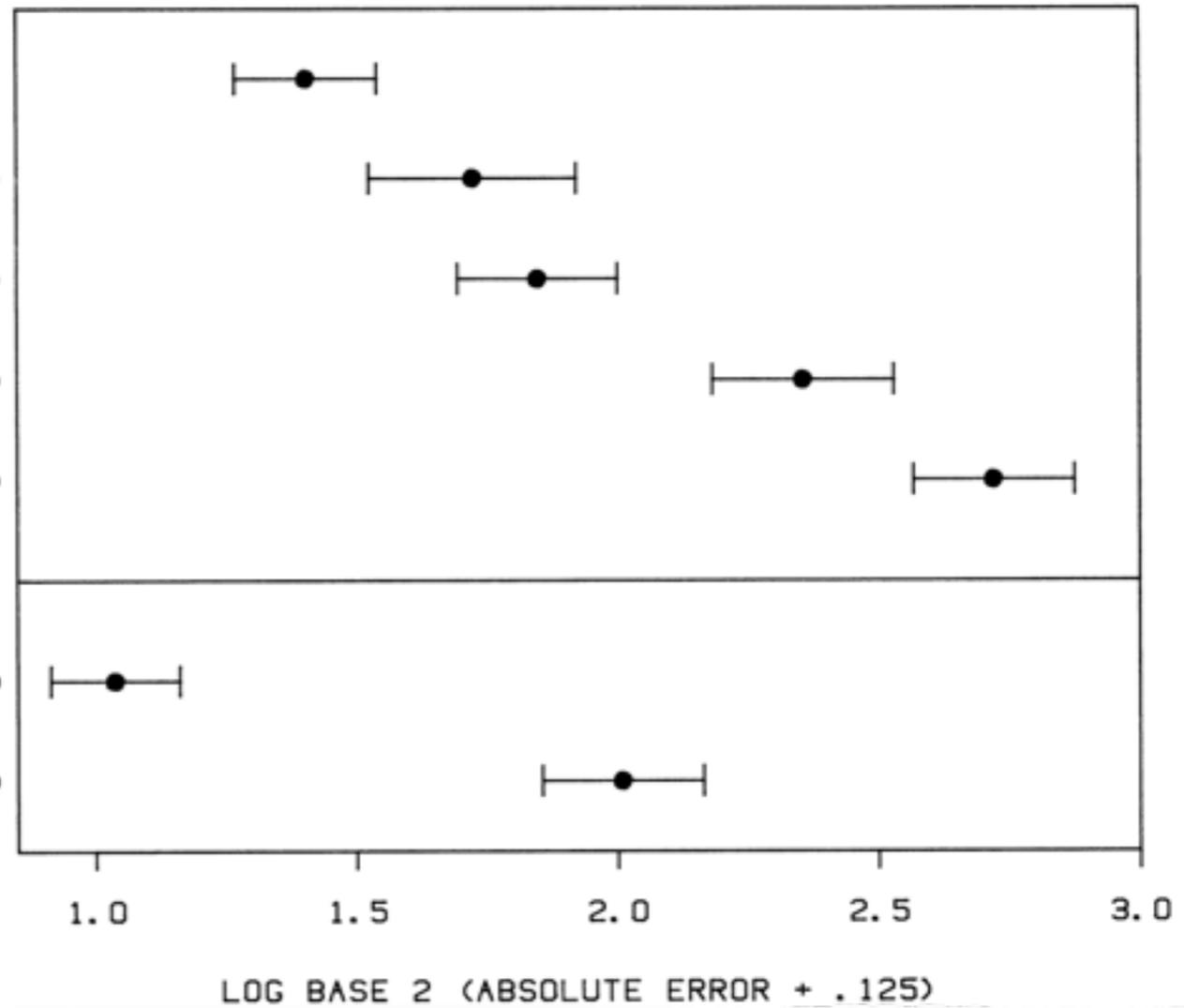
TYPE 3 (POSITION)

TYPE 4 (LENGTH)

TYPE 5 (LENGTH)

TYPE 1 (POSITION)

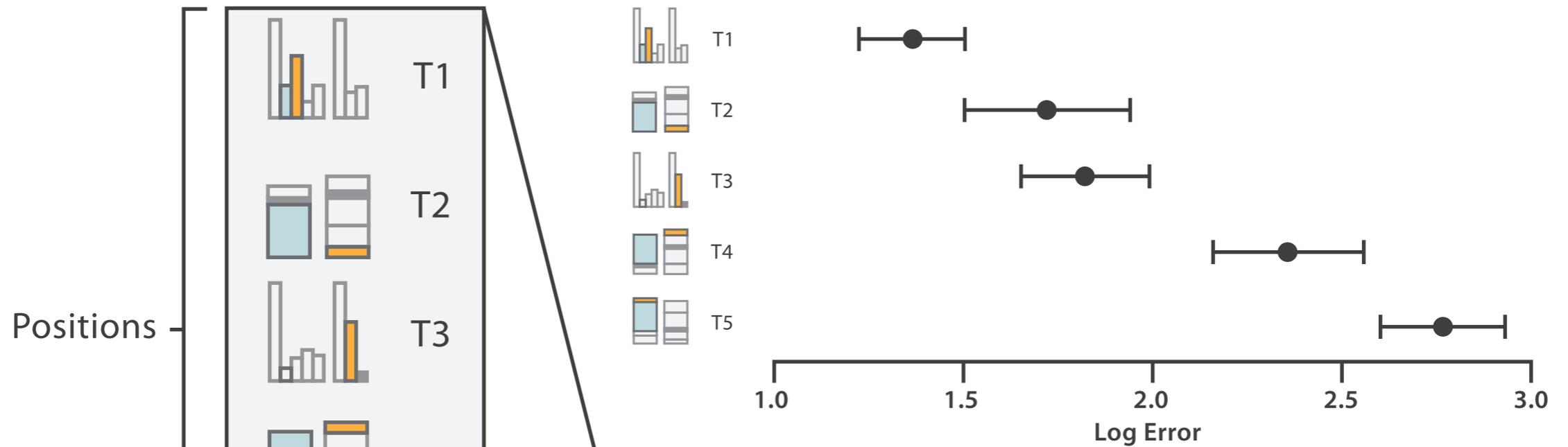
TYPE 2 (ANGLE)



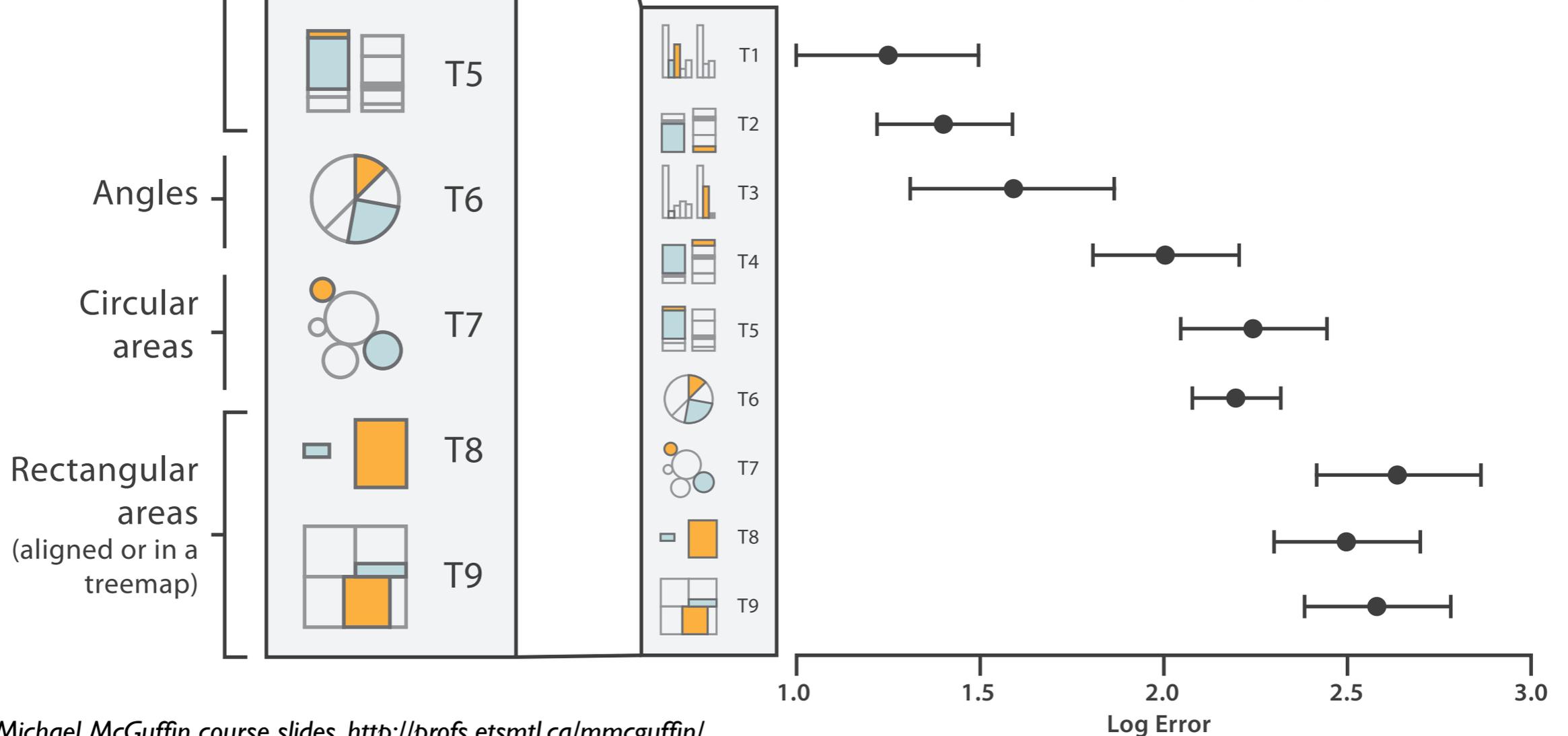
* William S. Cleveland and Robert McGill are statisticians at AT&T Bell Laboratories, Murray Hill, NJ 07974. The authors are indebted to John Chambers, Ram Gnanadesikan, David Krantz, William Kruskal, Colin Mallows, Frederick Mosteller, Henry Pollak, Paul Tukey, and the JASA reviewers for important comments on an earlier version of this article.

Key finding: accuracy of interpretation of a graph varies greatly depending on the type of judgment and type of graph.

Cleveland & McGill's Results



Crowdsourced Results



after Michael McGuffin course slides, <http://profs.etsmtl.ca/mmcguffin/>

Variables on Scatterplots Look More Highly Correlated When the Scales Are Increased

Abstract. *Judged association between two variables represented on scatterplots increased when the scales on the horizontal and vertical axes were simultaneously increased so that the size of the point cloud within the frame of the plot decreased. Judged association was very different from the correlation coefficient r , which is*

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contain related cellular derived transforming sequences (10). A common feature of the major gene product of these recombinant transforming viruses is an associated tyrosine-specific protein kinase (11-13). In addition, the GA and ST FeSV gene products exhibit binding affinity for a 150,000 molecular weight cellular phosphoprotein (12, 14) and transformation by these viruses leads to abolition of epidermal growth factor binding (15, 16) and production of a 125,000 molecular weight transforming growth factor (17).

The finding of only a single locus exhibiting significant homology with the GA and ST FeSV sequences establishes that the highly related transforming sequences within the genomes of these independently isolated viruses were originally derived from the same cellular gene. Conversely, similar probes specific for acquired transforming sequences represented within the genome of the human MuLV genome, an independent RNA transforming virus with associated tyrosine-specific protein kinase activity (11, 18), hybridized different human DNA restriction fragments and lacked detectable homology with sequences represented within any of the three cosmid isolates (data not shown). Thus there must exist at least two independent loci within the human genome homologous to viral genes associated with tyrosine-specific protein kinase activities.

The human carcinoma DNA library generated in our study provides a specific reagent for the molecular cloning of cellular homologs of viral transforming genes. In particular, the availability of this library should be useful for the isolation of those human transforming genes with extensive inter-

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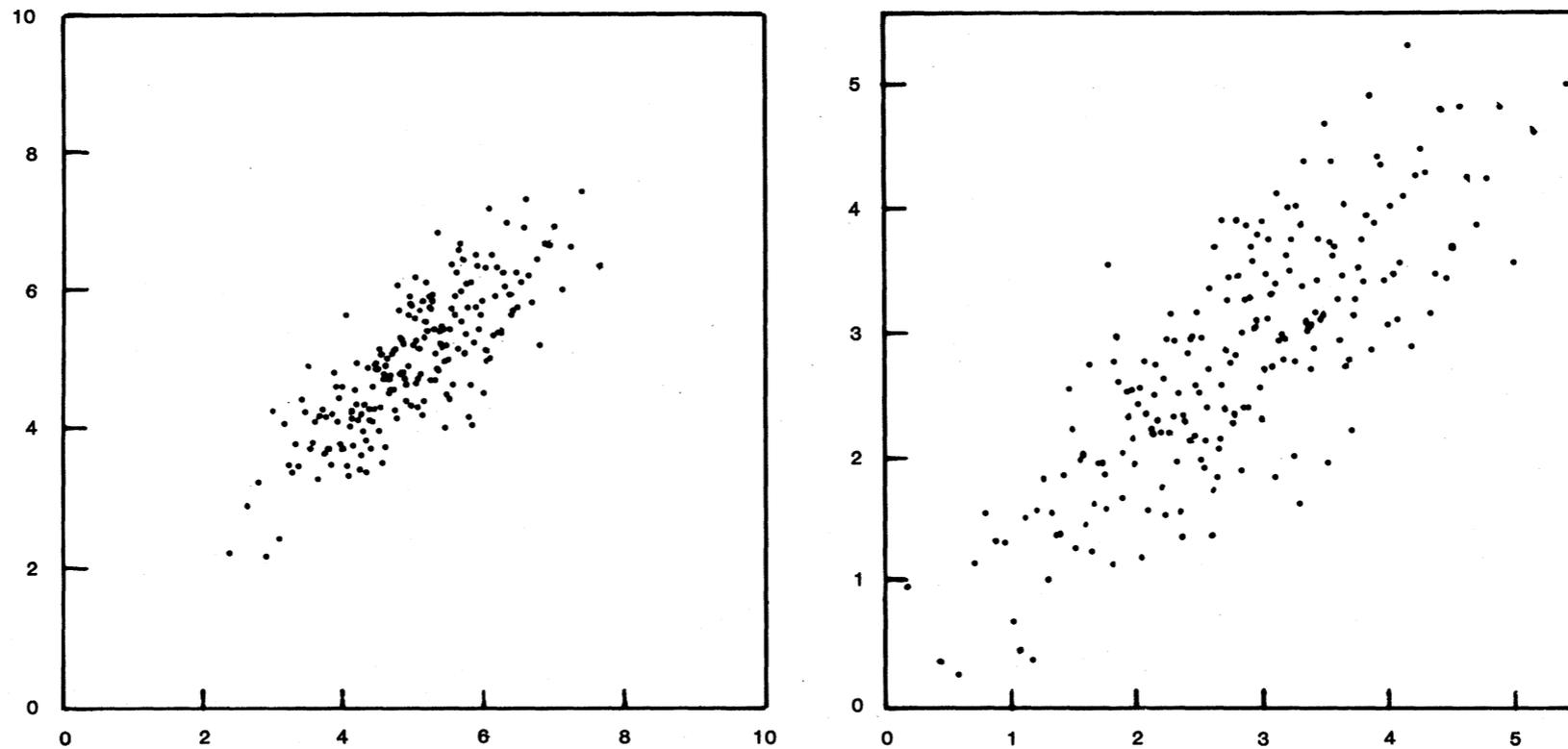


Fig. 1. Reductions of two scatterplots used in the three types of experiments. The left panel is point-cloud size 2 and the right panel is point-cloud size 4. In both panels $w(r) = 4$ and $r = .8$.

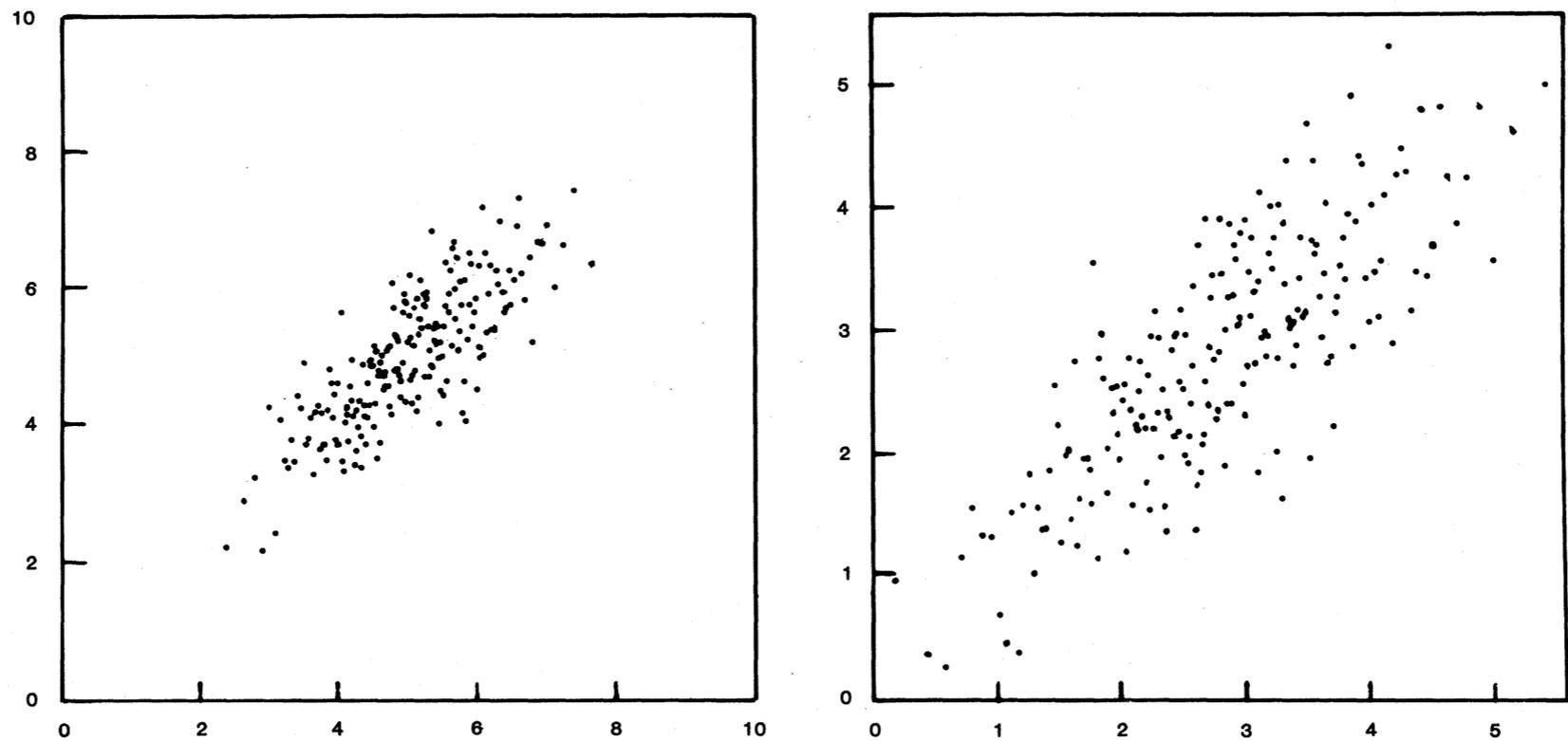


Fig. 1. Reductions of two scatterplots used in the three types of experiments. The left panel is point-cloud size 2 and the right panel is point-cloud size 4. In both panels $w(r) = 4$ and $r = 8$.

Thus the second and third experiments strongly corroborate the conclusion of the first: increasing the scales on the horizontal and vertical axes of a scatterplot so as to decrease the point-cloud size increases the judged association.

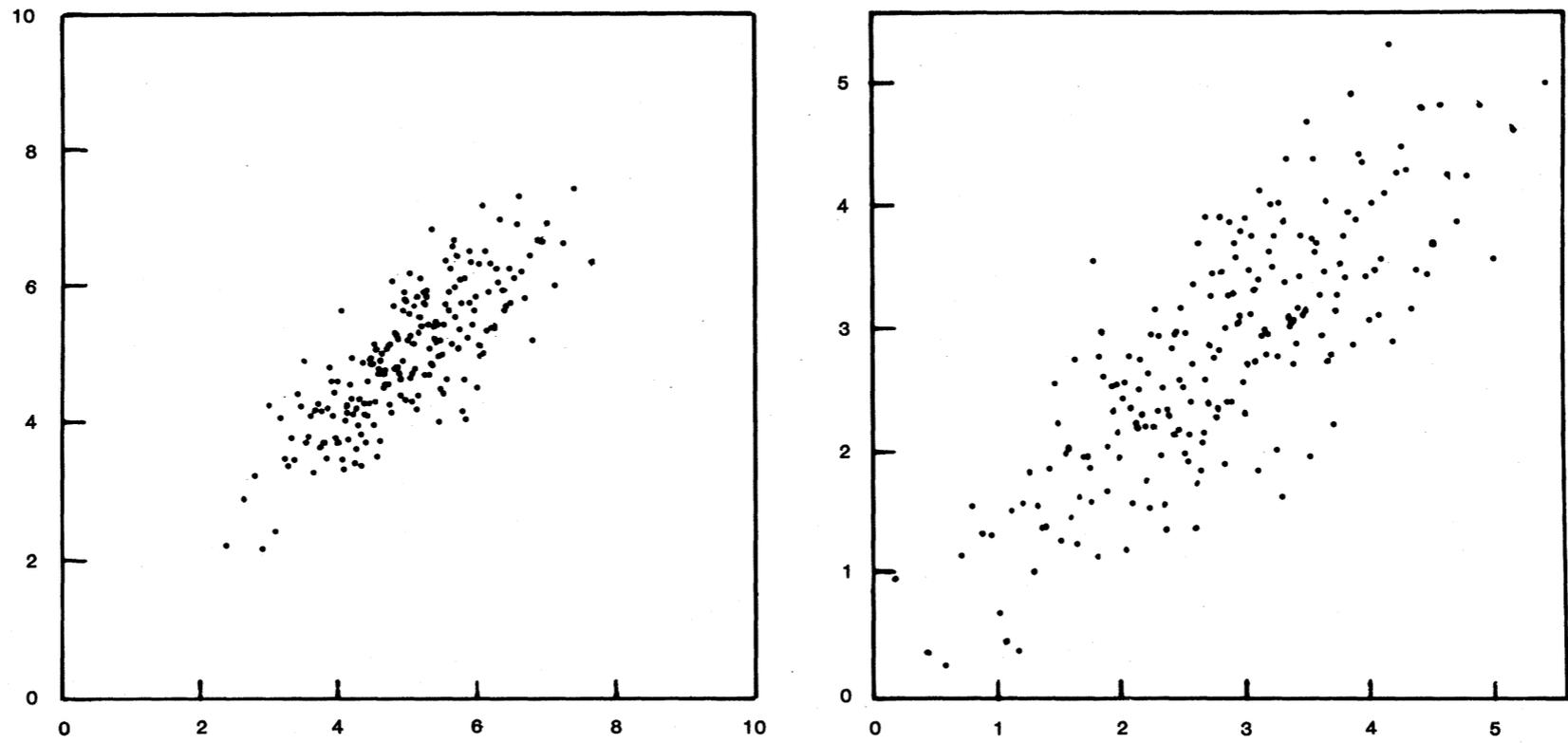
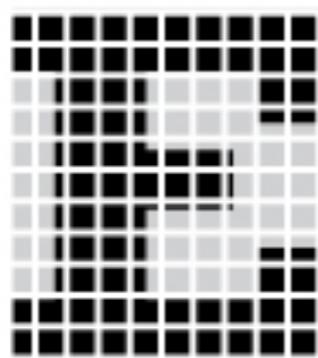


Fig. 1. Reductions of two scatterplots used in the three types of experiments. The left panel is point-cloud size 2 and the right panel is point-cloud size 4. In both panels $w(r) = 4$ and $r = 8$.

Pop Quiz: Why does this happen?



▲
closure



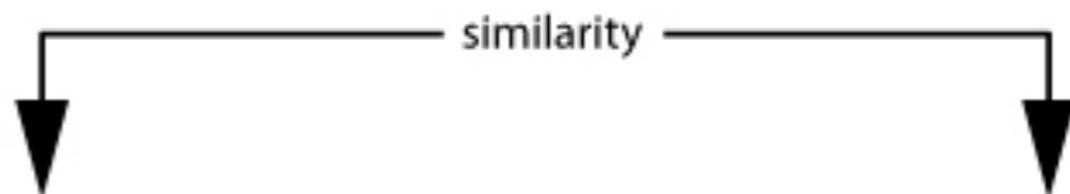
▲
proximity



▲
continuation



▲
figure and ground
(tree within the letter "A")





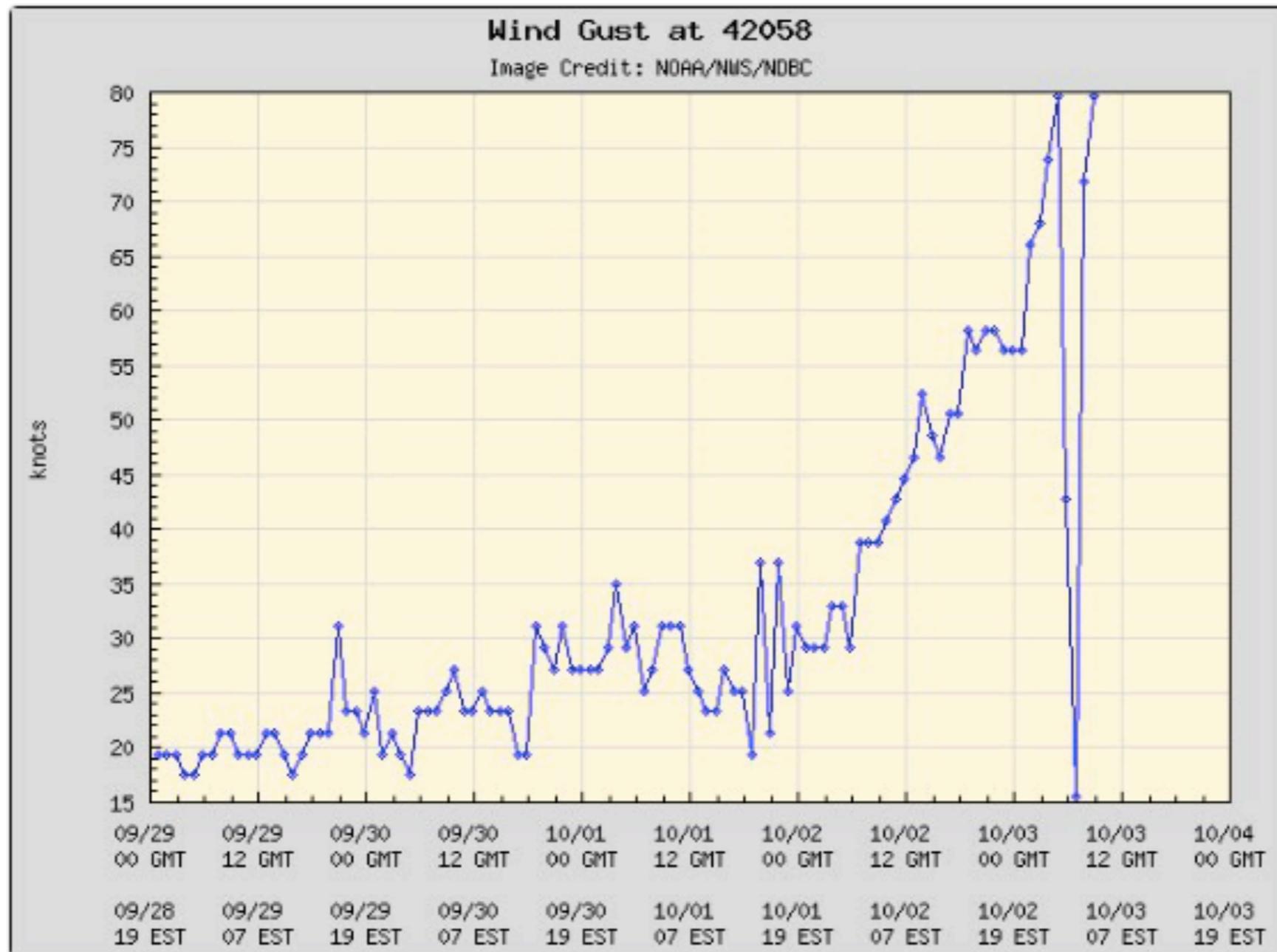
Matthew Potter

@mpotter_wx



Follow

That's no error. The eye of Hurricane #Matthew went right over a weather observation buoy in the middle of the Caribbean



RETWEETS
597

LIKES
680



Homework: find examples of both positive and negative preattentive/Gestalt behavior in a visualization.

Either find new ones, or re-evaluate your existing +/- examples.