

# Graph Design: The Data-ink Ratio and Expert Users

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**Abstract:** Graphical depictions of data are common but there is little empirical work that has examined how graph design principles are instantiated by graph makers. The data-ink ratio is one popular measure of graphical information content, where the “ink” related to data is divided by the total amount of “ink” in the graph. Expert interviews were conducted to examine graph use, creation, and opinions about the data-ink ratio concept. Interviewees had a variety of opinions and preferences with regard to graph design, many of which were dependent upon the specific circumstances of presentation. Most interviewees did not believe that high data-ink graph designs were superior. The results suggest that arguments regarding the data-ink ratio deal with the subjective issue of graph aesthetics.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Graphical depictions of data are common in publications of all types (from websites to journal articles). Graph designers need to present information in a way that graph users can understand (Katz, 2012). Graphs provide a means of communicating quantitative information in an easily-comprehensible format and can make complex information visually salient (Lohse, 1997; Shah, Freedman, & Vekiri, 2005; Wickens & Holland, 2000). Their usefulness derives in part from grouping information for easy search and reducing demands on memory, thereby decreasing the complexity of tasks by imposing structure on data (Tory & Moller, 2004). However, poorly designed graphs can lead to difficulty in understanding information and ultimately to negative consequences (Freedman & Shah, 2002; Tufte, 1997).

## 2 THE DATA-INK RATIO

Most graphs are now generated using software and the starting point for graph design is often determined by the presets in such software. We are taught how to make graphs in various courses, but most in the sciences and social sciences do not take design courses. Edward Tufte has written extensively on graph design and proposed one design guideline in

particular called the data-ink ratio (Tufte, 1983). Tufte argues that because the purpose of a graph is to help people draw conclusions from data, graphs should comprise data and little else. Tufte proposed that there are two types of information in a graph – data-ink and non-data-ink. Data-ink is “the non-erasable core of a graphic” and “the non-redundant ink arranged in response to variation in the numbers represented” (Tufte, 1983, p. 93). According to Tufte, all ink that does not depict statistical information, or “*chartjunk*,” should be removed.

Data-ink ratios range between zero and one and can be calculated by dividing data-ink by the total amount of ink (or equivalent) in a graph (Tufte, 1983). Figure 1 provides an example of published bar graphs and boxplots that have had the data-ink ratio varied according to Tufte’s guidelines. It is unclear how a data-ink ratio can be accurately calculated in practice, and Tufte makes estimations rather than numerical calculations.

The data-ink ratio is an influential concept in the field of design (Zhu, 2007; Fry, 2008), and it is believed that higher data-ink ratios will result in faster judgments and increased accuracy in graph reading tasks (Wickens & Holland, 2000). However, some have characterized the data-ink ratio as having its basis in Tufte’s design intuitions and lacking experimental validation with behavioral data (Carswell, 1992). For example, Tufte notes that

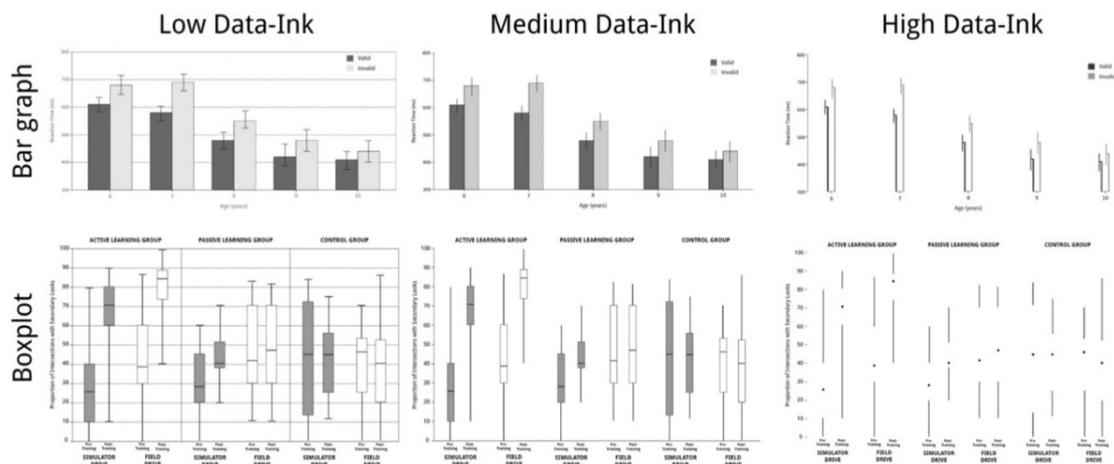


Figure 1: Example bar graphs and boxplots varying in data-ink ratio per Tufte's guidelines. These are adapted from published studies to create three levels of data-ink ratio. These were provided as examples to the participants interviewed. Bar graphs from Lellis et al., 2013 and boxplots from Romoser & Fisher, 2009.

chartjunk should only be removed “within reason” (Tufte, 1983, p. 96). This lack of specificity reflects subjectivity in graph design choices.

## 2.1 Responses to the Data-ink Ratio

The data-ink ratio and Tufte's design recommendations have met with mixed reactions in the literature. Some argue that the data-ink ratio is a convenient way to measure the extent to which chartjunk is used (Wainer, 1984). In contrast, Tukey (1990) describes the data-ink ratio as a “dangerous idea” and argues that overreliance on it can be destructive and result in graphs that are both busy and distracting. Removal of the box portion of a boxplot results in three distinct perceptual groupings that are from unrelated samples. Although the underlying idea behind maximizing the data-ink ratio is to avoid busyness and distraction in graph design, both Kosslyn (2006) and Tukey (1990) suggest that those recommendations alone would not produce the type of graphs which Tufte advocates. There is some evidence that chartjunk may benefit graph users (Hullman, Adar, & Shah, 2011).

Empirical tests of the data-ink ratio have yielded mixed results. When data-ink ratio has been varied, high data-ink ratio graphs were not preferred over lower ratio graphs (Kulla-Mader, 2007; Tractinsky & Meyer, 2007) and did not produce consistent differences in graph interpretation performance (Gillan & Sorensen, 2009). Similarly, recall of information from low and high data-ink ratio graphs has not been found to differ, with some evidence that low data-ink ratio graphs with embellishments are better remembered (Bateman et al. 2010; Kelly,

1989). Other findings suggest better performance for subjects viewing medium data-ink ratio graphs (Blasio & Bizantz, 2002; Gillan & Richman, 1994).

## 2.2 Graph Comprehension

A variety of cognitive processes are associated with graph comprehension, with most research focusing on perception of graph components (Carswell, 1992; Cleveland & McGill, 1984, 1985; Pinker, 1990). Perceptual grouping of graph elements has been emphasized as important for graph comprehension (Kosslyn, 2006) and users find effective graphs allow users to group information by colour, shape and so on (Shah et al., 1999).

## 2.3 Rationale

Tufte (2015) has disparaged research on the data-ink ratio concept for using undergraduate students as participants. Models of graph comprehension include graph literacy skills, or graph schemas, as an important factor, so Tufte's criticism may have some merits. An interview method was used to gather qualitative data from experts who produce and use graphs.

A semi-structured interview method was used (Carpendale, 2008). A discussion guide was created to provide the necessary structure for the interviews, including introductory information, potential interview questions, and a rough outline for the interview. The goal was to have some structure but to allow for flexibility during the interviews (Portugal, 2013). The qualitative interview data were analyzed using thematic analysis, a flexible method in which

interviewee opinions and interviewer observations are grouped into common themes (Carpendale, 2008). Themes represent patterns in responses which relate to the research questions and researcher judgment is inherent in thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A list of codes is generated from the transcribed interviews, and the codes are further organized into themes.

### 3 METHODS

Interviews were conducted with 7 faculty members from the Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) with a variety of academic backgrounds. Five interviewees held doctorate degrees. Three of those were in psychology, one was in psychophysiology and one was in industrial engineering, but taught courses in applied statistics. The other two interviewees held a master's degree (the terminal degree in their field) – one in graphic design and the other in visual and verbal communication. Participants were solicited based on a preference for faculty who were likely to have opinions regarding graph design (e.g., faculty in design, human factors and statistics) and/or those with frequent graph use. Participants were found through recommendations from faculty members and departmental web pages.

#### 3.1 Materials and Procedure

After agreeing to participate, interviewees were sent a common set of nine pre-interview questions via e-mail (e.g., What type(s) of graphs do you create most frequently? What are the most important factors in the design of graphs you create?). These questions were focused on graph use and creation, and participants' responses were used to create discussion guides tailored to each person interviewed. Two interviewees had prior knowledge of the study and interview methodology (EF & TMS), but it was determined that their responses were not substantively different from those of other interviewees.

Each interview lasted roughly one hour and focused on the use and creation of graphs, context of graph use, the importance of aesthetics in graph design, knowledge of and opinions about the data-ink ratio concept, and feedback on example graphs with varying data-ink ratios. The example graphs were bar graphs and boxplots that were systematically edited to increase or decrease the data-ink ratio. Thus, a low, medium and high data-ink ratio version of a bar graph and boxplot were shown as part of the interview.

Interviews were conducted in participants' offices to allow access to personal materials, research publications, graph-making software, or any other work artifact that the interviewee wished to reference. Audio recordings of the interviews (recorded with a Sony ICD-PX312) were summarized and synthesized using thematic analysis. Interviewees were given a gift certificate (\$10 value) for their participation in the interview, but were not aware of any remuneration at the time they agreed to participate. Gift certificate funding was provided by RIT's College of Liberal Arts.

### 4 RESULTS

Interviewees reported using graphs for a variety of reasons, including publishing empirical results, understanding research, teaching courses, measuring student progress in courses, evaluating the effectiveness of interventions, and more. Frequency of graph use ranged from daily usage to a few times over the course of a semester, and heavy usage was reported when involved in research projects.

Bar graphs, scatterplots and line graphs were mentioned most often by the interviewees, with others such as radial graphs, boxplots, ISOTYPE and histograms mentioned infrequently. Some interviewees preferred to use particular types of graphs, such as bar graphs, because of ease of interpretation, or boxplots because they show complete distributions. One interviewee had a preference for graphs that plotted every data point. Others didn't have preferences for particular types of graphs, and instead preferred whichever graph was most appropriate for the particular situation.

#### 4.1 Data-ink Ratio and Example Graphs

Three interviewees were familiar with the data-ink ratio concept and provided opinions about it. One of those three had a background in design. Two owned copies of Tufte's book. One of the three described the data-ink ratio as a "neat idea" and agreed that graph features with no relevance should be removed. However, like Carswell (1992), that individual expressed doubts as to whether data-ink ratios can actually be measured and did not believe that the data-ink ratio should be maximized, but rather that there is a "sweet spot" for data-ink levels which is lower than the maximum. This interviewee reported that he did not apply the data-ink ratio to the design of graphs he creates. The interviewee with an imaging science

background described the data-ink concept as a design argument that didn't result in more usable graphs. The third interviewee, with a background in design, felt much more positively about the data-ink concept and followed and taught many of Tufte's recommendations for graph creation. The remaining four interviewees were either unfamiliar or only vaguely familiar with the data-ink ratio.

Feedback regarding the low data-ink bar graph tended to be negative or neutral. It was described as both "fat" and "chunky" by different interviewees. One interviewee described it as heavy handed, not due to the size of the bars, but because of the "noise" in the form of gridlines, tick marks, and other elements that could be described as non-data-ink. On the other hand, the graph was also described as having "some nice elements" – the T-intersections on the error bars were seen as helpful and the gridlines were not "too heavy," but could have been fainter. Another interviewee identified this as their favorite bar graph version, as the gridlines were helpful due to width of the graph. That interviewee also found T-intersections at the end of error bars to be helpful.

One participant described the medium data-ink graph as "more pleasing" than the low data-ink bar graph due to the increased white space and thinner bars, but would have added faint gridlines and T-intersections to the error bars. On the other hand, a different participant felt that the bars should have been closer together to facilitate comparisons, but identified the graph as their favorite bar graph version.

Two participants believed that the high data-ink ratio bar graph would take longer to interpret than the other versions, although one did note that familiarity with the high data-ink style might make it easier to use. An additional interviewee described the graph as "horrible." Another interviewee found this graph to be elegant and minimal, but unnecessarily wide given the increase in white space created by the thin bars. One interviewee felt that there was "less in the way" in the high data-ink bar graph, and that it could be improved further by removing the "bar" portions of the graph. This interviewee saw bars in general as a waste of ink which might not add anything, as the error bars are the key information. Another interviewee felt that the high data-ink bar graph had been "cleaned up" compared to the others, but that the bars could be thicker to make it easier to differentiate between their colors.

The low data-ink boxplot was generally described as too busy. More interviewees gave negative comments about the gridlines in this graph than about the bar graph gridlines. Although they were the same

size and color as the gridlines in the bar graph, there were a greater number in the boxplot (4 vs. 9, respectively), suggesting that opinions regarding the inclusion of gridlines are dependent upon the specific graph. The medium data-ink boxplot received more positive feedback than the low data-ink boxplot, though many interviewees suggested varied alterations to the design which they felt would improve it.

The high data-ink boxplot was widely disliked – all but one interviewee found it hard to read. It was noted that the box portion, present in the low and medium data-ink boxplots, helps to make each distribution cohesive. This is similar to Kosslyn's (1985) argument that completing forms results in fewer perceptual units. One interviewee commented that the graph required too many "mental gymnastics," and wasn't sure that she would have known it was a boxplot in a different context. A different interviewee felt that the high data-ink boxplot "says the same thing as the others," but does so more efficiently. Additionally, that interviewee felt that the high data-ink design would be accepted with time, and that the other designs may eventually look archaic. Finally, two interviewees who gave negative feedback about this graph commented that it does highlight the trend of median values in the graph given the large amount of white space around them.

## 4.2 Graph Creation

A number of salient themes emerged on the topic of graph creation goals. Nearly all interviewees named clarity as a design goal, which was defined as readability or "ease of use," as well as avoiding clutter. Interviewees wanted their graphs to be understood by others with little effort. Accuracy was also mentioned frequently as a design goal – graphs should show the data as they actually are without obscuring phenomena. The use of truncated axes was the typical example of inaccuracy or dishonesty in graph design.

Interviewees reported using a variety of software packages to create graphs, including Excel, SPSS, R Statistics, Adobe Illustrator, InDesign, MATLAB, and JMP. Some interviewees used multiple programs for graph creation, choosing whichever is more appropriate (or easier) for a given graph creation task. Two interviewees reported sketching graphs by hand when early in the graph design process, which was described as a way to avoid the limitations of software and find the best way to display the data. The importance of matching graph type to data type was emphasized by three interviewees. For example, bar

charts were listed as appropriate for comparing categorical data, and scatterplots or line graphs for trend data. This was seen as an aspect of graph creation and design requiring particular skills and knowledge.

Aside from an emphasis on accuracy, there were four other graph design factors mentioned: aesthetics, good labeling, Gestalt (notably grouping), and a consistent hierarchy. All interviewees were conscious of the *aesthetics* of graphs they create, but had a variety of definitions for this concept. Some used words like “clean” or “elegant” to describe their goals with regard to aesthetics. Both of the interviewees with a design background mentioned “balance” as a graph design goal – the idea that a graph creator must make trade-offs between simplicity, visual interest, clarity, and completeness. Some interviewees described graph-making conventions as “heavy-handed” or even ugly, and nearly all interviewees expressed some level of dissatisfaction with the look of default designs offered in software packages. *Effective labeling* was critical to a number of interviewees – three reported that labels are among the first features of graphs that they read, and that they are helpful for identifying the variables or conditions in an experiment. *Gestalt principles* were mentioned in multiple interviews by those with both psychology and design backgrounds. Features such as color and grouping via proximity were seen as important to good graph design. The principle of closure was explicitly discussed – one interviewee noted that the “box” portion of a boxplot helps each element to look like a cohesive unit. *Hierarchical structure* in graph design was explicitly mentioned by two interviewees. One reported that the data should always be primary in visual emphasis. The other interviewee reported that the “most important things” in a graph should be emphasized in the design, and that the designer should know what the hierarchy of their graph is. For example, if a line graph is being used to show trend data, the line portion is most important, and that element should be bolder than elements such as axes or tick marks.

Interviewees had few absolute rules with regard to graph creation – the majority of design choices described during the interviews were dependent upon the specific features of the data and context of presentation. Interviewees did not want graphs to be “busy” or to include features such as gridlines or T-intersections, but definitions of what constitutes superfluous varied between participants and situations. It is notable that interviewees did not explicitly focus on or mention the data-ink ratio in their graph design factors.

## 5 DISCUSSION

The interviews suggest that if there is an optimal design, it may be a medium data-ink level, as most interviewees preferred and used such designs.

With regard to Tufte’s claim that his high data-ink designs would be accepted with time, interview feedback indicated that high data-ink designs are not encountered or accepted by frequent users of graphs. Although models of graph comprehension and the results of the present study do seem to support the claim that viewers would be accustomed to high data-ink ratio designs, it does not seem that are “catching on” given Tufte first published the data-ink concept in 1983.

There may be several reasons for this. First, Tufte’s designs disrupt the grouping of elements in a graph. Although Tufte’s boxplot design allows for the medians to be grouped continuously this may not be useful if the x-axis doesn’t represent a continuous variable. And experienced users find the lack of boxes and empty space to disrupt their understanding of what the boxplot is designed to show, namely the distribution of scores for a sample. In boxplots, the vertical grouping of elements is more important than seeing how the medians relate horizontally.

As noted previously, instantiated graph schemas – knowledge regarding specific graph types – have been identified as an important factor in graph comprehension (Pinker, 1990). Adding elements may have acted to reduce visual complexity by facilitating grouping elements or interpreting the data (Donderi, 2003). One interviewee commented that she would not have been able to identify Tufte’s high data-ink boxplot as a boxplot without the context provided by the interview. This suggests that the high data-ink ratio graph did not activate the boxplot schema.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

The results suggest that the data-ink ratio concept relates to the subjective issue of graph aesthetics. Arguments about the aesthetics of graphs are worth having – interview data showed that graph creators care about the appearance of graphs and make efforts to ensure that their graphs meet their aesthetic standards. Our results indicate a graph creator who prefers the look of Tufte’s high data-ink graphs should feel free to use them, but graph creators should not feel that maximizing data-ink ratio will result in more usable graphs. In defending his ideas, Tufte argued that it would be a mistake to underestimate the

audiences of graphical information. With regard to graph designs with different data-ink ratios, this sentiment seems to be appropriate – graph users with varying levels of experience can extract complex information from high data-ink ratio designs.

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