

Project Description

1 Overview

Statistical graphics and models are powerful tools to summarize data and support human decision making; however, empirical research on graphical perception is sparse relative to the number of decisions necessary to make a good chart. When relevant studies are available, they often use incomparable methods and produce conflicting results. Chart design guidelines are often based on opinion, not empirical study, rendering many scientific communications sub-optimal or ineffective. This is alarming: effective science communication is critical for cultivating public trust in the scientific process and ensuring that decision makers accurately interpret supporting information. Addressing these challenges, my long-term career goal is to examine statistical graphics with the goal of *helping people use data more effectively*, and to apply this research to educate and inspire a new generation of scientists while supporting science literacy among the general public.

This CAREER proposal addresses a fundamental research question underpinning this problem: *How do design decisions impact the use, design, and perception of data visualizations?* Three research objectives support this goal:

- **RO1:** Create a framework for comprehensive graphical testing across multiple levels of user engagement.
- **RO2:** Assess the impact of measurement methods on experiments evaluating statistical graphics.
- **RO3:** Empirically validate common chart design guidelines, measuring the impact of design decisions on task performance.

Integrated with these research efforts, the overall **education goal** is to leverage visualization research to motivate statistical learning and improve data-driven decision making in society. Three education objectives (EOs) address this goal:

- **EO1:** Develop and implement experiential learning activities in graphics for undergraduate introductory statistics courses.
- **EO2:** Create graduate course modules for K-12 educators that connect ongoing research to engaging, hands-on classroom activities for teaching statistics, math, and science.
- **EO3:** Improve the penetration of visualization research beyond academia by incorporating summaries of empirical studies in resources used by data scientists, industry analysts, and researchers in STEM disciplines.

Experiential learning activities will connect graphics research to critical concepts within statistics courses at the undergraduate level as well as in K-12 activities provided during graduate coursework for STEM educators. In addition, incorporating research summaries into general visualization resources will not only connect data visualization creators with research; improving these resources will improve teaching materials for statistical computing and will involve undergraduates in research and outreach in graphics and science communication.

The research and educational activities described in this project have the potential to significantly improve how scientists communicate scientific results to each other as well as to the general public, increasing public trust in science and facilitating public decision making based on experimental data and results.

2 Intellectual Merit

This work will expand our understanding of graphical perception and communication by empirically and systematically examining chart design through comprehensive, task-based testing. The proposed studies will be used to generate a framework relating evaluation methods to user engagement with graphics, establish the impact of different experimental design decisions on results, and promote integration of multiple evaluation methods to provide a holistic assessment of visualization effectiveness. Additionally, this project will prioritize inclusion neurodiverse and disabled individuals, ensuring that design guidelines account for accessibility concerns. The results of the systematic examination of different experimental design and testing methods will not only ground design guidelines in empirical results; if successful, the experiments will also help reconcile the results from historical studies with conflicting results. While there are task-based taxonomies for *selection of chart types*, a systematic framework for selecting *testing methods* based on levels of engagement and critical tasks is innovative; we expect that this framework will facilitate well-rounded experiments that examine chart design and use from multiple perspectives, providing nuanced results focused on audience use of graphics. The education activities proposed in this project are closely tied to the research objectives, providing avenues for dissemination of research results as well as inclusion of audiences in graphics research. As a result, education and research activities will combine to support new pedagogical research in experiential learning. This new research will examine the use of statistical graphics as an entry-point to quantitative subjects for individuals who are not traditionally interested in pursuing STEM careers. Previous collaborative research projects have established new and re-imagined old methods for testing statistical graphics; when combined with training and experience in statistics at the intersection of computer science, psychology, and communication, I am well equipped to complete this project supported by collaborations with researchers in cognitive psychology and statistical education.

My long-term career goal is to examine statistical graphics with the goal of *helping people use data more effectively*, and to apply this research to educate and inspire a new generation of scientists while supporting science literacy among the general public.

3 Research Plan

3.1 Overview

Scientific graphics transform quantitative data into images processed by the visual system, leveraging our ability to take in huge quantities of information with minimal cognitive effort. However, unlike many mathematical data transformations, the transformation to visual space incurs loss both in the rendering of data to image and the transition from image to cognitive representation. That is, when creating data visualizations, we have to be concerned not only with the accuracy of the rendered image, but also with how that image is perceived by the viewer. It is easy to find entire books filled with situations in which the transition from data to image produces results which are misleading [1–3]; identifying scenarios where the transition from image to cognitive representation is problematic but not pathological is more challenging and requires user studies. There have been empirical studies of graphics for at least 100 years [4–6], but the best-known paper in graphical perception is [7], which established viewer’s ability to accurately estimate information from simple visual displays. While this work is important, and valuable, it has been synthesized into recommendations and rankings which go far beyond the original experiments [8, 9] with limited empirical verification, though in many cases these extrapolations are based in part on cognitive and perceptual research that is not specific to scientific visualization. It is easy to forget that [7] examined charts with respect to the direct numerical accuracy of quantitative estimates; the results do not necessarily apply if we are interested instead in determining whether differences between quantities can be perceived [10, 11], ordered, remembered [12], or used to reach a reasonable real-world decision [13]. While each of these alternate tasks has been addressed in user

studies of graphics, because the design space of visualization user studies is so large [14–16] and the literature is spread across so many different fields (including psychology, computer science, statistics, design, and communication) with different preferred methods, it is extremely difficult to synthesize the total graphics literature in order to derive empirically driven guidelines for creating graphs that accurately transform the data into an image and also present the data in a form which can be effectively used by the intended audience. Fundamentally, what is lacking is a systematic investigation into the perception of statistical graphics that leverages multiple methods of assessing graphics and asks users to engage with the charts at multiple depths.

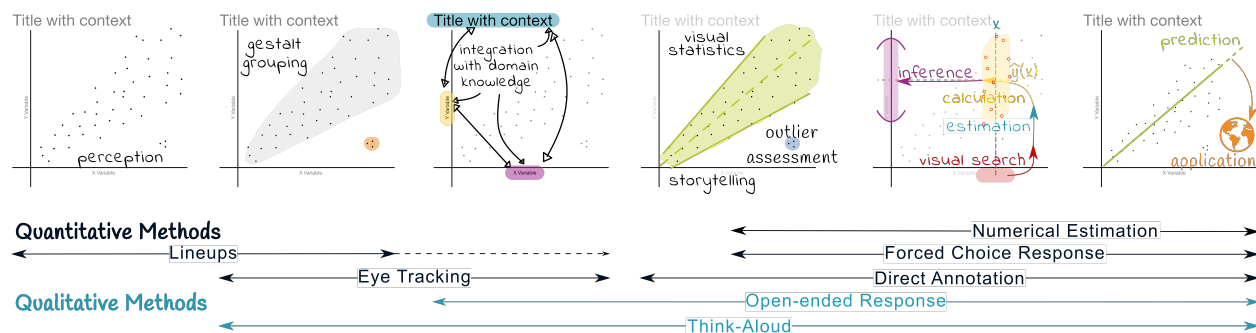


Figure 1: Levels of cognitive engagement with charts, roughly ordered by complexity, time, and effort. Methods which effectively measure (or could be extended to measure) each stage are shown below the charts. Text annotations show examples of the types of operations which involved in each stage.

The research objectives proposed here are designed to lay a foundation for evaluation and testing of scientific visualizations across multiple levels of user engagement. We focus our investigation using a combination of cognitive complexity and the temporal evolution of user-chart interaction, roughly illustrated in Figure 1. Previous graphical hierarchies have focused on the complexity of single graphical tasks [7, 17–19]; while this is a useful way to determine which chart to use to display data, it does not approach different ways users engage with a single chart. Are they perceiving the graphical forms without engaging with the underlying symbolic meaning? Using the chart to understand the underlying natural phenomenon? Doing statistical inference (e.g. visually estimating model parameters from the graph)? Making decisions based on their understanding of the data? Each of these use cases involves different cognitive tasks, and as a result, different graphical testing methods may be necessary to assess the effectiveness of charts under each type of engagement.

We will first identify and evaluate methods for graphical testing across multiple levels of user engagement, comparing methods which examine equivalent stages of graph comprehension and use. @fig-cognition-hierarchy shows some of the methods we intend to assess and compare, along with the rough stages of cognition these methods target. Next, we will establish the impact of different experimental configurations and ways of measuring and recording users’ answers. We expect that this will not only help graphics researchers design and implement new user studies, but we hope to also facilitate comparison of results from past studies, providing context to conflicting conclusions. Finally, we will empirically validate common chart design guidelines, testing whether extrapolated results and aesthetic opinions hold up under critical user studies.

The results from these objectives, taken together, are intended to build a user-focused foundation for measuring and assessing the design and use of data visualizations. The choice to approach testing graphics from the perspective of how the user is interacts with and makes decisions based on the visual representation of the data places this research firmly at the intersection of statistics, cognitive science, measurement, and

scientific communication. In addition, this choice separates this project from almost all previous graphical research studies, which typically use one method to evaluate charts; our focus is instead on the integration of measurement methods and user engagement level to capture multiple levels of engagement using a combination of measurement methods within the same experiment. This project will develop methodology for measuring the functional cognition underlying data driven decision making using visual aids. The results from the proposed research will facilitate integration of conflicting historical results, which will contribute to a robust set of empirical evidence that can be integrated to produce more nuanced, task-focused design guidelines for statistical graphics.

3.2 Motivation

The first studies experimentally examining the effectiveness of statistical graphics took place approximately 100 years ago; since then, the quantity of charts created, the methods available for creating charts, and the technology available for measuring and evaluating comprehension have evolved in remarkable ways. [20] provides a comprehensive review of studies that experimentally examine the use of statistical graphics as well as the underlying research in cognitive psychology topics such as perception, memory, attention, and executive function which influence our ability to use statistical graphics effectively.

What is remarkable given the ubiquity of statistical graphics in scientific communication is that even after 100 years of empirical graphics research, we still have relatively little empirical evidence to support of some common design guidelines and heuristics; where there are empirical studies, they often conflict or have been over-extrapolated from the design and goal of the original experiments. For example, Tufte's data-ink ratio [21] has been thoroughly tested [18, 19, 22–24], but results have been decidedly mixed, suggesting that the data-ink ratio is too simplistic; even so, it is still part of the common vernacular and makes its way into many different design guidelines [25]. Another common recommendation is to locate the most important variables along position axes (e.g. x and y in a scatterplot) rather than encoding quantitative information in color; this is because [7] found higher levels of accuracy in these comparisons, but accuracy of numerical estimation is not the only important way people use charts [26], and in fact, it is relatively uncommon for individuals to directly estimate one specific numerical quantity from a chart: for these tasks, a table would be much more appropriate [27].

At a fundamental level, we know that graphics are useful for communicating scientific results and for exploring our data; whether the target audience is ourselves, peers, or the general public, graphics are an invaluable tool. So why do we assess graphics based solely on measures like estimation accuracy or response time [28], and then extrapolate the results to tasks and situations that don't revolve around estimation accuracy or speed? What is needed instead is a testing framework focused on the user's level of interaction and purpose for interacting with a chart. [29] divides evaluation scenarios into several user-focused task-based methods for both visualization and data analysis, assessing the utility of several methods for testing these empirically, but stops short of actually performing experiments evaluating the same graphics using multiple different methods. This component of the proposed work is essential because it provides multiple points of experimental control that are not present when aggregating results across experiments: it is possible to keep the same participants, data (or data generating model), and testing conditions across multiple testing methods. In this work, we propose a comprehensive, multi-modal experimental framework for evaluating graphics. This will provide a better alternative to the patchwork testing of individual questions with highly specific methods by empirically assessing how specific charts (or design decisions) function under different tasks and measurement methods.

There are multiple factors that must be considered and evaluated in order to achieve the broader goal of empirically testing design guidelines: the measurement methods and variables used to assess charts are of obvious interest, but other factors are also important. Measurement of numerical information that has passed

through the human brain in one form or another can be complicated by the method used to obtain and record the information. Consider the relatively simple case where a participant is asked to estimate the length of a specified bar in a bar chart: the experimenter must determine how this estimate is recorded. Modern UI design toolkits provide multiple options: the user can directly enter a number in a text box or indicate the number on a slider (with or without anchor points); the former requires translation into an explicitly numerical domain, where the latter requires that the participant map the chart onto a spatial domain but does not require explicit formation of a numerical estimate. Direct entry is subject to rounding effects that increase with participant uncertainty [30, 31]; while these effects can be mitigated [32] through modeling, it might be preferable to make use of numerical inputs that might not trigger rounding, such as slider inputs. Unfortunately, slider inputs are not entirely simple either: they can contain anchor points (or not) that participants may latch on to; the inclusion of these additional annotations may reduce cognitive load, but may provide the opportunity for additional anchoring effects that must be considered and possibly modeled. Most research in this area has examined sliders as inputs for categorical variables[33–37] and suggests that using sliders instead of radio button inputs changes the observed distribution of responses in important ways; while the comparison to radio buttons is not relevant to continuous data, the results of these studies suggest that there is a need to explicitly examine the effects of input methods on participant responses both in the context of visualization evaluation studies and more broadly. This is just one example of the series of decisions experimenters make when eliciting and recording data from participants that do not directly relate to the hypotheses under investigation but which may well impact the results.

Validating a toolbox of methods for testing graphics at different levels of user engagement and assessing the impact of measurement decisions will provide a better foundation through which to address the fundamental goal of this research: **using comprehensive empirical testing to validate common design guidelines**. Many books and papers provide design guidelines along with examples, redesigns, and sometimes, supporting references to empirical studies [17, 21, 29, 38–50]; [51] summarizes the structures and types of guidelines in many of these sources. There have also been empirical assessments of broad themes common to different sets of guidelines: [25] experimentally evaluated two themes (“declutter” and “focus”) using several different assessment methods, finding that focused designs were preferred over decluttered designs, which were preferred over cluttered designs. What is lacking is a series of tests of design guidelines across the different levels of user engagement; each specific experiment referenced above examined one type of user engagement using one measurement method. Another major gap in the existing research is an assessment of how well different guidelines serve different groups of individuals. We know that disorders such as dyslexia, dyscalculia, and ADHD affect perception, numeracy, and other processes involved in graph comprehension [52–54]. Designers already consider audience and accessibility [55] but have little empirical support assessing graph design choices in these populations. It is important that our design guidelines specifically address subpopulations in an inclusive way, so that everyone can benefit from scientific results.

At a fundamental level, we have a lot to learn about visualization design: the design guidelines that we promote as a discipline are built on fairly limited studies that measure accuracy or response time, instead of examining the multiple different levels at which a user might engage with the chart and the underlying data. We have not sufficiently examined how groups with processing disorders and cognitive differences are affected by our design guidelines; when we consider accessibility, much of the time this is limited to discussions of colorblindness. This project is designed to build a foundation for the next generation of empirical graphical testing by developing a robust set of measurement methods, assessing the impact of different experimental design factors, and leveraging this foundation to examine design guidelines experimentally and inclusively.

3.3 Preliminary Studies

In previous work [56], we have seen that simultaneously collecting quantitative and qualitative data provides the opportunity to gain rich and nuanced insight into how participants respond to graphical tests: a significant proportion of participants in the visual hypothesis test committed a Type III error (the right answer to the wrong question) [57].

In a more recent series of studies, we expanded this approach, examining the use of log and linear scales to assess exponential time series data across multiple different user tasks: perception, estimation, and prediction. This series of studies, inspired by the COVID pandemic and the lack of empirical research available at that time assessing the effectiveness of log scales, used three different graphical testing methods: statistical lineups, which test whether users can perceive a difference, direct numerical estimation, which assessed whether users could read data off of a chart and use it to perform estimation tasks, and “you-draw-it”, which explored whether users can predict exponential growth. The “you-draw-it” task is a modernized form of hand-drawn regression lines [58] and one example of a direct-annotation method which can be used to provide quantitative information and predictions without requiring participants to convert graphical information to a numerical, real-world domain. We ran this three-part experiment on the same set of participants, and are in the process of publishing the results [59, 60], though initial results from each part of the experiment were published as dissertation chapters [61]. Most empirical visualization studies only use one testing method to assess a design decision, but graphics are *used* for many different purposes; it is important that we test graphics comprehensively, so that empirical guidelines that are appropriate for many different levels of user interaction can be developed.

One challenging part of the estimation task in this series of studies was how to phrase the estimation questions and record participants’ responses. We asked participants to answer five different types of questions requiring estimation of quantities off of an exponentially increasing time series of points. Easy questions required estimation of the conditional value of y given x (or vice versa), two intermediate questions required a calculation on either the additive or multiplicative scale, and a third intermediate question required estimating the time until the population doubled in size. In addition, participants were asked an open-ended question (“describe the data shown in this graph”) before being asked to estimate values. Figure 2 shows the calculations required for one of the intermediate difficulty questions; participant results are shown in Figure 3. In addition to requiring the numerical input value, we provided participants with a scratchpad and basic calculator applet which allowed us to see how some participants solved the problem in greater detail, providing ways to assess logical and estimation errors for a subset of participants who used the scratchpad; methods for integrating the analysis of this additional layer of user data with the direct measures of accuracy are under active development.

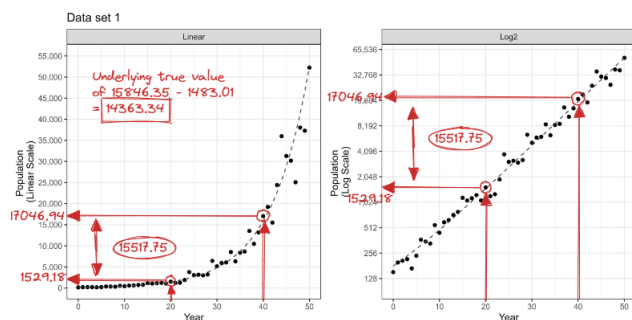


Figure 2: Steps to estimate additive population change.

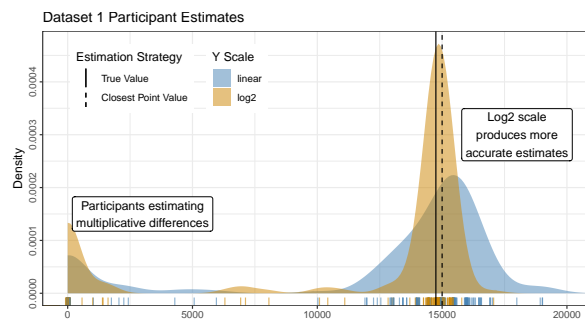


Figure 3: Distribution of participant estimates.

In another study, we wanted to assess the probability of perceived guilt or innocence of a defendant based

on the type of testimony presented by a forensic examiner. In order to establish a baseline, we conducted a calibration study examining the different ways we could record participant input, using free response, forced binary choice, categorical and numerical input sliders, and numerical inputs for numerator and denominator that calculate a probability of guilt; results in Figure 4 show that the results are different for different input types, with blank numerical slider inputs biasing results more towards 0.5 and ratio inputs showing evidence of rounding effects. Clearly, the input method has an impact on the observed results.

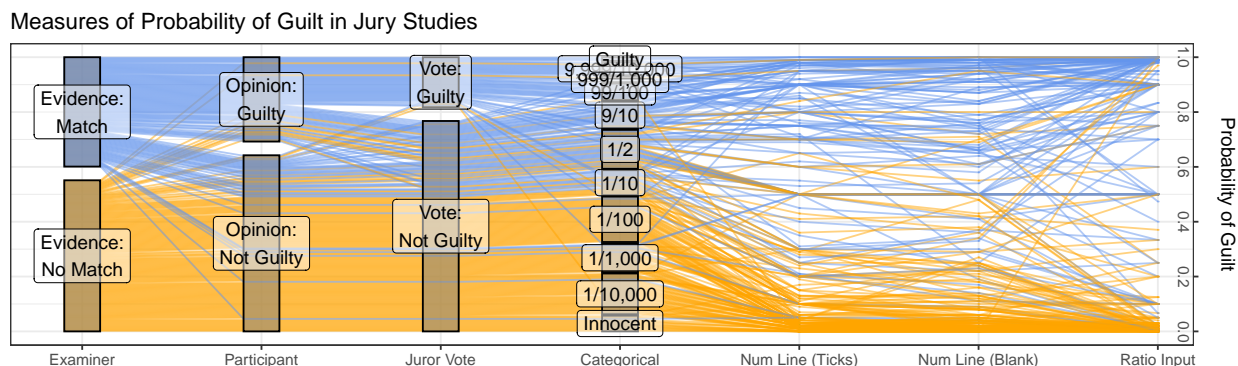


Figure 4: Assessing defendant guilt probability using different input methods.

The final set of recent preliminary data supporting the importance of this research is a study reexamining [7] in light of modern 3D graphical rendering and 3D printing technology. We wondered whether physical 3D printed bar charts might be less prone to estimation errors than the fixed-angle charts used in [7]. We created charts shown in Figure 5 rendered using modern 2D graphics software, 3D digital renderings [62], and 3D-printed graphics [63].

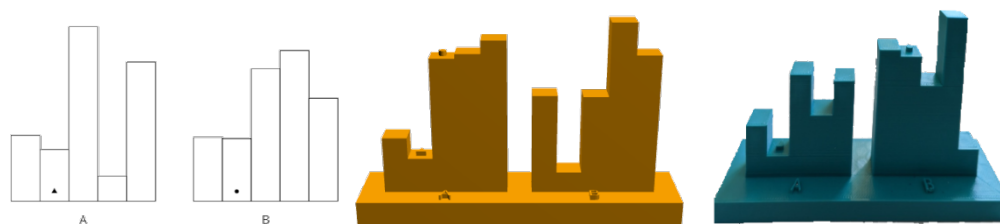


Figure 5: Three renderings of bar charts: 2D (left), 3D digital render (middle), and 3D printed (right).

Our initial investigation found few differences between 2D, 3D digital, and 3D printed charts in comparison accuracy; one explanation for this is simply the limited power of the small sample size in our pilot study, but an alternate explanation is that the 3D virtual rendering environment is not really comparable to the fixed-angle 3D plots used in the original study. To assess this possibility, we are expanding the study to assess an additional 3D fixed-angle projection condition that does not allow for realistic manipulation, which is more similar to the 3D renderings used in the original study. Misapplied depth perception has been implicated in other graphical mis-perceptions [64, 65], and it is entirely possible that 3D charts that are interactive can be accurately perceived while artificial 3D fixed-angle projections into 2D space lead to inaccurate perceptions. If this is the case, the guidelines to avoid 3D graphics may be entirely misguided given the interactive rendering environments available today. This is another reason that it is important to revisit previous graphical studies in light of new technology, graphical software, and testing platforms.

While this study's results are primarily relevant to the third aim of this research proposal, the supporting literature, which contains conflicting results, also contains conflicting estimation procedures, in addition to

differing on input data and underlying population of interest. [19] had participants “position the cursor [along a number line] so that the horizontal line is divided in proportion to the apparent sizes of the elements”, which is essentially estimating the proportion $A/(A + B)$, while [7] asked participants to “judge what percentage the smaller was of the larger”, which is A/B , using a numerical estimate (rather than a slider). This difference in input methodology and estimation quantity may explain the conflicting findings between the two papers; more importantly, this is a factor that must be investigated both to assist with the interpretation of past studies and to inform the design of future studies.

3.4 Methods

This project is designed to lay a foundation for robust experimental evaluation of statistical graphics: we will examine graphical evaluations that can assess common ways charts are used in practice, simultaneously developing and validating methods focused on practical evaluation and providing empirical support for nuanced, user-focused design guidelines. In support of this goal, the first research objective (RO1) is to create a framework for comprehensive graphical testing across multiple levels of user engagement. We will compare the insights from testing methods which address different levels of user engagement, develop toolkits for implementing empirical studies of graphics, and assess which methods can be combined to produce a holistic assessment of how a chart is used to support decision-making. These experiments are described in Section 3.4.1.

As many different smaller factors, such as measurement and recording methods, can have an outsized influence on the results of graphical testing experiments, the second research objective (RO2) is to assess the impact of measurement methods on experiments evaluating statistical graphics. We will thoroughly evaluate the effects of these decisions by revisiting previous studies and comparing the impact of competing measurement methods on the results. If successful, this will provide contextual information which we can use to reconcile conflicting results from historical studies with slightly different methods. Even if this portion of the project does not produce results which clarify historical studies, we will still gain greater insight into the ideal design of inputs for user testing, which will facilitate better study design in the future. Experiments relating to this second research objective are described in Section 3.4.2.

Finally, addressing the third research objective (RO3), we will empirically validate common chart design guidelines, measuring the impact of design decisions on task performance. This process will not only include assessment of graphics using undergraduate populations or internet surveys, but will also include specific assessment of the accessibility of graphics in populations who identify as having a disability requiring accommodation in an area related to executive function, visual processing, or numeracy. The results of these studies will directly tie into outreach activities that will inform data visualization practitioners about best practices based on empirical results. The experiments which will contribute to the third research objective are described in Section 3.4.3.

While these goals are related, they are not dependent: each objective can be completed independently from the other objectives. The project is laid out in such a way to allow results from the first two objectives to enrich our approach to the third, but there are already sufficient methods in the literature for testing graphics to allow us to complete a task-focused evaluation of design guidelines. In addition, while a critical examination of methods for numerical input in graphics studies will be useful, it is not essential in order to empirically assess design guidelines.

3.4.1 Multimodal Task-Based Testing Framework The first research objective for this project is to create a framework for comprehensive graphical testing across multiple levels of user engagement. Our overall hypothesis is that by combining multiple methods of user testing within the same experiment, we

can gather information which spans multiple levels of user engagement with acceptably small impact on participant cognitive load.

To this end, we will conduct a series of experiments which incorporate multiple testing methods into empirical assessments of statistical graphics. Many methods commonly employed for testing graphics can be combined in the same experiment; think-aloud protocols can be combined with eye-tracking and other assessment methods to provide qualitative information about the user experience in combination with more quantitative assessments [66–68]. There are two fundamental limits to the combination of multiple methods: method incompatibility and what a single participant can reasonably be asked to do in a single experiment. For instance, statistical lineups involve multiple sub-plots, of which only one is composed of real data; this is incompatible with direct numerical estimation, because the framework for statistical inference under a randomization test necessarily removes the focus from the “real” data. We can also expect that asking participants to complete too many tasks with a single plot will result in poorer results than optimizing the methods to maximize information gain while minimizing participant effort. However, because this type of multi-method research is relatively rare (other than collection of open-ended opinions after quantitative data is recorded), we do not know where this limit is. If this objective is successful, we will be able to recommend one or more sets of measures which will produce a holistic picture of how users interact with graphics and use them to complete different tasks.

As the primary goal of these experiments is to assess the measurement methodology, here we focus on describing the set of experiments and methodological comparisons; we will use data and graphical design comparisons from past experiments in the field or generate new data when necessary to push the limits of the measurement methodology. In general, we will conduct in-person experiments with a target participant sample size of 50 undergraduate students; this sample size will likely adjust as the PI gains experience with eye-tracking studies and the sample size needed for statistical power using the appropriate analysis methods for eye-tracking data. Online experiments will typically be conducted using a platform such as Prolific, with a target sample size of 300 participants; we have successfully conducted previous multiple-method studies with sufficient power at this sample size. Explicit power calculations are reasonable for studies that can be evaluated with a statistical model or hypothesis test, however, with multiple testing and evaluation methods, some of which are qualitative, direct power calculations are less useful. Compounding this problem, we do not have any idea about relevant effect sizes, and these would be expected to change with chart type and the particulars of each experiment. Instead, we rely on past experience and have planned for as many participants as we can reasonably afford and collect data from; this approach has worked successfully for the preliminary studies.

In the first set of experiments, we will focus on combinations of statistical lineups and other measurement methods and engagement levels. **Experiment A1** will examine whether there is value in adding contextual information (axis scales, labels, titles) to lineups. Lineup studies typically do not include contextual information that would require participants to evaluate the plots using domain knowledge; instead, lineups in most studies lack axis labels and even titles [56, 69–71]; participants are encouraged to pick the plot which is the most different (which does not require understanding any data context). Experiment 1 will manipulate axis scales (which are usually controlled) to determine whether viewers use this information; we will also analyze user explanations to see if information in the plot and axis titles are referenced.

In experiments A2-3, we will establish the use of lineups with eye tracking and direct annotation (A3 only). While lineups have been used with eye tracking before [72], the technology used samples at a low rate and does not allow for collection of measures such as fixation length, time to return, and other quantities of interest. During **Experiment A2**, we will examine the effect of making lineup decisions under cognitive load, mimicking conditions where people use graphics in daily life with distractions. If successful, Experiment A2 will allow us to assess the process of decision-making and specifically identify which data features attract

the most attention as well as which features are compared. **Experiment A3** will expand upon experiment A2, asking participants to directly annotate interesting features in a lineup using JavaScript-based web tools. There is the possibility that this additional task will add too much cognitive load, as well as that the additional motion required for the annotation will disrupt the eye tracking results; both of these outcomes provide useful information. If successful, Experiment A3 will demonstrate whether there is added value from using both eye tracking (which requires in person testing) and direct annotation (which can be completed online) together. **Experiment A4** will validate the use of lineups with direct annotation, establishing if there is added value in including direct interaction with lineups in a more typical setting for visual inference studies (online). If successful, this will provide an easy way for visual inference researchers to gain additional value and insight about participants’ decisions; however, if this is not successful, we will have a better understanding of the cognitive demands of lineup evaluation. This experiment also has an additional benefit: visual inference has been suggested as one solution to the problem of overfitting during exploratory data analysis [73–75]; direct annotation could be easily integrated into analysis software in combination with automated lineup generation to provide a physical way analysts can record observations and examine those observations via hypothesis testing.

As visual inference with lineups is qualitatively different than experiments examining a single plot, experiments A5 through A9 will focus on methods for examining single plots, which allows us to test graphics in ways that directly mimic how they are used for decision support. **Experiment A5** will combine eye tracking, numerical estimation, and direct annotation: users will answer a set of questions requiring estimation of data from the chart, but the direct annotation component of the task will be varied across three levels (no annotation, annotation without numerical feedback, annotation with numerical feedback). This will allow us to assess the flow of attention during the estimation process as well as the effect that direct annotation has on the participants. Providing numerical feedback from the direct annotation will allow us to assess how much of the participant’s estimation accuracy is due to the transformation from spatial to numeric information. In previous numerical estimation studies, we found that providing a “scratchpad” and calculator produced a rich source of data that provided insight into participants’ estimation strategies [61, Ch 4]; participant annotation is a more natural method to record the same information. A small subset of participants in Experiment A5 may be asked to also think aloud as they complete the task; this will provide some preliminary information allowing us to compare eye tracking, direct annotation, and think-aloud protocols, with any interesting results explored in more depth in a follow up study.

Think-aloud protocols, which ask participants to talk through the process of making a decision, have been proposed as an alternative to eye tracking for usability studies [66]; this is intriguing for experimental evaluation of graphics because think-aloud tasks can be performed through a modern web browser with minimal experimenter labor using APIs to automate transcription [76] and response coding [77]. In **Experiment A6** we will examine the overlap between direct annotation and think-aloud protocols using an online platform; automatic transcription APIs will be validated using manual transcription performed by undergraduate research assistants. If successful, this will validate think-aloud and direct annotation for use when testing chart usability online; the implementation in Shiny[78, 79] will be published in an R [80] or python [81] package to facilitate use by others in the graphics research community.

One of the major focuses of this project is exploring how people use charts to support real-life decision-making; as a result, it is important to include forced-choice questions in our battery of tests available for examining graphics. **Experiment A7** will investigate real-world decision making by examining numerical estimation, forced-choice questions, and open-ended responses, with the potential to include or substitute the use of direct annotation or think-aloud methods based on the results of previous experiments. Participants will be directly asked to make a decision based on data and real-world consequences, such as “is X product safe for consumer use” or “do levels of Y meet the threshold for regulatory action” based on a scenario

and sample data. Participants will be asked to estimate a relevant numerical quantity that should inform the decision making process and then use open-ended responses to explain their reasoning on the forced-choice decision task. Follow up experiments may be used to explore the effect of uncertainty [16, 82] and other important factors on this decision-making process, but the primary goal of this experiment is to compare results for the different measures used to assess this real-world decision-making process.

Graphics also support inferential processes in the visual domain (distinct from visual inference using lineups). **Experiments A8 and A9** will examine the process of using graphics to support visual statistical inference calculations using eye-tracking (Ex A8, in person) and direct annotation (Ex A9, online). In the case that the direct annotation protocols used to support Experiment A6 do not work, additional methods for assessing inferential processes in online usability testing may be explored in Experiment A9. Experiments A8 and A9 will also include forced-choice real-world decisions that should be supported by the inference participants are asked to complete. If successful, these experiments will demonstrate the relative benefits of using eye tracking and direct annotation to assess inferential processes supported with visualizations.

Finally, we have distinguished between visual inference and statistical inference, but the primary difference between them is that in visual inference, the null model is embedded in the lineup generation process, where in statistical inference, the null model is embedded in the scenario description and the cognitive load of inferring the graphical consequences is placed on the participant. **Experiment A10** directly compares results from these two tasks through a head-to-head comparison of lineups and graphical inference, where both tasks are observed through direct annotation or think-aloud protocols. Participants will be provided with multiple scenarios and will be given either a visual inference (lineup) or a statistical inference (single graph) task that requires evaluation of the same hypothesis. We will examine not only the power of each method in a statistical sense, but also the richness of the additional information provided through annotation or think-aloud protocols.



Figure 6: Methods used in each proposed experiment along with targeted level of engagement from Figure 1.

Figure 6 provides a high-level pictographic summary of the different methods which will be used in each proposed experiment contributing to this aim. Taken together, the results of the proposed experiments will validate these methods for observing and evaluating how users leverage graphs for decision support by examining each stage of engagement while accounting for different tasks. While we have provided limited details about data sets and types of graphs tested using these methods, we will leverage past studies extensively to construct scenarios that balance the desire to assess real-world processes with the need for experimental control.

Specific outcomes from each experiment have been briefly outlined above, however, the whole of these proposed experiments is greater than the sum of the individual experimental outcomes. If successful, the methodological developments of these 10 experiments as well as any follow-up experiments will result in an R or python package which implement Shiny modules for including direct annotation capabilities in graphical testing (x-axis estimates, y-axis estimates, drawn regression lines, and interval estimation), recording these annotations and think-aloud audio inputs as data, and transcribing audio inputs to text. Additional functions for analysis of eye-tracking data may also be included depending on the functionality currently available in the eye-tracking lab software stack. Development of this software will provide graduate and undergraduate

statistics students with the opportunity to learn open-source software development practices and to contribute back to the community.

In addition to making these methods available for other experimenters through open-source software, we will be able to compare the types and quality of information gained using each method through statistical and qualitative analyses. Each experiment will also include questions designed to assess the cognitive load of participants through user reflection questions, in order to establish any limits on concurrent measurement methodology imposed by working memory and attention resource constraints. Taken together, these experiments, even if individual experiments are not successful, will establish the limits of using multiple graphical evaluation methods in parallel when assessing charts experimentally.

As this aim is specifically designed to examine the limits of the use of multiple testing methods simultaneously in graphics studies, most experiments are set up so that success and failure are both informative. However, there are a few components of this plan which contain potential obstacles.

First, I have not previously used eye tracking methods to explore how we use graphics. While I am approaching this research space from a background primarily in Statistics, the project sits at the intersection of Human-Computer Interaction, Statistics, and Cognitive Psychology; as a result, I have enlisted Dr. Michael Dodd at UNL, an expert in eye tracking, attention, and cognition, to mentor me as I become familiar with eye tracking equipment and methodology. This collaboration will also allow me to access the undergraduate psychology participant pool, which will ensure that I can recruit students for the eye tracking studies, as these cannot be conducted over the internet.

Another obstacle which may impact the results is that the direct annotation software framework does not yet exist for many of the types of annotations required for the described experiments. Currently, direct annotations can be used to draw trend and smooth lines and extrapolate beyond provided data points [60], but additional functionality will have to be implemented in order to allow participants to highlight individual data points or regions of the plot, select positions along the x or y axis, and indicate regions for inferential purposes. This functionality exists in other interactive software [83], which should ensure that we can borrow from that implementation to create a similar interactive toolkit in Shiny. Some of the desired features are in the process of being added to the `youdrawitR` package under development through Google Summer of Code 2023; Emily Robinson and I are mentoring an undergraduate data scientist and introducing him to open-source software development. I expect that additional functionality can be added during this proposal's review cycle, but if not, the schedule allows for time to implement the necessary features before they are needed.

Finally, while there are packages for audio recording using JavaScript, I am not aware of any dedicated Shiny implementation, so we will need to write code to interface between an appropriate JavaScript library and Shiny. I have experience connecting similar JavaScript libraries to Shiny (including the JavaScript code used to implement the `youdrawitR` package under development), so this is not expected to be a significant obstacle, but in previous studies, there have been issues with browser permission conflicts causing Shiny to crash. We typically address potential issues like this during the pilot study before an experiment is officially deployed, but we will need to take special care that both the participant recruitment and the Shiny application are set up properly to ensure that we can successfully record this information.

3.4.2 Experiment Configuration Effects The second research aim of this project is to thoroughly examine the impact of experimental design factors, such as question phrasing and user input, on the results of graphical testing experiments. The history of experiments evaluating the effectiveness of graphics is filled with studies going back and forth arguing about e.g. the relative utility of pie charts and stacked bar charts [4, 5, 7, 19]. It is very easy to read these studies and conclude that all of these experimental evaluations are

useless and easily manipulated (even unintentionally) by the setting of the experiment; another possibility is that the differences in these studies are due to the underlying test populations. More recently, confined to the niche of experimental evaluation of uncertainty visualization, [16] diagrammed 384 different paths taken by 82 papers through different goals, measures, input types, analysis methods, and other design decisions; while such explorations are valuable, this aim does not just seek to record the different languages of the world; instead, our goal is to assemble a Rosetta stone by which we can compare and interpret historical studies as well as guiding the design and implementation of future visualization evaluation work. In this aim, we will examine the impact of different ways of obtaining numerical estimates from participants as well as the impact of different methods for prompting participants to provide a specific estimate.

The experiments laid out under this aim do not cover the full space of input options or ways to phrase estimation questions, however, we aim to provide details for the initial studies, with the expectation that additional follow up studies will be necessary in order to better understand the reasons for observed effects. This portion of the research is tightly integrated with the education plan; in order to conduct a thorough review of the different testing practices in the literature, I will involve undergraduate students both during the summer and during the course of the academic year. During the academic year, undergraduate researchers will examine studies that may influence design guidelines, differences in research methodology across studies, the ultimate conclusions, and track how those conclusions were interpreted when referenced in later studies, as part of Section 4.4. These records will inspire the summer studies which will be completed in years 3-5; I have selected two critical needs for examination during years 1 and 2.

In the first two years, we will begin with a comprehensive assessment of different methods for recording numerical input. These projects are designed to be accessible to undergraduates interested in STEM or advanced high school students (hereafter, ‘new researchers’) and of limited complexity so that they can be reasonably completed over 8-10 weeks of summer. Due to the large space of different design decisions in graphics experiments, I am confident that undergraduate researchers during the academic year will uncover additional important experimental design factors to assess during years 3-5.

Experiment B1 will examine input methods for continuous estimates. Continuous numerical estimates are more complicated than one might expect: in some problems, there is a defined $[A, B]$ input range that is relevant, while in other problems, estimates may be located along the entire real line (though typically, there is a range within that where the experimenter expects most values to fall). We sometimes want participants to generate high-precision estimates, but on other occasions we need them to estimate quantities over several orders of magnitude (e.g. multiplicative or “by a factor of” estimation) where precision on a log scale is more important than on a linear scale. Providing participants with appropriate cues that indicate which characteristics apply to the problem at hand is important, but we do not want to waste valuable participant cognitive resources on understanding and manipulating the user interface. This first series of experiments will be conducted by 1-2 undergraduate summer researchers and will examine the factorial combination of input range, desired type of precision, and use of different input technologies. We will start with the assessment of segmented scales, unsegmented scales, numerical range inputs that can assess uncertainty, numerical estimates (e.g. typing in 98.7 to a text input field), and direct annotations on charts that we would expect to lessen cognitive load. The new researchers will design scenarios across the different conditions described above (defined range, whole real line, order of magnitude precision, linear precision) and develop simulated data appropriate for testing the different input measures. We will execute the designed experiment and participants will clean, process, visualize, and model the data in order to assess the relative benefits of each input method.

Experiment B2 will examine the impact of question phrasing for comparative judgments and fractional estimation, such as those in [7, 19]. Students will complete an assessment of the different studies which have examined this question and will assemble a list of commonly used methods for assessing comparative

judgments. We will then work together to design and execute an appropriately controlled experiment that allows us to compare the accuracy of these methods on both a raw accuracy scale and using appropriate psychophysical models (e.g. Stephens’ law as used in [19] compared to the corrected log2 midmeans method in [7]).

At least one potential topic for subsequent years’ explorations may include the effect of other cognitive load manipulations (distractions, working memory tasks, etc.) to simulate graphical estimation and decision-making under the more chaotic conditions where we typically use graphics in daily life. Experiment A2 will briefly explore this within the context of lineup studies in an eye tracker, but cognitive loading manipulations are not common in most empirical studies of real-world chart usability and comprehension.

While I have not fully described the implementation details of the two studies which are detailed here, this is primarily because I hope to involve undergraduate and advanced high school students in this research; providing them with the agency to design the studies (within reason) and determine the course of the investigation. This “scaffolded” approach [84] focuses the research process on inquiry and the quest for understanding, and students learn the skills necessary to complete the tasks because they are interested, rather than as a prerequisite to doing an interesting project.

In addition, I anticipate studies B3, B4, and B5 will be designed as outgrowth of the literature review conducted as part of Section 4.4. These summer projects will be inspired by undergraduate research, and designed and implemented by new researchers.

While the studies outlined here are not likely to dramatically change the direction of graphical perception and user testing research over the next decade, when combined with the methodological research in the first aim and the design guideline based research discussed in the next section, this forms a critical part of the foundational research necessary to be able to critically assess historical studies while accounting for their methodological differences. In addition, because this is basic research that is essential to understand in order to interpret conflicting studies, it provides a gentle introduction to the scientific process for new researchers, leveraging a domain that most people find interesting at a basic level (“how do we make decisions?”) in a scientific field that is accessible to almost everyone (data visualization). While this is basic research, it has all of the messiness of the scientific process baked in: the whole goal of these studies is to assist with interpreting conflicting historical results. As such, it not only forms a critical component of the research aims of this project, but also is a critical part of the education plan.

3.4.3 Experimental Evaluation of Design Guidelines The third research aim of this project is to empirically validate common chart design guidelines, measuring the impact of design decisions on task performance. While there is an incredibly large body of design guidelines, we will primarily focus on guidelines which are found across multiple common lists. This component of the project will primarily take place after the multimodal task-based research methods have been evaluated, in part because we want our evaluation of these guidelines to be as nuanced as possible, considering multiple possible user objectives and modes of engagement, as well as different types of users.

I expect that overall, many of the commonly repeated design guidelines will bear up in practice; after all, while some of these guidelines do derive primarily from experience rather than systematic evaluation, practitioners do have the ability to introspect and determine why a particular graph is less effective; this introspection is an important part of the design and evaluation of graphics, but it is also easily affected by personal preferences and individual visual quirks that may not generalize to the wider population. I also expect that there may be some differences between results from a general population and results from neurodiverse sub-populations that we intend to specifically target. While it may be difficult to get sufficient sample size to achieve statistical significance for these effects, I hope that by using a combination of evaluation methods,

as well as both quantitative and qualitative analyses, we can at least identify trouble spots and areas for more precise investigation.

Graphics studies do not often specifically examine subpopulations that are not neurotypical - those with ADHD, visual acuity deficits, or processing disorders such as dyslexia are of particular interest because these issues would be expected to have an impact on the ability to read and make decisions on charts and graphics. In part, this oversight is because it is difficult to obtain a sufficiently large population to test, particularly if it is necessary to also assess the severity of the condition (this is particularly challenging as many people with these disorders do not have a formal diagnosis, so even screening participants recruited from the general population may not be effective).

For all of the studies proposed here, we will test both general populations (either online or by recruiting from the psychology participant pool if eye-tracking methods are required) and neurodiverse subpopulations with conditions like ADHD, dyslexia, or visual impairments.

In **experiment C1**, we will examine guidelines which address the use of a third dimension in statistical graphics through multiple experiments integrated into educational objective 1. In **experiment C2**, we will experimentally evaluate guidelines which address the use of additional annotations beyond those strictly necessary to represent the data (sometimes called ‘chartjunk’), focusing not on completely minimalist graphs, but on the impact of design choices such as dual-encoding that have been hypothesized to provide more visually discriminable signal for all users and better accessibility for users with visual or cognitive impairments [56]. In **experiment C3**, we will examine the effectiveness of different ways to address overplotting, comparing solutions such as alpha-blending, binning, and density estimates to determine which solutions are most appropriate in which contexts and for which user tasks. In **experiment C4**, we will experimentally assess the effect of plot aspect ratio, revisiting the bank to 45° guideline in light of interactive and adjustable modern graphics where the aspect ratio may change at the user’s discretion. In **experiment C5**, we will conduct a series of smaller studies, using multimodal evaluation methods to revisit the relative merits of different representations of the same data (e.g. pie vs. bar, violin plot vs. boxplot vs. beeswarm plot). In **experiment C6**, we will examine guidelines relating to ribbons, stacked bars, and the line-width illusion, looking specifically for users’ awareness (or lack thereof) of the difficulty of estimating these quantities. In **experiment C7**, we will experimentally evaluate guidelines relating to polar transformations, including guidelines recommending against the use of spider or radar charts, pie charts, and circular bar charts.

Through these experiments, we will be able to add to the body of literature empirically assessing design guidelines, specifically contributing studies which address multiple levels of user engagement via multiple measurement methods. One of the potential pitfalls of this evaluation process is the plan to study individuals with visual or cognitive dysfunction: it will be difficult to get a large enough sample size of individuals with these conditions to obtain sufficient statistical power to detect differences from the wider population. We will work with Disability Services to recruit participants who are receiving academic accommodations for conditions expected to impact numeracy, executive function, or visual processing. We will also recruit individuals for online studies using message boards specific to relevant conditions. If we do not have enough power to detect a difference between the subpopulations of interest and the general population, that is still a result; we can examine qualitative responses for any indications of low power and report the fact that we did not see any differences between the two populations, which will allow designers to be less concerned with accessibility along that guideline until different information is published.

4 Education Plan

4.1 Overview

Graphics are a uniquely unassuming method of presenting statistical and scientific information to the public: even individuals with no scientific training can typically read and understand a bar or line chart and use that information to draw conclusions from the data. Immediately after graduating with my Ph.D., I took a position doing data science in the power industry, working with engineers and business analysts to increase their use of available data across the board, from plant sensors to economic projections. Many people I met were intimidated by my statistics background and my Ph.D., but visibly relaxed when I would explain that my expertise was in data visualization; I would strategically omit any mention of my skills in modeling, software development, or data wrangling. Data visualizations are fundamentally less scary than the raw data or statistical models represented in the data visualization, not only to my former coworkers, but more generally. Leveraging this premise, this proposal leverages statistical graphics to facilitate better data-driven decision making through educational activities targeted at undergraduate introductory statistics students, K-12 educators taking graduate courses for continuing education, and data visualization practitioners. Three educational objectives support this goal:

- EO1: Develop and implement experiential learning activities in statistical graphics for undergraduate introductory statistics courses.
- EO2: Create graduate course modules for K-12 educators that connect ongoing research to engaging, hands-on classroom activities for teaching statistics, math, and science.
- EO3: Improve the penetration of visualization research beyond academia by incorporating summaries of empirical studies into resources used by data scientists, industry analysts, and researchers in STEM disciplines.

4.2 Experiential Learning in Statistical Graphics

The first educational objective targets students in undergraduate introductory statistics classes. During past semesters when I have taught these classes, perhaps 20% of students were motivated to learn the material; the remaining students were motivated primarily by finishing the required courses so that they could take courses in their major. At UNL, our introductory courses follow the 2016 ASA GAISE recommendations [85], which emphasize statistical thinking over computations and rote memorization, as well as the importance of hands-on activity-based learning in statistics classes. Even with the incorporation of these guidelines, many students still struggle to make the connection between statistical concepts and the real-world implications when evaluating or designing scientific studies, interpreting data, or thinking critically about claims made in the media. To this end, we will incorporate experiential learning into the introductory statistics courses at UNL by requiring students to participate in empirical statistical graphics research and then reflect on that experience through guided written reflections that encourage students to assess each topic in the course through the lens of participating in an actual experiment. At the end of the course, students will read a 2-page extended abstract submitted as a conference publication and will watch a 15-minute conference presentation recording, allowing them to additionally compare and reflect upon how the results of research are presented in different venues and for different audiences. This component will not only reinforce concepts learned in class [86–88], it will also introduce students to the idea of researching statistical graphics and that not all graphs or charts are equally useful for communicating results. In the first year, we will examine different aspects of 2D and 3D charts; the addition of 3D printed charts means that we cannot conduct this research as easily online, but it also has pedagogical benefits. Subsequent semesters will involve different graphics experiments but we will still prioritize hands-on studies that require in-person participation where possible. The PI and graduate student funded on the project will work together in order to coordinate and implement this objective; pilot

tests of this activity are underway in Summer 2023. We have budgeted for a 3D printer and supplies in order to produce relevant 3D charts to support this research; a bias towards physical charts allows us to require in-person courses to physically show up at office hours and thus reduce the psychological barrier to attending office hours in order to ask questions later in the course. If successful, student written reflections will draw connections between concepts learned in class and the experience of participating in the experiment; students will also critically assess the claims made in the written report and presentation, leveraging their statistical training to question the presented study results and identify limitations of the methodology. The success of this objective will be evaluated through the addition of questions on to the end of course evaluations, as well as through feedback solicited from course instructors. We will also systematically examine student reflections, identifying connections between course concepts and experiment participation as well as critical assessments of scientific claims. We expect to publish this evaluation process in a statistics education journal to contribute to our understanding of the effect of experiential learning activities in statistics education.

4.3 Picture-Book Statistics

The second objective has both a primary and a secondary audience: the primary audience is K-12 teachers taking continuing education credits through the Nebraska Math and Science Summer Institutes (NMSSI), and the secondary audience is their students. Graphics provide a useful way to introduce students to statistical concepts such as regression and hypothesis testing through interactive activities that allow comparison between visual and statistical procedures [56, 59]; as such, graphics are a gentle introduction to statistical concepts that can make STEM subjects less intimidating. I will develop modules for existing ‘special topics’ courses that introduce probabilistic concepts through statistical shoe print forensics and discuss graphical design choices through the lens of perception and science communication. In addition, I will plan, pilot test, and implement a course which leverages visualization to introduce and explore statistical concepts, using statistical lineups and visual statistics to introduce more general theory in a fun, hands-on, and accessible way. I will also develop a course which focuses on mathematical and statistical concepts underlying generative data art: that is, the use of programming and mathematical theory to generate art from data. This course would be designed to target a secondary audience of students who are not interested or are actively intimidated by STEM, but are interested in artistic expression; by working through the desire to create art, we can introduce scientific programming, the collection and use of data, randomization, and mathematical functions[89]; we can connect color theory to perception and discuss the implications for scientific data visualization, and we can emphasize the beauty present in even the messiest data. These courses will be included in the NMSSI summer offerings and will be taught with the assistance of a graduate student; we will both benefit from a greater understanding of the challenges in K-12 education and through the interaction with K-12 educators [90]. If successful, these courses will introduce new mathematical and scientific concepts to K-12 educators, who will take the material learned in these courses and modules and apply it within their classrooms to enrich K-12 students’ education. This objective will be evaluated through course surveys and follow-up surveys which allow us to assess whether the activities in the courses and modules were eventually used in K-12 classrooms and whether the material learned in the course has changed the teacher’s pedagogical approach when teaching adjacent material in class. These surveys can be implemented through NMSSI infrastructure which is already in place.

4.4 Empirical Graphics for Practitioners

The final education objective also has two audiences: the primary audience is individuals who use From-DataToVis and the R or Python graph gallery sites hosted by Yan Holtz. The secondary audience is statistics and data science undergraduate students who will be recruited to serve as research assistants to support this educational objective. These students will systematically catalog and evaluate empirical studies of statistical graphics, enumerating the design space of each study and assessing its conclusions based on the collected

data. In addition, students will also track how previous studies are cited and described in the literature, checking for the tendency to broaden the conclusions of a study in the interests of describing it more concisely. Ultimately, this research will be used to compile short summaries of relevant empirical research about each chart topic; students will then contribute these summaries to the website using pull requests. This project will not only result in better connections between the empirical research and people doing data visualization and analysis, it will also expose undergraduate statistics and data science students to systematic research, develop better scientific communication skills, and emphasize the importance of using good visualization practice. These skills will be valuable whether students take jobs in industry or pursue graduate school in STEM fields.

This objective also connects tightly to research objectives 2 and 3: the systematic literature reviews will be used to provide high school and undergraduate research assistants recruited through the Young Nebraska Scientists (YNS) and Summer Research Programs with options for summer research projects that will assess the impact of measurement methods while providing important context by which to interpret historical research. In addition, the systematic literature review will inform experiments directly assessing design guidelines: by examining not only the experimental results, but how those experiments were interpreted in later studies, we will be able to trace the evolution of design guidelines from very specific experiment interpretations to much more strong, general statements such as “pie charts should never be used”. If successful, this education objective will result in greater contact between practitioners and empirical research; in theory, this should help those practitioners produce better graphics which communicate more clearly with the public. In addition, if successful, undergraduate statistics and data science students will gain an appreciation for principles for good statistical graphics, empirical testing and data analysis, and the complexity of collecting your own data; this is often left out of statistics classes and represents an important gap between statistics and the practice of data science. The impact of this educational objective can be assessed through web-based analytics which will allow us to track how often a page is viewed and how often viewers click on links to empirical studies; while this is far from an ideal metric, it should at least allow us to get a ballpark assessment of whether the research summaries are useful and connect people to relevant empirical research.

4.5 Integration of Research and Education

5 Timeline

6 Broader Impacts

7 Results from Prior NSF Support

	Summer	Fall	Spring	Summer	Fall	Spring	Summer	Fall	Spring	Summer	Fall	Spring	Summer	Fall	Spring	
Multi-method Measurement Validation	A3			A6			A7			A9			Toolkit Dev			
	A1 A2 A3			A4 A5 A6			A7 A8 A9			A10			Pilot Testing			
	A1 A2 A3			A4 A5 A6			A7 A8 A9			A10			Data Collection			
Input Experiments	B1			B2			B3			B4			B5			
Design Guidelines	C1			C2			C3		C4		C5		C6		C7	
Experiential Learning Reflections	3D printed graphs			Chartjunk			Overplotting			Categorical Charts			Polar Coords			
NMSSI Courses and Modules	Hands-on, Shoes off Statistics			Analyzing Data Visually			Analyzing Data Visually			Data Art			Data Art			
Design Guideline Evaluation	numeric vars			categorical vars			categorical- numeric combinations			spatiotemporal			networks			

Figure 7: Timeline of planned activities and experiments.

References

1. Cairo A (2016) The truthful art: Data, charts, and maps for communication.
2. Cairo A (2019) How charts lie: Getting smarter about visual information.
3. Huff D (1954) How to lie with statistics.
4. Croxton FE, Stryker RE (1927) Bar Charts Versus Circle Diagrams. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 22(160):473–482. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2276829>
5. Eells WC (1926) The Relative Merits of Circles and Bars for Representing Component Parts. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 21(154):119–132. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2277140>
6. Wickham H (2013) Graphical criticism: Some historical notes. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, 22(1):38–44. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10618600.2012.761140>
7. Cleveland WS, McGill R (1984) Graphical perception: Theory, experimentation, and application to the development of graphical methods. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 79(387):531–554. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01621459.1984.10478080>
8. Mackinlay J (1986) Automating the design of graphical presentations of relational information. *ACM Transactions on Graphics*, 5(2):110–141. <https://doi.org/10.1145/22949.22950>
9. Franconeri SL, Padilla LM, Shah P, Zacks JM, Hullman J (2021) The science of visual data communication: What works. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 22(3):110–161. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15291006211051956>
10. Lu M, Lanir J, Wang C, Yao Y, Zhang W, Deussen O, Huang H (2022) Modeling Just Noticeable Differences in Charts. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 28(1):718–726. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2021.3114874>
11. Rensink RA, Baldridge G (2010) The Perception of Correlation in Scatterplots. *Computer Graphics Forum*, 29(3):1203–1210. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8659.2009.01694.x>
12. Borkin MA, Bylinskii Z, Kim NW, Bainbridge CM, Yeh CS, Borkin D, Pfister H, Oliva A (2016) Beyond memorability: Visualization recognition and recall. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 22(1):519–528. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2015.2467732>
13. Keller C, Siegrist M (2009) Effect of Risk Communication Formats on Risk Perception Depending on Numeracy. *Medical Decision Making*, 29(4):483–490. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0272989x09333122>
14. Abdul-Rahman A, Chen M, Laidlaw DH (2020) A survey of variables used in empirical studies for visualization. *Foundations of data visualization*, :161–179. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-34444-3_7
15. Bolte F, Bruckner S (2020) Measures in visualization space. *Foundations of data visualization*, :39–59. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-34444-3_3
16. Hullman J, Qiao X, Correll M, Kale A, Kay M (2019) In Pursuit of Error: A Survey of Uncertainty Visualization Evaluation. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 25(1):903–913. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2018.2864889>
17. Shneiderman B (1996) The eyes have it: A task by data type taxonomy for information visualizations. *Proceedings 1996 IEEE Symposium on Visual Languages*, :336–343. <https://doi.org/10.1109/VL.1996.545307>
18. Carswell CM (1992) Choosing specifiers: An evaluation of the basic tasks model of graphical perception. *Human factors*, 34(5):535–554. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872089203400503>
19. Spence I (1990) Visual psychophysics of simple graphical elements. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 16:683–692. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-1523.16.4.683>
20. Vanderplas S, Cook D, Hofmann H (2020) Testing statistical charts: What makes a good graph? *Annual Review of Statistics and Its Application*, 7(1):61–88. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-statistics-031219-041252>
21. Tufte E (2001) The visual display of quantitative information.

22. Kelly JD (1988) The Data-Ink Ratio and Accuracy of Information Derived from Newspaper Graphs: An Experimental Test of the Theory. *Visual Communication Division of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication*,
23. Gillan DJ, Richman EH (1994) Minimalism and the Syntax of Graphs. *Human Factors*, 36(4):619–644. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872089403600405>
24. Gillan D, Sorensen D (2009) Minimalism and the Syntax of Graphs: II. Effects of Graph Backgrounds on Visual Search. *Human Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting Proceedings*, 53:1096–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1518/107118109X12524443344998>
25. Ajani K, Lee E, Xiong C, Knafllic CN, Kemper W, Franconeri S (2022) Declutter and Focus: Empirically Evaluating Design Guidelines for Effective Data Communication. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 28(10):3351–3364. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2021.3068337>
26. Bertini E, Correll M, Franconeri S (2020) Why Shouldn't All Charts Be Scatter Plots? Beyond Precision-Driven Visualizations. *2020 IEEE Visualization Conference (VIS)*, :206–210. <https://doi.org/10.1109/VIS47514.2020.00048>
27. Gelman A, Wainer H, Briggs WM, Friendly M, Kwan E, Wills G (2011) Why Tables Are Really Much Better Than Graphs [with Comments and Rejoinder]. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, 20(1):3–40. <https://doi.org/10.1198/jcgs.2011.09166>
28. Hullman J, Adar E, Shah P (2011) Benefitting InfoVis with Visual Difficulties. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 17(12):2213–2222. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2011.175>
29. Lam H, Bertini E, Isenberg P, Plaisant C, Carpendale S (2012) Empirical Studies in Information Visualization: Seven Scenarios. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 18(9):1520–1536. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2011.279>
30. Ruud PA, Schunk D, Winter JK (2014) Uncertainty causes rounding: An experimental study. *Experimental Economics*, 17(3):391–413. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10683-013-9374-8>
31. Honda H, Kagawa R, Shirasuna M (2022) On the round number bias and wisdom of crowds in different response formats for numerical estimation. *Scientific Reports*, 12(1):8167. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-11900-7>
32. Wang B, Wertelecki W (2013) Density estimation for data with rounding errors. *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis*, 65:4–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csda.2012.02.016>
33. Thomas M, Kyung EJ (2019) Slider Scale or Text Box: How Response Format Shapes Responses. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 45(6):1274–1293. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jcr/ucy057>
34. Liu M, Conrad FG (2019) Where Should I Start? On Default Values for Slider Questions in Web Surveys. *Social Science Computer Review*, 37(2):248–269. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894439318755336>
35. Funke F (2016) A Web Experiment Showing Negative Effects of Slider Scales Compared to Visual Analogue Scales and Radio Button Scales. *Social Science Computer Review*, 34(2):244–254. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894439315575477>
36. DeCastellarnau A (2018) A classification of response scale characteristics that affect data quality: A literature review. *Quality & Quantity*, 52(4):1523–1559. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0533-4>
37. Couper MP, Tourangeau R, Conrad FG, Singer E (2006) Evaluating the Effectiveness of Visual Analog Scales: A Web Experiment. *Social Science Computer Review*, 24(2):227–245. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894439305281503>
38. (1915) Joint committee on standards for graphic presentation. *Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association*, 14(112):790–797. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15225445.1915.10503668>
39. Brewer CA (1994) Guidelines for use of the perceptual dimensions of color for mapping and visualization. *Color hard copy and graphic arts III*, 2171:54–63. <https://doi.org/10.1117/12.175328>
40. Kosslyn SM (2006) Graph design for the eye and mind.
41. Kelleher C, Wagener T (2011) Ten guidelines for effective data visualization in scientific publications. *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 26(6):822–827. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2010.12.006>

42. Craft B, Cairns P (2005) Beyond guidelines: What can we learn from the visual information seeking mantra? *Ninth International Conference on Information Visualisation (IV'05)*, :110–118. <https://doi.org/10.1109/IV.2005.28>
43. Carr DA (1999) Guidelines for Designing Information Visualization Applications. *Proceedings of the 1999 Ericsson Conference on Usability Engineering*,
44. Munzner T (2014) Visualization Analysis and Design. <https://doi.org/10.1201/b17511>
45. Munzner T (2009) A nested model for visualization design and validation. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 15, 6:921–928. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2009.111>
46. Brehmer M, Munzner T (2013) A multi-level typology of abstract visualization tasks. *IEEE transactions on visualization and computer graphics*, 19(12):2376–2385. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2013.124>
47. Card SK, Mackinlay J (1997) The structure of the information visualization design space. *Proceedings of VIZ '97: Visualization Conference, Information Visualization Symposium and Parallel Rendering Symposium*, :92–99,. <https://doi.org/10.1109/INFVIS.1997.636792>
48. Steele J, Iliinsky N (2010) Beautiful visualization: Looking at data through the eyes of experts.
49. Yau N (2013) Data points: Visualization that means something.
50. Wong DM (2010) The wall street journal guide to information graphics: The dos and don'ts of presenting data, facts, and figures.
51. Kandogan E, Lee H (2016) A Grounded Theory Study on the Language of Data Visualization Principles and Guidelines. *Electronic Imaging*, 28:1–9. <https://doi.org/10.2352/ISSN.2470-1173.2016.16.HVEI-132>
52. Cheng D, Xiao Q, Chen Q, Cui J, Zhou X (2018) Dyslexia and dyscalculia are characterized by common visual perception deficits. *Developmental Neuropsychology*, 43:497–507. <https://doi.org/10.1080/87565641.2018.1481068>
53. Chity N, Harvey J, Quadri S, Pete S, Stein S (2012) Thinking Differently. Assistive Technology as a Complement to the Learning Style of Post-Secondary Students with ADHD: Recommendations for Design Opportunities.
54. Hokken MJ, Krabbendam E, van der Zee YJ, Kooiker MJG (2023) Visual selective attention and visual search performance in children with CVI, ADHD, and Dyslexia: A scoping review. *Child Neuropsychology*, 29(3):357–390. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09297049.2022.2057940>
55. Bako HK, Liu X, Battle L, Liu Z (2023) Understanding how Designers Find and Use Data Visualization Examples. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 29(1):1048–1058. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2022.3209490>
56. VanderPlas S, Hofmann H (2017) Clusters Beat Trend!? Testing Feature Hierarchy in Statistical Graphics. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, 26(2):231–242. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10618600.2016.1209116>
57. Kimball AW (1957) Errors of the Third Kind in Statistical Consulting. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 52(278):133–142. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01621459.1957.10501374>
58. Mosteller F, Siegel AF, Trapido E, Youtz C (1981) Eye Fitting Straight Lines. *The American Statistician*, 35(3):150–152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00031305.1981.10479335>
59. Robinson EA, Howard R, VanderPlas S (2022) Eye Fitting Straight Lines in the Modern Era. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, 0(0):1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10618600.2022.2140668>
60. Robinson EA, Howard R, VanderPlas S (2023) “You Draw It”: Implementation of Visually Fitted Trends with R2d3. *Journal of Data Science*, 21(2):281–294. <https://doi.org/10.6339/22-JDS1083>
61. Robinson EA (2022) Human Perception of Exponentially Increasing Data Displayed on a Log Scale Evaluated Through Experimental Graphics Tasks.
62. Murdoch D, Adler D (2023) Rgl: 3D visualization using OpenGL.
63. Marius Kintel (2023) OpenSCAD documentation. OpenSCAD. <https://openscad.org/documentation.html>

64. VanderPlas S, Hofmann H (2015) Signs of the sine illusion—why we need to care. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, 24(4):1170–1190. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10618600.2014.951547>
65. Hofmann H, Vendettuoli M (2013) Common angle plots as perception-true visualizations of categorical associations. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization & Computer Graphics*, (12):2297–2305. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2013.140>
66. Guan Z, Lee S, Cuddihy E, Ramey J (2006) The validity of the stimulated retrospective think-aloud method as measured by eye tracking. *Proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on Human Factors in computing systems - CHI '06*, :1253. <https://doi.org/10.1145/1124772.1124961>
67. Kulhavy, Pridemore, Stock (1992) Cartographic Experience and Thinking Aloud about Thematic Maps. *Cartographica*, 29(1):1–9. <https://doi.org/10.3138/H61J-VX35-J6WW-8111>
68. Ratwani RM, Trafton JG, Boehm-Davis DA (2008) Thinking graphically: Connecting vision and cognition during graph comprehension. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied*, 14(1):36. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-898X.14.1.36>
69. Hofmann H, Follett L, Majumder M, Cook D (2012) Graphical tests for power comparison of competing designs. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 18(12):2441–2448. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2012.230>
70. Loy A, Follett L, Hofmann H (2016) Variations of Q-Q Plots: The Power of Our Eyes! *The American Statistician*, 70(2):202–214. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00031305.2015.1077728>
71. Majumder M, Hofmann H, Cook D (2013) Validation of visual statistical inference, applied to linear models. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 108(503):942–956. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01621459.2013.808157>
72. Yifan Zhao, Cook D, Hofmann H, Majumder M, Chowdhury NR (2013) Mind Reading: Using an Eye-Tracker to See How People are Looking at Lineups. *International Journal of Intelligent Technologies & Applied Statistics*, 6(4):393–413. <https://doi.org/10.6148/IJITAS.2013.0604.05>
73. Hullman J, Gelman A (2021) Designing for Interactive Exploratory Data Analysis Requires Theories of Graphical Inference. *Harvard Data Science Review*, <https://doi.org/10.1162/99608f92.3ab8a587>
74. Cook D, Reid N, Tanaka E (2021) The Foundation is Available for Thinking about Data Visualization Inferentially. *Harvard Data Science Review*, <https://doi.org/10.1162/99608f92.8453435d>
75. VanderPlas S (2021) Designing Graphics Requires Useful Experimental Testing Frameworks and Graphics Derived From Empirical Results. *Harvard Data Science Review*, 3(3)<https://doi.org/10.1162/99608f92.7d099fd0>
76. Hannun A, Case C, Casper J, Catanzaro B, Diamos G, Elsen E, Prenger R, Satheesh S, Sengupta S, Coates A, Ng AY (2014) Deep Speech: Scaling up end-to-end speech recognition. <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1412.5567>
77. da Silva Franco RY, Santos do Amor Divino Lima R, Monte Paixão R do, Resque dos Santos CG, Serique Meiguins B (2019) UXmood—A Sentiment Analysis and Information Visualization Tool to Support the Evaluation of Usability and User Experience. *Information*, 10(12):366. <https://doi.org/10.3390/info10120366>
78. Chang W, Cheng J, Allaire J, Sievert C, Schloerke B, Xie Y, Allen J, McPherson J, Dipert A, Borges B (2022) Shiny: Web application framework for r. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=shiny>
79. Posit PBC (2023) Shiny for Python. *Shiny for Python*,
80. R Core Team (2023) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. <https://www.R-project.org/>
81. Van Rossum G, Drake FL (2009) Python 3 reference manual.
82. Hofman JM, Goldstein DG, Hullman J (2020) How Visualizing Inferential Uncertainty Can Mislead Readers About Treatment Effects in Scientific Results. *Proceedings of the 2020 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, :1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3313831.3376454>
83. Sievert C (2020) Interactive web-based data visualization with r, plotly, and shiny. <https://plotly-r.com>

84. Perrella A, Dam H, Martin L, MacLachlan JC, Fenton N (2020) Between Culture and Curricula: Exploring Student and Faculty Experiences of Undergraduate Research and Inquiry. *Teaching & Learning Inquiry*, 8(2):90–113. <https://doi.org/10.20343/teachlearning.8.2.7>
85. GAISE College Report ASA Revision Committee (2016) Guidelines for Assessment and Instruction in Statistics Education (GAISE) College Report 2016.
86. Rogers RR (2001) Reflection in Higher Education: A Concept Analysis. *Innovative Higher Education*, 26(1):37–57. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1010986404527>
87. King T Development of Student Skills in Reflective Writing.
88. Moussa-Inaty J (2015) Reflective writing through the use of guiding questions. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 27(1):104–113.
89. Newman G (2017) How might Generative Art be a Proposition for Cross Curricular Learning in Schools. *Electronic Visualisation and the Arts (EVA 2017)*, <https://doi.org/10.14236/ewic/EVA2017.29>
90. Knowlton S, Fogleman J, Reichsman F, de Oliveira G (2015) Higher Education Faculty Collaboration With K-12 Teachers as a Professional Development Experience for Faculty. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 44(4):46–53. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/43631864>