For 20 years Constantine Anderson refined this precise axonometric projection of midtown New York (shown here are Rockefeller Center environs), following the tradition of the classic 1739 Bretez-Turgot Plan de Paris (at left, the area around Pont Neuf and Notre Dame, from the 11th of 20 sheets). The Manhattan map embraces such fine points as individual windows, subway stations and bus shelters, telephone booths, building canopies, trees, and sidewalk planters. And the typography is persistently thorough; the entire map (60 by 92 centimeters, or 24 by 36 inches) reports 1,686 names of buildings, stores, and parks along with 657 specific streetaddresses — fora map, an abundant typographic density of 3 characters per square centimeter (20 per square inch). The only major concession to paper flatland is widening of the map's streets to reduce masking of some buildings by others.

This fine texture of exquisite detail leads to personal micro-readings, individual stories about the data: shops visited, hotels stayed at, walks taken, office windows at a floor worked on — all in the extended context of an entire building, street, and neighborhood. Detail cumulates into larger coherent structures; those thousands of tiny windows, when seen at a distance, gray into surfaces to form a whole building. Simplicity of reading derives from the context of detailed and complex information, properly arranged. A most unconventional design strategy is revealed: to clarify, add detail.

Michel Etienne Turgot and Louis Bretez, Plan de Paris (Paris, 1739), plate II. Above, The Isometric Map of Midtown Manhattan, © 1989 The Manhattan Map Company. All rights reserved.

1 Italo Calvino's Invisible Cities (San Diego, 1974) records this texture of storied detail: cities are "relationships between the measurements of its space and the events of its past; the height of a lamp-post and the distance from the ground of a hanged usurper's swaying feet; the line strung from the lamp-post to the railing opposite and the festoons that decorate the course of the queen's nuptial procession; the height of that railing and the leap of the adulterer who climbed over it at dawn; the tilt of a guttering cat's progress along it as he slips into the same window; the firing range of a gunboat which has suddenly appeared beyond the cape and the bomb that destroys the guttering; the rips in the fish-net and the three old men seated on the dock mending nets and telling each other for the hundredth time the story of the gunboat of the usurper, who some say was the queen's illegitimate son, abandoned in his swaddling clothes there on the dock." On Calvino and maps, see a fine essay by Marc Treib, "Mapping Experience," Design Quarterly, 115 (1980).
A high-resolution aerial photograph of Senlis, one of the oldest cities in France (construction started on this Notre Dame cathedral in 1153), arrays micro-details mixing into overall pattern. Encircling Senlis was once a broad strip of Gallo-Roman fortification, now replaced by houses, arranged by the memory of the old town's plan. Such intensity of detail is routinely reported in photographs, so much data that digitizing these images for computers requires $10^6$ to $10^8$ bits.

Micro/macro composition also oversees this celebrated 1930 poster composed by the Soviet graphic artist Gustav Klutsis. The design and political point correspond—as the poster shows and also writes out, from collaborative work of many hands, one great plan will be fulfilled.

At work here is a critical and effective principle of information design. Panorama, vista, and prospect deliver to viewers the freedom of choice that derives from an overview, a capacity to compare and sort through detail. And that micro-information, like smaller texture in landscape perception, provides a credible refuge where the pace of visualization is condensed, slowed, and personalized. These visual experiences are universal, rooted in human information-processing capacities and in the abundance and intricacy of everyday perceptions. Thus the power of micro/macro designs holds for every type of data display as well as for topographic views and landscape panoramas. Such designs can report immense detail, organizing complexity through multiple and (often) hierarchical layers of contextual reading.

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These multi-layered graphs report a clouded relationship between temperature and conductivity for various elements, as measured by many different laboratories. Each set of connected points comes from a single publication, cited by an identification number. Note how easily these displays organize the material, recording observations from several hundred studies and also enforcing comparisons among quite divergent results (this is science?) scattered around the correct curve, a solid line labeled RECOMMENDED. Since both scales are logarithmic, cycling through 3.5 to 6 orders of magnitude, deviations from the recommended curve are often quite substantial. In this micro/macro arrangement, 4 layers of data are placed in evidence — individual points measured within each study, connected curves formed by those results, and, finally, an overall conglomeration of curves (which are compared with the standard).

Still another slice of data can be added. A number, linked to an alphabetical list ordered by author's name, now identifies each published paper. A better method is to order the list by the date of publication; then the numerical codes correspond to the sequence of findings — for example, 61c indicates the third paper published in 1961. This graphical indexing depicts which study first had the right answer, and movement toward the correct curve can be tracked over the years.

These extraordinary statistical maps report data for thousands of tiny grid squares (1 km on a side). Below, a map of Tokyo shows population density; note smaller concentrations dotting the tracks radiating from the city, as people cluster along rail lines and station stops. At this level of detail, residents can find their own particular square and also see it in a broader context. The map at right records the proportion of children living at each location, with a systematic pattern of lower percentages in central Tokyo (where space is limited and costly) and a suburban ring teeming — relatively — with children. A bright idea lies behind these grid-square or mesh maps. Conventional blot maps (choropleth maps,
in the jargon) paint over areas formed by *given* geographic or political boundaries. The consequences are (1) sizes of areas are non-uniform, (2) colored-in areas are proportional to (often nearly empty) land areas instead of the activities depicted, with large unpopulated areas often receiving greatest visual emphasis, and (3) historical changes in political boundaries disrupt continuity of statistical comparisons.³ Mesh maps finesse these problems. For these maps, the whole country of Japan was divided up in 379,000 equal-sized units and then, in a heroic endeavor, census data and addresses were collated to match the new grid squares. Arbitrary but statistically wise boundaries now cradle the micro-data.

THE Vietnam Veterans Memorial in Washington, D.C. achieves its visual and emotional strength by means of micro/macro design. From a distance the entire collection of names of 58,000 dead soldiers arrayed on the black granite yields a visual measure of what 58,000 means, as the letters of each name blur into a gray shape, cumulating to the final toll. When a viewer approaches, these shapes resolve into individual names. Some of the living seek the name of one particular soldier in a personal micro-reading; more than a few visitors here touch the etched, textured names. We focus on the tragic information; absent are the big porticoes, steps and stairs, and other marble paraphernalia usually attached to grand official monuments. Walking on a slight grade downward (approaching from either side), our first close reading is of panels no higher than a few names. But looking forward, the visitor sees names of the dead rising higher and higher, a statistical blur of marks in the distance with micro-detail at hand. The context is enlarged by calm reflections off polished black granite, reflections of the living and of trees, and, at a distance, of the Lincoln and Washington memorials toward which the walls angle.

An additional data dimension comes from the ordering of names. The memorial’s designer, Maya Ying Lin, proposed that names be listed by date of death rather than alphabetically:

... chronological listing was essential to her design. War veterans would find their story told, and their friends remembered, in the panel that corresponded with their tour of duty in Vietnam. Locating specific names with the aid of a directory would be like finding bodies on a battlefield. ... Some initially disagreed. If 58,000 names were scattered along the wall, anyone looking for a specific name would wander around for hours and then leave in frustration. One solution seemed obvious: list everyone in alphabetical order. ... But when a two-inch-thick Defense Department listing of Vietnam casualties was examined, thinking changed. There were over 600 Smiths; 16 people named James Jones had died in Vietnam. Alphabetical listing would make the Memorial look like a telephone book engraved in granite, destroying the sense of unique loss that each name carried. ...  

4 Jan C. Scruggs and Joel L. Swedlow, To Heal a Nation: The Vietnam Veterans Memorial (New York, 1985), pp. 78-79.

Vietnam Veterans Memorial, Directory of Names (Washington, D.C., 1985). Shown here is an excerpt from the finder, a large book recording the name, rank, service, birthdate, deathdate, home town, and panel and line number locating each name on the stone memorial.
Thus the names on stone triple-function: to memorialize each person who died, to make a mark adding up the total, and to indicate sequence and approximate date of death. A directory-book alphabetically lists all the names and serves as a finder, pointing viewers to the location of a single engraved name.

The spirit of the individual created by the wall — both of each death and of each viewer personally editing — decisively affects how we see other visitors. The busloads of tourists appear not so much as crowds but rather as many separate individual faces, not as interruptions at an architectural performance but rather as our colleagues.\(^5\)

GRAPHICAL timetables also exemplify the multiplicity and wholeness of micro/macro design. Described here is the overall structure of a railroad system, as the individual lines aggregate into systematic patterns. This computer-graphical timetable shown here governs Japanese high-speed trains, or Shinkansen. Station stops are plotted down the side of the grid; time of day runs across the top; diagonal lines show the space-time path of each train. The Tokyo control-room directing these high-speed trains is filled with these graphical timetables, long paper strips used to help oversee thousands of journeys each day — a task which makes clear the enormous advantages of seeing information rather than tabulating data. Similar charts are also used for planning new schedules, with different interest groups negotiating where a train should stop and the frequency of service as they design a graphical timetable.  

6 Hiroaki Shigehara, Ressha Daiya [Train Diagram] (Tokyo, 1983). An enchanting story of graphical-timetable design is told by Hideo Ohki, "Transportation of Professional Baseball Spectators by Seibu Railways," Japanese Railway Engineering, 19 (1979), 19-23, describing a small railway serving baseball spectators. Considerations include irregular length of games, and spectators leaving early in event of a runaway. Railway workers monitor the game on television in order to adjust dynamically the train graph (as it is called, in a logic so visual that the graph entirely replaces entailed times).

Operation diagram for 12:00 noon, July 25, 1985, Tokaido and Sanyo Shinkansen Lines (bullet train), Japanese National Railroad control room, Tokyo.

[Diagram image]
Stem-and-leaf plots of statistical analysis also rely on micro/macro design. Each data point simultaneously states its value and fills a space representing one counted unit, like the names on the Vietnam Veterans Memorial, with those spaces in turn assembling to form a profile of the overall univariate distribution. Envisioned here are the heights of 218 volcanoes; each individual number helps to build the histogram. Micro-data has replaced the information-empty bars of a traditional barchart. This idea of making each graphical element repeatedly effective animated design of the stem-and-leaf plot. In describing his invention, John Tukey wrote: "If we are going to make a mark, it may as well be a meaningful one. The simplest — and most useful — meaningful mark is a digit."

In a similar fashion, this train schedule below positions the individual departure times so that they add up to a frequency distribution. For trains that run often, leading hour-digits need not be repeated over and over, and, instead, minutes can be stacked:


Keihin Express Line at Yokohama Station, Sagami Tetsudo Company, 1985 timetable, p. 76. Encodings indicate types of trains (super express, commuter, and so on) and various local stops.
Reported is the overall time distribution of 292 daily trains, with peaks during morning and evening rush hours. The shrewd design saves 777 characters, avoiding this typographical extravaganza below, which lacks the intensive annotation of the stem-and-leaf original and also fails to provide clear testimony about frequency of train service by hour.\(^8\)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccc}
\end{array}
\]

\(^8\) The stem-and-leaf schedule contains 619 numbers; the typographic version 1,396 numbers and periods. Thus the stem-and-leaf schedule saves 777 characters, and, more importantly, gives a much better sense of comparison of train times.

In all these micro/macro designs, the same ink serves more than one informational purpose; graphical elements are multifunctioning. This suggests a missed opportunity in the stem-and-leaf timetable — surely leaves of numbers can grow from both sides of a central stem. And so it is; the finely detailed timetable below records trains running in several directions from the station, with the platforms 7-8 at left and platforms 5-6 at right (at the arrows, note how numbers serpentine around a bend when times for the morning rush hour exceed the grid). Sometimes this arrangement is called a "back to back stem and leaf plot." Nonetheless, Japanese train passengers have managed to use the schedules for decades without ever knowing the fancy name.

Tokaido Line at Yokohama Station, Sagami Tetsudo Company, 1985 timetable, p. 72.
Each at least as big as this drawing of the earth, some 7,000 pieces of space debris — operating and dead satellites, explosion fragments from rocket engines, garbage bags and frozen sewage dumped by astronauts, shrapnel from antisatellite weapons tests, 34 nuclear reactors and their fuel cores, an escaped wrench and a toothbrush — now orbit our world. Only about 5 percent are working satellites. By means of extraordinary data recording and analysis, military computers identify and then track each of these 7,000 objects (>10 cm in diameter), in order to differentiate the debris from a missile attack, for which we may be thankful. Space is not totally self-cleaning; some of the stuff will be up there for centuries, endangering people and satellites working in space as well as inducing spurious astronomical observations. The risk of a damaging collision is perhaps 1 in 500 during several years in orbit. The volume of debris has doubled about every 5 years; future testing of space weapons will accelerate the trashing of space.⁹

The consequences (as of 0:00 hours Universal time, July 1, 1987) are shown in these phenomenal and disheartening micro/macro images, as a multiplicity of 7,000 dots adds to the overall pattern of orbital pollution. Most of the debris is relatively close to earth; a more distant view shows a ring formed by geosynchronous satellites. Not shown are some 50,000 smaller objects (size between 1 cm and 10 cm), as well as 10 billion to 100 billion paint chips now in orbit.

Nearly all micro/macro designs of this chapter have portrayed large quantities of data at high densities, up to thousands of bits per square centimeter and 20 million bits per page, pushing the limits of printing technology. Such quantities are thoroughly familiar, although hardly noticed: the human eye registers 150 million bits, the 35 mm slide some 25 million bits, conventional large-scale topographic maps up to 150 million bits, the color screen of a small personal computer 8 million bits. Typographic densities are also substantial; a few reference books report 28,000 characters per page, books on non-fiction best-seller lists from 5,000 to 15,000 characters per page, and the world's telephone books run between 10,000 and 18,000 characters per page. Statistical graphics and other information displays should do so well.
We thrive in information-thick worlds because of our marvelous and everyday capacities to select, edit, single out, structure, highlight, group, pair, merge, harmonize, synthesize, focus, organize, condense, reduce, boil down, choose, categorize, catalog, classify, list, abstract, scan, look into, idealize, isolate, discriminate, distinguish, screen, pigeonhole, pick over, sort, integrate, blend, inspect, filter, lump, skip, smooth, chunk, average, approximate, cluster, aggregate, outline, summarize, itemize, review, dip into, flip through, browse, glance into, leaf through, skim, refine, enumerate, glean, synopsize, winnow the wheat from the chaff, and separate the sheep from the goats.

Visual displays rich with data are not only an appropriate and proper complement to human capabilities, but also such designs are frequently optimal. If the visual task is contrast, comparison, and choice — asso often it is — then the more relevant information within eyespan, the better. Vacant, low-density displays, the dreaded posterization of data spread over pages and pages, require viewers to rely on visual memory — a weak skill — to make a contrast, a comparison, a choice.\(^{10}\)

Micro/macro designs enforce both local and global comparisons and, at the same time, avoid the disruption of context switching. All told, exactly what is needed for reasoning about information.\(^{11}\)

High-density designs also allow viewers to select, to narrate, to recast and personalize data for their own uses. Thus control of information is given over to viewers, not to editors, designers, or decorators. Data-thin, forgetful displays move viewers toward ignorance and passivity, and at the same time diminish the credibility of the source. Thin data rightly prompts suspicions: "What are they leaving out? Is that really everything they know? What are they hiding? Is that all they did?" Now and then it is claimed that vacant space is "friendly" (anthropomorphizing an inherently murky idea) but it is not how much empty space there is, but rather how it is used. It is not how much information there is, but rather how effectively it is arranged.

Showing complexity is hard work. Detailed micro/macro designs are difficult to produce, imposing substantial costs for data collection, illustration, custom computing, image processing, production, and fine printing — expenses similar to that of first-class cartography (which, in the main, can be financed only by governments). The conventional economies of declining costs for each additional data bit will usually be offset by a proliferation of elaborate complexities provoked by the interacting graphical elements. Still, a single high-density page can replace twenty scattered posterizations, with a possible savings when total expenses are assessed (data collection and analysis, design, paper, production, printing, binding, warehousing, and shipping). And our readers might keep that one really informative piece of paper, although they will surely discard those twenty posterizations.

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\(^{10}\) The posterization at left hardly shows the changing moon phases; at right, however, a sequence of 78 little images provides a good sense of dynamics, comparison, and context. Similarly, it is suggested that in viewing X-ray films to "search a reduced image so that the whole display can be perceived on at least one occasion without large eye movement." Edward Llewellyn Thomas, "Advice to the Searcher or What Do We Tell Them?" in Richard A. Monty and John W. Senders, eds., Eye Movements and Psychological Processes (Hilldale, New Jersey, 1976), p. 349.

\(^{11}\) In user interfaces for computers, a problem undermining information exchange between human and software is "constant context switches. By this we mean that the user is not presented with one basic display format and one uniform style of interaction, but instead, with frequent changes: A scatterplot is present; it goes away, and is replaced by a menu; the menu goes away, and is replaced by the scatterplot; and so on. While the menu is present, the user cannot see the scatterplot, and vice versa. This means that users constantly have to adjust to a changing visual environment rather than focusing on the data. The user is also forced to remember things seen in one view so that he or she can use the other view effectively. This means that the user's short-term memory is occupied with the incidents rather than with the significant issues of analysis." Andrew W. Donoho, David L. Donoho, and Miriam Gasko, "MacSpin: Dynamic Graphics on a Desktop Computer." Computer Graphics & Applications (July 1988), p. 58.
What about confusing clutter? Information overload? Doesn't data have to be "boiled down" and "simplified"? These common questions miss the point, for the quantity of detail is an issue completely separate from the difficulty of reading. Clutter and confusion are failures of design, not attributes of information. Often the less complex and less subtle the line, the more ambiguous and less interesting is the reading. Stripping the detail out of data is a style based on personal preference and fashion, considerations utterly indifferent to substantive content. What Josef Albers wrote about typography is true for information design:

The concept that "the simpler the form of a letter the simpler its reading" was an obsession of beginning constructivism. It became something like a dogma, and is still followed by "modernistic" typographers.

This notion has proved to be wrong, because in reading we do not read letters but words, words as a whole, as a "word picture." Ophthalmology has disclosed that the more the letters are differentiated from each other, the easier is the reading.

Without going into comparisons and the details, it should be realized that words consisting of only capital letters present the most difficult reading — because of their equal height, equal volume, and, with most, their equal width. When comparing serif letters with sans-serif, the latter provide an uneasy reading. The fashionable preference for sans-serif in text shows neither historical nor practical competence.12

So much for the conventional, facile, and false equation: simpleness of data and design = clarity of reading. Simplesness is another aesthetic preference, not an information display strategy, not a guide to clarity. What we seek instead is a rich texture of data, a comparative context, an understanding of complexity revealed with an economy of means.

Robert Venturi opens his Complexity and Contradiction in Architecture with a broad extension of Albers' point:

I like complexity and contradicion in architecture.... I speak of a complex and contradictory architecture based on the richness and ambiguity of modern experience, including that experience which is inherent in art. Everywhere, except in architecture, complexity and contradiction have been acknowledged, from Godel's proof of inconsistency in mathematics to T. S. Eliot's analysis of "difficult" poetry and Joseph Albers' definition of the paradoxical quality of painting.... Architects can no longer afford to be intimidated by the puritanically moral language of orthodox Modern architecture .... an architecture of complexity and contradiction has a special obligation toward the whole: its truth must be in its totality or its implications of totality. It must embody the difficult unity of inclusion rather than the easy unity of exclusion. . . . Where simplicity cannot work, simpleness results. Blatant simplification means bland architecture. Less is a bore.13

But, finally, the deepest reason for displays that portray complexity and intricacy is that the worlds we seek to understand are complex and intricate. "God is in the details," said Mies van der Rohe, capturing the essential quality of micro/macro performances.


3 Layering and Separation

CONFUSION and clutter are failures of design, not attributes of information. And so the point is to find design strategies that reveal detail and complexity — rather than to fault the data for an excess of complication. Or, worse, to fault viewers for a lack of understanding. Among the most powerful devices for reducing noise and enriching the content of displays is the technique of layering and separation, visually stratifying various aspects of the data.

Effective layering of information is often difficult; for every excellent performance, a hundred clunky spectacles arise. An omnipresent, yet subtle, design issue is involved: the various elements collected together on flatland interact, creating non-information patterns and texture simply through their combined presence. Josef Albers described this visual effect as $1 + 1 = 3$ or more, when two elements show themselves along with assorted incidental by-products of their partnership — occasionally a basis for pleasing aesthetic effects but always a continuing danger to data exhibits.¹ Such patterns become dynamically obtrusive when our displays leave the relative constancy of paper and move to the changing video flatland of computer terminals. There, all sorts of unplanned and lushly cluttered interacting combinations turn up, with changing layers of information arrayed in miscellaneous windows surrounded by a frame of system commands and other computer administrative debris.

Above left a second color annotates the brush strokes of the calligrapher, Uboku Nishitani. By creating a distinct layer, the red commentary maintains detail, coherence, and serenity, in a crisp precision side-by-side with a gestural and expressive black line in this marriage of color and information. The saturated quality of the red partially offsets its lighter value and finer line (appropriate to meticulous annotation). Alone, each color makes a strong statement; together, a stronger one.


Similarly, color effortlessly differentiates between annotation and annotated, in this skillful industrial-strength diagram separating 300 small parts and their identifying numbers.

What matters—inevitably, unrelentingly—is the proper relationship among information layers. These visual relationships must be in relevant proportion and in harmony to the substance of the ideas, evidence, and data conveyed. "Proportion and harmony" need not be vague counsel; their meanings are revealed in the practice of detailed visual editing of data displays. For example, in this train timetable a heavy-handed grid interacts with the type, generating a stripy texture and fighting with the scheduled times. The prominent top position in the table shows the least important information, a four-digit train identifier used by railroad personnel and nobody else:


New Jersey Transit, Northeastern Corridor Timetable (Newark, 1985).
A redesign calms the dominating grid, moves the New York departure times to the very top, de-emphasizes less important data, and adds new information. A separating line is formed by tiny leader dots, which read as gray, making a distinction but not a barricade:

The focus is now given over to information, transparently organized by an implicit typographical grid, defined simply by the absence of type. Nevertheless, data-imprisonment spans centuries of information-design struggles. At right is a touchingly ramshackle grid from a 1535 edition of *Cosmographia*. But, from the virtuoso of typographic design: "Tables should not be set to look like nets with every number enclosed," wrote Jan Tschichold in *Asymmetric Typography*:

The setting of tables, often approached with gloom, may with careful thought be turned into work of great pleasure. First, try to do without rules altogether. They should be used only when they are absolutely necessary. Vertical rules are needed only when the space between columns is so narrow that mistakes will occur in reading without rules. Tables without vertical rules look better; thin rules are better than thick ones.²

Even quite small changes in line can have significant visual effects. For Paul Klee's sketch, the easy and graceful separation of black line and red commentary separation into a mishmash when color and light/dark differences are minimized:


Separate macro-annotation explains the micro-detail of hospital costs in this 26-day narrative of one person passing through an intensive care unit. The design is transparent to the disturbing information, as a layered polyphony of voices — time sequence, accounting data, commentary — weave together to trace out days, hours, minutes, dollars.

Mrs. K___ has been taken to the emergency room of a renowned hospital on Manhattan's Upper East Side. The doctors "work her up." More than $200 worth of blood tests are ordered ("emergent lab; "lab serology out"), $232 worth of X-rays taken, $97.50 worth of drugs administered. I never saw Mrs. K___, she wasn't in my hospital, I don't know her medical history. But I am a doctor, and can reconstrue from other hospital bills what is going on, more or less. She is sick, very sick.

Mrs. K___ has been moved to the Intensive Care Unit ("room ICU"). It costs $500 a day to stay in the ICU, base rate. California has the highest average ICU rates in the country: $632 a day. In Mississippi, the average is $265. ICUs were developed in the 1960s. They provide technological life-support systems and allow for extraordinary patient monitoring. An inhalation blood-gas monitor ("inhaled blood gas monitor") is being used to keep a close check on the amount of oxygen in her blood. Without the attention she is receiving in the ICU, Mrs. K___ might already be dead.

Mrs. K___ has been running a high fever. The doctors have sent cultures of her blood, urine, and sputum to the lab to find out why. She is put on gentamicin ("lab gentamycin trough"), a powerful antibiotic. Such strong drugs can have toxic side effects. Gentamicin kills bacteria, but can also cause kidney failure.

It is Mrs. K___'s fifth day at the hospital, and she is slipping closer to death. Her lungs begin to fail. She is put on a respirator ("inhaled respirator"), which costs $119 a day to rent and requires a special technician to operate. A hospital can buy the machine for about $15,000.

Mrs. K___'s first week in Intensive Care ends in a flourish of blood tests. She has five Chem-8s ("lab chem-8") tests that measure the levels of sodium, potassium, and six other chemicals in her blood. The hospital charges Mrs. K___ $31 for each Chem-8. Most independent labs charge about half as much as hospitals charge up to $60. The New England Journal of Medicine has said: "The clinical laboratory [is] a convenient profit center that can be used to support unrelated deficit-producing hospital operations." The Annals of Internal Medicine estimates that the number of clinical lab tests being done is rising 15 percent a year.

Mrs. K___ has started peritoneal dialysys ("dial-peri kit 87110"). Her kidneys are failing. She is still hooked up to the respirator. She is being kept alive by what Lewis Thomas calls "halfway technologies" - "halfway" because kidney dialysis machines and respirators can support organ systems for long periods of time, but can't cure the underlying disease. Some doctors are beginning to question this practice. A recent study at the George Washington University Medical Center concluded: "Substantial medical resources are now being used in aggressive but frequently futile attempts to avoid death."

Mrs. K___ has been put in a vest restraint. Restraints are used in Intensive Care to keep patients from thrashing around or pulling their tubes out. Many ICU patients develop what is called "ICU psychosis." They become disoriented, begin hallucinating. The condition is brought on by lack of sleep, toxic drugs, the noise of the ICU staff and machines, and pain.
Mrs. K____ has been on the respirator for six days. It is breathing for her. But there has been a problem. The tube running from the machine into her mouth and down her throat was not bringing enough oxygen to her lungs. She needed a tracheotomy ("trach care set"). The tube from the respirator is now attached directly to her trachea, through a hole cut into her neck.

This charge, for a blood product ("3 NSP 280MU proc fee") is not covered by Mrs. K____’s Blue Cross policy. The policy also does not cover the cost of fresh blood plasma ("fsh fr pla proc fee"). These charges have been mounting. Mrs. K____ is bleeding internally.

Mrs. K____ has been in Intensive Care for two weeks. She is still running a very high fever. The doctors are still testing. Mrs. K____ has been placed on a special blanket; it is hooked up to a machine that functions like a refrigerator ("hypothermia machine"). The machine cools the blanket, and the blanket helps lower Mrs. K____’s body temperature. Should her temperature rise too high, she may suffer permanent brain damage.

Mrs. K____ has undergone a gated blood-pool study ("mrcd scpd sty"). The doctors have "tagged" her red blood cells with a radioactive isotope. Using a camera that picks up the isotope, the doctors can watch the passage of blood through her heart. In this way, they see firsthand whether the ventricles are functioning properly—whether enough blood is getting pumped, enough oxygen is being sent through the body. First her lungs, then her kidneys. Now Mrs. K____’s heart seems to be going.

Mrs. K____’s fourth week in the hospital begins with a spinal tap. Using a long needle, a doctor drains fluid from her spinal cord. The fluid is sent to the lab for about a dozen tests ("lab sp f cell et"). A spinal tap is performed when a patient has what are called "neurological signs." Partial paralysis is one such sign, loss of consciousness another. When doctors order a spinal tap, they suspect brain disease.

Weeks of half-way technology have given the doctors time for testing. The doctors may even have diagnosed what is wrong with Mrs. K____; it is hard to say. But the ICU and its technology have not given them the ability to cure her. Now the heart, which has been failing, gives out. Cardiac arrest. There is a burst of activity. Bicarbonate, epinephrine, and other drugs ("pharmacy") are administered. Three bottles of intravenous solution ("phar iv solutions") are poured in.

Mrs. K____’s last minutes are recorded on the various ICU monitors. The level of oxygen in her blood falls. She dies.

Mrs. K____’s bottom line:

Total cost of twenty-six days in the hospital, nearly all this time in Intensive Care: $47,311.20. Of this, Blue Cross will pay $41,933.87. The doctors’ bills, not covered by hospitalization insurance, probably come to thousands of dollars more. Perhaps Mrs. K____ had Blue Shield, which covers doctors’ fees. In 1982, the last year for which figures are available, Americans spent $322 billion on health care. Of this, $135.5 billion was spent on hospital care. There were 56,241 ICU beds in 1982 like the one Mrs. K____ was kept alive in, and almost $7 billion was spent for their use. That represented nearly one percent of the gross national product.
All elements in the map at right — contours, rivers, roads, names — are at the same visual level with equal values, equal texture, equal color, and even nearly equal shape. An undifferentiated, unlayered surface results, jumbled up, blurry, incoherent, chaotic with unintentional optical art. What we have here is a failure to communicate.

Far more detailed than the perfect jumble, this map below separates and layers information by means of distinctions in shape, value (light to dark), size, and especially color. The negative areas are also informative; light strips formed by the grid of buildings identify roads and paths. The water symbol is a blue field, further differentiated from other color fields by a gentle fading away from each outlined edge. Shown against a dull background rather than bright white, these colors remain both calm and distinctive, avoiding clutter. The map exemplifies the "first rule of color composition" of the illustrious Swiss cartographer, Eduard Imhof:

Pure, bright or very strong colors have loud, unbearable effects when they stand unrelieved over large areas adjacent to each other, but extraordinary effects can be achieved when they are used sparingly on or between dull background tones. "Noise is not music . . . only on a quiet background can a colorful theme be constructed," claims Windisch.  


Tokyo Prefecture, Musashino, Ueno Park, Kurumazaka area (Tokyo, 1884).

Signal and background compete above, as an electrocardiogram trace-line becomes caught up in a thick grid. Below, the screened-down grid stays behind traces from each of 12 monitoring leads.\(^4\)

Similarly for music notation, some staff paper is better than others:

In Strawinsky’s sketchbook for *Sacre du printemps*, a grid quietly but clearly and precisely locates the music. Gray grids almost always work well and, with a delicate line, may promote more accurate data reading and reconstruction than a heavy grid. Dark grid lines are chartjunk. When a graphic serves as a look-up table (rare indeed), then a grid may help with reading and interpolation. But even then the grid should be muted relative to the data. Often ready-made graph paper comes with darkly printed lines. The reverse imprinted side should be used, for then lines show through faintly and do not clutter the data. If the paper is heavily gridded on both sides, throw it out.

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\(^4\) The preferred example is redrawn from J. Marcus Wharton and Nora Goldschlager, *Interpreting Cardiac Dysrhythmias* (Oradell, New Jersey, 1987), p. 123. Color also layers, as a gray grid calibrates this signal of ventricular fibrillation, a final collapse of the heart, with only a disorganized rhythm remaining. A similar trace can result from recording artifacts such as a loose monitoring wire; however, one textbook dryly notes, “As the patient will usually have lost consciousness by the time you have realized that it is not just due to a loose connection, diagnosis is easy.” John R. Hampton, *The ECG Made Easy* (Edinburgh, 1986), p. 66.

In the masterly 1748 Nolli map of Rome, the river's heavy inking activates what should be a visually tranquil area, causing bridge names and a little boat to vibrate in a moire prison, albeit a quiet one. Muting the river encoding calms vibration and brings names and other details forward, while retaining a symbolism of rippling water.\(^5\) This redesign and others that we have seen are visual equivalents of Italo Calvino's approach to writing:

My working method has more often than not involved the subtraction of weight. I have tried to remove weight, sometimes from people, sometimes from heavenly bodies, sometimes from cities; above all I have tried to remove weight from the structure of stories and from language. . . . Maybe I was only then becoming aware of the weight, the inertia, the opacity of the world — qualities that stick to writing from the start, unless one finds some way of evading them.\(^6\)

Layering of data, often achieved by felicitous subtraction of weight, enhances representation of both data dimensionality and density on flatland. Usually this involves creating a hierarchy of visual effects, possibly matching an ordering of information content. Small, modest design moves can yield decisive visual results, as in these intriguing demonstrations of the illusory borders of subjective contours:

\(^5\) Giambattista Nolli. *Pianta Grande di Roma* (Rome, 1748; from a facsimile edition by J. H. Aronson, Highmount, New York, 1984). Note the seemingly English word "or" in the names under the bridge, a result of the 18th-century custom of contracting the Italian *ora*, meaning now, *at this time, currently*. On his map, Nolli cites first the old name *Ponte Gianicolo or[a] Ponte Sisto* (the bridge's new name). Ironically, the English "or" works in this context, although the meaning is not quite right. See Barbara Reynolds, *The Cambridge Italian Dictionary, Italian-English* (Cambridge, 1962), p. 521.


Visual activation of negative areas of white space in these exhibits illustrates the endlessly contextual and interactive nature of visual elements. This idea is captured in a fundamental principle of information design: \(1 + 1 = 3\) or more. In the simplest case, when we draw two black lines, a third visual activity results, a bright white path between hues (note that this path appears even to have an angled end). And a complexity of marks generates an exponential complexity of negative shapes. Most of the time, that surplus visual activity is non-information, noise, and clutter.\(^7\)

This two-step logic — recognition of \(1 + 1 = 3\) effects and the consideration that they generate noise — provides a valuable guide for refining and editing designs, for graphical reasoning, for subtraction of weight.\(^8\)

In a little-known essay on \(1 + 1 = 3\) effects, Josef Albers conducts the demonstrations below, a visually sensitive and artistic approach to the cognitive contours of perceptual psychologists. Albers, seeing area and surface rather than border and edge, escapes the preoccupying magic of optical illusions to conceive a broad idea of negative space activation:

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\(^7\) Rare exceptions are the Turgot-Bretz map of Paris and the Nolli map of Rome: streets, absent of ink, are defined — tersely, clearly, and precisely — by the surrounding ink of blocks and buildings, creating subjective contours.

\(^8\) Note the additional \(1 + 1 = 3\) effects, on this page, as the interaction between the examples and the surrounding type enlivens the white space, forming shapes, profiles, and paths. These reverberations are vivid because our examples are printed in black; strong light/dark contrasts accentuate the clutter of \(1 + 1 = 3\) or more.

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Stumbling over 1 + 1 = 3 has produced perhaps the worst index ever designed, a rare perfect failure. The preface to this guide for flying small aircraft says, "This manual is primarily intended for use during actual flight instruction." Imagine now noisy vibration in a plane as we search through this visually vibrating list, looking for, say, an entry on "forced landing" ... and the index turns out to have no page numbers. Only a small segment of the unbearable original is shown.

The noise of 1 + 1 = 3 is directly proportional to the contrast in value (light/dark) between figure and ground. On white backgrounds, therefore, a varying range of lighter colors will minimize incidental clutter. Three maps at right show these tactics in action. In the first, the bold shapes promote vibration all over; and with only nameless streets down on paper, this map is already in visual trouble. At center, thinning two sides of each block results in every street bordered by one thick and one thin line, thus deflecting 1 + 1 = 3 effects (the thin lines, like gray lines, are visually light in value). On the bottom map, gray establishes serene, motionless edges - an arrangement that will easily accommodate additional geographic detail.

Careful visual editing diminishes 1 + 1 = 3 clutter. These are not trivial cosmetic matters, for signal enhancement through noise reduction can reduce viewer fatigue as well as improve accuracy of readings from a computer interface, a flight-control display, or a medical instrument. Clarity is not everything, but there is little without it. Editing this statistical graph (showing variability about local averages) remedies the visual clutter induced by parallel lines and equal-width white bands. The redesign, at far right, sweeps the noise away, with color spots now smartly tracking the path of averages.

Harmonizing text and line-drawing requires sensitive appraisals of prolific interaction effects. Unless deliberate obscurity is sought, avoid surrounding words by little boxes, which activate negative white spaces between word and box. And below, the first three maps place the type poorly, with an awkward white stripe materializing between name and river. Type from above adjusts to graphics better, in part because most words have fewer descendents than ascenders (in map 3, a diverting white shape is formed by the ascending letters). These small local details will promptly accumulate on the entire map surface, deciding quality.

62 ENVISIONING INFORMATION

This array above, an information prison, employs a narrow range of strong shapes. Grid, silhouette, and type compete at the same nervous visual level. Too loud and too similar. Thick bars of grid boxes generate little paths around both type and silhouette by exciting the negative white space: 1 + 1 = 3, all over again. Why should the trivial task of dividing up the already free-standing elements become the dominant statement of the entire display?

To direct attention toward the information at hand, the revision below extends the light to dark range of color, separating and layering the data in rough proportion to their relevance. Gray calms a contrasty silhouette, bringing about in turn more emphasis on the lamps and their position and motion. Coloring these lights helps to separate the signals from all the rest. Some 460 lamp-whiskers were erased, whiskers which originally read in confusion as glowing light and also trembling motion. Note the effectiveness and elegance of small spots of intense, saturated color for carrying information — a design secret of classical cartography and, for that matter, of traffic lights. Finally, in our revised version, the type for the title (upper left corner) has emerged from its foggy closet. Also the labels, now set in Gill Sans, are no longer equal in visual weight to the motion arrows, among several typographical refinements.

10 “If one limits strong, heavy, rich, and solid colors to the small areas of extremes, then expressive and beautiful colored area patterns occur... Large area background or base-colors do their work most quietly, allowing the smaller, bright areas to stand out the most vividly, if the former are muted, grayish or neutral.” Eduard Imhof, Cartographic Relief Presentation (Berlin, 1982), edited and translated by H. J. Steward from Imhof’s Kartographische Geländendarstellung (Berlin, 1965), p. 72. On visual issues and map-making, see essays by Samuel Y. Edgerton, Jr., Svetlana Alpers, Jürgen Schulz, Ulla Ehrens-värd, James A. Welu, and David Woodward, in Woodward, ed., Art and Cartography (Chicago, 1987).
In the statistical graphic at top, the visually most active elements are, of all things, glowing optical white dots that appear at each intersection of grid hues. (The arrangement of many computer interfaces is similarly overwrought.) The doubled-up, tremor-inducing lines consume 18 percent of this technically ingenious chart, a multi-window plot. Here the redrawing, in ungrid style, eliminates the visual noise, concentrating our viewer's attention on data rather than data containers.

Too often epidemics of data-imprisonment and decorative gridding break out when contemporary commercial designers are faced with information. The aggressive visual presence of stylized grids, little boxes surrounding words here and there, and cadenced accents — all so empty of content, irrelevant — becomes the only way you can tell if something has been "designed". At any rate, the self-important grid is for the birds, providing only a nice place to perch:


INFORMATION consists of differences that make a difference. A fruitful method for the enforcement of such differences is to layer and separate data, much as is done on a high-density map. In representing various layers of meaning and reading, the most economical of means can yield distinctions that make a difference: the small gestures of Calder’s pen easily separate the stag and his watery reflection. Failure to differentiate among layers of reading leads to cluttered and incoherent displays filled with disinformation, generated by the unrelenting interactive visual arithmetic of flatland, \(1 + 1 = 3\) or more.

All these ideas — figure and ground, interaction effects, \(1 + 1 = 3\) or more, layering and separation - have compelling consequences for information displays. Such concepts (operating under an assortment of names) are thoroughly tested, long familiar the world over in the flatlands of typographers, calligraphers, graphic designers, illustrators, artists, and, in three dimensions, architects:

In every clear concept of the nature of vision and in every healthy approach to the spatial world, this dynamic unity of figure and background has been clearly understood. Lao Tse showed such grasp when he said: "A vessel is useful only through its emptiness. It is the space opened in a wall that serves as a window. Thus it is the nonexistent in things which makes them serviceable." Eastern visual culture has a deep understanding of the role of empty space in the image. Chinese and Japanese painters have the admirable courage to leave empty large paths of their picture — surface so that the surface is divided into unequal intervals which, through their spacing, force the eye of the spectator to movements of varying velocity in following up relationships, and thus create the unity by the greatest possible variation of surface. Chinese and Japanese calligraphy also have a sound respect for the white interval. Characters are written in imaginary squares, the blank areas of which are given as much consideration as the graphic units, the strokes. Written or printed communications are living or dead depending upon the organization of their blank spaces. A single character gains clarity and meaning by an orderly relationship of the space background which surrounds it. The greater the variety and distinction among respective background units, the clearer becomes the comprehension of a character as an individual expression or sign.\(^1\)

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\(^1\) Gyorgy Kepes, *The Language of Vision* (Chicago, 1948).