



EMERGING PATTERNS

Data Visualization Throughout History





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Exhibition and Catalogue

by

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and Kelly Schultz**

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INTRODUCTION



It is common to regard the science and art of data visualization as a distinctively modern—or at least newly sophisticated—practice. The increasing importance and availability of data, new technologies, and powerful digital tools only add to this perception. But the perception is mistaken. *Emerging Patterns: Data Visualization Throughout History* explores the history of data visualization as it is captured in the holdings of the Thomas Fisher Rare Book Library and other libraries at the University of Toronto. It is a rich and fascinating history, replete with successes and failures, uses and abuses, and important lessons and insights for a modern audience.

The idea of exploring data visualizations through library exhibitions, particularly those that focus on rare works, is relatively recent. There have been only a few such exhibitions in libraries with sufficiently broad collections to support such a wide-ranging topic. Notable examples include exhibitions at the British Library in 2014 and Stanford University in 2020. *Emerging Patterns* is the first exhibition of its kind in Canada. It includes historically significant items from many countries, as well as uniquely Canadian items, and it draws on the University of Toronto's—and especially the Thomas Fisher Rare Book Library's—extraordinary collection. We are fortunate in Ontario to have access to one of the few libraries capable of mounting such an exhibition.

In curating *Emerging Patterns*, we selected exhibits that represent the reach and range of data visualizations spanning centuries, disciplines, and formats. The exhibition displays maps, scrolls, atlases, small textbooks, large posters, foldouts, and book covers, dating from the eleventh century to the present day, and drawing on disciplines from astronomy, demography, and economics to literary criticism, social work, and political activism. In addition, we included many exhibits in *Emerging Patterns* to showcase influential visualizations created by individuals from historically excluded groups. These individuals, including Florence Nightingale (1820–1910), W.E.B. De Bois (1868–1963), and Mary Eleanor Spear (1897–1986), have exerted significant influence on the development of data visualization and they were leaders or pioneers in their day. Despite significant barriers to inclusion—especially before

and during what historian Howard Funkhouser (1898–1984) called the ‘Golden Age of Data Visualization’ in the nineteenth century—this exhibition celebrates the work of people of colour, LGBTQ+ people, women, and Indigenous peoples.

We hope *Emerging Patterns* expands the audience of the Thomas Fisher Rare Book Library and physical libraries in general. People who work and study in fields typically associated with charts and graphs often do not see their disciplines represented in library exhibitions and may view rare books as irrelevant to their work. By showing the significance and beauty of items from a broad range of fields, we hope to foster an appreciation for the wealth of the Library’s collections and convey their lasting, multidisciplinary relevance. Moreover, we hope *Emerging Patterns* will inspire a feeling of belonging and evoke a comforting sense of solidarity and cross-generational identification with people from diverse backgrounds, across many fields, who have been wrestling with the graphical representation of information for centuries—as we continue to do today.

A Definition of Data Visualization



What is a data visualization? This is a foundational question for *Emerging Patterns*. Various definitions are possible, and the academic and professional literature contains numerous examples. For our purposes, we began with the history of data visualization, asked how the practice evolved, and considered what the best examples had in common.

The practice of visualizing data emerged from a growing understanding of the communicative efficacy of diagrams and illustrations in revealing relationships between scientific observations, theoretical concepts, or within social structures. As that intuitive understanding developed, methods and practices emerged, some of which were refined, standardized, and codified informally or formally. International gatherings were organized to establish global protocols (mostly unsuccessfully); pioneering textbooks by Willard Brinton (1880–1939), Mary Eleanor Spear, and others, helped elucidate and advance the burgeoning field.

One way to understand the evolution of data visualization—from its earliest examples in the eleventh and fifteenth centuries, through its flourishing in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, to its present ubiquity and sophistication today—is to observe how data visualizations have been used over time. Reflecting upon on how, by whom, for what purpose, and according to what rules visualizations were developed and used, and then identifying common threads among them, led us to the following working definition: a data visualization, as it is considered in *Emerging Patterns*, is a visual depiction of the relationships between elements of data. Those data elements could be scientific or astronomical observations. They could be

people or armies. They could be abstract mathematical objects. An essential aspect of a data visualization is that it depicts at least one non-spatial or abstract element in two (or higher) dimensional space. Examples of such elements include time, connection, scale, or membership in a category. In a data visualization, elements are represented pictorially or graphically in a way that allows an audience to see relationships and patterns that would be much harder to notice or understand without the pictorial or graphical representation. A simple map or an anatomical diagram of the human body depicts information visually, but because these depictions do not reveal relationships and patterns between constituent data elements, they are not data visualizations in our sense.

Data visualizations are thus designed to help people discover and understand connections between the elements they depict. They accomplish this by capitalizing on the largely unconscious information processing capabilities of human visual perception systems. These capabilities were intuitively clear well before we were able to explain them scientifically. William Playfair (1729–1823), often described as the inventor of statistical data visualizations, anticipated the study of modern human visual cognition when he wrote that one of the goals of charts and graphs was to convey information ‘without the fatigue and trouble of studying the particulars of which [they are] composed’.¹ Modern science has confirmed Playfair’s claim. Studies in the field of human perception have demonstrated that we process visual information more quickly and in far greater density than information from the other senses.² We perceive visual cues and recognize patterns without conscious access to the underlying processes. We don’t perceive the act of comparison, only our judgements about concepts like relative sizes or lengths (this box is bigger, that line is longer). This information processing occurs in the background, reducing cognitive load and leaving more time and energy for higher-level processing, analysis, and evaluation. In other words, we can process complex relational patterns presented visually more readily than we can discern those patterns from lists, tables, or words.

It follows from our definition that data visualizations have a specific purpose. A data visualization helps an observer make judgements about the relationships and patterns among data, and therefore helps readers move towards exploration, understanding, sense-making, communication, and reasoning about the data. We are prompted to form or evaluate hypotheses. It makes sense to ask, ‘what is this visualization showing me?’

In considering whether to include a candidate image in the *Emerging Patterns* exhibition, we relied on our definition and asked ourselves the following questions: what are the elements of data in this image? What are the relationships being depicted among them? What are we intended to learn or understand? The resulting collection of data visualizations can be loosely divided into two general themes we have called ‘The Evolution of Data Visualization’ (Part One) and ‘Making People See’ (Part Two).

Emerging Patterns is not simply a history of data visualization. There are historically significant images in the Fisher collection that do not appear in the exhibition. Rather, *Emerging Patterns* is a thematic history of data visualization. Considering the thematic evolution of data visualization, as explored in Part One, we can better understand the nature of data visualization itself, how it has been used, and from where its persuasive power stems. Part Two will explore the nature and use of data visualization's persuasive capacity to assert or advocate for political power. These two themes are complementary, intersecting and amplifying each other.

The Evolution of Data Visualization



Emerging Patterns highlights significant steps in the thematic evolution of data visualization. The exhibition focuses on the development of various kinds of visualizations and how the stylistic evolution of a type of visualization relates to the purpose for which it was designed. Visualizing data today is a seemingly simple task, well-understood by both creators and audiences. Complex visualizations can be made at the push of a button and can rely on widely understood norms and rules. But these are modern developments. As recently as one hundred years ago, data visualizations required considerable expertise to make and asked sceptical audiences to invest time and attention to interpret them.

One of the exhibition's goals is to encourage its audience to consider what they are doing when creating data visualizations today. The modern tools that have made data visualization easier have, at the same time, stripped some of the thought from the process and thereby devalued or diminished the visualizations themselves. The results have all too often been confusing, poor, or at worst, misleading. The thematic evolution of data visualization recounted in *Emerging Patterns* helps explain how violating norms and rules can lead to these sorts of failures and deceptions.

When data visualizations took days or even years to make—from collecting and interpreting data, to conceptualizing, drawing, and printing—the result had to be worth the effort. Indeed, economist Karl Knies (1821–1898) captured a popular attitude in 1850 when he wrote of the 'pictorial method': 'Outside of its use as a pedagogic means, it is only a plaything without importance'.³ In the face of such challenges, it is worth considering how and why the practice of data visualization evolved over time.

Emerging Patterns will expose our modern audience to the depth of thought and the painstaking effort it took to conceptualize and create, often by hand, graphics that are both meaningful and beautiful. The exhibition prompts important questions. What can we learn from the evolution of data visualization? Why did early geographers, astronomers, courtiers, and others visualize data?

Making People See



Data visualizations display data, but they also convey information, guiding the viewer towards a specific hypothesis. It is a natural step from recognizing patterns in a collection of data to drawing conclusions about those patterns. Data visualizations are implicit arguments which makes them powerful persuasive tools. The power to change people’s minds, or to enable them to see matters from a particular perspective, is itself a form of power. As the celebrated American mathematician, John Tukey (1915–2000), wrote: ‘The greatest value of a picture is when it forces us to notice what we never expected to see’.⁴

The exhibits in Part Two collectively show how, by harnessing the persuasive power of data visualization, creators displayed or asserted power, or more compellingly, claimed power and public attention for those who lacked it. In the fifteenth century, European monarchies exploited visualizations created with the newest technologies (the printing press and the ability to combine illustrations and text in printed matter) to assert political legitimacy and authority by showing their connections to the lineage of Charlemagne. Later, in the nineteenth century, William Farr (1807–1883), W.E.B. De Bois, and Florence Nightingale, spurred by their era’s popular and political fascination with new kinds of charts, created innovative, ground-breaking ways of visualizing data in part to advocate for changes in public policy, public health, military policy, and racial justice.

Maps of urban areas overlaid with colour-coded demographic and economic metrics created by Charles Booth (1840–1916), W.E.B. De Bois, Jane Addams (1860–1935), Florence Kelley (1859–1932), and the Hull-House residents drew public and political attention to issues of inequity in living conditions, health, and economic opportunity as they related to race, ethnicity, gender, and immigration status.

Data visualizations are often regarded as impartial displays of data. However, looking at historical examples illustrates how data visualization helped achieve (or impede) important social improvements and can help us understand the power of data visualization today. The exhibits highlighted in ‘Making People See’ are not impartial; they are persuasive. Indeed, their persuasive power draws on the authority of the form itself, with its historic associations with education, power, and wealth. The way the visualizations are made—the chosen design elements, colours, chart types, and visual conventions—is intended to add persuasive force to the content of the visualizations and the arguments that accompany them.

Each visualization compels patterns to emerge before our eyes. We are invited to make inferences and to learn something. Each visualization draws us to into the art of its construction. We are called to make judgements and urged or inspired to change how we see the world. William Playfair understood this. ‘The best way to capture the imagination’, he wrote, ‘is to speak to the eyes’.⁵

Part One:

THE EVOLUTION OF DATA VISUALIZATION



There are several ways to think about the evolution of data visualization. One approach offers a historical review by telling the story of who did what, where, and when. Instead, *Emerging Patterns* examines the evolution of data visualization *thematically*. The exhibition invites audiences to consider thematically illustrative examples of data visualization throughout its developmental history. How and why did certain kinds of data visualizations develop into their modern, canonical forms? What is the developmental connection between the subject of a visualization and the techniques used to visualize it? Why were some methods successful, spawning a legacy of continued refinement and currency, while others were abandoned? How did the modern norms and rules of data visualization evolve and why? *Emerging Patterns* does not attempt to answer these questions directly. Rather, the exhibits, together with this catalogue, are intended to help us think about the evolution of data visualization through history and, in the end, change our encounters with modern data visualizations.

Thematic Cartography



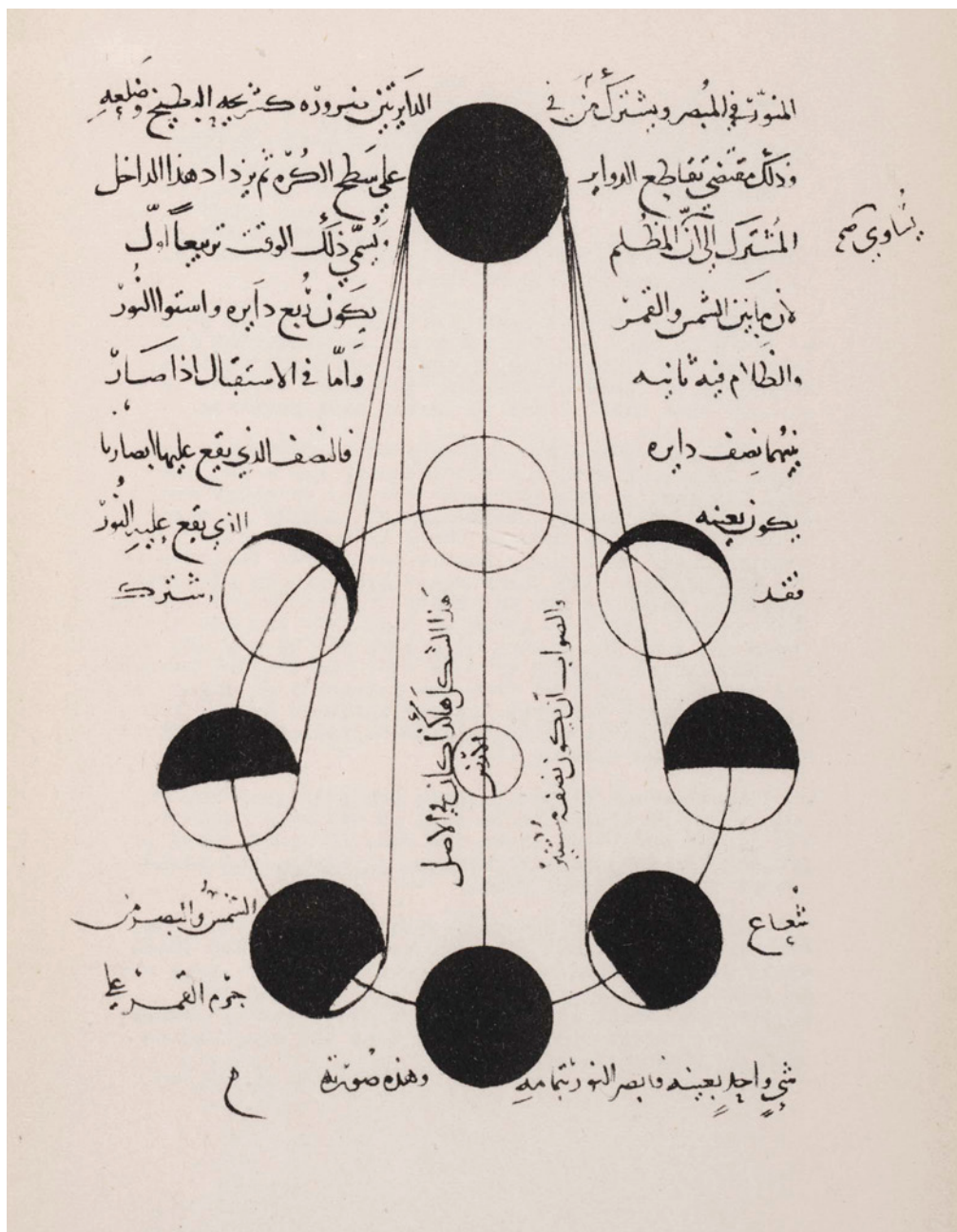
Some of the first data visualizations were motivated by attempts to reconcile astronomical observations with theological or religious beliefs and the worldviews they entailed or simply to make sense of astronomical observations in the first place. Examples of thematic cartography are not merely maps or diagrams of geo-spatial objects. They depict non-spatial or abstract elements of data in two-dimensional space, often, but not always, in the form of a traditional map. Thematic cartography uncovers patterns and relationships among data elements. Elizabeth Clutton's explanation of thematic cartography calls to mind aspects of the definition of data visualization employed by *Emerging Patterns*. The 'thematic map', she writes, 'presents a mental ordering of space, generalizing and arranging beyond the

limitations of the original data to offer a visual image of more abstract truths'.⁶ Many early data visualizations are hard to recognize as data visualizations (or even maps) in the modern sense, but the constituent elements of data visualization are present and help us understand both the images themselves and the development of thematic cartography as a kind of data visualization.

Abū al-Rayḥān Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad al-Bīrūnī (973?–1048).
The Book of Instruction in the Elements of the Art of Astrology.
 Translated by R. Ramsay Wright (1852–1933). London: Luzac, 1934.

One of the earliest examples of thematic cartography as data visualization comes from Abū al-Rayḥān Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad al-Bīrūnī, known as al-Bīrūnī. Al-Bīrūnī was an eleventh-century Persian polymath and one of the founders of the field of geodesy. Among his many contributions is a data visualization of the phases of the moon (**Figure 1**). One of the debates of the period concerned the luminosity of the planets and the stars. Were they luminous themselves? Or did they reflect the light of the sun as the moon did? What could we learn about luminosity by looking at the moon? In thinking about these questions, al-Bīrūnī wrote about how observations of the moon's phases confirmed that the moon reflected the sun's light. He visualized the phenomenon by depicting the moon at eight stages of its orbit around the Earth. The Sun, pictured at the top, illuminates by means of its rays, the lines connecting the Sun to the moon at each stage of its orbit. The darker portions of the moon in the diagram represent the parts of the moon illuminated by the sun in each phase. The new moon, when the moon is located between the earth and the sun, is entirely obscured. As al-Bīrūnī writes in *Kitāb al-taḥḥīm li-awā'il ṣinā'ah al-tanjīm* (*The Book of Instruction in the Elements of the Art of Astrology*, c. 1029), we are 'unable to distinguish the dark mass of the moon from the lapis-lazuli of the sky on account of the dazzling light from the sun'.⁷ But as the moon moves, the illuminated parts of its surface become increasingly visible from the earth, growing from a small crescent to a full orb (and back).

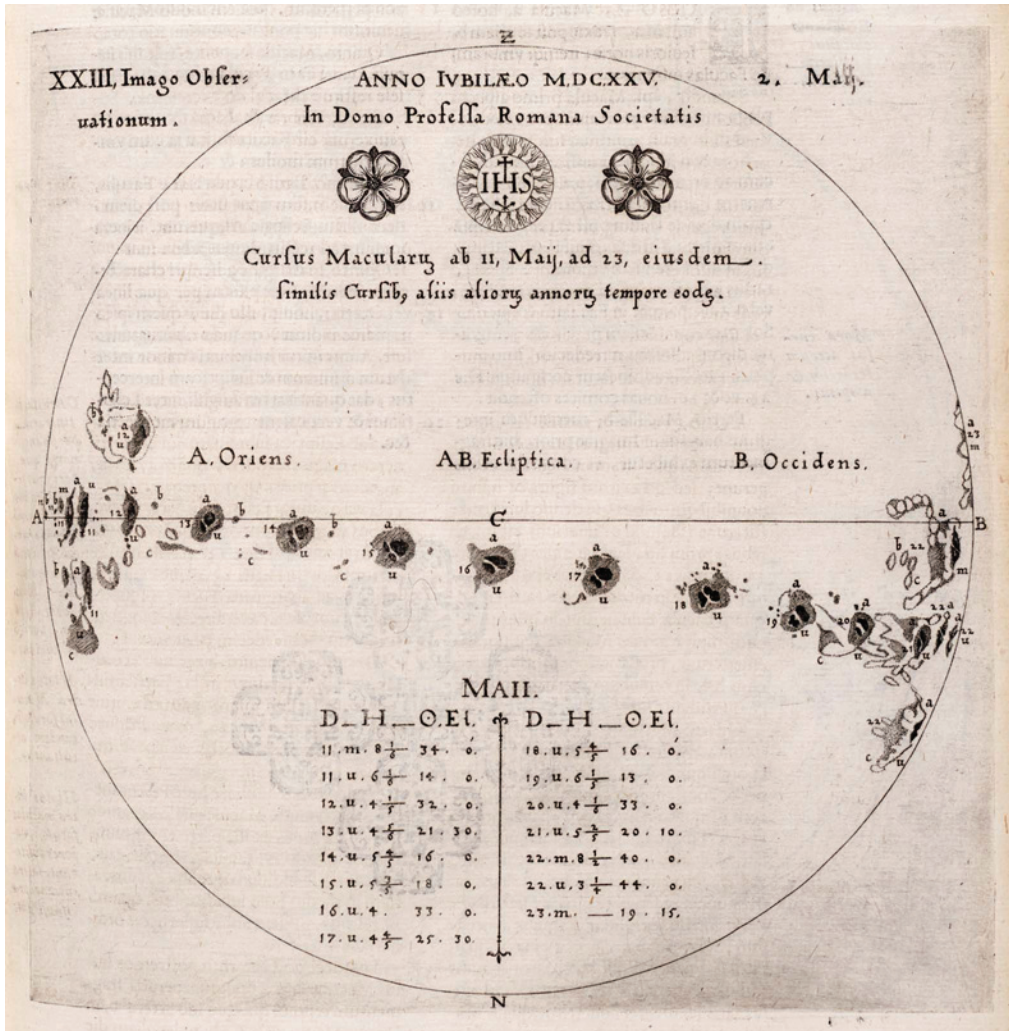
What is most interesting from a data visualization perspective is that al-Bīrūnī's diagram is a *time series map* of the sky. Each phase of the moon represents a distinct, consecutive, and uniform interval of time represented together in a single two-dimensional image. But the image is an abstraction: the night sky never actually looks that way. Rather, al-Bīrūnī collected and displayed the series of eight images together to show the pattern of the moon's travel over time and the relationship of each moment in time to the observed phenomena from Earth. Al-Bīrūnī's genius was creating a visualization—one of the earliest data visualizations—to help his audience understand what they were seeing in the sky.



[Figure 1]

Christoph Scheiner (1573–1650). *Rosa Ursina*. Bracciano:
Apud Andrea Phaeum, 1630.

When Galileo (1564–1642) pointed his telescope into the sky at the dawn of the seventeenth century, he made a number of staggering discoveries. Among his most famous was the discovery of sunspots. If the sun were perfect and the embodiment



[Figure 2]

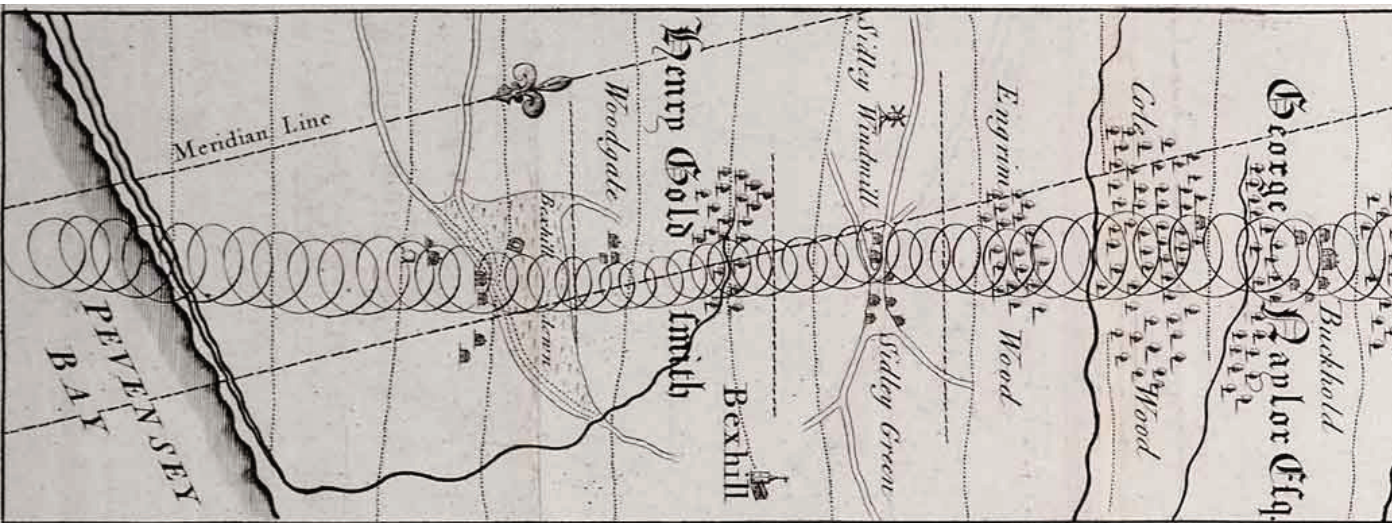
of the Good, as aspects of Greek philosophy and early cosmology and theology suggested, it was disconcerting to discover that it had spots. Christoph Scheiner, a Jesuit priest and accomplished mathematician, attempted to redeem the sun's perfection. He invented a pantograph, a mechanical device to copy and enlarge drawings, and, ingeniously, used it to draw observations he made of sunspots. He confirmed Galileo's discovery but suggested that the spots were actually shadows of satellites orbiting the sun. There followed a lengthy and acrimonious correspondence between Scheiner and Galileo. By 1630, after hundreds of meticulous observations, Scheiner was convinced that the spots were not shadows, but instead located on or near the surface of the sun itself. The way the spots moved, how they partially appeared or disappeared, rotated, and changed had convinced him.⁸

Scheiner published *Rosa Ursina* in 1630. It included scores of hand- and pantograph-drawn observations as seen, for example, in **Figure 2**. The drawings followed multiple sunspots as they traversed the surface of the sun over multiple days and

months. To show the way the spots changed as they moved, he drew each successive observation against the backdrop of a single image of the sun. One can see the letters denoting the same sunspot over time and the dates of each observation. As al-Bīrūnī had done before him, Scheiner visualized his observations as a time series. His drawings matched no single observation. As Clutton might say, Scheiner's sunspot maps reflect an intellectual rather than physical ordering of space to represent a sequence of temporal events in two physical dimensions, making the relationship between the events apparent to the eye. This sort of abstraction is at the heart of data visualization and, certainly in the seventeenth century and earlier, marked rare conceptual insight.

Richard Budgen (1730–1789). *The Passage of the Hurricane from the Sea-Side at Bexhill in Sussex to Newingden-Level, the Twentieth Day of May 1729, between Nine and Ten in the Evening.* London: John Senex, 1730.

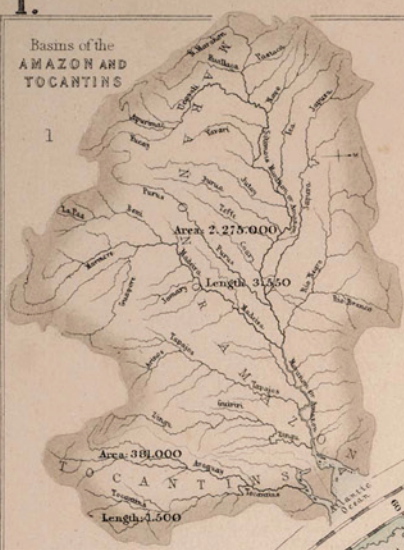
Charles E. Goad (1848–1910). *Beaverton, Ontario (Ontario County).* Toronto: Charles E. Goad Company, 1910.



[Figure 3]

In 1729, a storm described as a ‘tornado or a hurricane’ by Richard Budgen, an estate surveyor, made landfall near Bexhill on the southern coast of England. Budgen published a detailed account of the hurricane’s passage, consulting witnesses and documenting the damage done to various properties and estates. The book contains a foldout data visualization that is the thematic offspring of al-Bīrūnī and Scheiner. **Figure 3** shows a graphical representation of the storm’s path, size,

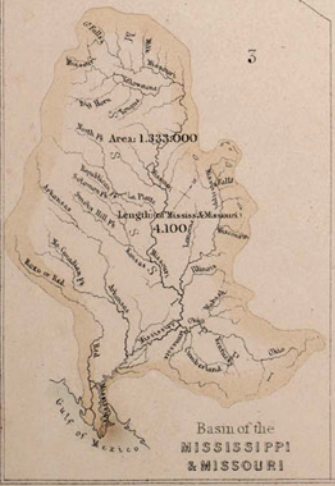
Basins of the AMAZON AND TOCANTINS



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WITH COMPARATIVE VIEWS OF
MOUNTAINS
and Basins of
ON THE

BY G. H. ...
A. FUL ...
E. L ...

WESTERN HEMISPHERE



III. ANDES

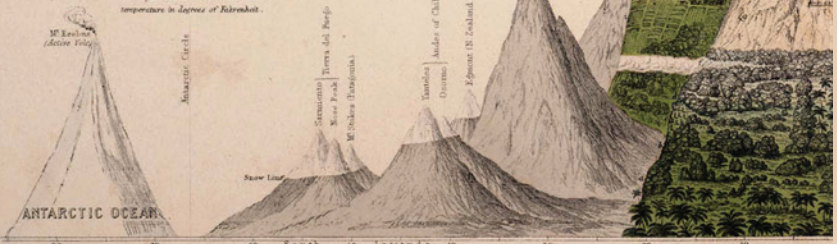
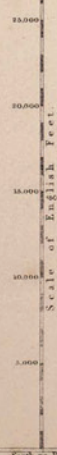
- a. Palm
- b. Tree Fern
- c. Pine viscaria (New)
- d. Laurel of Great Trees
- e. Conchona
- f. Kauri
- g. Quercus (Oak)
- h. Callitriche rubraea
- i. Maize
- j. Mountain barley

IV. TENERIFFE

- a. Palm Moss (Ficus)
- b. Corallo (Great grass) Pine (New)
- c. Laurel (Laurus)
- d. Pine viscaria
- e. Quercus fragrans
- f. Pine sibirica
- g. Corral with snow three Months in the Year One Month now
- h. Occasional snow

NOTE

The figures denote the mean annual temperature in degrees of Fahrenheit.



WORLD Spheres

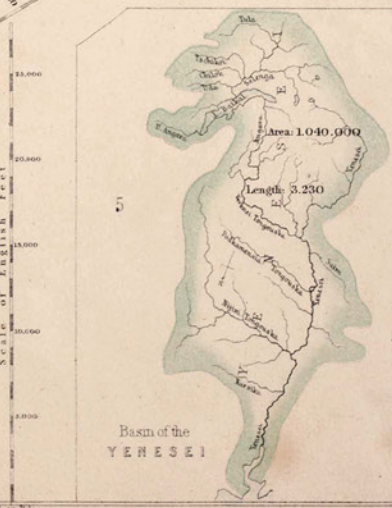
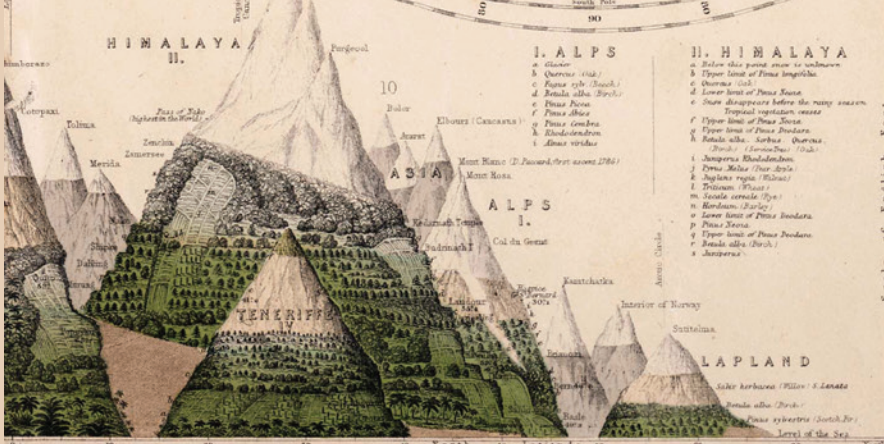
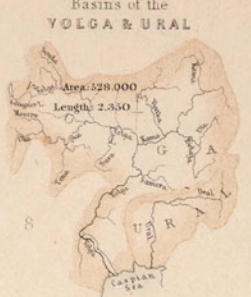
THE HEIGHTS OF THE PRINCIPAL
MOUNTAINS

of the principal Rivers

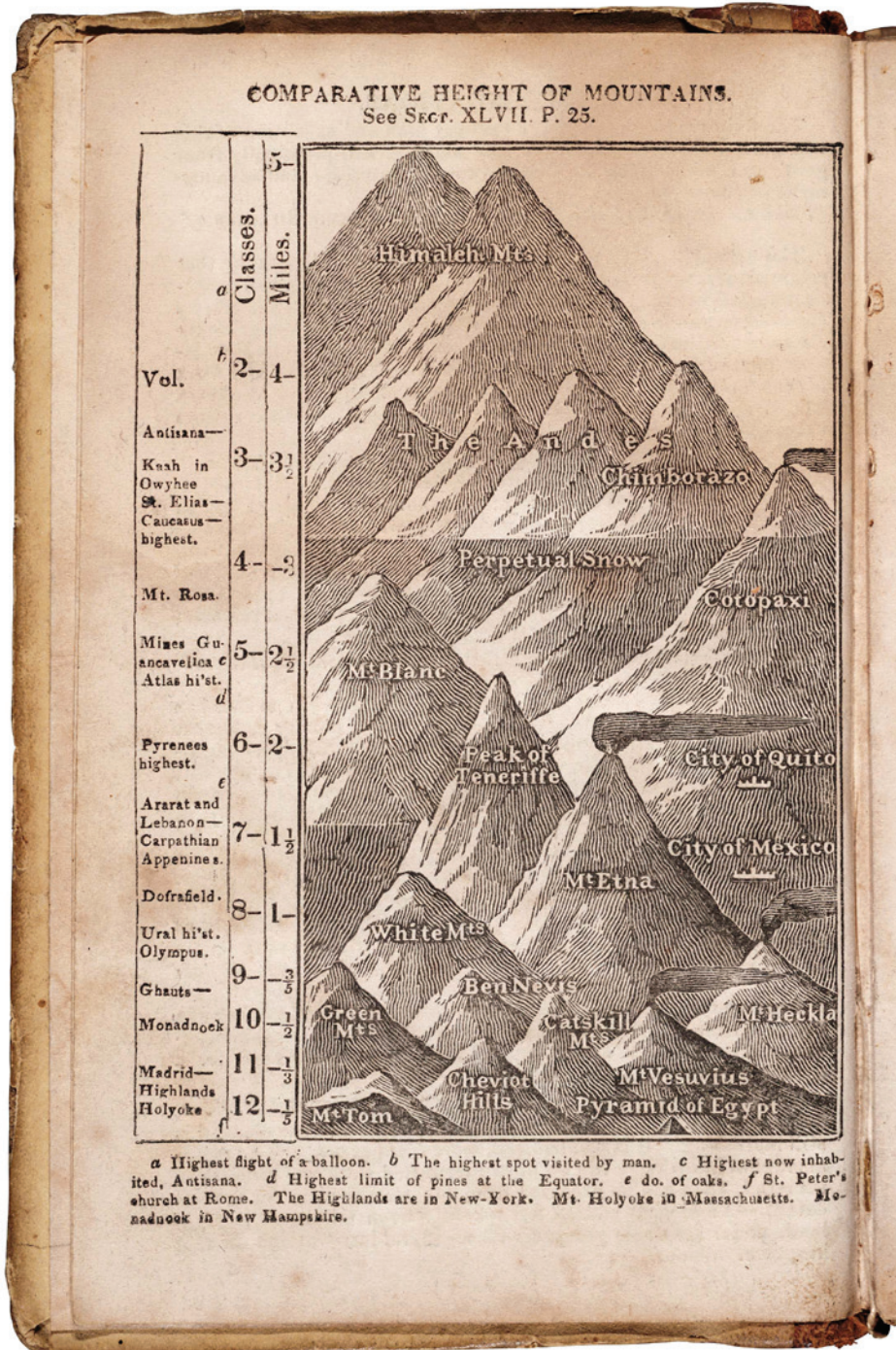
OF THE GLOBE

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[Figure 10]



[Figure 11]

divided into classes). There is no x-axis *per se*, though the various mountains are arrayed along a putative x-axis for ease of display. This technique is called 'dodging' in modern parlance whereby data points are shifted slightly in one dimension or another not as a result of a mapping, but in order to avoid over-plotting (i.e. drawing elements on top of one another). The altitude of 'perpetual snow' is indicated with a line, but it is not adjusted for latitude as Swanston's visualization was 40 years later.

Alvin J. Johnson (1827–1884). *Johnson's New Illustrated (Steel Plate) Family Atlas: With Descriptions, Geographical, Statistical, and Historical*. New York: Johnson and Browning, 1861.

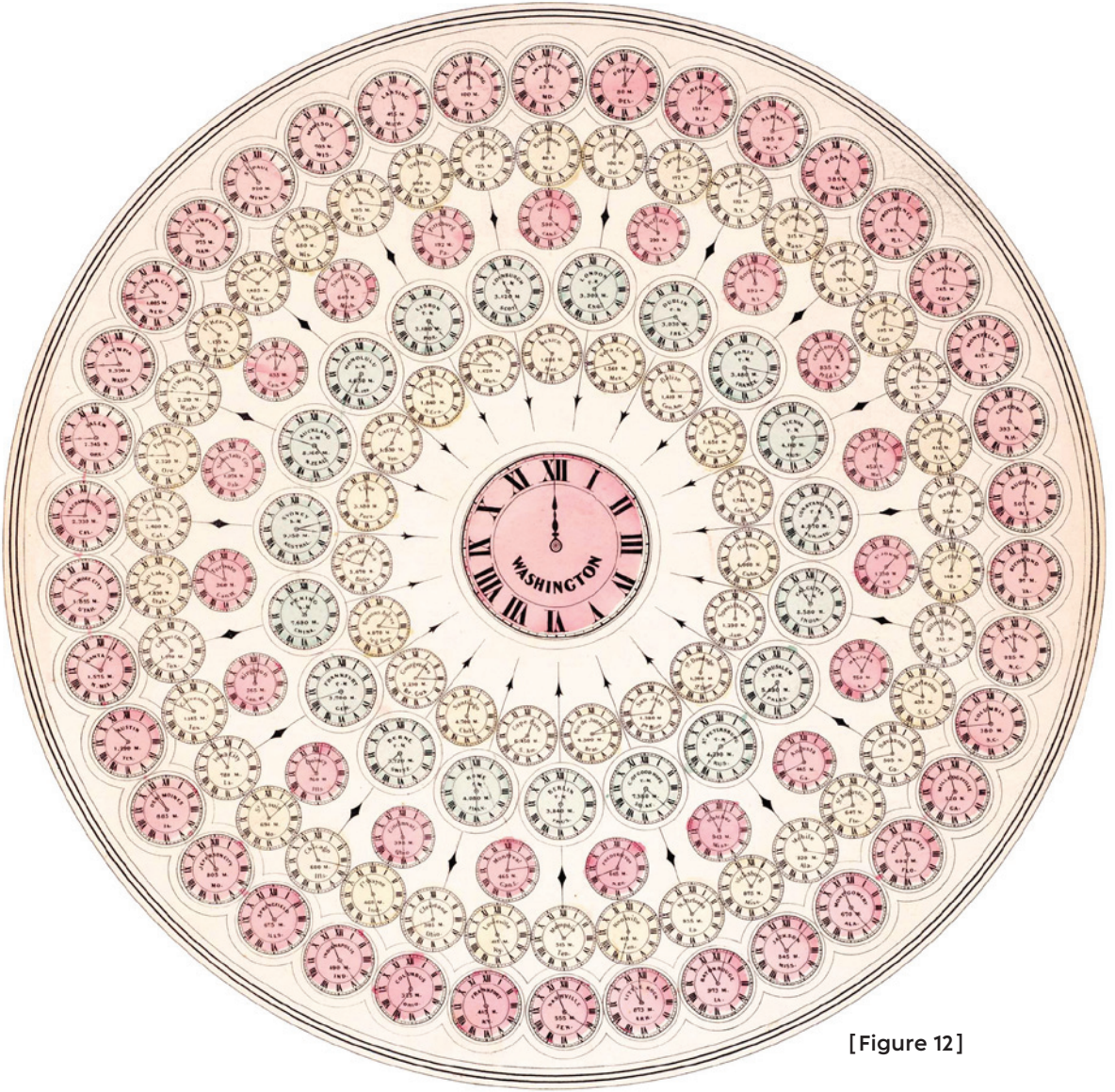
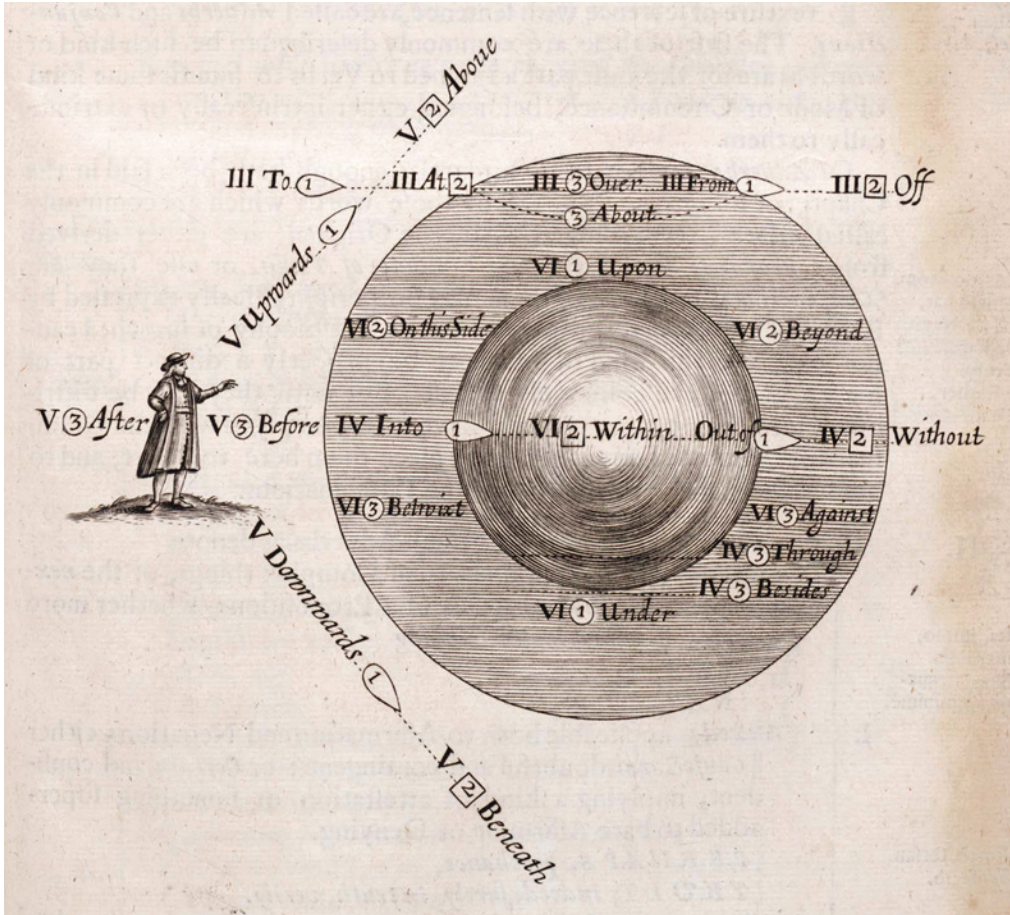


Figure 12 shows an example from 1861 of Alvin Johnson's famous visualization of time differences from Washington D.C. The graphic appeared in his *Family Atlas* and depicts the times in different cities around the world relative to twelve o'clock in Washington, D.C. Before time zones were used in the United States, figuring out what time it was in different cities was an important and tricky challenge. Johnson's graphic is an example of a thematic map, and the various clocks are arranged according to time and distance, though the exact methodology remains unclear. This beautiful, if bewildering, data visualization comes from a period



[Figure 16]

Meir ben Judah Leib Poppers (c. 1624–1662).
Ilan ha-gadol. Warsaw? 1864.

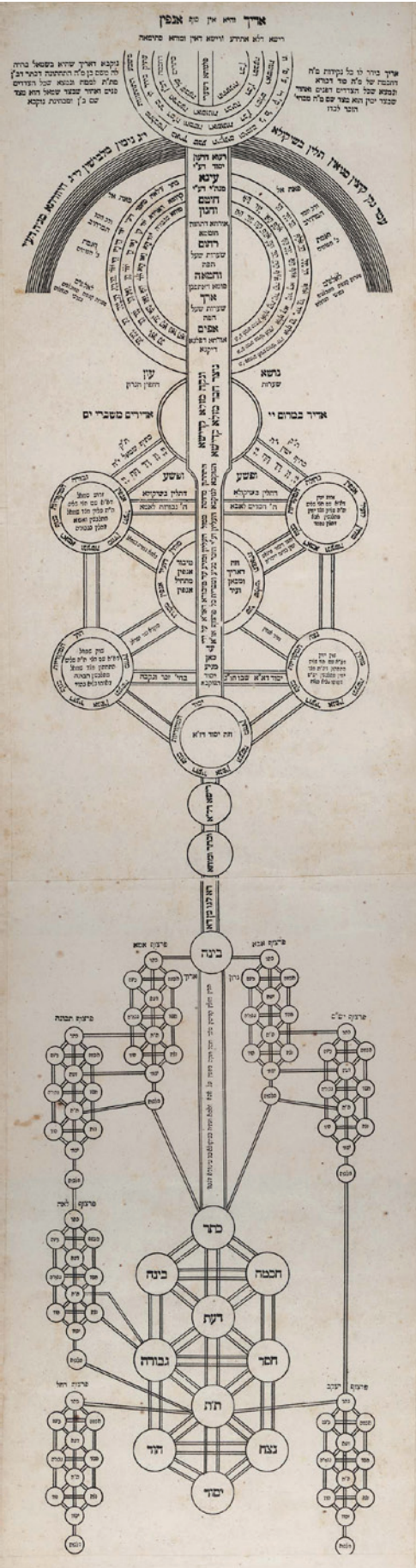
Kabbalah is a Jewish mystical tradition dating back to the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Kabbalist theosophy involves four planes of being and ten luminous emanations known as *sefirot*. The order and the interconnections of the *sefirot* are an important element of the belief structure. Kabbalists chose a tree-like diagram to represent their system. The chart in **Figure 17**, drawn in 1864, inspired from earlier versions of the mystical trees, is called *Ilan ha-Gadol*, which translates to ‘The Great Tree’. Though the Kabbalists called the diagram a tree, it is a more general network diagram in that any node may connect to any other node, despite the hierarchical structure. The network also contains nodes that are themselves smaller trees or networks. These kinds of permutations, networks within networks, are important to the Kabbalistic belief system.¹⁷

Jacob Moreno (1888–1974). *Who Shall Survive? Foundations of Sociometry, Group Psychotherapy and Sociodrama.* Beacon, New York: Beacon House, 1953.

Sociograms were developed by Jacob Moreno as diagrams to reflect people and their interactions in social settings. He first used sociograms to show how actors in plays overlapped in scenes with lines in the diagrams connecting actors who had shared a scene together in a ‘co-occurrence network’. This example of a social network is still used as an accessible entry point to explain the concept; the game and internet meme ‘Six Degrees of Kevin Bacon’ is an excellent illustration. The computer scientist Donald Knuth (1938–) originally compiled a dataset of characters in the scenes of the play *Les Miserables* in 1993 for a book and associated tools for combinatorial computing and network graphing.¹⁸ Since then, most computer network analysis software and software programs designed to visualize and analyze social networks use the *Les Miserables* dataset as a standard instructional example.

In developing his analytic system, Moreno was not only the inventor of sociograms but also one of the founders of the field of social network analysis. Social network analysis is the formal, quantitative study of an individual’s role in a group or community by analyzing the network of connections between them and others in the network along with quantitative descriptions of various communities created by those connections.

Moreno used sociograms in his 1934 book *Who Shall Survive? A New Approach to the Problem of Human Interrelation* to describe the relationships between girls at the New York Training School for Girls in Hudson, New York, mapping attraction and revulsion between each pair of 500 girls. He identified and named patterns of relationships: people in a sociogram who have many friends were called ‘stars’. Those with few or no friends were called ‘isolates’. Cliques were defined as groups of three or more people within a larger group who are all friends. The chart in **Figure 18** shows the sociogram for two girls who ran away from the school. The black lines



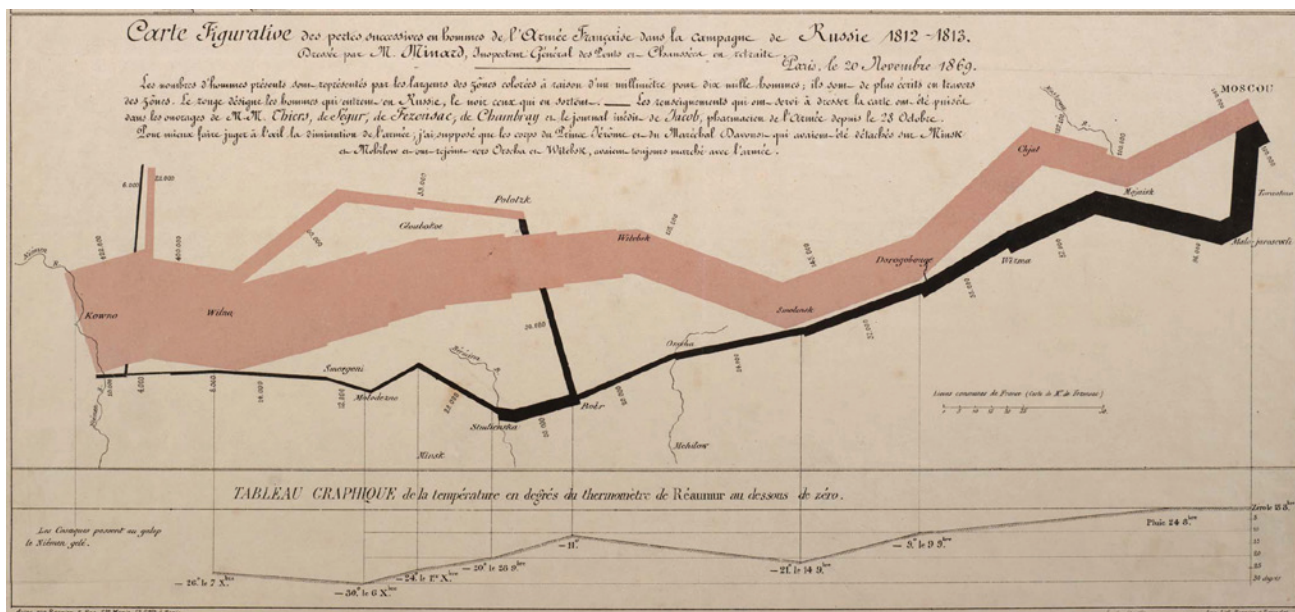
[Figure 17]

indicate dislike or rejection, the red lines indicate a positive relationship. A friendship is illustrated by red lines that connect two nodes. Moreno used these social networks and the analysis of the structures within them to explain why there was a sudden escalation of runaways from the school. His work contained some of the earliest graphic depictions of complex networks, data visualization methods later applied to numerous other disciplines like computer science, genetics, bibliometrics, and history.

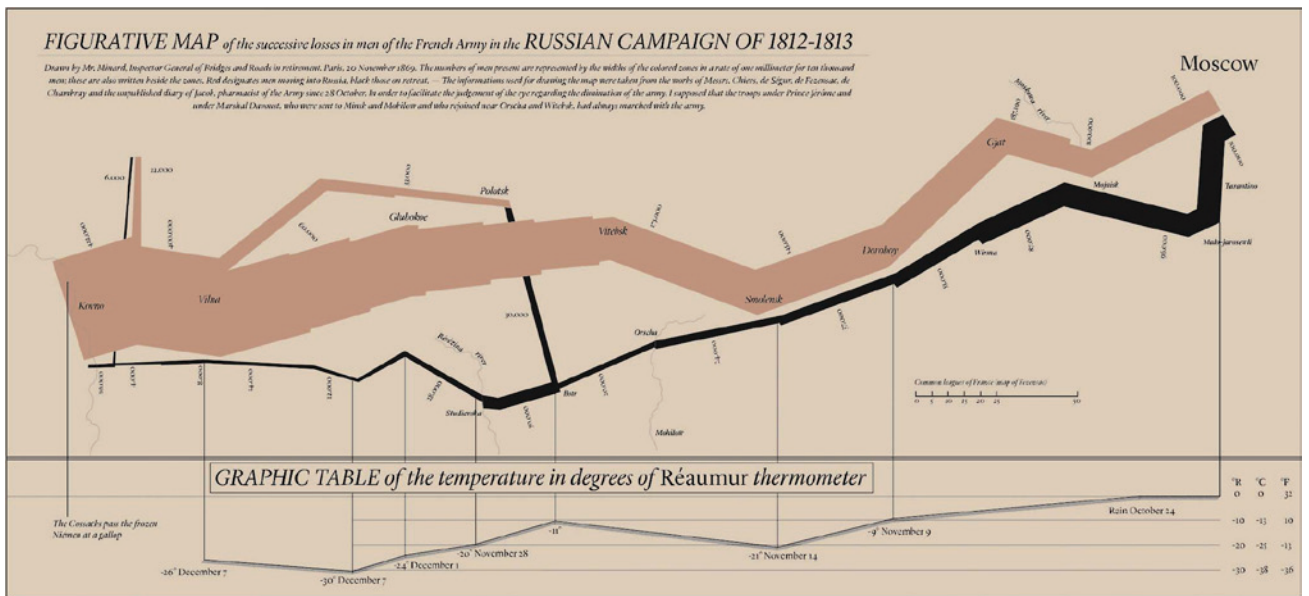
Charles Joseph Minard (1781–1870). *Carte figurative des pertes successives en hommes de l'armée française dans la Campagne de Russie 1812–13.* Paris, Régnier & Dourdet, 1869.

In 1869, Charles Minard created the famous map in **Figure 19** (translated version in **Figure 20**) of Napoleon’s invasion of Russia in 1812. The thick band illustrates the size of Napoleon’s army at various locations during their advance and retreat. The width of the band is proportional to the number of soldiers in the army at each point, with each millimetre representing ten thousand men. The beige colour represents the army’s advance and the black its retreat. The temperature during the retreat is shown on the line graph at the bottom. The map displays numerous variables: the number of troops; the distance traveled; temperature; latitude and longitude; and the direction of travel. The loss of life looms in the thinning of the bands. The effect of temperature on the outcome of the battles emerges easily from Minard’s design, which would have been much harder to glean from a table of values.

While the modern Sankey diagram gets its name from Matthew Sankey (1853–1925), who used this type of flow diagram in 1898 to show the energy efficiency of a steam engine, Minard’s map predates Sankey’s by twenty-nine years. The Minard map was heralded by data visualization expert Edward Tufte (1942–)



[Figure 19]



[Figure 20]

as ‘probably the best statistical graphic ever drawn’.¹⁹ Upon viewing the many examples in this exhibition, readers are invited to decide if they agree!

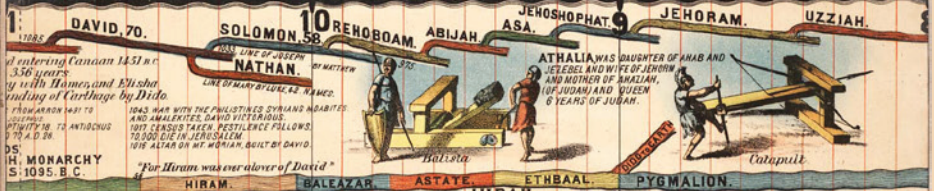
Sebastian C. Adams (1825–1898). *A Chronological Chart of Ancient, Modern and Biblical History*. Chicago: J. Andrews, 1878.

Also pre-dating the work of Sankey is the Adams Synchronological Chart (**Figure 21**). It is a large wallchart scroll depicting a timeline of history first published in 1871. The chart is a set of timelines beginning with people and events from the Christian Bible that are later merged into (mostly) historical material. While the biblical genealogies are presented in a timeline chart on the top half of the infographic, the bottom half of the infographic is dominated by an early version of a Sankey diagram showing the rise, merging, and fall of nations from ancient civilizations. Question marks are used to indicate uncertainty about the dates or events, particularly in the earlier parts of the timeframe. Centuries are marked by thick black lines, decades by thin red bars. The long snaking bands represent various nations and their relative size and strength. The bands are segmented into different colours indicating the reign of various leaders or changes in government. When one nation conquers another, their bands merge, and when areas gain independence, a single branch divides. Adams’ Synchronological Chart is an early infographic as well as a data visualization. It is similar to Shimeall’s 1832 *Genealogical Chart* in **Figure 13**. Adams’ chart also employs the scientific aesthetic of the mid-nineteenth century to lend credence and authority to biblical and popular accounts of history. The infographic is also similar to Shimeall’s in the way that biblical accounts share the stage with historical events to suggest their historical accuracy.



10th Book. 1055 1017. DAVID and GOLIATH. TO THE TRIBE OF JUDAH. DAVID, 40. SOLOMON, 40. The Two Tribes of JUDAH and BENJAMIN constitute the KINGDOM of JERUSALEM and 387 Years.

Timeline table for the period 1055-900 B.C. including kings DAVID, SOLOMON, ASA, JEREMIAH, and JEREMIAH. Includes dates and brief descriptions of events.



10th Book. 900. SOLOMON, 58. REHOBOAM, 41. ABIAH, 3. JERESHOPHAT, 41. JEHOAM, 41. UZZIAH, 52. King of ISRAEL. Kingdom of ISRAEL. MESOPOTAMIA or PADAN ARAM.



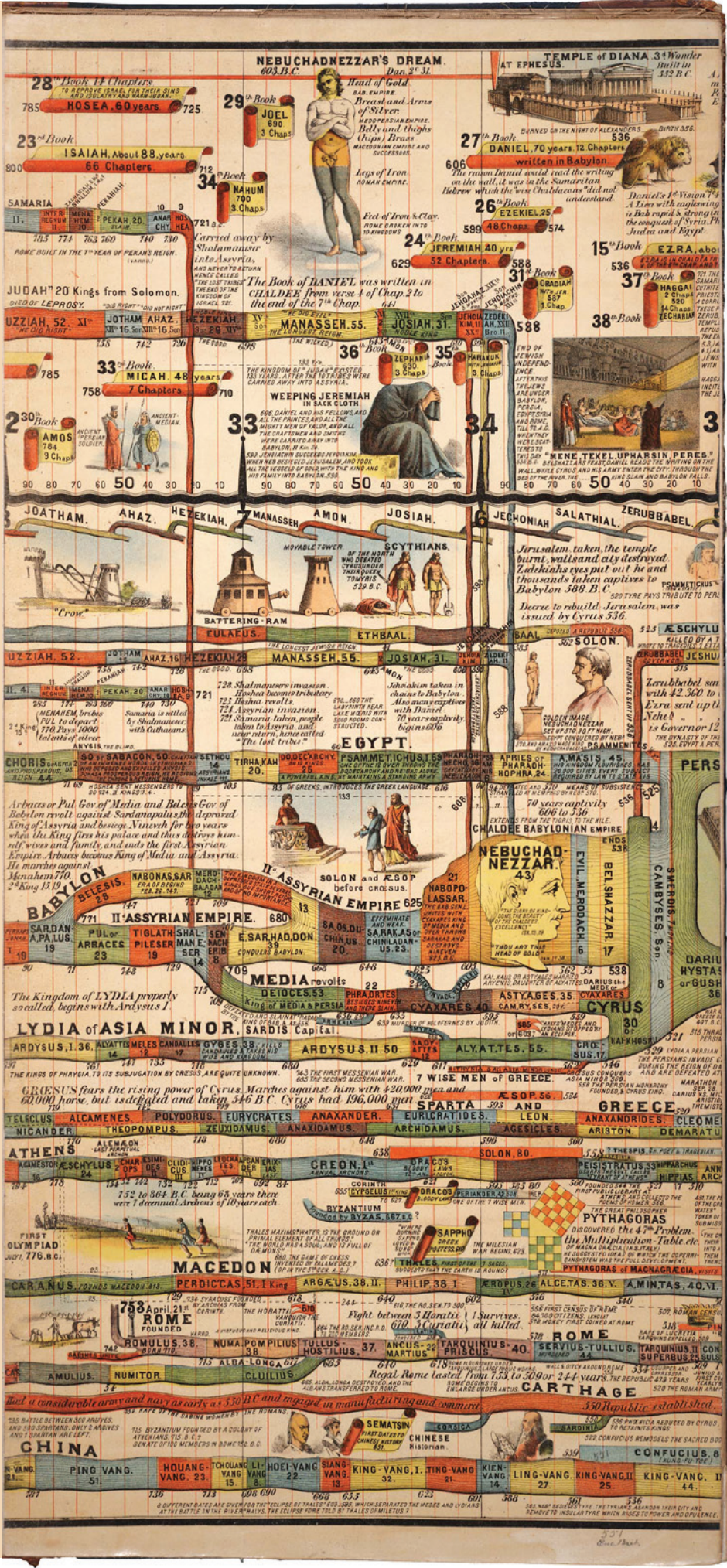
CHEOPS. PYRAMID OF CHEOPS. 461 feet high, 716 square feet covers 12 Acres. SPARTA. The two States of Greece most prominent in History were Athens and Sparta.

Timeline table for the period 600-300 B.C. including kings PERICLES, ALONNES, PERICLES, and PERICLES. Includes dates and brief descriptions of events.



HOMER OF SMYRNA. Greek Warriors. ROMULUS and REMUS nourished by a She Wolf. MAGNA GRÆCIA. THE INDEPENDENT STATES, FOUNDED BY GREEK COLONISTS IN SOUTH ITALY, SICILY ETC. WERE SOON ASSORBED IN ROME.

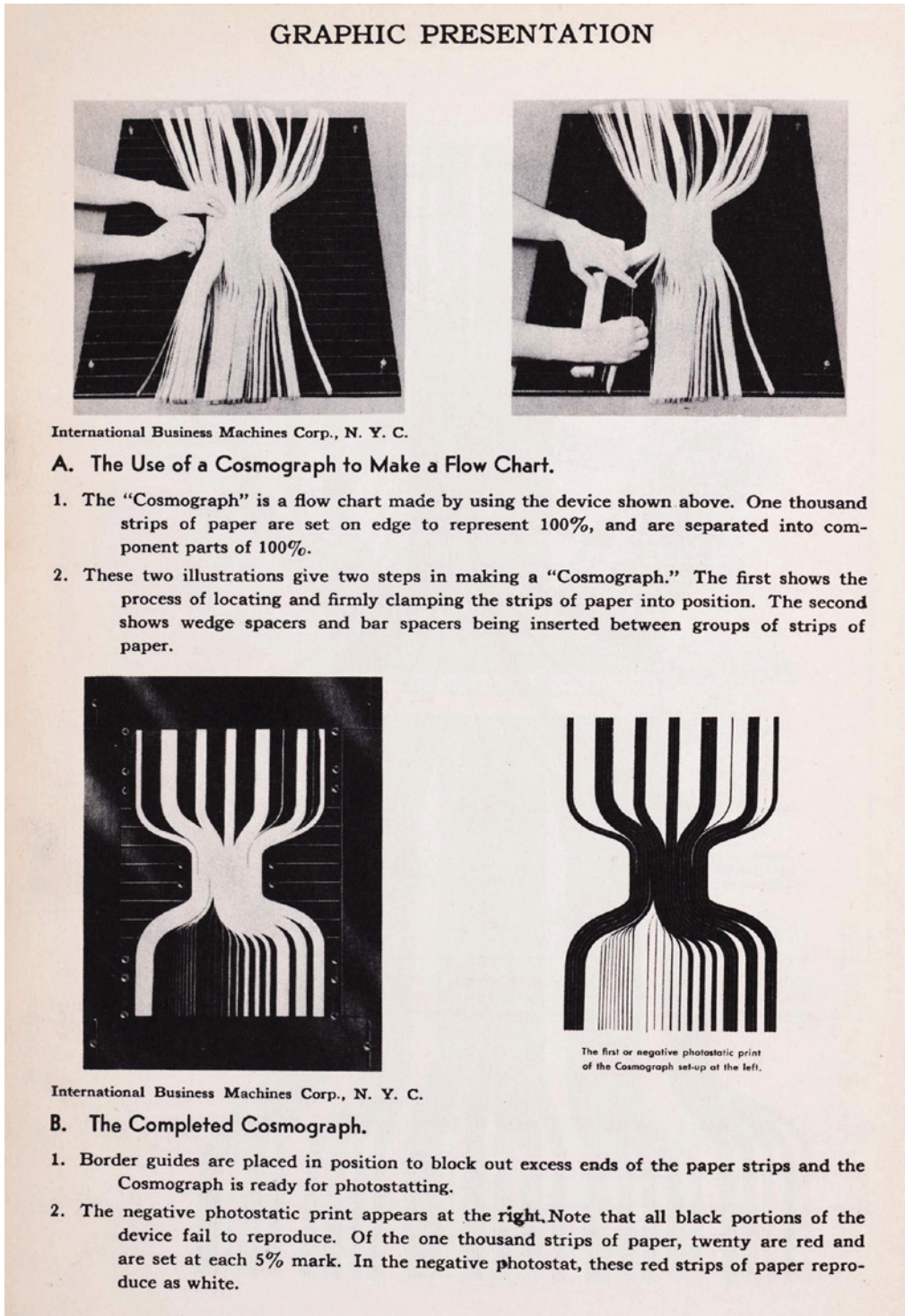
Timeline table for the period 300-100 B.C. including kings TCHOU VANG, MO VANG, KONG VANG, YE VANG, HAO VANG, Y VANG, LIO VANG, and YEU VANG. Includes dates and brief descriptions of events.



[Figure 21]

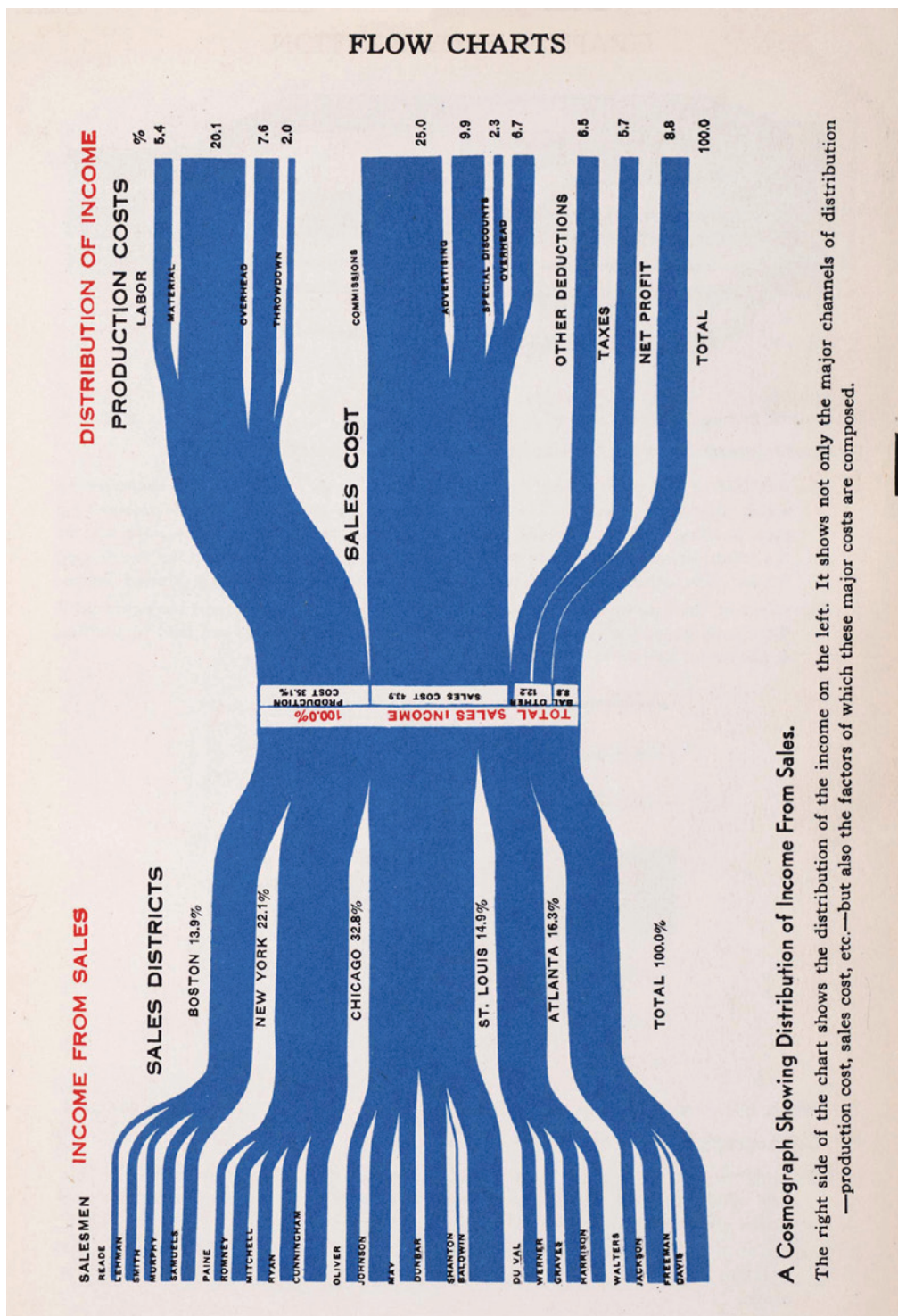
Willard C. Brinton (1880–1939). *Graphic Presentation*.
New York: Brinton Associates, 1939.

The Sankey diagrams of Minard, Adams, and Sankey were meticulously crafted by hand using rulers and drafting tools. The ones in use today are created using data



[Figure 22]

visualization software. Before the rise of computer-based graphics, attempts were made to automate and standardize the process of making Sankey diagrams. The method used to create the diagram in **Figure 22** in 1939 was described in the early data visualization textbook *Graphic Presentation* by Willard Brinton and was advanced technology for its day. The chart shows the percentage of income from



A Cosmograph Showing Distribution of Income From Sales.

The right side of the chart shows the distribution of the income on the left. It shows not only the major channels of distribution —production cost, sales cost, etc.—but also the factors of which these major costs are composed.

sales districts in the United States and then the flow of that income to various costs and profits. The chart was created by using one thousand paper strips and directing their paths with pins so that the number of strips in each section and at each point of grouping or change corresponded to the percentage of income in that category. The red strips were then photographed in black and white film on a black background so that shape of the chart was visible and smooth. Then the photograph was reversed for a black graph on a white background. The machine that was patented to create these graphs was called the ‘Cosmograph’ and the diagrams were also called ‘cosmographs’. The replacement of that name with ‘Sankey’ is another loss to the world of data visualization.

Venn Diagrams



A Venn diagram is a diagram made of two or more circles that overlap to show the logical relationships among sets of items (*inclusion*, *exclusion* and *union* or variations of *some*, *all*, and *none*). Venn diagrams use overlapping and intersecting circles to show all the possible relationships between sets. In these diagrams, each circle represents a set. Elements inside the circle are members of the set; elements outside the circle are not members of the set. Items in the intersection of more than one circle belong to more than one set. These diagrams were invented by John Venn in 1880 to simplify the way set relationships were conveyed at the time, an approach that usually involved long lists of sentences describing relationships of sets and their elements (such as: ‘all A are in B’, ‘some C are in A’, ‘none of D are in C’).²⁰ Venn’s visualization allowed for much more intuitive inferences. Venn diagrams were an improvement upon the previous circle-based set diagrams, called Euler diagrams, which did not show all of the possible relationships between elements.

I John Venn (1834–1923). *Symbolic Logic*. London: Macmillan, 1881.

Compare the ease of interpretation of the items in the fourth row in **Figure 23** in the column labeled ‘Diagrammatic’ versus the notations in the other columns. Venn diagrams are ubiquitous today, a testament to the way they visually encapsulate abstract logical relationships. As noted in the definition of data visualization, the ability to reveal relationships, even abstract logical relationships among types or classes of data, is one of the field’s most salient features.

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The Friends of the Fisher Library is a wonderful organization. Their support for exhibitions in the Library is an inspiration and *Emerging Patterns* would have been impossible without the Friends. We are tremendously grateful. We would also like to express our appreciation of the Thomas Fisher Rare Book Library itself: it is a privilege to be able to work and study in such an extraordinary place. Few libraries in the world could have mounted *Emerging Patterns*.

We would also like to thank the Office of the President and the Division of the Vice President, Research for their support of our work on this project, for making space for the sometimes esoteric professional development of University of Toronto staff, and for providing us with the opportunity to interact with such compelling colleagues.

We would also like to acknowledge the contributions of our co-author and co-curator Kelly Schultz whose knowledge of data visualization framed the scope of this exhibition and whose expertise in library and information science underpinned our organization and selection of materials.

(EXTERNAL IMAGE CITATIONS)

Figure 5. Eadweard Muybridge, *A Goat Running* [*Animal Locomotion, Plate 679*], 1887, photograph, Wellcome Collection, accessed April 6, 2023, <https://wellcomecollection.org/works/dtwggez1>.

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Figure 19. Charles Joseph Minard, *Carte figurative des pertes successives en hommes de l'armée française dans la Campagne de Russie 1812–13*, 1869, diagram, Europeana —Bibliothèque nationale de France, accessed March 15, 2023, https://www.europeana.eu/item/9200517/ark__12148_btv1b52504201x.

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Figure 27. Aurora Mendelsohn & Anthony Gray, *Emerging Patterns Author Timeline*, 2023, diagram, supplied by authors.

Figure 43. Otto Neurath, *Säuglingsterblichkeit und Einkommen*, 1930, diagram, David Rumsey Map Collection, David Rumsey Map Center, Stanford Libraries, accessed April 25, 2023, <https://www.davidrumsey.com/luna/servlet/detail/RUMSEY-8-1-325238-90094190>.

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Figure 48. Maya Eilam, *The Shapes of Stories by Kurt Vonnegut*, Tender Human, accessed April 25, 2023, <https://tenderhuman.com/shapes-of-stories-infographic>, supplied by author with permission.

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Figure 56. *Exhibit of the American Negroes at the Paris Exposition*, 1900, photograph, accessed March 28, 2023, <https://www.loc.gov/resource/cph.3c32752/>.

Figure 57. W.E.B. Du Bois, *Number of Negro Students Taking the Various Courses of Study Offered in Georgia Schools*, 1900, diagram, LOT 11931, no. 17, Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division, accessed March 28, 2023, <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2013650436/>.

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