

# Spatial data visualisation with R

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## Introduction

### What is R?

R is a free and open source computer program that runs on all major operating systems. It relies primarily on the *command line* for data input. This means that instead of interacting with the program by clicking on different parts of the screen, users type commands. This will seem a little daunting at first but the approach has a number of benefits, as highlighted by Gary Sherman (2008, p. 283), developer of the popular Geographical Information System (GIS) QGIS:

With the advent of “modern” GIS software, most people want to point and click their way through life. That’s good, but there is a tremendous amount of flexibility and power waiting for you with the command line. Many times you can do something on the command line in a fraction of the time you can do it with a GUI.

The joy of this, when you get accustomed to it, is that any command is only ever a few keystrokes away, and the order of the commands sent to R can be stored and repeated in scripts, saving time in the long-term and ensuring reproducible results (see “R and reproducible research”).

Another important attribute of R, related to its command line interface, is that it is a fully fledged open source *programming language*. In R what the user inputs is the same as what R sees when it processes the request. Access to R’s source code and openness about how it works has enabled a veritable army of programmers to improve R over time and add an incredible number of extensions to its capabilities. There are now more than 4000 official packages for R, allowing it to tackle almost any computational or numerical problem.

Although writing R source code and creating new packages will not appeal to most R users, it inspires confidence to know that there is a strong and highly skilled community of R developers. If there is a useful function that R cannot currently perform, there is a reasonable chance that someone is working on a solution that will become available at a later date. One area where extension of R’s basic capabilities has been particularly successful is the addition of a wide variety of spatial analysis and visualisation tools. The latter will be the focus of this chapter.

### Why R for spatial data visualisation?

Aside from confusion surrounding its one character name [1] and uncertainty about how to search for help [2], R may also seem a strange choice for a chapter on *spatial* data visualisation specifically. “I thought R was just for statistics?” and “Why not use a proper GIS package like ArcGIS?” are valid questions.

R was conceived - and is still primarily known - for its capabilities as a “statistical programming language” (Bivand and Gebhardt 2000). Statistical analysis functions remain core to the package but there is a broadening of functionality to reflect a growing user base across disciplines. R has become “an integrated suite of software facilities for data manipulation, calculation and graphical display” (Venables et al. 2013). Spatial data analysis and visualisation is an important growth area within this increased functionality. The map of Facebook friendships produced by Paul Butler, for example, is iconic in this regard, and reached a global audience. He mapped the linkages between friends

by calculating the great circle arcs between them (using the `geosphere` package) and plotted the result, displayed in Figure 1. The secret to the success of this map was the time taken to select the appropriate colour palette, line widths and transparency for the plot. As we discuss in Section 3 the importance of these cannot be understated and are the difference between a stunning graphic and an impenetrable mess.



Figure 1: Iconic plot of Facebook friendship networks worldwide, by Paul Butler

The impact of the map was to inspire the R community to produce more ambitious graphics; a process fuelled by the increased demand for data visualisation and the development of sophisticated packages, such as `ggplot2`, that augment the basic plot functions of R. It is now the case that R has become a key analysis and visualisation tool used by the likes of Twitter, the New York Times and Google and thousands of consultants, design houses and journalists. It is not longer the preserve of academic research, with many graduate jobs listing R as a desirable skill.

Finally, it is worth noting that while dedicated GIS programs handle spatial data by default and display the results in a single way, there are various options in R that must be decided by the user, for example whether to use R's base graphics or a dedicated graphics package such as `ggplot2`. On the other hand, the main benefits of R for spatial data visualisation lie in the *reproducibility* of its outputs, a feature that we will be using to great effect in this chapter.

## R and reproducible research

There is a drive towards transparent data and methods in academic publishing. R encourages truly transparent and reproducible research by enabling anyone with an R installation reproduce results described in a previous paper. This process is facilitated by the RStudio software that allows 'live' R code and results to be embedded in documents.

## A practical primer on spatial data in R

This section briefly introduces the input data and how they can be loaded in R. It is a *practical* chapter, so R code will be provided that will allow the steps described to be reproduced on your own computer.

The first stage, as with most GIS projects, is to obtain and load the data. In this case, all the data has been uploaded to an on-line repository that provides a detailed tutorial to accompany this Chapter: [github.com/geocomPP/sdvwR](https://github.com/geocomPP/sdvwR). Upon visiting this page you will see many files: the pdf file is the additional tutorial. To download the data, click on the "Download ZIP" button on the right, and unpack the folder to a sensible place on your computer (e.g. the Desktop). Explore the folder and try opening some of the files, especially those from the sub-folder entitled "data": these are the input files. For those new to R, we recom

In any data analysis project, spatial or otherwise, it is important to have a strong understanding of the dataset before progressing. We will see how data can be loaded into R (ready for the next section) and exported to other formats.

## Loading spatial data in R

R is able to import a very wide range of spatial data formats thanks to its interface with the Geospatial Data Abstraction Library (GDAL). The `rgdal` package makes this possible and it can be installed and loaded by entering

`install.packages("rgdal")` and `library(rgdal)`. The former only needs to be typed once, as it saves the data from the internet. The latter must be typed for each new R session that requires the package.

The world map we use is available from the Natural Earth website and a slightly modified version of it (entitled “world”) is loaded using the following code. A common problem preventing the data being loaded correctly is that R is not in the correct *working directory*. Please refer to the online [tutorial](#) if this is an issue.

```
library(rgdal) # load the package (needs to be installed)
wrld <- readOGR("data/", "world")
plot(wrld)
```



Figure 2: A Basic Map of the World

The above block of code loaded the `rgdal` library, created a new *object* called `wrld` and plotted this object to ensure it is as we expect. This operation should be fast on most computers because `wrld` is quite small. Spatial data can get very large indeed, however. It is thus useful to understand how ‘large’ the object you are dealing with is, and know how to reduce unnecessary complexity in its *geometry* to make it more manageable to analyse, plot and store. Fortunately, R makes this easy, as described in Section 2 of the [tutorial](#) that accompanies this Chapter. For now, let us continue with an even more important topic: how R ‘sees’ spatial data.

## How R ‘sees’ spatial data

Spatial datasets in R are saved in their own format, defined as **Spatial** classes within the `sp` package. This data class divides the spatial information into different *slots* so the attribute and geometry data are stored separately. This makes handling spatial data in R memory efficient. For more detail on this topic, see “The structure of spatial data in R” in the on line tutorial. We will see in the next section that this complex data structure can be simplified in R using the `fortify` function.

For now, let us ask some basic questions about the `wrld` object, using functions that would apply to any spatial dataset in R, to gain an understanding of what we have loaded.

How many rows of attribute data are there? This query can be answered using `nrow`:

```
nrow(wrld)
```

```
## [1] 175
```

What do the first 2 rows and 5 columns of attribute data contain? To answer this question, we need to refer to the `data` slot of the object using the `@` symbol and square brackets to define the subset of the data to be displayed. In R, the rows are always referred to before the comma within the square brackets and the column numbers after. Try playing with the following line of code, for example by removing the square brackets entirely:

```
wrld@data[1:2, 1:5]
```

```
##   scalerank   featurecla labelrank  sovereignty sov_a3
## 0          1 Admin-0 country        3 Afghanistan  AFG
## 1          1 Admin-0 country        3      Angola   AGO
```

The output shows that the first country in the `wrld` object is Afghanistan. Now that we have a basic understanding of the attributes of the spatial dataset, and know where to look for more detailed information about spatial data in R via the online tutorial, it is time to move on to the topic of visualisation.

## Fundamentals of Spatial Data Visualisation

Good maps depend on sound analysis and can have an enormous impact on the understanding and communication of results. It has never been easier to produce a map. The underlying data required are available in unprecedented volumes and the technological capabilities of transforming them into compelling maps and graphics are increasingly sophisticated and straightforward to use. Data and software, however, only offer the starting points of good spatial data visualisation since they need to be refined and calibrated by the researchers seeking to communicate their findings. In this section we will run through the features of a good map. It is worth noting that not all good maps and graphics contain all the features below – they should simply be seen as suggestions rather than firm principles.

Effective map making is hard process – as Krygier and Wood (2011) put it “there is a lot to see, think about, and do” (p6). It often comes at the end of a period of intense data analysis and perhaps when the priority is to get a paper finished and can therefore be rushed as a result. The beauty of R (and other scripting languages) is the ability to save code and simply re-run it with different data. Colours, map adornments and other parameters can therefore be quickly applied, so it is well worth creating a template script that adheres to best practice.

We have selected `ggplot2` as our package of choice for the bulk of our maps and spatial data visualisations because it has a number of these elements at its core. The “gg” in its slightly odd name stands for “Grammar of Graphics”, which is a set of rules developed by Leland Wilkinson (2005) in a book of the same name. Grammar in the context of graphics works in much the same way as it does in language - it provides a structure. The structure is informed by both human perception and also mathematics to ensure that the resulting visualisations are both technically sound and comprehensible. By creating `ggplot2`, Hadley Wickham, implemented these rules as well as developing ways in which plots can be built up in layers (see Wickham, 2010). This layering component is especially useful in the context of spatial data since it is conceptually the same as map layers in Geographical Information Systems (GIS).

First ensure that the necessary packages are installed and that R is in the correct working directory (see above). Then load the `ggplot2` package used in this section.

```
library(ggplot2)
```

We are going to use the previously loaded map of the world to demonstrate some of the cartographic principles as they are introduced. To establish the starting point, find the first 35 column names of the `wrld` object:

```
names(wrld@data)[1:35]
```

```
## [1] "scalerank" "featurecla" "labelrank" "sovereignty" "sov_a3"
## [6] "adm0_dif"  "level"      "type"       "admin"       "adm0_a3"
## [11] "geou_dif"  "geounit"    "gu_a3"      "su_dif"      "subunit"
## [16] "su_a3"     "brk_diff"   "name"       "name_long"   "brk_a3"
## [21] "brk_name"  "brk_group"  "abbrev"     "postal"      "formal_en"
## [26] "formal_fr" "note_adm0"  "note_brk"   "name_sort"   "name_alt"
## [31] "mapcolor7" "mapcolor8"  "mapcolor9"  "mapcolor13"  "pop_est"
```

You can see there are a lot of columns associated with this file. Although we will keep all of them, we are only really interested in the population estimate (“`pop_est`”) field. Typing `summary(wrld$pop_est)` provides basic descriptive statistics on population.

Before progressing it is worth reprojecting the data in order that the population data can be seen better. The coordinate reference system of the wrld shapefile is currently WGS84. This is the common latitude and longitude format that all spatial software packages understand. From a cartographic perspective the standard plots of this projection, of the kind produced above, are not suitable since they heavily distort the shapes of those countries further from the equator. Instead the Robinson projection provides a good compromise between areal distortion and shape preservation. We therefore project it as follows.

```
wrld.rob <- spTransform(wrld, CRS("+proj=robin"))
plot(wrld.rob)
```



Figure 3: The Robinson Projection

`+proj=robin` refers to the Robinson projection. You will have spotted from the plot that the countries in the world map are much better proportioned.

We now need to `fortify` this spatial data to convert it into a format that `ggplot2` understands, we also use `merge` to re-attach the attribute data that is lost in the fortify operation.

```
wrld.rob.f <- fortify(wrld.rob, region = "sov_a3")
```

```
## Loading required package: rgeos
## rgeos version: 0.3-2, (SVN revision 413M)
## GEOS runtime version: 3.3.9-CAPI-1.7.9
## Polygon checking: TRUE
```

```
wrld.pop.f <- merge(wrld.rob.f, wrld.rob@data, by.x = "id", by.y = "sov_a3")
```

The code below produces a map coloured by the population variable. It demonstrates the sophistication of `ggplot2` by first stringing together a series of plot commands and assigning them to a single R object called `map`. If you type `map` into the command line, R will then execute the code and generate the plot. By simply specifying our `fill` variable within the `aes()` part of the code and then using the `geom_polygon()` command `ggplot2` will fill colour the countries using a default colour palette and auto-generated key. As will be shown in the next section these defaults can be easily altered to produce different looking maps.

```
map <- ggplot(wrld.pop.f, aes(long, lat, group = group, fill = pop_est)) + geom_polygon() +
  coord_equal() + labs(x = "Longitude", y = "Latitude", fill = "World Population") +
  ggtitle("World Population")
```

```
map
```

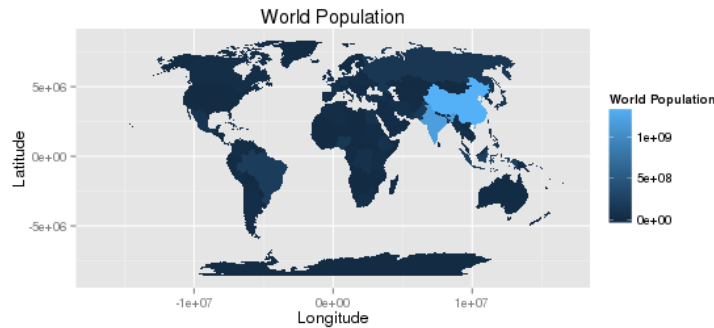


Figure 4: World Population Map

## Colour and other aesthetics

Colour has an enormous impact on how people will perceive a graphic. Readers of a map come to it with a range of pre-conceptions about how the world looks.

### Choropleth Maps

ggplot2 knows the difference between continuous and categorical (nominal) data and will automatically assign the appropriate colour palettes when producing choropleth maps such as the one above. The default colour palettes are generally a good place to start but users may wish to vary them for a whole host of reasons, such as the need to print in black and white. The `scale_fill_` family of commands facilitate such customisation. For categorical data `scale_fill_manual()` is a useful command:

```
# Produce a map of continents
map.cont <- ggplot(wrld.pop.f, aes(long, lat, group = group, fill = continent)) +
  geom_polygon() + coord_equal() + labs(x = "Longitude", y = "Latitude", fill = "World Continents") +
  ggtitle("World Continents")

# To see the default colours
map.cont
```

To change the colour scheme:

```
map.cont + scale_fill_manual(values = c("yellow", "red", "purple", "white",
  "orange", "blue", "green", "black"))
```

Whilst `scale_fill_continuous()` works with continuous datasets:

```
# note the use of the 'map' object created earlier

map + scale_fill_continuous(low = "white", high = "black")
```

It is well worth looking at the *Color Brewer* palettes developed by Cynthia Brewer. These are designed to be colour blind safe and perceptually uniform such that no one colour jumps out more than any others. This latter characteristic is important when trying to produce impartial maps. R has a package that contains the colour palettes and these can be easily utilised by ggplot2.

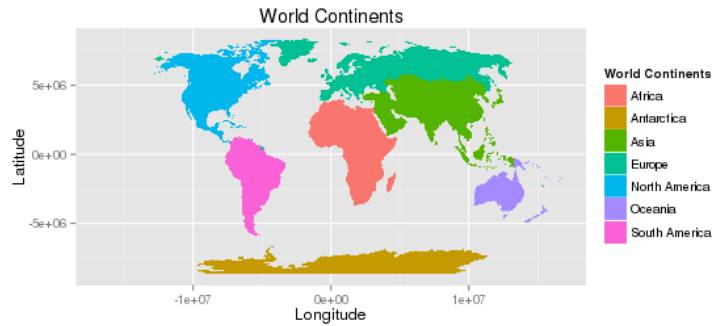


Figure 5: A Map of the Continents Using Default Colours

```
library(RColorBrewer)
# look at the help documents to see the palettes available. See
# http://colorbrewer2.org/
'?'(RColorBrewer)
# note the use of the scale_fill_gradientn() function rather than
# scale_fill_continuous() used above
map + scale_fill_gradientn(colours = brewer.pal(7, "YlGn"))
```

In addition to altering the colour scale used to represent continuous data it may also be desirable to adjust the breaks at which the colour transitions occur. There are many ways to select both the optimum number of breaks (i.e colour transitions) and the locations in the dataset at which they occur. The `classINT` package contains many ways to automatically create these breaks. We use the `grid.arrange` function from the `gridExtra` package to display the maps side by side.

```
library(classInt)
library(gridExtra)

## Loading required package: grid

# Specify how many breaks you want - generally this should be fewer than 7.

nbrks <- 6

# Here quantiles are used to identify the breaks (note that we are using the
# original 'wrlld.rob' object and not the 'wrlld.rob@data$pop_est.f'). Use the
# help files to see the full range of options.
brks <- classIntervals(wrlld.rob@data$pop_est, n = nbrks, style = "quantile")

print(brks)

## style: quantile
##      [-99,1990876)      [1990876,4615807)      [4615807,9059651)
##                29                29                29
##      [9059651,16715999) [16715999,40913584) [40913584,1.339e+09]
##                29                29                30
```

```

# Now the breaks can be easily inserted into the code above for a range of
# colour palettes
YlGn <- map + scale_fill_gradientn(colours = brewer.pal(nbrks, "YlGn"), breaks = c(brks$brks))

PuBu <- map + scale_fill_gradientn(colours = brewer.pal(nbrks, "PuBu"), breaks = c(brks$brks))

grid.arrange(YlGn, PuBu, ncol = 2)

```

If you are not happy with the automatic methods for specifying breaks it can also be done manually:

```

library()
nbrks <- 4
brks <- c(1e+08, 2.5e+08, 5e+07, 1e+09)
map + scale_fill_gradientn(colours = brewer.pal(nbrks, "PuBu"), breaks = c(brks))

```



Figure 6: unnamed-chunk-6

There are many other ways to specify and alter the colours in ggplot2 and these are outlined in the help documentation.

If the map's purpose is to clearly communicate data then it is often advisable to conform to conventions so as not to disorientate readers to ensure they can focus on the key messages contained in the data. A good example of this is the use of blue for bodies of water and green for landmasses. The code example below generates two plots with our `wrld.pop.f` object. The first colours the land blue and the sea (in this case the background to the map) green and the second is more conventional.

```

map2 <- ggplot(wrld.pop.f, aes(long, lat, group = group)) + coord_equal()

blue <- map2 + geom_polygon(fill = "light blue") + theme(panel.background = element_rect(fill = "dark green"))

green <- map2 + geom_polygon(fill = "dark green") + theme(panel.background = element_rect(fill = "light blue"))

grid.arrange(blue, green, ncol = 2)

```



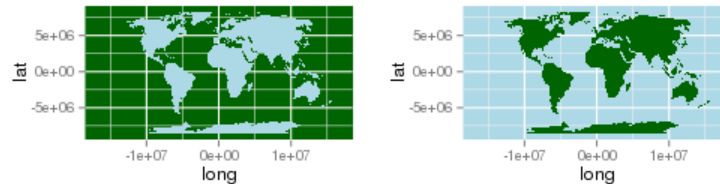


Figure 7: Conforming to Colour Convention

### Experimenting with line colour and line widths

In addition to conforming to colour conventions, line colour and width offer important parameters, which are often overlooked tools for increasing the legibility of a graphic. As the code below demonstrates, it is possible to adjust line colour through using the `colour` parameter and the line width using the `lwd` parameter. The impact of different line widths will vary depending on your screen size and resolution. If you save the plot to pdf (or an image) then the size at which you do this will also affect the line widths.

```
map3 <- map2 + theme(panel.background = element_rect(fill = "light blue"))

yellow <- map3 + geom_polygon(fill = "dark green", colour = "yellow")

black <- map3 + geom_polygon(fill = "dark green", colour = "black")

thin <- map3 + geom_polygon(fill = "dark green", colour = "black", lwd = 0.1)

thick <- map3 + geom_polygon(fill = "dark green", colour = "black", lwd = 1.5)

grid.arrange(yellow, black, thick, thin, ncol = 2)
```

There are other parameters such as layer transparency (use the `alpha` parameter for this) that can be applied to all aspects of the plot - both points, lines and polygons. Space does not permit their full exploration here but more information is available from the many online examples and the ggplot2 package documentation.

### Map Adornments and Annotations

Map adornments and annotations are essential to orientate the viewer and provide context; they include graticules, north arrows, scale bars and data attribution. Not all are required on a single map, indeed it is often best that they are used sparingly to avoid unnecessary clutter (Monkhouse and Wilkinson, 1971). With ggplot2 many of these are added automatically but they can be customised.

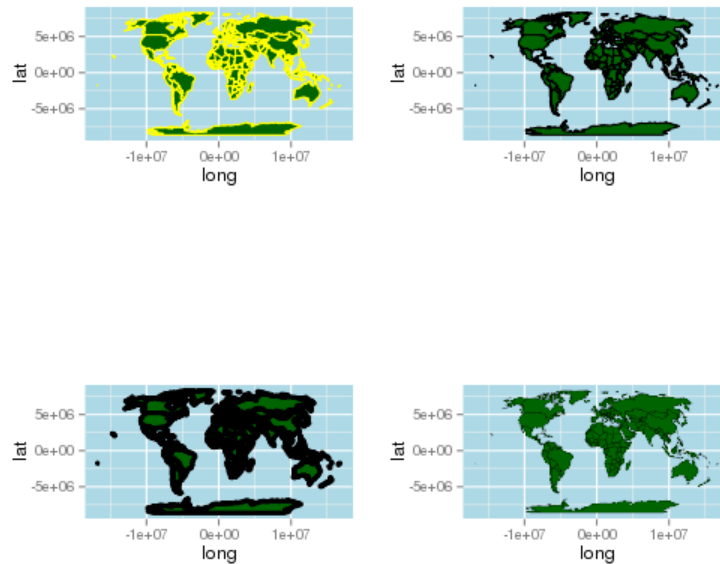


Figure 8: The Impact of Line Width

## North arrow

In the maps created so far, we have defined the *aesthetics* (*aes*) of the map in the foundation function `ggplot()`. The result of this is that all subsequent layers are expected to have the same variables. But what if we want to add a new layer from a completely different dataset, for example to add a north arrow? To do this, we must not add any arguments to the `ggplot` function, only adding data sources one layer at a time:

Here we create an empty plot, meaning that each new layer must be given its own dataset. While more code is needed in this example, it enables much greater flexibility with regards to what can be included in new layer contents. Another possibility is to use `geom_segment()` to add a rudimentary arrow (see `?geom_segment` for refinements):

```
library(grid) # needed for arrow
ggplot() + geom_polygon(data = wrld.pop.f, aes(long, lat, group = group, fill = pop_est)) +
  geom_line(aes(x = c(-1.3e+07, -1.3e+07), y = c(0, 5e+06)), arrow = arrow()) +
  coord_fixed() # correct aspect ratio
```

## Scale bar

`ggplot2`'s scale bar capabilities are perhaps the least advanced element of the package. For this example we use the `geom_line()` function to draw a line of approximately 1km in length using the `lnd.f` object containing the London Boroughs discussed in Section XXXX. This approach will only work if the spatial data are in a projected coordinate system - in this case British National Grid - to ensure there are no distortions as a result of the curvature of the earth. In the case of the world map the distances at the equator in terms of degrees east to west are very different from those further north or south. Any line drawn using the the simple approach below would therefore be inaccurate. For maps covering large areas - such as the entire world - leaving the axis labels on will enable them to act as a graticule to indicate distance.

```
load("data/lnd.f.RData")
ggplot() + geom_polygon(data = lnd.f, aes(long, lat, group = group)) + geom_line(aes(x = c(505000,
```

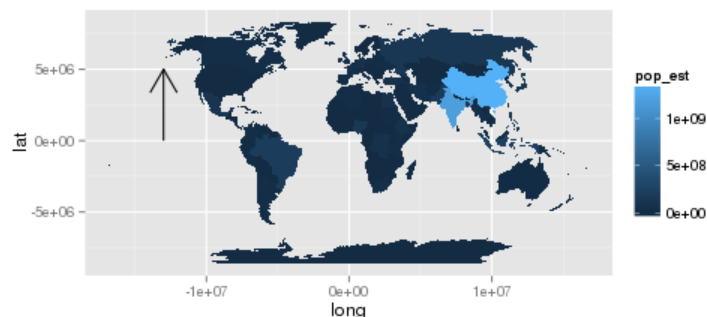


Figure 9: North Arrow Example

```
515000), y = c(158000, 158000)), lwd = 2) + annotate("text", label = "10km",
x = 510000, y = 160000) + coord_fixed()
```

## Legends

Legends are added automatically but can be customised in a number of ways. They are an important adornment of any map since they describe what its colours mean. Try to select colour breaks that are easy to follow and avoid labelling the legend with values that go to a large number of significant figures. A few examples of legend customisation are included below by way of introduction, but there are many more examples available in the `ggplot2` documentation.

### *# Position*

```
map + theme(legend.position = "top")
```

As you can see, this added the legend in a new place. Many more options for customization are available, as highlighted in the examples below.

### *# Title*

```
map + theme(legend.title = element_text(colour = "Red", size = 16, face = "bold"))
```

### *# Label Font Size and Colour*

```
map + theme(legend.text = element_text(colour = "blue", size = 16, face = "italic"))
```

### *# Border and background box*

```
map + theme(legend.background = element_rect(fill = "gray90", size = 0.5, linetype = "dotted"))
```

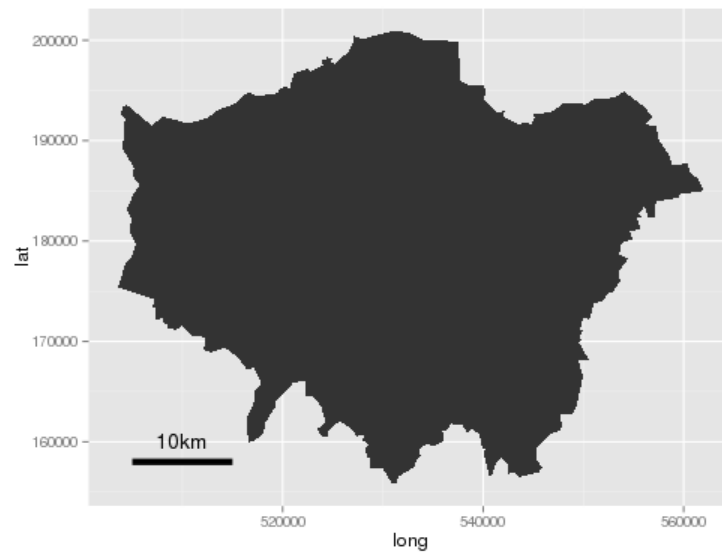


Figure 10: Scale Bar Example

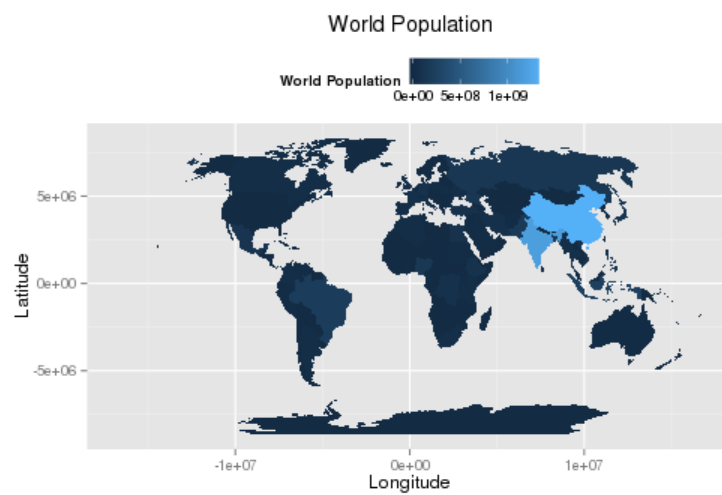


Figure 11: Formatting the Legend

## Adding Basemaps To Your Plots

The development of the `ggmap` package has enabled the simple use of online mapping services such as Google Maps and OpenStreetMap for base maps. Using image tiles from these services spatial data can be placed in context as users can easily orientate themselves to streets and landmarks.

For this example we are going to use the shapefile of London sports participation introduced in Section 2. The data were originally projected to British National Grid (BNG) which is not compatible with the online map services used in the following examples. It therefore needs reprojecting - a step we completed earlier. The reprojected file can be loaded as follows:

```
load("data/lnd.wgs84.RData")
```

The first job is to calculate the bounding box (bb for short) of the `lnd.wgs84` object to identify the geographic extent of the map. This information is used to request the appropriate map tiles from the map service of our choice. This process is conceptually the same as the size of your web browser or smartphone screen when using Google maps for navigation. The first line of code in the snippet below retrieves the bounding box and the two that follow add 5% so there is a little space around the edges of the data to be plotted.

```
b <- bbox(lnd.wgs84)
b[1, ] <- (b[1, ] - mean(b[1, ])) * 1.05 + mean(b[1, ])
b[2, ] <- (b[2, ] - mean(b[2, ])) * 1.05 + mean(b[2, ])
# scale longitude and latitude (increase bb by 5% for plot) replace 1.05
# with 1.xx for an xx% increase in the plot size
```

This is then fed into the `get_map` function as the location parameter. The syntax below contains 2 functions. `ggmap` is required to produce the plot and provides the base map data.

```
library(ggmap)

lnd.b1 <- ggmap(get_map(location = b))
```

```
## Warning: bounding box given to google - spatial extent only approximate.
```

`ggmap` follows the same syntax structures as `ggplot2` and so can easily be integrated with the other examples included here. First `fortify` the `lnd.wgs84` object and then merge with the required attribute data.

```
lnd.wgs84.f <- fortify(lnd.wgs84, region = "ons_label")
lnd.wgs84.f <- merge(lnd.wgs84.f, lnd.wgs84@data, by.x = "id", by.y = "ons_label")
```

We can now overlay this on our base map using the `geom_polygon()` function.

```
lnd.b1 + geom_polygon(data = lnd.wgs84.f, aes(x = long, y = lat, group = group,
fill = Partic_Per), alpha = 0.5)
```

The resulting map looks reasonable, but it would be improved with a simpler base map in black and white. A design firm called *stamen* provide the tiles we need and they can be brought into the plot with the `get_map` function:

```
lnd.b2 <- ggmap(get_map(location = b, source = "stamen", maptypes = "toner",
crop = T)) #note the addition of the maptypes parameter.
```

We can then produce the plot as before.

```
lnd.b2 + geom_polygon(data = lnd.wgs84.f, aes(x = long, y = lat, group = group,
fill = Partic_Per), alpha = 0.5)
```

This produces a much clearer map and enables readers to focus on the data rather than the basemap. Spatial polygons are not the only data types compatible with `ggmap` - you can use any plot type and set of parameters available in `ggplot2`, making it an ideal companion package for spatial data visualisation.

## A Final Example

Here we present a final example that draws upon the many advanced concepts discussed in this chapter to produce a map of 18th Century Shipping flows. The data have been obtained from the CLIWOC project and they represent a sample of digitised ships' logs from the 18th Century. We are using a very small sample of the the full dataset, which is available from here: <http://pendientedemigracion.ucm.es/info/cliwoc/>. The example has been chosen to demonstrate a range of capabilities within ggplot2 and the ways in which they can be applied to produce high-quality maps with only a few lines of code. We end by showing how the maps can be animated to chart the routes over time and the ability of R to produce many maps very quickly.

As always, the first step is to load in the required packages and datasets. Here we are using the png package to load in a series of map annotations. These have been created in image editing software and will add a historic feel to the map. We are also loading in a World boundary shapefile and the shipping data itself.

```
library(rgdal)
library(ggplot2)
library(png)
wrld <- readOGR("data/", "ne_110m_admin_0_countries")

## OGR data source with driver: ESRI Shapefile
## Source: "data/", layer: "ne_110m_admin_0_countries"
## with 177 features and 63 fields
## Feature type: wkbPolygon with 2 dimensions

btitle <- readPNG("figure/brit_titles.png")
compass <- readPNG("figure/windrose.png")
bdata <- read.csv("data/british_shipping_example.csv")
```

If you look at the first few lines in the `bdata` object you will see there are 7 columns with each row representing a single point on the ships course. The year of the journey and the nationality of the ship are also included. The final 3 columns are identifiers that are used later to group the coordinate points together into the paths that ggplot2 plots.

We first specify some plot parameters that remove the axis labels.

```
xquiet <- scale_x_continuous("", breaks = NULL)
yquiet <- scale_y_continuous("", breaks = NULL)
quiet <- list(xquiet, yquiet)
```

The next step is to fortify the World coastlines and create the base plot. This sets the extents of the plot window and provides the blank canvas on which we will build up the layers. The first layer created is the `wrld` object; the code is wrapped in `c()` to prevent it from executing by simply storing it as the plot's parameters.

```
wrld.f <- fortify(wrld, region = "sov_a3")
base <- ggplot(wrld.f, aes(x = long, y = lat))
wrld <- c(geom_polygon(aes(group = group), size = 0.1, colour = "black", fill = "#D6BF86",
  data = wrld.f, alpha = 1))
```

To see the result of this simply type:

```
base + wrld + coord_fixed()
```

The code snippet below creates the plot layer containing the the shipping routes. The `geom_path()` function is used to string together the coordinates into the routes. You can see within the `aes()` component we have specified `long` and `lat` plus pasted together the `trp` and `group` variables to identify the unique paths.

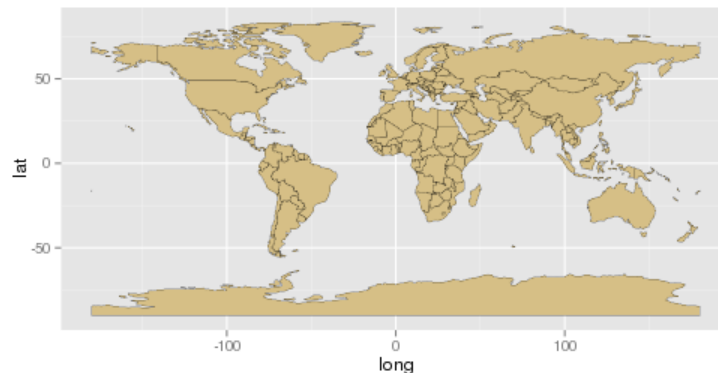


Figure 12: World Map

```
route <- c(geom_path(aes(long, lat, group = paste(bdata$trp, bdata$group.regroup,
  sep = "."))), colour = "#0F3B5F", size = 0.2, data = bdata, alpha = 0.5,
  lineend = "round"))
```

We now have all we need to generate the final plot by building the layers together with the + sign as shown in the code below. The first 3 arguments are the plot layers, and the parameters within `theme()` are changing the background colour to sea blue. `annotation_raster()` plots the png map adornments loaded in earlier- this requires the bounding box of each image to be specified. In this case we use latitude and longitude (in WGS84) and we can use these parameters to change the png's position and also its size. The final two arguments fix the aspect ratio of the plot and remove the axis labels.

```
base + route + wrld + theme(panel.background = element_rect(fill = "#BAC4B9",
  colour = "black")) + annotation_raster(bttitle, xmin = 30, xmax = 140, ymin = 51,
  ymax = 87) + annotation_raster(compass, xmin = 65, xmax = 105, ymin = 25,
  ymax = 65) + coord_equal() + quiet
```

In the plot example we have chosen the colours carefully to give the appearance of a historic map. An alternative approach could be to use a satellite image as a base map. It is possible to use the `readPNG` function to import NASA's "Blue Marble" image for this purpose. Given that the route information is the same projection as the image it is very straightforward to set the image extent to span -180 to 180 degrees and -90 to 90 degrees and have it align with the shipping data. Producing the plot is accomplished using the code below. This offers a good example of where functionality designed without spatial data in mind can be harnessed for the purposes of producing interesting maps. Once you have produced the plot, alter the code to recolour the shipping routes to make them appear more clearly against the blue marble background.

```
earth <- readPNG("figure/earth_raster.png")

base + annotation_raster(earth, xmin = -180, xmax = 180, ymin = -90, ymax = 90) +
  route + theme(panel.background = element_rect(fill = "#BAC4B9", colour = "black")) +
```

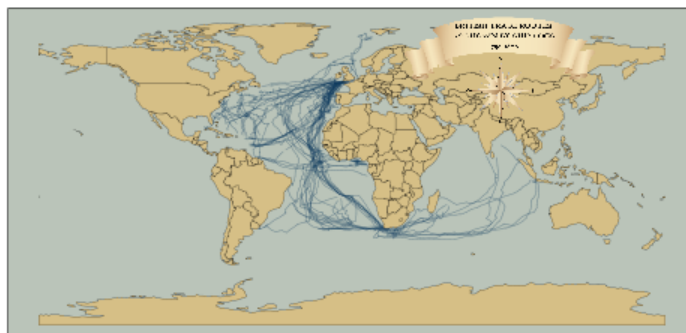


Figure 13: World Shipping

```
annotation_raster(btitle, xmin = 30, xmax = 140, ymin = 51, ymax = 87) +
annotation_raster(compass, xmin = 65, xmax = 105, ymin = 25, ymax = 65) +
coord_equal() + quiet
```

## Conclusions

There are an almost infinite number of different combinations colours, adornments and line widths that could be applied to a map, so take inspiration from maps and graphics you have seen and liked. The process is an iterative one, it will take multiple attempts to get right. Show your map to friends and colleagues - all will have an opinion but don't be afraid to stand by the decisions you have taken. To give your maps a final polish you may wish to export them as a pdf using the `ggsave()` function and importing them into a vector graphics package such as Adobe Illustrator or Inkscape.

The beauty of producing maps in a programming environment as opposed to the GUI offered by the majority of GIS software packages lies in the fact that each line of code can be easily adapted to a different dataset. Users can therefore create a series of scripts that act as templates and simply call them when required. This saves a huge amount of time and has the added advantage that all outputs will have a consistent style and thus offer more professional looking publications.

This chapter has covered a large number of techniques and approaches for the preparation, analysis and visualisation of spatial data in R. Whilst it only covers the tip of the iceberg in terms of R's capabilities, it does lay the foundations to the use of the multitude of other spatial data packages available. These can be discovered online and through the help documentation and other chapters provided by the R community. By utilising the data visualisation techniques and examples of best practice we have covered it is hoped that you will be able to communicate your results in a compelling and effective way without the need for the repetitive "pointing and clicking" required of many GIS packages; you can now tweak colours and other aspects of the plots without the need to start from scratch each time an iterative improvement is required. As the R community grows so will its range of applications and available packages so there will be many exciting opportunities ahead to improve on what is presented here.



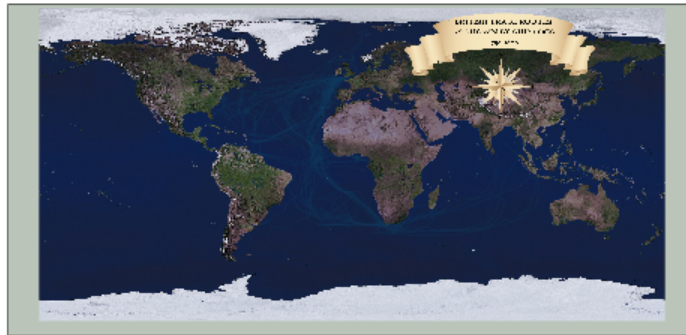


Figure 14: World Shipping with raster background

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## Endnotes

1. “What kind of a name is R?” common question. R’s name originates from the creators of R, Ross Ihaka and Robert Gentleman. R is an open source implementation of the statistical programming language S, so its name is also a play on words that makes implicit reference to this.
2. R is notoriously difficult to search for on major search engines, as it is such a common letter with many other uses beyond the name of a statistical programming language. This should not be a deterrent, as R has a wealth of excellent online resources. To overcome the issue, you can either be more specific with the search term (e.g. “R spatial statistics”) or use an R specific search engine such as [rseek.org](http://rseek.org). You can also search of online help *from within R* using the command `RSiteSearch`. E.g. `RSiteSearch("spatial statistics")`. Experiment and see which you prefer!

```
source("md2pdf.R") # convert chapter to tex
```