

# **DISPLAYING TIME SERIES, SPATIAL, AND SPACE-TIME DATA WITH R**

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## **Chapter 1**

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# **Introduction**

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**Part I**

**Time Series**



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## Chapter 2

# Displaying Time Series: Introduction

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A time series is a sequence of observations registered at consecutive time instants. When these time instants are evenly spaced, the distance between them is called the sampling interval. The visualization of time series is intended to reveal changes of one or more quantitative variables through time, and to display the relationships between the variables and their evolution through time.

The standard time series graph displays the time along the horizontal axis. Several variants of this approach can be found in Chapter 3. On the other hand, time can be conceived as a grouping or conditioning variable (Chapter 4). This solution allows several variables to be displayed together with a scatterplot, using different panels for subsets of the data (time as a conditioning variable) or using different attributes for groups of the data (time as a grouping variable). Moreover, time can be used as a complementary variable that adds information to a graph where several variables are confronted (Chapter 5).

These chapters provide a variety of examples to illustrate a set of useful techniques. These examples make use of several datasets (available at the book website) described in Chapter 6.

## 2.1 Packages

The CRAN Tasks View “Time Series Analysis”<sup>1</sup> summarizes the packages for reading, visualizing, and analyzing time series. This section provides a brief introduction to the `zoo` and `xts` packages. Most of the information has been extracted from their vignettes, webpages, and help pages. You should read them for detailed information.

Both packages extensively use the time classes defined in R. The interested reader will find an overview of the different time classes in R in (Ripley and Hornik 2001) and (Grothendieck and Petzoldt 2004).

### 2.1.1 `zoo`

The `zoo` package (Zeileis and Grothendieck 2005) provides an S3 class with methods for indexed totally ordered observations. Its key design goals are independence of a particular index class and consistency with base R and the `ts` class for regular time series.

Objects of class `zoo` are created by the function `zoo` from a numeric vector, matrix, or a factor that is totally ordered by some index vector. This index is usually a measure of time but every other numeric, character, or even more abstract vector that provides a total ordering of the observations is also suitable. It must be noted that this package defines two new index classes, `yearmon` and `yearqtr`, for representing monthly and quarterly data, respectively.

The package defines several methods associated with standard generic functions such as `print`, `summary`, `str`, `head`, `tail`, and `[` (subsetting). In addition, standard mathematical operations can be performed with `zoo` objects, although only for the intersection of the indexes of the objects.

On the other hand, the data stored in `zoo` objects can be extracted with `coredata`, which drops the index information, and can be replaced by `coredata<-`. The index can be extracted with `index` or `time`, and can be modified by `index<-`. Finally, the `window` and `window<-` methods extract or replace time windows of `zoo` objects.

Two `zoo` objects can be merged by common indexes with `merge` and `cbind`. The `merge` method combines the columns of several objects along the union or the intersection of the indexes. The `rbind` method combines the indexes (rows) of the objects.

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<sup>1</sup><http://CRAN.R-project.org/view=TimeSeries>

The aggregate method splits a `zoo` object into subsets along a coarser index grid, computes a function (`sum` is the default) for each subset, and returns the aggregated `zoo` object.

This package provides four methods for dealing with missing observations:

1. `na.omit` removes incomplete observations.
2. `na.contiguous` extracts the longest consecutive stretch of non-missing values.
3. `na.approx` replaces missing values by linear interpolation.
4. `na.locf` replaces missing observations by the most recent non-NA prior to it.

The package defines interfaces to `read.table` and `write.table` for reading, `read.zoo`, and writing, `write.zoo`, `zoo` series from or to text files. The `read.zoo` function expects either a text file or connection as input or a `data.frame`. `write.zoo` first coerces its argument to a `data.frame`, adds a column with the index, and then calls `write.table`.

### 2.1.2 xts

The `xts` package (Ryan and Ulrich 2013) extends the `zoo` class definition to provide a general time-series object. The index of an `xts` object must be of a time or date class: `Date`, `POSIXct`, `chron`, `yearmon`, `yearqtr`, or `timeDate`. With this restriction, the subset operator `[` is able to extract data using the ISO:8601<sup>2</sup> time format notation `CCYY-MM-DD HH:MM:SS`. It is also possible to extract a range of times with a `from/to` notation, where both `from` and `to` are optional. If either side is missing, it is interpreted as a request to retrieve data from the beginning, or through the end of the data object.

Furthermore, this package provides several time-based tools:

- `endpoints` identifies the endpoints with respect to time.
- `to.period` changes the periodicity to a coarser time index.
- The functions `period.*` and `apply.*` evaluate a function over a set of non-overlapping time periods.

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<sup>2</sup>[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ISO\\_8601](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ISO_8601)

## 2.2 Further Reading

- (Wills 2011) provides a systematic analysis of the visualization of time series, and a section of (Jeffrey Heer, Bostock, and Ogievetsky 2010) summarizes the main techniques to display time series.
- (Cleveland 1994) includes a section about time series visualization with a detailed discussion of the banking to  $45^\circ$  technique and the cut-and-stack method. (J. Heer and Agrawala 2006) propose the multi-scale banking, a technique to identify trends at various frequency scales.
- (Few 2008; J. Heer, Kong, and Agrawala 2009) explain in detail the foundations of the horizon graph (Section 3).
- The *small multiples* concept (Sections 3.2 and 4.1) is illustrated in (Tufte 2001; Tufte 1990).
- Stacked graphs are analyzed in (Byron and Wattenberg 2008), and the ThemeRiver technique is explained in (Havre et al. 2002).
- (Cleveland 1994; Friendly and Denis 2005) study the scatterplot matrices (Section 4.1), and (D. B. Carr et al. 1987) provide information about hexagonal binning.
- (Harrower and Fabrikant 2008) discuss the use of animation for the visualization of data. (Few 2007) exposes a software tool resembling the Trendalyzer.
- The D3 gallery<sup>3</sup> shows several great examples of time-series visualizations using the JavaScript library D3.js.

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<sup>3</sup><https://github.com/mbostock/d3/wiki/Gallery>

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## Chapter 3

# Time on the Horizontal Axis

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The most frequent visualization method of a time series uses the horizontal axis to depict the time index. This chapter illustrates several variants to display multivariate time series: multiple time series with different scales, variables with the same scale, and stacked graphs.

### 3.1 Time Graph of Variables with Different Scales

There is a variety of scientific research interested in the relationship among several meteorological variables. A suitable approach is to display the time evolution of all of them using a panel for each of the variables. The superposition of variables with different characteristics is not very useful (unless their values were previously rescaled), so this option is postponed for Section 3.2.

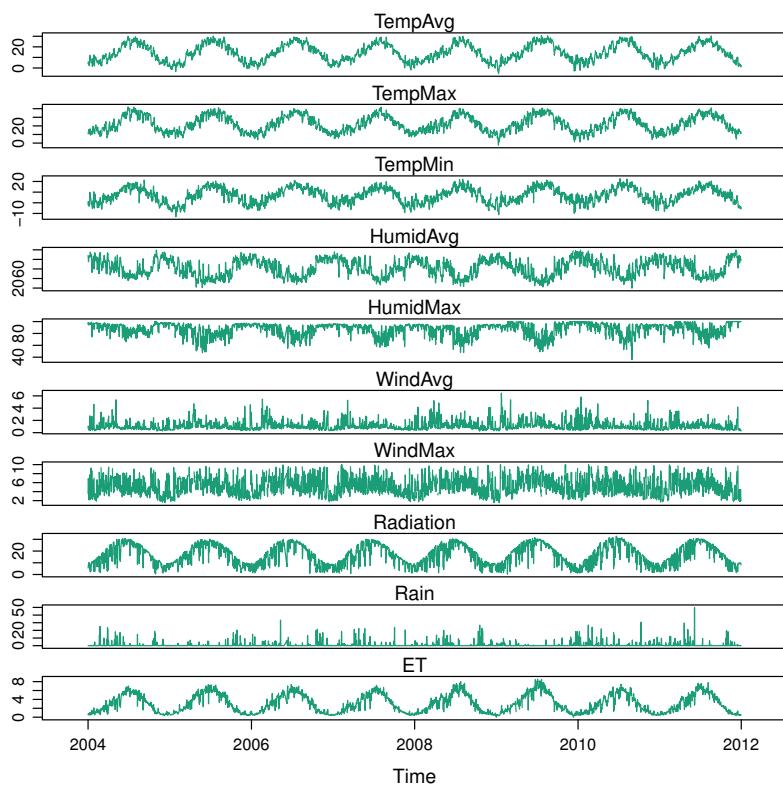
For this example we will use the 8 years of daily data from the SIAR meteorological station located at Aranjuez (Madrid). This multivariate time series can be displayed with the `xyplot` method of `lattice` for `zoo` objects with a panel for each variable (Figure 3.1).

```
library(zoo)
load('data/aranjuez.RData')

## The layout argument arranges panels in rows
xyplot(aranjuez, layout = c(1, ncol(aranjuez)))
```

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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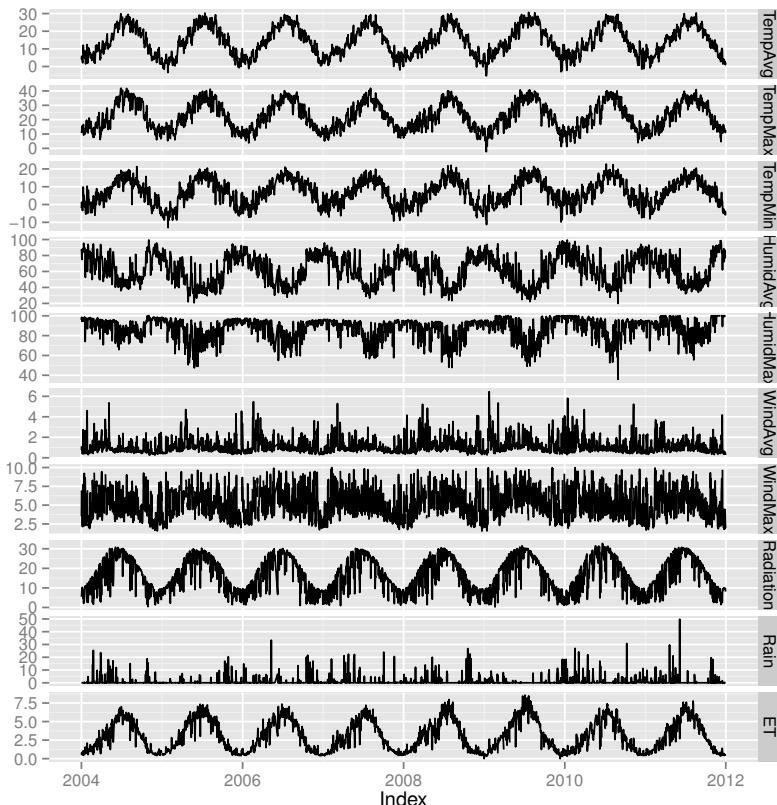


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FIGURE 3.1: Time plot of the collection of meteorological time series of the Aranjuez station (lattice version).

### 3.1 Time Graph of Variables with Different Scales

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FIGURE 3.2: Time plot of the collection of meteorological time series of the Aranjuez station (ggplot2 version).

The package `ggplot2` provides the generic method `autoplot` to automate the display of certain classes with a simple command. The package `zoo` provides an `autoplot` method for the `zoo` class with a result similar to that obtained with `xyplot` (Figure 3.2)

```
autoplot(aranjuez) + facet_free()
```

#### 3.1.1 Annotations to Enhance the Time Graph

These first attempts can be improved with a custom panel function that generates the content of each panel using the information processed by

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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`xyplot`, or overlaying additional layers with `autoplot`. One of the main enhancements is to highlight certain time regions that fulfill certain conditions. The package `latticeExtra` provides a nice solution for `xyplot` with `panel.xblocks`. The result is displayed in Figure 3.3:

- The label of each time series is displayed with text inside each panel instead of using the strips mechanism. The `panel.text` prints the name of each variable with the aid of `panel.number`.
- The alternating of years is displayed with blocks of gray and white color using the `panel.xblocks` function from `latticeExtra`. The year is extracted (as character) from the time index of the `zoo` object with `format.POSIXlt`.
- Those values below the mean of each variable are highlighted with short red color blocks at the bottom of each panel, again with the `panel.xblocks` function.
- The maxima and minima are highlighted with small blue triangles.

Because the functions included in the `panel` function are executed consecutively, their order determines the superposition of graphical layers.

```
library(grid)
library(latticeExtra)

## Auxiliary function to extract the year value of a POSIXct time
## index
Year <- function(x)format(x, "%Y")

xyplot(aranjuez, layout = c(1, ncol(aranjuez)), strip = FALSE,
       scales = list(y = list(cex = 0.6, rot = 0)),
       panel = function(x, y, ...){
           ## Alternation of years
           panel.xblocks(x, Year,
                         col = c("lightgray", "white"),
                         border = "darkgray")
           ## Values under the average highlighted with red regions
           panel.xblocks(x, y<mean(y, na.rm = TRUE),
                         col = "indianred1",
                         height = unit(0.1, 'npc'))
           ## Time series
           panel.lines(x, y, col = 'royalblue4', lwd = 0.5, ...)
```

### 3.1 Time Graph of Variables with Different Scales

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```
## Label of each time series
panel.text(x[1], min(y, na.rm = TRUE),
           names(aranjuez)[panel.number()],
           cex = 0.6, adj = c(0, 0), srt = 90, ...)
## Triangles to point the maxima and minima
idxMax <- which.max(y)
panel.points(x[idxMax], y[idxMax],
              col = 'black', fill = 'lightblue', pch = 24)
idxMin <- which.min(y)
panel.points(x[idxMin], y[idxMin],
              col = 'black', fill = 'lightblue', pch = 25)
})
```

There is no equivalent `panel.xblocks` function that can be used with `ggplot2`. Therefore, the `ggplot2` version must explicitly compute the corresponding bands (years and regions below the average values):

- The first step in working with `ggplot` is to transform the `zoo` object into a `data.frame` in long format. `fortify` returns a `data.frame` with three columns: the time `Index`, a factor indicating the `Series`, and the corresponding `Value`.

```
timeIdx <- index(aranjuez)

long <- fortify(aranjuez, melt = TRUE)
```

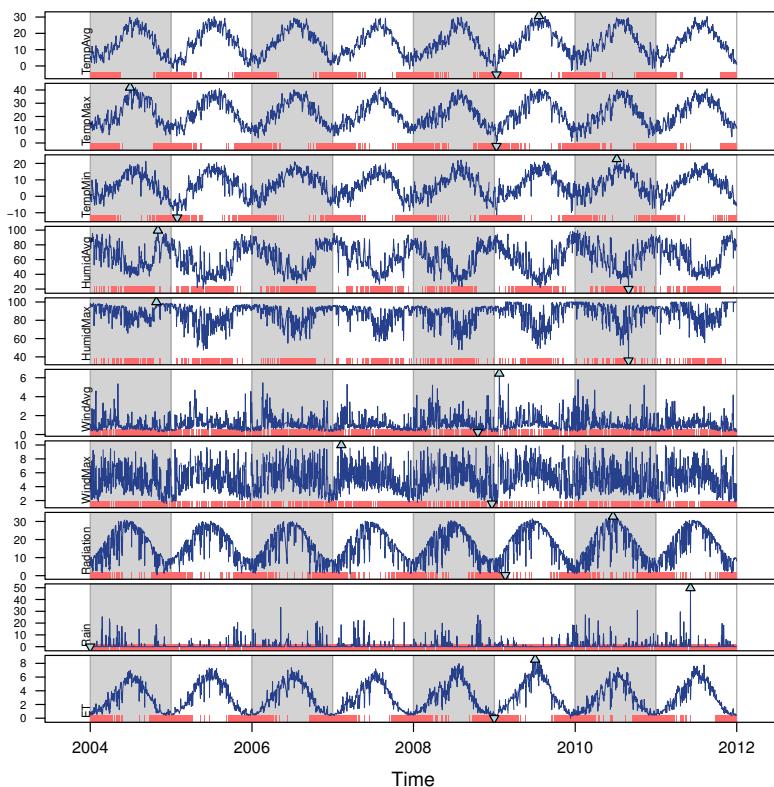
- The bands of values below the average can be easily extracted with `scale` because these regions are negative when the `data.frame` is centered.

```
## Values below mean are negative after being centered
scaled <- fortify(scale(aranjuez, scale = FALSE), melt = TRUE)
## The 'scaled' column is the result of the centering.
## The new 'Value' column store the original values.
scaled <- transform(scaled, scaled = Value, Value = long$Value)
underIdx <- which(scaled$scaled <= 0)
## 'under' is the subset of values below the average
under <- scaled[underIdx,]
```

- The years bands are defined with the function `endpoints` from the `xts` package:

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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FIGURE 3.3: Enhanced time plot of the collection of meteorological time series of the Aranjuez station.

### 3.1 Time Graph of Variables with Different Scales

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```
library(xts)
ep <- endpoints(timeIdx, on = 'years')
N <- length(ep[-1])
## 'tsp' is start and 'tep' is the end of each band
tep <- timeIdx[ep]
tsp <- timeIdx[ep[-(N+1)]+1]
## 'cols' is a vector with the color of each band
cols <- rep_len(c('gray', 'white'), N)
```

- The minima and maxima points of each variable are extracted with `apply`:

```
minIdx <- timeIdx[apply(aranjuez, 2, which.min)]
minVals <- apply(aranjuez, 2, min, na.rm = TRUE)
mins <- data.frame(Index = minIdx,
                     Value = minVals,
                     Series = names(aranjuez))

maxIdx <- timeIdx[apply(aranjuez, 2, which.max)]
maxVals <- apply(aranjuez, 2, max, na.rm = TRUE)
maxs <- data.frame(Index = maxIdx,
                     Value = maxVals,
                     Series = names(aranjuez))
```

- With `ggplot` we define the canvas, and the layers of information are added successively:

```
ggplot(data = long, aes(Index, Value)) +
  ## Time series of each variable
  geom_line(colour = "royalblue4", lwd = 0.5) +
  ## Year bands
  annotate(geom='rect', ymin = -Inf, ymax = Inf,
           xmin = tsp, xmax = tep,
           fill = cols, alpha = 0.4) +
  ## Values below average
  geom_rug(data = under,
            sides = 'b', col = 'indianred1') +
  ## Minima
  geom_point(data = mins, pch = 25) +
  ## Maxima
  geom_point(data = maxs, pch = 24) +
```

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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```
## Axis labels and theme definition
labs(x = 'Time', y = NULL) +
theme_bw() +
## Each series is displayed in a different panel with an
## independent y scale
facet_free()
```

Some messages from Figure 3.3:

- The radiation, temperature, and evotranspiration are quasi-periodic and are almost synchronized between them. Their local maxima appear in the summer and the local minima in the winter. Obviously, the summer values are higher than the average.
- The average humidity varies in opposition to the temperature and radiation cycle, with local maxima located during winter.
- The average and maximum wind speed, and rainfall vary in a more erratic way and do not show the evident periodic behavior of the radiation and temperature.
- The rainfall is different from year to year. The remaining variables do not show variations between years.
- The fluctuations of solar radiation are more apparent than the temperature fluctuations. There is hardly any day with temperatures below the average value during summer, while it is not difficult to find days with radiation below the average during this season.

## 3.2 Time Series of Variables with the Same Scale

As an example of time series of variables with the same scale, we will use measurements of solar radiation from different meteorological stations.

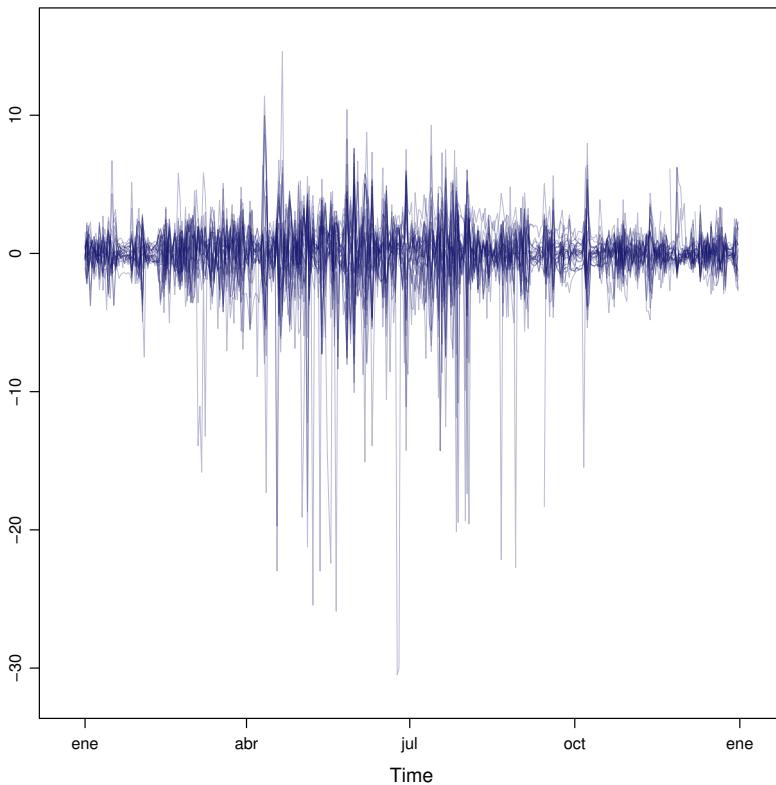
The first attempt to display this multivariate time series makes use of the `xypplot.zoo` method. The objective of this graphic is to display the behavior of the collection as a whole: the series are superposed in the same panel (`superpose=TRUE`) without legend (`auto.key=TRUE`), using thin lines and partial transparency<sup>1</sup>. Transparency softens overplotting problems and reveals density clusters because regions with more overlapping lines are darker. Figure 3.4 displays the variations around the time average (`avRad`).

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<sup>1</sup>A similar result can be obtained with `autoplot` using `facets=NULL`.

### 3.2 Time Series of Variables with the Same Scale

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FIGURE 3.4: Time plot of the variations around time average of solar radiation measurements from the meteorological stations of Navarra.

```
load('data/navarra.RData')

avRad <- zoo(rowMeans(navarra, na.rm = 1), index(navarra))
pNavarra <- xyplot(navarra - avRad,
                     superpose = TRUE, auto.key = FALSE,
                     lwd = 0.5, alpha = 0.3, col = 'midnightblue')
pNavarra
```

This result can be improved with different methods: the cut-and-stack method, and the horizon graph with `horizonplot`.

### 3.2.1 Aspect Ratio and Rate of Change

When a graphic is intended to inform about the rate of change, special attention must be paid to the aspect ratio of the graph, defined as the ratio of the height to the width of the graphical window. Cleveland analyzed the importance of the aspect ratio for judging rate of change. He concluded that we visually decode the information about the relative local rate of change of one variable with another by comparing the orientations of the local line segments that compose the polylines. The recommendation is to choose the aspect ratio so that the absolute values of the orientations of the segments are centered on 45° (banking to 45°).

The problem with banking to 45° is that the resulting aspect ratio is frequently too small. A suitable solution to minimize wasted space is the cut-and-stack method. The `xyplot.ts` method implement this solution with the combination of the arguments `aspect` and `cut`. The version of Figure 3.4 using banking to 45° and the cut-and-stack method is produced with

```
xyplot(navarra ~ avRad,
       aspect = 'xy', cut = list(n = 3, overlap = 0.1),
       strip = FALSE,
       superpose = TRUE, auto.key = FALSE,
       lwd = 0.5, alpha = 0.3, col = 'midnightblue')
```

### 3.2.2 The Horizon Graph

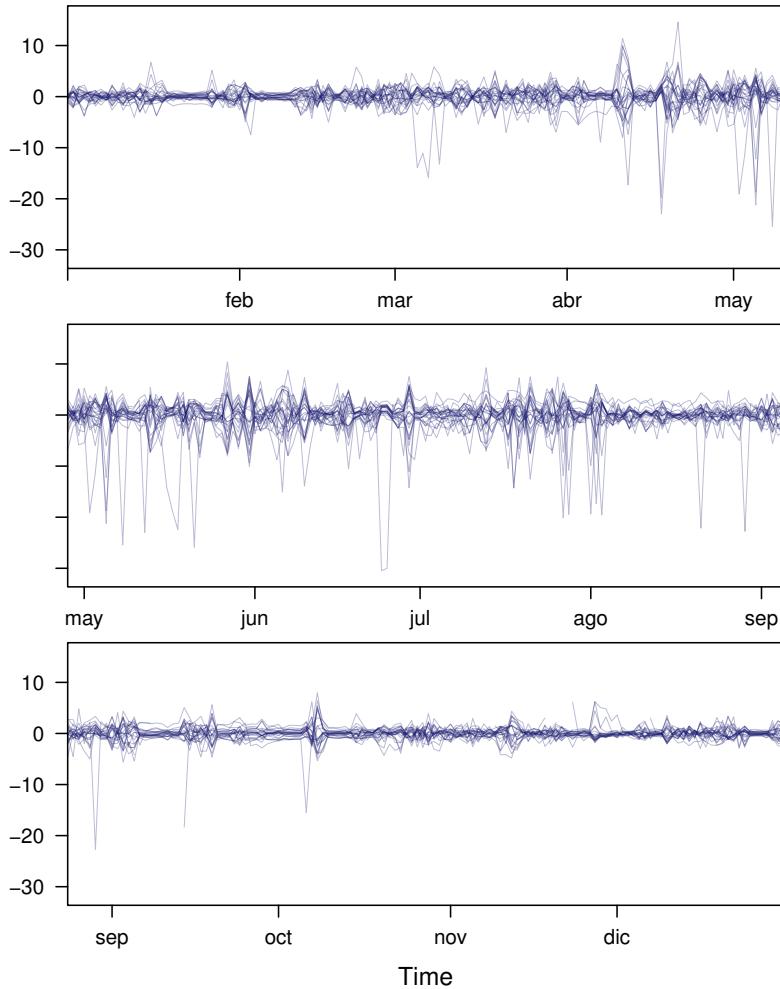
The horizon graph#+INDEX: Horizon graph} is useful in examining how a large number of series changes over time, and does so in a way that allows both comparisons between the individual time series and independent analysis of each series. Moreover, extraordinary behaviors and predominant patterns are easily distinguished (J. Heer, Kong, and Agrawala 2009; Few 2008).

This graph displays several stacked series collapsing the y-axis to free vertical space:

- Positive and negative values share the same vertical space. Negative values are inverted and placed above the reference line. Sign is encoded using different hues (positive values in blue and negative values in red).
- Differences in magnitude are displayed as differences in color intensity (darker colors for greater differences).

### 3.2 Time Series of Variables with the Same Scale

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FIGURE 3.5: Cut-and-stack plot with banking to  $45^\circ$ .

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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- The color bands share the same baseline and are superposed, with darker bands in front of the lighter ones.

Because the panels share the same design structure, once this technique is understood, it is easy to establish comparisons or spot extraordinary events. This method is what Tufte described as small multiples#INDEX: Small multiples} (Tufte 1990).

Figure 3.6 displays the variations of solar radiation around the time average with an horizon graph using a row for each time series.

```
library(latticeExtra)

horizonplot(navarra-avRad,
            layout = c(1, ncol(navarra)),
            origin = 0, colorkey = TRUE)
```

Figure 3.6 allows several questions to be answered:

- Which stations consistently measure above and below the average?
- Which stations resemble more closely the average time series?
- Which stations show erratic and uniform behavior?
- In each of the stations, is there any day with extraordinary measurements?
- Which part of the year is associated with more intense absolute fluctuations across the set of stations?

#### 3.2.3 Time Graph of the Differences between a Time Series and a Reference

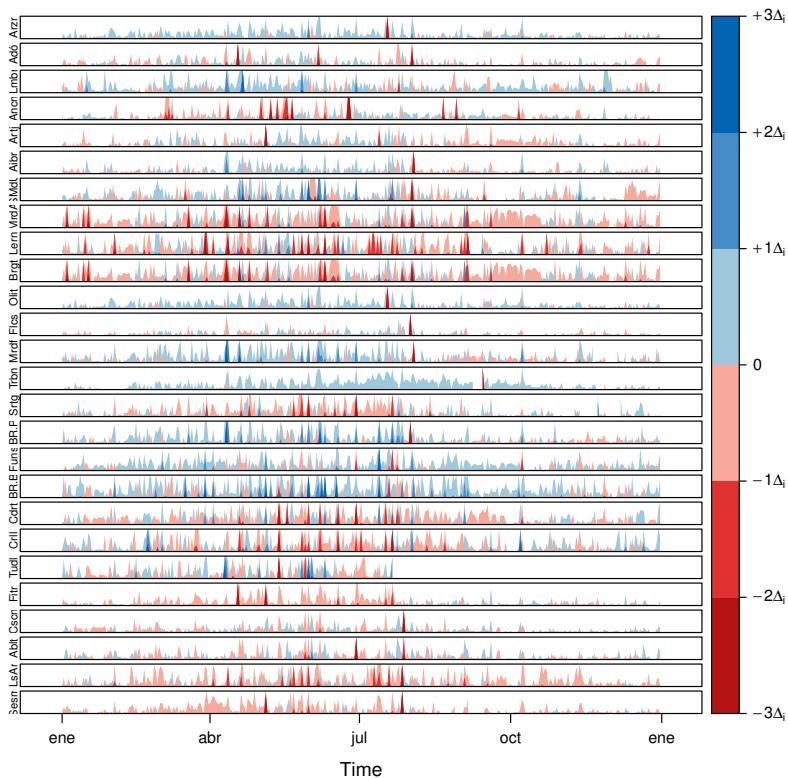
The horizon graph is also useful in revealing the differences between a univariate time series and another reference. For example, we might be interested in the departure of the observed temperature from the long-term average, or in other words, the temperature change over time.

Let's illustrate this approach with the time series of daily average temperatures measured at the meteorological station of Aranjuez. The reference is the long-term daily average calculated with ave.

```
Ta <- aranjuez$TempAvg
timeIndex <- index(aranjuez)
longTa <- ave(Ta, format(timeIndex, '%j'))
diffTa <- (Ta - longTa)
```

### 3.2 Time Series of Variables with the Same Scale

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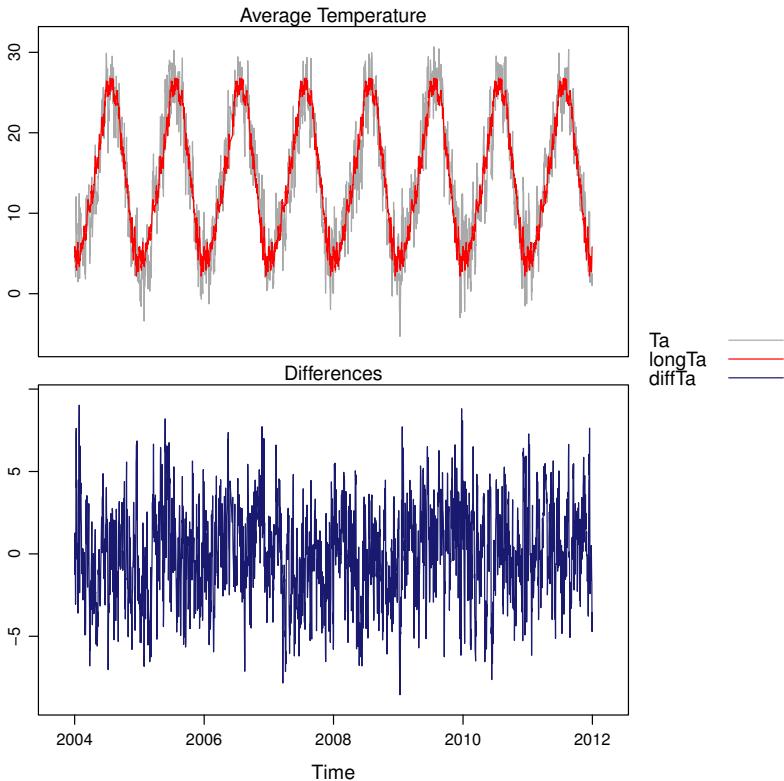


---

FIGURE 3.6: Horizon plot of variations around time average of solar radiation measurements from the meteorological stations of Navarra.

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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FIGURE 3.7: Daily temperature time series, its long-term average and the differences between them.

The temperature time series, the long-term average and the differences between them can be displayed with the `xypplot` method, now using screens to use a different panel for the differences time series (Figure 3.7)

```
xyplot(cbind(Ta, longTa, diffTa),
       col = c('darkgray', 'red', 'midnightblue'),
       superpose = TRUE, auto.key = list(space = 'right'),
       screens = c(rep('Average Temperature', 2), 'Differences'))
```

The horizon graph is better suited for displaying the differences. The next code again uses the cut-and-stack method (Figure 3.5) to distinguish between years. Figure 3.8 shows that 2004 started clearly above the aver-

### 3.2 Time Series of Variables with the Same Scale

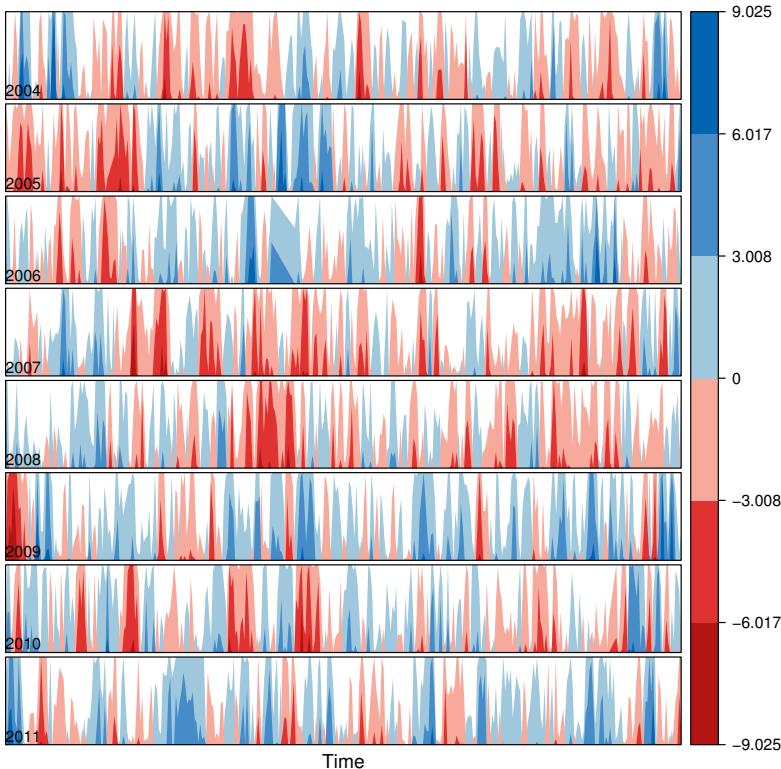


FIGURE 3.8: Horizon graph displaying differences between a daily temperature time series and its long-term average.

age while 2005 and 2009 did the contrary. Year 2007 was frequently below the long-term average but 2011 was more similar to that reference.

```
years <- unique(format(timeIndex, '%Y'))\n\nhorizonplot(diffTa, cut = list(n = 8, overlap = 0),\n            colorkey = TRUE, layout = c(1, 8),\n            scales = list(draw = FALSE, y = list(relation = 'same')),\n            origin = 0, strip.left = FALSE) +\nlayer(grid.text(years[panel.number()], x = 0, y = 0.1,\n                gp = gpar(cex = 0.8),\n                just = "left"))
```

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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A different approach to display this information is to produce a level plot displaying the time series using parts of its time index as independent and conditioning variables<sup>2</sup>. The following code displays the differences with the day of month on the horizontal axis and the year on the vertical axis, with a different panel for each month number. Therefore, each cell of Figure 3.9 corresponds to a certain day of the time series. If you compare this figure with the horizon plot, you will find the same previous findings but revealed now in more detail. On the other hand, while the horizon plot of Figure 3.8 clearly displays the yearly evolution, the combination of variables of the level plot focuses on the comparison between years in a certain month.

```
year <- function(x)as.numeric(format(x, '%Y'))
day <- function(x)as.numeric(format(x, '%d'))
month <- function(x)as.numeric(format(x, '%m'))

myTheme <- modifyList(custom.theme(region = brewer.pal(9, 'RdBu')),
                      list(
                        strip.background = list(col = 'gray'),
                        panel.background = list(col = 'gray')))

maxZ <- max(abs(diffTa))

levelplot(diffTa ~ day(timeIndex) * year(timeIndex) | factor(month(
  timeIndex)),
          at = pretty(c(-maxZ, maxZ), n = 8),
          colorkey = list(height = 0.3),
          layout = c(1, 12), strip = FALSE, strip.left = TRUE,
          xlab = 'Day', ylab = 'Month',
          par.settings = myTheme)
```

The ggplot version of the Figure 3.9 requires a `data.frame` with the day, year, and month arranged in different columns.

```
df <- data.frame(Vals = diffTa,
                  Day = day(timeIndex),
                  Year = year(timeIndex),
                  Month = month(timeIndex))
```

The values (`Vals` column of this `data.frame`) are displayed as a level plot thanks to the `geom_raster` function.

---

<sup>2</sup>This approach was inspired by the `strip` function of the `metvurst` package <https://metvurst.wordpress.com/2013/03/04/visualising-large-amounts-of-hourly-environmental-data-2/>.

### 3.2 Time Series of Variables with the Same Scale

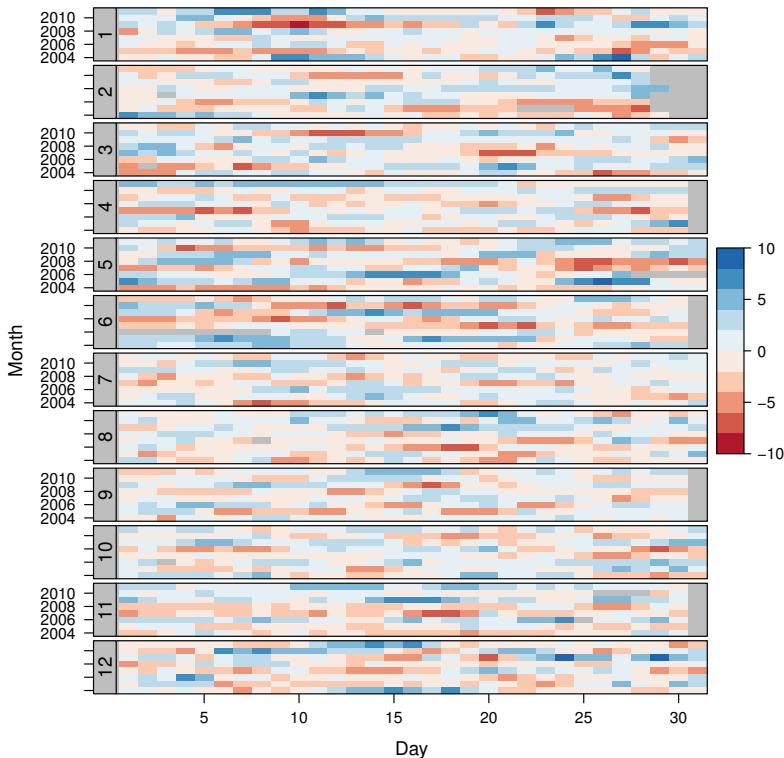


FIGURE 3.9: Level plot of differences between a daily temperature time series and its long-term average.

```
library(scales)
## The package scales is needed for the pretty_breaks function.

ggplot(data = df,
       aes(fill = Vals,
           x = Day,
           y = Year)) +
  facet_wrap(~ Month, ncol = 1, strip.position = 'left') +
  scale_y_continuous(breaks = pretty_breaks()) +
  scale_fill_distiller(palette = 'RdBu', direction = 1) +
  geom_raster() +
  theme(panel.grid.major = element_blank(),
```

```
panel.grid.minor = element_blank()
```

### 3.3 Stacked Graphs

If the variables of a multivariate time series can be summed to produce a meaningful global variable, they may be better displayed with stacked graphs. For example, the information on unemployment in the United States provides data of unemployed persons by industry and class of workers, and can be summed to give a total unemployment time series.

```
load('data/unemployUSA.RData')
```

The time series of unemployment can be directly displayed with the `xyplot.zoo` method (Figure 3.10).

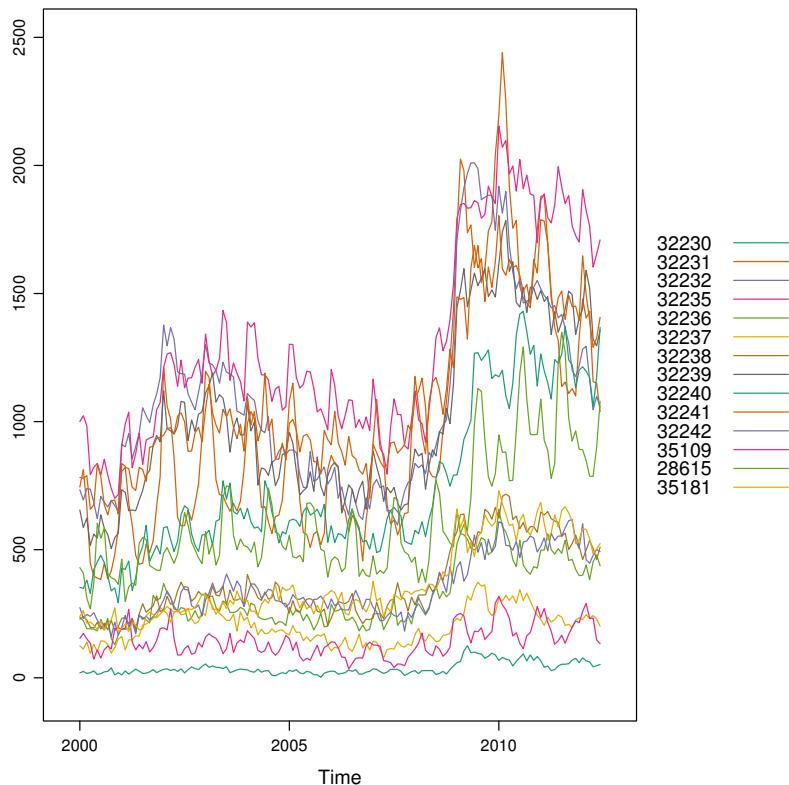
```
xyplot(unemployUSA,
       superpose = TRUE,
       par.settings = custom.theme,
       auto.key = list(space = 'right'))
```

This graphical output is not very useful: the legend is confusing, with too many items; the vertical scale is dominated by the largest series, with several series buried in the lower part of the scale; the trend, variations and structure of the total and individual contributions cannot be deduced from this graph.

A suitable improvement is to display the multivariate time series as a set of stacked colored polygons to follow the macro/micro principle proposed by Tufte (Tufte 1990): Show a collection of individual time series and also display their sum. A traditional stacked graph is easily obtained with `geom_area` (Figure 3.11):

```
library(scales) ## scale_x_yearmon needs scales::pretty_breaks
autoplot(unemployUSA, facets = NULL, geom = 'area') +
  geom_area(aes(fill = Series)) +
  scale_x_yearmon()
```

Traditional stacked graphs have their bottom on the x-axis which makes the overall height at each point easy to estimate. On the other hand, with this layout, individual layers may be difficult to distinguish. The *ThemeRiver* (Havre et al. 2002) (also named *streamgraph* in (Byron and Wattenberg 2008)) provides an innovative layout method in which layers are symmetrical around the x-axis at their center. At a glance, the pattern of

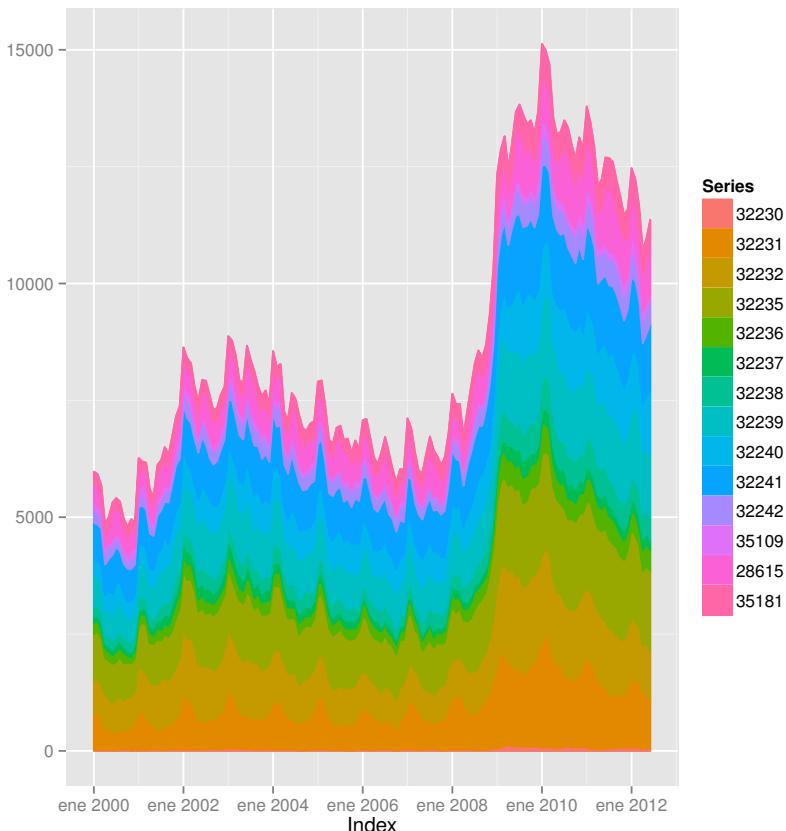


---

FIGURE 3.10: Time series of unemployment with `xypplot` using the default panel function.

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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FIGURE 3.11: Time series of unemployment with stacked areas using `geom_area`.

the global sum and individual variables, their contribution to conform the global sum, and the interrelation between variables can be perceived.

I have defined a panel and prepanel functions<sup>3</sup> to implement a ThemeRiver with xyplot. The result is displayed in Figure 3.12 with a vertical line to indicate one of main milestones of the financial crisis, whose effect on the overall unemployment results is clearly evident.

```
library(colorspace)
## We will use a qualitative palette from colorspace
nCols <- ncol(unemployUSA)
pal <- rainbow_hcl(nCols, c = 70, l = 75, start = 30, end = 300)
myTheme <- custom.theme(fill = pal, lwd = 0.2)

sep2008 <- as.numeric(as.yearmon('2008-09'))

xyplot(unemployUSA, superpose = TRUE, auto.key = FALSE,
       panel = panel.flow, prepanel = prepanel.flow,
       origin = 'themeRiver', scales = list(y = list(draw = FALSE)),
       par.settings = myTheme) +
  layer(panel.abline(v = sep2008, col = 'gray', lwd = 0.7))
```

This figure can help answer several questions. For example:

- What is the industry or class of worker with the lowest/highest unemployment figures during this time period?
- What is the industry or class of worker with the lowest/highest unemployment increases due to the financial crisis?
- There are a number of local maxima and minima of the total unemployment numbers. Are all the classes contributing to the maxima/minima? Do all the classes exhibit the same fluctuation behavior as the global evolution?

More questions and answers can be found in the “Current Employment Statistics” reports from the Bureau of Labor Statistics<sup>4</sup>.

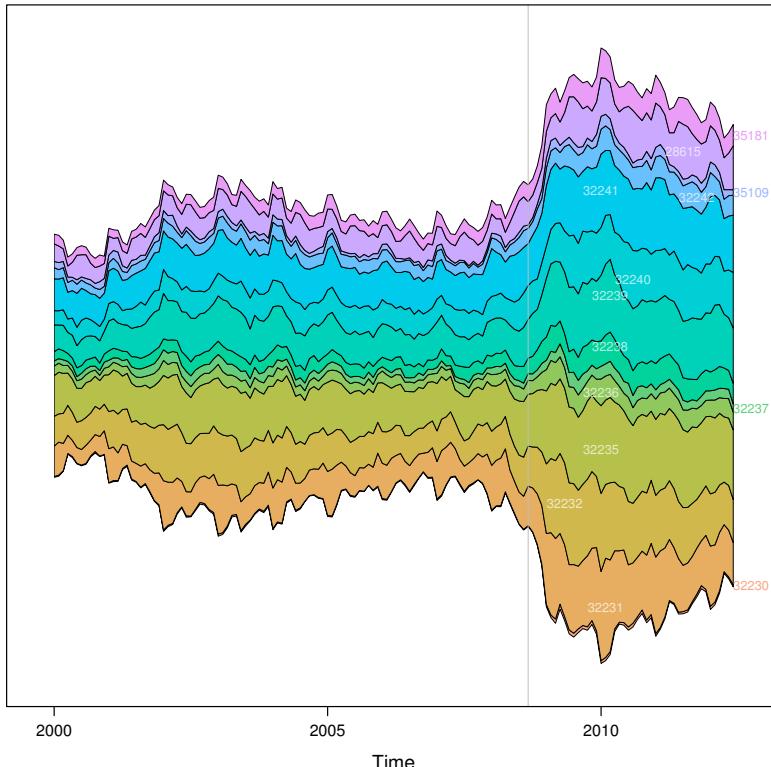
---

<sup>3</sup>The code of these panel and prepanel functions is explained in Section 3.3.1.

<sup>4</sup>The March 2012 highlights report is available at <http://www.bls.gov/ces/highlights032012.pdf>.

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FIGURE 3.12: ThemeRiver of unemployment in the United States.

#### 3.3.1 Panel and Prepanel Functions to Implement the ThemeRiver with xyplot

The `xyplot` function displays information according to the class of its first argument (methods) and to the `panel` function. We will use the `xyplot.zoo` method (equivalent to the `xyplot.ts` method) with a new custom `panel` function. This new panel function has four main arguments, three of them calculated by `xyplot` (`x`, `y` and `groups`) and a new one, `origin`. Of course, it includes the `...` argument to provide additional arguments.

The first step is to create a `data.frame` with coordinates and with the `groups` factor. The value and number of the levels will be used in the main

step of this `panel` function. With this `data.frame` we have to calculate the `y` and `x` coordinates for each group to get a stacked set of polygons.

This `data.frame` is in the *long* format, with a row for each observation, and where the group column identifies the variable. Thus, it must be transformed to the *wide* format, with a column for each variable. With the `unstack` function, a new `data.frame` is produced whose columns are defined according to the formula `y ~ groups` and with a row for each time position. The stack of polygons is the result of the cumulative sum of each row (`apply(yWide, 1, cumsum)`). The origin of this sum is defined with the corresponding `origin` argument: with `themeRiver`, the polygons are arranged in a symmetric way.

Each column of this matrix of cumulative sums defines the `y` coordinate of each variable (where `origin` is now the first variable). The polygon of each variable is between this curve (`iCol+1`) and the one of the previous variable (`iCol`). In order to get a closed polygon, the coordinates of the inferior limit are in reverse order. This new `data.frame` (`Y`) is in the *wide* format, but `xyplot` requires the information in the *long* format: the `y` coordinates of the polygons are extracted from the `values` column of the *long* version of this `data.frame`.

The `x` coordinates are produced in an easier way. Again, `unstack` produces a `data.frame` with a column for each variable and a row for each time position, but now, because the `x` coordinates are the same for the set of polygons, the corresponding vector is constructed directly using a combination of concatenation and repetition.

Finally, the `groups` vector is produced, repeating each element of the columns of the original `data.frame` (`dat$groups`) twice to account for the forward and reverse curves of the corresponding polygon.

The final step before displaying the polygons is to acquire the graphical settings. The information retrieved with `trellis.par.get` is transferred to the corresponding arguments of `panel.polygon`.

Everything is ready for constructing the polygons. With a `for` loop, the coordinates of the corresponding group are extracted from the `x` and `y` vectors, and a polygon is displayed with `panel.polygon`. The labels of each polygon (the `levels` of the original `groups` variable, `groupLevels`) are printed inside the polygon if there is enough room for the text (`hChar > 1`) or at the right if the polygon is too small, or if it is the first or last variable of the set. Both the polygons and the labels share the same color (`col[i]`).

```
panel.flow <- function(x, y, groups, origin, ...)
{
  dat <- data.frame(x = x, y = y, groups = groups)
```

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```
nVars <- nlevels(groups)
groupLevels <- levels(groups)

## From long to wide
yWide <- unstack(dat, y~groups)
## Where are the maxima of each variable located? We will use
## them to position labels.
idxMaxes <- apply(yWide, 2, which.max)

## Origin calculated following Havr.eHetzler.ea2002
if (origin=='themeRiver') origin = -1/2*rowSums(yWide)
else origin = 0
yWide <- cbind(origin = origin, yWide)
## Cumulative sums to define the polygon
yCumSum <- t(apply(yWide, 1, cumsum))
Y <- as.data.frame(sapply(seq_len(nVars),
                           function(iCol)c(yCumSum[,iCol+1],
                                           rev(yCumSum[,iCol]))))
names(Y) <- levels(groups)
## Back to long format, since xyplot works that way
y <- stack(Y)$values

## Similar but easier for x
xWide <- unstack(dat, x~groups)
x <- rep(c(xWide[,1], rev(xWide[,1])), nVars)
## Groups repeated twice (upper and lower limits of the polygon)
groups <- rep(groups, each = 2)

## Graphical parameters
superpose.polygon <- trellis.par.get("superpose.polygon")
col = superpose.polygon$col
border = superpose.polygon$border
lwd = superpose.polygon$lwd

## Draw polygons
for (i in seq_len(nVars)){
  xi <- x[groups==groupLevels[i]]
  yi <- y[groups==groupLevels[i]]
  panel.polygon(xi, yi, border = border,
                 lwd = lwd, col = col[i])
}

## Print labels
for (i in seq_len(nVars)){
```

```

xi <- x[groups==groupLevels[i]]
yi <- y[groups==groupLevels[i]]
N <- length(xi)/2
## Height available for the label
h <- unit(yi[idxMaxes[i]], 'native') -
    unit(yi[idxMaxes[i] + 2*(N-idxMaxes[i]) +1], 'native')
##...converted to "char" units
hChar <- convertHeight(h, 'char', TRUE)
## If there is enough space and we are not at the first or
## last variable, then the label is printed inside the polygon

if((hChar >= 1) && !(i %in% c(1, nVars))){
  grid.text(groupLevels[i],
            xi[idxMaxes[i]],
            (yi[idxMaxes[i]] +
             yi[idxMaxes[i] + 2*(N-idxMaxes[i]) +1])/2,
            gp = gpar(col = 'white', alpha = 0.7, cex = 0.7),
            default.units = 'native')
} else {
  ## Elsewhere, the label is printed outside

  grid.text(groupLevels[i],
            xi[N],
            (yi[N] + yi[N+1])/2,
            gp = gpar(col = col[i], cex = 0.7),
            just = 'left', default.units = 'native')
}
}
}
}

```

With this panel function, `xyplot` displays a set of stacked polygons corresponding to the multivariate time series (Figure 3.13). However, the graphical window is not large enough, and part of the polygons fall out of it. Why?

```

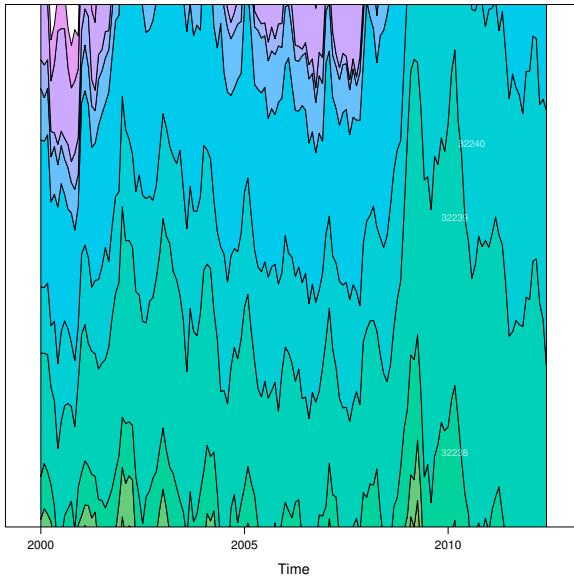
xyplot(unemployUSA, superpose = TRUE, auto.key = FALSE,
       panel = panel.flow, origin = 'themeRiver',
       par.settings = myTheme, cex = 0.4, offset = 0,
       scales = list(y = list(draw = FALSE)))

```

The problem is that `lattice` makes a preliminary estimate of the window size using a default `prepanel` function that is unaware of the internal calculations of our new `panel.flow` function. The solution is to define a new `prepanel.flow` function.

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FIGURE 3.13: First attempt of ThemeRiver.

The input arguments and first lines are the same as in `panel.flow`. The output is a list whose elements are the limits for each axis (`xlim` and `ylim`), and the sequence of differences (`dx` and `dy`) that can be used for the aspect and banking calculations.

The limits of the x-axis are defined with the range of the time index, while the limits of the y-axis are calculated with the minimum of the first column of `yCumSum` (the origin line) and with the maximum of its last column (the upper line of the cumulative sum).

```
prepanel.flow <- function(x, y, groups, origin,...)
{
  dat <- data.frame(x = x, y = y, groups = groups)
  nVars <- nlevels(groups)
  groupLevels <- levels(groups)
  yWide <- unstack(dat, y~groups)
  if (origin=='themeRiver') origin = -1/2*rowSums(yWide)
  else origin = 0
  yWide <- cbind(origin = origin, yWide)
  yCumSum <- t(apply(yWide, 1, cumsum))
```

```

list(xlim = range(x),
     ylim = c(min(yCumSum[,1]), max(yCumSum[,nVars+1])),
     dx = diff(x),
     dy = diff(c(yCumSum[,-1])))
}

```

## 3.4 Interactive graphics

This section describes the interactive alternatives of the static figures included in the previous sections with four packages: `dygraphs`, `highcharter`, `plotly`, and `gridSVG`.

`dygraphs`, `highcharter`, and `plotly` are R interfaces to JavaScript libraries based on the `htmlwidgets` package, while the `gridSVG` package converts a grid graphic object into an SVG file.

### 3.4.1 Dygraphs

The `dygraphs` package is an interface to the dygraphs JavaScript library, and provides facilities for charting time-series. It works automatically with `xts` time series objects, or with objects than can be coerced to this class. The result is an interactive graph, where values are displayed according to the mouse position over the time series. Regions can be selected to zoom into a time period. The figure is an snapshot of the interactive graph.

```

library(dygraphs)

dyTemp <- dygraph(aranjuez[, c("TempMin", "TempAvg", "TempMax")],
                  main = "Temperature in Aranjuez",
                  ylab = "°C")

dyTemp

```

You can customize `dygraphs` by piping additional commands onto the original `dygraph` object.

```

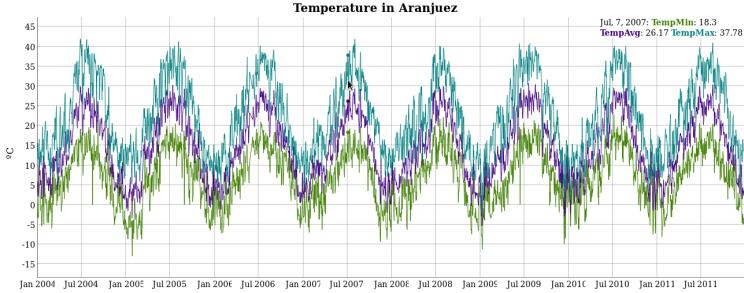
dyTemp %>%
  dyHighlight(highlightSeriesBackgroundAlpha = 0.2)

dyTemp %>%
  dyHighlight(highlightSeriesOpts = list(strokeWidth = 2))

```

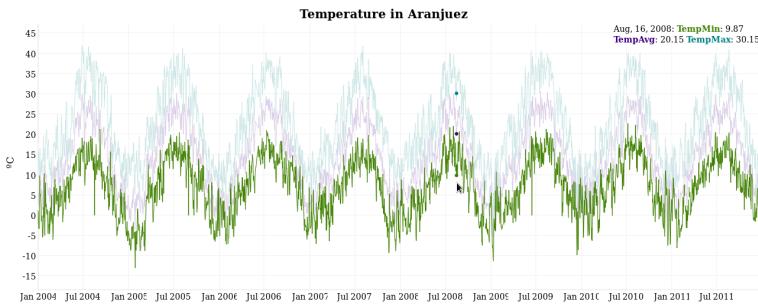
### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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FIGURE 3.14: dygraphs



---

FIGURE 3.15: dygraphs selected

```
dygraph(aranjuez[, c("TempMin", "TempAvg", "TempMax")],  
       main = "Temperature in Aranjuez",  
       ylab = "%C") %>%  
  dySeries(c("TempMin", "TempAvg", "TempMax"),  
          label = "Temperature")
```

#### 3.4.2 Highcharter

The `highcharter` package is an interface to the `highcharts` JavaScript library, with a wide spectrum of graphics solutions. Displaying time series with this package can be achieved with the combination of the generic

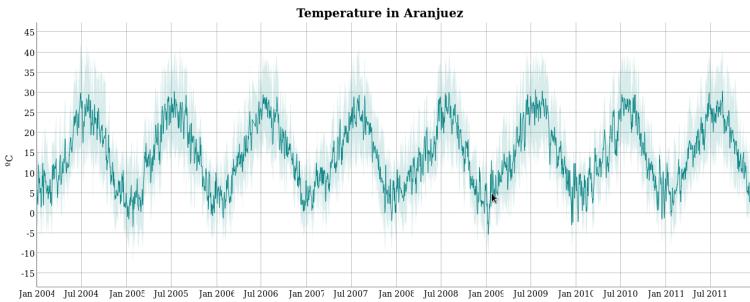


FIGURE 3.16: dygraphs maxmin

highchart function and several calls to the hc\_add\_series\_xts function through the pipe `%>%` operator. Once again, the result is an interactive graph with selection and zoom capabilities. Figure is an snapshot of the interactive graph.

```
library(highcharter)
library(xts)

aranjuezXTS <- as.xts(aranjuez)

highchart() %>%
  hc_add_series_xts(name = 'TempMax',
                     aranjuezXTS[, "TempMax"]) %>%
  hc_add_series_xts(name = 'TempMin',
                     aranjuezXTS[, "TempMin"]) %>%
  hc_add_series_xts(name = 'TempAvg',
                     aranjuezXTS[, "TempAvg"])
```

### 3.4.3 plotly

The `plotly` package is an interface to the `plotly` JavaScript library, also with a wide spectrum of graphics solutions. This package does not provide any function specifically focused on time series. Thus, the time series object has to be transformed in a `data.frame` including a column for the time index. If the `data.frame` is in *wide* format (one column per variable), each variable will be represented with a call to the `add_lines` function. However, if the `data.frame` is in *long* format (a column for values, and a

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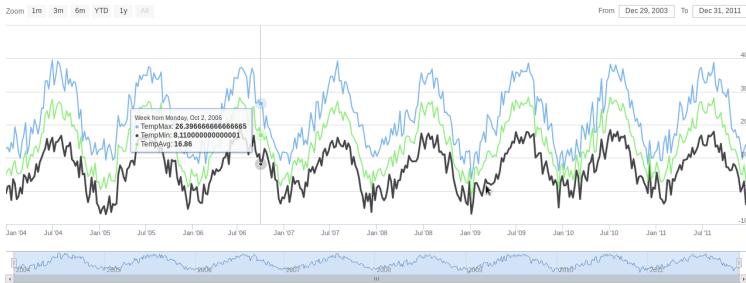


FIGURE 3.17: highcharter

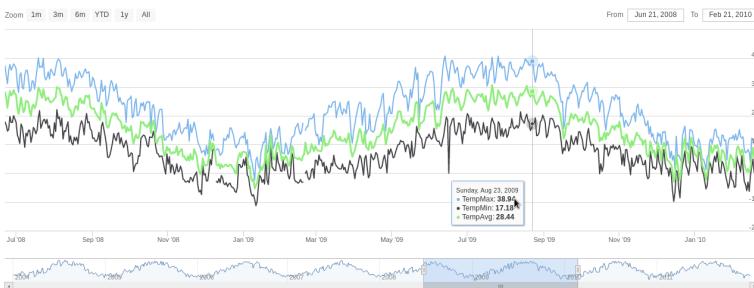


FIGURE 3.18: highcharter zoom

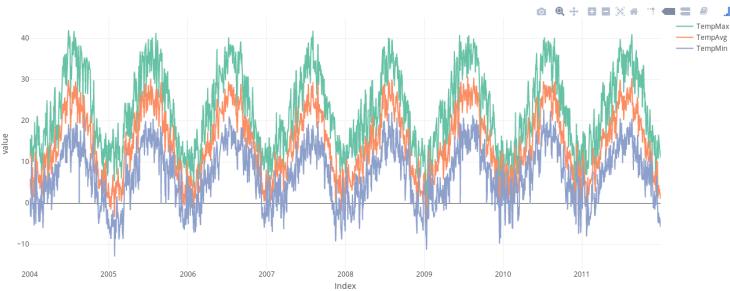
column for variable names) only one call to `add_lines` is required. The next code follows this approach using the combination of `fortify`, to convert the `zoo` object into a `data.frame`, and `melt`, to transform from wide to long format.

```
library(reshape2)

aranjuezDF <- fortify(aranjuez[,  
  c("TempMax",  
  "TempAvg",  
  "TempMin")])  
  
aranjuezDF <- melt(aranjuezDF, id.vars = 'Index')
```

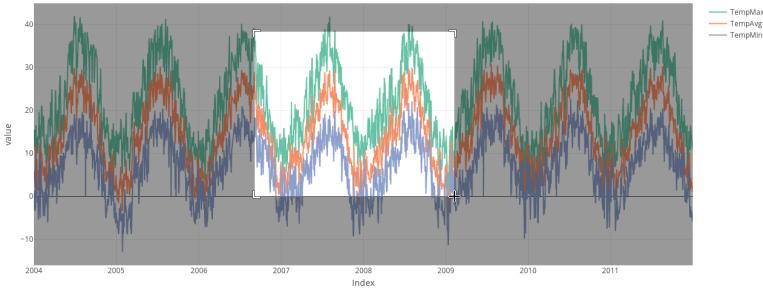
### 3.4 Interactive graphics

---



---

FIGURE 3.19: plotly



---

FIGURE 3.20: plotly zoom

Figure 3.19 is a snapshot of the interactive graphic produce with the generic function `plot_ly` connected with `add_lines` through the pipe operator, `%>%`.

```
library(plotly)

plot_ly(aranjuezDF) %>%
  add_lines(x = ~ Index,
            y = ~ value,
            color = ~ variable)
```

### 3.4.4 Interaction with gridSVG

The `gridSVG` package provides functions to convert grid-based R graphics to an SVG format. It provides several functions to add dynamic and interactive capabilities to R graphics. In this section we will use `grid.script`, a function to add JavaScript code to a plot.

The first step is to specify which component of the scene will run the JavaScript code. The `grid.ls` function returns a listing of the names of grobs or viewports included in the graphic output: only the lines will be connected with the JavaScript code.

```
library(gridSVG)
## grobs in the graphical output
pNavarra
grobs <- grid.ls(print = FALSE)
## only interested in some of them
nms <- grobs$name[grobs$type == "grobListing"]
idxNames <- grep('lines', nms)
IDs <- nms[idxNames]
```

The second step is to modify each grob (graphical object) to add attributes that specify when it will call JavaScript code. For each line identified with the elements of the `IDs` vector and associated to a meteorological station, the `navarra` object is accessed to extract the annual mean value of the daily radiation and the abbreviated name of the corresponding station (`info`). The `grid.garnish` function adds attributes to the grob of each line so that when the mouse moves over a grob, the line is highlighted and colored in red (`highlight`). When the mouse hovers out of the grob, the `hide` function sets back the default values of line width and transparency, but uses the green color to denote that this line has been already visited. In addition, because the browsers display the content of the `title` attribute with a default tooltip, `grid.garnish` sets this attribute to `info`.

```
for (id in unique(IDs))
{
  ## extract information from the data
  ## according to the ID value
  i <- strsplit(id, '\\.')
  i <- sapply(i, function(x)as.numeric(x[5]))
  ## Information to be attached to each line: annual mean of daily
  ## radiation and abbreviated name of the station
  dat <- round(mean(navarra[,i], na.rm = TRUE), 2)
  info <- paste(names(navarra)[i], paste(dat, collapse = ',',),
                sep = ': ')
```

```

## attach SVG attributes
grid.garnish(id,
              onmouseover = "highlight(evt)",
              onmouseout = "hide(evt)",
              title = info)
}

```

These JavaScript functions are included in a script file named `highlight.js` (available at the website of the book). It can be added as an additional object with `grid.script`.

```
grid.script(filename="highlight.js")
```

This script is easy to understand, even without previous JavaScript knowledge:

```

highlight = function(evt){
  evt.target.setAttribute('opacity', '1');
  evt.target.setAttribute('stroke', 'red');
  evt.target.setAttribute('stroke-width', '1');
}

hide = function(evt){
  evt.target.setAttribute('opacity', '0.3');
  evt.target.setAttribute('stroke', 'green');
  evt.target.setAttribute('stroke-width', '0.3');
}

```

Finally, `gridToSVG` exports the whole scene to SVG.

```
grid.export('figs/navarraRadiation.svg')
```

A snapshot of the result, as viewed in a browser with a line highlighted, is shown in Figure 3.21. Open the SVG file with your browser, explore it using the horizon graph (Figure 3.6) as a reference, and try to answer the questions raised with that graphic.

### 3.4.5 streamgraph

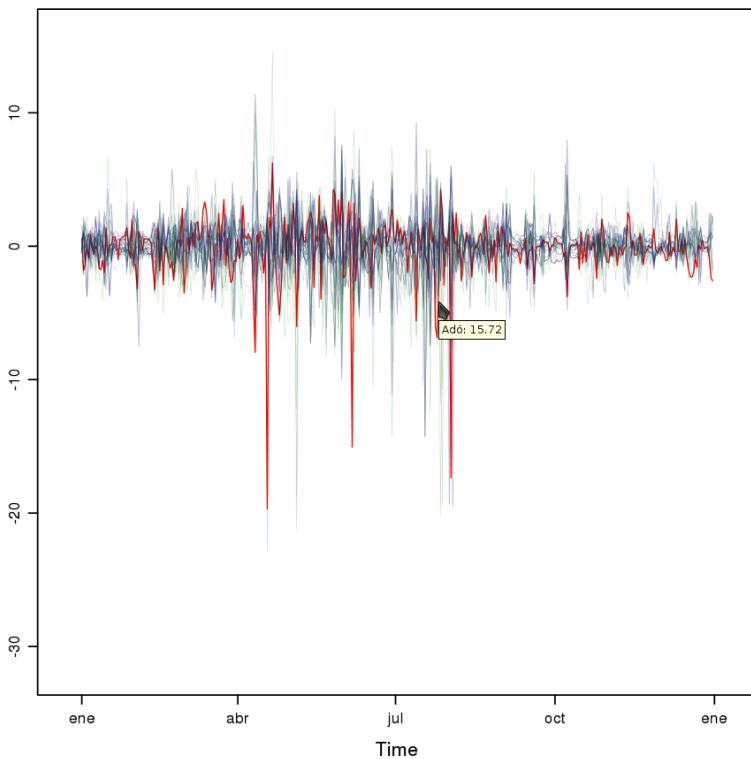
The `streamgraph` package<sup>5</sup> creates interactive stream graphs based on the `htmlwidgets` package and the `D3.js` JavaScript library. Its main function, `streamgraph`, requires a `data.frame` as the first argument. Besides, its three next arguments, `key`, `value`, and `date`, makes this function a good candidate to work together with `fortify` and `melt`.

---

<sup>5</sup>The `streamgraph` package, <http://hrbrmstr.github.io/streamgraph/>, is not available in CRAN. It can be installed using the `devtools` or the `remotes` package.

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FIGURE 3.21: Snapshot of an SVG graphic produced with gridSVG.

```
## remotes::install_github("hrbrmstr/streamgraph")
library(streamgraph)
library(reshape2)
```

```
unemployDF <- fortify(unemployUSA)

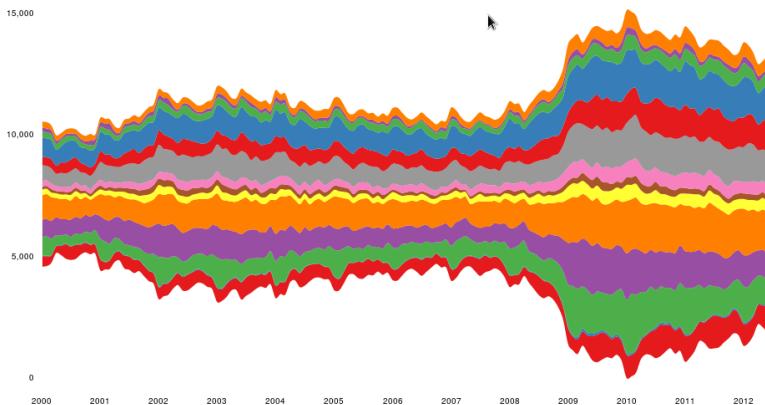
unemployDF <- melt(unemployDF,
                     id.vars = 'Index')
```

Figures 3.22 and 3.23 are snapshots of the interactive graphic created with the functions `streamgraph`, `sg_axis`, and `sg_fill_brewer`, connected through the pipe operator, `%>%`.

```
streamgraph(unemployDF,
```

## 3.4 Interactive graphics

---



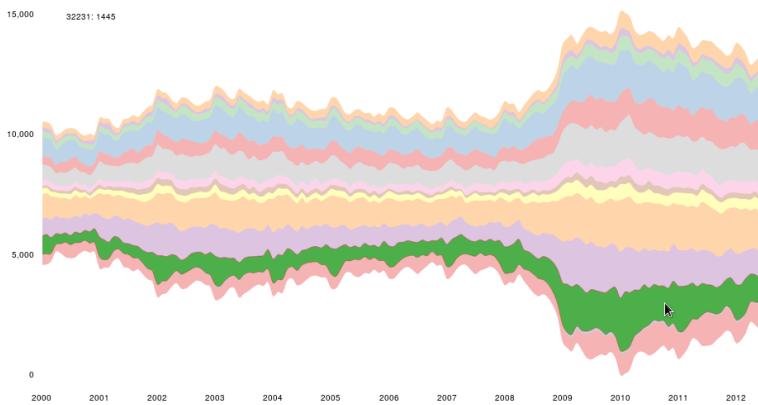
---

FIGURE 3.22: Streamgraph created with the `streamgraph` package, without selection.

```
key = "variable",
value = "value",
date = "Index") %>%
sg_axis_x(1, "year", "%Y") %>%
sg_fill_brewer("Set1")
```

### 3 TIME ON THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

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FIGURE 3.23: Streamgraph created with the `streamgraph` package, with a selection.

---

## Chapter 4

# Time as a Conditioning or Grouping Variable

---

In Section 3.1 we learned to display the time evolution of multiple time series with different scales. But, what if instead of displaying the time evolution we want to confront the variables between them? Section 4.1 proposes the scatterplot matrix solution with time as a grouping variable. Section 4.2 uses an enhanced scatterplot with time as a conditioning variable. Section 4.1.1 includes a digression about the hexagonal binning for large datasets.

### 4.1 Scatterplot Matrix: Time as a Grouping Variable

The scatterplot matrices are based on the technique of small multiples (Tufte 1990): small, thumbnail-sized representations of multiple images displayed all at once, which allows the reader to immediately, and in parallel, compare the inter-frame differences. A scatterplot matrix is a display of all pairwise bivariate scatterplots arranged in a  $p \times p$  matrix for  $p$  variables. Each subplot shows the relation between the pair of variables at the intersection of the row and column indicated by the variable names in the diagonal panels (Friendly and Denis 2005).

This graphical tool is implemented in the `splom` function. The following code displays the relation between the set of meteorological variables

## 4 TIME AS A CONDITIONING OR GROUPING VARIABLE

---

using a sequential palette from the ColorBrewer catalog (`RdBu`, with black added to complete a twelve-color palette) to encode the month. The order of colors of this palette is chosen in order to display summer months with intense colors and to distinguish between the first and second half of the year with red and blue, respectively (Figure 4.1).

```
load('data/aranjuez.RData')
aranjuezDF <- as.data.frame(aranjuez)
aranjuezDF$Month <- format(index(aranjuez), '%m')

## Red-Blue palette with black added (12 colors)
colors <- c(brewer.pal(n=11, 'RdBu'), '#000000')
## Rearrange according to months (darkest for summer)
colors <- colors[c(6:1, 12:7)]

splom(~ aranjuezDF,
      groups = aranjuezDF$Month,
      auto.key = list(space = 'right',
                      title = 'Month', cex.title = 1),
      pscale = 0, varname.cex = 0.7, xlab = '',
      par.settings = custom.theme(symbol = colors,
                                    pch = 19),
      cex = 0.3, alpha = 0.1)
```

A bit of interactivity can be added to this plot with the identification of some points. This task is easy with `panel.link.splom`. The points are selected via mouse clicks (and highlighted in green). Clicks other than left-clicks terminate the procedure. The output of this function is the index of chosen points.

```
trellis.focus('panel', 1, 1)
idx <- panel.link.splom(pch=13, cex=0.6, col='green')
aranjuez[idx,]
```

The `ggplot2` version of Figure 4.1 is produced thanks to the `ggpairs` function provided by the `GGally` package.

```
library(GGally)

ggpairs(aranjuezDF,
        columns = 1:10, ## Do not include "Month"
        upper = list(continuous = "points"),
        mapping = aes(colour = Month, alpha = 0.1))
```

Let's explore Figure 4.1. For example,

## 4.1 Scatterplot Matrix: Time as a Grouping Variable

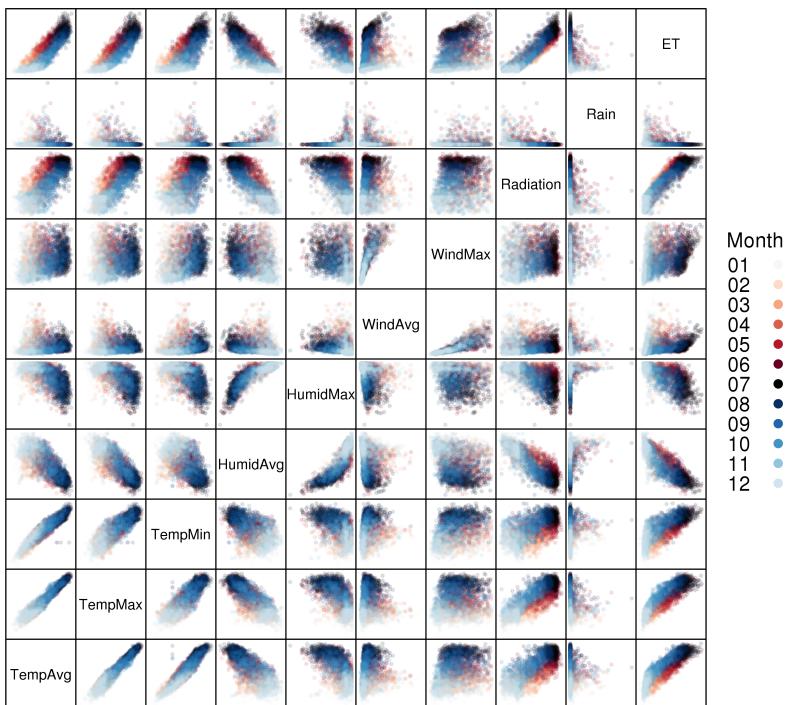


FIGURE 4.1: Scatter plot matrix of the collection of meteorological time series of the Aranjuez station.

- The highest values of ambient temperature (average, maximum, and minimum), solar radiation, and evotranspiration can be found during the summer.
- These variables are almost linearly related. The relation between radiation and temperature is different during both halves of the year (red and blue regions can be easily distinguished).
- The humidity reaches its highest values during winter without appreciable differences between the first and second half of the year. The temperature and humidity may be related with an exponential function.

### 4.1.1 Hexagonal Binning

For large datasets, the display of a large number of points in a scatterplot produces hidden point density, long computation times, and slow displays. These problems can be circumvented with the estimation and representation of points densities. A common encoding uses gray scales, pseudo colors or partial transparency. An improved scheme encodes density as the size of hexagon symbols inscribed within hexagonal binning regions (D. B. Carr et al. 1987).

The `hexbin` package (D. Carr, Lewin-Koh, and Maechler 2013) includes several functions for hexagonal binning. The `panel.hexbinplot` is a good substitute for the default panel function. In addition, our first attempt with `splom` can be improved with several modifications (Figure 4.2):

- The scale's ticks and labels are suppressed with `pscale=0`.
- The panels of the lower part of the matrix (`lower.panel`) will include a locally weighted scatterplot smoothing (`loess`) with `panel.loess`.
- The diagonal panels (`diag.panel`) will display the kernel density estimate of each variable. The `density` function computes this estimate. The result is adjusted to the panel limits (calculated with `current.panel.limits`). The kernel density is plotted with `panel.lines` and the `diag.panel.splom` function completes the content of each diagonal panel.
- The point density is encoded with the palette `BTC` (lighter colors for high density values and darker colors for almost empty regions, with a gradient of blue hues for intermediate values).

```
library(hexbin)

splom(~as.data.frame(aranjuez),
      panel = panel.hexbinplot,
      colramp = BTC,
      diag.panel = function(x, ...){
        yrng <- current.panel.limits()$ylim
        d <- density(x, na.rm = TRUE)
        d$y <- with(d, yrng[1] + 0.95 * diff(yrng) * y / max(y))
        panel.lines(d)
        diag.panel.splom(x, ...)
      },
      lower.panel = function(x, y, ...){}
```

## 4.1 Scatterplot Matrix: Time as a Grouping Variable

---

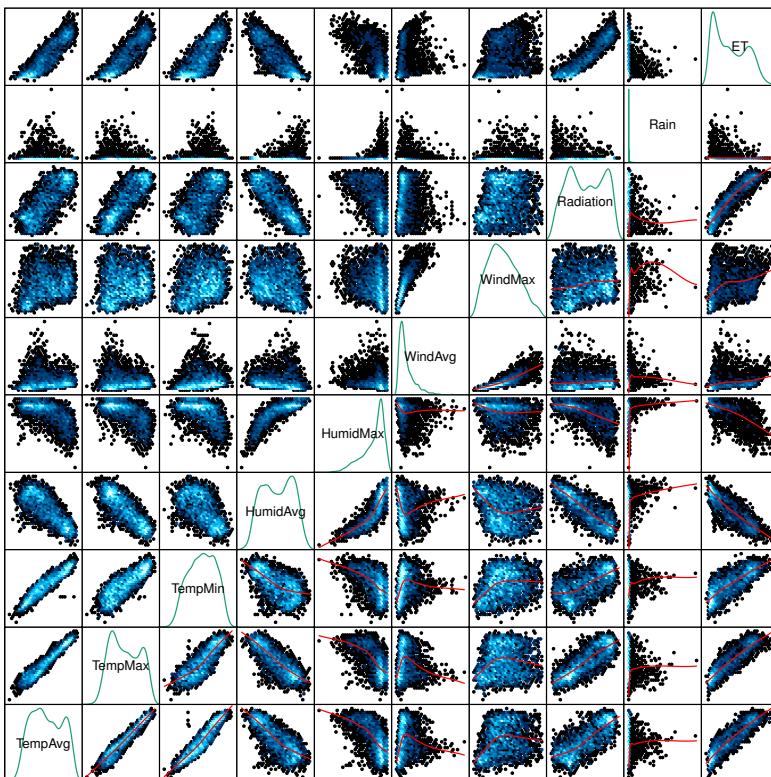


FIGURE 4.2: Scatterplot matrix of the collection of meteorological time series of the Aranjuez station using hexagonal binning.

```

panel.hexbinplot(x, y, ...)
panel.loess(x, y, ..., col = 'red')
},
xlab = '',
pscale = 0, varname.cex = 0.7)

```

A drawback of the matrix of scatterplots with hexagonal binning is that each panel is drawn independently, so it is impossible to compute a common color key for all of them. In other words, two cells with exactly the same color in different panels encode different point densities.

It is possible to display a reduced set of variables against another one and generate a common color key using the `hexbinplot` function. First,

## 4 TIME AS A CONDITIONING OR GROUPING VARIABLE

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the dataset must be reshaped from the wide format (one column for each variable) to the long format (only one column for the temperature values with one row for each observation). This task is easily accomplished with the `melt` function included in the `reshape2` package.

```
library(reshape2)

aranjuezRshp <- melt(aranjuezDF,
                      measure.vars = c('TempMax',
                                      'TempAvg',
                                      'TempMin'),
                      variable.name = 'Statistic',
                      value.name = 'Temperature')

head(aranjuezRshp)
```

The `hexbinplot` displays this dataset with a different panel for each type of temperature (average, maximum, and minimum) but with a common color key encoding the point density (Figure 4.3). Now, two cells with the same color in different panels encode the same value.

```
hexbinplot(Radiation ~ Temperature | Statistic,
           data = aranjuezRshp,
           layout = c(1, 3),
           colramp = BTC) +
   layer(panel.loess(..., col = 'red'))
```

The `ggplot2` version is based on the `stat_binhex` function.

```
ggplot(data = aranjuezRshp,
       aes(Temperature, Radiation)) +
  stat_binhex(ncol = 1) +
  stat_smooth(se = FALSE, method = 'loess', col = 'red') +
  facet_wrap(~ Statistic, ncol = 1) +
  theme_bw()
```

## 4.2 Scatterplot with Time as a Conditioning Variable

After discussing the hexagonal binning, let's recover the time variable. Figure 4.1 uses colors to encode months. Instead, we will now display separate scatterplots with a panel for each month. In addition, the statistic type (average, maximum, minimum) is included as an additional conditioning variable.

## 4.2 Scatterplot with Time as a Conditioning Variable

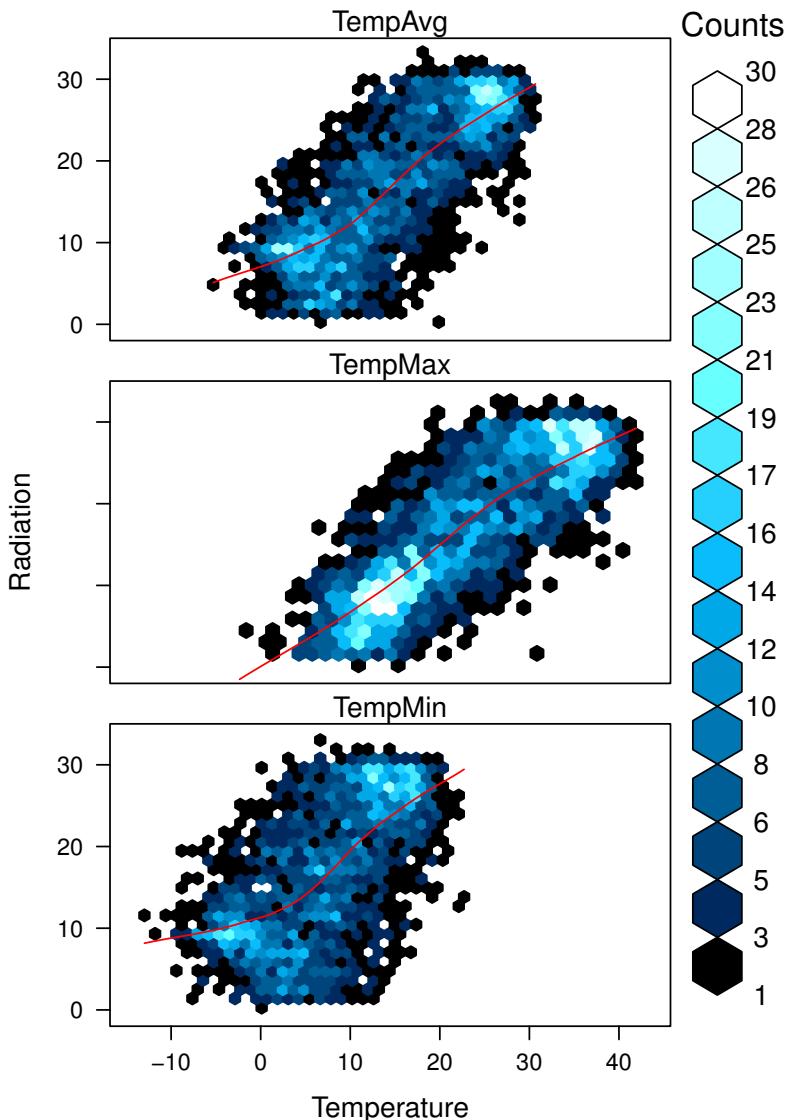


FIGURE 4.3: Scatterplot with hexagonal binning of temperature versus solar radiation using data of the Aranjuez station (lattice version).

## 4 TIME AS A CONDITIONING OR GROUPING VARIABLE

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This matrix of panels can be displayed with `ggplot` using `facet_grid`. The code of Figure 4.4 uses partial transparency to cope with overplotting, small horizontal and vertical segments (`geom_rug`) to display points density on both variables, and a smooth line in each panel.

```
ggplot(data = aranjuezRshp, aes(Radiation, Temperature)) +  
  facet_grid(Statistic ~ month) +  
  geom_point(col = 'skyblue4', pch = 19, cex = 0.5, alpha = 0.3) +  
  geom_rug() +  
  stat_smooth(se = FALSE, method = 'loess', col = 'indianred1', lwd  
    = 1.2) +  
  theme_bw()
```

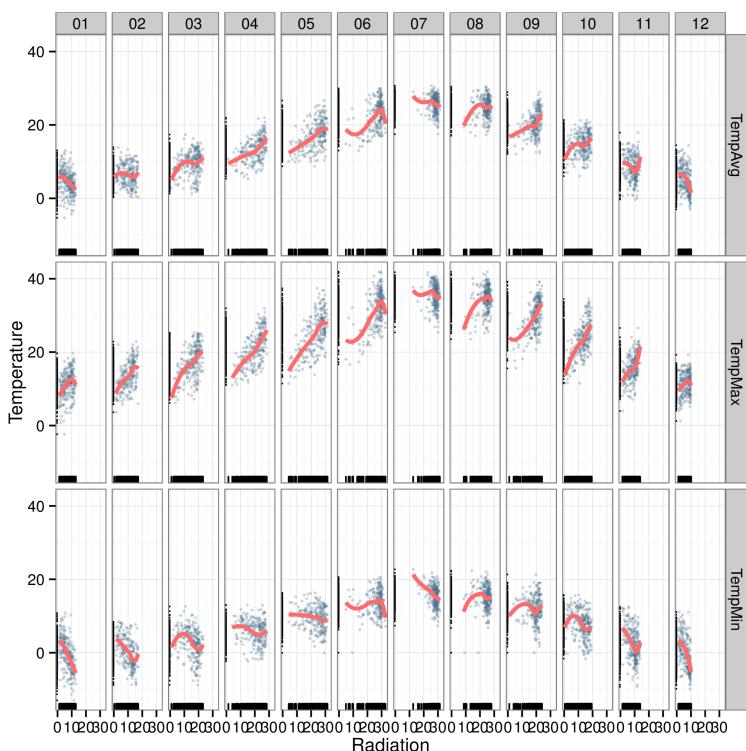
The version with `lattice` needs the `useOuterStrips` function from the `latticeExtra` package, which prints the names of the conditioning variables on the top and left outer margins (Figure 4.5).

```
useOuterStrips(xyplot(Temperature ~ Radiation | month * Statistic,  
                      data = aranjuezRshp,  
                      between = list(x = 0),  
                      col = 'skyblue4', pch = 19,  
                      cex = 0.5, alpha = 0.3)) +  
  layer({  
    panel.rug(..., col.line = 'indianred1', end = 0.05, alpha =  
      0.6)  
    panel.loess(..., col = 'indianred1', lwd = 1.5, alpha = 1)  
  })
```

These figures show the typical seasonal behavior of solar radiation and ambient temperature. Additionally, it displays in more detail the same relations between radiation and temperature already discussed with Figure 4.3.

## 4.2 Scatterplot with Time as a Conditioning Variable

---

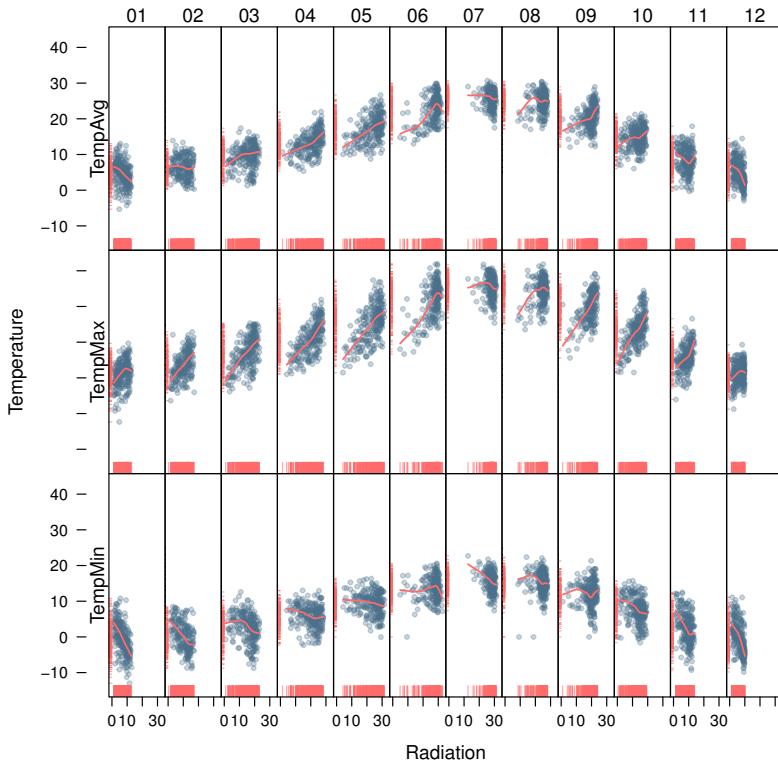


---

FIGURE 4.4: Scatterplot of temperature versus solar radiation for each month using data of the Aranjuez station (ggplot2 version).

## 4 TIME AS A CONDITIONING OR GROUPING VARIABLE

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FIGURE 4.5: Scatterplot of temperature versus solar radiation for each month using data of the Aranjuez station (lattice version).

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## Chapter 5

# Time as a Complementary Variable

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Gapminder<sup>1</sup> is an independent foundation based in Stockholm, Sweden. Its mission is “to debunk devastating myths about the world by offering free access to a fact-based world view.” They provide free online tools, data, and videos “to better understand the changing world.” The initial development of Gapminder was the Trendalyzer software, used by Hans Rosling in several sequences of his documentary “The Joy of Stats.”

The information visualization technique used by Trendalyzer is an interactive bubble chart. By default it shows five variables: two numeric variables on the vertical and horizontal axes, bubble size and color, and a time variable that may be manipulated with a slider. The software uses brushing and linking techniques for displaying the numeric value of a highlighted country.

This software was acquired by Google in 2007, and is now available as a Motion Chart gadget and as the Public Data Explorer.

In this chapter, time will be used as a complementary variable which adds information to a graph where several variables are confronted. We will illustrate this approach with the evolution of the relationship between Gross National Income (GNI) and carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) emissions for a set

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<sup>1</sup><http://www.gapminder.org/>

of countries extracted from the database of the World Bank Open Data. We will try several solutions to display the relationship between  $CO_2$  emissions and GNI over the years using time as a complementary variable. The final method will produce an animated plot resembling the Trendalyzer solution.

## 5.1 Polylines

```
load('data/CO2.RData')
```

Our first approach is to display the entire data in a panel with a scatterplot using country names as the grouping factor. Points of each country are connected with polylines to reveal the time evolution (Figure 5.1).

```
## lattice version
xyplot(GNI.capita ~ CO2.capita, data=CO2data,
       xlab="Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per capita)",
       ylab="GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)",
       groups=Country.Name, type='b')

## ggplot2 version
ggplot(data=CO2data, aes(x=CO2.capita, y=GNI.capita,
                           color=Country.Name)) +
  xlab("Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per capita)") +
  ylab("GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)") +
  geom_point() + geom_path() + theme_bw()
```

Three improvements can be added to this graphical result:

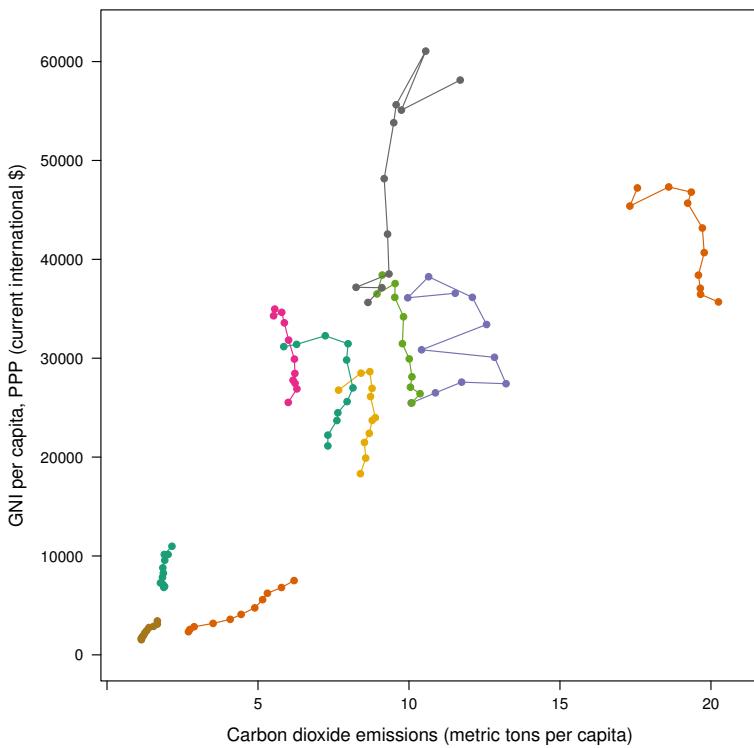
1. Define a better palette to enhance visual discrimination between countries.
2. Display time information with labels to show year values.
3. Label each polyline with the country name instead of a legend.

## 5.2 Choosing Colors

The `Country.Name` categorical variable will be encoded with a qualitative palette, namely the first five colors of Set1 palette<sup>2</sup> from the `RColorBrewer` package (Neuwirth 2011). Because there are more countries than colors,

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<sup>2</sup><http://colorbrewer2.org/>



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FIGURE 5.1: GNI per capita versus CO<sub>2</sub> emissions per capita (lattice version).

## 5 TIME AS A COMPLEMENTARY VARIABLE

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we have to repeat some colors to complete the number of levels of the variable `Country.Name`. The result is a palette with non-unique colors, and thus some countries will share the same color. This is not a problem because the curves will be labeled, and countries with the same color will be displayed at enough distance.

```
library(RColorBrewer)

nCountries <- nlevels(CO2data$Country.Name)
pal <- brewer.pal(n=5, 'Set1')
pal <- rep(pal, length = nCountries)
```

Adjacent colors of this palette are chosen to be easily distinguishable. Therefore, the connection between colors and countries must be in such a way that nearby lines are encoded with adjacent colors of the palette.

A simple approach is to calculate the annual average of the variable to be represented along the x-axis (`CO2.capita`), and extract colors from the palette according to the order of this value.

```
## Rank of average values of CO2 per capita
CO2mean <- aggregate(CO2.capita ~ Country.Name, data=CO2data, FUN=
  mean)
palOrdered <- pal[rank(CO2mean$CO2.capita)]
```

A more sophisticated solution is to use the ordered results of a hierarchical clustering of the time evolution of the CO<sub>2</sub> per capita values (Figure 5.2). The data is extracted from the original `CO2 data.frame`.

```
CO2capita <- CO2data[, c('Country.Name',
  'Year',
  'CO2.capita')]
CO2capita <- reshape(CO2capita,
  idvar='Country.Name',
  timevar='Year',
  direction='wide')
hCO2 <- hclust(dist(CO2capita[, -1]))

oldpar <- par(mar=c(0, 2, 0, 0) + .1)
plot(hCO2, labels=CO2capita$Country.Name,
  xlab='', ylab='', sub='', main='')
par(oldpar)
```

The colors of the palette are assigned to each country with `match`, which returns a vector of the positions of the matches of the country names in alphabetical order in the country names ordered according to the hierarchical clustering.

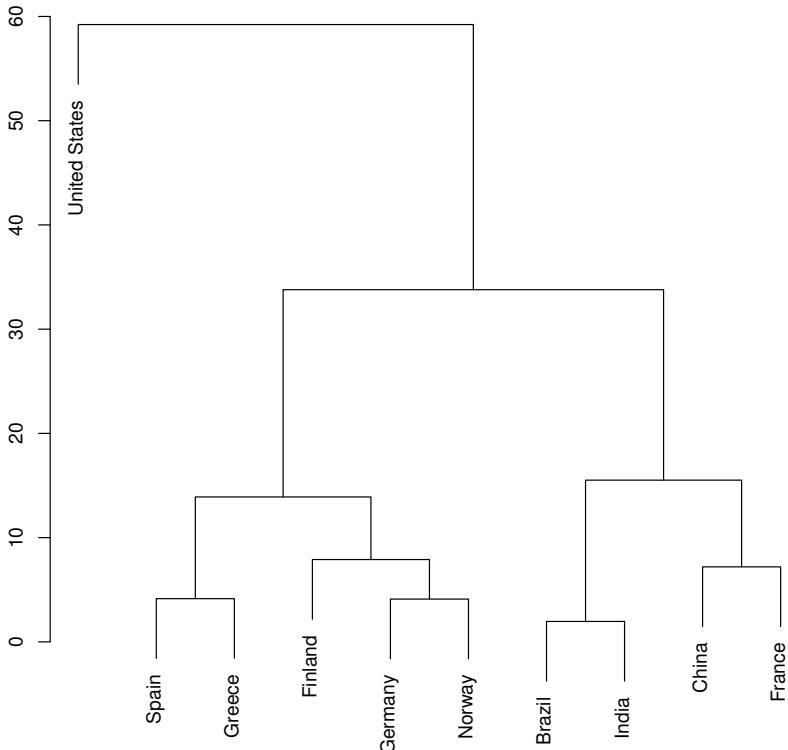


FIGURE 5.2: Hierarchical clustering of the time evolution of CO<sub>2</sub> per capita values.

```
idx <- match(levels(CO2data$Country.Name),
             CO2capita$Country.Name [hC02$order])
pal0rdered <- pal[idx]
```

It must be highlighted that this palette links colors with the levels of `Country.Name` (country names in alphabetical order), which is exactly what the `groups` argument provides. The following code produces a curve for each country using different colors to distinguish them.

```
## simpleTheme encapsulates the palette in a new theme for xyplot
myTheme <- simpleTheme(pch=19, cex=0.6, col=pal0rdered)

pC02.capita <- xyplot(GNI.capita ~ C02.capita,
```

## 5 TIME AS A COMPLEMENTARY VARIABLE

---

```
data = CO2data,
xlab = "Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per
       capita)",
ylab = "GNI per capita, PPP (current international
       $)",
groups = Country.Name,
par.settings = myTheme,
type='b')

gCO2.capita <- ggplot(data = CO2data,
                       aes(x = CO2.capita,
                           y = GNI.capita,
                           color = Country.Name)) +
  geom_point() + geom_path() +
  scale_color_manual(values=pal0Ordered, guide=FALSE) +
  xlab('CO2 emissions (metric tons per capita)') +
  ylab('GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)') +
  theme_bw()
```

### 5.3 Labels to Show Time Information

This result can be improved with labels displaying the years to show the time evolution. A panel function with `panel.text` to print the year labels and `panel.superpose` to display the lines for each group is a solution. In the panel function, `subscripts` is a vector with the integer indices representing the rows of the `data.frame` to be displayed in the panel.

```
xyplot(GNI.capita ~ CO2.capita,
       data = CO2data
       xlab = "Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per capita)",
       ylab = "GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)",
       groups = Country.Name,
       par.settings = myTheme,
       type='b',
       panel = function(x, y, ..., subscripts, groups){
         panel.text(x, y, ...,
                     labels = CO2data$Year[subscripts],
                     pos = 2, cex = 0.5, col = 'gray')
         panel.superpose(x, y, subscripts, groups,...)
       })
```

The same result with a clearer code is obtained with the combination of `+.trellis`, `glayer_` and `panel.text`. Using `glayer_` instead of `glayer`, we ensure that the labels are printed below the lines.

```
pC02.capita <- pC02.capita +
  glayer_(panel.text(...,
    labels = C02data$Year[subscripts],
    pos = 2, cex = 0.5, col = 'gray'))
```

```
gC02.capita <- gC02.capita + geom_text(aes(label = Year),
                                         colour = 'gray',
                                         size = 2.5,
                                         hjust = 0, vjust = 0)
```

## 5.4 Country Names: Positioning Labels

The common solution to link each curve with the group value is to add a legend. However, a legend can be confusing with too many items. In addition, the reader must carry out a complex task: Choose the line, memorize its color, search for it in the legend, and read the country name.

A better approach is to label each line using nearby text with the same color encoding. A suitable method is to place the labels close to the end of each line (Figure 5.3). Labels are placed with the `panel.pointLabel` function from the `maptools` package. This function use optimization routines to find locations without overlaps.

```
library(maptools)
## group.value provides the country name; group.number is the index
## of each country to choose the color from the palette.
pC02.capita +
  glayer(panel.pointLabel(mean(x), mean(y),
    labels = group.value,
    col = palOrdered[group.number],
    cex = .8,
    fontface = 2,
    fontfamily = 'Palatino'))
```

However, this solution does not solve the overlapping between labels and lines. The package `directlabels` (Hocking 2013) includes a wide repertory of positioning methods to cope with this problem. The main function, `direct.label`, is able to determine a suitable method for each plot, although the user can choose a different method from the collection or even define a custom method. For the `pC02.capita` object, I have obtained the best results with `extreme.grid` (Figure 5.4).

```
library(directlabels)
```

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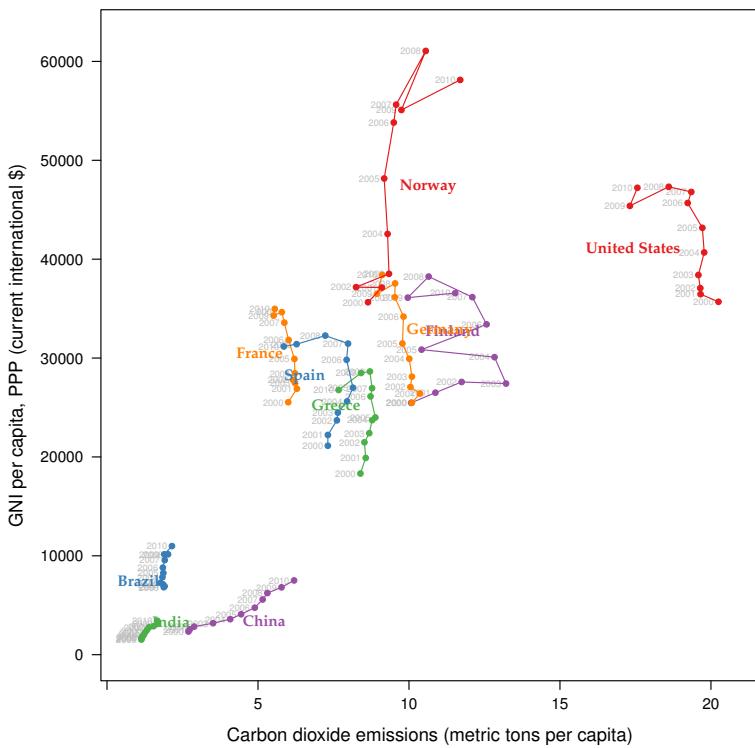


FIGURE 5.3: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions versus GNI per capita. Labels are placed with panel.pointLabel.

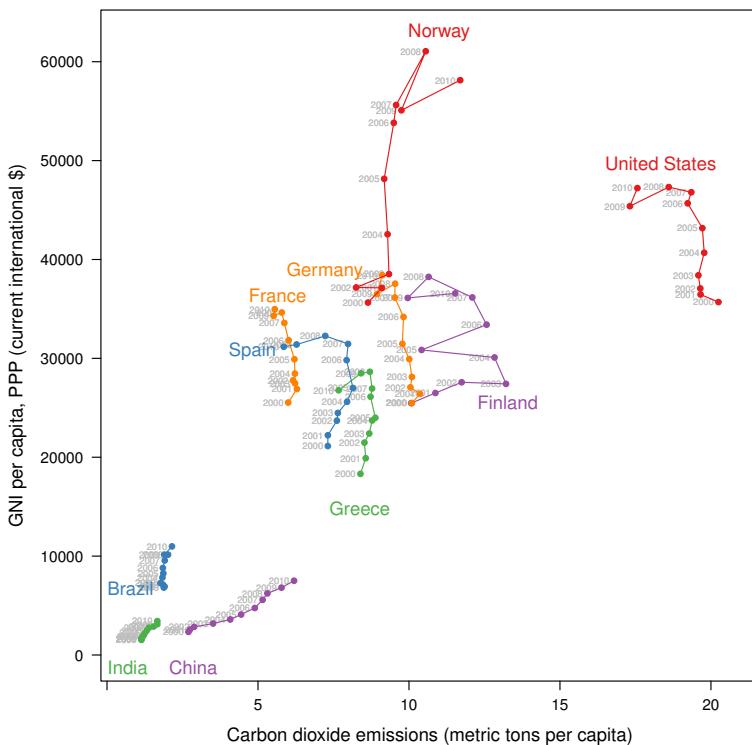


FIGURE 5.4: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions versus GNI per capita. Labels are placed with the `extreme.grid` method of the `directlabels` package.

```
direct.label(pCO2.capita,
            method = 'extreme.grid')
```

```
direct.label(gCO2.capita, method='extreme.grid')
```

## 5.5 A Panel for Each Year

Time can be used as a conditioning variable (as shown in previous sections) to display subsets of the data in different panels. Figure 5.5 is pro-

## 5 TIME AS A COMPLEMENTARY VARIABLE

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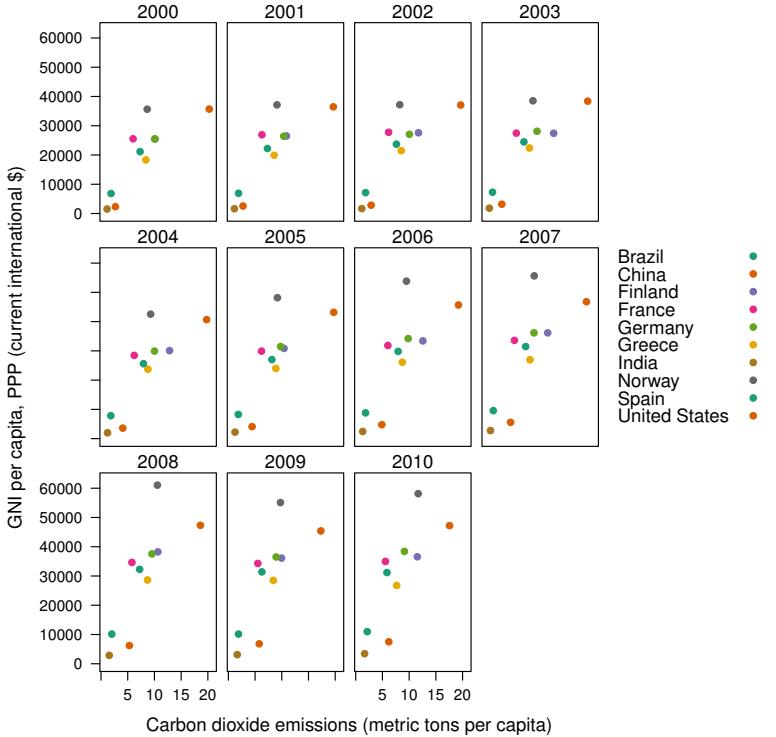


FIGURE 5.5: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions versus GNI per capita with a panel for each year.

duced with the same code as in Figure 5.1, now including `| factor(Year)` in the lattice version and `facet_wrap(~ Year)` in the ggplot2 version.

```
xyplot(GNI.capita ~ CO2.capita | factor(Year),
       data = CO2data,
       xlab = "Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per capita)",
       ylab = "GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)",
       groups = Country.Name, type = 'b',
       auto.key = list(space = 'right'))
```

```
ggplot(data = CO2data,
       aes(x = CO2.capita,
```

```

y = GNI.capita,
  colour = Country.Name)) +
facet_wrap(~ Year) + geom_point(pch = 19) +
xlab('CO2 emissions (metric tons per capita)') +
ylab('GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)') +
theme_bw()

```

Because the grouping variable, `Country.Name`, has many levels, the legend is not very useful. Once again, point labeling is recommended (Figure 5.6).

```

xyplot(GNI.capita ~ CO2.capita | factor(Year),
       data = CO2data,
       xlab = "Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per capita)",
       ylab = "GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)",
       groups = Country.Name, type = 'b',
       par.settings = myTheme) +
  layer(panel.pointLabel(x, y,
                        labels = group.value,
                        col = palOrdered[group.number],
                        cex = 0.7))

```

### 5.5.1 Using Variable Size to Encode an Additional Variable

Instead of using simple points, we can display circles of different radius to encode a new variable. This new variable is `CO2.PPP`, the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to the Gross Domestic Product with purchasing power parity (PPP) estimations.

To use this numeric variable as an additional grouping factor, its range must be divided into different classes. The typical solution is to use `cut` to coerce the numeric variable into a factor whose levels correspond to uniform intervals, which could be unrelated to the data distribution. The `classInt` package (Bivand 2013) provides several methods to partition data into classes based on natural groups in the data distribution.

```

library(classInt)
z <- CO2data$CO2.PPP
intervals <- classIntervals(z, n = 4, style = 'fisher')

```

Although the functions of this package are mainly intended to create color palettes for maps, the results can also be associated to point sizes. `cex.key` defines the sequence of sizes (to be displayed in the legend) associated with each `CO2.PPP` using the `findCols` function.

## 5 TIME AS A COMPLEMENTARY VARIABLE

---

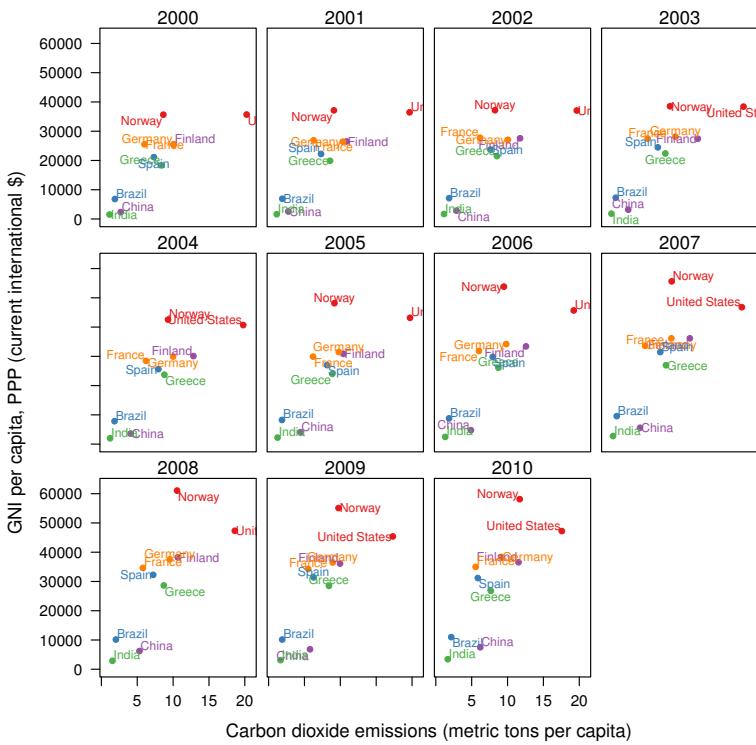


FIGURE 5.6: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions versus GNI per capita with a panel for each year.

```
nInt <- length(intervals$brks) - 1
cex.key <- seq(0.5, 1.8, length = nInt)

idx <- findCols(intervals)
CO2data$cexPoints <- cex.key[idx]
```

The graphic will display information on two variables (GNI.capita and CO2.capita in the vertical and horizontal axes, respectively) with a conditioning variable (Year) and two grouping variables (Country.Name, and CO2.PPP through cexPoints) (Figure 5.7).

```
ggplot(data = CO2data,
       aes(x = CO2.capita,
            y = GNI.capita,
            colour = Country.Name)) +
  facet_wrap(~ Year) +
  geom_point(aes(size = cexPoints), pch = 19) +
  xlab('Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per capita)') +
  ylab('GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)') +
  theme_bw()
```

The auto.key mechanism of the lattice version is not able to cope with two grouping variables. Therefore, the legend, whose main components are the labels (intervals) and the point sizes (cex.key), should be defined manually (Figure 5.8).

```
op <- options(digits = 2)
tab <- print(intervals)
options(op)

key <- list(space = 'right',
             title = expression(CO[2]/GNI.PPP),
             cex.title = 1,
             ## Labels of the key are the intervals strings
             text = list(labels = names(tab), cex = 0.85),
             ## Points sizes are defined with cex.key
             points = list(col = 'black', pch = 19,
                           cex = cex.key, alpha = 0.7))

xyplot(GNI.capita ~ CO2.capita | factor(Year), data = CO2data,
       xlab = "Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per capita)",
       ylab = "GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)",
       groups = Country.Name, key = key, alpha = 0.7,
       panel = panel.superpose,
```

## 5 TIME AS A COMPLEMENTARY VARIABLE

---

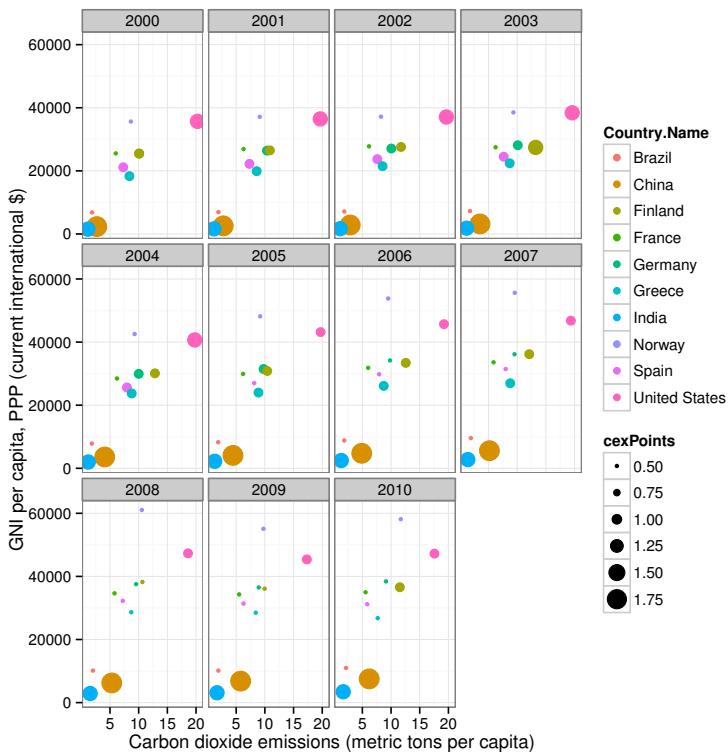


FIGURE 5.7: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions versus GNI per capita for different intervals of the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to the GDP PPP estimations.

## 5.5 A Panel for Each Year

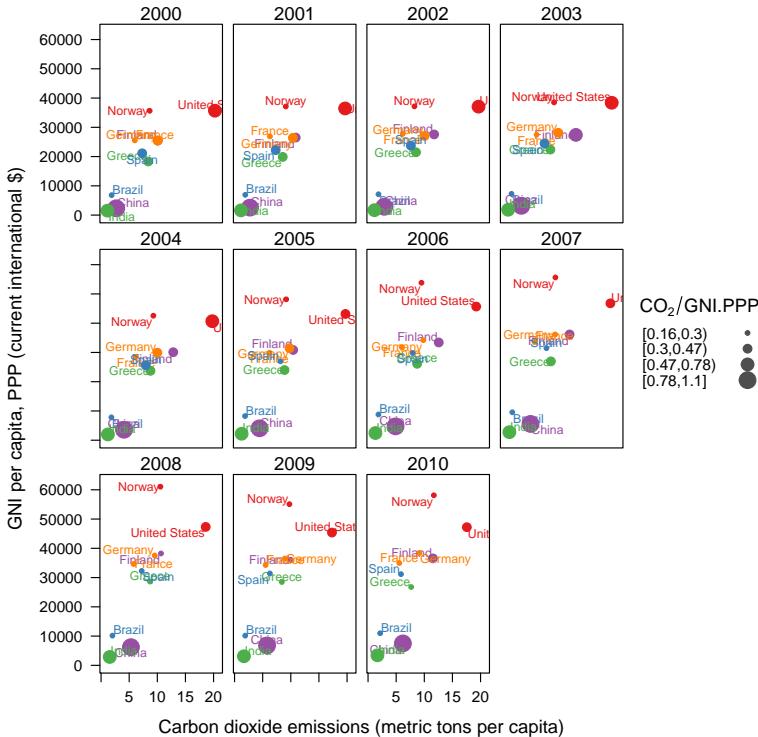


FIGURE 5.8: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions versus GNI per capita for different intervals of the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to the GDP PPP estimations.

```

panel.groups = function(x, y,
    subscripts, group.number, group.value, ...){
  panel.xyplot(x, y,
    col = pal0Ordered[group.number],
    cex = CO2data$cexPoints[subscripts])
  panel.pointLabel(x, y, labels = group.value,
    col = pal0Ordered[group.number],
    cex = 0.7)
}
)

```

## 5 TIME AS A COMPLEMENTARY VARIABLE

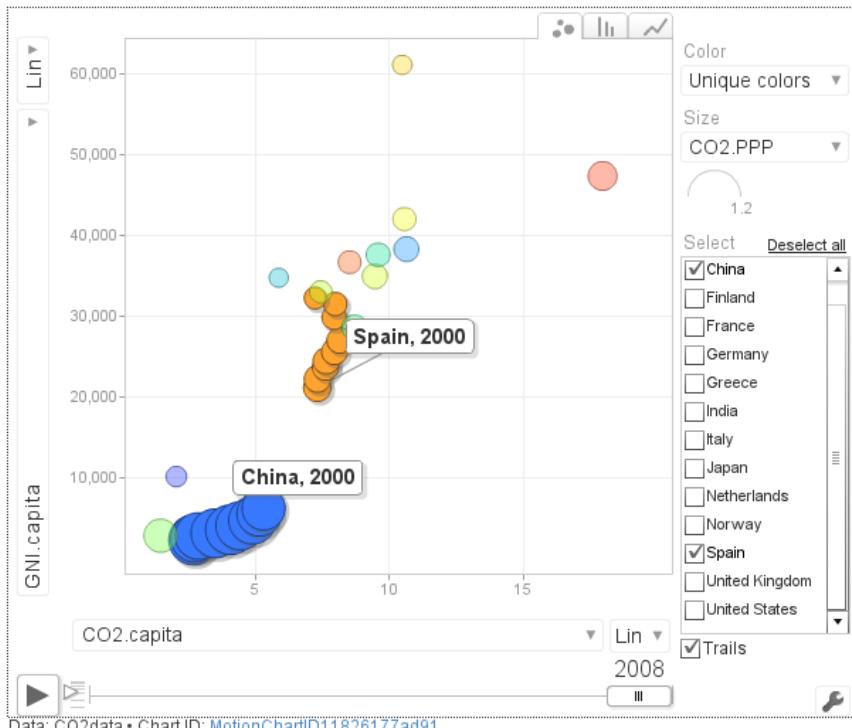


FIGURE 5.9: Snapshot of a Motion Chart produced with googleVis.

## 5.6 Interactive

### 5.6.1 googleVis

The first solution is a Motion Chart the `googleVis` package (Gesmann and Castillo 2011), an interface between R and the Google Visualisation API. With its `gvisMotionChart` function it is easy to produce a Motion Chart that can be displayed using a browser with Flash enabled (Figure 5.9).

```
library(googleVis)
pgvis <- gvisMotionChart(CO2data,
                           idvar='Country.Name',
                           timevar='Year')
```

Although the `gvisMotionChart` is quite easy to use, the global appearance and behavior are completely determined by Google API<sup>3</sup>. Moreover, you should carefully read their Terms of Use before using it for public distribution.

## 5.6.2 `plotly`

```
library(plotly)

p <- plot_ly(CO2data,
              x = ~CO2.capita,
              y = ~GNI.capita,
              size = ~CO2.PPP,
              text = ~Country.Name, hoverinfo = "text")

p <- add_markers(p,
                  color = ~Country.Name,
                  frame = ~Year,
                  ids = ~Country.Name,
                  showlegend = FALSE)

p <- animation_opts(p,
                     frame = 1000,
                     transition = 800,
                     redraw = FALSE) %>%
  animation_slider(
    currentvalue = list(prefix = "Year "))

p
```

## 5.6.3 `*gridSVG`

The final solution to display this multivariate time series is with animation via the function `grid.animate` of the `gridSVG` package. We will mimic the Trendalyzer/Motion Chart solution, using traveling bubbles of different colors and with radius proportional to `CO2.PPP`.

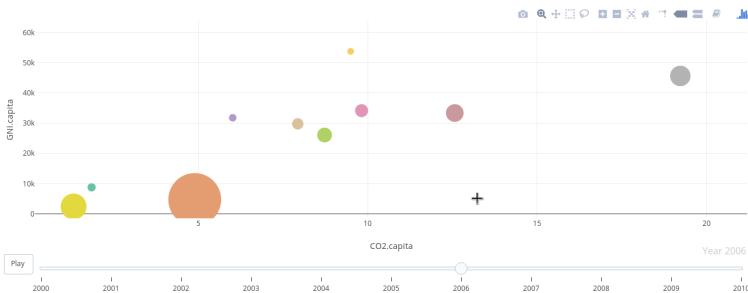
The first step is to draw the initial state of the bubbles. Their colors are again defined by the `pal0rdered` palette, although the `adjustcolor` function is used for a lighter fill color. Because there will not be a legend,

---

<sup>3</sup>You should read the Google API Terms of Service before using `googleVis`: <https://developers.google.com/terms/>.

## 5 TIME AS A COMPLEMENTARY VARIABLE

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FIGURE 5.10: plotly animation

there is no need to define class intervals, and thus the radius is directly proportional to the value of CO2data\$CO2.PPP.

```
library(gridSVG)

xyplot(GNI.capita ~ CO2.capita,
       data = CO2data,
       xlab = "Carbon dioxide emissions (metric tons per capita)",
       ylab = "GNI per capita, PPP (current international $)",
       subset = Year==2000, groups = Country.Name,
       ## The limits of the graphic are defined
       ## with the entire dataset
       xlim = extendrange(CO2data$CO2.capita),
       ylim = extendrange(CO2data$GNI.capita),
       panel = function(x, y, ..., subscripts, groups) {
         color <- pal0rdered[groups[subscripts]]
         radius <- CO2data$CO2.PPP[subscripts]
         ## Size of labels
         cex <- 1.1*sqrt(radius)
         ## Bubbles
         grid.circle(x, y, default.units = "native",
                     r = radius*unit(.25, "inch"),
                     name = trellis.grobname("points", type = "panel"),
                     gp = gpar(col = color,
                               ## Fill color lighter than border
                               fill = adjustcolor(color, alpha = .5),
                               lwd = 2))
         ## Country labels
         grid.text(label = groups[subscripts],
```

```

x = unit(x, 'native'),
## Labels above each bubble
y = unit(y, 'native') + 1.5 * radius *unit(.25,
    'inch'),
name = trellis.grobname('labels', type = 'panel'),
gp = gpar(col = color, cex = cex)
})

```

From this initial state, `grid.animate` creates a collection of animated graphical objects with the result of `animUnit`. This function produces a set of values that will be interpreted by `grid.animate` as intermediate states of a feature of the graphical object. Thus, the bubbles will travel across the values defined by `x_points` and `y_points`, while their labels will use `x_labels` and `y_labels`.

The use of `rep=TRUE` ensures that the animation will be repeated indefinitely.

```

## Duration in seconds of the animation
duration <- 20

nCountries <- nlevels(CO2data$Country.Name)
years <- unique(CO2data$Year)
nYears <- length(years)

## Intermediate positions of the bubbles
x_points <- animUnit(unit(CO2data$CO2.capita, 'native'),
    id = rep(seq_len(nCountries), each = nYears))
y_points <- animUnit(unit(CO2data$GNI.capita, 'native'),
    id = rep(seq_len(nCountries), each = nYears))
## Intermediate positions of the labels
y_labels <- animUnit(unit(CO2data$GNI.capita, 'native') +
    1.5 * CO2data$CO2.PPP * unit(.25, 'inch'),
    id = rep(seq_len(nCountries), each = nYears))
## Intermediate sizes of the bubbles
size <- animUnit(CO2data$CO2.PPP * unit(.25, 'inch'),
    id = rep(seq_len(nCountries), each = nYears))

grid.animate(trellis.grobname("points", type = "panel", row = 1, col
= 1),
    duration = duration,
    x = x_points,
    y = y_points,
    r = size,
    rep = TRUE)

```

```
grid.animate(trellis.grobname("labels", type = "panel", row = 1, col
= 1),
            duration = duration,
            x = x_points,
            y = y_labels,
            rep = TRUE)
```

A bit of interactivity can be added with the `grid.hyperlink` function. For example, the following code adds the corresponding Wikipedia link to a mouse click on each bubble.

```
countries <- unique(CO2data$Country.Name)
URL <- paste('http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/', countries, sep = '')
grid.hyperlink(trellis.grobname('points', type = 'panel', row = 1,
                                col = 1),
               URL, group = FALSE)
```

Finally, the time information: The year is printed in the lower right corner, using the `visibility` attribute of an animated `textGrob` object to show and hide the values.

```
visibility <- matrix("hidden", nrow = nYears, ncol = nYears)
diag(visibility) <- "visible"
yearText <- animateGrob(garnishGrob(textGrob(years, .9, .15,
                                              name = "year",
                                              gp = gpar(cex = 2, col = "grey")),
                                         ),
                           visibility = "hidden"),
                           duration = 20,
                           visibility = visibility,
                           rep = TRUE)
grid.draw(yearText)
```

The SVG file produced with `grid.export` is available at the website of the book (Figure 5.11). Because this animation does not trace the paths, Figure 5.4 provides this information as a static complement.

```
grid.export("figs/bubbles.svg")
```

Now, sit down in your favorite easy chair and watch the magistral video “200 Countries, 200 Years, 4 Minutes”<sup>4</sup>. After that, you are ready to open the SVG file of traveling bubbles: It is easier, a short time period with less than twenty countries.

---

<sup>4</sup><http://www.gapminder.org/videos/200-years-that-changed-the-world-bbc/>

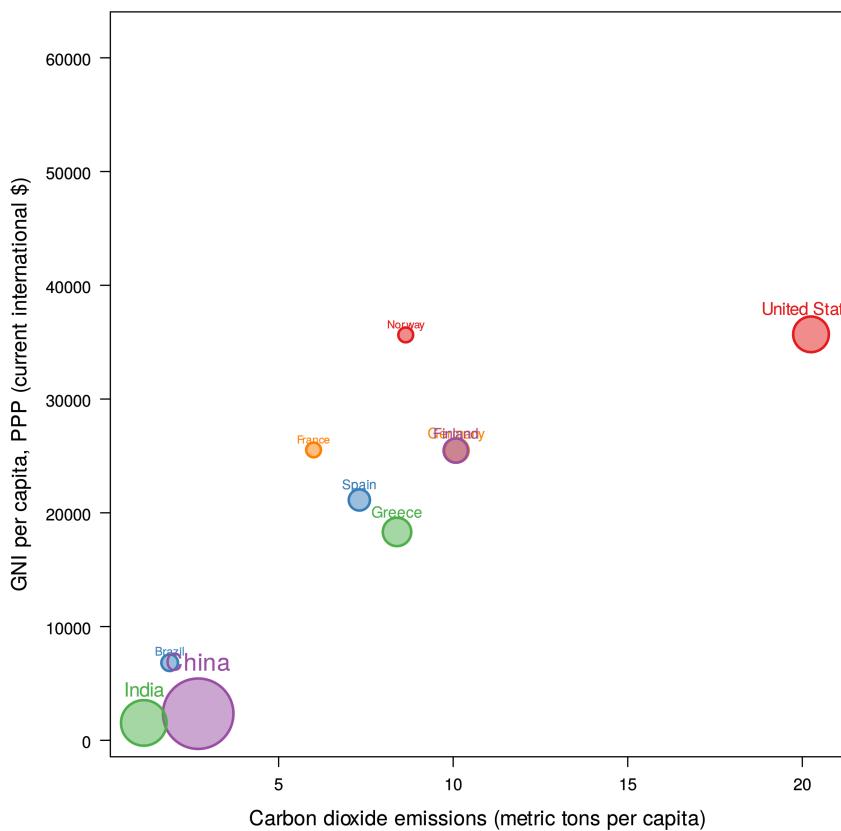


FIGURE 5.11: Animated bubbles produced with gridSVG.



---

## Chapter 6

# About the Data

---

### 6.1 SIAR

The Agroclimatic Information System for Irrigation (SIAR) (MARM 2011) is a free-download database operating since 1999, covering the majority of the irrigated area of Spain. This network belongs to the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Environment of Spain, as a tool to predict and study meteorological variables for agriculture. SIAR is composed of twelve regional centers and a national center, aiming to centralize and depurate measurements from the stations of the network. Figure 6.1 displays the stations over an altitude map. Some stations from the complete network have been omitted, due to difficulties accessing their coordinates or to incomplete or spurious data series<sup>1</sup>.

#### 6.1.1 Daily Data of Different Meteorological Variables

As an example of multiple time series with different scales, we will use 8 years (from January 2004 to December 2011) of daily data corresponding to several meteorological variables measured at the SIAR station located at Aranjuez (Madrid, Spain) available on the SIAR webpage<sup>2</sup>. The aranjuez.gz file, available in the data folder of the book repository, contains

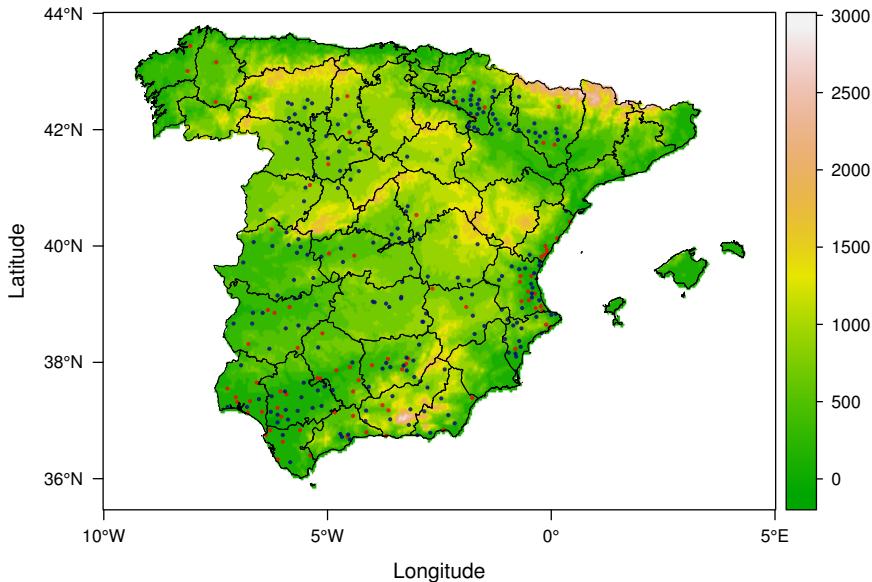
---

<sup>1</sup>The name and location data of these stations are available at the [GitHub repository](#) of the paper (Antonanzas-Torres, Cañizares, and Perpiñán 2013).

<sup>2</sup><http://eportal.magrama.gob.es/websiar>

## 6 ABOUT THE DATA

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FIGURE 6.1: Meteorological stations of the SIAR network. The color key indicates the altitude (meters).

this information with several meteorological variables: average, maximum, and minimum ambient temperature; average and maximum humidity; average and maximum wind speed; rainfall; solar radiation on the horizontal plane; and evotranspiration.

The `read.zoo` from the `zoo` package accepts this string and downloads the data to construct a `zoo` object. Several arguments are passed directly to `read.table` (`header`, `skip`, etc.) and are detailed conveniently on the help page of this function. The `index.column` is the number of the column with the time index, and `format` defines the date format of this index.

```
library(zoo)

aranjuez <- read.zoo("data/aranjuez.gz",
                      index.column = 3, format = "%d/%m/%Y",
                      fileEncoding = 'UTF-16LE',
                      header = TRUE, fill = TRUE,
                      sep = ';', dec = ",", as.is = TRUE)
aranjuez <- aranjuez[, -c(1:4)]
```

```

names(aranjuez) <- c('TempAvg', 'TempMax', 'TempMin',
                      'HumidAvg', 'HumidMax',
                      'WindAvg', 'WindMax',
                      'Radiation', 'Rain', 'ET')

summary(aranjuez)

```

From the summary it is clear that parts of these time series include erroneous outliers that can be safely removed:

```

aranjuezClean <- within(as.data.frame(aranjuez), {
  TempMin[TempMin>40] <- NA
  HumidMax[HumidMax>100] <- NA
  WindAvg[WindAvg>10] <- NA
  WindMax[WindMax>10] <- NA
})

aranjuez <- zoo(aranjuezClean, index(aranjuez))

```

## 6.1.2 Solar Radiation Measurements from Different Locations

As an example of multiple time series with the same scale, we will use data of daily solar radiation measurements from different locations.

Daily solar radiation incident on the horizontal plane is registered by meteorological stations and estimated from satellite images. This meteorological variable is important for a wide variety of scientific disciplines and engineering applications. Its variations and trends, dependent on the location (mainly latitude, and also longitude and altitude) and on time (day of the year), have been analyzed and modeled in a huge collection of papers and reports. In this section we will focus our attention on the time evolution of the solar radiation. The spatial distribution and the spatio-time behavior will be the subject of later sections.

The stations of the SIAR network include first-class pyranometers according to the World Meteorological Organization (WMO), whose absolute accuracy is within  $\pm 5\%$  and is typically lower than  $\pm 3\%$ . Solar irradiance is recorded every 15 minutes and then collated through a datalogger within the station to generate the daily irradiation, which is later sent to the regional and national centers.

The file `navarra.RData` contains daily solar radiation data of 2011 from the meteorological stations of Navarra, Spain. The names of the dataset are the abbreviations of each station name.

## 6.2 Unemployment in the United States

As an example of time series that can be displayed both in individual and in aggregate, we will use the unemployment data in the United States. The information on unemployed persons by industry and class of worker is available in Table A-14 published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics<sup>3</sup>.

The dataset arranges the information with a row for each category (`Series.ID`) and a column for each monthly value. In addition, there are columns with the annual summaries (`annualCols`). We rearrange this `data.frame`, dropping the `Series.ID` and the annual columns, and transpose the data.

```
unemployUSA <- read.csv('data/unemployUSA.csv')
nms <- unemployUSA$Series.ID
## columns of annual summaries
annualCols <- 14 + 13*(0:12)
## Transpose. Remove annual summaries
unemployUSA <- as.data.frame(t(unemployUSA[,-c(1, annualCols)]))
## First 7 characters can be suppressed
names(unemployUSA) <- substring(nms, 7)
head(unemployUSA)
```

With the transpose, the column names of the original data set are now the row names of the `data.frame`. The `as.yearmon` function of the `zoo` package converts the character vector of names into a `yearmon` vector, a class for representing monthly data. With `Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", 'C')` we ensure that month abbreviations (%b) are correctly interpreted in a non-English locale. This vector is the time index of a new `zoo` object.

```
library(zoo)

Sys.setlocale("LC_TIME", 'C')
idx <- as.yearmon(row.names(unemployUSA), format='%b.%Y')
unemployUSA <- zoo(unemployUSA, idx)
```

Finally, those rows with NA values are removed.

```
isNA <- apply(is.na(unemployUSA), 1, any)
unemployUSA <- unemployUSA[!isNA,]
```

---

<sup>3</sup><http://www.bls.gov/webapps/legacy/cpsatab14.htm>

## 6.3 Gross National Income and CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions

The catalog data of the World Bank Open Data initiative includes the World Development Indicators (WDI)<sup>4</sup>. Among them we will analyze the evolution of the relationship between Gross National Income (GNI) and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for a set of countries. The package WDI is able to search and download these data series.

```
library(WDI)

CO2data <- WDI(indicator=c('EN.ATM.CO2E.PC', 'EN.ATM.CO2E.PP.GD',
                            'NY.GNP.MKTP.PP.CD', 'NY.GNP.PCAP.PP.CD'),
                  start=2000, end=2011,
                  country=c('BR', 'CN', 'DE', 'ES',
                            'FI', 'FR', 'GR', 'IN', 'NO', 'US')) 

names(CO2data) <- c('iso2c', 'Country.Name', 'Year',
                     'CO2.capita', 'CO2.PPP',
                     'GNI.PPP', 'GNI.capita')
```

Only two minor modifications are needed: Remove the missing values and convert the Country.Name column into a factor. This first modification will save problems when displaying the time series, and the factor conversion will be useful for grouping.

```
isNA <- apply(is.na(CO2data), 1, any)
CO2data <- CO2data[!isNA, ]

CO2data$Country.Name <- factor(CO2data$Country.Name)
```

---

<sup>4</sup><http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators>



**Part II**

**Spatial Data**



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## **Chapter 7**

# **Displaying Spatial Data: Introduction**

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### **7.1 Packages**

### **7.2 Further Reading**



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## **Chapter 8**

# **Thematic Maps**

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## **Chapter 9**

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# **Reference and Physical Maps**

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## **Chapter 10**

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### **About the Data**

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## **Part III**

# **Space-Time Data**



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## **Chapter 11**

# **Displaying Spatiotemporal Data: Introduction**

---

### **11.1 Packages**

### **11.2 Further Reading**



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## **Chapter 12**

# **Spatiotemporal Raster Data**

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## **Chapter 13**

# **Spatiotemporal Point Observations**

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