

NEW WAYS OF MAPPING OLD INFORMATION

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Abstract

This paper demonstrates how new visualization techniques are being used to analyze the results of British censuses and mortality, election and employment records. The purpose of analyzing these statistics is to show how communities have developed over time and to explore how the different facets of life in Britain, which these statistics reflect, may be geographically related to one another.

The argument for developing these new techniques is that complex questions concerning spatial change across many aspects of society can only be answered in a trivial manner by conventional quantitative techniques. This is because the nature of the relationships are unlikely to be simple enough to be presentable in tables or by equations. Detailed maps are needed to show how different processes occur in different places while global patterns need also to be seen without generalizing out local detail. Neither traditional thematic mapping nor commercial geographic information systems can do justice to the wealth of data that has become accessible to researchers in recent years.

Introduction

Several years ago a paper was published which argued that, since 1800, developments in statistical graphics were primarily the result of an expanding amount of quantitative data available to be analyzed (Beniger and Robyn 1978). The decade following that publication saw the rapid development of Geographical Information Systems primarily, it could be argued, because so much new geographical information became available so quickly. Geographical Information Systems came to depend increasingly on computer graphics. These changes to the way in which geographical data is analyzed cannot be understood in isolation because they are part of a science-wide shift for which the term "visualization"

was adopted (Fisher et al 1993). What all these developments had in common was the invention of new forms of "statistical graphics." However, the graphics introduced into most Geographical Information Systems were not particularly innovative. They were often only poor screen imitations of traditional topographic maps. Very few attempts have been made to use the computer to produce graphics which could not be drawn by hand by cartographers, and very little attention has been paid to visualizing subjects other than physical geography. Here an attempt is made to introduce innovative graphics which could not be created without a computer and which may be of wider use in understanding human geography.

The paper is organized according to the topics being studied: population, mortality, elections and employment. These are just a sample of the variables which a social scientist in Britain can now gain access to with relative ease. A decade ago considerable effort would have been required to collect only a fraction of the information displayed here. The illustrations shown here are brought together to illustrate some of the problems and limits for visualizing socioeconomic data over time and space. New ways of mapping old information are best evaluated by what they can reveal about topics of practical interest.

Population

As the availability of data in digital form has grown, new graphical methods have developed to make the ever more complex statistics derived from them visible. Figure 1 portrays the finest resolution information available in Britain on population changes over the course of this century. For the first year of each decade (other than 1941 when the census was canceled due to war) the population has been estimated for each local authority district as it was constituted following the boundary changes of 1974 (Mounsey 1982). Eight periods of change can be discerned. To be compared, all of these maps must be visible simultaneously. The simplest solution is to place eight maps side-by-side on a page, each map showing each district shaded according to the percentage change in its population over a particular period. On conventional maps (printed in the space available here) the most densely populated districts containing the majority of the population would not be visible. The thickness of the lines needed to draw these districts boundaries would be wider than the districts themselves. This is just one reason why population cartograms are used here--other arguments for their adoption have been given elsewhere (Dorling 1993). Each

district is drawn in proportion to its population in 1981. A key is given in Figure 2, which shows how many districts were used to create the previous illustration.

The cartograms show how Inner London has been declining in population over the whole of this century with the single exception being an increase in Tower Hamlets recorded by the last census. The fate of individual districts can be traced. For instance Birmingham (Figure 1, circle 33, just left of center) grew in population until the 1960s after which it declined by over 5% per decade. Individual decades can also be contrasted. What marked the 1920s most was suburbanization of the Outer London boroughs, whereas the 1980s has seen strong growth only in a few small rural districts around the home counties. To make observations such as these, however, the new mental map of Britain depicted by this cartography has to be learned. Another problem with this method of depiction is understanding how the population of a group of districts changed in a region such as Scotland. The eye has to follow each district individually across the decades, giving the mind time to forget the assimilated pattern.

Population shifts occur at a much finer scale than administrative districts, which might well obscure subtle changes through the modifiable areal unit problem (Openshaw 1982). Visualization has been seen as one possible palliative for the adverse influence of areal unit boundaries on changing population patterns (Fotheringham 1989), but to visualize detail we first need fine data. Only since the 1971 census have we had fine resolution socioeconomic data which could be compared with later censuses. Just as the population count was reaggregated from each census of this century to a consistent set of areal units, so the small area statistics of the last three censuses have been reaggregated for the same areal units. The wards from one census (1981) have been *frozen* and the enumeration district statistics of the previous and subsequent censuses aggregated into them using a Geographical Information System. Some programming and a great deal of manual effort was also required to achieve this (Atkins et al 1993). This situation contrasts strongly with the geography of the American census which has been frozen at the county level for many decades.

Figure 3 shows the 1991 distribution of English born residents on a population cartogram in which each 1981 ward is drawn with its area in proportion to its population. County boundaries are shown as black lines corresponding to the key map in Figure 3. This key also appears in subsequent figures as appropriate. Scotland and Wales obviously have the lowest

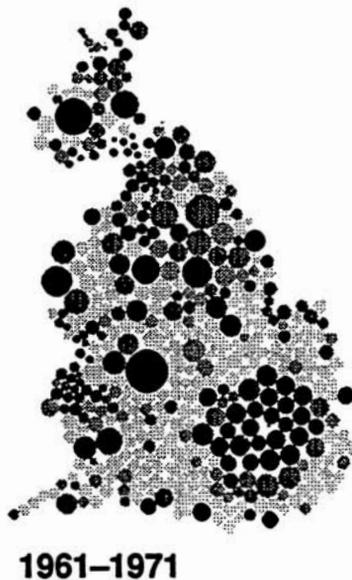
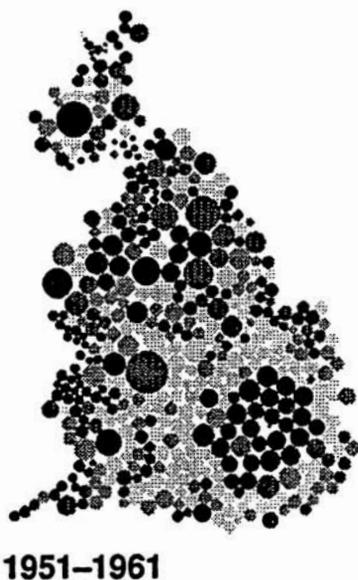
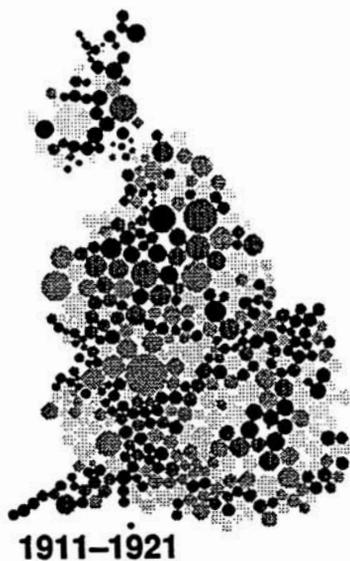
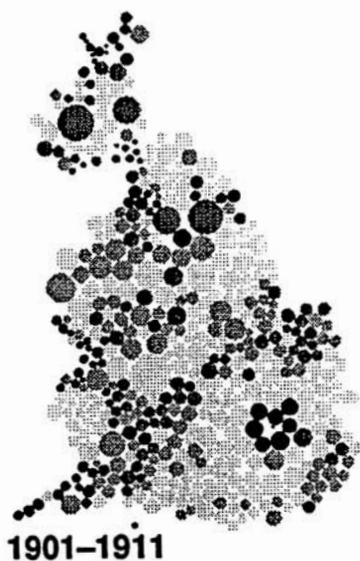
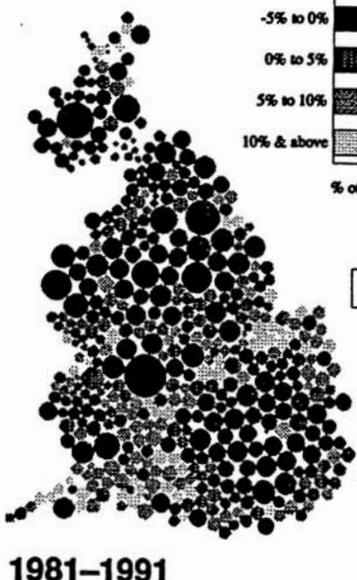
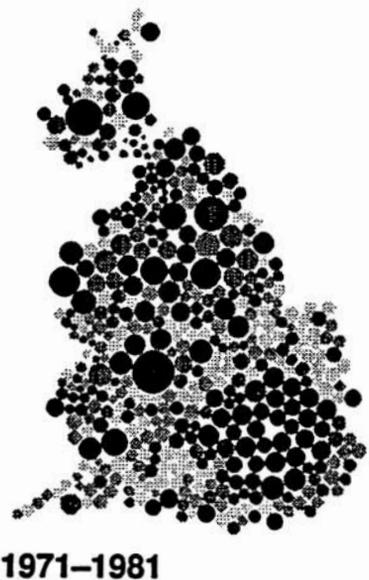
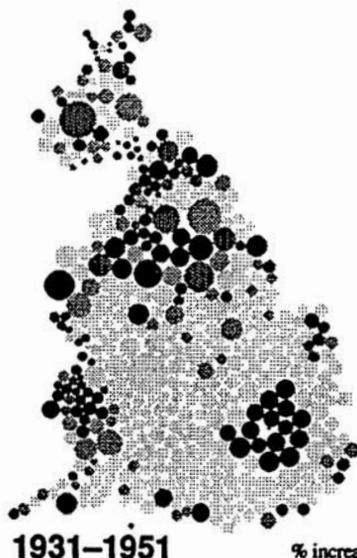
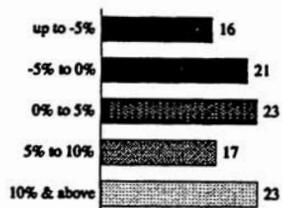


Figure 1. Population Change 1901 to 1991 (shown within 1981 local authority district boundaries)



% increase in population present



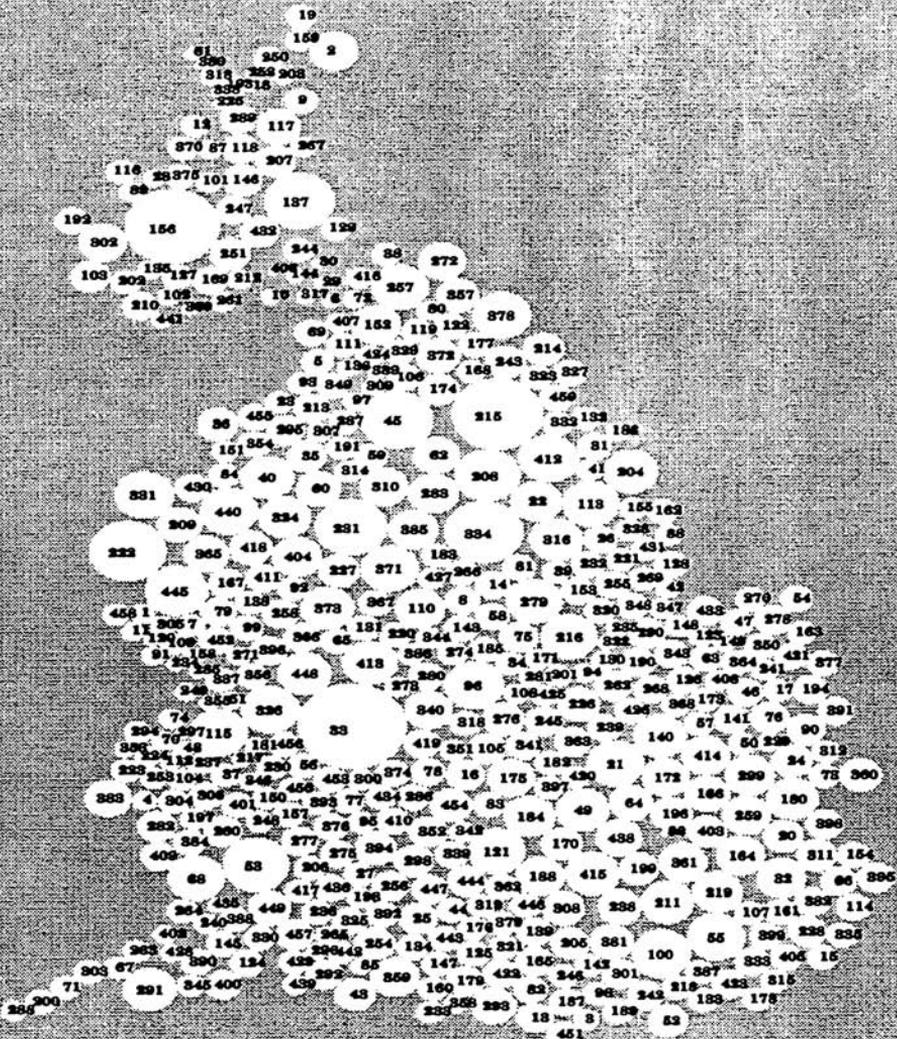
% of all residents in Britain

Scale
 = 1,000,000 people in 1981

Local Authority Districts

1 Aberconwy	62 Calderdale	131 East	200 Kerrier	Derbyshire	331 Beban	363 Tewkesbury
2 Aberdeen City	63 Cambridge	Starforthshire	201 Kettering	267 North East Fife	332 Selby	364 Thamesdown
3 Adur	64 Camden	132 East Yorkshire	202 Kilmarnock and Loudoun	268 North Hertfordshire	333 Sevenoaks	365 Thirwell
4 Alan	65 Cannock Chase	133 Eastbourne	203 Kincardine and Deeside	269 North Kesteven	334 Sheffield	366 The Wrekin
5 Allerdale	66 Canterbury	134 Eastleigh	204 Kingston upon Hull	270 North Norfolk	335 Shapway	367 Three Rivers
6 Amn and Deeside	67 Caradon	135 Eastwood	205 Kingston upon Thames	271 North Northamptonshire	336 Shetland Islands	368 Thurrock
7 Ayn and Deeside	68 Cardiff	136 Eden	206 Kingswood	272 North Northamptonshire	337 Shrewsbury and Aachen	369 Tonbridge and Malling
8 Arner Valley	69 Cardiff	137 Edinburgh City	207 Kirkcaldy	273 North Warwickshire	338 Slay and Lochaleh	400 Torbay
9 Arnsdale and Eskdale	70 Carmarthen	138 Ellesmere Port and Neston	208 Knowsley	274 North West Lancashire	339 Slough	401 Torisun
11 Aron	71 Carrick	139 Elmbridge	209 Knowsley	275 North Wiltshire	340 Solihull	402 Torridge
12 Argyll and Bute	72 Castle Morpeth	140 Enfield	210 Kyle and Carrick	276 Northampton	341 South	403 Tower Hamlets
13 Arun	73 Castle Point	141 Epping Forest	211 Lambeth	277 Northavon	342 South Bucks	404 Trafford
14 Ashfield	74 Charnwood	142 Epsom and Ewell	212 Lanark (now Clydesdale)	278 Norwich	343 South Cambridgeshire	405 Tunbridge Wells
15 Ashford	75 Charnwood	143 Erwsath	213 Lancaster	279 Nottingham	344 South Derbyshire	406 Tweeddale
16 Aylesbury Vale	76 Charnwood	144 Erwich and Leicestershire	214 Langbaurgh	280 Haleson and Bedworth	345 South Hams	407 Tyndale
17 Babergh	77 Cheshire	145 Exeter	215 Leeds	281 Oadby and Wigston	346 South	408 Utlesford
18 Badsenach and Strathpary	78 Cheshire	146 Falkirk	216 Leicester	282 Ogr	347 South Hants	409 Vale of White Horse
19 Bant and Buchan	79 Chester-le-Street	147 Farnham	217 Leominster	283 Oldham	348 South Herefordshire	411 Vale Royal
20 Barking and Dagenham	80 Chesterfield	148 Farnham	218 Lewes	284 Orkney Islands	349 South Herefordshire	412 Walsall
21 Barnet	81 Chichester	149 Farnham	219 Lewisham	285 Oswestry	350 South Norfolk	414 Walsham Forest
22 Barnsley	82 Chichester	150 Forest of Dean	220 Lichfield	286 Oxford	351 South Northamptonshire	415 Wandsworth
23 Barrow-in-Furness	83 Chiltern	151 Fyfe	221 Lincoln	287 Pendle	352 South Oxfordshire	416 Wansbeck
24 Bassetlaw	84 Chorley	152 Galeshead	222 Liverpool	288 Perth and Kinross	353 South Pembrokeshire	417 Wansdyke
25 Basingstoke and Deane	85 Cheshire	153 Gedling	223 Lisanel	289 Peterborough	354 South Ribble	418 Warrington
26 Basildon	86 Cheshire	154 Gillingham	224 Llew Valley	290 Plymouth	355 South Shropshire	419 Warwick
27 Bath	87 Cheshire	155 Gillingham	225 Lochaber	291 Poole	356 South Staffordshire	420 Watford
28 Bawtry	88 Cheshire	156 Glasgow City	226 Luton	292 Poole	357 South Tyneside	421 Waveney
29 Bedfordshire	89 Cheshire	157 Gloucester	227 Luton	293 Portsmouth	358 South Wiltshire	422 Waverley
30 Bedfordshire	90 Cheshire	158 Congleton	228 Malden	294 Presell	359 Southampton	423 Wealden
31 Beverley	91 Cheshire	91 Cheshire	229 Maldon	295 Preston	360 Southampton-on-Sea	424 Weir Valley
32 Bexley	92 Cheshire	92 Cheshire	230 Malvern Hills	296 Purbeck	361 South Tyneside	425 Welwynborough
33 Birmingham	93 Cheshire	93 Cheshire	231 Manchester	297 Radnor	362 South Wiltshire	426 Welwyn Hatfield
34 Blyth	94 Cheshire	94 Cheshire	232 Mansfield	298 Reading	363 South Wiltshire	427 West Derbyshire
35 Blackburn	95 Cheshire	95 Cheshire	233 Medina	299 Redbridge	364 St Edmundsbury	428 West Dorset
36 Blackpool	96 Cheshire	96 Cheshire	234 Merionnydd	300 Redditch	365 St Helena	429 West Lancashire
37 Blaenau Gwent	97 Cheshire	97 Cheshire	235 Melton	301 Reigate and Banstead	366 Stafford	430 West Lancashire
38 Blyth Valley	98 Cheshire	98 Cheshire	236 Mendip	302 Renfrew	367 Staffordshire Moorlands	431 West Lindsey
39 Bolsover	99 Cheshire	99 Cheshire	237 Merthyr Tydfil	303 Restormel	303 Rhondda	432 West Lothian
40 Bolton	100 Cheshire	100 Cheshire	238 Merion	304 Rhondda	304 Rhuddlan	433 West Norfolk
41 Boothferry	101 Cheshire	101 Cheshire	239 Mid Bedfordshire	305 Rhymer Valley	305 Ribblesdale	434 West Northamptonshire
42 Boston	102 Cheshire	102 Cheshire	240 Mid Devon	306 Ribblesdale	306 Ribblesdale	435 West Somerset
43 Bourneham	103 Cheshire	103 Cheshire	241 Mid Suffolk	307 Ribblesdale	307 Ribblesdale	436 West Wiltshire
44 Brecknell	104 Cheshire	104 Cheshire	242 Mid Sussex	308 Richmond upon Thames	308 Richmond upon Thames	437 Western Isles
45 Bradford	105 Cheshire	105 Cheshire	243 Middlebrough	309 Richmondshire	309 Stroud	438 Westmorland
46 Braintree	106 Cheshire	106 Cheshire	244 Midlothian	310 Rochdale	310 Rochdale	439 Weymouth and Portland
47 Breckland	107 Cheshire	107 Cheshire	245 Milton Keynes	311 Rochester upon Medway	311 Rochester upon Medway	440 Wigan
48 Brecknock	108 Cheshire	108 Cheshire	246 Mole Valley	312 Rochford	312 Rochford	441 Wigorn
49 Brent	109 Cheshire	109 Cheshire	247 Monmouth	313 Ross and Cromarty	313 Ross and Cromarty	442 Wirbome
50 Brentwood	110 Cheshire	110 Cheshire	248 Monmouth	314 Rossendale	314 Rossendale	443 Winchester
51 Bridgnorth	111 Cheshire	111 Cheshire	249 Montgomery	315 Rother	315 Rother	444 Windsor and Maidenhead
52 Brighton	112 Cheshire	112 Cheshire	250 Moray	316 Rotherham	316 Rotherham	445 Wirral
53 Bristol	113 Cheshire	113 Cheshire	251 Motherwell	317 Rotherham	317 Rotherham	446 Woking
54 Broadband	114 Cheshire	114 Cheshire	252 Nairn	318 Rugby	318 Rugby	447 Wokingham
55 Bromley	115 Cheshire	115 Cheshire	253 Neath	319 Runnymede	319 Runnymede	448 Wolverhampton
56 Bromsgrove	116 Cheshire	116 Cheshire	254 New Forest	320 Rushcliffe	320 Rushcliffe	449 Woodsping
57 Broxbourne	117 Cheshire	117 Cheshire	255 Newark	321 Rushmoor	321 Rushmoor	450 Worcester
58 Broxtowe	118 Cheshire	118 Cheshire	256 Newbury	322 Rutland	322 Rutland	451 Worthing
59 Burnley	119 Cheshire	119 Cheshire	257 Newcastle upon Tyne	323 Ryedale	323 Ryedale	452 Wrexham Maelor
60 Bury	120 Cheshire	120 Cheshire	258 Newcastle-under-Lyme	324 Salford	324 Salford	453 Wycheon
61 Calthness	121 Cheshire	121 Cheshire	259 Newark	325 Salford	325 Salford	454 Wycombe
	122 Cheshire	122 Cheshire	260 Newport	326 Sandwell	326 Sandwell	455 Wye
	123 Cheshire	123 Cheshire	261 Nidderdale	327 Scarborough	327 Scarborough	456 Wye Forest
	124 Cheshire	124 Cheshire	262 North Bedfordshire	328 Scunthorpe	328 Scunthorpe	457 Yeovil
	125 Cheshire	125 Cheshire	263 North Cornwall	329 Sedgemoor	329 Sedgemoor	458 Wye Mon-Isle of Arglesey
	126 Cheshire	126 Cheshire	264 North Devon			459 York
	127 Cheshire	127 Cheshire	265 North Dorset			
	128 Cheshire	128 Cheshire	266 North East			

Figure 2. A Population Cartogram of Britain by Local Authority District (using 1981 populations)



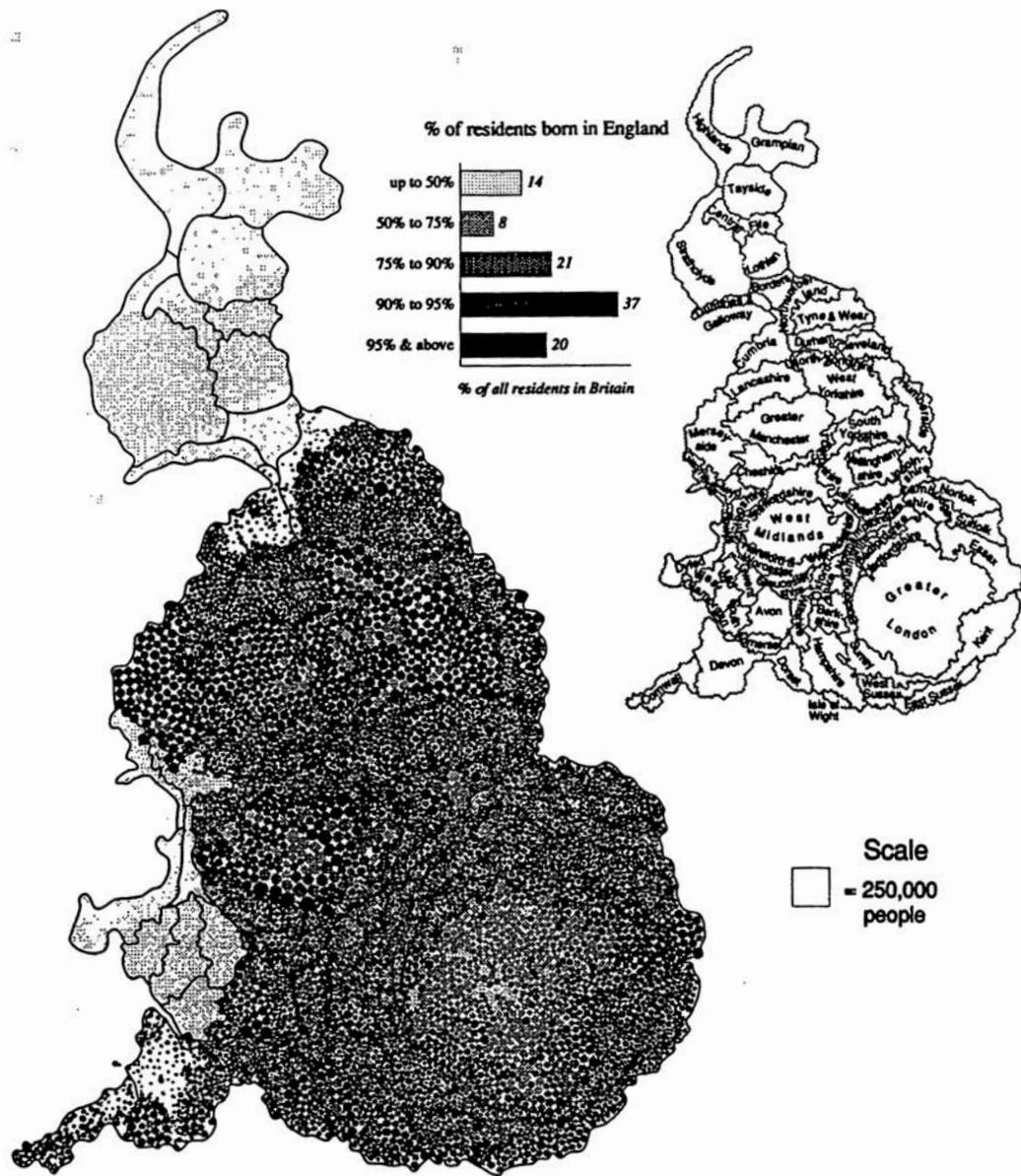


Figure 3. Residents born in England 1991 (showing them as a proportion of each ward's populations)

proportions of English born residents in each of their wards. It is evident from the figure that inside England only a few wards in London (and the home counties in general) do people live in areas where more than 90% of the population was born inside England. Further from the "Heart of England," near the Welsh border, and in the suburbs of the North West, Yorkshire and the North East, more than 95% of the population being English born is the norm. The southern shire counties, traditionally depicted as the epitome of all that is English are not, in a demographic sense, the most English parts of England.

Having census information available on a consistent basis makes comparisons of such small areas over a twenty year period possible. Changes over this length of time show how such areas have slowly altered over a generation, highlighting even slight shifts which might be imperceptible to many of the people living there. By showing net population change, Figure 4 suggests where the English have moved to and from over the last two decades. Rural Scotland and Wales have seen the greatest influx, whereas a distinct ring of wards between Outer and Inner London have seen the most concentrated decline in the proportion of their populations born in England. Despite the apparent sophistication of the illustration, this method of showing change over time is still crude, not allowing us to tell whether the cause is primarily excess immigration, or (English born) out-migration or mortality. We are also only looking at one variable for one time period and for one sub-group of the population.

Mortality

Census information is particularly useful when combined with other data. An example is medical statistics, in particular mortality data, which has been postcoded (and hence accurately grid-referenced) since 1981 and can thus be related to 1981 census wards in England and Wales¹. Having linked the 1991 census data to these wards, it becomes possible to calculate variables at ward level for the 1980s using population data from two censuses and information on age and place of death in Britain up to 1989 (the latest year available at the time of writing). Figure 5 shows how little variation there is in average life expectancy across Britain (excluding Scotland). The graph by the figure shows that only 1.3% of the population live in wards where average life expectancy is less than seventy, whereas 8.1% live in areas where life expectancy is more than seventy

¹ Thanks are due to Prof Jarman and Dr. Bajakal of St. Mary's Hospital who helped make the mortality data available for this project.

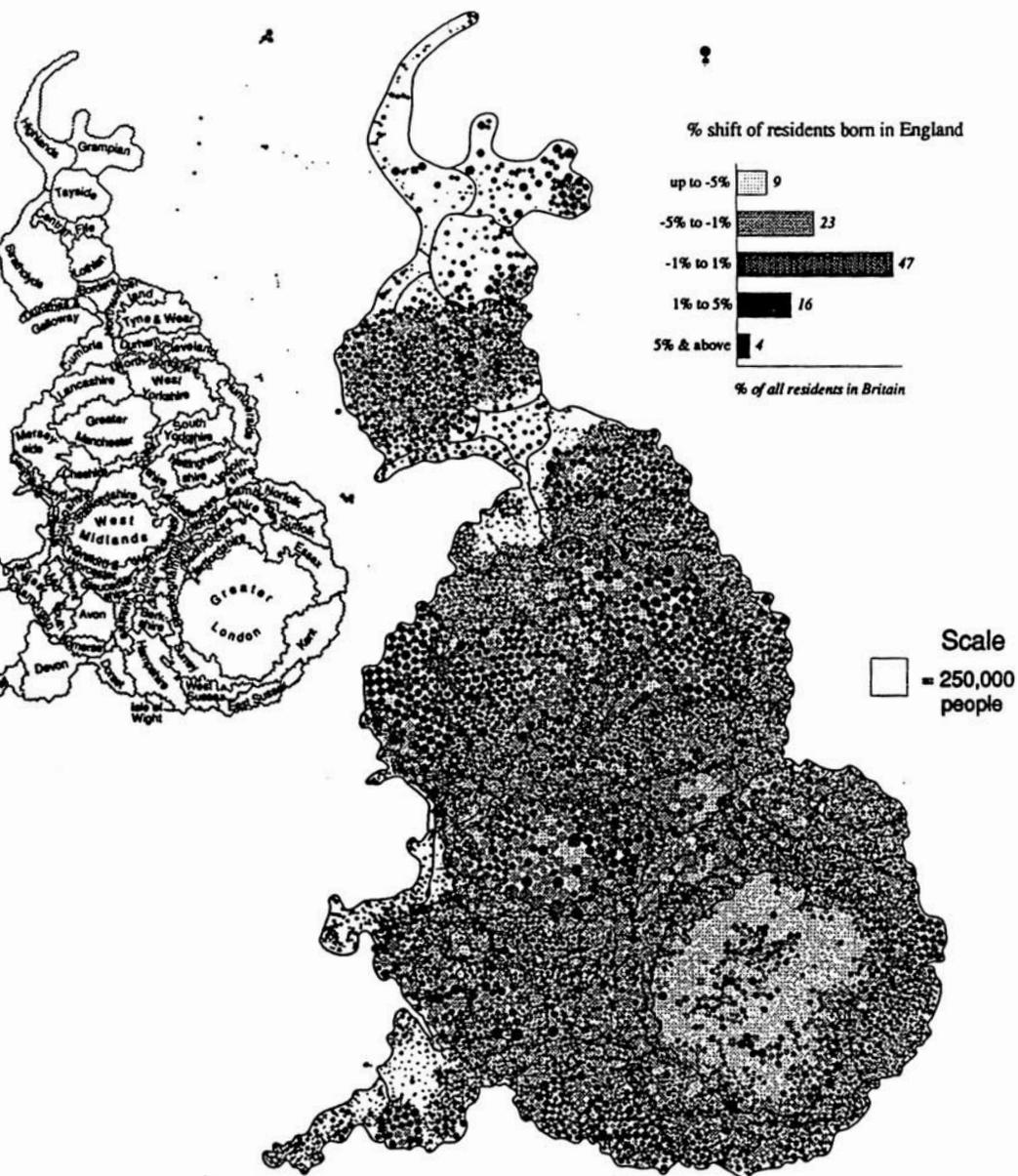


Figure 4. Residents born in England 1971 to 1991 (showing change in proportion of ward populations)

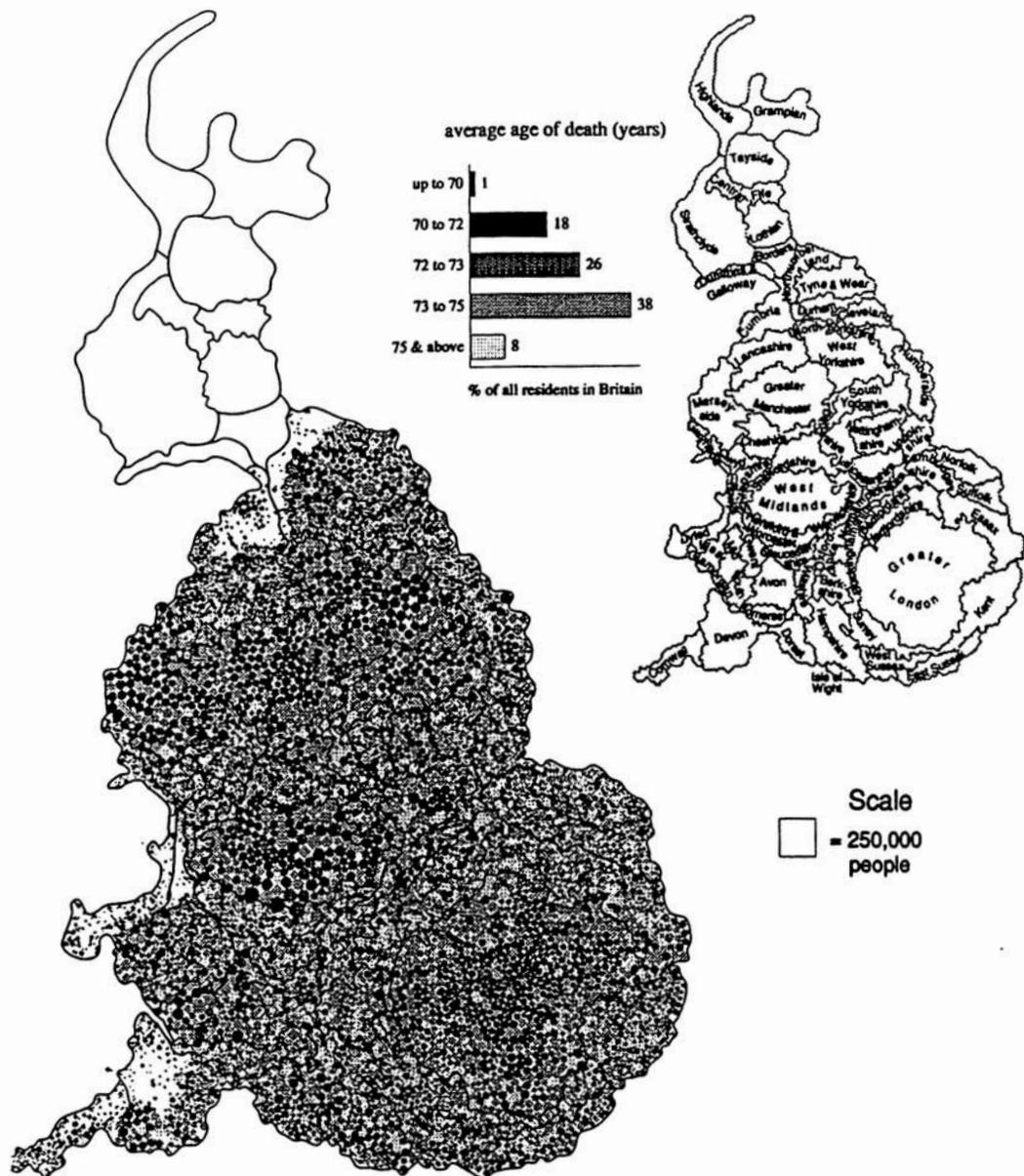


Figure 5. Average life expectancy by 1989 (showing ages standardized by ward age/sex distributions)

five. Despite this very low level of variation, an inner-city/outer-city divide is still evident.

Figure 6 shows how this divide grew during the 1980s. For confidentiality reasons mortality data at this spatial scale is only given with a temporal resolution of several years. The 1981 census distribution of people by age and sex was used to calculate standard mortality rates for the first half of the decade while the 1991 census was used as a basis for calculating the expected number of deaths according to the age and sex distribution of the population in each ward between 1986 and 1989 (Cliff & Haggett 1988). Standardized mortality rates rose at the centers of all the large conurbations and declined in rural areas. Again readers need to learn the geography of these cartograms to discern this information. Although it is true that for some wards the change in the standardized rate may well not be statistically significant, it is unlikely that a large group of contiguous wards showing an extreme change would arise out of random variation. The inner-city concentration of underenumeration in the 1991 census could lead to expected death rates being too low there, so the severity of the polarization shown by this figure should be viewed with some caution although the older age groups, who are most important to the estimation, are generally thought to have been well recorded (Dorling and Simpson 1993).

Standardized Mortality Ratios are particularly revealing when specific groups of diseases are being studied. Again the census ward age and sex distributions are needed for both 1981 and 1991 to be able to say with any confidence whether a particular ward had an above or below average number of deaths from one group of causes. Here just the static distributions are shown. Figures 7 and 8 show the geographical distribution of deaths from the two most common groups of causes, cardiovascular diseases and cancers, respectively. The former is clearly typified by a north-south divide, even when displayed at this fine spatial scale. The latter can be seen to be concentrated most amongst people living in the highly populated inner-city areas. These patterns would not be apparent on a conventional equal-area projection of the country. On the cartogram, for example, it is evident the old industrial areas along the River Tyne and the Thames stand out as having rates more than 25% above average. If it were possible to identify both the physical and human geography of these places simultaneously, by drawing the major rivers in, for example, speculation over possible environmental as well as social correlates could be made.

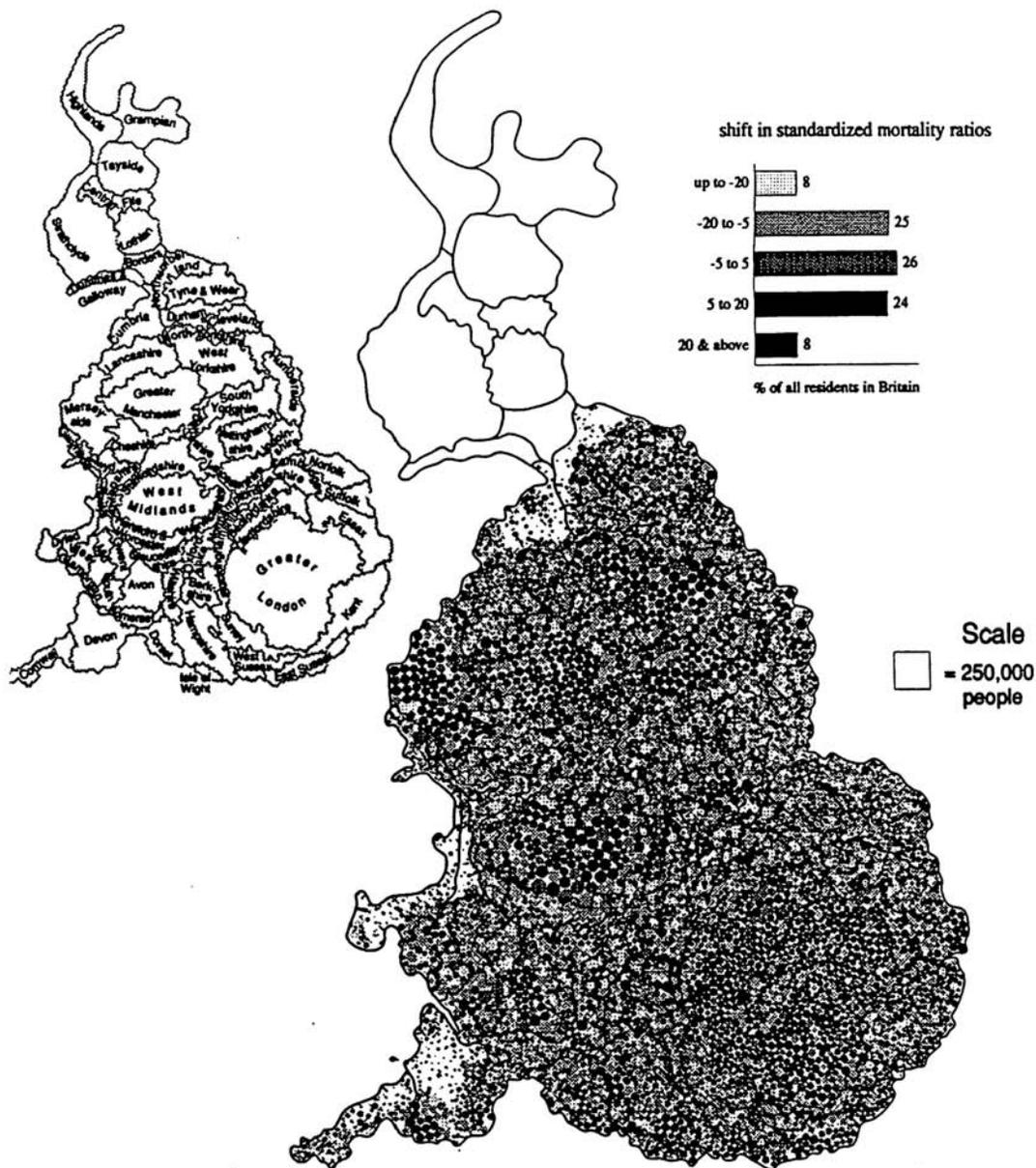


Figure 6. Mortality from all causes 1981-85 to 1986-89 (showing change in risk for ward populations)

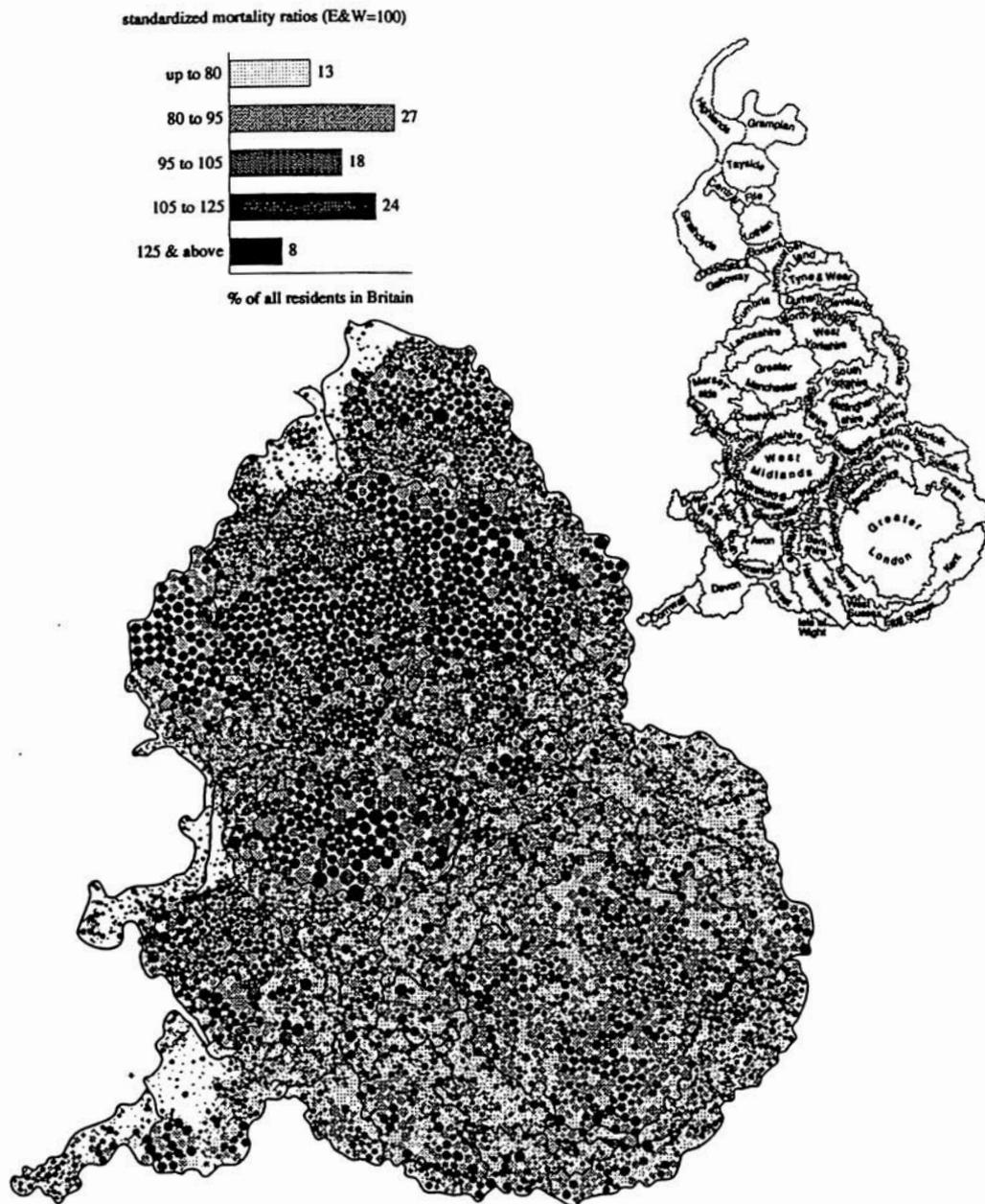


Figure 7. Mortality from Cardiovascular Diseases 1981-89 (showing relative risk for ward populations)

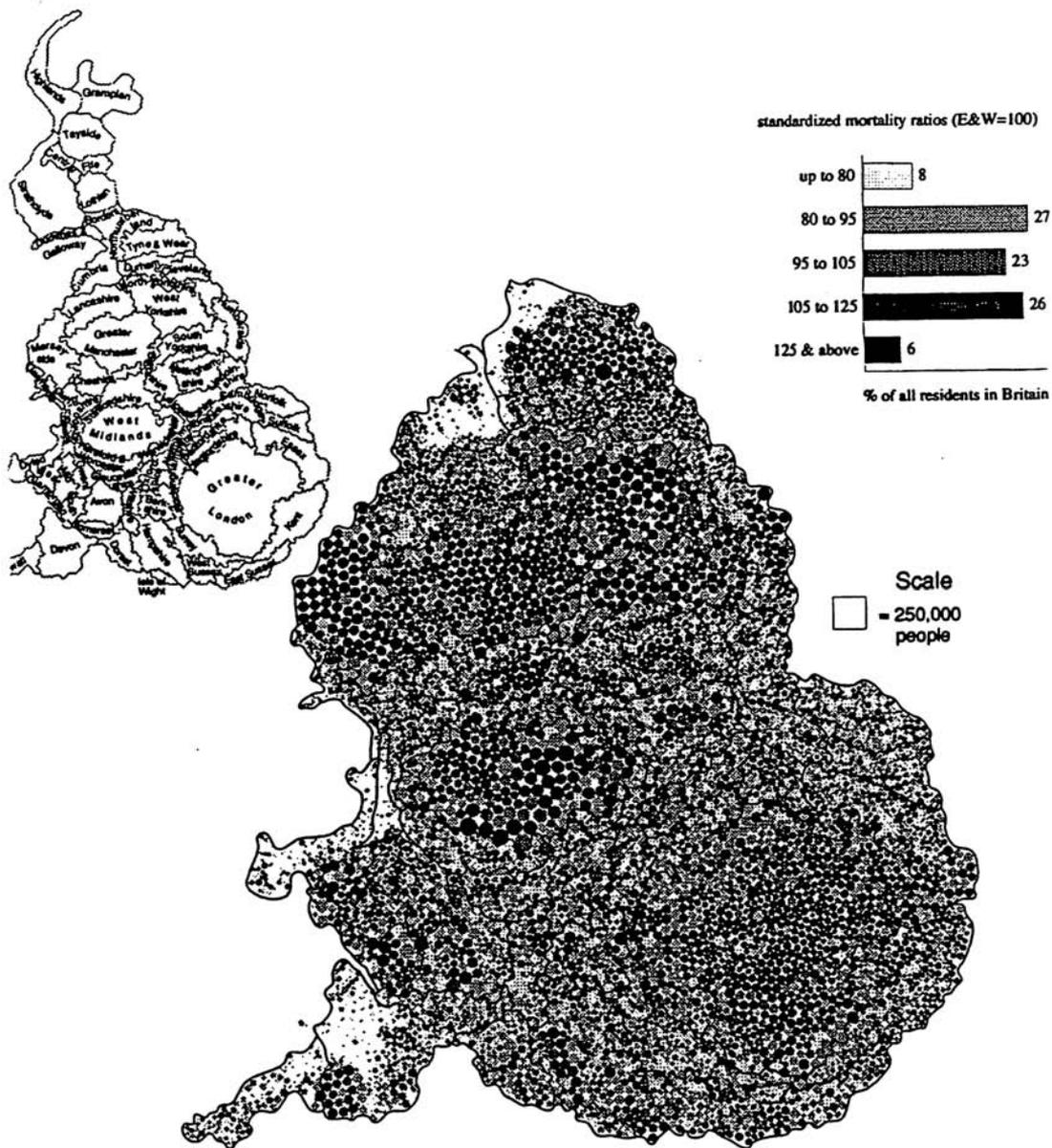


Figure 8. Mortality from Cancers 1981-89 (showing relative risk for ward populations)

Elections

Spatially detailed information on mortality has only been recorded during the last decade. If long time series of information are of interest then, in Britain, voting is the best recorded. In a country with three major parties colour mixing can be used to display how the votes are mixed between them. The major parties—Conservative, Labour and Liberal—can be represented by the primary colours of blue, red and yellow. A marginal Labour-Liberal seat can then be shown as orange, Liberal-Conservative as green and Conservative-Labour as purple and many shades between can be used to highlight more marginal and safe seats. This colour scheme results in a thirty-six pastel shade key (Dorling 1993) which was used in the original version of Figure 9. For clarity in this version of that figure the key has been simplified to show only four outcomes—demonstrating where each of the parties won the most votes in the British local elections leading up to 1991. Nevertheless the patterns are interesting, particularly when compared with the previous figures. Even more interesting are those which show how the electoral system is changing over time.

Figure 10 is a montage displaying the results of the eleven last general elections for each of over six hundred constituencies in the United Kingdom. It does not show which party won each seat, instead the party coming second is shown using four shades of grey. The two party system of the fifties and sixties can be seen to have evolved into a geographically distinct four party system by 1992, at least in terms of who comes second. In Scotland the Nationalists came second in more seats than any other party. Across the South it was the Liberal Democrats, relegating Labour's best chances to Outer London and the Midlands, and the Conservative's to the North and Wales.

This Figure is a little different in design when compared to Figure 1 as the shape of the cartogram changes over the decades, with the changing sizes of the electorates in each seat altering their constituencies' areas and positions on the paper. A population cartogram needs to be updated much more quickly than does a conventional map as population changes faster than topography. Two redistributions of seats had also to be incorporated in this illustration so between 1970 and 1974, and 1979 and 1983 some circles have disappeared and others have emerged in areas of population growth. Further details of this electoral series are given in Cornford et al (1993) which also uses this series of election results to project plausible future outcomes purely on historical precedent. Providing a key to this figure is not easy as the locations of constituencies move in population

party with most votes



Scale
= 250,000
people



Figure 9. Winning Parties (showing party with most votes per ward in the 1987-1990 local elections)

Conservative
Labour
Liberal
Other

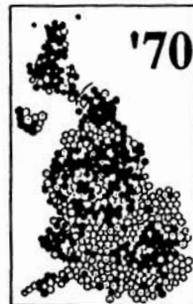
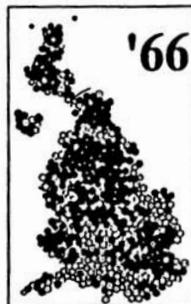


Figure 10. The Distribution of second placed party for eleven British General Elections 1955-1992

space over time. Animating the series of maps and some variants is possible. However that still does not allow you to easily grasp how particular regions have evolved (Dorling 1992). Although the eye is excellent for analyzing an individual image it is not good at analyzing a long series of related pictures presented either spatially or temporally as in an animation. The more change over time is considered the more evident it becomes how difficult it is to depict.

Employment

If there is one subject for which more information is available than voting it is employment². Every month for every ward in Britain the number of people entering and leaving the unemployment register, their ages and how long they have been out of work are made available. Here, then, is a challenge for visualizing a great deal of socioeconomic information, most of which is otherwise unlikely ever to be studied other than in gross aggregate form or for individual locality studies.

The simplest employment statistic is the unemployment rate for which an estimate of the size of the workforce needs to be made using the decennial census. Figure 11 shows the national distribution of people seeking work in 1991 (for which the unemployed and those on a government scheme have to be combined). The pattern should by now be familiar: prosperous home counties and rural rings surrounding urban cores where more than one in six of the workforce in dozens of contiguous wards are seeking work. This pattern is to be expected. However the similarities with aspects of the distributions of voting, mortality and population change are all striking.

The long term change in unemployment is a little more surprising however. Figure 12 attempts to show the detailed geographical distribution of the change in rate of growth in unemployment. Nationally it increased from 4.0% of the workforce in 1971 to 8.8% in 1981 and then 10.6% in 1991. These are the self-reported rates taken from the censuses. In some areas it has increased faster than these rates across both decades while in others it has never increased so rapidly. In the suburban north unemployment was growing above average in the 1970s but below average in the 1980s. Around Outer London and in the Yorkshire and Nottinghamshire coalfields unemployment growth was below average in the 1970s but above average in the 1980s. Those are areas where the

² Detailed unemployment data is available the National On-line Manpower Information System, every month for every ward.

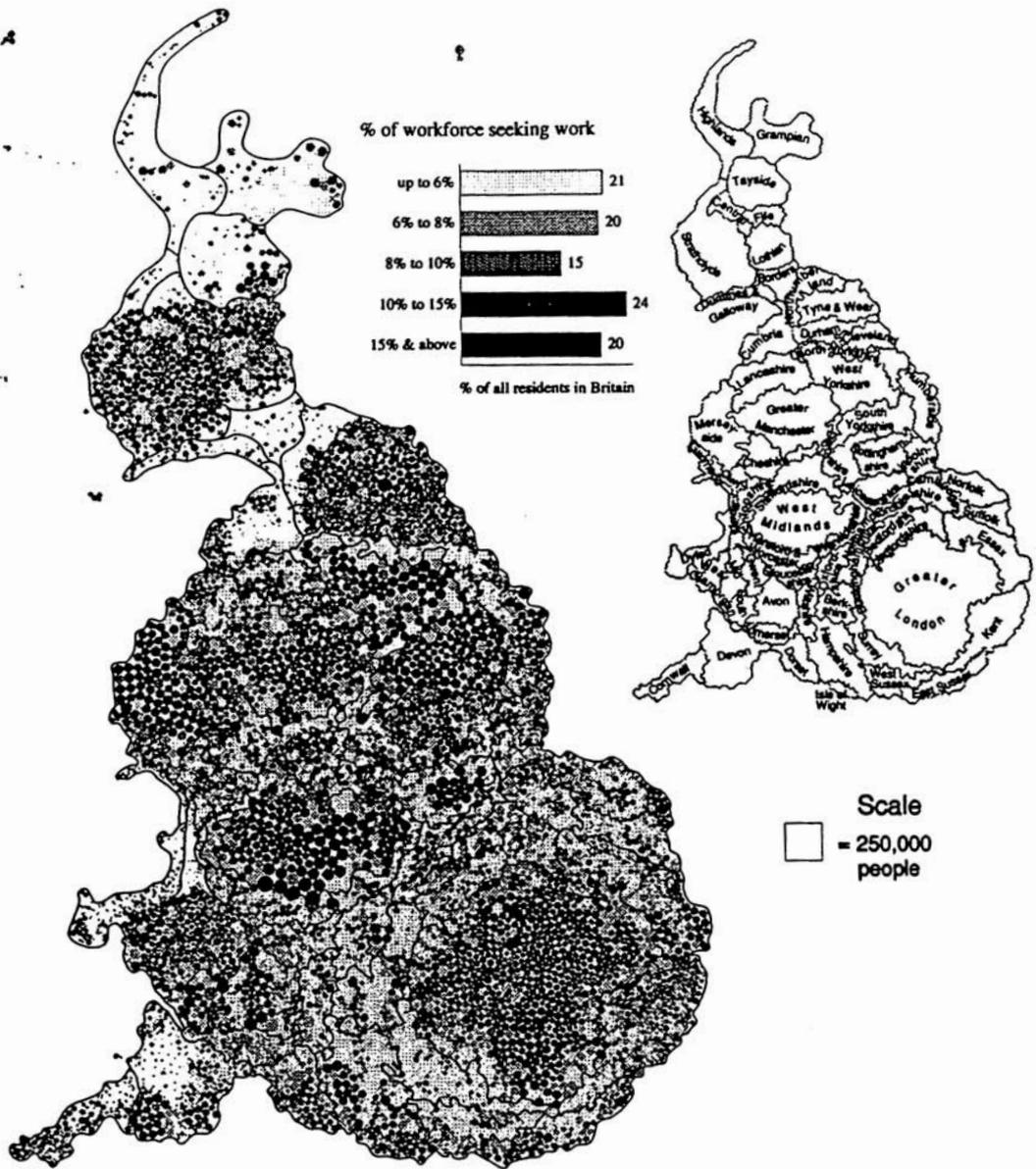


Figure 11. Unemployment in 1991 (showing the proportion of people in the ward who are out of work)

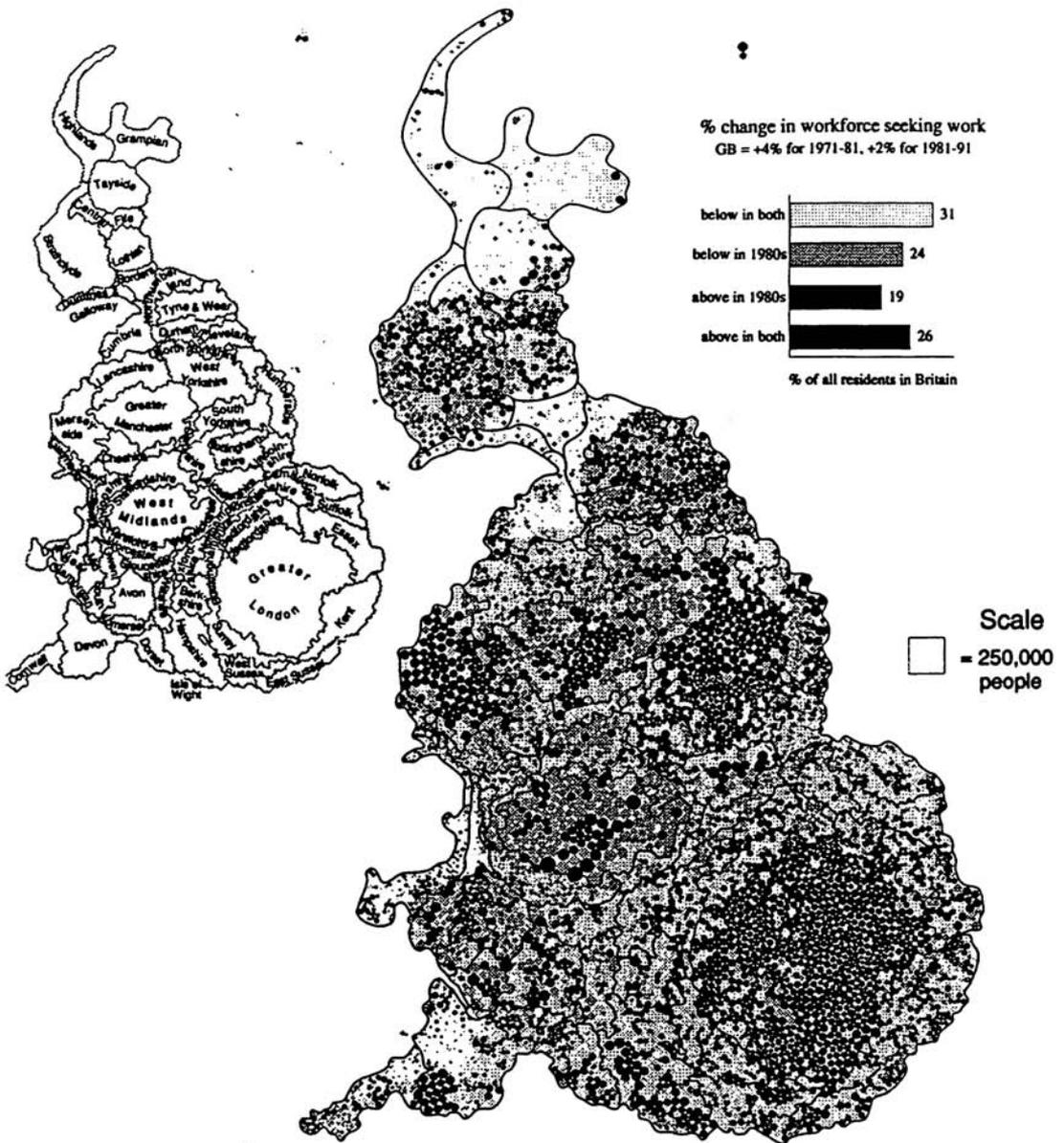


Figure 12. Unemployment 1971-81 and 1981-91 (showing ward change compared to the national change)

Labour party is now second, which are not doing too badly in terms of health, and where people are still prepared to migrate to, but which are now beginning to lose population overall. These are areas which have lost out over the last decade in terms of employment.

Finally, Figure 13 shows how levels of unemployment have changed over the last sixteen years. The changes over 852 areas are shown by cartograms depicting the situation for each year. Because the spatial pattern has changed only subtly, deviation from what the expected unemployment level would be for a given place in a given year is the statistic used here. Hence Liverpool (the largest area on the left of each cartogram) was doing particularly well by 1993, not because its unemployment level has fallen but because, for that place in relation to other places, given its track record, its level then was low. The figure shows how the pattern has changed from an out-of-work Celtic Fringe in the 1970s to a prosperous Home Counties ring developing in the 1980s and then to the collapse of the Southern labour market in the 1990s. In terms of deviation from space-time independence, at least, the British North-South divide has gone into reverse.

Conclusion

All the figures shown here have used the same basic formula of choropleth mapping--colouring areas according to particular values and showing different maps for different time periods. The map projections may be unfamiliar, the amount of data used unusual, and some statistics peculiar, but the basic formula is not very different and its advantages and limitations are shown through these illustrations. With more than a few thousand places or a few dozen time periods to study, this method of data depiction becomes ineffective and many maps are needed to show the patterns of only a few variables across time. However this paper has shown how fresh insights and connections can be made across many aspects of human geography by displaying detailed pictures of the spatial structure of society in which all people's experiences are treated equitably.

New visualization methods will be developed, driven by the availability of reams more numbers in the near future. They are also likely to be even less familiar than those presented here. Simultaneously, as the amount of "old" data increases, the need for more "new" ways of studying it will grow proportionately. The aim of new visualization techniques should be to learn more about the nature of the subject under study not to produce stunning images

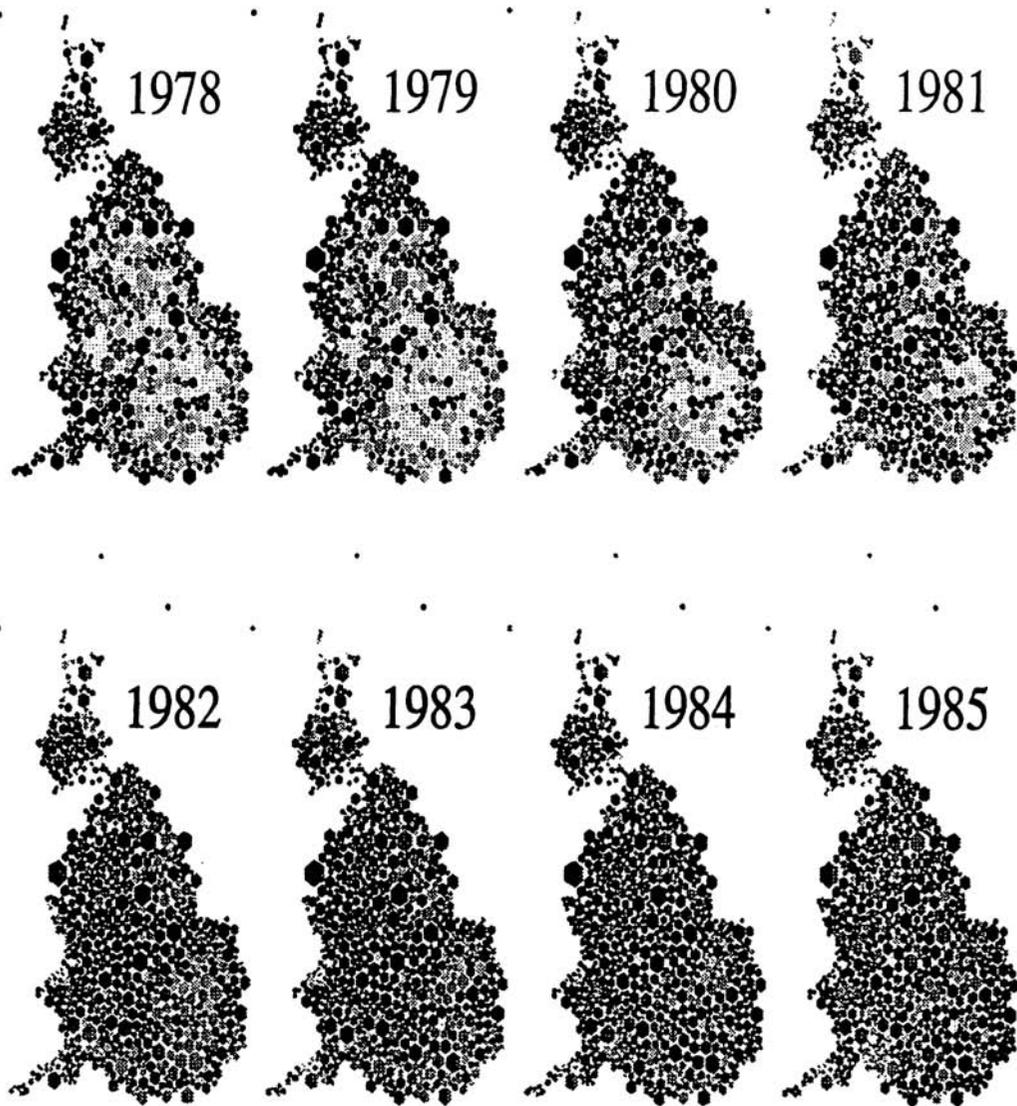


Figure 13. The spacetime trend of unemployment in Britain, 1978-1993 by Amalgamated Office Areas: grey shades indicate deviation from spacetime independence, dark for over- and light for under-average employment.

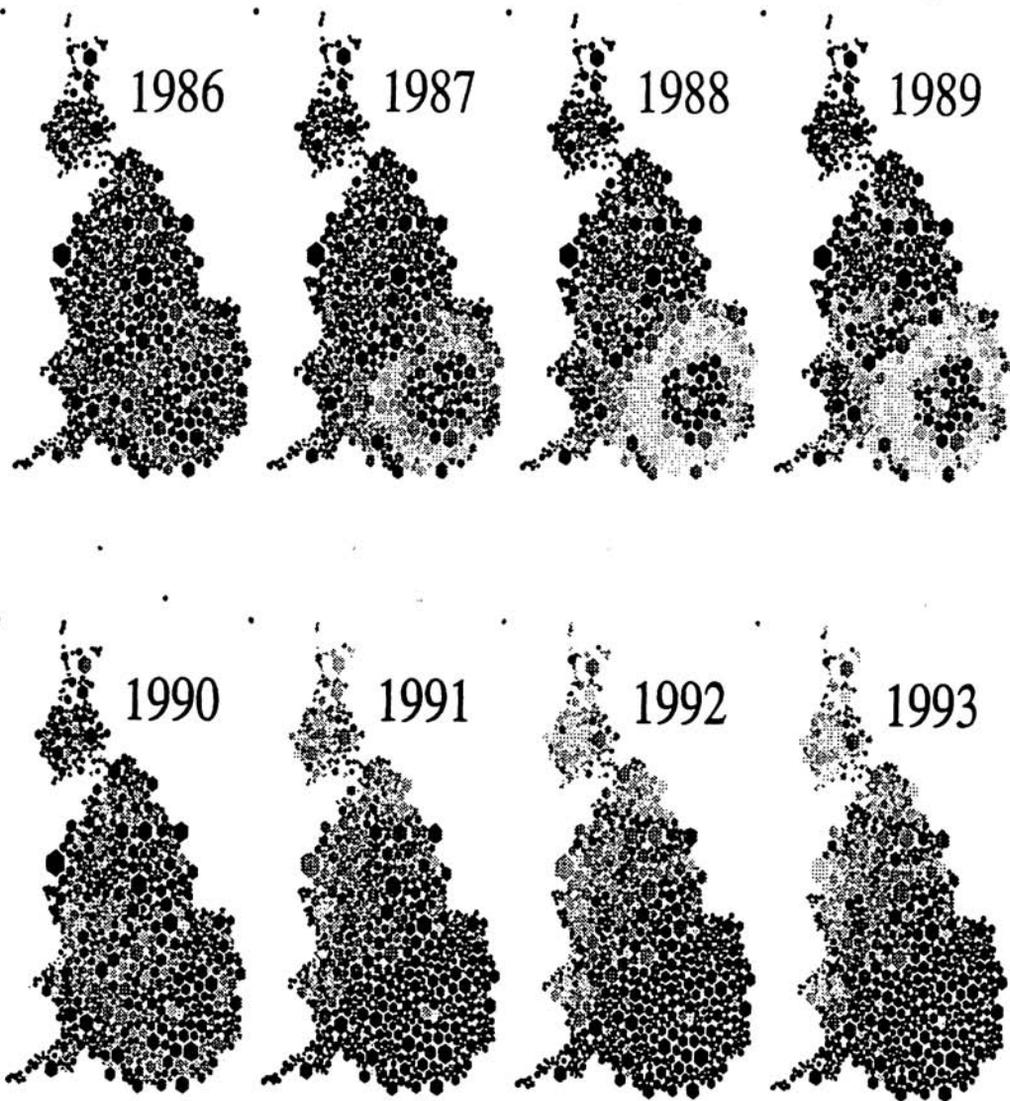


Figure 13. (cont'd)

and animations which, in practice, look nice but convey little relevant information.

Note:

The census data used in this study is Crown Copyright.

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