Statistical Perspectives on Spatial Social Science

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A conceptual framework

Nomothetic science knowledge that is true everywhere in space and time Idiographic science - the study of the unique new planets liquid lakes of Antarctica descriptive, anectodal can be pejorative



Where does this leave geography (or history)?

An ongoing debate

- the nomothetic ascendancy of the 1960s
- Bunge's *Theoretical Geography*
- Varenius, 17th Century
 - General Geography
 - Special Geography
- Modern technology
 - the database as description
 - the software, models, analytic methods supporting nomothetic science
 - and planning, decision making

A spatial turn in science

Adding space to theory

- the New Economic Geography
 - space impeding flows of information, operation of markets
 - transport costs
- Spatial Ecology
 - a heterogeneous resource base
 - space impeding interactions, breeding
 - metapopulations
- Reasoning from spatial data
 - cross-sectional
 - new tools to overcome methodological problems
 - impacts in all social, environmental disciplines

A growing literature

Spatially Integrated Social Science (Goodchild and Janelle, OUP, 2004)





The drivers

New technologies, new data geographic information systems (GIS) remote sensing positioning (GPS) delivery mechanisms Place-based analysis Applications of science in policy, decision making















Gotham Book Mart 41 W 47th St, New York, NY 10036 - Map



2005 Microsoft Con



File View Edit Tools Table Map Explore Space Regress Options Window Help







www.csiss.org



Characteristics of geographic data

Are there general properties?
perhaps with the status of laws
though not deterministic
What problems do they present for the application of statistical methods?

Tobler's First Law

- "All things are related, but nearby things are more related than distant things"
 - W.R. Tobler, 1970. A computer movie simulating urban growth in the Detroit region. *Economic Geography* 46: 234-240
 - implies process as much as form
 - "nearby things are more similar than distant things"

Validity

- "Nearby things are less similar than distant things"
 - negative spatial autocorrelation
 - possible at certain scales
 - the checkerboard
 - retailing
 - but negative a/c at one scale requires positive a/c at other scales
 - smoothing processes dominate sharpening processes

Formalization

- Geostatistics
 - variogram, covariogram
 - measuring how similarity decreases with distance
 - parameters vary by phenomenon
 - does this make TFL less of a law?

Utility

Representation

- GI is reducible to statements of the form <x,z>
- the atomic form of GI is unmanageable, encountered only in point samples
- all other GI data models assume TFL
- Spatial interpolation
 - all methods implement TFL

If TFL weren't true

GIS would be impossible
 a point sample is useful only with interpolation
 Life would be impossible

Statistical implications

Independence is difficult to achieve space observations beyond the phenomenon's range – cull observations Model spatial dependence explicitly spatial lag models - replace $y = f(\mathbf{x})$ with $y = f(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x})$ where the elements of W measure proximity

Expanding the horizons

Other spaces

- are there spaces for which TFL is not true?
- digits of π
- genome
- Other laws of GIScience

Candidate laws

All important places are at the corners of four map sheets
Montello and Fabrikant, "The First Law of Cognitive Geography"

"People think closer things are more

similar"

A second (first) law

TFL describes a second-order effect properties of places taken two at a time a law of spatial dependence - is there a law of places taken one at a time? Spatial heterogeneity non-stationarity – uncontrolled variance

Corollaries of the second law

- There is no average place on the Earth's surface
- Sampling is problematic
 - one must visit or map all of it to understand its full complexity
- Results depend explicitly on the bounds of the study
- The Noah effect
 - there is a finite probability of an event of any magnitude
 - to observe an event of a given magnitude it is simply necessary to wait long enough

A GIScientist's Noah effect

The Eden effect

- El Dorado
- to find a feature of any magnitude it is sufficient to look far enough
 - but unlike time, the Earth's surface is limited

Practical implications of the second law

A state is not a sample of the nation

a country is not a sample of the world

Classification schemes will differ when devised by local jurisdictions
Figures of the Earth will differ when devised by local surveying agencies
Global standards will always compete with local standards

A fractal principle

The closer you look the more you see

- and for many natural phenomena the rate is orderly
- Richardson plots
- lengths of national boundaries
 - Spain and Portugal
 - context of 1920s





Practical implications

- Indexing schemes, quadtrees
 partitioning of information at different scales
 Length is a function of spatial resolution
 - and variously under-estimated in GIS
 - as are many other properties
 - slope
 - soil class
 - land cover class
 - spatial resolution should always be explicit in GIS analysis
 - easy in raster
 - much more difficult in vector

Buffon's needle

Consider a needle of unit length

- dropped randomly onto a set of parallel lines unit distance apart
- probability that the needle will intersect a line?

Analytical results

p(intersection) = 2/π = 0.6366
Experimental determination of π

-5th decimal place
√npq/np = 10⁻⁵
-n ~ 10¹⁰

lines *s* units apart, needle length / *p* = 2*l* / πs

relevance to GIScience?



 $l \ge s\sqrt{2}$ E(number of cells intersected) = 4*l* / πs $l < s \ p$ (ends in different cells) = (4*l*s - *l*²) / πs^{2}

Applications

Short needle

- quadrat-based experiments
 - avoid missing point-to-point interactions when pairs are in different cells

databases partitioned into tiles

 avoid having to access multiple tiles when e.g. computing distance

Long needle

- operations on raster databases, e.g. intervisibility
 - depend on number of intersected cells

Uncertainty in spatial data

All spatial data leave the user uncertain to some degree about the exact nature of the real world

no representation can be exact

 all representations involve some combination of approximation, measurement, generalization



Patterns of error

Strong positive spatial autocorrelation local shapes preserved – relative errors << absolute errors</p> derived properties minimally affected distances directions suggests relative positioning better than absolute – measurement-based GIS



Uncertainty modeling

- Area-class maps are made by a long and complex process involving many stages, some partially subjective
- Maps of the same theme for the same area will not be the same
 - level of detail, generalization
 - vague definitions of classes
 - variation among observers
 - measuring instrument error
 - different classifiers, training sites
 - different sensors

Phase-space model

m dimensional "phase" space defined by field variables

 partition into *n* regions

 Generate *m* random fields to locate x in phase space
 Assign x to one of *n* classes



Properties of the model

- Appearance matches
 - real map is a possible realization
- Variation in
 - positions of boundaries
 - classes assigned to areas
 - numbers of boundaries, areas
 - homogeneity of areas
- Fits well with theory in e.g. ecology
- Model is vastly overspecified

Four challenges

Maps and dynamics

- flows, events, transactions, change
- spatiotemporal analysis
- analysis of tracks
- null hypotheses
- a dynamic TFL
- Software
 - keeping track of methods, scripts
 - process objects

Challenges

New data types primarily commercial geodemographics • Web usage • email traffic tracking Ethical issues – privacy security



They are always watching you. Use cash. Do not give your phone number, social security number or address. Do not fill in questionnaires. Demand that credit firms remove you from marketing lists. Check your medical records often. Keep your telephone number unlisted. Never leave your mobile phone on. Do not use credit or discount cards. If you must use the Internet, use someone else's computer. Assume that all calls, voice mail, email and computer use are monitored.

The Economist, 1 May 1999