

# Data Mining and Big Data Analytics



## Spatial Data Mining

Class 10

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# Outline

## DATA MANAGEMENT AND ENGINEERING

- 1 Introduction to data mining tasks and data types
- 2 Preprocessing and feature engineering: Data curation and filtering, imputation, scaling, dealing with categorical variables, features selection.

## DATA MINING METHODS

- 3 Basic classification methods: Decision trees, K-nearest neighbors, Naïve Bayes Classifier
- 4 Model evaluation: Generalization, overfitting and underfitting. Cross-validation. Model evaluation and comparison (e.g., metrics for classification, metrics for regression, confusion matrix, precision-recall curves, ROC curves).
- 5 Advanced classification methods: Support Vector Machine, Logistic regression, ANN
- 6 Hands-on session: Application of concepts on data and real-world situations.
- 7 Basic clustering methods: distance-based (separation, centroids, contiguity), density-based, partitional vs. hierarchical. Methods for centroid-based clustering (k-means), hierarchical clustering (single, complete and average linkage), density-based clustering (DBSCAN).
- 8 Outlier analysis: Extreme value analysis, Probabilistic methods, distance and density-based methods for outlier detection
- 9 Dimensionality reduction: Simple Value Decomposition, Principal Component Analysis, Embedding

## SPECIFIC DATA MINING AREAS

- 10 Spatial data mining: location inference, spatial demography inference, spatial trajectory reconstruction, learning from remotely sensed data
- 11 Graph data mining: network embedding, community detection methods
- 12 Final project presentation

# Session Plan

- Introduction to Spatial Data Mining
  - Notebook
- Spatial Autocorrelation
- Spatial Clustering
  - Notebook
- Point Pattern Analysis
- Trajectory Analysis
  - Notebook

**When you hear the term 'spatial data mining',  
what first comes to your mind?**



**Go to [menti.com](https://www.menti.com)  
and use code: 8649 6752**

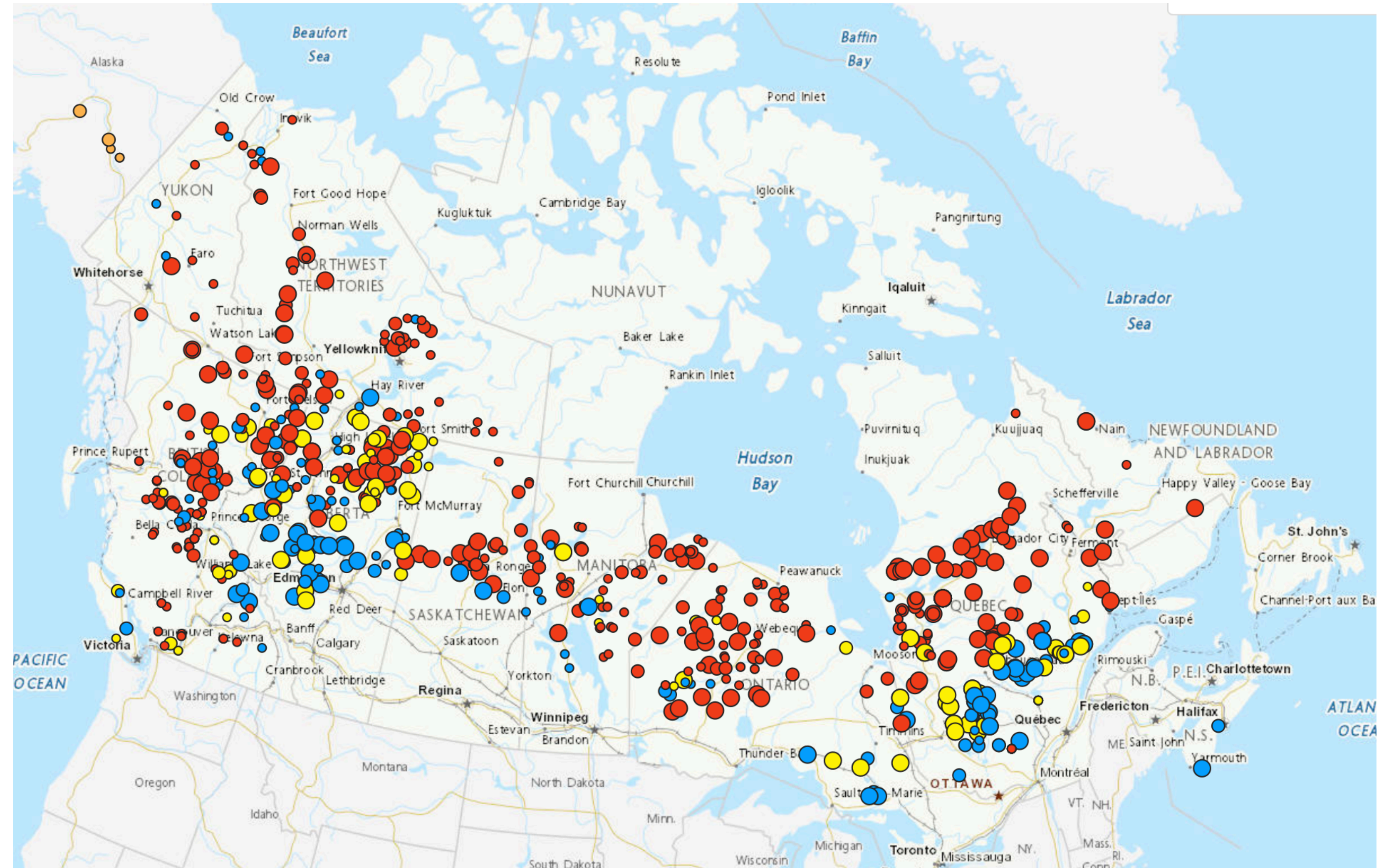


# **Introduction to Spatial Data Mining**



# Mapping Wildfires in Canada

- Active Fires in Canada on 8 July 2023
- Data is collected from fire management agencies coordinated by the Canadian Interagency Forest Fire Centre (CIFFC) and Natural Resources Canada (NRCan)
- To assess burn areas: helicopter GPS flight, air photography, Landsat image classification



Source: [Active Wildfires in Canada](#), ESRI



# What is Spatial Data Mining?

**Spatial Data Mining** is a *non-trivial* search for *interesting* and *unexpected* spatial patterns.

## Goals:

- Identifying spatial patterns
- Identifying spatial objects that are potential generators of spatial patterns
- Identifying information relevant for explaining the spatial pattern
- Presenting information in a way that is intuitive and supports further analysis

# Applications

- Meteorological Data

- Mobile Objects

- Earth Science

- Disease Outbreaks

- Medical Diagnostics

- Demographic Data



# Applications

- Meteorological Data

- Identifying patterns in weather data to predict the occurrence and movement of hurricanes, tornadoes, or other weather events.

- Mobile Objects

- Earth Science

- Disease Outbreaks

- Medical Diagnostics

- Demographic Data

# Applications

- Meteorological Data

- Identifying patterns in weather data to predict the occurrence and movement of hurricanes, tornadoes, or other weather events.

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- Disease Outbreaks

- Analysing environmental factors such as air quality or proximity to water sources to understand the spread of vector-borne diseases like malaria.

- Medical Diagnostics

- Demographic Data



# Applications

- **Meteorological Data**

- Identifying patterns in weather data to predict the occurrence and movement of hurricanes, tornadoes, or other weather events.

- **Mobile Objects**

- Tracking and analysing the movement patterns of vehicles for optimising transportation routes or traffic management.

- **Earth Science**

- Analysing satellite imagery to detect changes in land cover or land use over time, such as deforestation or urban sprawl.

- **Disease Outbreaks**

- Analysing environmental factors such as air quality or proximity to water sources to understand the spread of vector-borne diseases like malaria.

- **Medical Diagnostics**

- Using spatial data mining to identify patterns in medical imaging data for early detection of diseases such as cancer or Alzheimer's disease.

- **Demographic Data**

- Studying spatial variations in socioeconomic indicators such as income levels or educational attainment to identify areas in need of targeted social programs.

# Types of Spatial Data

**Spatial data** is data that have some form of *spatial or geographic reference* that enables them to be *located in two or three dimensional space*.

**GIS** - Geographic Information Systems - is a system to represent and analyse spatial data.

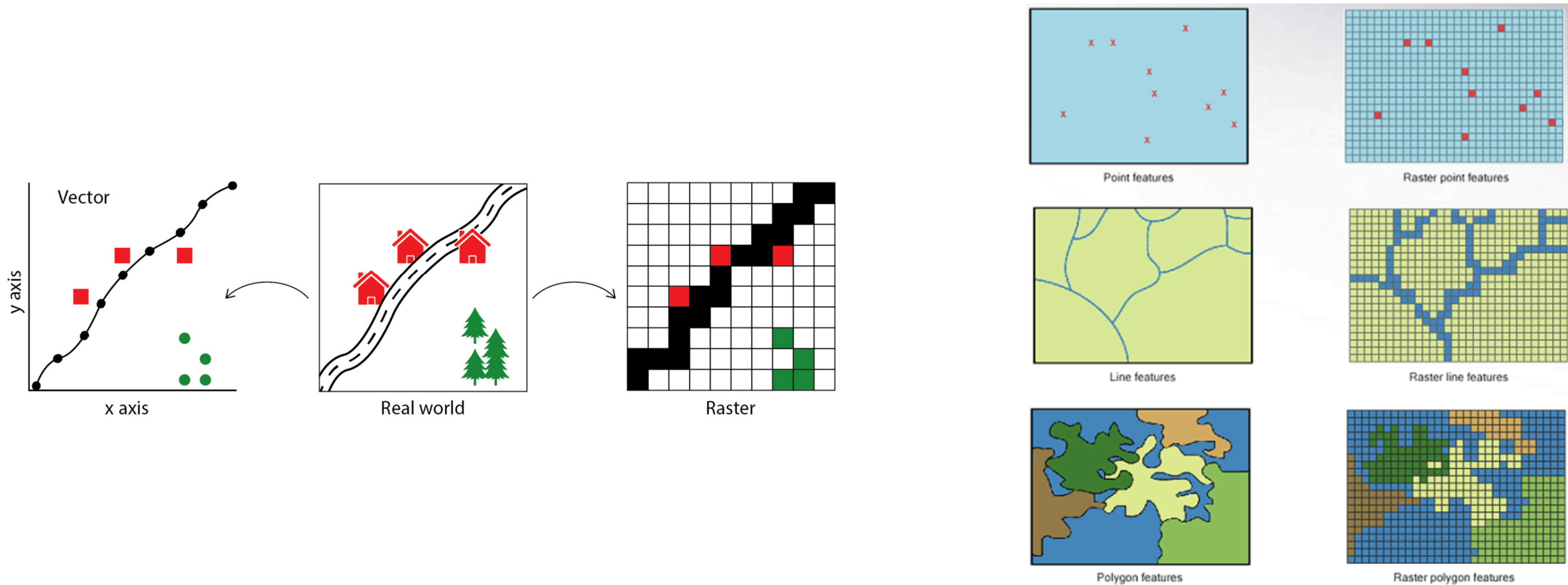
## 1. Feature (or Vector) Data

- Describes the features of geographic locations through the use of discrete geometries: Point, Line, Polygon.

## 2. Coverage (or Raster) Data

- Encodes the world as a continuous surface represented by a grid. Each values of a grid can be either a continuous value or a categorical classification.
  - Satellite images, altitude maps, etc.

# Types of Spatial Data



# Notebook 1

Introduction to GeoPandas

Spatial Data Formats

CRS (Coordinate Reference System)





# **Spatial Data Mining:**

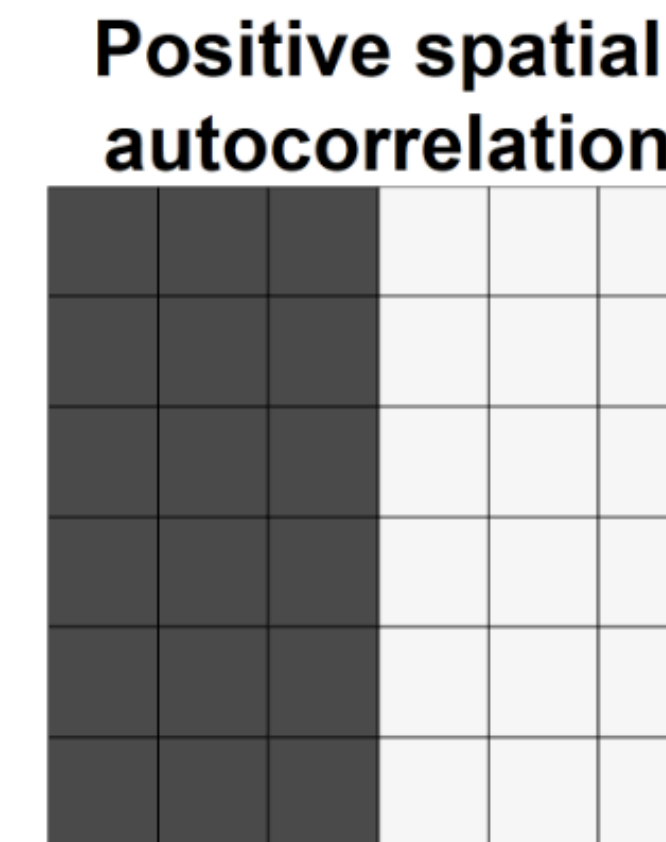
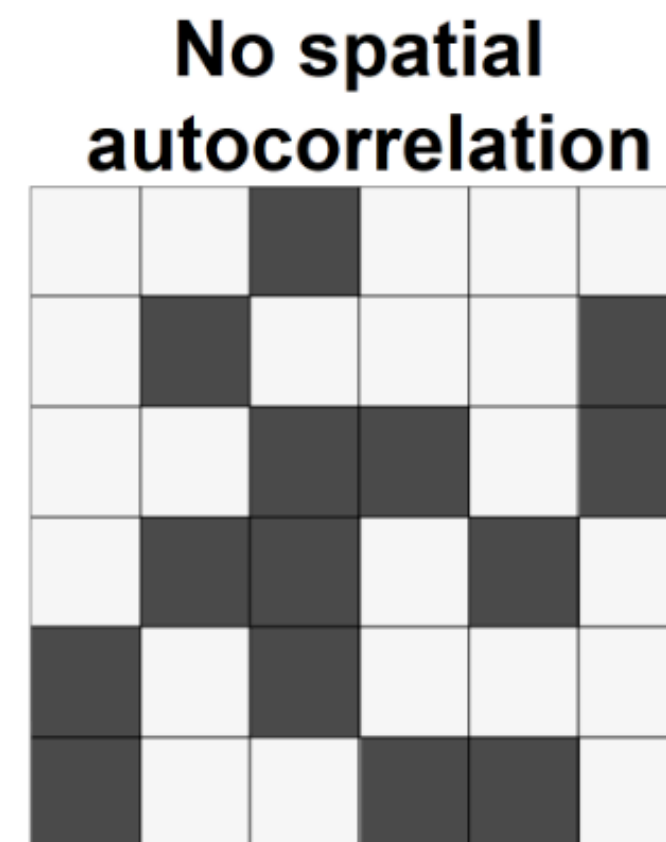
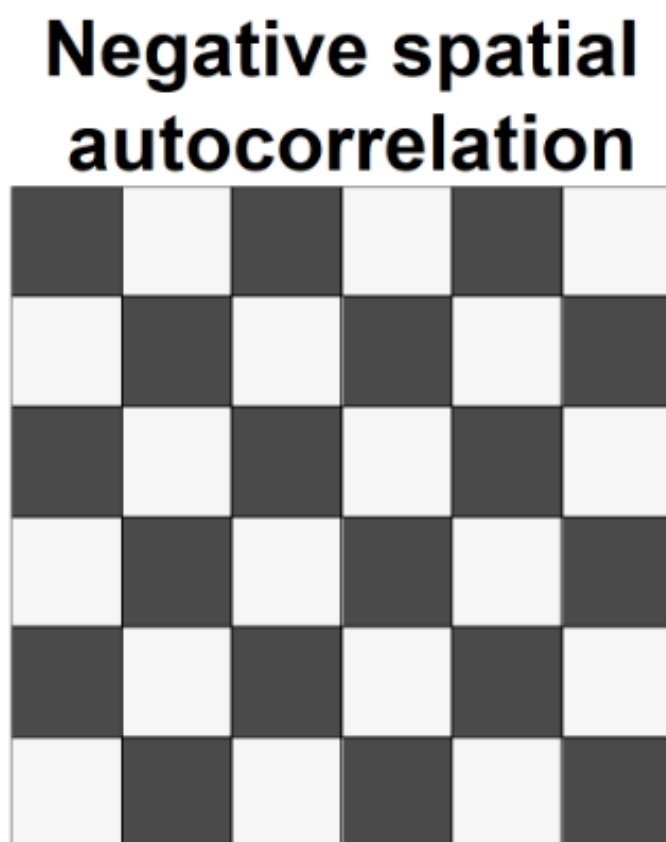
**Spatial Autocorrelation**

**Spatial Clustering**

**Point Pattern Analysis**

# Spatial Autocorrelation

- **Spatial Autocorrelation** describes the degree to which the similarity in values between observations is correlated to the similarity in locations of such observations.

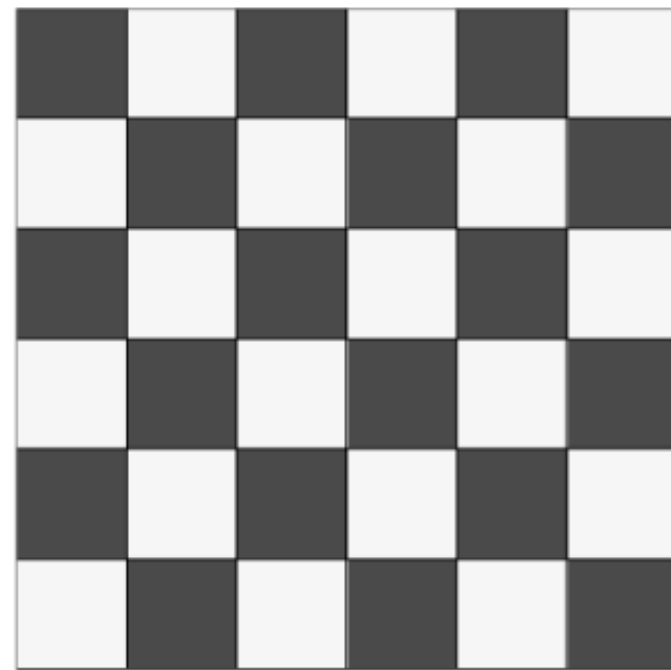


- Alternative explanation: it is the degree of information contained in the value of a variable at a given location about the value of that same variable in other locations.

# Spatial Autocorrelation

- **Spatial Autocorrelation** describes the degree to which the similarity in values between observations is correlated to the similarity in locations of such observations.

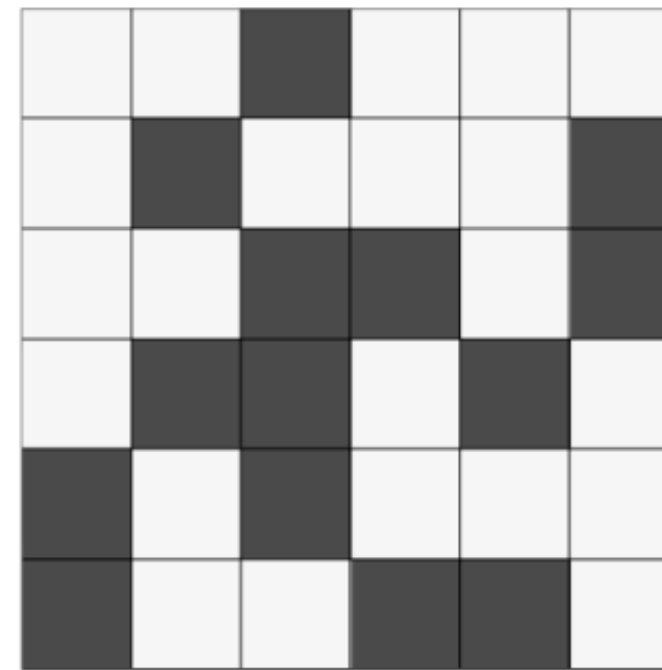
**Negative spatial autocorrelation**



similar values tend to be located away from each other

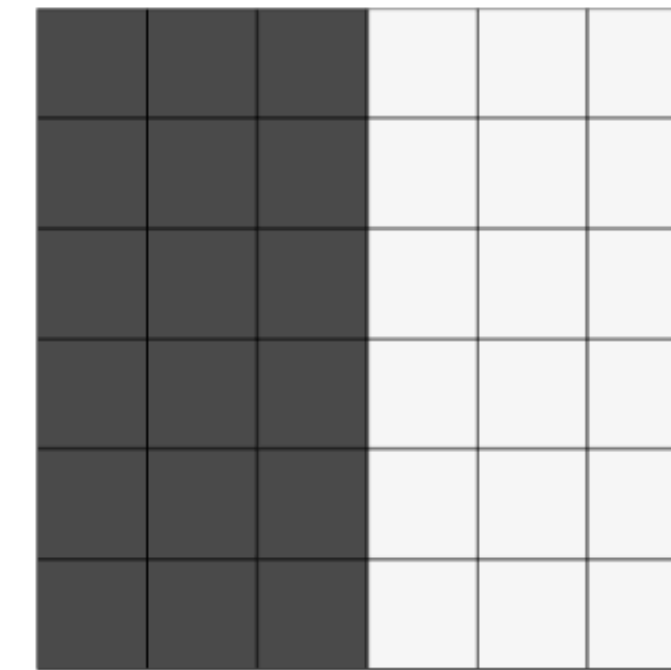
phenomena of spatial competitions:  
gyms/stores of different brands

**No spatial autocorrelation**



spatial randomness

**Positive spatial autocorrelation**



similarity and geographical closeness go hand-in-hand

spatial segregation in cities



# Spatial Autocorrelation

- **Spatial Autocorrelation** describes the degree to which the similarity in values between observations is correlated to the similarity in locations of such observations.

- Two types:

## Global

Helps to see the overall trend that the location of values follows.

Makes possible statements about the degree of *clustering* in the dataset.

*Are similar values closer to other similar values than we would expect from pure chance?*

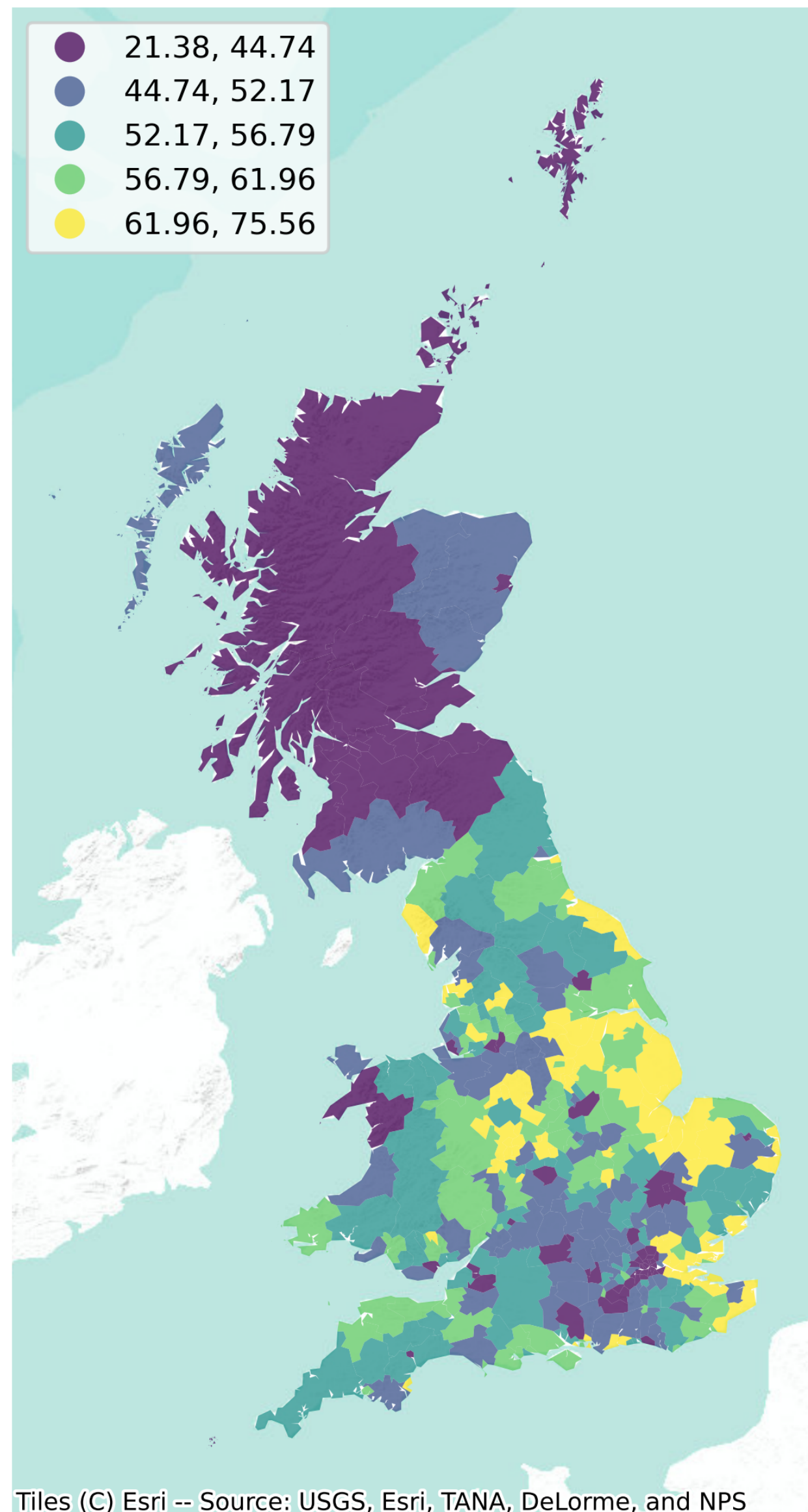
## Local

Focuses on on the relationships between *each* observation and its surroundings.

Makes possible statements about the degree of *clustering* in the dataset.

*What localised areas exhibit significant concentrations of high or low temperature anomalies compared to their immediate surroundings?*

# Spatial Autocorrelation: Case



- **UK 2016 Brexit Referendum**
- On the map - percentage of people who voted 'Leave' (divided in 5 quantiles)
- Spatial weights used: eight nearest neighbours

# Spatial Autocorrelation

**Spatial Weights** is a construct used to represent geographic relationships between the observational units in a spatially referenced dataset. It is the notion of geographical proximity or connectedness.

## 1. Contiguity weights

- A pair of spatial objects share a common border.

## 2. Distance-based weights

- kNN, Great circle...

## 3. Block weights

- Membership in a geographic group defines the neighbour relationships.



# Spatial Autocorrelation: Case

## Spatial lag

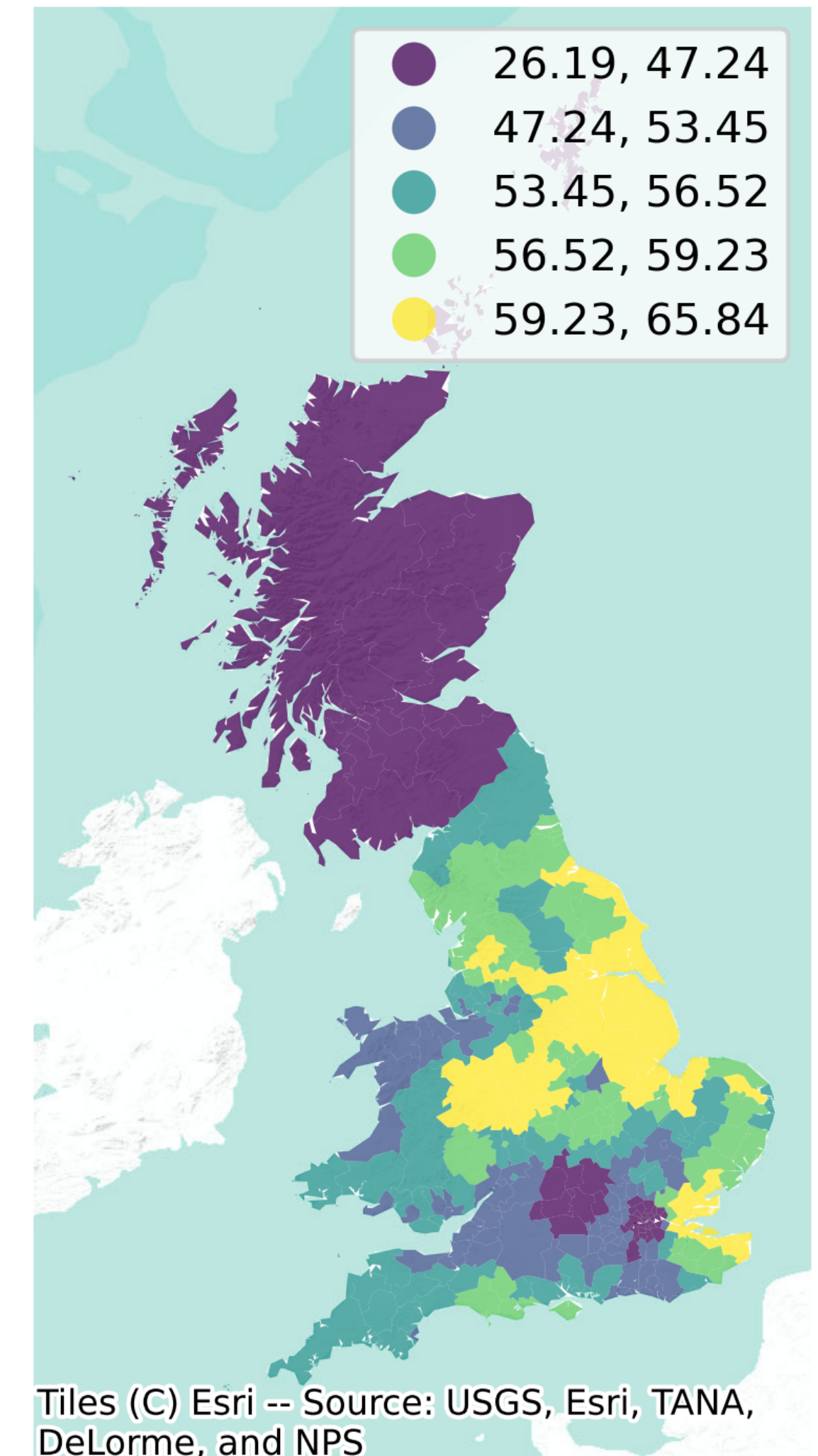
$$Y_{sl} = WY$$

$$y_{sl-i} = \sum_j w_{ij} y_j$$

- If **W** is binary:
  - Spatial lag becomes a sum of the values of *i*'s neighbours
- If **W** is row-standardised:
  - Spatial lag becomes the average value of **Y** in the neighbourhood of each observation *i*

	Pct_Leave	Pct_Leave_lag
Liverpool	41.81	54.61375
Midlothian	37.94	38.01875

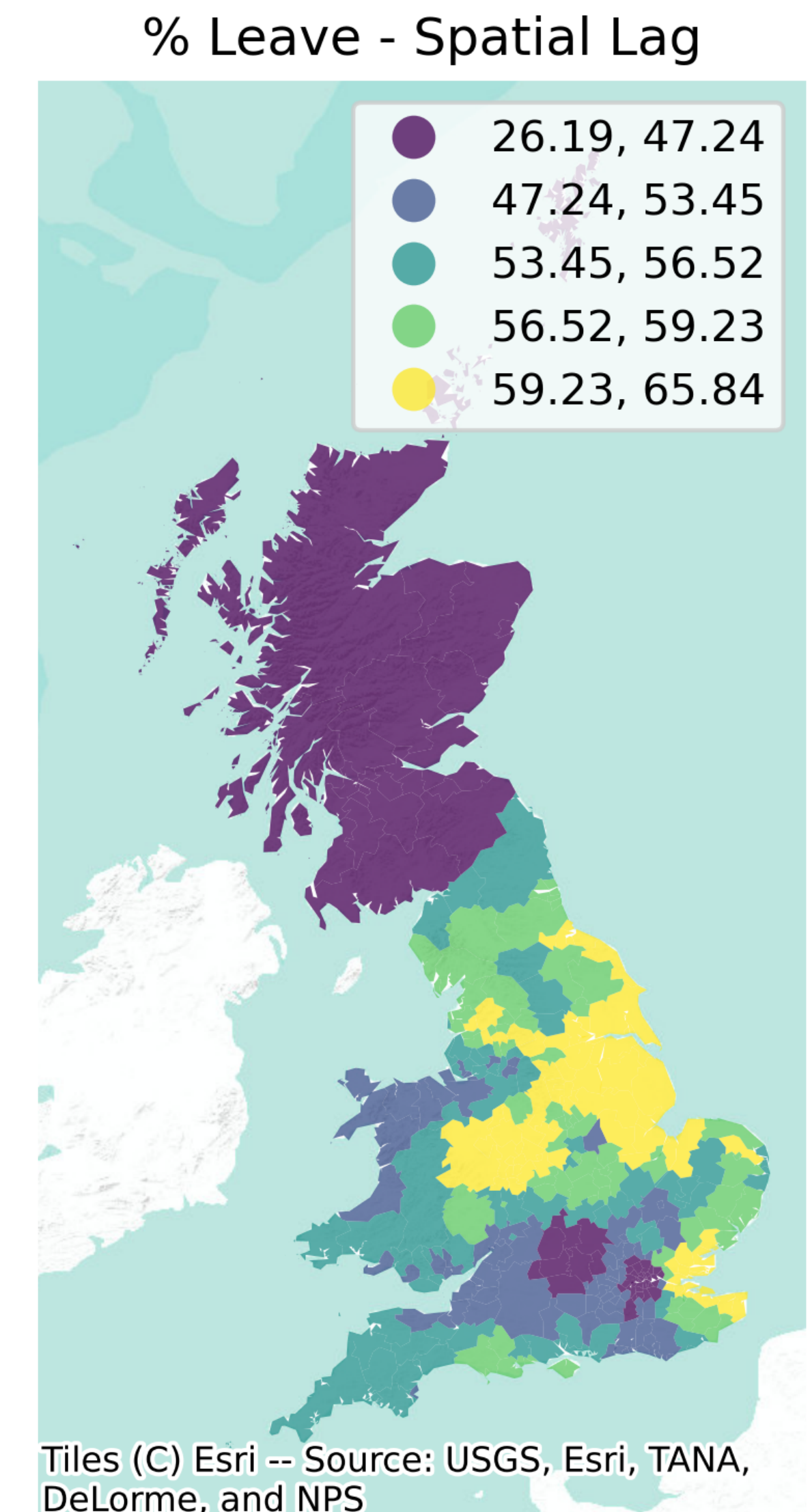
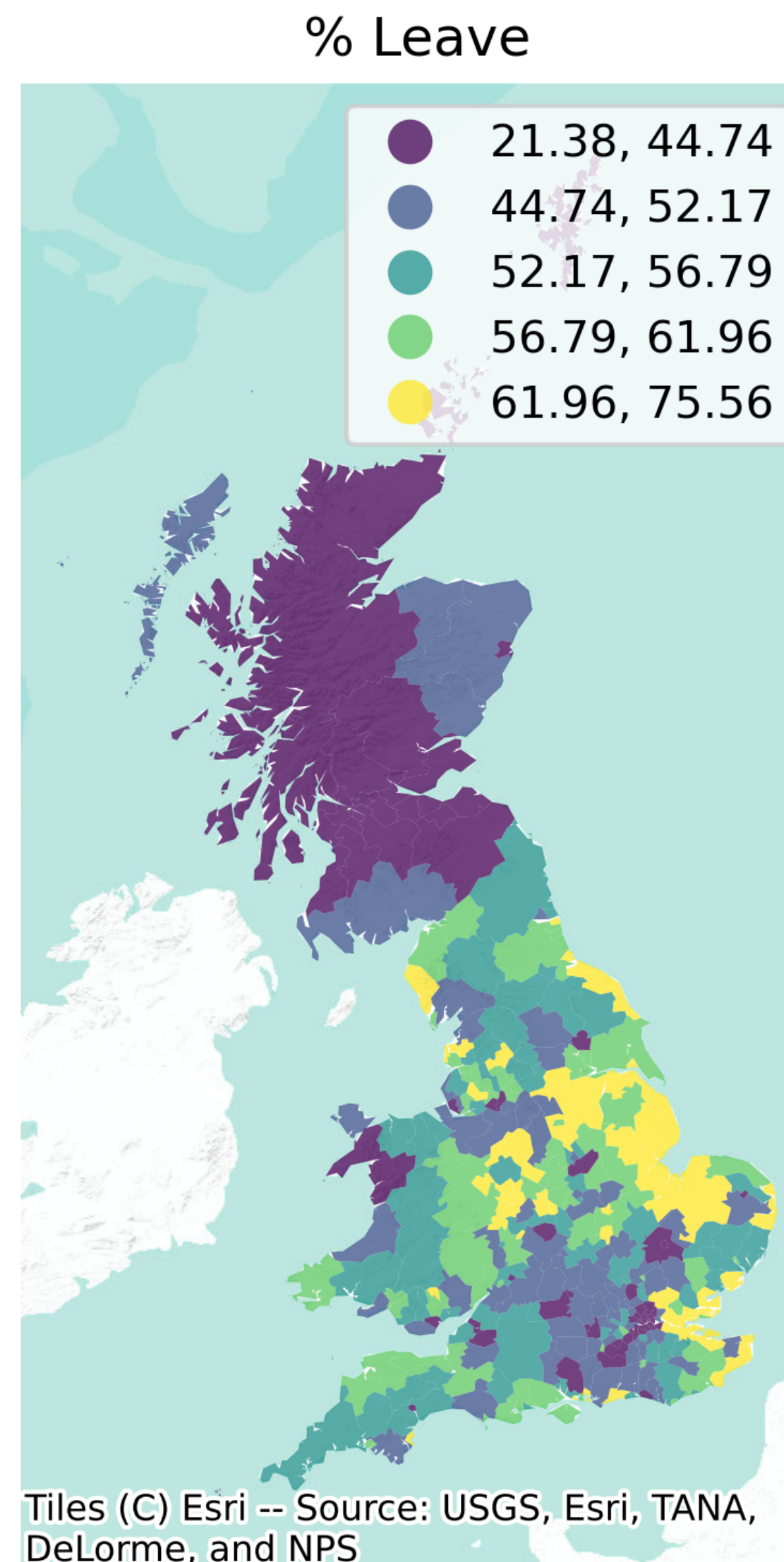
% Leave - Spatial Lag



# Spatial Autocorrelation: Case

The **spatial lag** can smooth out the differences between nearby observations.

Using **spatial lag**, we can begin to relate the behaviour of a variable at a given location to its pattern in the immediate neighbourhood.





# Spatial Autocorrelation

- **Spatial Autocorrelation** describes the degree to which the similarity in values between observations is correlated to the similarity in locations of such observations.
- Two possible indices to compute spatial autocorrelation:

## Moran's $I$

$$I = \frac{n \sum_i \sum_j w_{ij} (Y_i - \bar{Y})(Y_j - \bar{Y})}{(\sum_{i \neq j} w_{ij}) \sum_i (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2},$$

$n$  - number of regions (spatial units)

$Y_i$  - the observed variable in region  $i$

$\bar{Y}$  - the mean of  $Y$

$w_{ij}$  - spatial weights denoting spatial proximity

## Geary's $C$

$$C = \frac{(N - 1) \sum_i \sum_j w_{ij} (x_i - x_j)^2}{2S_0 \sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$N$  - number of regions (spatial units)

$x_i$  - the observed variable in region  $i$

$\bar{x}$  - the mean of  $x$

$w_{ij}$  - spatial weights denoting spatial proximity

$S_0$  - sum of all  $w$



# Spatial Autocorrelation: Moran's $I$

$$I = \frac{n \sum_i \sum_j w_{ij} (Y_i - \bar{Y})(Y_j - \bar{Y})}{(\sum_{i \neq j} w_{ij}) \sum_i (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

- Under the null hypothesis of no spatial autocorrelation, observations  $Y_i$  are independent identically distributed, and  $I$  is asymptotically normally distributed with mean and variance equal to:

$$E[I] = \frac{-1}{n-1} \quad \text{Var}[I] = \frac{n^2(n-1)S_1 - n(n-1)S_2 - 2S_0^2}{(n+1)(n-1)^2 S_0^2}$$

$$S_0 = \sum_{i \neq j} w_{ij}, \quad S_1 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \neq j} (w_{ij} + w_{ji})^2 \quad \text{and} \quad S_2 = \sum_k \left( \sum_j w_{kj} + \sum_i w_{ik} \right)^2$$

- Moran's  $I$  values usually range from  $-1$  to  $1$ . If they are significantly above  $E[I]$ , it indicates positive spatial correlation or clustering.

# Spatial Autocorrelation: Moran's $I$

- When the number of regions is sufficiently large,  $I$  has a normal distribution and we can assess whether any given pattern deviates significantly from a random pattern by comparing the z-score to the standard normal distribution.

$$z = \frac{I - E(I)}{\text{Var}(I)^{1/2}}$$

- Alternatively, z-score can be compared to the values we get after using Monte Carlo randomisation.
- MC randomisation creates random patterns by reassigning the observed values among the areas and calculates the Moran's  $I$  for each of the patterns, providing a randomisation distribution for the Moran's  $I$ .

# Spatial Autocorrelation: Case

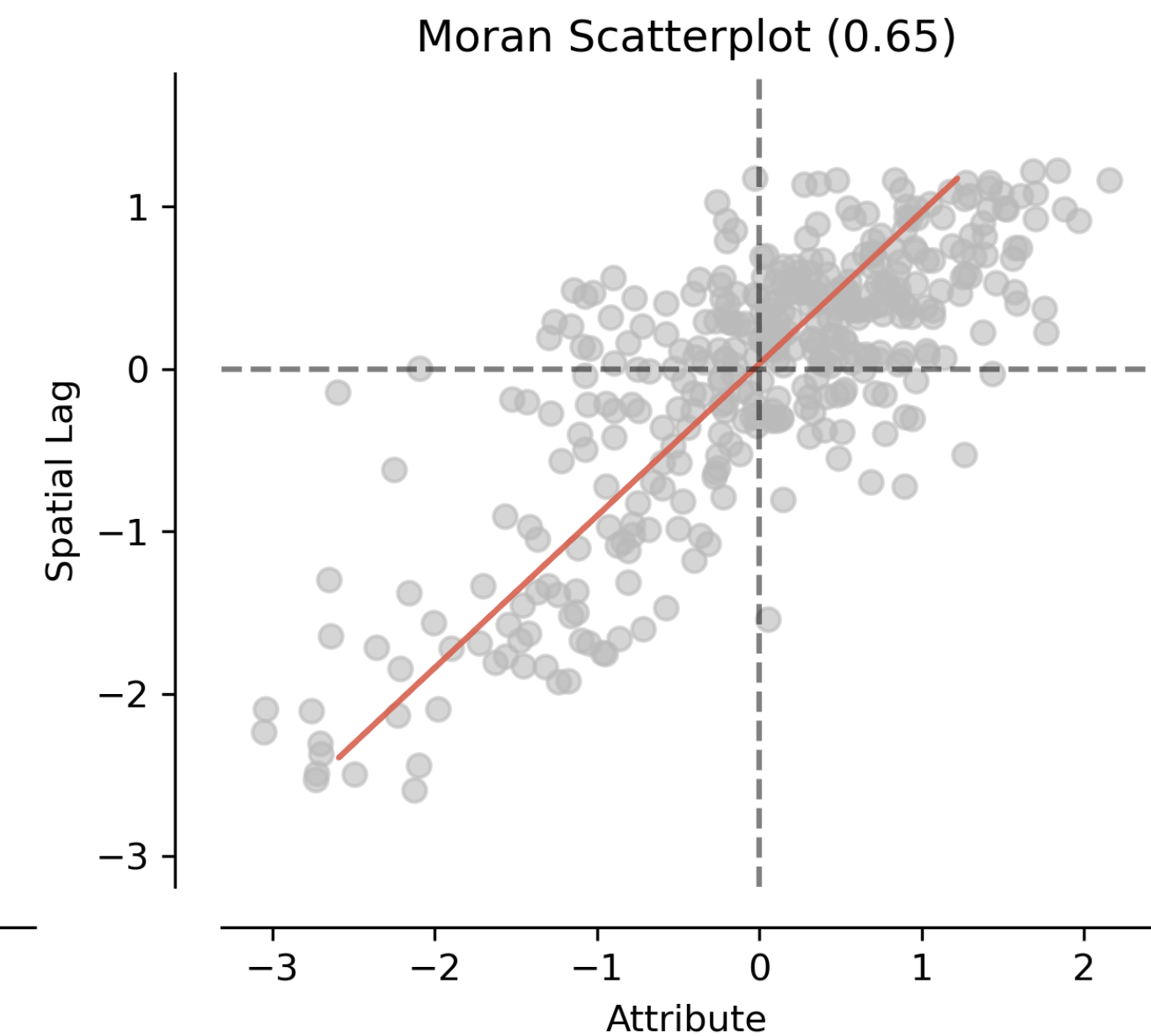
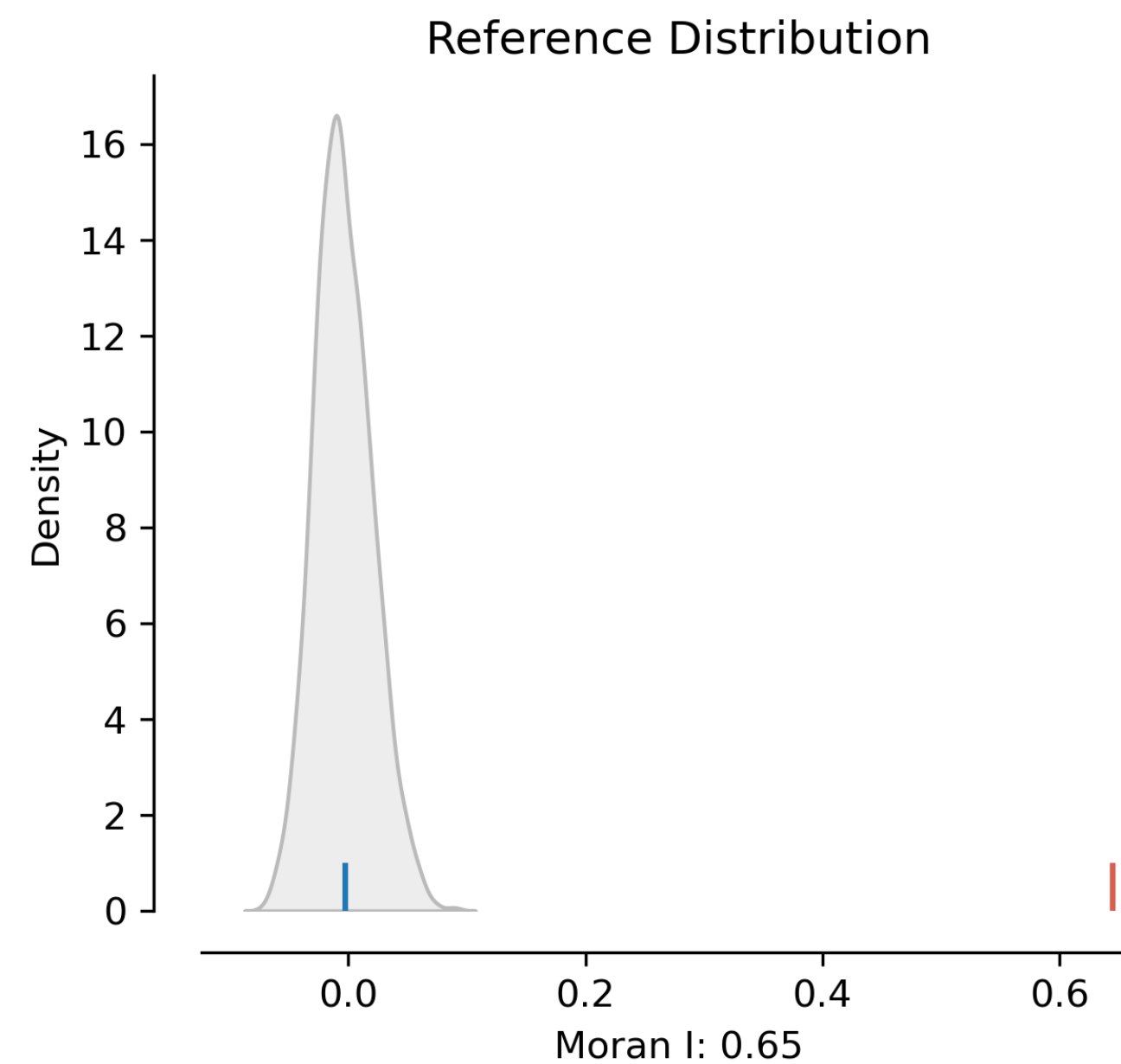
The relationship between the standardised “Leave” voting percentage in a local authority and its spatial lag (the average standardised density of the percent Leave vote in the neighbourhood of each observation).

A positive relationship indicates the presence of positive autocorrelation.

$$\text{moran.I} = 0.6455$$

$$\text{moran.p\_sim} = 0.001$$

-> small enough p-values allows to reject the hypothesis that the map is random



# Spatial Autocorrelation: Geary's C

$$C = \frac{(N - 1) \sum_i \sum_j w_{ij} (x_i - x_j)^2}{2S_0 \sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

- The value of Geary's  $C$  lies between 0 and some unspecified value greater than 1.
- Values significantly lower than 1 demonstrate increasing positive spatial autocorrelation, whilst values significantly higher than 1 illustrate increasing negative spatial autocorrelation.
- Geary's  $C$  is inversely related to Moran's  $I$ , but not identical. Geary's  $C$  uses the sum of squared distances, whereas Moran's  $I$  uses standardised spatial covariance. By using squared distances, Geary's  $C$  is less sensitive to linear associations and may pickup autocorrelation where Moran's  $I$  may not.



# Spatial Autocorrelation: LISA

- Global Moran's  $I$  provides an index to assess the spatial autocorrelation for the whole study region; it can tell us whether values in our map *cluster* together (or disperse) overall, but it will not inform us about where specific *clusters* (or outliers) are.
- Alternatively, we can have a local measure of similarity between each area's value and those of nearby areas - Local Indicators of Spatial Association (**LISA**).

$$I_i = \frac{n(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_j (Y_j - \bar{Y})^2} \sum_j w_{ij} (Y_j - \bar{Y})$$

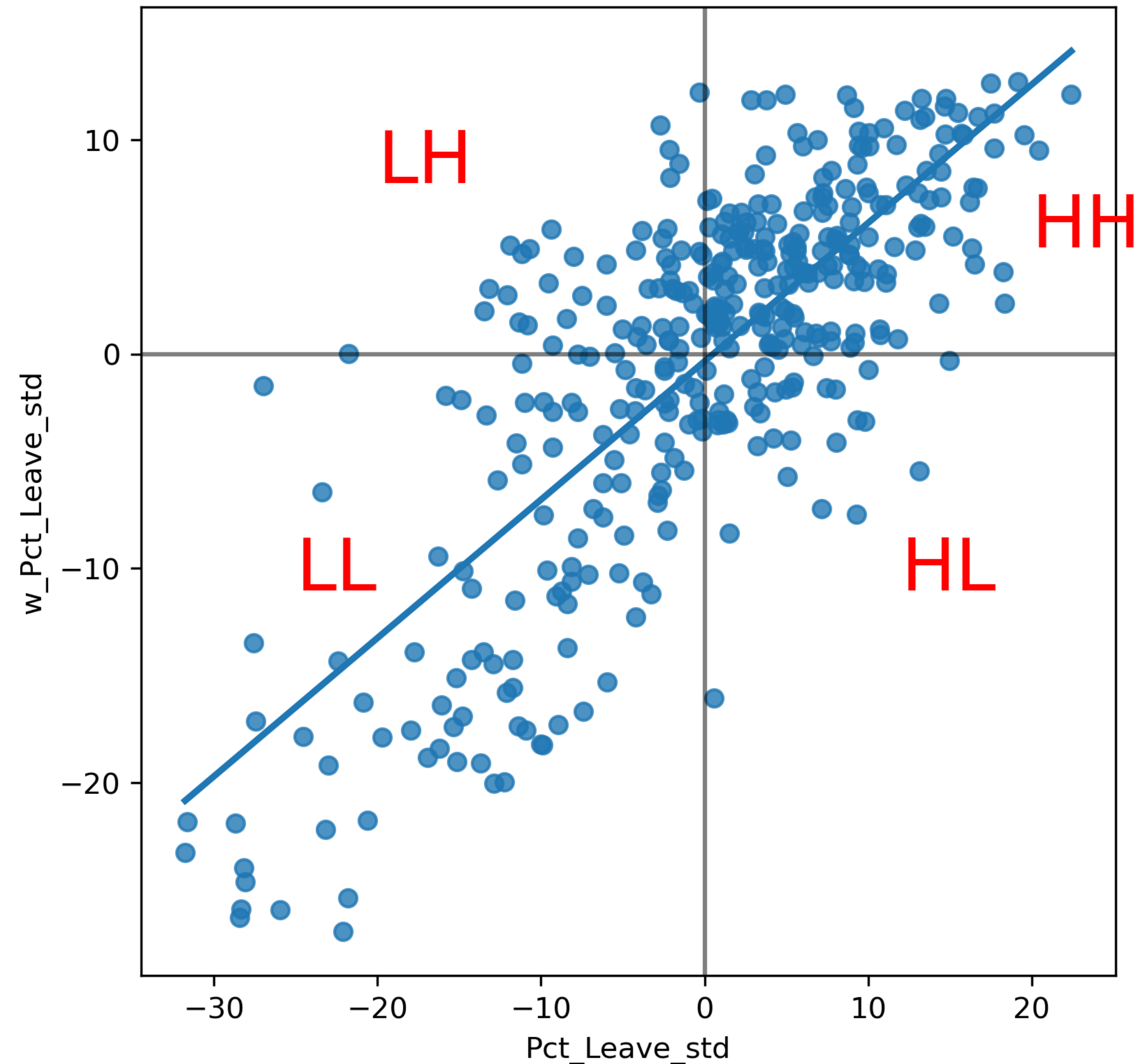
$$I = \frac{1}{\sum_{i \neq j} w_{ij}} \sum_i I_i$$

- The values of the LISAs are mapped to indicate the location of areas with comparatively high or low local association with neighbouring areas.
- A high value for  $I_i$  suggests that the area is surrounded by areas with similar values.

# Spatial Autocorrelation: Case

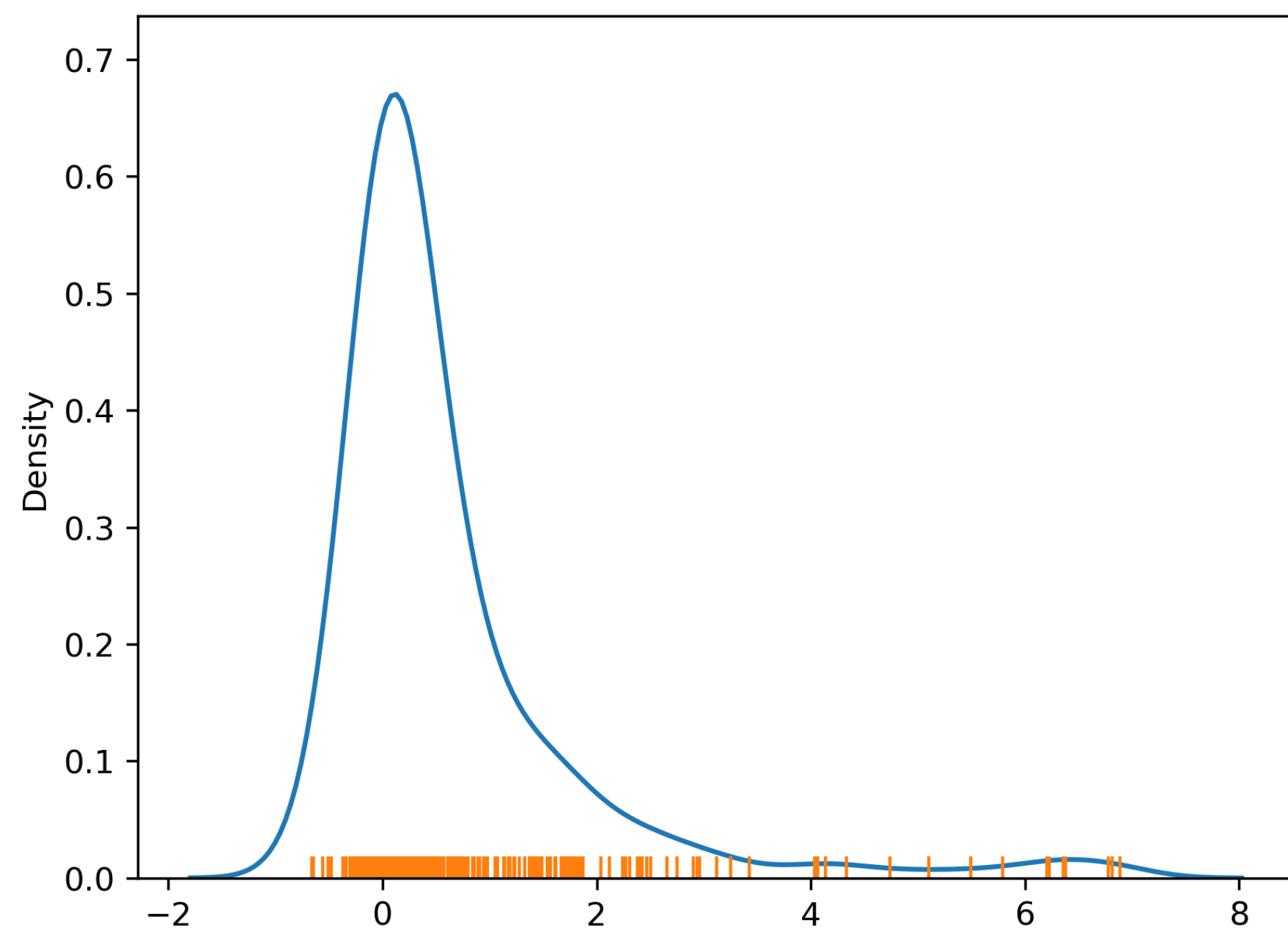
Divide into **quadrants** with each capturing a situation based on whether a given area displays a value above the mean (high) or below (low) in either the original variable or its spatial lag.

The **core idea**: identify cases in which the value of an observation and the average of its surroundings is either more similar or dissimilar, compared to the pure chance.



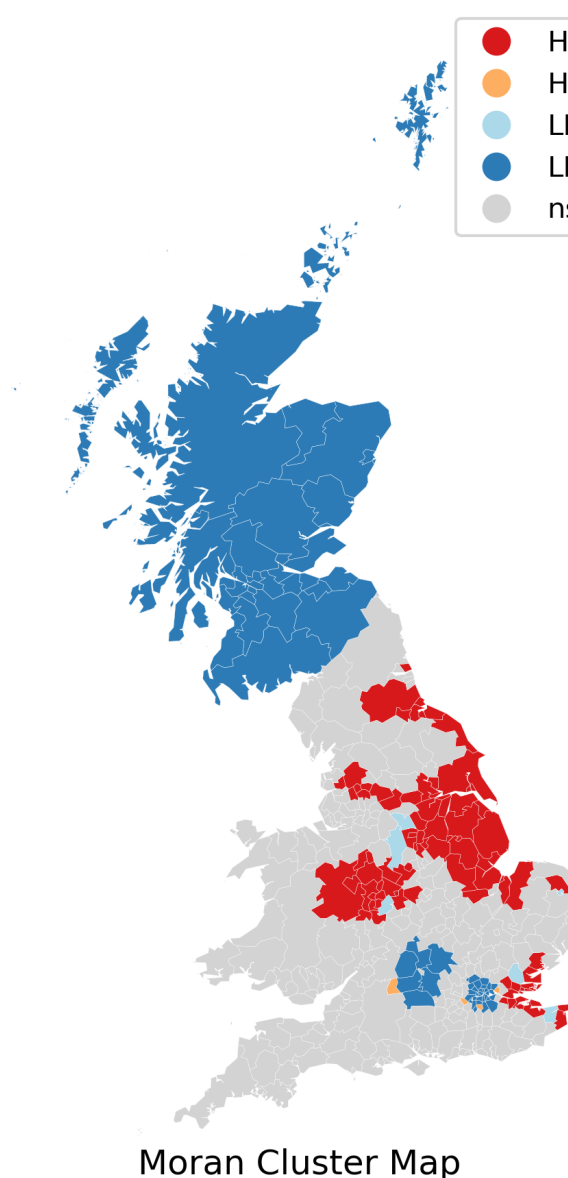
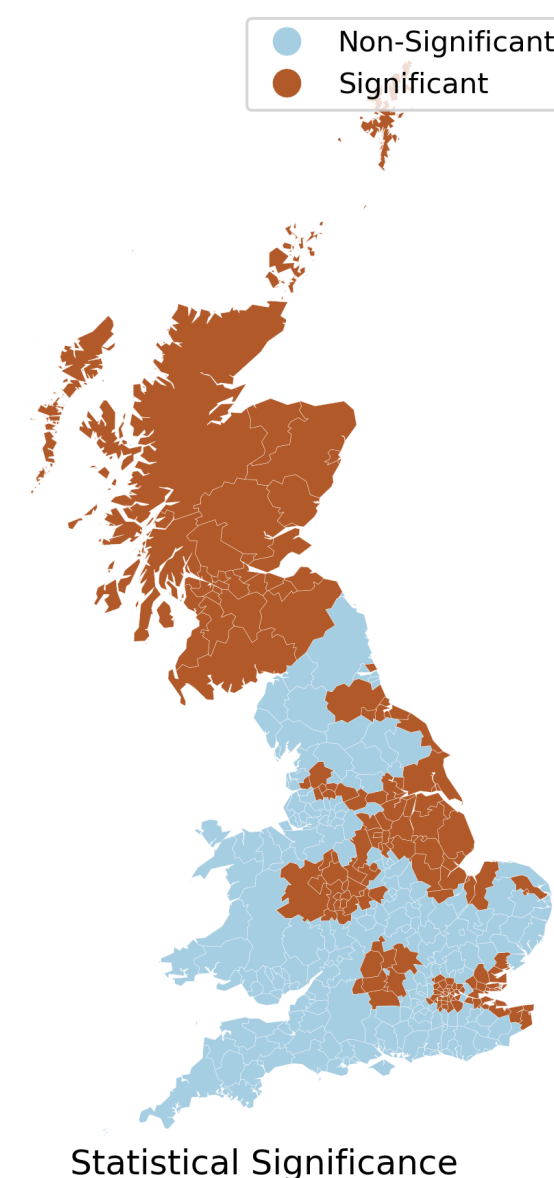
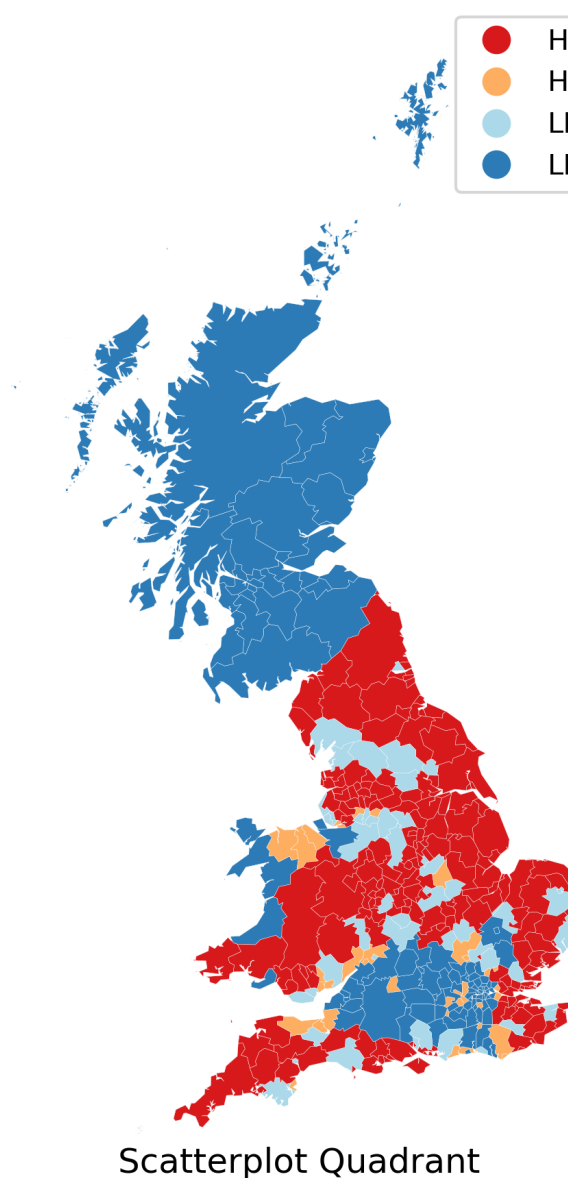
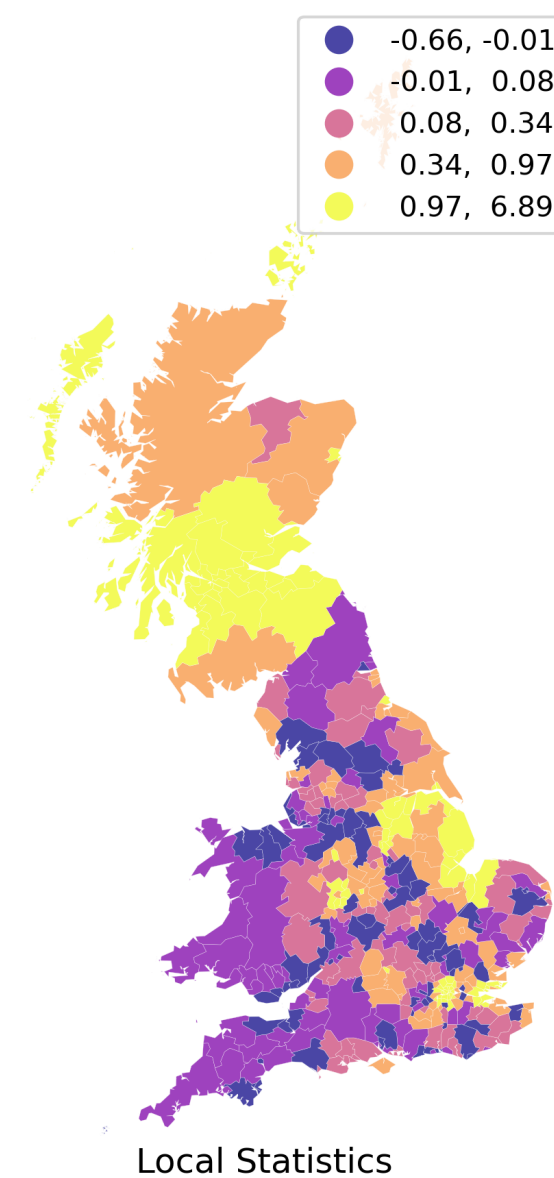
# Spatial Autocorrelation: Case

## The distribution of local Moran's I



**Skewed - due to the dominance of positive forms of spatial association**

**Important to keep in mind: cannot differentiate between HH and LL, or between HL and LH**



# Spatial Clustering

## **Spatial Autocorrelation**

- Statistical measure that quantifies the degree of similarity between observations at different locations in space. It examines whether there is a relationship between the values of a variable at one location and the values at nearby locations.

## **Spatial Clustering**

- Grouping of similar observations or values together within a geographic area. These clusters can be identified visually or through statistical analysis.
- Region can be perceived as a cluster in for spatial data (but geographically consistent).



# Spatial Clustering

## Clustering on Geographical Coordinates

- Results in clusters as *regions* in space.
- Critical that the geographical coordinates are projected.
- For most methods, the clusters will tend to result in fairly compact regions (Voronoi polygons, etc.)

## Including Geographical Coordinates in the Feature Set

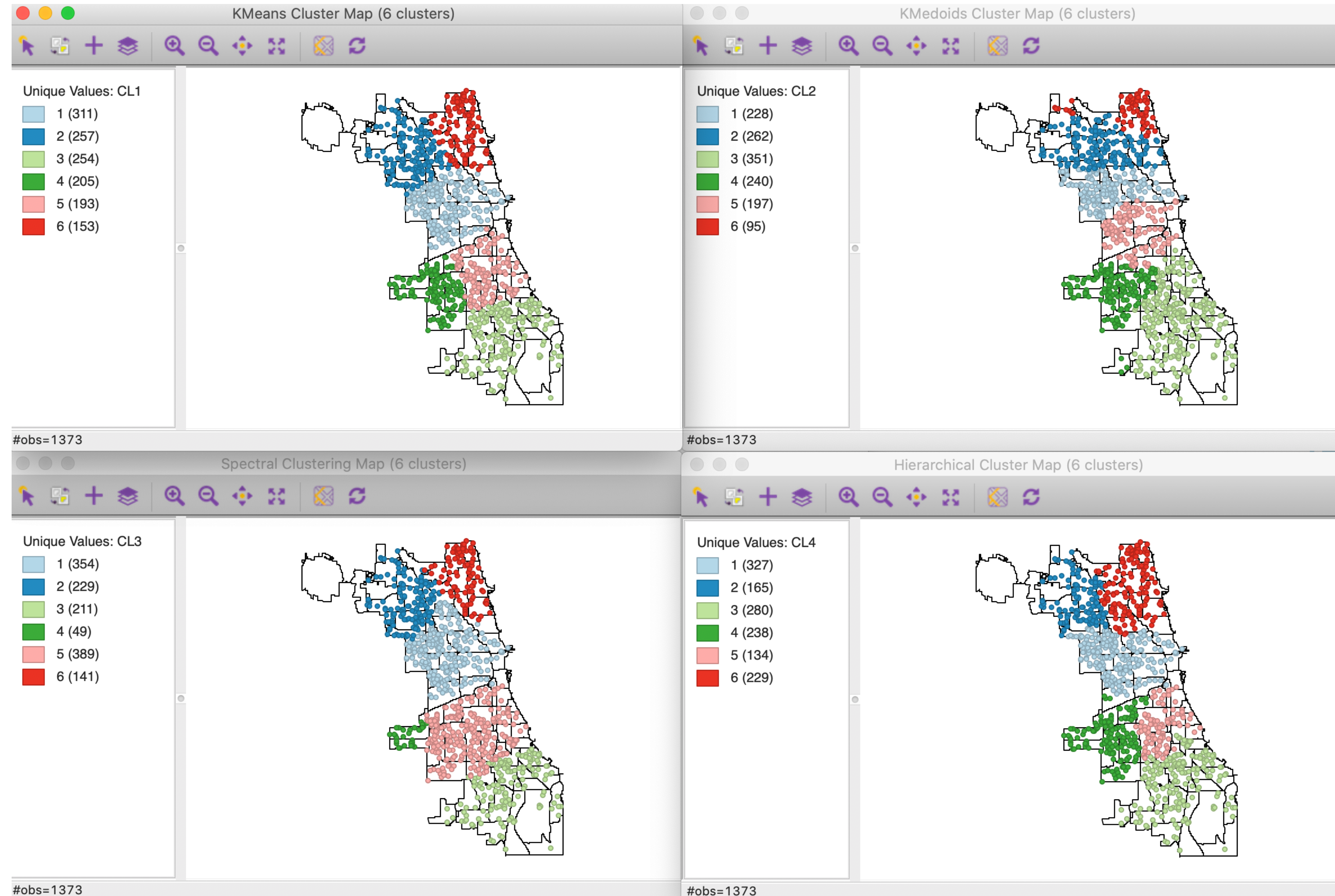
- No guarantee that resulting clusters are spatially contiguous (and not designed to be).
- One solution: include geometric centroids as part of clustering (projected!). But still does not guarantee contiguity.

## Weighted Optimisation of Attribute and Geographical Similarity

- Two functions: one is focused on the similarity of the regular attributes, the other on the similarity of the geometric centroids.
- A weight changes the relative importance of each objective.

# Spatial Clustering: On Geographical Coordinates

1373 points against  
the Chicago  
community area  
boundaries



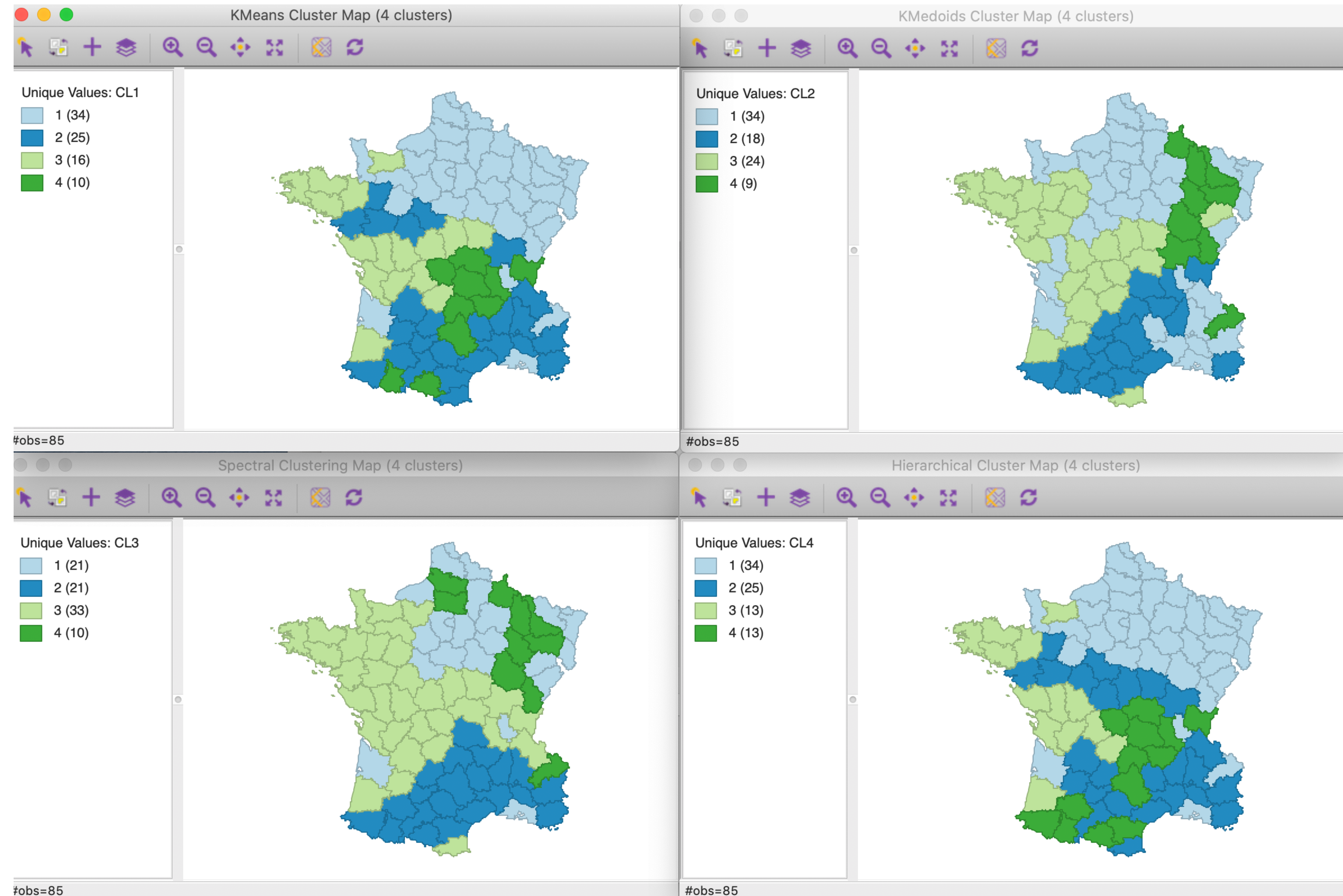


# Spatial Clustering: Only Features

Based on 6 features:  
**Crm\_prs, Crm\_prp,  
Literacy, Donations,  
Infants and Suicides**

**results differ by method**

**geographic grouping is far  
from being contagious**

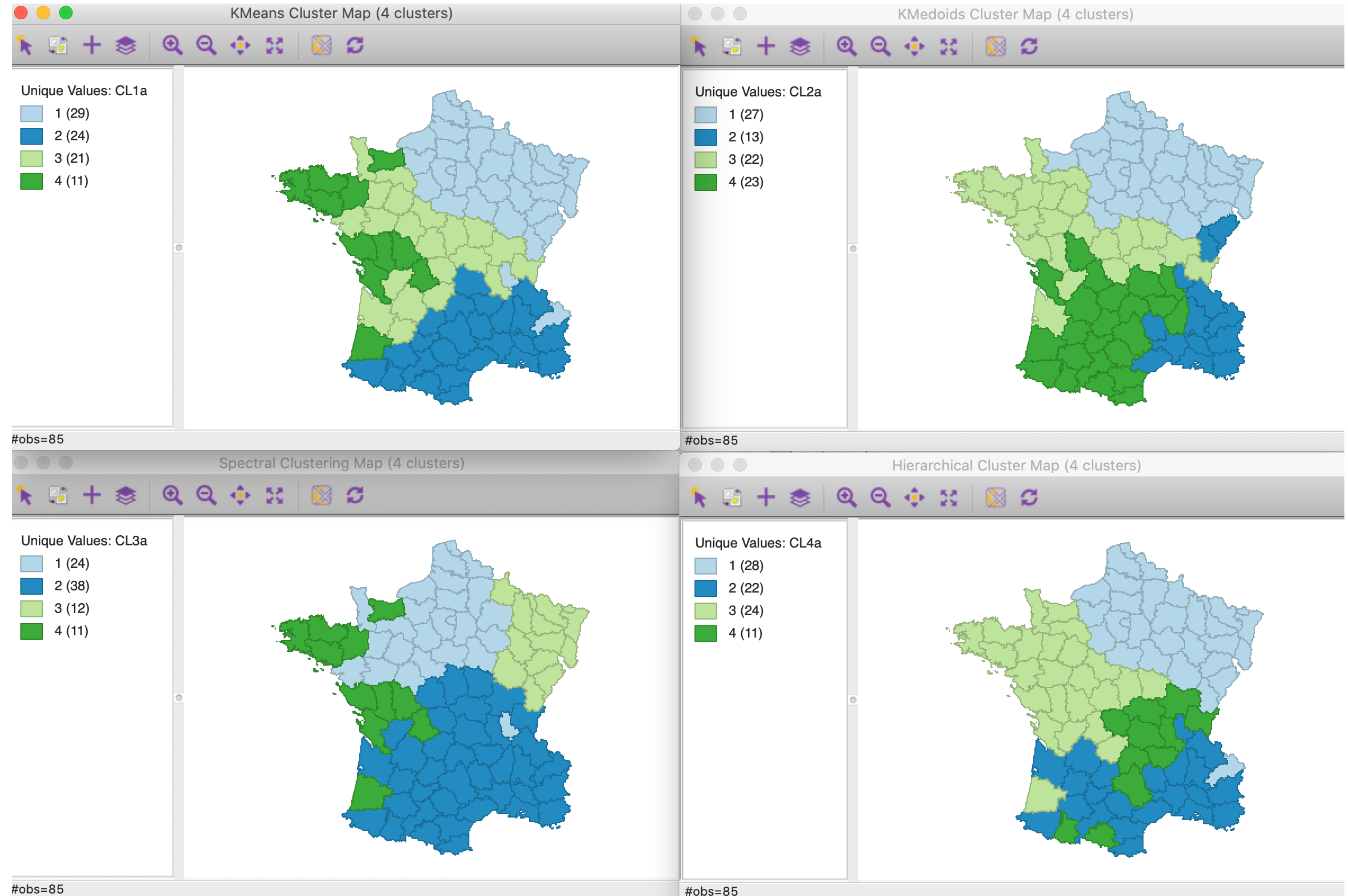


# Spatial Clustering: Geo Centroids as Features

Adding coordinates  
of the centroids

results differ by method

geographic grouping is not  
perfectly contagious but  
spatially more structured





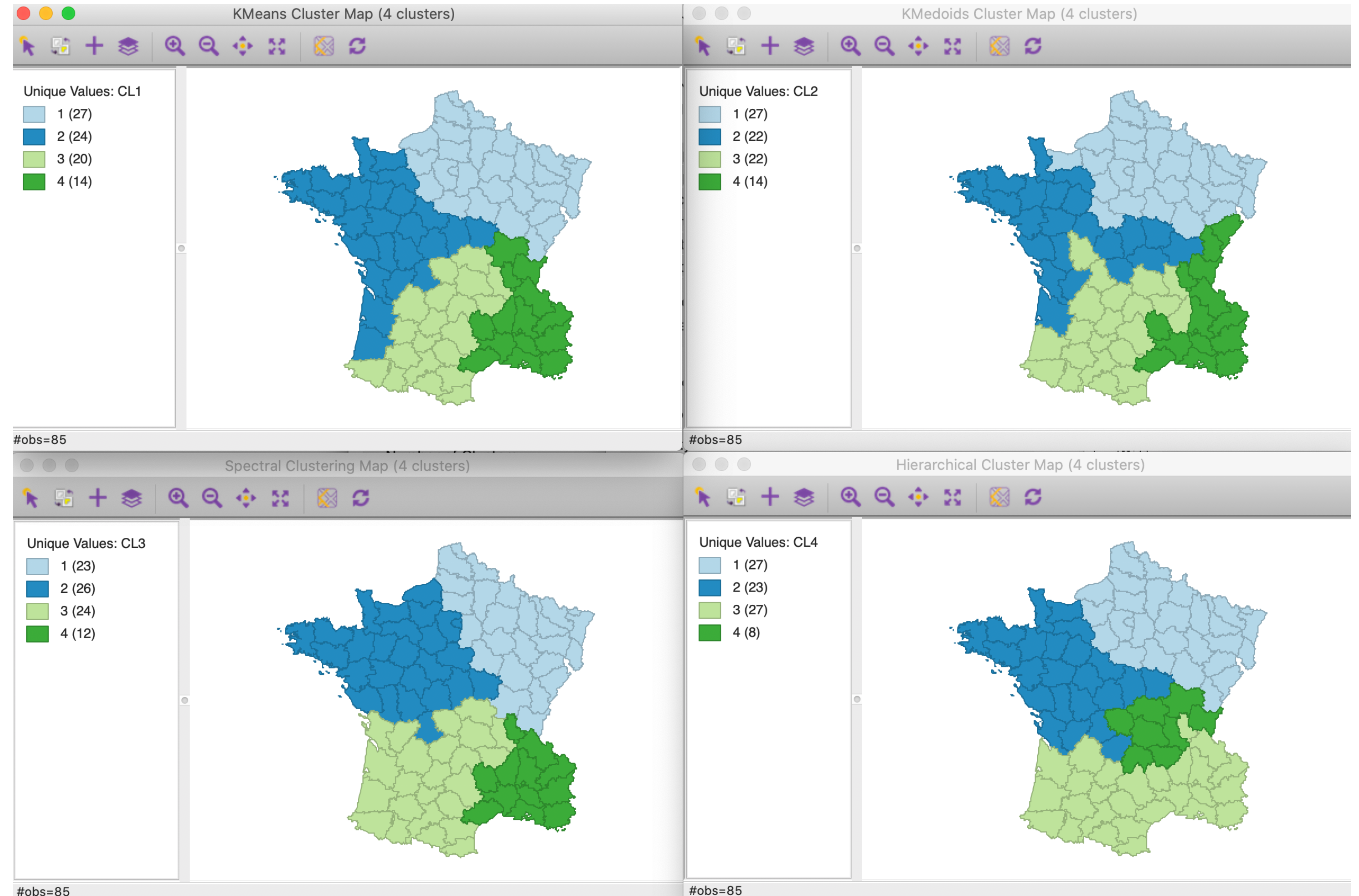
# Spatial Clustering: Weighted Optimisation

coordinate variables  
are treated separately  
from the regular  
attributes

Example:  
w1 - for geographic  
w2 - for regular  
 $w1 + w2 = 1$

**results yield more  
contiguity**

illustrates the trade offs  
between attribute and  
locational similarity



# Notebook 2

Spatial Autocorrelation

Spatial Clustering

**Spatial Data Mining:**

**Point Pattern Analysis**

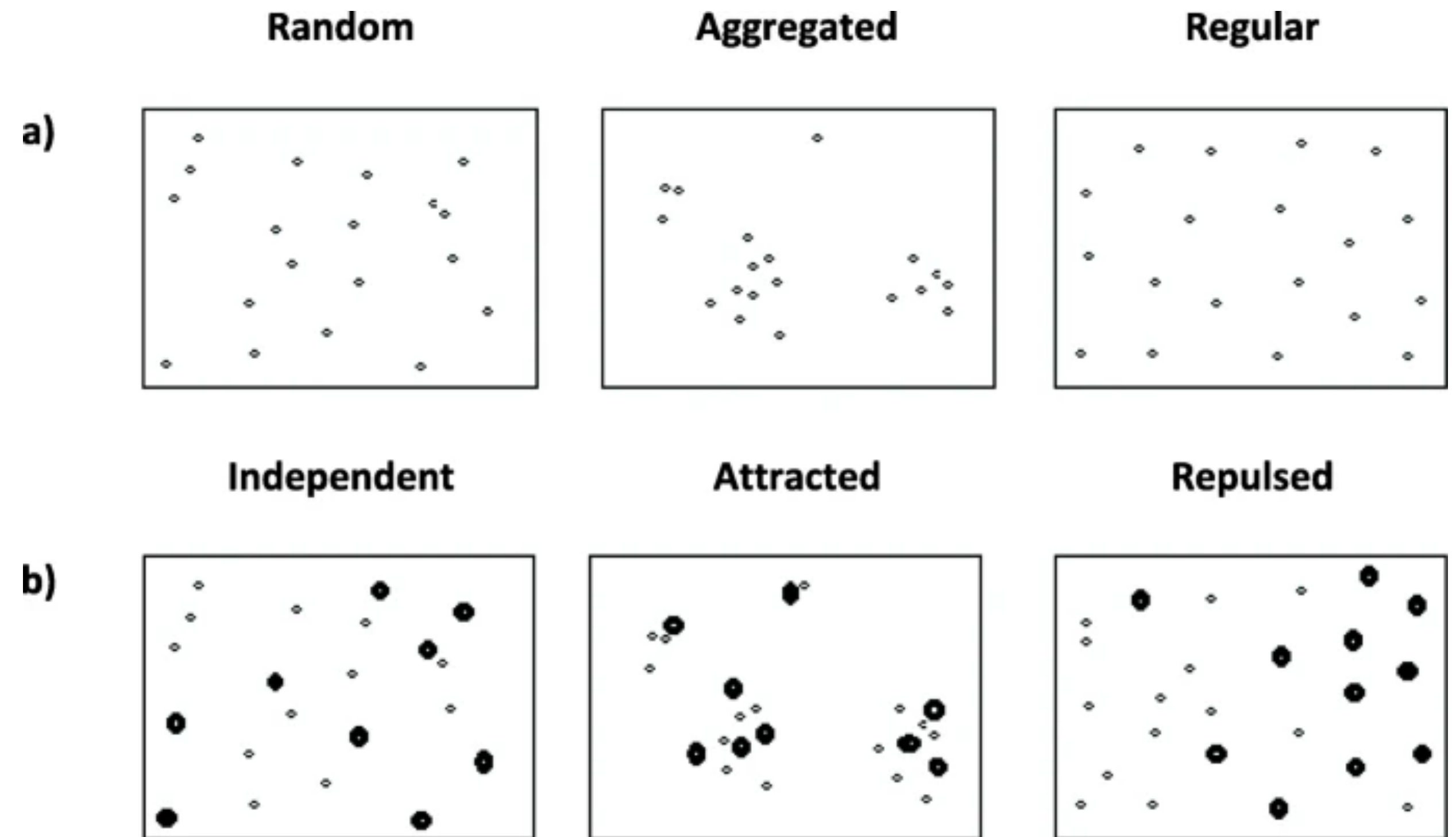
**Trajectory Analysis**

# Point Pattern Analysis

**Point Pattern Analysis** is a data mining technique used to extract meaningful information from datasets containing spatial data points.

## Common Questions:

- What does the pattern look like?
- What is the nature of the distribution of points?
- Why do events occur in those places and not in others?





# Point Pattern Analysis

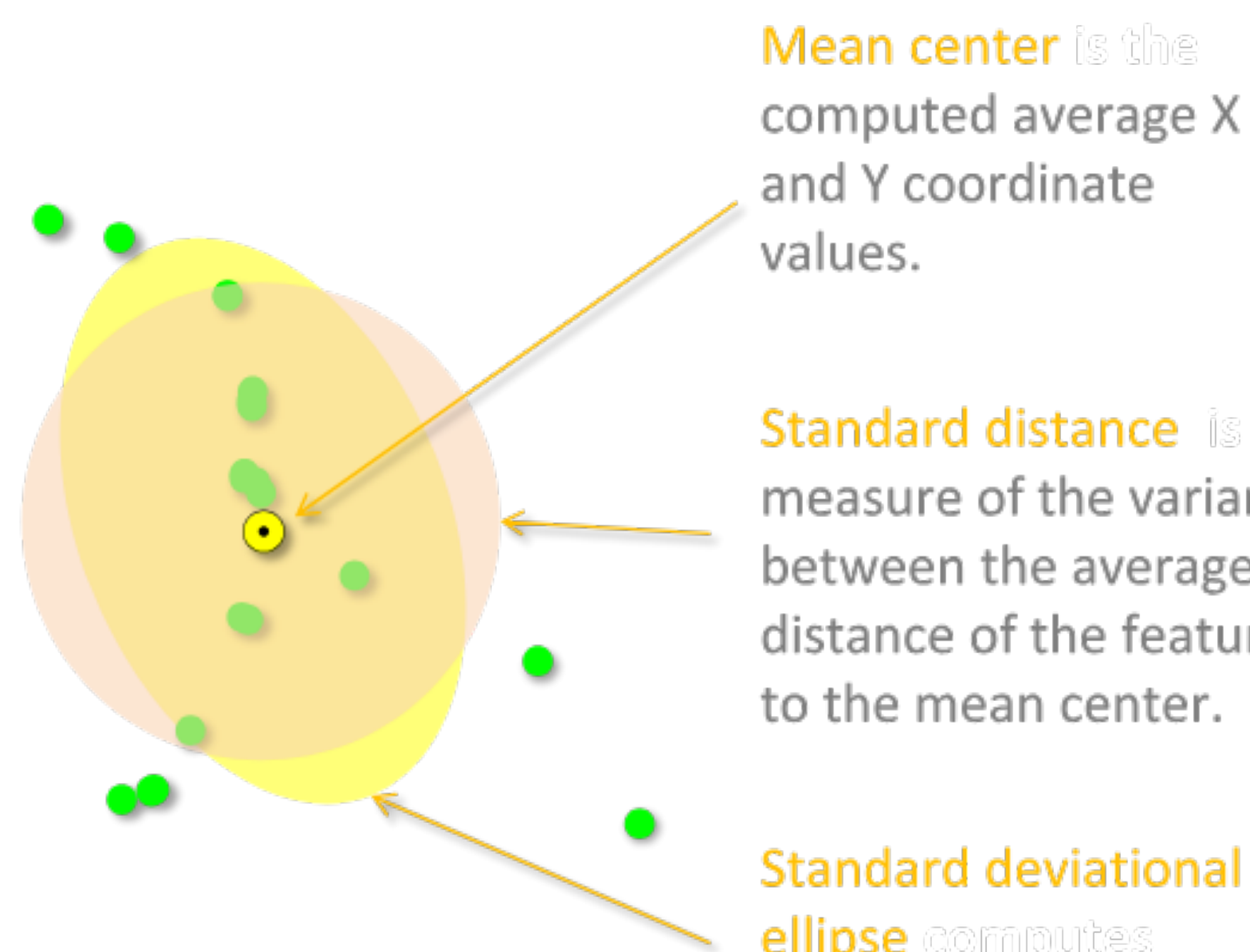
**Point Pattern Analysis** is a data mining technique used to extract meaningful information from datasets containing spatial data points.

## Methods:

- Centrography
  - Summary statistics on mean centre, standard distance and standard deviational ellipse
- Density-based analysis
- Distance-based analysis

# Point Pattern Analysis

**Centrography** is the analysis of centrality in a point pattern.



**Mean center** is the computed average X and Y coordinate values.

$$\bar{s} = \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n} \right)$$

← **measure of tendency**

**Standard distance** is a measure of the variance between the average distance of the features to the mean center.

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_x)^2 + (y_i - \mu_y)^2}{n}}$$

↙ ↘ **measures of dispersion**

**Standard deviational ellipse** computes separate standard distances for each axis.

$$d_x = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_x)^2}{n}}$$

$$d_y = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu_y)^2}{n}}$$

These measures provide a summary of an entire pattern, but they tell us little about the spatial organisation of each point.

# Point Pattern Analysis

## Density-based analysis

How the points are distributed relative to the study extent – a **first-order** property of the point pattern.

- Global Density
- Local Density
  - Quadrat Density
- Kernel Density

## Distance-based analysis

How the points are distributed relative to one another - a **second-order** property of the point pattern.

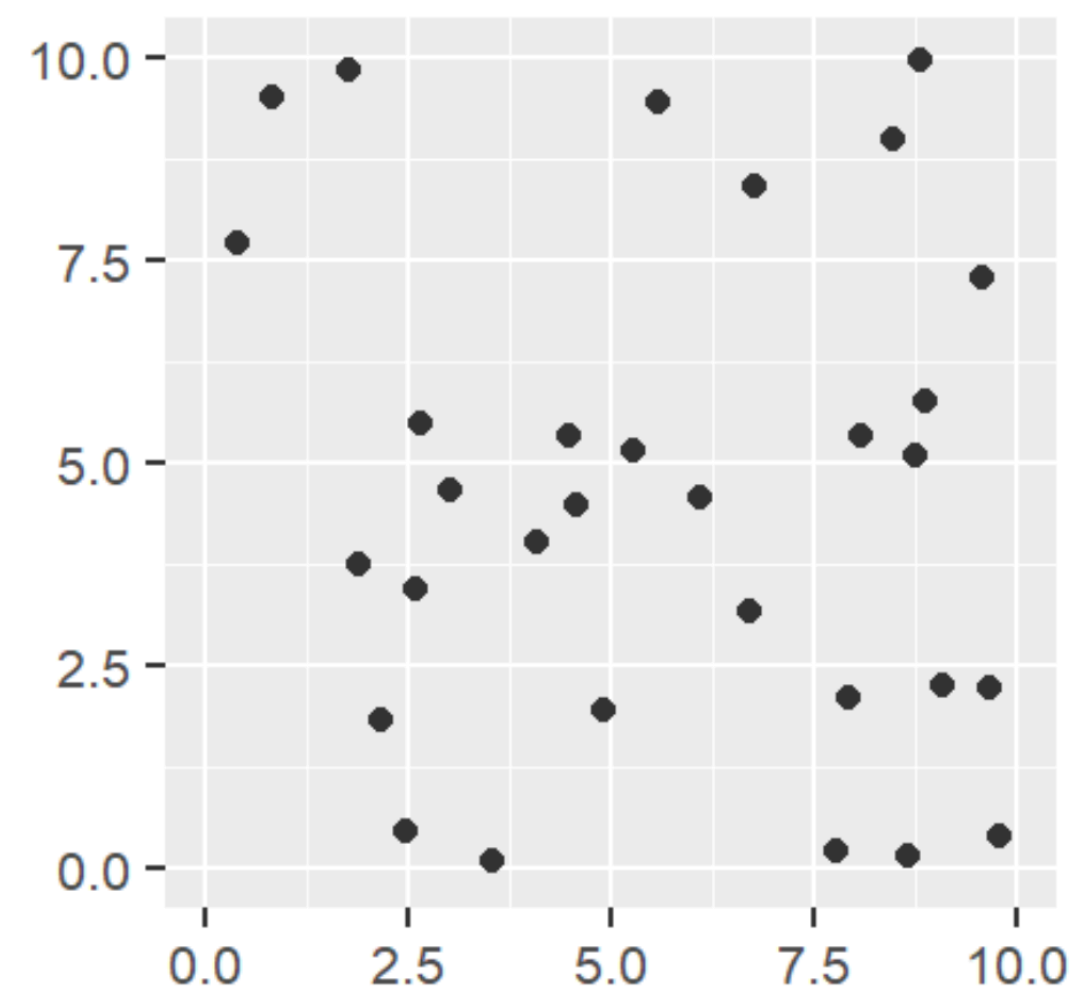
- Average Nearest Neighbour
- K and L functions
- Pair Correlation Function

These statistical devices help us in characterising whether a point pattern is spatially clustered or dispersed.

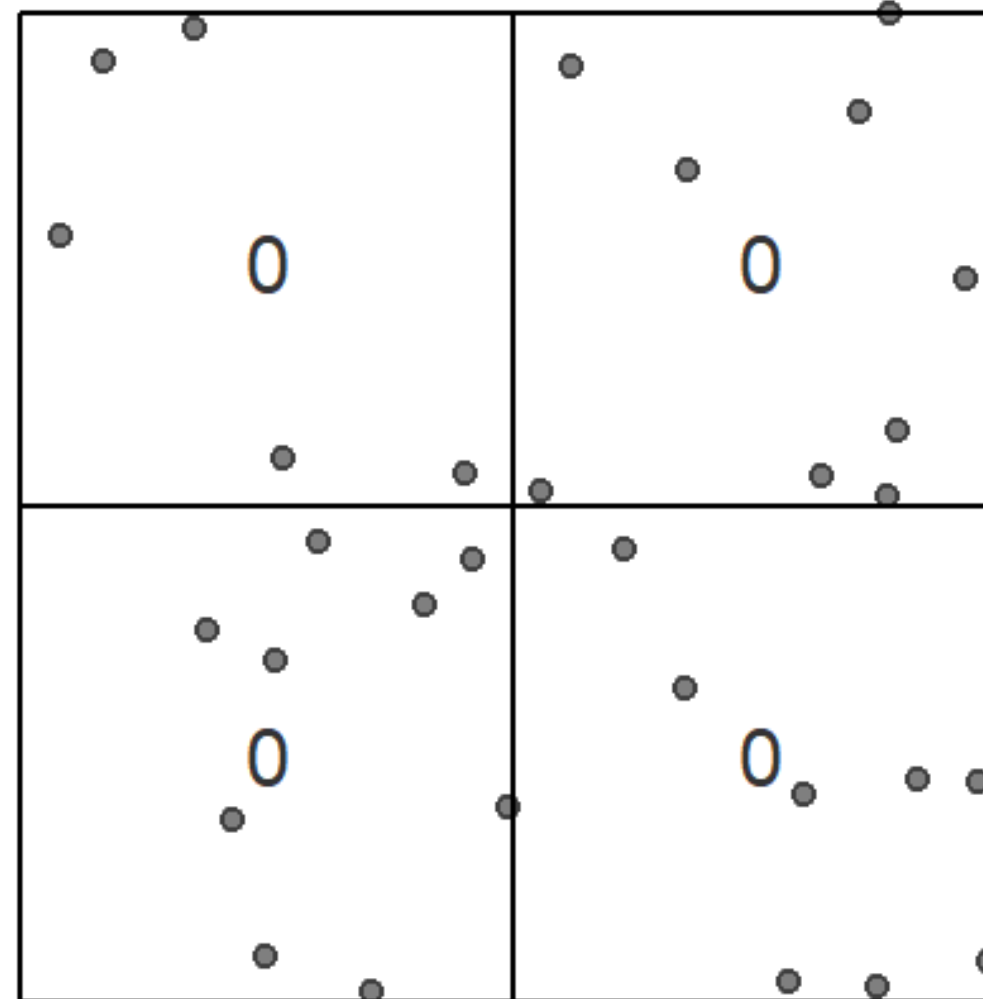
# Point Pattern Analysis: Density-based

- Global Density

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{n}{a}$$

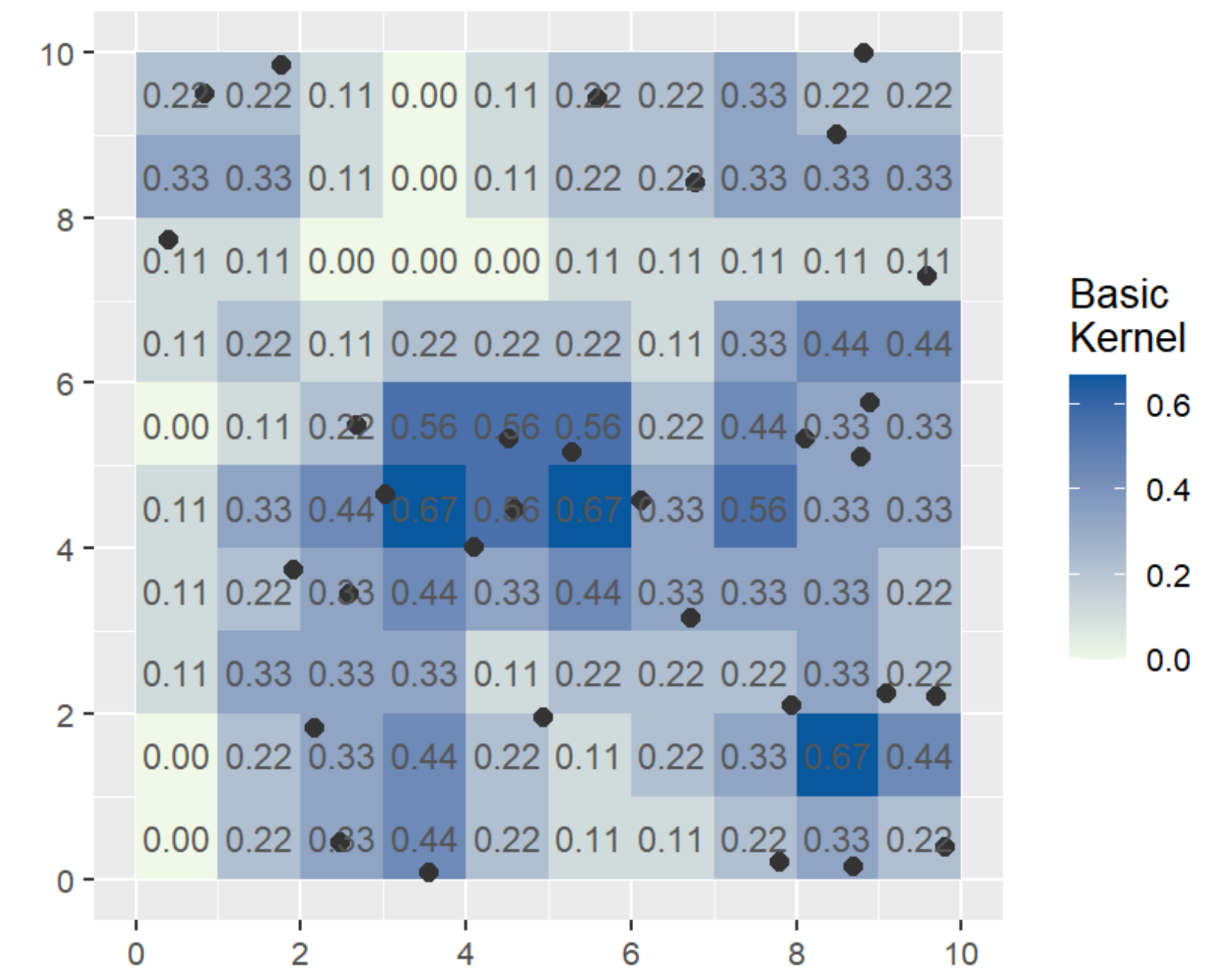


- Quadrat Density



- Kernel Density

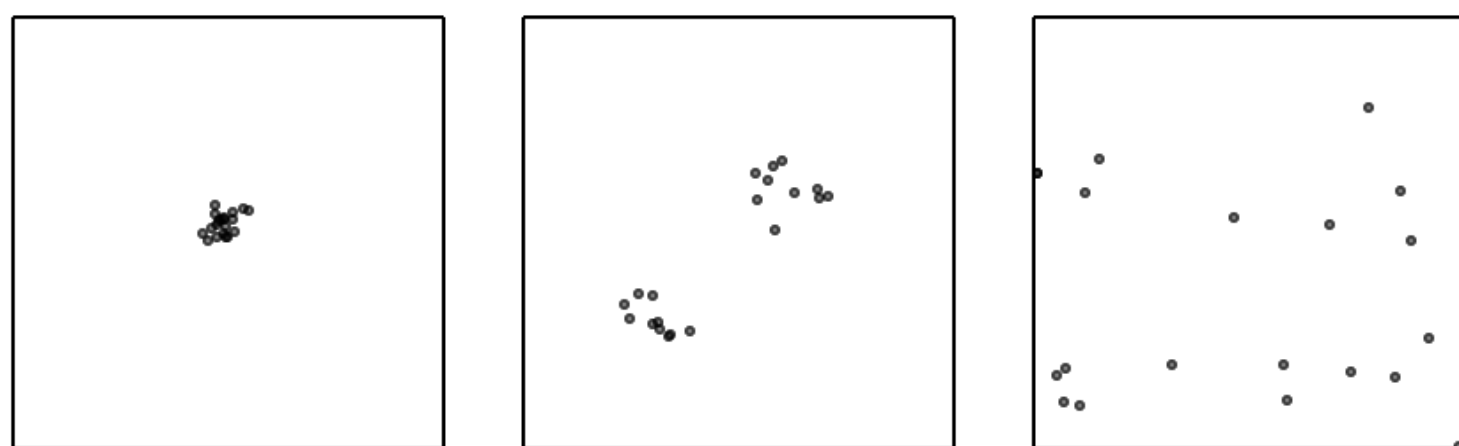
*moving* sub-region window





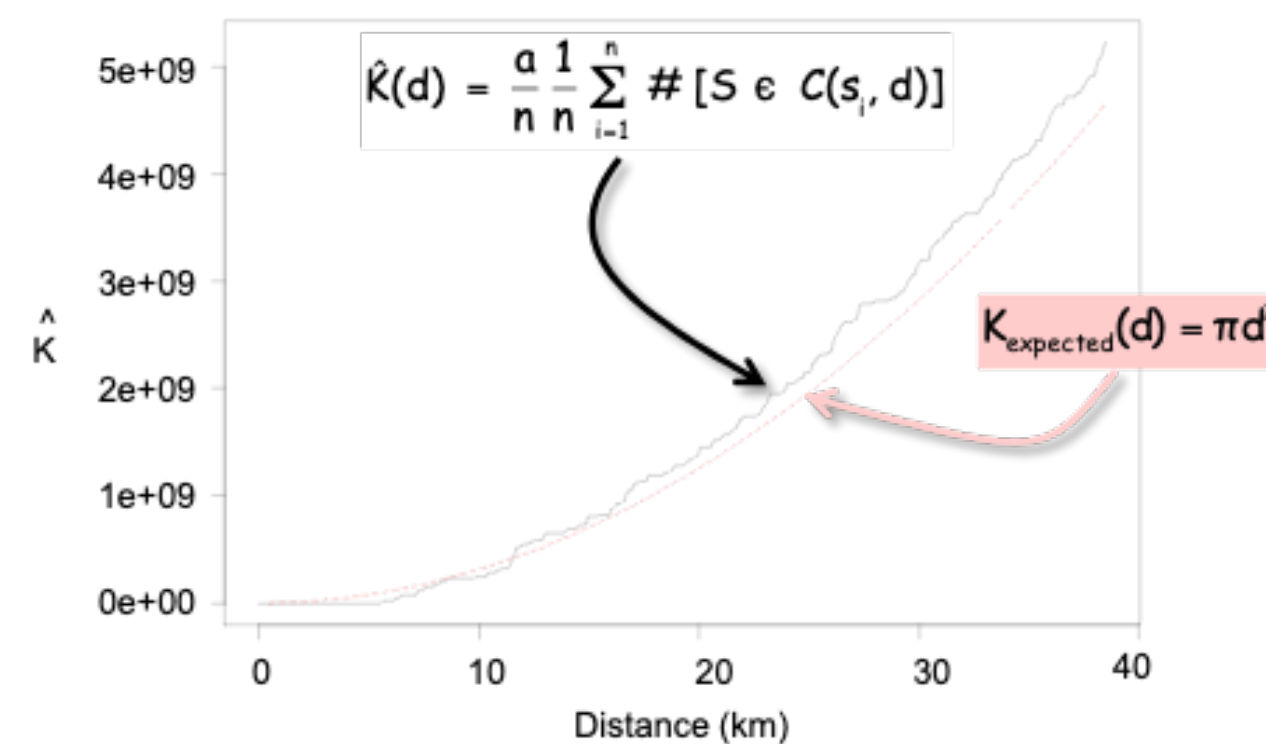
# Point Pattern Analysis: Distance-based

- Average Nearest Neighbour



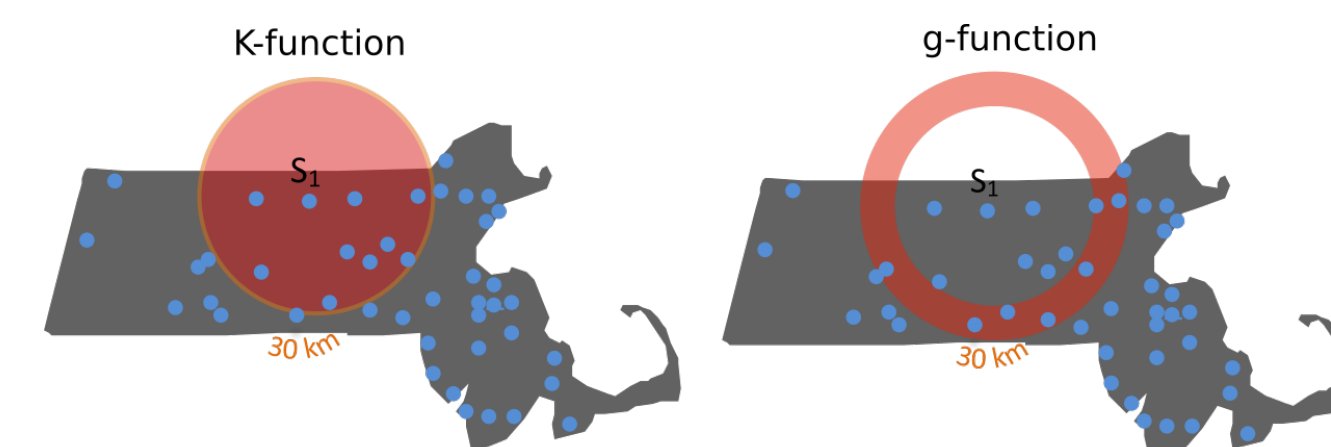
- K function

summarises the distance between points for *all* distances

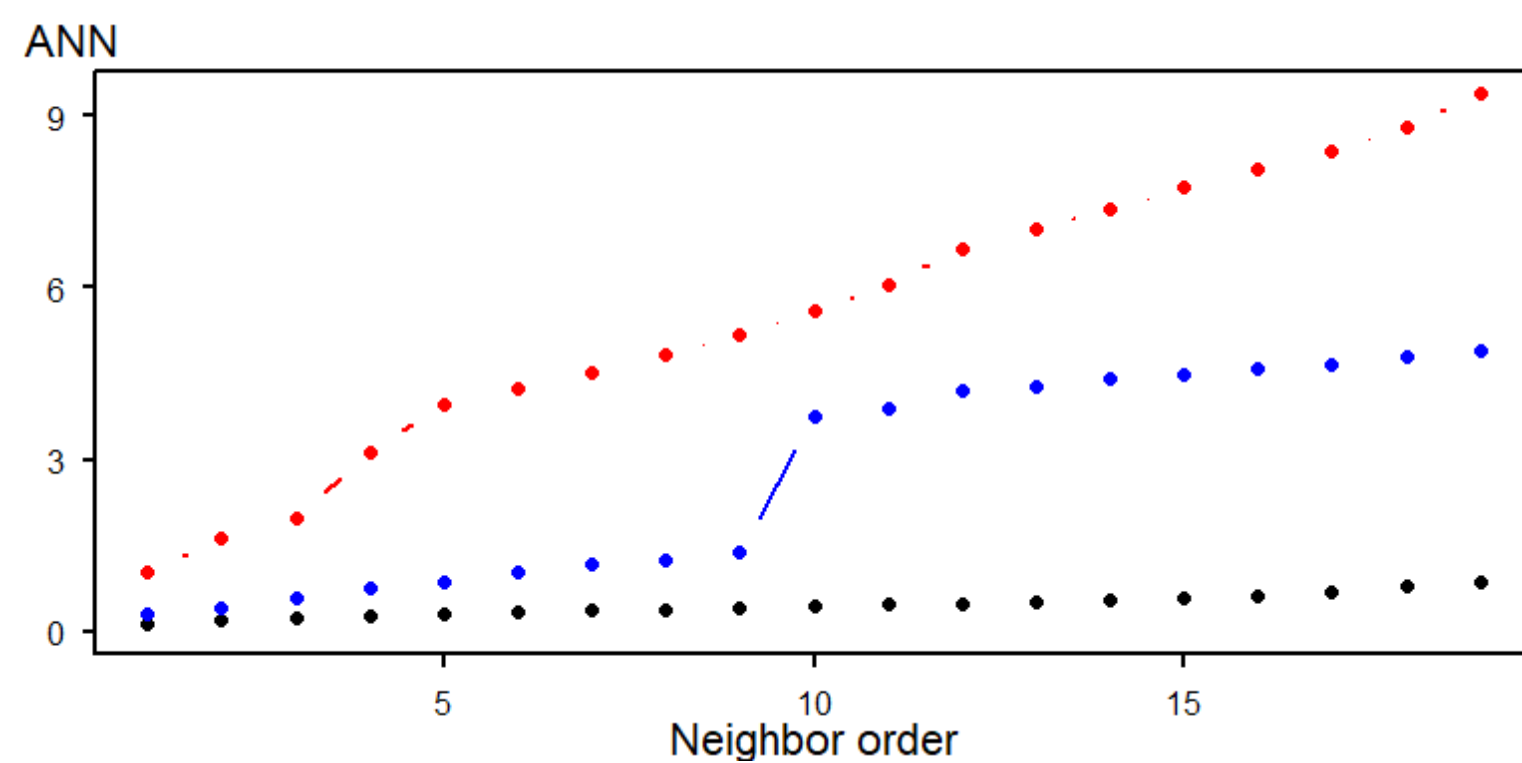
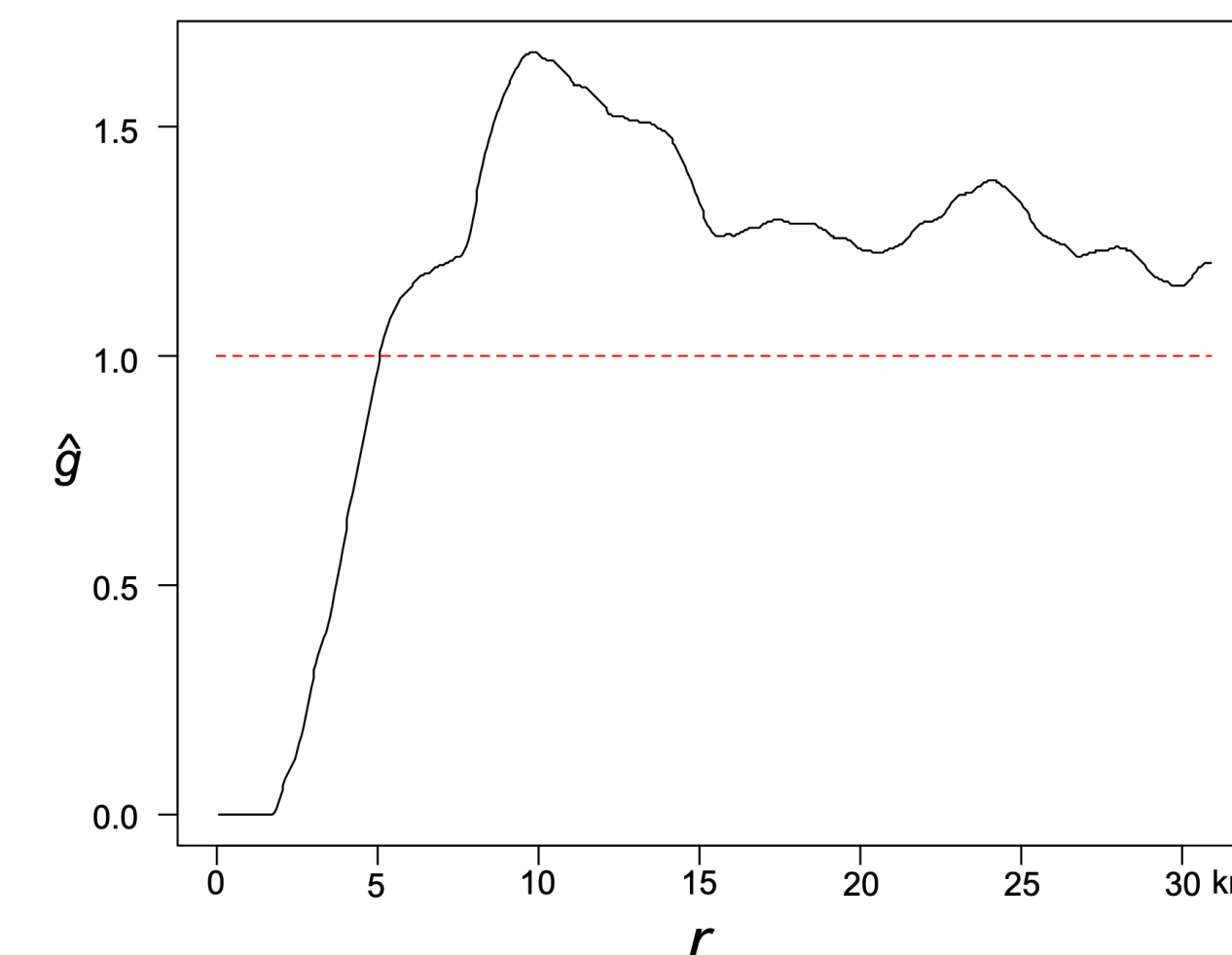
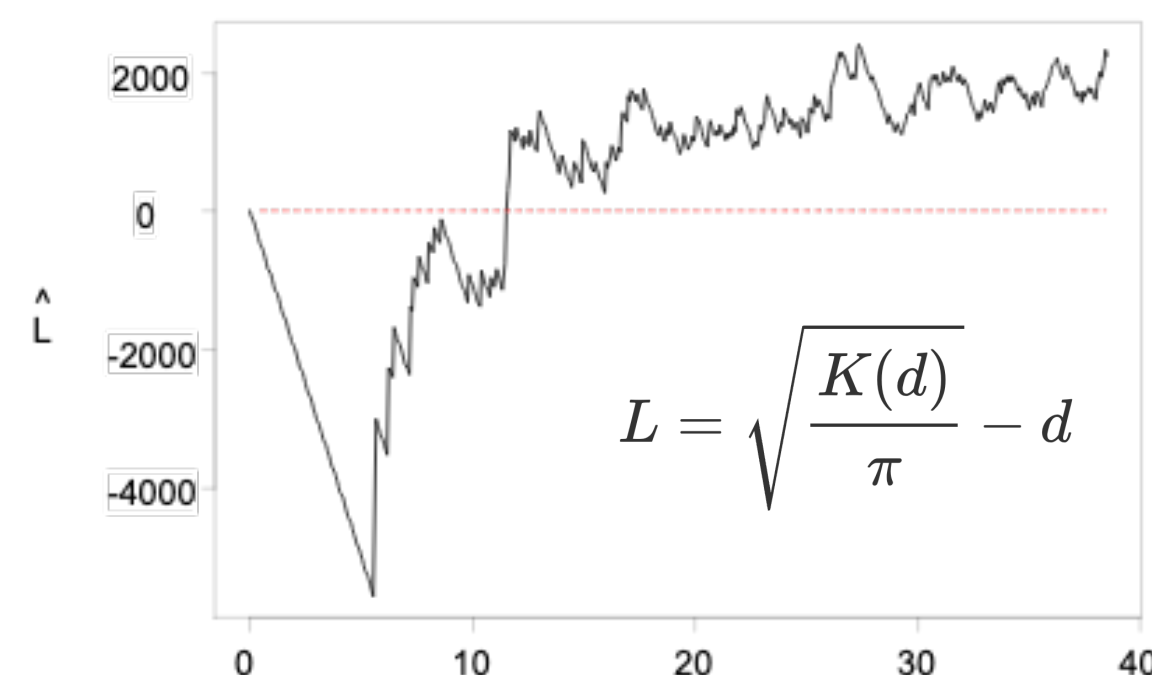


- The Pair Correlation Function g

not cumulative as K

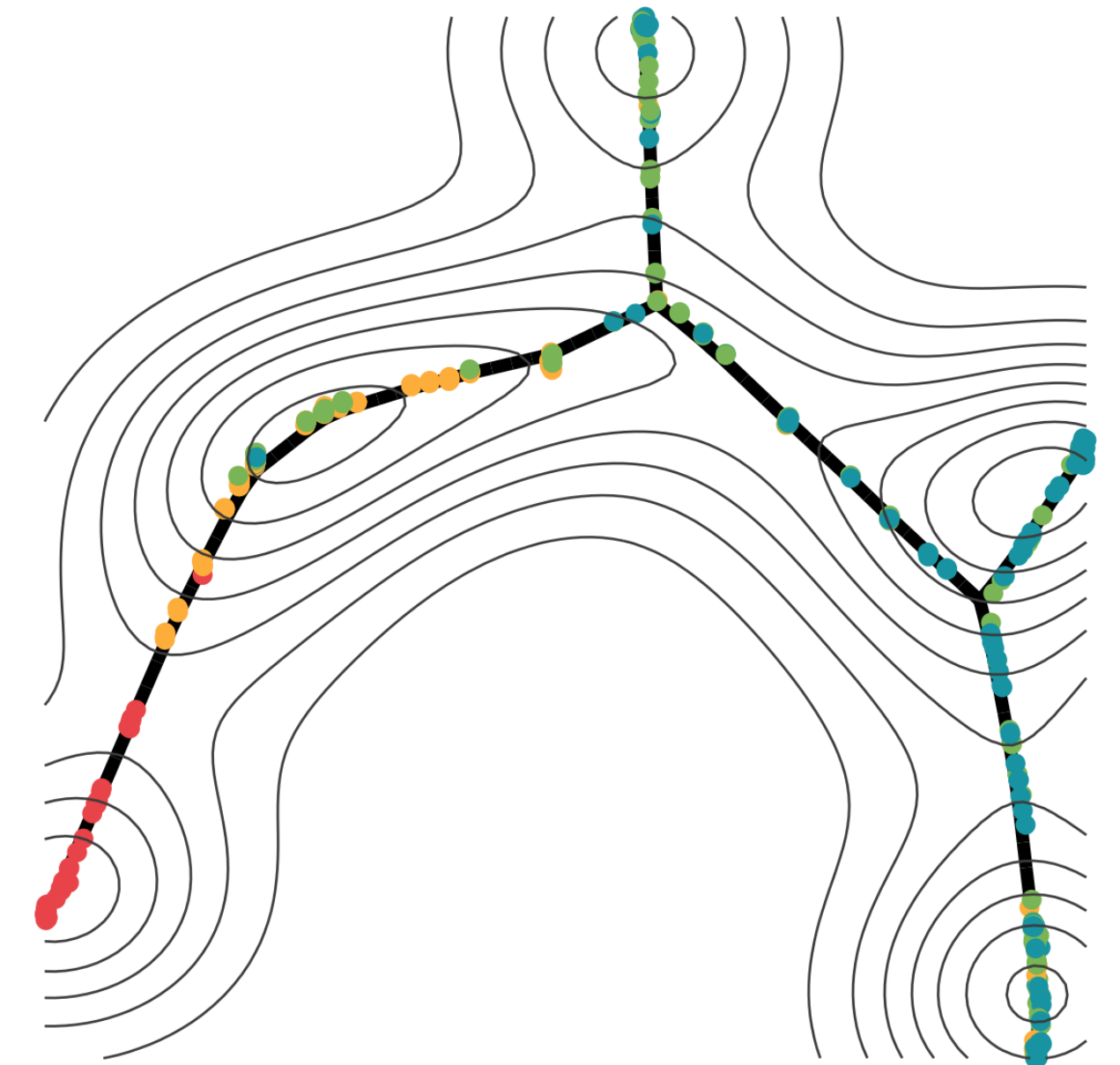


- L function



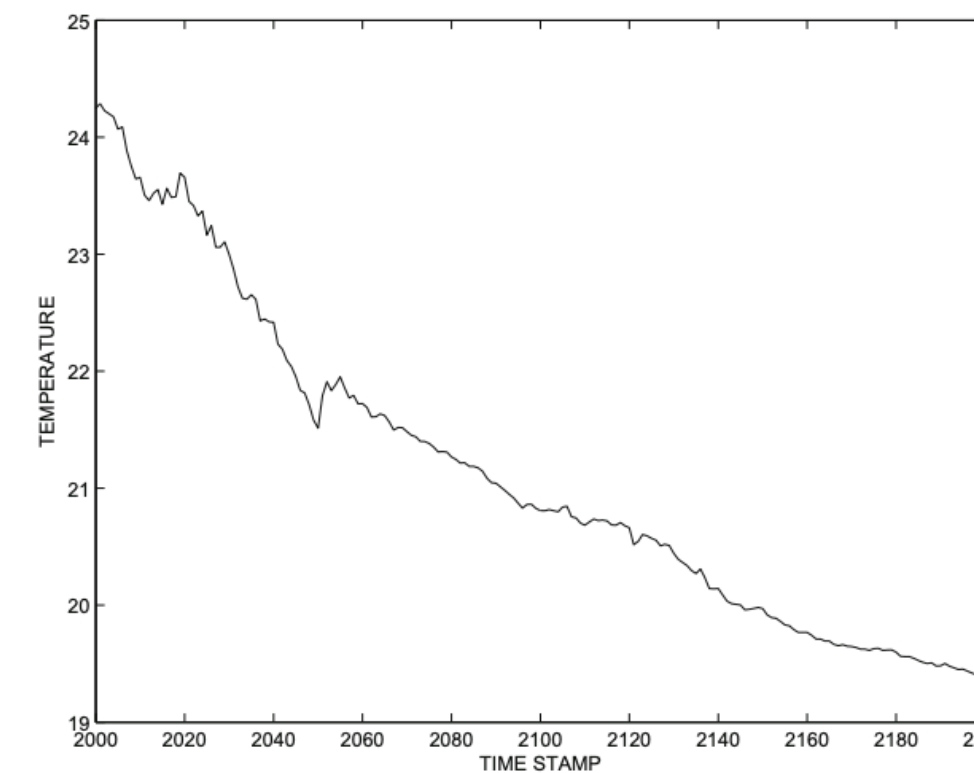
# Trajectory Analysis

- GPS-enabled devices, such as mobile phones, has enabled the large-scale collection of trajectory data.
- Trajectory data can be analysed for a very wide variety of insights, such as determining co-location patterns, clusters and outliers.
- Trajectory data is different from the other kinds of spatial data, because its key attribute is time -> it is spatiotemporal data.

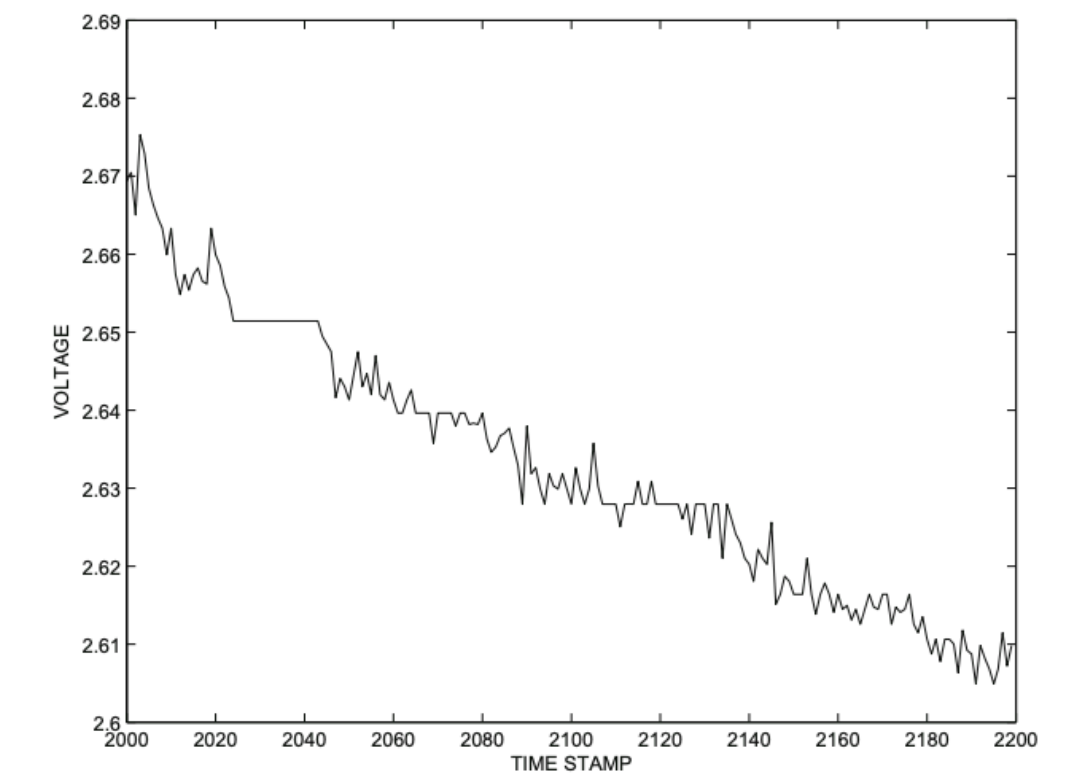


# Trajectory Transformation

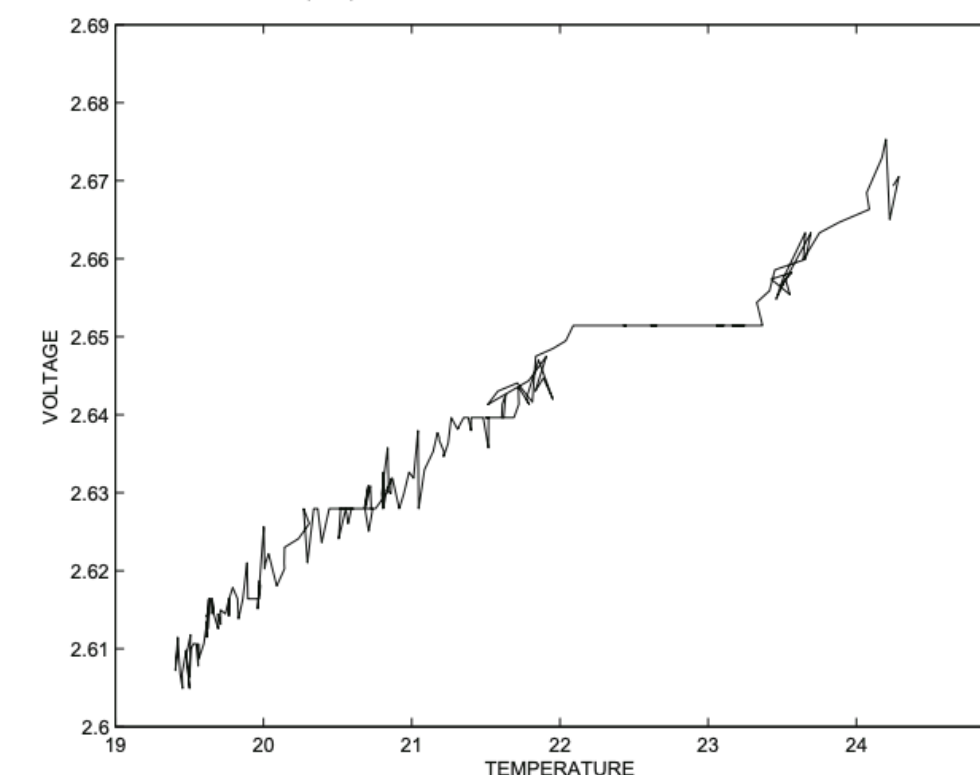
- Trajectory data is a form of multivariate time series data.
- For a trajectory in two dimensions, the X-coordinate and Y-coordinate of the trajectory form two components of the multivariate series.



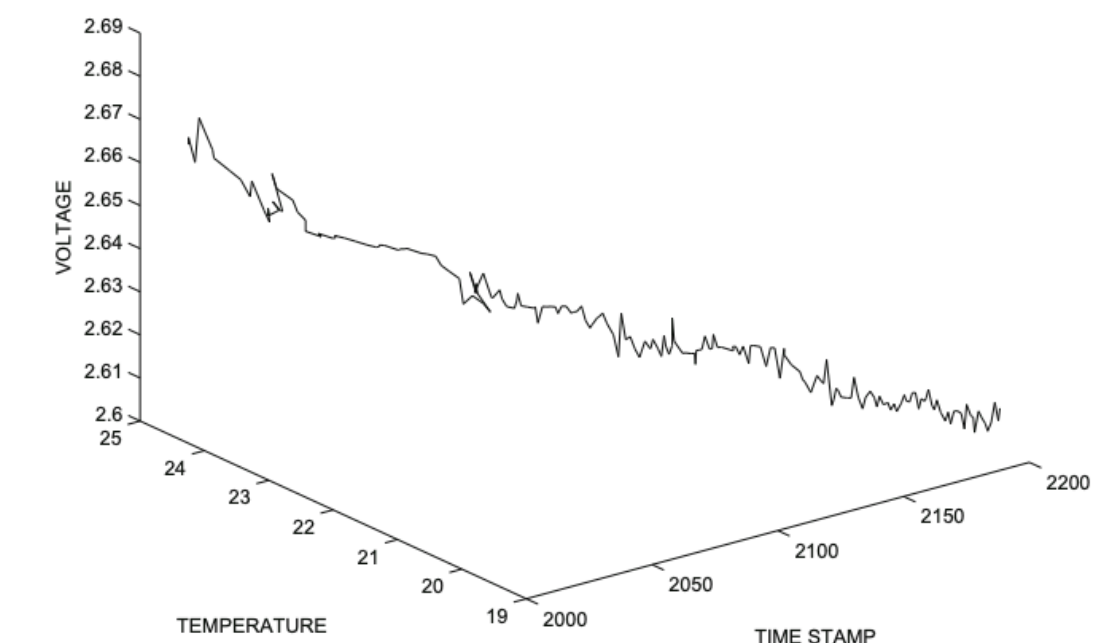
(a) Temperature



(b) Voltage



(c) Temperature-Voltage Trajectory

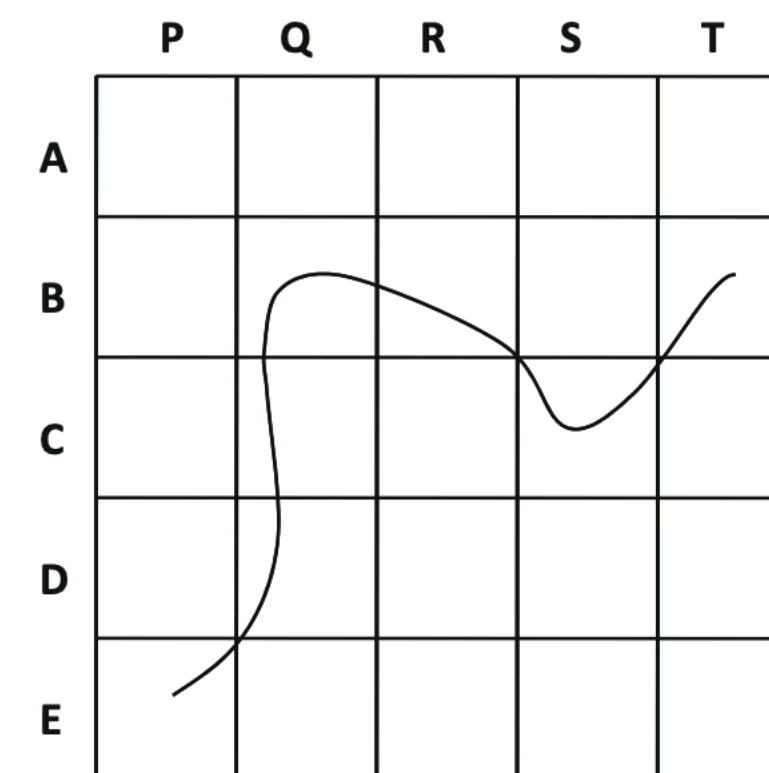


(d) Time-Temperature-Voltage Trajectory

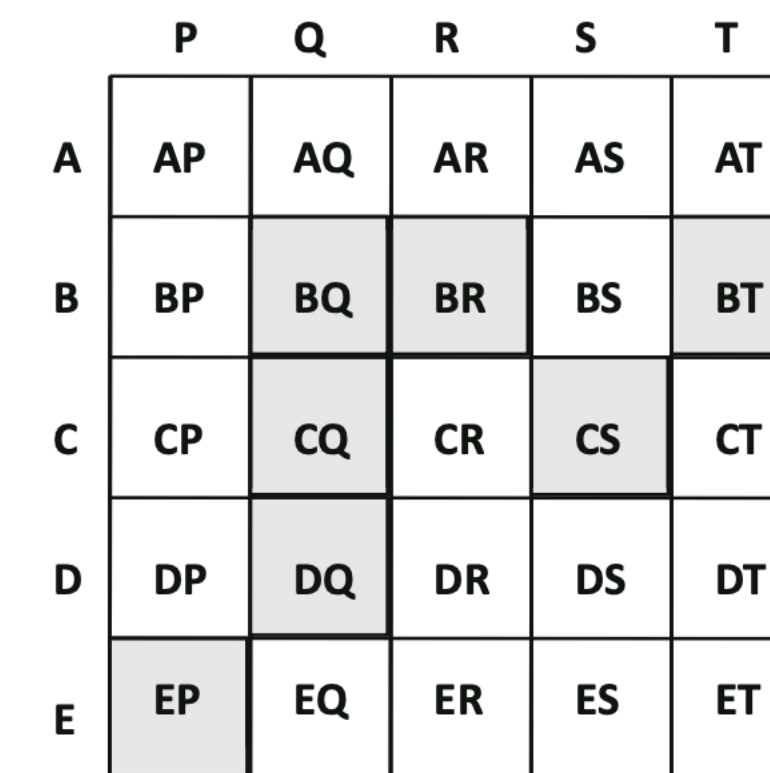
# Trajectory Pattern Mining

- Frequent Trajectory Paths

- Transform the multidimensional trajectory to a 1-dimensional discrete distance - *spatial tile transformation* (via grid-based discretisation, for example)
- Can apply any *sequential pattern mining* algorithm after
- Can also introduce time dimension - *spatiotemporal tile transformation*



(a) Trajectory



(b) Relevant grid regions

*EP, DQ, CQ, BQ, BR, CS, BT*

*EP : 1, EP : 2, DQ : 2, DQ : 3, DQ : 4, CQ : 5, BQ : 5, BR : 5, CS : 6, CS : 7, BT : 7*

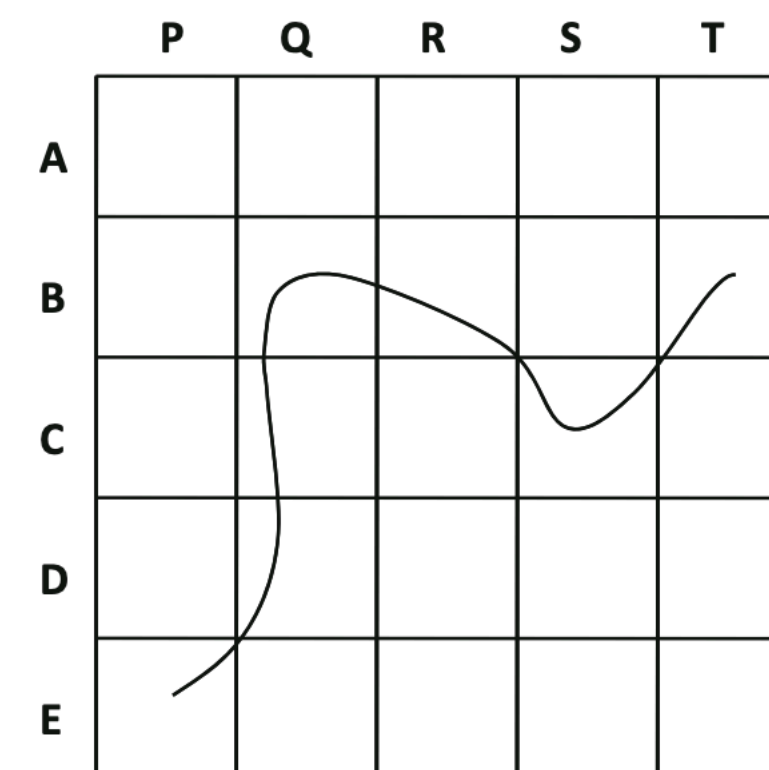


# Trajectory Pattern Mining

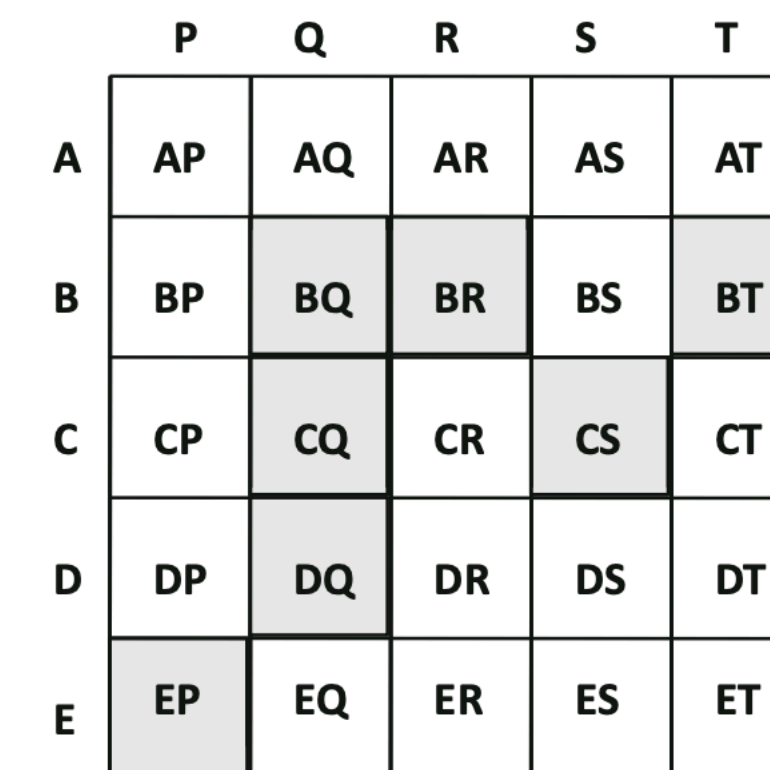
- Colocation Patterns

- Designed to discover *social connections* between the *trajectories of different individuals*: individuals who frequently appear at the same point at the same time are likely to be related to one another

- Can apply any *frequent pattern mining* algorithm after



(a) Trajectory



(b) Relevant grid regions

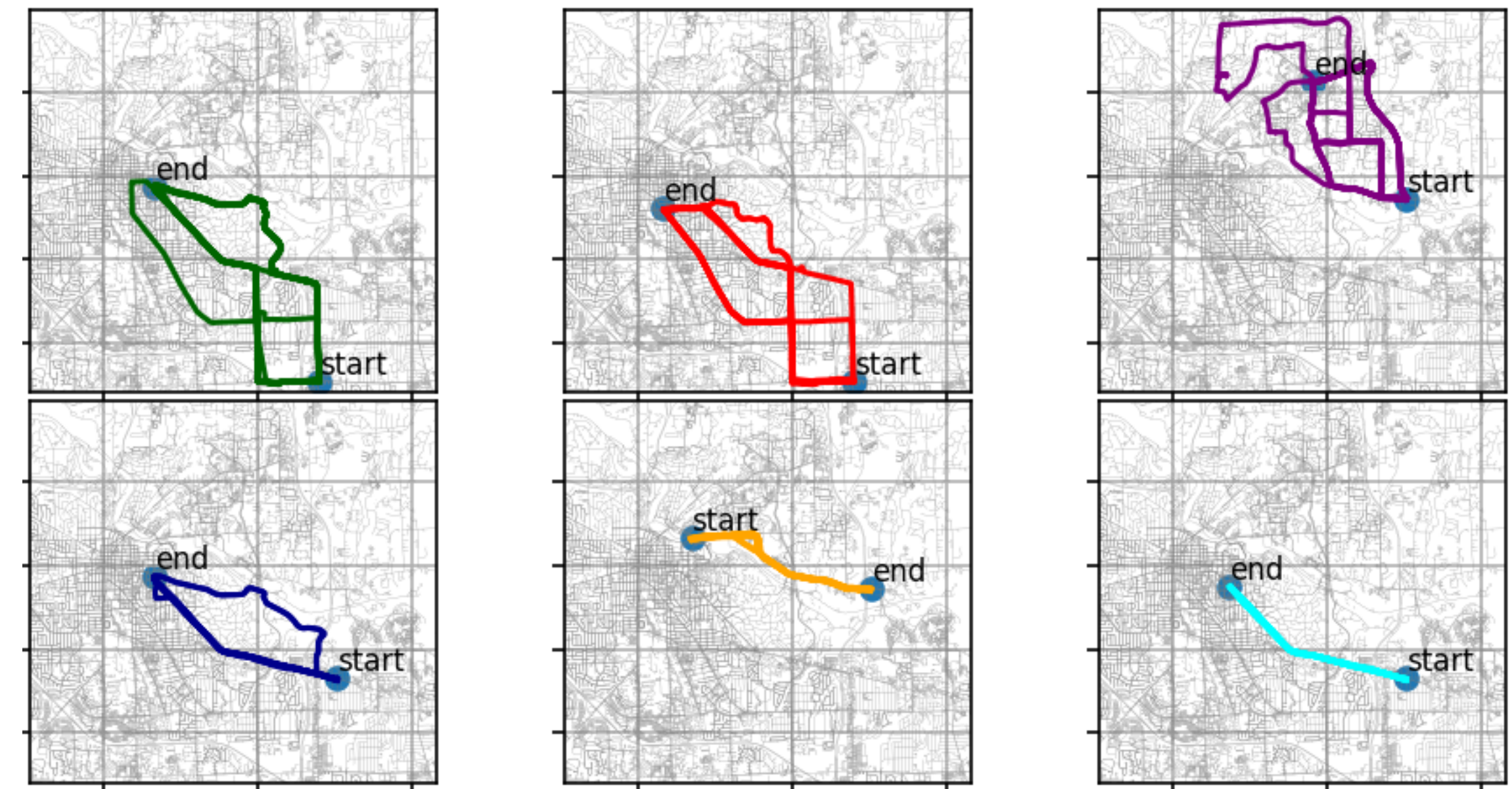
$EP, DQ, CQ, BQ, BR, CS, BT$

$EP : 1, EP : 2, DQ : 2, DQ : 3, DQ : 4, CQ : 5, BQ : 5, BR : 5, CS : 6, CS : 7, BT : 7$

$EP : 5 \Rightarrow \{3, 9, 11\}$

# Trajectory Clustering

- Conventional clustering algorithms, with the use of distance function between trajectories.
  - Once a distance function is defined, can apply k-medoids, graph-based methods, or others.
- Converting trajectories into sequences of discrete symbols.
  - Segment extraction, grid-based discretisation, etc.
  - After the transformation, pattern mining algorithms are applied to the extracted sequence of symbols.

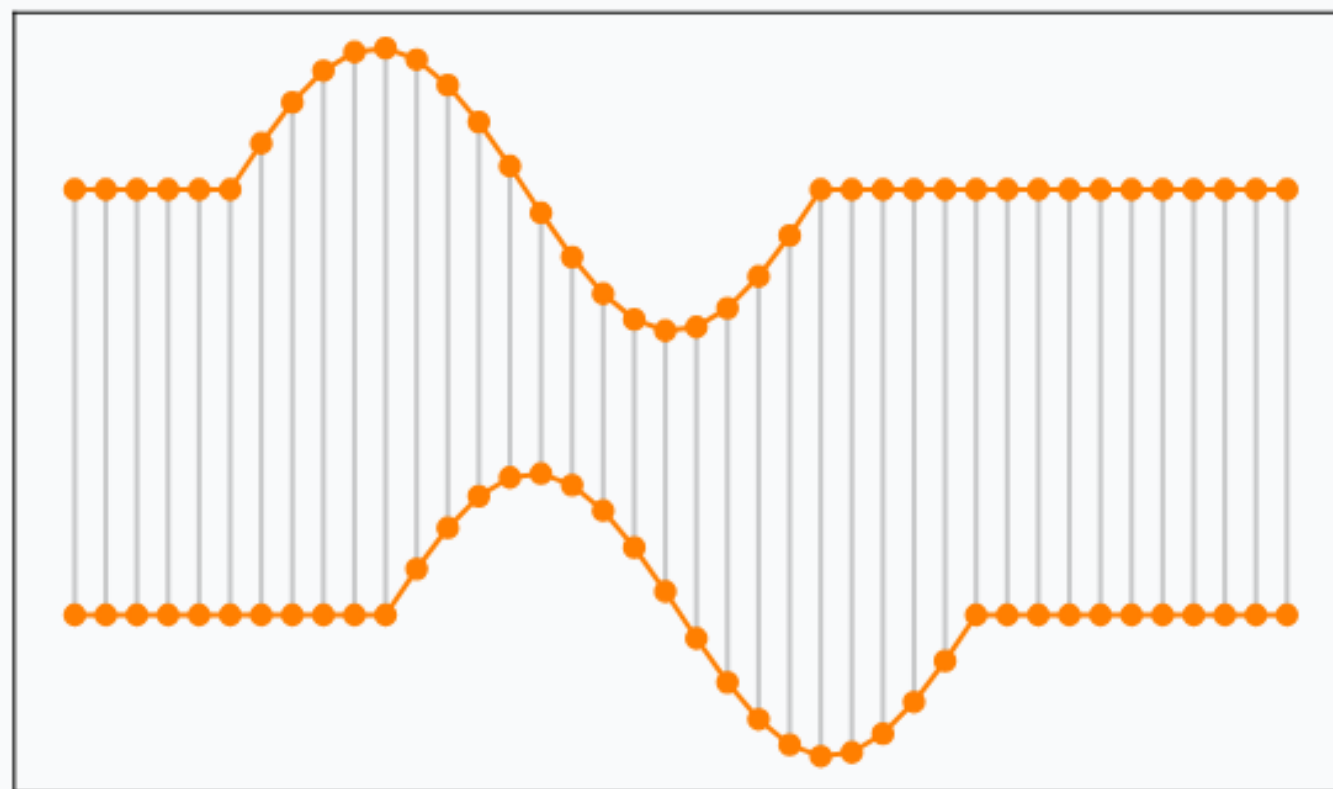




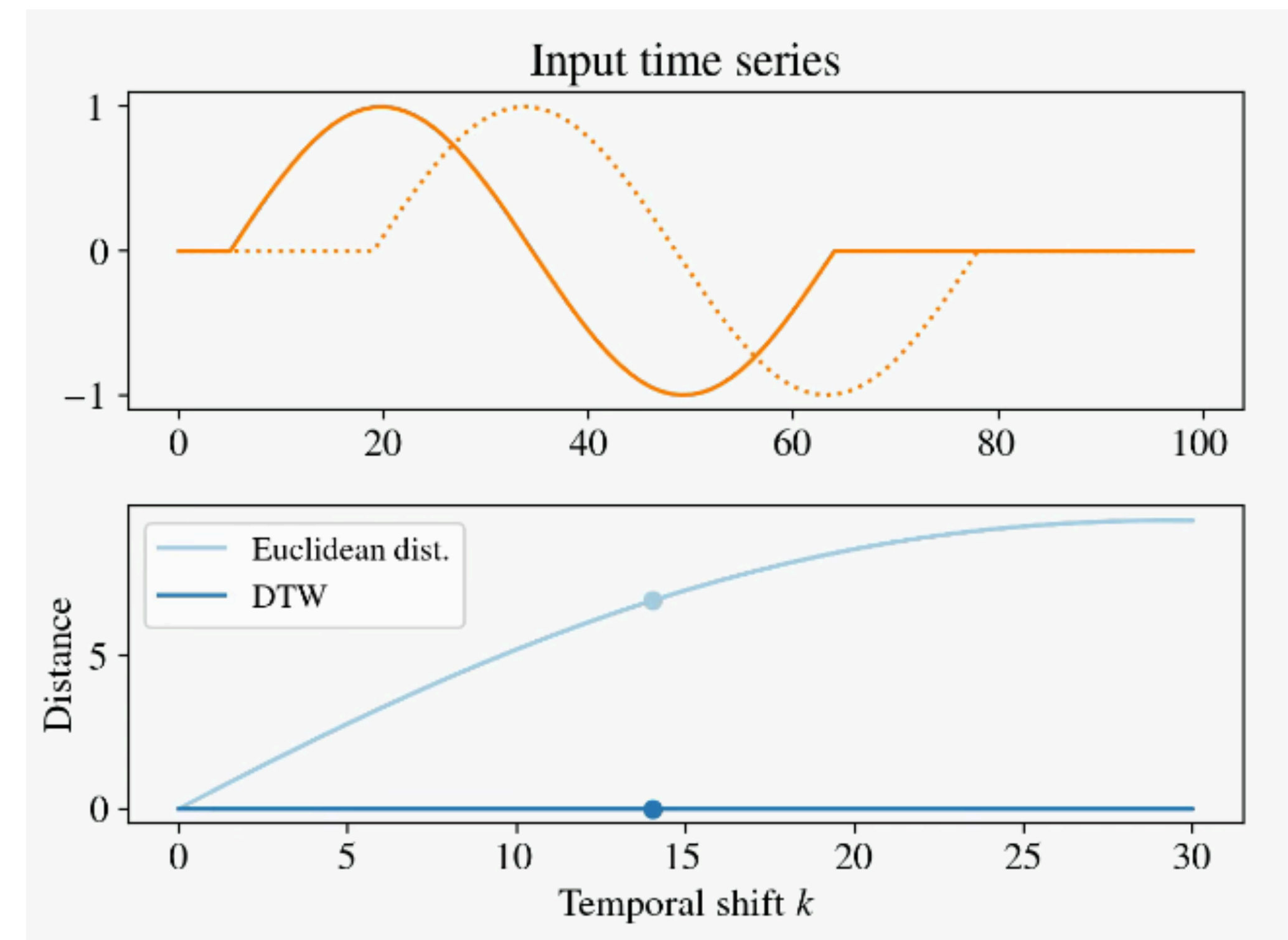
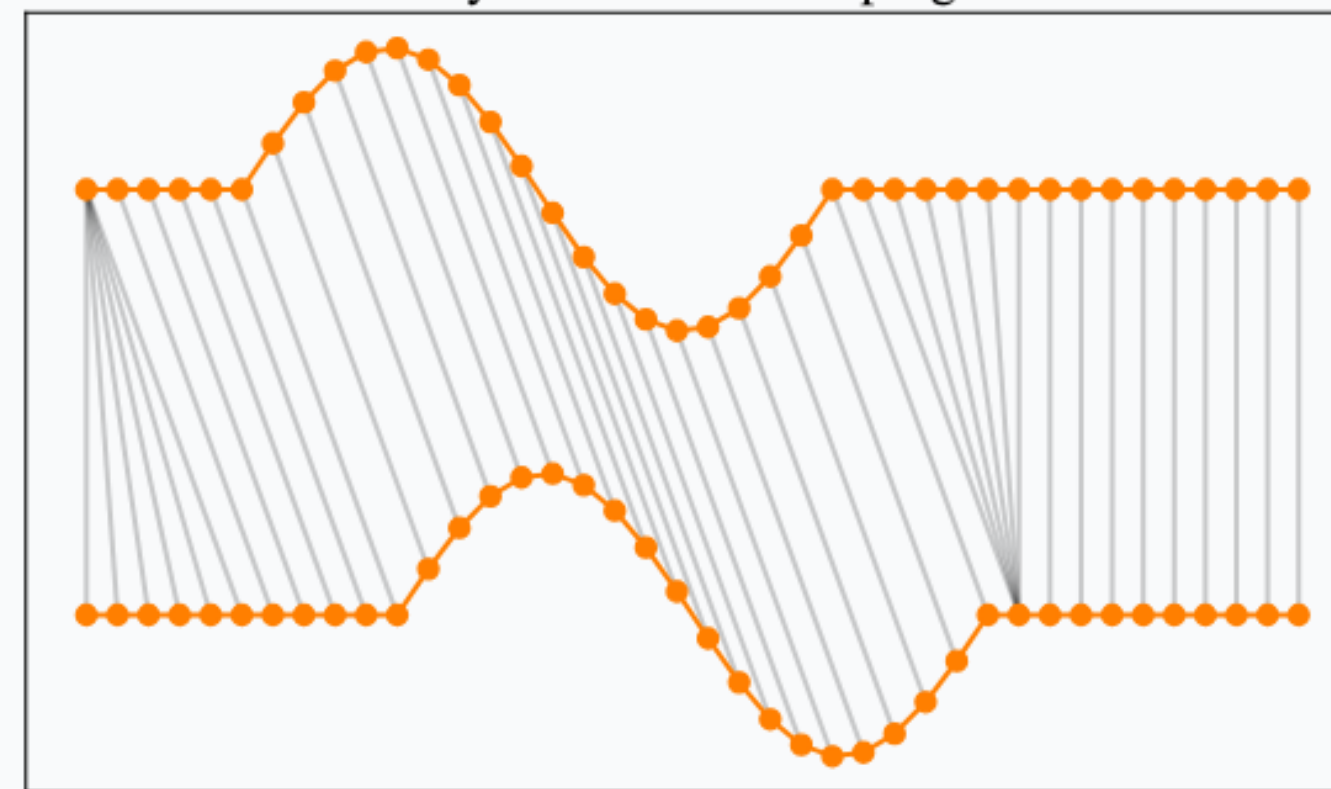
# Trajectory Clustering: Computing Similarity

- Similarity computation between trajectories is not very different from that of time series data.
- DTW - Dynamic Time Wrapping - seeks for the temporal alignment (matching between time indexes of the two time series) that minimises Euclidean distance between aligned series

Euclidean distance



Dynamic Time Wrapping



# Trajectory Clustering: Computing Similarity

- Similarity computation between trajectories is not very different from that of time series data.
- DTW - Dynamic Time Warping
- MDTW - multidimensional DTW - the only difference from the case of univariate time series data is the substitution of the 1-dimensional distances in the recursion with 2-dimensional distances.

$$DTW(i, j) = distance(x_i, y_j) + \min \begin{cases} DTW(i, j - 1) & \text{repeat } x_i \\ DTW(i - 1, j) & \text{repeat } y_j \\ DTW(i - 1, j - 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$MDTW(i, j) = distance(\overline{X}_i, \overline{Y}_j) + \min \begin{cases} MDTW(i, j - 1) & \text{repeat } \overline{X}_i \\ MDTW(i - 1, j) & \text{repeat } \overline{Y}_j \\ MDTW(i - 1, j - 1) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



# Trajectory Clustering: Clustering Methods

- Once we have a **similarity function**, can use any method directly for any data type (k-medoids, graph-based methods).
- Alternatively, if we opt to work with a sequence, then:
  - Use grid-based discretisation to convert the N trajectories to N discrete sequences (as shown in previous slides).
  - Apply any of the sequence clustering methods to create clusters from the sequences.
  - Map the sequence clusters back to trajectory clusters.
- One advantage of the sequence clustering approach over similarity-based methods, is that many of the sequence clustering methods can ignore the irrelevant parts of the sequences in the clustering process.

# Notebook 3

Point Pattern Analysis

Trajectory Mining

Trajectory Clustering

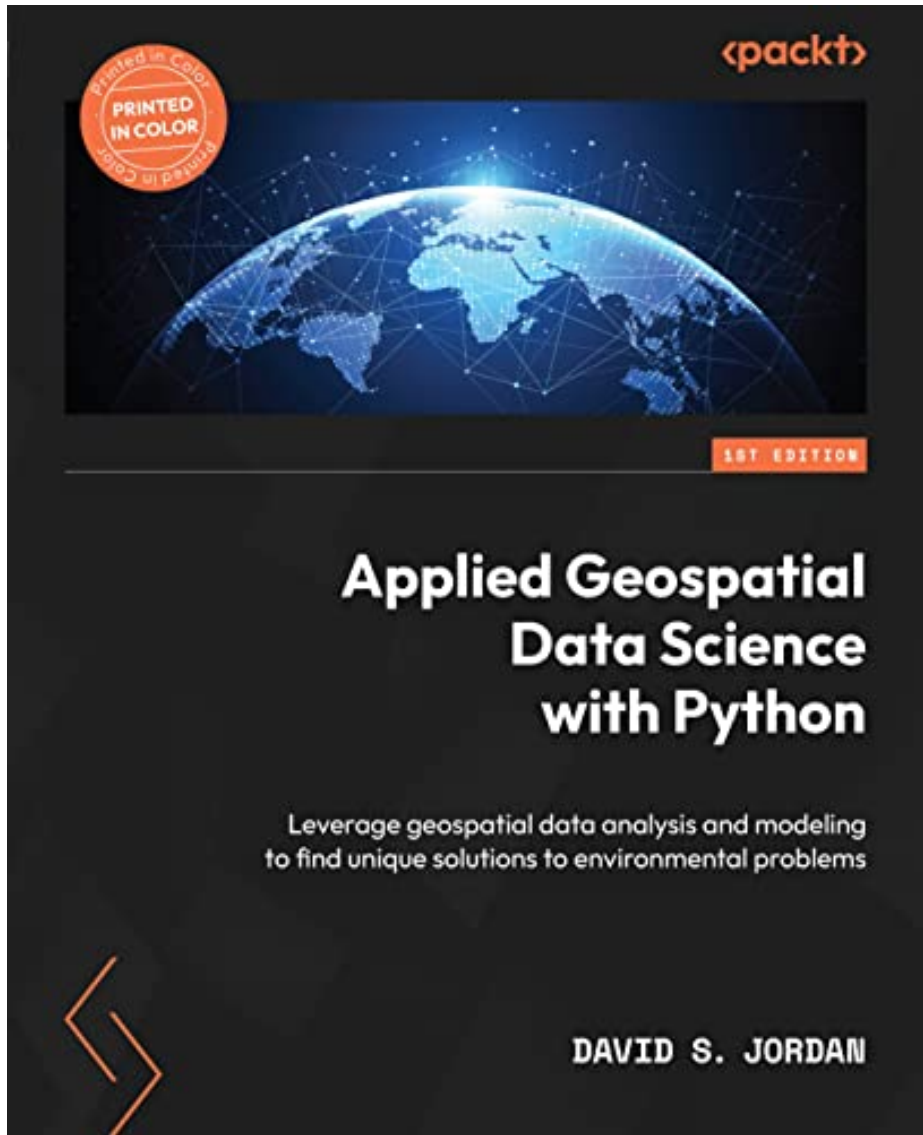
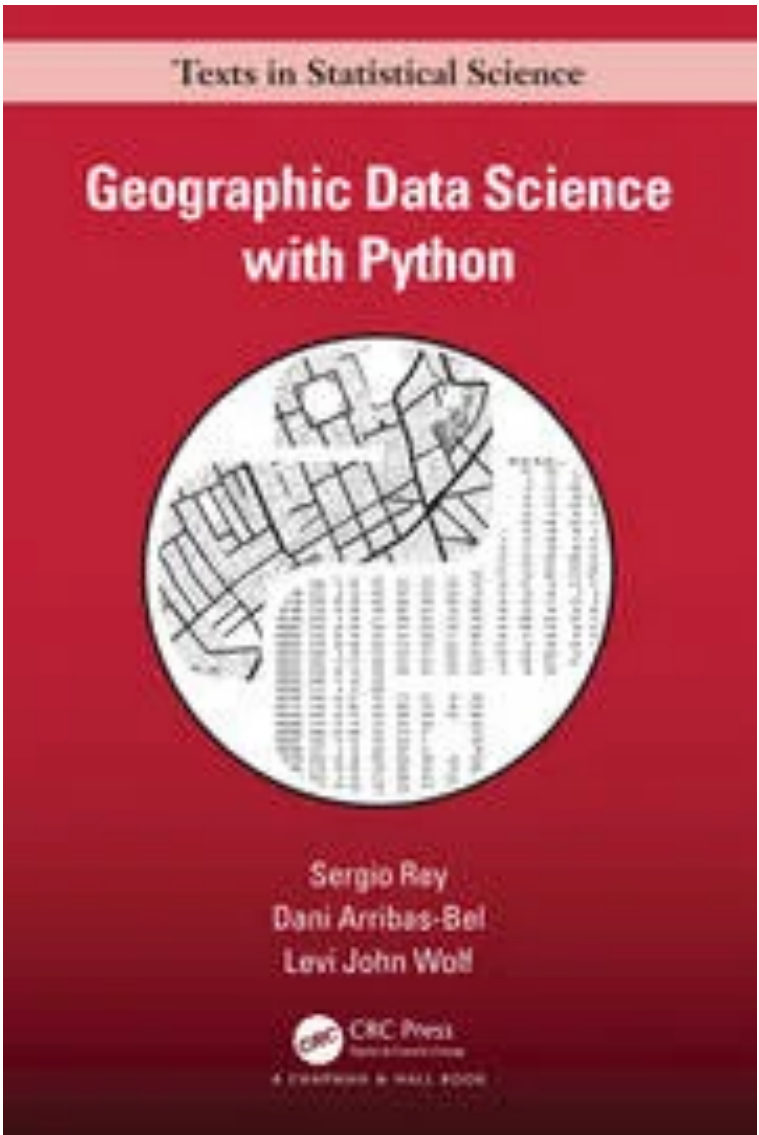
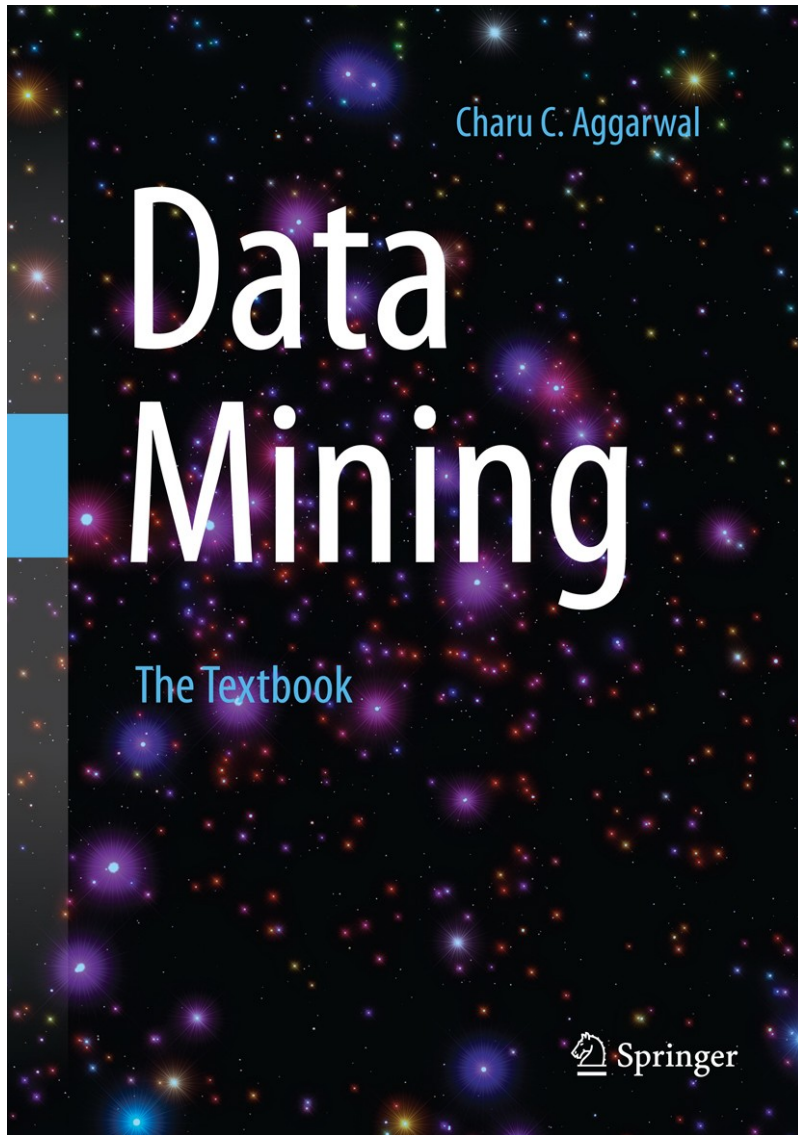
# Summary

In this lecture, the goal was to familiarise ourselves with the following concepts of Spatial Data Mining: **spatial data, spatial autocorrelation, spatial clustering, point pattern analysis, trajectory analysis.**

We also went beyond theoretical understanding and practiced the application of these concepts in **hand-on exercises in notebooks.**

The knowledge and skills acquired in this lecture have **broad-ranging applications**, from urban planning and environmental management to public health and transportation logistics.

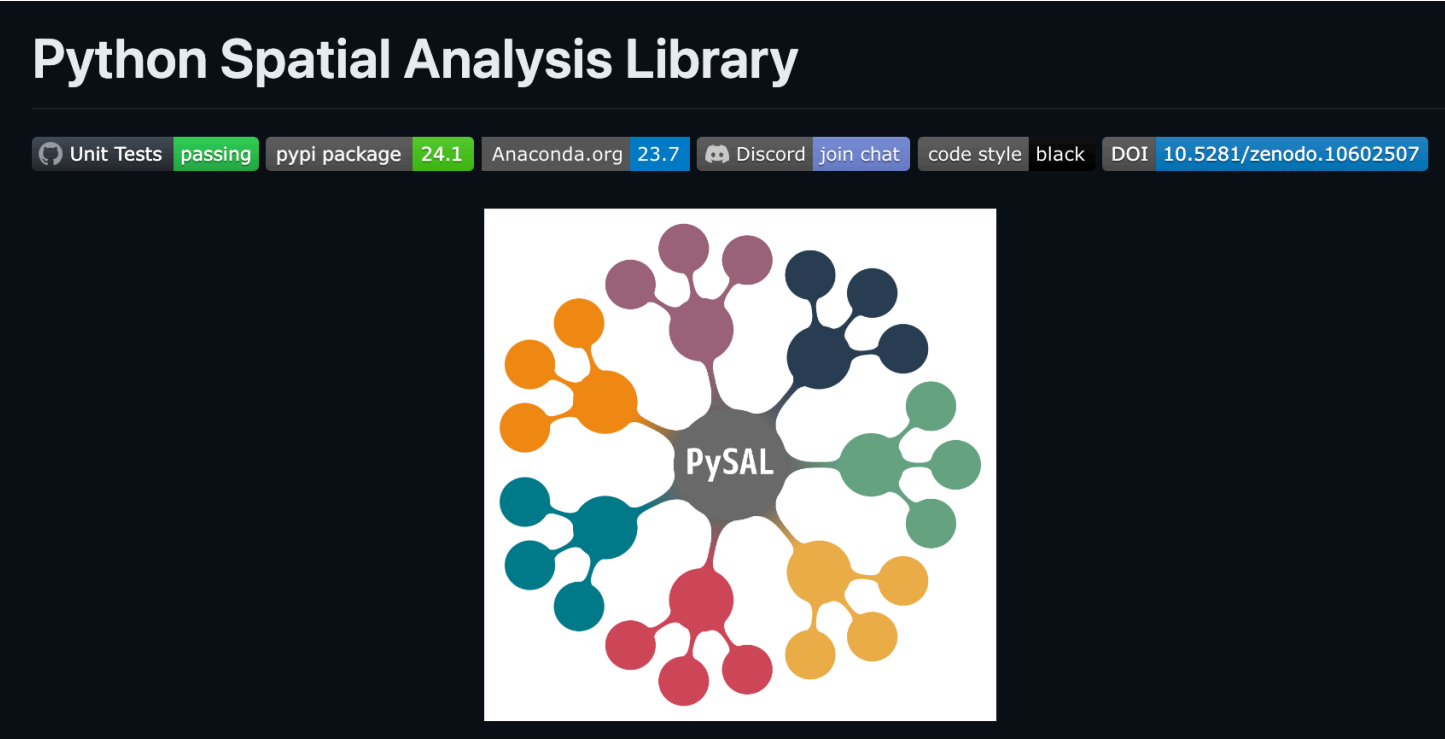
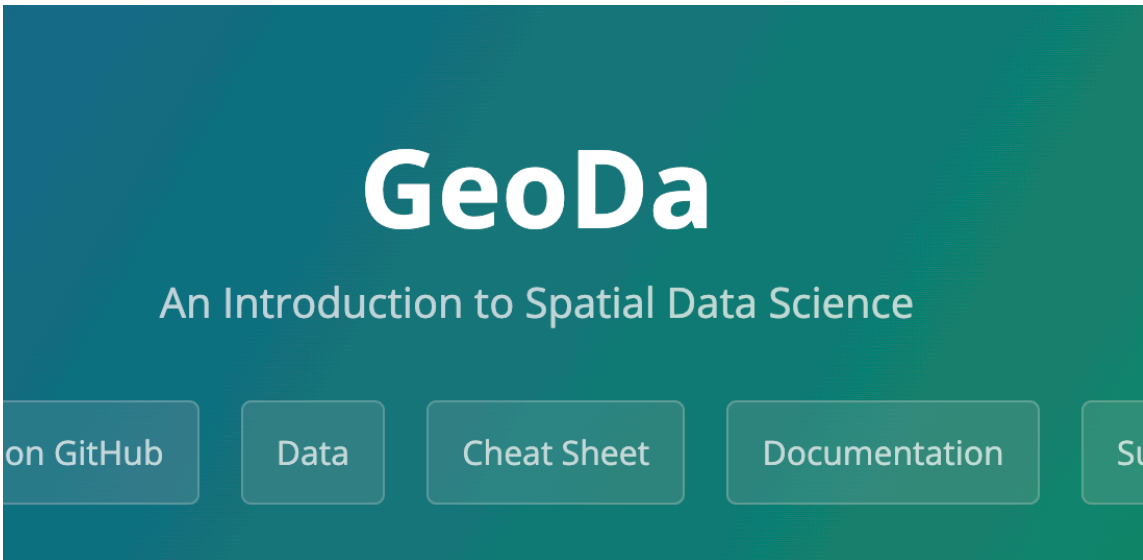
# Resources



## Intro to GIS and Spatial Analysis

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Last edited on 2023-12-15





# Questions?

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