

Foreword

Introducing *The Map Reader*

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Delineating maps and mapping

A map is, in its primary conception, a conventionalised picture of the Earth's pattern as seen from above.

Erwin Raisz, *General Cartography*, 1938.

Mapping provides a uniquely powerful visual means to classify, represent and communicate information about places that are too large and too complex to be seen directly, and cartography is the practice of making geographical maps. Importantly, the places that maps are able to represent need not be limited to physical, geographical spaces like continents, rivers, mountain ranges and such like: maps can be used to represent human activities, cultural patterns and economic exchanges, and indeed to construct worlds of the imagination. In this Foreword we delineate the nature of maps and mapping, and outline the aims of *The Map Reader* and the practicalities of its making.

The ability to create and use maps is one of the most basic means of human communication, at least as old as the invention of language and, arguably, as significant as the discovery of mathematics. The recorded history of cartography clearly demonstrates the practical utility of maps in all aspects of Western society, being most important for organising spatial knowledges, facilitating navigation and controlling territory. They are instrumental in the work of the state, in aiding governance and administration, and in assisting trade and the accumulation of capital. Some have gone further to argue that mapping processes are culturally universal, an innate human activity, evident across all societies (Blaut *et al.* 2003), although the visual forms of the resulting cartographic representations are very diverse. At the same time, maps are rhetorically powerful graphic images that frame our understanding of the human and physical world,

shaping our mental image of places and constructing our sense of spatial relations. So, in a very real sense, maps make our world.

Conventionally, maps are material artefacts that visually represent a geographical landscape using the cartographic norms of a planar view – looking straight down from above – and a consistently applied reduction in scale. However, it makes little sense to neatly define maps according to the type of phenomena mapped or the particular mode of presentation, or their medium of dissemination. Maps have traditionally been used as static paper repositories for spatial data, but now they are much more likely to be interactive tools displayed on a computer screen. Indeed, many national mapping agencies are discontinuing their printed topographic map products as customers increasingly use digital geospatial data. Today, we live in a map-saturated world (Wood 1992), continually exposed to conventional maps, along with many other map-like spatial images and media (e.g. animated satellite views on the television news, three-dimensional city models in video games, medical scans in hospitals and clinics), along with myriad artistically deployed maps, and pictorial and cartoon cartographies meant to amuse and persuade.

Maps have long been used in scholarly research into social and physical phenomena. They are a primary technique of analysis in geography but they are also used widely in other disciplines, such as anthropology, archaeology, history and epidemiology, to store spatial data, to analyse information and generate ideas, to test hypotheses and to present results in compelling, visual forms. Mapping as a method of enquiry and knowledge creation also plays a growing role in the natural sciences, in disciplines such as astronomy and particle physics, and in the life sciences, as exemplified by the metaphorical and literal mapping

1 of DNA by the Human Genome Project. This mapping
 2 work is not limited to cartography; many other spatial
 3 visualisation techniques, often using multidimensional
 4 displays, have been developed for handling very large,
 5 complex spatial datasets without gross simplification or
 6 opaque statistical output (e.g. volumetric visualisation in
 7 atmospheric modelling, three-dimensional body imaging
 8 in medical sciences or huge fractal graphs – see Colour Plate
 9 Two, page xx). At the start of the 1990s, Hall (1992: 22)
 10 claimed that ‘more mapping of more domains by more
 11 nations will probably occur in the next decade than has
 12 occurred at any time since Alexander von Humboldt
 13 “rediscovered” the earth in the eighteenth century, and
 14 more *terra incognita* will be charted than ever before in
 15 history’; two decades on not only has this happened, but
 16 the trend shows no signs of stopping.

19 **Mapping processes**

21 The production of cartography and other spatial visualisa-
 22 tions involves a whole series of mapping processes, from
 23 the initial selection of what is to be measured to the choice
 24 of the most appropriate scale of representation and pro-
 25 jection, and the best visual symbology to use. The concept
 26 of ‘map as process’ is useful methodologically because it
 27 encourages particular ways of organised thinking about
 28 how to generalise reality, how to distil inherent, meaningful
 29 spatial structure from the data, and how to show significant
 30 relationships between entities in a legible fashion. Mapping
 31 provides a means of organising large amounts of, often
 32 multidimensional, information about a place in such a fash-
 33 ion as to facilitate human exploration and understanding.
 34 Yet, mapping practices are not just a set of techniques for
 35 information ‘management’, they also encompass impor-
 36 tant social processes of knowledge construction. As schol-
 37 ars have come to realise, maps and culture are intimately
 38 entwined and inseparable.

39 Mapping not only represents reality, it has an active role
 40 in the social construction of that reality. Mapmakers do not
 41 so much represent space, as create it. As Winichakul (1994;
 42 excerpted here as Chapter 5.4) and Pickles (2004) persua-
 43 sively argue, maps precede and make the territory they seek
 44 to portray. So, for example, the first maps of Siam delin-
 45 eated the nation providing the model for an imagined
 46 community, rather than depicting it. Maps then are a key
 47 resource of states in the formation of national identity
 48 (Anderson 1991). It is rarely the case, however, that people
 49 are conscious of this constructive role when they make or
 50 use maps. Sparke (1998: 466, excerpted here as Chapter 5.7)
 51 calls this the ‘recursive proleptic effect’ of mapping, ‘the
 52 way maps contribute to the construction of spaces that

later they seem only to represent’. The power of maps
 comes from the fact that they are both a practical form
 of information processing and also a compelling form of
 rhetorical communication.

Maps work, essentially, by helping people to visualise
 the unseeable. This is achieved through the act of visual-
 isation, premised on the common notion that humans can
 reason and learn more effectively in a visual environment
 than when using textual or numerical descriptions. Maps
 provide graphical display which renders a place, a phe-
 nomenon or a process visible, enabling one of our most
 powerful information processing abilities – that of spatial
 cognition associated with the human eye–brain vision
 system – to be brought to bear. Visualisation is thus a
 cognitive process of learning through interactions with the
 multiple visual signs that make up the map. Effective
 cartographic visualisation can reveal novel insights about
 spatial relations, patterns and trends that are not apparent
 with other methods. In an instrumental sense, then, map
 use is a powerful prosthetic enhancement for the human
 body: ‘[l]ike the telescope or microscope, it allows us to see
 at scales impossible for the naked eye and without moving
 the physical body over space’ (Cosgrove 2003: 137). The
 ideal of obtaining a reliable capacity to see the unseen is
 particularly applicable to much of thematic cartography,
 because it renders statistical information about people,
 places and geographical processes tangible by revealing
 their spatial pattern.

Their ability to communicate effectively means that
 maps are widely deployed as devices to present ideas,
 themes and concepts that are difficult to express verbally
 and to persuade people to their message. Most of the maps
 encountered on a daily basis (often with little conscious
 thought given to them) are used in the service of persua-
 sion, ranging from marketing maps and city-centre tour-
 ist maps to the more subtle displays such as states’ claims
 to sovereign power over territory, implicitly displayed in
 daily weather maps. Maps work because they are able to
sell a particular vision of the world *and* because people
 are willing to *buy* into this vision because they believe in
 the authority of the image as a trustworthy representation
 of reality.

Objectives of *The Map Reader*

The map is one of the key components of visual culture
 and has proved to be a vital representational technology
 in many fields for hundreds of years. Maps enjoy wide-
 spread functional use for a range of tasks. In recent years,
 maps have started to gain more significance in the wider
 academy given the visual and spatial turns across the

1 social sciences. As a consequence, there is an increasing
 2 interest in spatial representations and mapping practices in
 3 disciplines such as anthropology, literary studies, sociology,
 4 history and communications (Elkins 2007; Warf and Arias
 5 2008). Similarly, mapping approaches are proving useful
 6 in the information sciences, bio-informatics and human-
 7 computer studies as the basis for novel knowledge discov-
 8 ery strategies (Börner 2010). In addition, there is also a
 9 lively engagement with cartography beyond academia
 10 with growing artistic interest (see Wood 2010 for a recent
 11 overview), numerous exciting participatory mapping pro-
 12 jects and mass consumer enrolment of interactive spatial
 13 media on the Web, on mobile phones and with in-car
 14 satnavs to solve myriad daily tasks.

15 However, despite this attention and their widespread
 16 production and use, at a theoretical and analytical level,
 17 maps are still somewhat taken for granted: they are spatial
 18 representations that portray the spatial relations of the
 19 world. As such, analysis of the rhetorical power and
 20 technical complexity of how maps work has largely been
 21 confined to the small field of cartography, with some
 22 contributions from across the social sciences and human-
 23 ities. Compared with other visual cultures, such as art and
 24 film, this literature is relatively small and, we feel, often
 25 overlooked. In compiling *The Map Reader* we wanted to
 26 draw together into a single source some of the most
 27 influential articles from the last half century to provide
 28 an intellectually-driven and interpretative anthology of
 29 cartographic research which could act as a primer for
 30 students, academics and lay readers interested in under-
 31 standing the appeal and power of maps.

32 In that sense, the book will help cut through the
 33 ‘information overload’ generated by bibliographic data-
 34 bases and ready online access to e-journals and digital
 35 books by providing direct access to a careful selection of
 36 the most influential texts. The materials selected for inclu-
 37 sion in *The Map Reader* are diverse in their agendas and
 38 approaches, drawn from leading scholars and researchers
 39 from a range of cognate fields, including cartography,
 40 geography, architecture, anthropology, literature, political
 41 science, graphic design and geomatic engineering. Each
 42 reading provides a thought provoking analysis, and col-
 43 lectively they demonstrate the diverse philosophy, history,
 44 praxis and technologies of mapping. They thus provide an
 45 insight into how influential cartographic ideas arise and
 46 how they circulate as catalysts that can codify and instigate
 47 important areas of research within cartography. While the
 48 focus on past ‘classics’ might seem rather backward looking
 49 in an era of such rapid change in mapping techniques and
 50 technologies, there is nonetheless real intellectual value
 51 understanding the roots and routes of cartographic think-
 52 ing because it places current developments in context and

provides a basis on which to build and extend contempo-
 rary analysis.

To aid the reader, we have structured the readings
 around five broad themes: (1) concepts, (2) technologies,
 (3) aesthetics and design, (4) cognition and culture, (5) pol-
 itics and power. Each theme is set into context by an
 original interpretative essay from the editors. A series of
 full-page colour plates between sections present distinctive
 map exemplars that we hope will serve as provocative visual
 ‘think-pieces’ that counterpoise the surrounding texts.

Making our selection

The task of drawing up a limited, yet definitive, list of
 significant work for inclusion in a ‘reader’ text that would
 achieve widespread agreement is, for any academic disci-
 pline, an almost impossible one. We therefore acknowledge
 our final selection for *The Map Reader* is subjective, reflect-
 ing our personal biases, partial knowledge and political
 agendas. To guide our selection we used a number of
 parameters. Firstly, we decided to focus on the post Second
 World War period. This period has seen a diverse range of
 new theoretical ideas and technological developments, and
 cartography emerged as a distinct scholarly discipline with
 its own peer-review journals. Secondly, our remit centred
 upon pieces that were concerned in the main with con-
 temporary mapping. There is only a limited consideration
 here of the history of cartography. Thirdly, we limited
 our selection to the English language given our own
 language limitations and the prospective readership of
 the book. As a consequence, the book is unavoidably reflect-
 ive of Anglo-American scholarship. Fourthly, we sought
 to select material that speaks in a scholarly fashion to
 trends and concepts, rather than include more applied,
 technical and practical papers. Fifthly, nearly all of the
 readings were published in peer-review journals and schol-
 arly monographs.

We did not, however, use quantitative metrics to
 guide the assessment of what counts as ‘significant’.
 There is a panoply of projects that seeks to ‘scientifically’
 assess the most significant scholarly work using citations
 counts, impact factors, h-scores and an assortment of other
 quantitatively derived metrics. While such calculative
 approaches seem to offer objectivity, this is very much a
 veneer that masks a whole host of messy realities, fallacies
 and contingencies with citation data, particularly relating
 to relative comparability through time and across subject
 areas. The material we have selected for *The Map Reader* has
 a range of citation counts from over one thousand to more
 recent articles which have so far attracted little attention.
 For example, according to Google Scholar (July 2010),

1 the foundational semiological work of Jacques Bertin has
 2 been cited 566 times in the original French language
 3 version, and 1341 times in the 1983 translation (excerpted
 4 here as Chapter 1.2). Another well-cited ‘classic’ article in
 5 this collection is *Deconstructing the Map* by Brian Harley
 6 (excerpted here as Chapter 1.8), with well over 500 cita-
 7 tions since its publication in 1989. A few of the pieces we
 8 have included have, as yet, negligible numbers of citations
 9 (e.g. Aitken and Craine’s 2006 article in *Directions Mag-*
 10 *azine* cited only seven times so far; excerpted here as
 11 Chapter 3.10). We have included such pieces because we
 12 think they have something important to contribute and
 13 are worthy of a wider audience.

14 While the material in *The Map Reader* covers a wide
 15 time span – nearly 60 years – running from 1942 up to
 16 2010, there is an uneven spread of material selected and
 17 we are perhaps guilty of overlooking earlier and signifi-
 18 cant work. Styles and conventions of academic discourse
 19 evolve and the pace of change in mapping tends to focus
 20 attention on the more recent past. Looking at the dates
 21 of the pieces included grouped by decade (Table F.1)
 22 it is somewhat evident that there is a bulge of material
 23 post 1990. This is reflective of the notable upsurge in
 24 philosophical engagement given the influx of social theory
 25 into cartographic debates and the explosion of new
 26 mapping technologies given the growth of digital cartog-
 27 raphy. Given that we wanted to cover a wide range of
 28 topics it has meant that none could be covered in depth;
 29 not all the issues are as well represented as perhaps needed
 30 and, consequently, many important topics are repre-
 31 sented by a single piece of work (in some cases this is
 32 unavoidably a placeholder for larger subfield). Clearly
 33 in these cases, these articles cannot encompass the full
 34 complexity and nuances of on-going debates. We hope
 35 that our introductory essays will help provide some
 36 additional context.

37
38
39 **Table F.1** Count of excerpts in *The Map Reader* by
40 decade in which they were first published
41

Decade	Count
1940–1949	1
1950–1959	2
1960–1969	3
1970–1979	4
1980–1989	6
1990–1999	23
2000–2010	15
<i>Total</i>	<i>54</i>

Editorial practicalities

In terms of the editorial process we have employed in *The Map Reader*, working within practical constraints of an affordable and commercially viable book, has meant that the pieces included are mostly reprinted as excerpts rather than verbatim. For monographs, we have generally excerpted from a single, most pertinent chapter. Where material has been deleted from the original this is indicated in the text by [...]. In some cases sizable edits have been made, but we have endeavoured to preserve the core intellectual argument as well as the narrative flow of the original, whilst removing extraneous examples or more elliptical context.

Each entry has been reformatted for consistency and to remove variability in the layout and referencing style evident in the original versions. The degree of standardisation, particularly the switch from footnote citations to Harvard style referencing in some excerpts, has necessitated some very minor changes to the texts themselves (insertion of references). Bibliographies have been edited from the originals to include only the references used in the excerpted text. Spelling has generally been standardised to British English. Some tables and figures have been omitted (to save space and for copyright reasons), so the numbering of these sometimes differs from the original. Many of the original illustrations included have been faithfully redrawn for this book by Graham Bowden (Cartographic Unit, University of Manchester) to ensure higher quality reproduction than scans of the originals.

Conclusion

Over the past fifty years there has been a sustained scholarly engagement in thinking about the ontological bases of cartographic representation and an exploration of new epistemologies of mapping. Moreover, there is burgeoning interest from many scientists, social scientists and humanities disciplines in theorising the nature of cartography and productively applying mapping and geographic visualisation to solve research problems. This coupled with tremendous socio-technical developments in the production of cartographic representations has led to a widening and more vibrant array of different kinds of mapping being employed by scholars. We hope *The Map Reader* will further advance understandings of cartography by illustrating the ways in which maps have been thought about and researched and that it will encourage a wider appreciation of where mapping has come from, and perhaps where it might go.

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