About PoRT
Nielsen Perspectives on Retail Technology (PoRT) is a biannual publication that tracks technology trends significant to retail. It has a rotating editorship of Nielsen experts who use each edition to showcase a major trend, such as big data, in a series of in-depth articles. These are accompanied by a more diverse set of snapshots on trending or interesting topics.

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The digital revolution is changing shopping, transforming marketing and creating a vast array of new data sources. All that data gives us the opportunity to get to know consumers and shoppers like never before; we can know in great detail what they bought, get more clarity on why they bought it, and better understand how we can improve our products and marketing.

The sheer volume and variety of the data can seem overwhelming and our industry is wrestling with how to harness it all to find insights and drive action. So how do we do that?

This edition of Perspectives features articles on three closely connected enablers that will help us answer that question.

“The Product Reference Data for Digital Business” outlines the key to understanding what the data is about and how to link different data sets together. Reference data is changing, and richer, standardized reference data can be a tremendous analytic resource.

“Wrangling Data in a Big Data World” discusses how data integration has advanced beyond the standardized, repeatable integration of a few key sources. It’s increasingly about meeting the needs of the citizen data scientist, who uses varied data to solve business problems.

“Humans in the Smart Machine Age” takes a closer look at machine learning and provides examples of how technology can give us the productivity we need, whether that’s scaling the capture of vast quantities of information or automating much of the data wrangling work so the data scientist can focus on finding meaning in the numbers.

At Nielsen we are investing in each of these areas. Enriched, normalized product reference data will help us unlock untapped analytic potential, for example in giving a deeper understanding of how innovation affects growth. Making data integration easier and more systematic is the key goal of Enrichment Studio, a critical utility in our Connected System. And machine learning is helping us to get all that product coding done quicker and more economically.

We are excited to share what we have learned on our journey. I hope you enjoy the articles and find them stimulating and helpful as you work through these questions in your own business.

Neil Preddy
A year after Google and Apple first opened the doors of their app stores, they stocked 65,000 apps; less than a decade later, there are over 1.5 million apps to choose from. This explosive growth reflects a shift from software houses to citizen developers, and from large multi-functional programs to apps that do one thing supremely well. These days, whatever the problem, “there’s an app for that.”

The great strength of the app approach is also its weakness. An app store offers 30 times more apps than the largest supermarket has products. It’s no surprise that “app fatigue” has set in. Even if a user can find the app they need, they still have to download it, configure it and (most importantly of all) remember to use it before it gets lost in the mass of other apps already on their device.

The most frequently and universally used mobile apps are messaging and social media. It is no coincidence that these “destination” apps aspire to become fulfillment hubs for all of a user’s needs: social interaction, news, shopping, transport and more. The hub provides a single interface to the back-end services for a myriad of companies (taxi firms, retailers, takeout restaurants, hotels, transport authorities and so on), eliminating the need to have hundreds of “apps for that” on a mobile device.

How will fulfillment hubs do their magic? The dominant user interface of the last two decades, the graphical user interface (GUI), works well for programs and apps; but a GUI is a closed system, and isn’t flexible enough to support the broad and constantly evolving range of interactions required of a hub. Fortunately there’s already an app for that: language. Companies such as Google, Facebook, Amazon and Apple are making big bets that the future of human-computer interaction is the conversational interface.

Conversational interfaces let a user perform tasks by chatting with their device using speech or text. They use a combination of natural language processing, artificial intelligence and machine learning to work out what the user wants to do and to learn from experience. Contextual
information such as the user’s location and contacts is also key, so requests like “send Mom some flowers” can be fulfilled without a long dialogue about who Mom is, where she lives, her taste in flowers and which florist to use. Conversational interfaces are already capable of carrying out simple commands (“turn on the TV”), though they can be less impressive when attempting more complex tasks. Ordering a pizza through a conversational interface can be more like sitting through a multiple choice exam than chatting with an artificial intelligence.

Nevertheless, things are bound to improve. The CPG industry is just coming to terms with e-commerce and the need for search engine optimization. If conversational commerce takes off, companies will need to prioritize conversation optimization instead, so they can ensure their brand is the one chosen when the user makes a generic request for a “taxi” or a “pizza.”

GEOLOCATION: VIRTUAL GETS (MORE) REAL

Jorge Luis Borges’ short story “On Exactitude in Science” describes a guild of cartographers so obsessed with representing every detail of geography that they create a map of their empire that is, by necessity, exactly the same size as the empire itself.

Philosophers have long insisted that “the map is not the territory”—in other words, we should not confuse models of reality with reality itself. The irony of Borges’ story is that the life-size map becomes reality and is lived in by animals and people, just like the real world.

The Internet of Things has created a rapidly growing army of devices capable of participating in location-based services. At the same time, locatable personal devices such as smartphones have become ubiquitous amongst many consumer groups. The Global Positioning System (GPS) used by satellite navigation systems has been supplemented by technologies that are easier to customize and localize, such as Wi-Fi nodes and Bluetooth beacons, and these have been installed in areas of interest such as retail stores. In short, geolocation has become cheap, personal and pervasive. We are accelerating towards a point where, at least for location information, our virtual model of the world is as detailed and complex as the physical world itself.

It seems certain that the ability to superimpose the real and virtual worlds will drive innovation in the retail space. Even today it is relatively easy for a smartphone to remind you to pick up your prescription when you pass close to the pharmacy, or to turn down the thermostat when you drive away from your house.

One of the simplest uses of geolocation in retail is to send promotions to a customer’s smartphone when they enter a neighborhood, mall, store or even a particular aisle in a store. And because a consumer’s phone is individual, the offer can be personalized as well as hyper-local. That’s impressive, but the greatest value of geolocation is not in “Where’s Wally” apps, but in bringing the sort of advanced analytics that are easy to do in e-commerce to brick-and-mortar stores.

Geolocation makes it possible to record the number, frequency and length of customer visits to a store. This can be combined with exposure to online, print and billboard advertising to measure ad effectiveness. Metadata about shoppers can be used to segment them, and the retailer can analyze whether an offer brings people into the store, if the footfall results in more sales, and so on.

When geolocation comes of age, it will offer an unrivaled means of analyzing and influencing consumers on their path to purchase; the rewards—for both the seller and the consumer—are potentially huge. The only problem that will remain is ensuring salespeople don’t cross the line between helpful and creepy.
MEET WATSON, RESEARCH ANALYST A.I.

Bob Dylan likes to sing about machines: references in his songs range from the “doom machine” to the “heart attack machine” to how he “doesn’t want to turn into some machine.” But in a recent commercial featuring Dylan, a disembodied voice dissects his body of work, informing him that his lyrics focus on how time passes and love fades and how he would like to work with him on his next song. That voice belongs to the IBM artificial intelligence Watson, which is one of the best examples among many attempts to attain a utopian state of artificial intelligence: a machine that can think and learn over time, a technological version of enlightenment.

Watson might not be at the level of artificial intelligence that we see in science fiction or film, but it understands natural language, is able to learn from experience (after initial training) and can organize what it learns into a conceptual framework. In other words, it has the traits that in theory would allow it to interact intuitively with a human. Nielsen and IBM are working together to try to bring Watson’s capabilities into a solution that could combine structured and unstructured data, answering not just the “what” questions but also the “why.” To do this, Watson will need to ingest large volumes of structured Nielsen data, train itself on the data, and define ontologies and user “intents” (the type of questions that would be asked by the user) along the way. Unstructured and semi-structured data, such as Twitter, econometrics and weather, could be combined with Nielsen’s structured data to allow Watson to learn the influences on the distribution and consumption of consumer goods.

Imagine a world where the market research analyst either types or speaks a question in their own vernacular and starts a dialogue with Watson. To better understand how a specific brand is performing, for example, the analyst might ask which stores are still showing good results despite a decline in overall performance across the country. Watson could then provide an overlay of how social media correlates with the brand performance, citing negative sentiments on Twitter as examples. All of this happens in a seamless dialogue with various supporting visualizations ranging from graphs to geographical maps to simple tabular data, as appropriate.

Occasionally Watson might ask questions to clear up any ambiguity in how the question was phrased or because there was an intent it had not learned. Most importantly, it would catalog that new intent for future reference, growing its intelligence. With an ever-expanding knowledge base, it will eventually find bits of information that the human user did not think to ask about or even knew existed—and come another step closer to that elusive utopian state of artificial intelligence.

THE DEATH OF THE PASSWORD?

When public clouds first emerged, there was a lot of skepticism about the security of these environments. In response, cloud providers enabled their customers to configure sophisticated security policies and access controls, and to create virtual private clouds. After the initial misgivings, these state-of-the-art capabilities forged a consensus that the best cloud environments are at least as secure as on-premise data centers, if not more so.

But the cloud has not eliminated security problems entirely. Any system is only as secure as its weakest link. Cloud platforms, just like on-premise systems, need to be accessed and controlled by users, who are typically armed with only a username and password.

It is remarkable, given recent advances in technology, that usernames and passwords are still our primary authentication mechanism. Most users have an estimated 100 or more password-protected accounts, and that number continues to climb. Some users will make sure they choose a unique password for each of their accounts and use a password manager, which they carefully secure, to keep track of them. But faced with a multiplicity of log-ins, many users endlessly recycle passwords and use sticky notes as their database.
Multi-factor authentication has been around for a while and provides a partial solution to this problem: in order to login, a user needs to enter both their password and a one-time-use code generated by an application on their mobile device or delivered by SMS.

This type of multi-factor authentication is only a partial solution to the problem, however. The value of IT is its ability to make life easier for users, whereas many of the currently popular security practices seem to make life harder: frequently changed and hard-to-remember unique passwords, multi-step log-in processes and separate security devices or apps. All of these seem designed to infuriate users rather than empower them—a clear sign that the technology is heading in the wrong direction.

There is growing evidence that companies are learning this lesson; the increasing use of fingerprint and facial recognition as a means of authentication on mobile devices is one indication. Google has already rolled out their reCAPTCHA technology, which analyzes the way a user interacts with a checkbox to reliably determine whether that user is a human or a bot. Other vendors want to use patterns of user interaction, such as speed and rhythm of typing, as personal identifiers. Looking further ahead, companies are investigating combining multiple unobtrusive authentication mechanisms, including biometrics such as face shape and voice recognition, with the way you interact with your device by typing and swiping. Taken individually these factors are not a reliable means of identification; the facial recognition software built in to many Android phones is significantly less accurate than a fingerprint scanner. However many believe that combining multiple weak identity indicators could provide considerably more accurate authentication than a single strong indicator, such as a fingerprint.

Google is investigating this approach with its Trust API, which it is testing with several financial institutions—an indication of the potential of the approach. The API is interesting because rather than giving a yes or no response to whether the user is the person they claim to be, it provides a confidence level. If the confidence level is too low for the importance of the task the user wants to undertake, the Trust API can ask for further authentication through biometrics or a password.

BRINGING BACK OF PACK TO FRONT & CENTER

Market research has traditionally concentrated on analyzing sales: identifying trends and diagnosing their root causes. With the advent of advanced analytics and big data there's an increasing interest in predicting and prescribing sales behavior; it is ultimately still all about product sales. But our current culture begs the question: Why aren't we more concerned about analyzing the products themselves?

Products and their packaging have come under increased public and government scrutiny recently. The most obvious example is cigarettes: legislation in several countries has evolved from cigarette packs with warnings on them to packs with horrific pictures of smoking-related illnesses, and culminated in plain packaging with no branding at all.

Legislation mandating that nutrition facts must be on labels, as well as prominent on-pack indicators for major health markers such as salt, sugar and fat, is even more common. There have been calls for labels to show how much exercise would be needed to burn off the calorie content of the food inside. In order to “create and promote healthier food choices,” the global food manufacturer Mars is updating the information on its website to distinguish between everyday products and products that are only for “occasional” consumption because of their salt, sugar or fat content.1

Product information is ripe for analysis, and many in the consumer packaged goods industry are aware of this potential. Some retailers are looking to analyze their inventory to understand, for example, the split between everyday and occasional products so they can tailor inventory to their shoppers’ needs and their corporate values. And with an increasing proportion of millennial shoppers who are

1 http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-36051333
health-conscious, environmentally responsible, and want to understand what they are eating, “back of pack” information is becoming increasingly important. The same information can also fuel innovation, helping manufacturers spot trends or gaps in the market based on ingredients, packaging, health claims, flavors and more.

Product information is also the foundation of B2C shopping personalization platforms like Chuze and Mobify. These platforms let users keep a shopping list that they can easily maintain, for example by snapping a picture of an empty carton. The experience is enriched by connecting product information to sales and directing the consumer to the nearest store selling the item they want.

Sales data will remain the foundational measure of market research, but digital commerce will continue to broaden the variety of data needed to give a 360-degree, past, present and future view of a brand. Historically underrated product information will be an important part of that picture.

**COMING SOON TO A CITY NEAR YOU**

In a few years, it’s likely that every streetlight in a major city will have its own IP address. Technology companies see Internet-enabling streetlights as a first step to integrating cities into the digital world: streetlights are ubiquitous, are connected to the power grid, and have a bird’s-eye view of the street below. Equipping them with sensors both helps save energy (by ensuring they only light up when a person or vehicle approaches) and allows them to monitor traffic flow and parking spaces. A city management system that had access to this data would be able to optimize rush hour traffic.

But smart cities are about much more than streetlights—the game plan is to connect and measure every aspect of city life from utilities and buildings to streets and citizens. There are experimental investments in smart cities across the globe, and the reason is obvious: combining real-time data from omnipresent sensors with machine learning and advanced analytics has the potential to revolutionize the way cities operate—by improving asset utilization, reducing waste, controlling pollution, responding to the weather, dynamically pricing assets such as parking spaces, and much, much more.

For the consumer, it’s likely that the smart city will further blur the distinction between their online and offline worlds. Connected personal devices, such as mobile phones, will have an infinite number of touchpoints with the city, generating a vast amount of data about the consumer’s behavior and preferences. The smart city could be another factor in driving the move away from consumers buying products to buying services. This move can be seen in the home, where a trip to the store to buy laundry detergent is being replaced by technologies such as the Amazon Dash button, which automate replenishment for the consumer. In an equivalent out-of-home experience, the smart city would alert a retailer that a customer’s parking ticket was about to expire, allowing the retailer to warn the customer or even pay to extend their parking so they could complete their purchase.

Smart cities have the potential to affect many areas of life; within the retail space alone, there is huge potential for revolutionary changes that would benefit the consumer, retailer and manufacturer alike. In the short-term, however, the stumbling block is the Internet of Things, which is not yet mature and consists of a set of walled gardens belonging to different manufacturers. Industry standards and protocols are needed to connect walled gardens into a single, logical ecosystem. At the same time, the issues of data security, privacy and ownership need to be addressed to the full satisfaction of consumers. Once this is achieved, it will be possible to create an Internet-of-Things data marketplace. Of course the full potential of the data will be driven by the analytics running on top of it, but it will be a start.

This Internet-of-Things data marketplace would make it possible to extend customer service: spotting potential failure early, initiating a product recall, offering new products or services, replenishing stock and more. Smart cities are yet another aspect of the Internet of Things that is inexorably shifting the focus away from selling products to selling services and experiences.
The world used to be simple: stores were buildings made of bricks and mortar that sold an inventory of a few thousand products during regular business hours. The software needed to run the store wasn’t quite so simple: it comprised multiple independent systems (for warehousing, distribution, electronic point of sale and so on), each with its own view of a product determined by the task it performed. Harmonizing and reconciling these different views wasn’t trivial, but it wasn’t rocket science. Innovations, such as the universal product code, machine readable barcodes and RFID\(^1\) tags, combined with enterprise resource planning and master data management software helped enormously. By the end of the 20th century, the operations of many retailers were so streamlined that they were able thrive on razor-thin margins. It was difficult to imagine how retailing could be made more efficient.

\(^1\) Radio frequency identification.

The digital revolution changed all that. E-commerce retailers created Web shops that were open 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Consumers quickly embraced the convenience of e-commerce—in 2015 over 15% of discretionary spend in the U.S. was through online shopping,\(^2\) and the proportion continues to grow. Traditional retailers had no option but to open e-commerce Web sites and provide e-commerce apps. These operations were often in a business unit separate from the brick-and-mortar stores, and consequently had their own product master data with a new set of product information to be reconciled. In the past, a lack of harmonization was only a frustration for the retailer; in the digital world, inconsistencies in product information are immediately visible to the customer. Shoppers quickly came to expect a seamless omnichannel experience, in which products are

described and identified identically in-store, online, in a mobile app and in proximity-driven promotions delivered direct to their smartphone.

Retailers are working hard to ensure the issue of duplicate master data management is a controlled and diminishing one. Unfortunately that’s the smallest and most tractable problem faced by the technologists responsible for managing product reference data in the retail space.

**PRODUCT INFORMATION IN AN E-COMMERCE WORLD**

The biggest problem reference data management faces in a digital economy is the sheer number of products that need to be curated.

As well as providing 24x7 shopping, e-commerce retailers are able to offer a huge inventory of products in endless aisles. They aren’t limited by their capacity to build and stock physical stores in multiple locations; they fulfill orders from a small number of warehouses or even direct from the manufacturer. A small brick-and-mortar consumer goods retailer has an inventory of about 5,000 products; a Walmart supercenter tops out at about 142,000 products. In contrast, Amazon’s inventory in the U.S. exceeds 480 million products. The product coding problem in an e-commerce environment is multiple orders of magnitude larger than in brick-and-mortar retail.

Not only is the number of products to be coded huge, they don’t stand still. Products are evolving faster than ever before (“new and improved”, “best recipe ever”), and new product characteristics (low salt, organic, low fat, no artificial ingredients, sustainable, low environmental impact and so on) are constantly being introduced. The fast-moving consumer goods category alone adds over 300,000 new products a month worldwide, with 2.5 million more products showing some form of evolution. These changes all need to be reflected in updated product information.

Product coding has to be carefully curated to ensure that product information is standardized, complete, of high quality and useful to the business. This has traditionally been a resource-intensive clerical activity that can only be done by subject matter experts.

Because clerical product coding depends on scarce expertise, slow-moving goods are often coded to a limited degree of detail; for example, a golf club might be identified as simply “sporting goods”. This was acceptable when advertisements could only be targeted by age and gender demographics: demographics and “sporting goods” are at a broadly similar level of granularity. Now, personal mobile devices make it possible to tailor advertisements to the individual consumer. It’s no longer good enough to know that a consumer purchases “sporting goods”—it’s critical to know that he buys golfing equipment and shows no interest whatsoever in football. In short, the bar for the amount of detail required to code a product just got raised across the store.

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5 According to Nielsen metrics
The volume and rate of change of products that need to be coded, along with the level of granularity at which they must be coded, means that the clerical methods of maintaining product reference data that worked well for traditional retail cannot scale to e-commerce; they are too costly and too slow.

RICH PRODUCT INFORMATION

The product master data challenge in the digital world is not only a matter of the volume and rate of change of product information, but also its richness. The barcodes, textual descriptions and characteristics that served the industry well for the last 25 years are still necessary, but no longer sufficient.

The barcodes, textual descriptions and characteristics that served the industry well for the last 25 years are still necessary, but no longer sufficient.

Consumers buying online want a 360-degree view of the product they are purchasing. Who is going to buy a $500 TV with a detailed text description of its specifications, if they can get an equally trusted brand for the same price that they can view from four angles, study the inputs and outputs visually, and watch a video offering additional information about the model? We also know that consumers today are interested in the nature and provenance of their food as never before, looking for descriptors like “organic,” “sustainable,” and “vegetarian.” Depending on the type of product, they may also expect to find FAQs, instructions, technical specifications, awards, recipes, reviews and more. To be fit for purpose, product reference data needs to encompass all of this information.

For international companies, product descriptions need to be in multiple languages and recognize differences in culture and laws. In addition to geographic differences, the defining characteristics of a product vary depending on whether you are manufacturing, warehousing, distributing, marketing, retailing or purchasing it. These different views need to be reconciled and integrated. Attempting to apply a single view across the product lifecycle—most frequently the one used by the finance department—does not work. Not only does product data have to be richer, but to be universally applicable it has to support many different views of the same thing.

SILOED AND INCOMPLETE PRODUCT INFORMATION

This is enough of a headache already. But product information is not simply developed and maintained to support sales; it is crucial for analyzing how the product is performing, most especially in comparison to its competitors.

Manufacturers maintain the master data for the products they create, and can do this better than anyone else. Similarly, retailers maintain master data for the products they stock, though they need help from manufacturers to ensure that the data is accurate, complete and up-to-date.

The problem is that product information is siloed between organizations that need to interoperate to be successful. For the purposes of analysis, it also needs to be complete. But, for obvious reasons, most retailers and manufacturers focus only on the products they sell or make. This means that they have product data that is great for monitoring their internal processes, but cannot be used to compare their performance against other brands or external benchmarks, or for product innovation.
BIG DATA SOLUTIONS TO BIG PRODUCT REFERENCE DATA

It’s clear that product reference information has the same volume, variety and velocity problems that big data has. The good news is that a lot of effort has gone into solving big data problems, and it’s possible to repurpose these solutions for product reference data. Big data has taught us that we need to use techniques that don’t rely on subject matter experts and, wherever possible, don’t rely on humans at all—or at least only for exception processing.

Web scraping—downloading the public content of Web sites—can be used to collect unstructured or semi-structured product information from e-commerce and other sites. Machine learning algorithms can parse the scrapes and create an inventory of structured product descriptions. Although it is often incomplete or inconsistent, e-commerce Web site data is generally accurate because poor data compromises sales. Information provided by small-time resellers on marketplace sites can be low-quality and, in exceptional circumstances, intentionally misleading (though the marketplace owners try hard to ensure this does not happen). Choosing appropriate targets and maintaining quality control are therefore critical. But, if used correctly, Web scraping is a good way to gather a large amount of product information quickly and cheaply.

Another source of product information is the crowd. While this approach goes against the “don’t use humans” mantra, it removes the subject-matter-expert bottleneck and delivers a Web-scale process. A number of marketplaces allow businesses to harness the crowd to perform tasks that computers are currently unable to do; the most well known example is Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT). Members of the crowd are not product marketing experts, but they are experienced consumers who provide a cost-effective way of recording the product information on a packet. This raw data is not usable as is, except for data discovery; it needs to be curated and enriched. For example, subject matter experts place a product in a manufacturer’s own view of a market, or match an on-pack claim of “healthy” against a definitive ingredients list and appropriate guidelines, such as those from the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Despite its limitations, crowdsourcing can go where machines cannot (yet) reach, and can do so at Web-scale and reasonable cost. In circumstances where they are effective, smart machines should be used. E-commerce listing processes require images of a product (often multiple ones) that are subsequently published online. There are a lot of product images available from a variety of sources, and the opportunities for automated image matching (“have we seen this product before?”) and recognition (extracting product logos, barcodes and branding from a picture) are obvious. The simple next step is to perform optical character recognition on the image components, then cross-reference the extracted text against existing product master data to generate a new product coding or suggest an amendment to an existing product.

Another thing we’ve learned from big data is to ensure that data is fit for purpose, but no more—even a small, incremental effort can be very costly on big data sets. Traditionally, product reference data has been coded to a gold standard of completeness and quality. In the digital world, it makes sense for product coding to be more pragmatic and concentrate on providing content that is fit for use in the current context at just the right time. For their part, analysts should match the data’s level of curation to their analysis, optimizing speed, quality and completeness depending on their need; raw, uncurated product data might be appropriate for data discovery and product innovation purposes, whereas fully curated data would be needed to create a sales report for Wall Street.

Finally, big data experience tells us that things change quickly and unpredictably. Until machine intelligence advances to the point that capturing and coding additional product information is essentially cost-free, it makes sense to curate only the product information of interest and relevance.
However it also makes sense to save the raw categorized product information, captured from Web scrapes, the crowd, product images or elsewhere, so that it can be mined for additional information should priorities change. This would avoid triggering a potentially expensive data collection event, along with the latency involved.

PRODUCT INFORMATION GOVERNANCE

Walmart has a visionary program to create its own product catalog that will include not only the products that they sell, but products they do not sell as well as products from manufacturers they do not currently work with. If fully populated, such a catalog might provide a Rosetta Stone capable of integrating a broad spectrum of omnichannel data on the product dimension. It's not clear if this approach will be generally adopted by retailers.

For organizations that do not want to do everything for themselves, there are a number of bodies that curate comprehensive standards for the classification of products. Most notable are GS1, which maintains standards for supply-and-demand chains across several sectors, and the United Nations Standard Products and Services Code (UNSPSC), a taxonomy of products and services for use in e-commerce. In the case of GS1, product coding is the responsibility of the company that adopts their standards, which is often a consumer packaged goods manufacturer. GS1 has a data quality program to ensure the correct application of the standards, but their operating model does not prevent different manufacturers from applying standards inconsistently. The increasing adoption of e-commerce (which will make inconsistency visible to consumers) seems likely to drive standards adherence and reinforce data quality initiatives.

Another possible source of product information that crosses organizational silos are the product listing brokers, such as Brandbank (a subsidiary of Nielsen), Gladson and Salsify. Manufacturers that want to list products with retailers need to provide the retailer with master data for these products. As discussed previously, in an e-commerce world this includes standardized media, such as photographs and 3D views, as well as textual information. Individual retailers need consistent information across all of their products (for example, photos of the same size and resolution), but different retailers have different requirements. The brokers came into existence to help solve this problem of managing diverse product information requirements across different retailers. Brokers also help reconcile the many-to-many relationships between retailers and manufacturers: a manufacturer will list its products with many retailers and a retailer will list products from many different manufacturers.

Brokers have product information spanning multiple retailers and manufacturers, but only for their own client base; their business model does not support sourcing product information from companies that are not signed up. These brokers are undoubtedly a vital component of the product reference solution, but they are not a complete answer.

THE FUTURE OF PRODUCT INFORMATION MAINTENANCE

Product reference information exists not just for consumer marketing purposes, but so that the behavior of products can be analyzed. To do that in a digital environment, being able to connect myriad big data sets containing product information is vital. With endless aisles, rapid product evolution and a multiplicity of different views of the same products, it's impossible for a single retailer or manufacturer to gather and

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maintain a comprehensive set of product reference data—they have no incentive to do this outside of their area of interest.

Nor is there a revenue driver that would encourage any of the current third-party providers of product information to step up and provide a comprehensive product registry for digital business.

One possible solution to this impasse would be a standards-based collaboration to create foundational reference data for a broad span of products. Broadening the pool of contributors, and allowing them to contribute in their areas of product expertise, should greatly increase the reach, completeness and accuracy of the data gathered. The curated data would be open source and could be used freely to connect big data sets at no cost. The basic product attributes available would support simple, generic analysis of integrated data.

However, an open-source approach could not deliver the rich, customized, high quality product reference data that is available in the fast-moving consumer goods space, for example—the cost of creating this data would be prohibitive, with no obvious compensating revenue opportunities in an open-source environment. A more likely scenario is that enriched product information designed to support analytics, for example, and customized to the requirements of a particular business would be provided by third parties as a paid-for snap-on to the foundational, open-source product reference data.

The retail industry has known for some time it must come to terms with the volume, variety and velocity of big data in the digital world. Now it must also come to terms with the volume, variety and velocity of product reference data. It will be interesting to see if the model of proprietary enhancement atop an open-source foundation that has been successful in big data software works for product reference information, or if some wholly new solution arises.
WRANGLING DATA IN A BIG DATA WORLD

It's Monday morning and Luke, the BIGCO Brand Manager, walks into his office. While waiting for his laptop to power up, he asks the digital assistant device on his desk how BIGCO’s Acme brand performed over the weekend. After a second, the digital assistant replies that Acme’s share of sales has fallen by 0.5% compared to the same period last year. Luke asks what’s driving the decrease, and is told that it’s due to pricing and promotion issues in the BIGCO West region. His digital assistant offers to email Tom, the Sales Manager for the West region, with a summary of their findings.

Two hours later in California, Tom uses the link to the analysis to drill down into the root cause of the problem, combining competitors’ sales data with BIGCO’s shipment data. After he blends in third-party data, such as weather and econometrics, it looks as if failure to promote Acme during prolonged periods of good weather is a contributing factor. Tom has Acme’s net revenue and gross margin data at his fingertips, and he’s able to simulate the effect of various promotions on brand share and profitability. After several iterations he has a plan that should recover the brand share, which he sends to Luke for approval. Luke approves the plan, and his digital assistant makes a note to monitor the situation and report progress.

Digital assistants and smart machines are amazing technologies, but it’s the ability to integrate data (sales, shipments, weather, promotions, financials and so on) that allows a scenario such as this to play out.

Without data integration, the only thing that cool technology can do is stare helplessly at a pile of bricks it can’t assemble into anything useful.

And increasingly, business insights come from combining internal data with a multiplicity of external data sources, such as census and econometric data, market research, social media and more.1 Data integration is the critical, foundational capability for digital business in a big data world.

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THE BASICS OF DATA INTEGRATION

At its simplest, data integration is about identifying that entity A in one data source is the same as entity B in another data source. The most reliable means of doing so is a unique, universal identifier. Such keys are remarkably rare, but if Tom was very lucky he might have been able to link his internal sales data with third-party weather data through zip codes present in both sets of data. It's much more likely, however, that weather data would be identified by latitude and longitude coordinates. Tom would then have to reconcile zip codes and coordinates via a third data set in order to integrate. Of course it's possible that Tom doesn’t have access to structured weather data and is relying on a text feed from a news Web site, in which case he'd have to do his best to locate the city names in his news feed and map them to zip codes.

Zip codes and geographical coordinates are unusual in that they are universal standards for location, even though they serve different purposes. Products, on the other hand, can be identified by a multiplicity of coding schemes. A Universal Product Code (UPC) identifies a product’s type (10-oz. can of BIGCO baked beans) and can be used for stock keeping. Coding systems such as the Global Returnable Asset Identifier (GRAI) and Electronic Product Code identify an individual instance of a particular product type. Other identifiers are used for aggregations of products, such as in-store combo packs and warehouse pallets. The meaning of each of these codes can change over time, for example as a result of reuse. Because most of the readily available keys used to identify things are unstable in time and space, most integration processes replace them with stable, surrogate keys.

Along with identifying common entities and creating surrogate keys, integration has to reconcile differences in granularity by aggregating or decomposing to a common basis: combining, for example, point-of-sale data at UPC level with advertising data at brand level.

A company like BIGCO might have a dozen regions. Tom will want to reduce his data problem considerably by drawing data just for the West region, turning a big-data problem into a not-quite-so-big data problem. If he’s forced to rely on text descriptions like city names to match his weather and sales data, he’s going to face missing, inconsistent, ambiguous or misleading information. This is a generic integration problem and it needs to be accounted for appropriately. In some cases the appropriate action could be to do nothing—preliminary data discovery rarely requires 100% clean and complete data, and creating it would be a waste of time and money.

Once data has been integrated it can be enriched, for example by assigning the lowest level data to a logical hierarchy (a city to a county, and the county to a state). Basic information, such as a brief product description, can be supplemented with attributes like manufacturer, brand, size, flavor, packaging, health claims and ingredients.

THE 57 VARIETIES OF ENTERPRISE DATA WRANGLING

So far, so (reasonably) easy. But when we talk about data integration, it becomes quickly apparent that integration means different things to different people. For a senior executive looking at high-level trends, integration may mean having two independent sets of numbers juxtaposed on a screen—the data has not actually been integrated beyond...
being placed in a side-by-side view. An analyst responsible for modeling promotions, by contrast, may well be working with quite a few independent data sets that she has integrated completely and accurately, and supplemented the basic data about items with additional attributes. This distinction between levels of precision is very important. Tom, who is trying to figure out why Acme’s share fell, can do effective work with broad-brush, “good enough” data integration that would never work for detailed modeling.

It’s not only the final deliverable that’s important, it’s how you get there. Is a user willing or able to wait for data to be integrated? An automated trading program requires instantaneous data integration, but an annual report to Wall Street needs accuracy far more than speed. Is it important for the user to be able to do self-service data integration, or can they wait until the data warehouse team has prepared the data for them? The different meanings of “integration” are seemingly endless.

**DATA WRANGLING FOR DIGITAL BUSINESS**

The traditional gold standard for data integration is the extract, transform and load (ETL) process associated with relational databases. ETL provides a repeatable, automated, high-quality process with precisely defined outcomes. Although its inability to handle big data has made it unfashionable, ETL is often the best way to curate long-lived, high-value data assets such as those held in traditional enterprise data warehouses. These assets are used in routine business processes that require standardization, accuracy, and consistency over time: dashboards and KPIs seen by the C-suite, and the top-line reports used by the heads of Marketing and Sales to run their departments. Standardization is critical, as it allows everyone in the enterprise to speak the same language. The fact that a broad span of data has been pre-integrated means that it is easy and quick to drill down into the detail when exceptions and anomalies inevitably arise.

ETL has a long set-up phase during which the integration process is defined, and requires software development support for implementation. It puts into effect repeatable, operationally robust processes and enterprise-class data governance. However, there is a significant ongoing maintenance cost to incorporating new and changed data in the ETL process, and it takes time to do it.

Yet another reason traditional data warehouses running a standard ETL process are not sufficient is digital business’ critical need for discovery—finding out what you don’t know you don’t know is key to success in today’s world. There are a huge number of data sources available for discovery, most of which come from outside the enterprise. It’s impossible to know in advance which of them will be relevant to a particular exploratory analysis. There’s a need for lightweight, “good enough” data integration that allows the data scientist to experiment.

To best understand today’s data wrangling needs, it’s useful to discuss it within the framework of the three definitional components of big data: volume, variety and velocity.

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VOLUME

Traditional ETL tools require subject matter experts and programmers trained in their use. Because of these bottlenecks, MIT estimates that ETL can scale effectively to integrate a few dozen data sources at best.²

Big data is named for its volume, and it simply isn’t possible to wrangle this volume using expert-intensive processes. Data visualization tools have partially addressed the problem by putting self-service tools in the hands of general business users. These allow users to quickly sculpt data sets into a usable format, but they often sacrifice rigor (repeatability, data lineage, etc.) for simplicity and usability. And they are clerical tools that are limited to human scale.

It’s generally accepted that the solution to the volume problem is to invert the ETL architecture: instead of providing a human with the tools to craft an integration process, provide an automated data integration system that asks a human if it can’t figure out what to do. A machine learning program, with basic data integration heuristics and some training data, can be given two data sets to integrate. It won’t do a very good job, but it will learn. As it’s given more and more data sets to integrate, it will identify synonyms in the data and develop its own formal classification in terms of types, properties and relationships. Smart machines use a combination of machine learning and statistical best-fit mapping to align and harmonize data sets, outputting exceptional data to be reviewed and investigated by humans.

This approach removes the bottleneck caused by the availability of human expertise. The technical problem of scaling (for example, the availability of servers) is solved by the elastic computing power of the cloud and by integration platform as a service (iPaaS) products.

VARIETY

Traditional ETL is strongly oriented towards integrating data in relational databases, and to a lesser extent text files and Excel. Big data has unleashed a huge variety of data formats including Hadoop, NoSQL, Graph databases, key value stores, messages, logs and documents in a variety of formats, including XML and JSON. There is also a multiplicity of standard formats for data and message interchange like AVRO and EDI. Data is also available through interfaces such as services, APIs and RESTful interfaces.

Modern integration tools cater to all of the most common big data sources, but the overwhelming diversity of data sources means that individual tools have gaps.³

In addition to these predominantly (but not exclusively) text and number stores, map-related information, images, videos and sound recordings are increasingly important. For example, Tom may want to use satellite images to incorporate traffic volumes by daypart into his analysis, or to look for a correlation between sales and the number of vehicles parked near beaches or parks. Publicly available data, such as park visitor counts and concession sales, could be co-analyzed with internal data about sales by area.

The tools to integrate these rich data types with numeric information (for example watermarking video and audio to make it identifiable), as well as to extract information from video and satellite imagery, already exist. But these tools don’t yet function at the scale and speed needed for big data integration.

Data integration using traditional ETL techniques is a batch process with a high latency. Things can be improved by using massively parallel processing models, such as that of Hadoop, and making use of elastically scalable cloud infrastructure. That scales what is still a batch process, though.

Batch data integration is a perfectly acceptable solution for many situations. But just as digital business led to an explosion in the variety of data sets an enterprise must be able to handle, it also created new problems due to the speed at which some data is generated. Several advances in technology, not least the Internet of Things, mean that enterprises now have torrents of event data: real-time notifications of actions, such as a vending machine dispensing a can of Acme soda. How fresh must data be for it to be useful in decision-making? Making real-time data sources available to users as quickly as possible may deliver more business value than significantly delaying the availability of the data by applying stringent quality control.

Solutions to integrating high-velocity data look very different than traditional ETL or ETL improved with parallel processing models. Message-oriented solutions encapsulate data in messages that can be exchanged by applications in real time. Data federation and virtualization technologies can execute queries against multiple data sources to create virtual integrated views of data in memory (rather than physically moving the data). Federated views require integrated connectors to the data sources, an active metadata repository and a distributed query engine that can provide results in various ways (for example, as an SQL rowset, XML or a Web services interface). In other words, there is significant set up involved, but this cost delivers remarkable flexibility and solves the data lake problem of having to co-locate vast volumes of data that continually need refreshing.

It's obvious that there's no one-size-fits-all solution to the data integration needs of a large organization. Competing priorities such as speed, accuracy, completeness, level of automation, and reliance on subject-matter expertise need to be optimized on a case-by-case basis. In addition, any solution for a given company needs to accommodate the fact that, over time, a given process may move from one flavor of integration to another.

Tom's initial root-cause analysis of Acme's fall in market share may involve many data sources from outside the company, such as weather, social media, satellite imagery and econometrics, quickly integrated to a relatively low level of accuracy for discovery purposes. However, once a strong correlation is established between sales and positive social media comment about Acme, for example, this correlation may be incorporated into routine reporting. Because it is being relied upon to steer the course of the business day-to-day, it will need to go through the same ETL processes and quality controls as the other data used for this purpose.

What does the future hold? On the one hand, all companies will need to address a broad range of use cases from ungoverned, “good enough,” self-service data integration all the way up to enterprise-class ETL solutions.

At the same time, smart integration machines will get their arms around big data and be able to automatically integrate data sets—reliably, and at speed and volume—from a huge variety of sources, most of them outside the enterprise. That means that Tom’s digital assistant will be able to do more than help him understand what happened to BIGCO’s Acme sales and why. She'll be able to combine BIGCO data with any data on the Internet, or whatever other sources she can access, to create models that better predict the sales of BIGCO brands. Ultimately she'll be able to respond to predictive requests like “increase sales in the West region by 10%.”

But not quite yet.
Between the mid-18th and mid-19th centuries, the Industrial Revolution replaced manual labor with mechanical devices, and the factory was born.

Early in the 20th century, Henry Ford implemented the first moving assembly line and the Age of Mass Production began.

At the end of the 20th century, usage of the World Wide Web moved out of academia and grew at a breathtaking rate. By 2015 over a third of the world’s population had logged on to the Internet at some point in the previous year; the Connected Revolution had arrived.

Now pundits say that we are on the verge of a 4th revolution: the Age of Smart Machines. And there are good grounds for believing they are right—machine learning is no longer confined to advanced research laboratories, but is becoming part of everyday life. Intelligent e-mail spam detection, face recognition, keyboards that anticipate words before they are typed, washing machines that reorder their own detergent, e-commerce recommendation systems, automatic stock market negotiation robots, and many other smart machines are commonplace.

Several trends have aligned to bring us to the tipping point of this 4th revolution: the development of better machine learning algorithms; the availability of huge processing power at reasonable cost, allowing complex algorithms to run economically on large data sets; and the easy availability of huge amounts of digital data as the basis for learning, for example the Internet of Things, enterprise data lakes, Internet image repositories and so on.

In the next decades, machine learning will transform work as we know it. And unlike previous revolutions, which primarily affected blue-collar workers, the smart machine
revolution has white-collar workers in its sights. A 2013 academic analysis predicts the smart machine revolution will put an estimated 47% of total U.S. employment at risk;\(^1\) telemarketers, credit analysts and administrative assistants are among the most likely to be affected, while sales and marketing managers are relatively safe. Previous revolutions succeeded because, in the long run, they had a positive effect on people’s lives: removing the need for debilitating physical work, increasing connectedness, and making the world more responsive to their needs and desires. Will the same be true this time around?

Office work has already been changed by tools like fax machines, computers, email, business productivity software, the Internet, the paperless office, voice over IP and others. These tools automated clerical work and eliminated some less skilled jobs, such as the typing pool. Smart machines will automate knowledge work: the work of those who think, rather than do, for a living. This will be the first time that something like that has happened at scale. Smart machines will do autonomous work both for and alongside humans—they will be our colleagues, not our tools.

**HOW MACHINES WILL HELP US**

A lot of effort has gone into working out how to get machines to recognize and match things, whether images or text. Recognition and matching are critical capabilities to help us make sense of big data. The volume, variety and velocity of big data is too great for humans to be able to match the common elements in different data sets quickly, cheaply and at high quality. Big data overwhelms traditional data warehouse techniques, such as extract, transform and load, which have long setup times and rely on scarce resources such as data experts and software engineers. A smart machine capable of automatically matching entities based on their keys, textual descriptions, images, attributes, relationships and more, is the only scalable solution to integrating big data.\(^2\)

Another area in which machine learning is of great value is product identification. Most critical business analytics revolve around products: their invention, manufacturing, sales, promotion, profitability and so on. The bedrock of this analysis is the ability to reliably identify products and isolate their important characteristics, such as brand, size and flavor. With e-commerce making a huge number of products readily available for purchase, and with product innovation cycles becoming shorter, automating product identification through machine learning is the only way to keep up. Smart machines can match and characterize products using textual descriptions, ingredients lists, product images and packaging designs.\(^3\)

We pick these examples—the ability to recognize and match things, and the ability to identify products—because they are fundamental to the way Nielsen itself is exploiting machine learning and automation. Extending and standardizing Nielsen’s product reference data across the entire store, in more than 90 countries, was an almost unassailable objective using primarily human labor. Machine learning has done more than just smooth the way; without it the effort would have taken too long and been too costly to be economically viable.

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\(^1\) Frey, CB. “The future of employment: how susceptible are jobs to computerisation.” 2013.
\(^2\) This topic is discussed in more detail in the “Data Wrangling” article in this edition.
\(^3\) How these capabilities can be used in practice is discussed in the “Product Reference” article in this edition.
MACHINES AND TURKS COMING TOGETHER

Is there a non-machine solution? Some “smart machine” cloud services, such as Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT), don’t use software at all, but farm tasks out to a crowd of paid human volunteers.4 Although AMT is not actually a smart machine, when viewed as a black box it has many of the characteristics of one: crowds can quickly scale up and down, depending on workload, and as a result can be more responsive and cost-effective than a permanent in-house roster of subject matter experts. If, for example, you want to identify the retailer and itemize the purchases from a paper till receipt, you could provide a photograph of the receipt to AMT and contract to have the Turk convert the image into electronic text. Bulk conversion of receipts would allow you to analyze purchases by retailer.

Eventually, however, no Mechanical Turk will be as cost-effective and swift as an intelligent machine, assuming the machine is intelligent enough. For instance, the receipt recognition problem could in principle be solved by Optical Character Recognition (OCR) or similar machine learning software. But—as is often the case—while smart machines are remarkably accurate (>80%), incorrect results are still so common that the human supervisory effort needed to ensure an acceptable level of quality outweighs their utility. AMT can provide a solution in such circumstances.

AMT can also advance the accuracy of smart machines. The sets of high quality results it provides can be used to train machines, thereby reducing the amount of quality control needed; ultimately the process can be fully automated, although that is currently years away.

AMT and other solutions like it provide a vital adjunct to smart machines as the machines get smarter. Additionally, many machine learning solutions are highly specific to a single problem, especially in the business world; identifying products is a prime example of this. Humans are general-purpose problem solvers: until smart software overruns all our problems, solutions like AMT are helpful in areas that machine learning hasn’t reached yet.

THE PERSISTENT NEED FOR HUMANS

Machine intelligence will never be 100% reliable—there are always edge cases, exceptions and incomplete data, where the smart machine is not able to carry out a task to a high degree of accuracy. For these cases, humans are a vital part of any solution as the guardians of quality control and the intelligence of last resort; humans have the ability to make good decisions based on limited information and possess that elusive quality, common sense.

Recognition and matching are critical cognitive capabilities that can deliver huge benefits when implemented in smart machines, but they won’t revolutionize the way we work; the article about IBM’s Watson in this edition explores a much more ambitious use of machine learning. A smart machine should be able to do most of a category manager’s descriptive and diagnostic data analysis. Longer term, the machine’s cognitive capabilities should allow them to offer predictions (do X and Y will happen) and ultimately to be prescriptive (if you want W to happen, you should do Z).

Of course a great deal depends on how accurate and reliable the machine is. High-confidence recommendations, where the chances of making the wrong decision are low and the advantages of acting are significant, can be actioned automatically. Low-confidence recommendations, with the opposite characteristics, require human intervention and decision-making.

If there is one common thread running through all of these scenarios, it’s the need for humans and machines to collaborate to achieve the best outcome.

Humans are not capable of processing vast amounts of low-level data at a consistent level of quality. But they are good at abstracting knowledge from their experience and transferring this knowledge across domains. To be effective, machines must learn from people. Today, most learning happens in an explicit training cycle involving feedback from human quality control. In the future, the process will be much less intrusive, with machines observing human behavior, learning from it and putting these heuristics into practice. Humans won’t be looking over the shoulder of machines to check their work, but instead machines will be looking over the shoulder of humans to learn how to help them.
ABOUT NIELSEN

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