Time-series Application on Big Data Visualization of Consumption in Supermarkets

Catarina Maçãs¹, Pedro Cruz¹, Hugo Amaro¹, Evgheni Polisciuc¹, Tiago Carvalho², Frederico Santos² and Penousal Machado¹

¹CISUC, Department of Informatics Engineering, University of Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal

²Sonae, Maia, Portugal

Keywords: Small Multiples, Time Series, Clustering, Consumption Analysis, Big Data, Visualization.

Abstract:

The evolution of technology is changing how people work within organizations. Information about customer consumption leads to a new era of business intelligence, wherein Big Data is analyzed to improve business. In this project we apply information visualization in the context of Big Data for product's consumption. The aim of this project is to visualize the evolution of consumption, to detect typical and periodic behaviors and emphasize the atypical ones. In this article we present our workflow—from finding periodic behaviors to create a final visualization using time-series and small-multiples techniques. With the final visualization we are able to show consumption behaviors and highlight the deviations from typical consumption days.

1 INTRODUCTION

With the advance of technology, and the burst of information, the age of Big Data emerged and enabled the access to unprecedented amounts of data in new contexts (Zhang et al., 2013; Berkovich and Liao, 2012). Consequently, Big Data is changing how people work within organizations and intensifying the ability to make decisions based on data (Rajpurohit, 2013). Information visualization enables people who work on business intelligence to present, synthesize, and interpret this complex amounts of information (Keim et al., 2013). Visualization also provides a powerful way to make sense of data by mapping its attributes to visual properties such as position, size, shape, and color (Fisher et al., 2014). The main goal for this project is to: (i) visually explore the consumption evolution over time; (ii) detect periodic behaviors; (iii) emphasize the atypical behaviors caused by temporal events, such as Christmas; and (iv) create a visualization that enables the comparison of different days. This visualization uses efficiently the display space, maximizing data density and minimizing the use of ink (Tufte, 1991).

In this article we describe an application of the time-series visualization technique in a Big Data context. The data refers to the consumption values in 729 hypermarkets and supermarkets, with every transac-

tion from May of 2012 to April of 2014 (the dataset is detailed in section 3). Our time-series application visualizes the deviations in relation to typical consumption values across several product categories. To attain this, we extract the baseline that represents the typical week across several product categories (the approach is detailed in section 4). In addition, we use the small-multiples technique to enhance the comparison among consumption days while providing at the same time a general overview of the annual behaviors.

2 TIME-SERIES

Analyzing quantitative data involves focusing on one or more relationships between values. In this project, we are interested in examining how a set of value changes through time. Time-series are a special case of the broader dependent-independent variable category, in which time is the independent variable (Cleveland, 1985). Time-series charts represent time, where the dependent value can assume different shapes such as lines, dots, bars, or areas that fluctuate over time. There are many examples of this technique, such as the *Horizon-Graphs* (Heer et al., 2009), and *History Flow* (Viégas et al., 2004), and many others can be found in *Visualization of Time-Oriented*

Data by Aigner et al. (2011). The first known timeseries using economic data was published in 1786 in William Playfair's book, *The Commercial Politi*cal Atlas. In one of his charts (Figure 1) it is represented the balance of trade using the difference between the import and export time-series (Tufte and Graves-Morris, 1983).

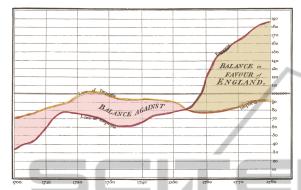


Figure 1: William Playfair's time-series of Exports and Imports of Denmark and Norway, published in his Commercial and Political Atlas, 1786 (Tufte and Graves-Morris, 1983).

Another notable example of time-series is the Streamgraph (Byron and Wattenberg, 2008) that stacks areas to represent changes over time for different categories while conveying total volumes. Its layout emphasizes legibility of individual layers, arranging them in a distinctively organic form. However, this type of graph has some problems that we intend to avoid. First, since there is no space between the stacked areas, the changes in one area influence the shape of the surrounding areas, leading to a miss interpretations of the variations. Furthermore, when the number of areas to represent increases, the readability of the heights of each area and the discernibility among others tends to be extremely difficult (Figure 2).

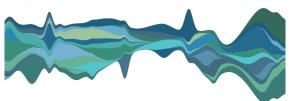


Figure 2: Streamgraph generated with a total of 20 layers it is difficult to compare the different values through time.

Another form to create a time-series visualization is through the use of small-multiples. Small-multiples are small illustrations of postage-stamp size, indexed by category that can be ordered by a variable not used in the single image itself (Tufte, 1991).

One example of small-multiples can be seen in Figure 3 that shows the frequency-of-repair for au-

Chevrolet Malibu, Chevrolet Mo	nza 4 Detsun 210, 8210	Trouble Spots	Ford Granada 6	Fond pickup truck 6(ZWD)	Honda Accord
76 77 78 79 80 81 76 77 78 79	80 81 76 77 78 79 80 81		76 77 78 79 80 81	76 77 78 79 80 81	76 77 78 79 80 81
000000 0000	0 000000	Air-conditioning	00000	000000	000000
000000 0000	0 000000	Body exterior (paint)	00000	00000	000000
000000 0000	0 000000	Body exterior (rust)	000000	00000	00000
000000 0000	0 000000	Body hardware	00000	000000	000000
000000 0000	loooooo	Body integrity	000000	000000	000000
000000 0000	0 000000	Brokes	000000	000000	00000
0000	0 00000	Clutch	000	000000	000000
000000 0000	0 000000	Driveline	000000	000000	000000
000000 0000	0 000000	Dectrical system (chassis)	000000	00000	000000
000000 0000	000000	Engine cooling	00000	000000	000000
000000 0000	• 0 0000	Engine mechanical	000000	000000	00000
000000 0000	0 000000	Exhaust system	000000	000000	000000
000000 0000	 	Fuel system	000000	000000	000000
000000 0000	0 00000	Ignition system	000000	000000	000000
000000 0000	0 000000	Suspension	000000	000000	000000
0006	• 00000 0	Transmission (manual)	000	000000	000000
000000 0000	000000		000000	00000	000000
000000 0000		Trouble Index	000000	00000	000000
00000 0000	0 100000	Cost Index	00000	00000	00000

Figure 3: Consumer Reports, 47 (April 1982). This graph makes a comparison between manufacturers and types of cars, year and trouble spots.

tomobiles during 6 years (Tufte and Graves-Morris, 1983). In this visualization each table represents a car, each column represents a year and each row represents the evaluation of the typical trouble spots in a car. Each circle is representative of an evaluation that goes from *Much better than average* (white circle) to *Much worse than average* (black circle). With this visualization, we can compare and distinguish visually which car had more problems and how these problems evolved over time.

Small-multiples enforce visually the reader to immediately, and in parallel, compare the differences among objects, relying on an active eye to select and make contrasts rather than on bygone memories of images from different pages (Tufte, 1991). More examples of this type of visualization can be found, such as the *Flowstrates* (Boyandin et al., 2011) and the calendar based visualization of Van Wijk and Van Selow 1999. In this work it is used a clustering technique to identity patterns and trends on multiple time scales. To detect monthly patterns, Van Wijk and Van Selow mark each day of the calendar with the color of the cluster that most characterizes it.

3 DATA

The dataset of this project has o total of 278 GB for 2.86 billions of transactions in 729 hypermarkets and supermarkets, from May 2012 to April 2014. A transaction represents a product acquired on a store, having the following attributes: the date and time, the product, store, and customer identifications, price and quantity.

A transaction is directly associated to a customer trough a unique customer card used in the transaction. The cards can be shared among family members and hence do not directly imply one customer per card. The dataset refers to a total of 6.6 million unique customer cards. In Figure 4 we can perceive that almost one-third of the cards made less than 100 transactions in the two years.

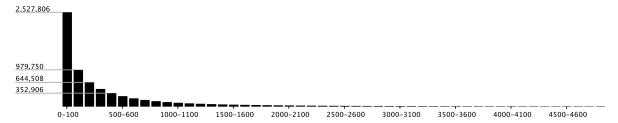


Figure 4: Part of the histogram of the number of customer cards (vertical axis) and the total of transactions (horizontal axis). In this histogram we can see that approximately 2,5 millions of customer cards had made from 0 to 100 transactions in the two years range. The histogram ends with a single card with approximately 19150 transactions.

The product identification is well defined within a hierarchy of product categories with 6 levels, ranging from the product itself, to the Department, as illustrated in Figure 5. For this application we are focusing on the visualization of Departments and Business Units, having a total of 7 Departments and 31 Business Units.

```
→ Department

→ Biz Unit

→ Category

→ Sub-Category

→ Unit Base

← Product
```

Figure 5: Scheme of the product hierarchy.

4 DATA VISUALIZATION

The first step to create Big Data visualizations is often to preprocess and transform the data in order to extract meaningful units (Keim et al., 2008). Therefore, in order to process such amounts of data, we aggregated each transaction per Business Unit and per hour

Initially we created a simple graph per Department with all the consumption values sorted by time. By doing this, we were able to extract important clues of how the data behaves along time. Subsequently, we created another visualization model so it could be possible to see the deviations from a typical consumption behavior. To do so, we defined a weekly baseline, to which the deviations are visualized. We extracted the baselines, first, based on averages, and, after, based on the clustering of patterns. Our final visualization applies the small multiples technique to better compare the deviations of each day from the baseline along time, enabling the detection of weekly and yearly patterns.

4.1 Initial Approaches

As previously mentioned, our first approach displays the consumption values along time individually per each Department. There are a total of 7 different departments in the dataset: Grocery (biscuits, cereals, frozen foods, hygiene and cleaning products); Fresh Food (fresh meat, fish, vegetables and fruits); Food&Bakery (bread, cakes and coffee); Home (household essentials); Leisure (books, office supplies, pet care and bricolage); Textile (clothing); and Health (with products from nutrition to beauty). Each category is identified by a color accordingly with Figure 6.



Figure 6: Color identification of each Department. This identification method is used to distinguish the different Departments.

We use Catmull-Rom splines¹ (Catmull and Rom, 1974) to represent the continuity of time in the data, and to represent values across time-intervals, circumventing the discrete nature of bar charts.

Additionally, in order to efficiently explore the

¹Catmull-Rom splines are smooth parametric curves that interpolate between a set of points, and are widely used in computer graphics. This method does not require the definition of additional control points for the curves since the original set of points also makes up the control vertices for the curve. When the control points are at regular intervals, such as we use them, they do not generate cusps or self-intersections.

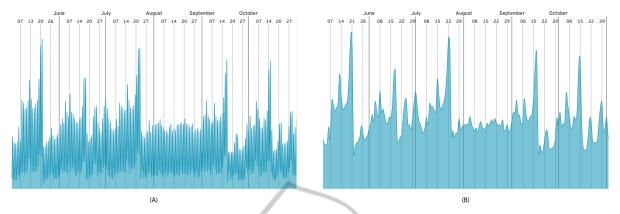


Figure 7: Visualization of the Health Department, from May of 2012 to October of 2014. In (A) we have an aggregation of transactions at every one hour and in (B) the aggregation is by every 3 hours.

data, we implemented the following interactive features for the initial graphs: the navigation through time; and the possibility to expand or compress the visualization time-window. In order to smooth the high density of spikes (Figure 7), we made possible to choose between several time aggregations: 1, 3, 6, 12 and 24 hours. Hence, we diminished the graphical noise, which better clarifies the representation of general patterns.

After an initial analysis we can perceive a recurrent weekly behavior during most of the weeks. Customers tend to consume less from Monday to Thursday, and on Friday through Saturday consumptions have a weekly maximum, beginning to drop during Sunday. We found out that this weekly behavior is generalized across all the Business Units. When looking into shorter periods of time, such as a day (Figure 8), we also see that, in general, customers tend to consume more in the end of the evening, from 16:00 to 20:00. Taking into account this periodic behavior, it was necessary to create a mechanism to emphasize atypical days. To determine an atypical day, first we must define what is a typical day, and then visualize the deviations from it.

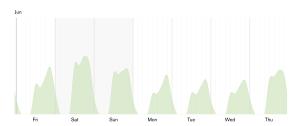


Figure 8: Visualization of the Grocery Department, on the first week of June of 2012, with an aggregation of transactions at every 3 hours. With this visualization, easily we can see that the customers tend to buy more at the lunch time and in the evening.

4.2 Baselines

To visualize the deviations from typical consumption we extracted a week-based baseline, for the time span of the dataset using two methods: the average, and the clustering of similar patterns. With this week-based baseline, we can represent the deviation of a certain hour in relation to the same hour of the same day of the week of the week-based baseline. The baselines represent hourly data aggregations and hence the week baseline has 168 points. The baselines were computed for each Department and Business Unit.

The week baseline using the average is extracted by distinguishing the hours for each day of the week, for its 168 hours (Figure 9). Different Business Units have differences among them. For example, in Frozen Food, during the week people tend to buy more on the evening, from 17:00 to 20:00, but during weekends, the sales are higher in the beginning of the day. The Coffee Shop is the Business Unit which differs more from the others. In this Business Unit, we can see that, unlike others, we have three main consumption moments, one in the morning, from 9:00 to 11:00, other in the middle of the day, from 13:00 to 15:00, and the third on the evening, from 17:00 to 19:00. Every week-based baseline of a Department or Business Unit is normalized from its minimum consumption in an hour to its maximum consumption in an hour, across all the dataset.

Considering that each week has abrupt differences in consumption profiles through the dataset time span, it would be naive to rely only on averages to extract accurate baselines. That way, we further extracted baselines based on clustering of the most frequent consumption patterns. Like in averages, we extracted clustered week baselines for each Department and Business Unit. Considering the previous

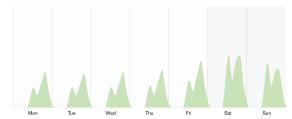


Figure 9: Visualization of the week-based baseline of the Frozen Food Business Unit of Grocery Department. This was created through average.

time aggregation (per hour) each individual week is represented by a sequence of 168 values. The values are normalized as mentioned before. The clustering problem then reduces to comparing those sequences among themselves, and grouping similar sequences to determine clusters of week. Having two sets A and B, our measure of similarity s=1-d, where d is the Euclidean distance.

Two sets are considered similar if d is less than a certain threshold. Our clustering approach is a centroid-based algorithm that assigns points to a cluster accordingly with their distances to the cluster's centroid. S is the set of every day or every week in consumption values in the dataset. A sequence $S_i \in S$ is then a sequence of n=24 values for a day or a sequence of n=168 values for a week. If O_j is the set of all the j-th values of the sequences in S, then the centroid of S is the sequence $(\bar{O}_j)_{j=1}^n$, where \bar{O}_j is the arithmetic mean of the values in a set O_j .

Given a set S and a threshold eps, our algorithm computes a list of clusters as follows:

```
CLUSTER(S, eps)
   create list C
   for each set p in collection S
      lastDist = 1
      ct = null
      for each cluster c in C
         d = dist(p, c.centroid)
         if d < eps and d < lastDist
            lastDist = d
            ct = c
      if ct != null
         add p to ct
         compute centroid for ct
         create cluster nc with p
         add nc to C
return C
```

When running the algorithm for every week of each Business Unit and Department, the baseline is defined by the centroid of the cluster with more elements, meaning, the representation of the most frequent type of pattern.

In Figure 10 we have a small multiples visualiza-

tion of the first two clusters of the week-based baselines of Fruits and Vegetables. As we can see, the typical week represent 73% of the 105 weeks. The clusters are sorted by number of individuals, going from the cluster with more individuals, to the cluster with less individuals. In this example, we can see that the highest consumption moments tend to occur on the weekends.

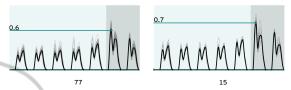


Figure 10: Small multiples visualization model applied to the week-based baseline. The weekends are marked with a darker color. Here we present two clusters of Fruits and Vegetables of Fresh Food Department. The values are normalized by the highest consumption value of the Business Unit in all dataset.

Having two algorithms to detect the week-based baseline, we compared the results obtained by both. To do so, we calculated the deviation between each baseline in all dataset (Figure 11). Comparing the baselines of the two methods, the cluster baseline has the lowest deviations. When grouping weeks we are able to determine main clusters which centroids are more balanced to the dataset that its simple average.

4.3 Time-series and Small Multiples

With the week-based baselines determined for every Department and Business Unit, we created a variation of the previous visual approach to emphasize the deviations.

By subtracting the values of each period of time to the baseline's values in the same period, we get the deviation length from the baseline in that period of time. Having the baselines represented as a straight line on the graph, we placed each resulting value of the previous calculation above or below that line, depending if the value is bigger or smaller then the baseline value (Figure 12). This way we represent which period of times is above or below the baseline and how much it distances itself. It is important to notice that this visualization is only representing how a day is more or less different from the typical one.

We applied this visualization approach to every Business Unit using the week-based baselines. For example, the deviations from the typical consumption for Culture are represented in Figure 13 were consumptions were very high from August to October and also in December, probably caused, respectively, by the beginning of school and the Christmas

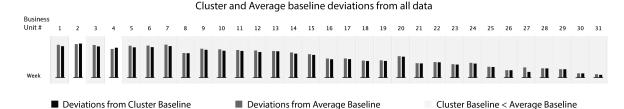


Figure 11: In this graph it is represented the average deviation from the week-based baselines created through the simply average and the clustering methods with all dataset. Each column represents one of the 31 Business Units. When the cluster baseline's deviation is lower then the average baseline the corresponding area is filled with light grey.



Figure 12: On the left schematic we can see the baseline, in black, and the consumption line, in grey. Here a set of points are marked and the distance between them are the deviations of the consumption values to the baseline. On the right schematic, these deviations are translated to the new visualization approach.

holidays. We can also see a drop of consumptions between the days 24 and 29, which matches with the Christmas period. With this visualization model we managed to eliminate the periodic repetition, and emphasize moments of greater or lesser importance. Besides the deviations are really clear and we can easily understand what is above or bellow the baseline, it's difficult to compare the values.

To get a general overview of the deviations from the baselines for the whole dataset we developed a calendar view that improves the comparison among deviations as well as better highlight the temporal moments when certain deviation pattern occurs. Since this calendar view displays the overall consumption in a day, we generated new week-based baselines through clustering, where the consumptions are aggregated by day.

In this calendar view, each month is positioned from left to right, and the days of the week are positioned from top to bottom, from Monday to Sunday, respectively. Each day of the month is placed on the corresponding row, so, all week days in the visualization are horizontally aligned. Each day is represented by a rectangle (Figure 14). The top and bottom edges of the rectangles represent, respectively, the lower and higher consumption value of the represented Business Unit or Department in all dataset. The baseline is a black horizontal line positioned over the rectangle.

Since we are using a week-based baseline, for each row of the visualization (from Monday to Sunday) the line will be positioned at different positions, accordingly to the baseline's value for the corresponding day of the week. From each baseline, we draw a rectangle, with a height corresponding to the deviation in consumption for the respective day, coloring it red, if it is positive, and Persian green one, if it is negative. With this method, we can represent all deviations in a calendar view, emphasizing temporal patterns in the deviations. With this visualization we can have two levels of information: (i) a general overview of all days where it is possible to see the highest deviations among the different days, and (ii) a more local view to compare how much the consumption of one day have deviated from the baseline.

An example of this method can be seen on Figure 15, where we represent the consumption values of the Business Unit Drinks for the 730 days, by using a week-based baseline created with the clustering method. We can say that the consumption in this Business Unit does not have many atypical days. In the two years we can see the same behavior: from July to September and in December the sales tend to be higher than the usual, probably due the summer vacations and Christmas. The calendar views were generated for each Department and Business Unit, but it is our intent to generate more specific views for categories in the product hierarchy. With this last visualization model we can have a qualitative analysis about the consumptions through time and understand behaviors that tend to repeat through months and even through years. It is easy to understand when the consumption is a higher or lower value, and how the deviations tend to evolve.

5 RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

Big Data intensifies the ability to make decisions within organizations, to discover new sales opportunities and to improve the understanding of profitabil-

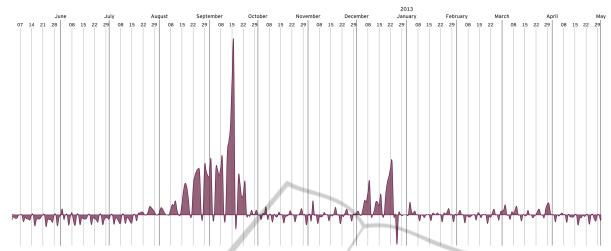


Figure 13: Visualization of the Business Unit Culture of Leisure, from June of 2012 to April of 2013, with an aggregation of transactions at every 24 hours. If the baseline is more on the bottom of the graphic, it means that the deviations are higher on the positive side. It is visible the people tendency to buy more on this Business Unit in December and on September, coinciding with the beginning of school.

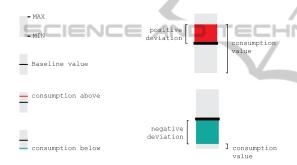


Figure 14: Scheme of the representation of a day in the Calendar visualization.

ity across products and customers (Rajpurohit, 2013). People who work on business intelligence started to make use of visualizations to be capable of interpret this complex amount of data (Keim et al., 2013). By mapping data attributes to visual properties such as position, size, shape, and color, visualization designers leverage perceptual skills to help users discern and interpret patterns in data.

For this project we applied information visualization in the context of Big Data for product's consumptions. We processed 2.86 billions of transactions for 730 days, generating representations of consumption along time for 7 Departments and 31 Business Units. Our objectives are: visually explore the consumption behaviors over time; detect periodic patterns; emphasize the atypical behaviors; and create a visualization that enables the comparison of different days. This visualization uses efficiently the display space, maximizing data density and minimizing the use of ink (Tufte, 1991). First, we created a visualization capa-

ble to represent the general behavior of consumption over time. The data had an elementary time aggregation, so it was possible to see the consumptions variation in a large time span. After an initial analysis, we detected the repetition of a weekly behavior for most of the weeks.

Having this periodic behavior, it was necessary to create a mechanism to emphasize atypical days. To do so, we created a weekly baseline, first with a simple average, and then through clustering. With these two techniques we concluded that the average baselines tend to have higher values than the ones extracted through clustering. This can be explained by the fact that the simple average is more influenced by atypical days than the clustering technique. We also calculated the average deviation for the two techniques to all the dataset and concluded that for week-based baselines clustering shows lower deviations. Besides those differences the two approaches displayed the same behavior through days and weeks, in general, consumptions were higher at lunch time and in the evening, from 16:00 to 20:00.

We explored several approaches to visualize timeseries for consumption and culminated in a calendar view that uses small-multiples for days. This calendar view highlights the deviations from the baselines along time, eliminating the periodic repetition, and emphasizing moments of greater importance, while enabling the comparison between days.

In the future it is our intent to create a tool that highlights the products with higher deviations and enables the user to browse through the calendar visualizations.



Figure 15: Visualization of the Business Unit Drinks of Grocery, from May of 2012 to April of 2014. With all 730 days being visualized we can perceive some annual behavior. In December the consumptions tend to rise, specially in the end of the month, and between July and September, they also tend to be higher then the week-based baseline.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research is partially funded by: iCIS project (CENTRO-07-ST24-FEDER-002003). which is cofinanced by QREN, in the scope of the Mais Centro Program and European Union's FEDER; Sonae Viz — Big Data Visualization for retail.

REFERENCES

- Berkovich, S. and Liao, D. (2012). On clusterization of big data streams. In *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Computing for Geospatial Research and Applications*, page 26. ACM.
- Boyandin, I., Bertini, E., Bak, P., and Lalanne, D. (2011). Flowstrates: An approach for visual exploration of temporal origin-destination data. In *Computer Graphics Forum*, volume 30, pages 971–980. Wiley Online Library.
- Byron, L. and Wattenberg, M. (2008). Stacked graphsgeometry & aesthetics. *IEEE Trans. Vis. Comput. Graph.*, 14(6):1245–1252.
- Catmull, E. and Rom, R. (1974). A class of local interpolating splines. Computer aided geometric design, 74:317–326.
- Cleveland, W. S. (1985). *The elements of graphing data*. Wadsworth Advanced Books and Software Monterey,
- Fisher, D., Drucker, S., and Czerwinski, M. (2014). Business intelligence analytics. *Computer Graphics and Applications, IEEE*, 34(5):22–24.
- Heer, J., Kong, N., and Agrawala, M. (2009). Sizing the horizon: the effects of chart size and layering on the graphical perception of time series visualizations. In *Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, pages 1303– 1312. ACM.
- Keim, D., Qu, H., and Ma, K.-L. (2013). Big-data visualization. *Computer Graphics and Applications, IEEE*, 33(4):20–21.

- Keim, D. A., Mansmann, F., Schneidewind, J., Thomas, J., and Ziegler, H. (2008). *Visual analytics: Scope and challenges*. Springer.
- Rajpurohit, A. (2013). Big data for business managers—bridging the gap between potential and value. In *Big Data*, 2013 IEEE International Conference on, pages 29–31. IEEE.
- Tufte, E. R. (1991). Envisioning information. *Optometry & Vision Science*, 68(4):322–324.
- Tufte, E. R. and Graves-Morris, P. (1983). *The visual display of quantitative information*, volume 2. Graphics press Cheshire, CT.
- Viégas, F. B., Wattenberg, M., and Dave, K. (2004). Studying cooperation and conflict between authors with history flow visualizations. In *Proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on Human factors in computing systems*, pages 575–582. ACM.
- Zhang, J., Chen, Y., and Li, T. (2013). Opportunities of innovation under challenges of big data. In *Fuzzy Systems and Knowledge Discovery (FSKD), 2013 10th International Conference on*, pages 669–673. IEEE.