Many years ago, Woody Allen directed a movie called Everything You Always Wanted to Know About Sex * But Were Afraid to Ask – and well, this book seeks to do the same for market research. In the everyday lives of market researchers there are some questions that are so basic that it can almost be embarrassing to ask them. In fact, it is usually fine to ask. But, for those who don’t want to ask, and for those who do not have somebody convenient to ask, this book has the answers to those questions.

Answers to Contemporary Market Research Questions contains almost 200 everyday market research questions, along with the answers. The answers have been created by a team of research heavyweights, a product of over twenty contributors, who between them have hundreds of years of market research experience. The book effectively creates a ‘brains trust’ for new entrants into market research and is aimed at new researchers and people new to a research topic.

THE TEAM
The contributing authors were: Suz Allen, Sven Arn, Reg Baker, Susan Bell, Pete Cape, Alison Dexter, Dirk Huisman, Nasir Khan, Kathryn Korrostoff, Nikki Lavoie, Phyllis Macfarlane, Omar Mahmoud, Bernie Malinoff, Katie O’Connor, Stephen Paton, Aneeq Patit, Pravin Shekar, Anouk Willems, Navin Williams and Tom Wilms.
The book was curated by Finn Raben, Ray Poynter, and Sue York and edited by Sue York and Ray Poynter.

ESOMAR is the essential organisation for encouraging, advancing and elevating market research worldwide.
ANSWERS TO CONTEMPORARY MARKET RESEARCH QUESTIONS

THE TEAM The contributing authors were: Suz Allen, Sven Arn, Reg Baker, Susan Bell, Pete Cape, Alison Dexter, Dirk Huisman, Nasir Khan, Kathryn Korostoff, Nikki Lavoie, Phyllis Macfarlane, Omar Mahmoud, Bernie Malinoff, Katie O’Connor, Stephen Paton, Annie Pettit, Pravin Shekar, Anouk Willems, Navin Williams and Tom Wilms. The book was curated by Finn Raben, Ray Poynter, and Sue York and edited by Sue York and Ray Poynter.
This book is dedicated to two groups of people:

Firstly, we dedicate it to the next generation of researchers. The cultivation and nurture of the next generation can only be completed by guidance and the transfer of wisdom from the previous generation, thereby providing them with the knowledge and confidence to evolve and adapt to the changes in our industry – without losing sight of the required (and appropriate) rigour that underpins all of our work. If reading this book provides you with even one small element of that guidance, then the future of research can only be that little bit brighter!

Secondly, the research “evangelists” – those who have, and continue to, promote this great industry of ours – whether it be celebrating the general contribution our industry makes to business, lauding the individual contributions of certain researchers, reminding us of the daily contribution of market research to improving society (often in war-torn or unjust circumstances) or simply passing on accumulated experience to students of the industry. Without them, works of this kind would never be produced.

To both these groups, ESOMAR extends a huge thank you – either for writing, or reading, the book – may we all continue to enjoy working in this industry, and continue to celebrate what we achieve.
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FOREWORD
One of the most oft-discussed topics in our industry today is the state of the talent “pipeline.” Most people I have spoken to in the course of the past two years decry the fact that, with the changes that our business is undergoing, the preparation and training we offer graduates and new recruits has perhaps not kept pace with these changing demands.

In more recent times, it is clear that a number of companies have put an increased emphasis on education, professional development and subsequent certification, but a lot of these efforts presume a basic knowledge of market research that is often overestimated. In the old days, such knowledge was usually gained by the more traditional approach of mentoring, whereby new recruits tended to work “to” a colleague for a period of time in order to gain a basic understanding of the mechanics of research and the commercial realities around their application. In these days of heightened commercial pressures, such mentoring is often not possible, and thus the next generation of researchers may not always have as rounded an understanding of our business as we would like them to have.

Having listened to, and collated, these opinions, ESOMAR felt that the time was right to produce a new guide to market research. The initial concept was based around the Woody Allen film *Everything You Always Wanted to Know About Sex* (*But Were Afraid to Ask*), and the book was conceived NOT as a definitive encyclopaedia of research, but rather as a series of provocative questions that researchers could and should ask themselves when working in any of the areas covered by the different chapters.

In order to provide as broad a range of input as possible, more than 20 authors from 9 different countries and a range of companies contributed their time, effort and knowledge to this venture free of charge. Their input represents a vast compilation of knowledge and experience, and we are enormously grateful to them for their contribution. I hope that you, the reader, will benefit from this unique collation of expertise, and pass on your learnings too.

The book has been divided into eighteen chapters dealing with a wide range of subjects; this list is not intended to be exhaustive, but rather topical and timely. It is our hope that this book becomes a sort of wiki, which can be revisited and updated...
in the future as the requirements of our industry evolve. Some chapters have a clear quantitative relevance, others a qualitative one, and some are relevant to both. Each chapter contains, in the eyes of the contributors, ten key questions you should ask yourself about the topic in question. (Sometimes it’s more than ten, but please consider that discretionary weighting.)

If you feel an answer clarifies your query, then great! But if you feel it doesn’t, or it seems strange, then you should double-check with your colleagues, friends, mentors or bosses as to how to proceed with that particular issue. If the answer throws up another point on which you are unsure, then again, please double-check with your colleagues. In this way, we hope that the book will prompt you–the next generation of researchers–to seek out the kind of contextual understanding that the more old-fashioned forms of mentoring used to facilitate.

We would also like to recognise that any such effort on the part of our industry, for our industry, can only be gauged by the feedback we receive from its users. Please do let us know how useful you found this book, and don’t be shy. We are happy to accept all views. That is the only way we can make what we do better.

Finally, please allow me to put on record ESOMAR’s sincere thanks to all of the contributors (listed in the appendix), and also to the editors, Ray Poynter and Sue York. Without their tireless efforts this project would not have been published. Thank you, one and all.

Finn Raben
Director General
ESOMAR
01

INTRODUCTION
This book has been produced by ESOMAR and a team of volunteers to provide new entrants to market research with a first point of reference. In market research, there are some key concepts, ideas, and pieces of knowledge that even the newest researcher (or researcher new to a topic) should have at their fingertips. This book aims to present those key items as a set of questions and answers.

This book is not a manual of how to conduct research. There are plenty of books and courses which tackle that issue. This book provides nuggets of information that will enable new researchers to orientate themselves, and to avoid walking into too many of the traps that the world of market research can create.

**STRUCTURE**

Other than this introduction, the book is structured around the idea of ten (sometimes eleven) key questions. Chapter 2 covers ten key concepts which provide the context for market research, for example, “What is market research?”. Each of the subsequent chapters covers a single topic, asking and answering key questions about it. Finally, the appendix contains a glossary.

**THE PROJECT TEAM**

The book has been created through the voluntary and collaborative efforts of a team of people brought together by ESOMAR to generate this resource as part of the celebration of its 65th year.

The project curators are Finn Raben, director general of ESOMAR, Sue York, chief curator of NewMR, and Ray Poynter, Director of Vision Critical University, Vision Critical.

The contributing authors were: Suz Allen, Sven Arn, Reg Baker, Susan Bell, Pete Cape, Alison Dexter, Dirk Huisman, Nasir Khan, Kathryn Korostoff, Nikki Lavoie, Phyllis Macfarlane, Omar Mahmoud, Bernie Malinoff, Katie O’Connor, Stephen Paton, Annie Pettit, Pravin Shekar, Anouk Willems, Navin Williams and Tom Wilms.

The project curators were Finn Raben, Ray Poynter, and Sue York and edited by Sue York and Ray Poynter.

**THE COLLABORATIVE PROCESS**

Because the book has been created and edited collaboratively, no single section of the text can be ascribed to one single author. Because of the collaborative nature of the project, it is unlikely that any one of the contributors would agree with every line of text in the book. The text as presented represents the views and contributions of the team as formulated by the editors.
In general, the book reports the consensus view. Indeed, for some questions the only answer that the new researcher can be given is that a point is hotly contested. The editors feel that this approach is more likely to be useful than putting forward a single, but contested, point of view.

THE FUTURE

ESOMAR plans to produce this book, and to distribute them through a variety of channels to reach as many new researchers as possible.

In order to stay useful, it is likely that this contemporary answers project will need to grow and evolve over time.
THE CONTEXT FOR MARKET RESEARCH

THIS CHAPTER LOOKS AT TEN KEY TOPICS THAT GROUND MARKET RESEARCH IN THE WIDER BUSINESS PROCESS, PARTICULARLY FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE END CLIENT OR RESEARCH USER.
01 WHAT IS MARKET RESEARCH?

All definitions blur at the boundaries, so it makes sense to start by looking at the core of what market research is, and only then consider the boundaries.

The core task of market research is to help businesses or organisations make better decisions by supplying them with information about people, typically customers or potential customers, or advice based on that information. The sort of information collected includes what people do, think and believe, and what their reactions are to new ideas, concepts and propositions.

Whilst there are many ways to conduct market research, most market research (in terms of money spent) is quantitative research, ie, research conducted via questionnaires. The second largest category is qualitative research, for example focus groups and depth interviews.

Activities that do not meet the core definition of market research, but which are usually included in the term market research, are:

- Desk research
- Mystery shopping
- Processing transactional data, loyalty card data, and web analytics for insight
- Opinion polling
- Some social research, eg, evaluating the effectiveness of government-initiated healthier eating campaigns

02 WHO ARE THE KEY PLAYERS IN THE MARKET RESEARCH PROCESS?

There are a wide variety of organisations and people that play a role in making market research happen. The following list outlines the key ones:

1. Customers/stakeholders. The people who are researched. They are referred to as customers, consumers, stakeholders, respondents, cases, members, participants or advisors.
2. The internal client, for example a brand manager. The internal client is often not a research specialist, and research might represent a small part of his or her role.
3. The insight manager or client-side researcher. The insight manager tends to be responsible for converting the internal client’s needs into a research brief; for selecting a research agency; for managing the agency relationships; and for overseeing the delivery of the results. The client-side team may also conduct internal research projects, participate in the analysis of projects, and support integrating results into the business.
4. The agency (the research vendor). The company which conducts the research and delivers the results.
5. Fieldwork companies (including online access panels). Companies that collect quantitative data.
6. Interviewers. The people who talk to respondents and implement the questionnaires (either face-to-face or via telephone).
7. Recruiters. People who find customers, stakeholders, etc. to take part in surveys and qualitative research.
8. Data processing agencies. Companies which process data, for example producing data tables or more advanced analytics.
9. Providers of reporting and infographics. Companies which provide reports, dashboards, charting, infographics, etc.
10. Focus group facilities. Places where focus groups can be held, usually with a viewing room and video recording facilities.
11. Platform providers. Companies which provide online systems to facilitate research, for example data collection systems and community platforms. These platforms are often offered as SaaS (Software as a Service).
12. Software providers. Companies which offer software for coding, analysis, data collection, etc.
13. Coding, transcription, and translation providers. These providers all work with open text to process it into data: turning it into codes, typing it from audio, and translating it from one language to another.

03 WHAT ARE THE KEY POINTS OF TENSION IN THE CLIENT-SUPPLIER RELATIONSHIP?

The list below is loosely based on the “Four Points of Pain” introduced at ESOMAR Asia Pacific 2012 by Stephen Paton, head of insights and market development at AGA Australia.

1. Reliability of the research
   Reliability refers to the level of confidence which the user can have in the research result. That confidence typically is based on two important concepts from statistical theory: validity, meaning the ability of the research to represent the population we are interested in studying, and statistical reliability, meaning the consistency of the methodology and/or findings were the study to be repeated, even by a different supplier.

   Reliability is a key element of any research relationship. The client and supplier need to establish the factors that underpin reliability, for example, an honest assessment of whether the agency is capable of conducting the research as specified.

2. Speed/timing
   In many projects, speed is one of the key concerns. All parties need to realise that this can have a substantial bearing on the sample selection and sample size to be used, the methodology to be adopted, and the price.

   The need for speed can also lead to the end user of the research not having sufficient time to dedicate to the research project, thus placing an additional burden on the intermediary (research agency or insight department) for insight generation and consultative advice. It is necessary for all parties to be aware of the timing require-
ments/constraints of a project well in advance, to avoid proposing/adopting an inappropriate research option.

3. Budget
Budget constraints are often spending limitations dictated by economic circumstance, which affect the commissioners of research just as much as the providers of research.

These three elements form the basis of the ‘trade-off’ between a supplier and end user of research. The fourth one, below, is one that often provides a supplier with a unique advantage.

4. Context
Context includes two important criteria: a) how does the research project fit into the overall business requirement (and will it uniquely contribute to the client’s data bank of knowledge?) and b) does the research supplier understand the client’s business well enough to make the findings relevant, pertinent and insightful?

Dealing with the four points
Regular and transparent discussions between a client and suppliers is essential to deal with the four points of pain. Suppliers should recognise that, even if a client/supplier relationship is working well, putting at least some projects to competitive tender is an accepted and recommended part of the research management process.

04 HOW SHOULD A MARKET RESEARCH PROJECT BE SCOPED?

Market research projects work through the following steps:
1. Set the business objectives
2. Create the research objectives from the business objectives
3. Define the research method from the research objectives
4. Define the details and logistics from the method
5. Conduct the project
6. Take the data and produce findings that answer the research objectives and address the business objectives via analysis

05 WHAT IS INSIGHT?

The intent behind the use of the word “insight” is to convey something more than information. An insight is something that allows recipients to generalise what they have been told or shown so that they can use it going forward. To use an analogy: when researchers give their clients information, it is like giving a hungry man a fish; when researchers give their clients insight, it is like teaching a hungry man to fish.
06 WHAT ARE CLIENTS LOOKING FOR IN PRESENTATIONS?

Many clients feel that the presenting of research results is an underdeveloped aspect of market research. Clients often say that the process of research is far more developed than thinking about reporting and presenting results.

The following suggestions have been put forward by clients as potential improvements:

**Separate the analysis from the presentation.**
Researchers need to review all the data in order to find the story. However, the analysis is not the presentation.

**Tell a story, do not produce a waterfall.**
Too many presentations try to include all the data in the presentation, utilising a large number of quotes, tables and graphs. The researcher must decide what information best addresses the research question, and how to make a story-line out of that. All the rest can be put into appendices.

**Think like a journalist.**
Researchers can learn a lot from the way journalists get their message across. The starting point is that there is limited space and time.

**Do it in a compelling way.**
Tell me and I will forget. Show me and I will remember. Involve me and I will understand.

To keep the attention of the client, involve them in the presentation (eg, small tasks, questions, even gamification).

07 WHAT IS THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MARKET RESEARCH AND OTHER SOURCES OF INSIGHT?

Market research is not alone in offering insight. Other types of organisations offering insight services include:

1. Management consultants, often using market research as an input
2. BI (Business Intelligence), working with large data sets such as CRM and loyalty card usage information to provide findings
3. Web analytics (including SEO), using data from people’s online behaviour to provide findings
4. CFM (Customer Feedback Management) systems, providing a range of methods for linking consumer comments and feedback to management
5. Social media listening and reaction marketing
Some of these companies, such as a number of the social media listening companies, are doing the same thing as market research companies, but tend not to call it market research.

**08 WHY DOES MARKET RESEARCH HAVE CODES AND GUIDELINES?**

The key reasons for codes and guidelines are:

1. Because researchers prefer self-regulation to external regulation or legislation, believing that researchers are in a better position to create sensible, fair and workable rules
2. To help buyers of market research tell the difference between a quality provider and inferior substitutes; this in turn protects the business interests of those companies who incur extra costs by abiding by codes and guidelines
3. To offer guarantees of good behaviour to potential respondents/participants, and thereby make it more likely that people will agree to take part in research projects
4. To guide researchers towards best practice

**09 WHAT ARE THE RESEARCH TRADE BODIES FOR?**

The purpose of trade associations (for example ESOMAR, CASRO in the US, MRS in the UK) is disputed by some researchers, with some people rejecting either their usefulness or rationale. But the core roles of a market research trade association are similar to those of trade bodies in other disciplines and professions. They include:

1. To negotiate with legislators and regulators on behalf of market research, seeking better laws and rules
2. To promote the interests of market research to the broader community, including clients, the media and the public
3. To create and to apply codes and guidelines that regulate market research and help prevent the quality of research being compromised by bad or inferior research being offered by some companies
4. To help develop the industry, for example via training, education, conferences and other services
5. To celebrate the value of market research to industry and society as a whole

**10 WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RESEARCH 'INSIDE' AND 'OUTSIDE' THE 'BOX'?**

Market research typically works best when the problem being researched is one that falls within respondents' everyday framework of thinking and experience, ie, is within the box.
For example, if I show you a new Coke flavour, with a dash of strawberry, then I let you taste it, and then I ask those people who like it whether they would buy it, their answers are framed by the price they expect to pay for Coke, how often they currently drink Coke, and how often they drink a variant (such as vanilla, cherry, or lemon). This is an ‘in-the-box’ problem, and good market research can do a pretty good job of forecasting sales.

An example of an ‘out-of-the-box’ problem is the bread maker. If I show a young, about-to-be-married couple how simple it is to use a bread maker, let them smell the bread, let them taste the bread, and ask them how much they think they will use it in its second year, I am creating an out-of-the-box situation. This is why so many bread makers are given as wedding presents, and why relatively few of them are used for any protracted period of time.
QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

QUANTITATIVE MARKET RESEARCH IS THE PROCESS OF MEASURING THINGS IN ORDER TO DESCRIBE, MONITOR, EXPLAIN OR PREDICT MARKET PHENOMENA. THIS CHAPTER EXPLORES 10 Q’S ON HOW TO COLLECT AND ANALYSE QUANTITATIVE DATA.
01 WHAT IS QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH?

Quantitative market research is the process of measuring things in order to describe, monitor, explain or predict market phenomena. It is conducted to try to help companies make better decisions.

Quantitative research can range from simple measurements, like counting the number of customers who buy canned beans, to more complex questions, like the strength of association between service satisfaction and repeat purchase.

Quantitative research is based on an assumption that the relevant information can be expressed or approximated numerically. Not everybody agrees with this assumption. For example, most people would agree that you can count the number of years you have been married to somebody, but some people doubt that you can express how much you love your spouse in terms of numbers, even when provided with a suitable scale or range of scales/questions.

02 WHERE DOES QUANTITATIVE DATA COME FROM?

The best-known source of quantitative data is survey data collected from people using a questionnaire. However, there are many other sources of quantitative data.

Other sources of quantitative data include:
- Store audit data, eg, what has been sold
- Diary data, eg, billboard viewing, consumer panels, newspaper readership
- Web analytics data, eg, how many people visited a specific page
- Transaction data, eg, account histories for customers of a bank
- Meter data, eg, how many people watched which TV show
- Social media data, eg, numbers of people mentioning brand X

03 WHO SUPPLIES SURVEY DATA?

Many market research agencies use a fieldwork company to obtain survey responses. The fieldwork company may be an online access panel, a CATI call centre, or one that conducts face-to-face interviews.

Some research agencies have their own fieldwork companies, especially within specialist niches. When using a third-party fieldwork company, the research agency specifies the data collection mode (eg, CATI, online, etc.) and the questionnaire. The fieldwork company conducts the surveys and supplies the data.

Other common ways of obtaining survey responses include sending invitations to members of a client’s database or community panel, or serving invitations to website visitors.

Each methodology has different response rates and cost and timing implications. Everyone in the project relationship (supplier and end client) needs to be fully aware
of the business objective behind the project, and therefore why a particular methodology has been adopted.

04 WHAT ARE THE MAIN METHODS OF COLLECTING SURVEY DATA?

The methods of survey data collection (or modalities) vary in popularity in different markets. In North America, online surveys via online access panels are the most frequently used method, whereas in many other markets, face-to-face, interviewer-administered surveys are more common.

The annual ESOMAR Global Market Research report provides an estimate of the total split between methods, and the split within countries.

In 2011, ESOMAR reported the proportions, by spend, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Online</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-face</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postal</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (mostly non-survey)</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

05 WHAT IS MEANT BY THE TERMS ‘POPULATION’ AND ‘SAMPLE’?

In market research (and statistics), the term population has a special meaning. To a researcher, the population is everybody we are interested in. For a bank, the population for a study might be everybody who opened an account in the last two years; for a fast food chain, the population might be people aged 18 to 45 who eat fast food at least once a week.

It is usually impossible to conduct research on the population as a whole because of time, cost, or the nature of the research. Therefore, a sample is used. A sample is a subset of the population.

The idea behind using a sample in quantitative research is that, if the sample is typical of the population, we can estimate what the population would have said by measuring the sample. The more similar a sample is to the population, the more likely it is that the answers from the sample will predict what the population would have said. This is one of the fundamental tenets/principles of market research.

There are four main reasons why a sample may not match the population:

1. Some of the people invited to take part in the study may decline.
2. The list from which the sample was drawn (known as the sample frame) may be incomplete.
3. The method of selecting from the list may not be statistically ‘fair’.
4. By random chance, the sample may not match the population, referred to as sampling error.

If everybody in a population is surveyed, then it is referred to as a census.
06 WHAT TYPES OF SAMPLES ARE THERE?

Whilst there are many types of samples, they can essentially be broken down into three groups:

1. Random probability samples (in which every member of the population has a known and non-zero chance of being selected)
2. Quota samples (in which the collected interviews are organised to match the population on key criteria such as age, sex, region, etc.)
3. Convenience samples (a sample that is available)

Most studies conducted via online access panels combine 2 and 3 above. A panel is not a full list of the population and quotas are used to ensure that the key characteristics of those completing interviews match those of the target population.

The type of sample selected tends to be a trade-off between time, cost, and quality. For many statistical purposes, a random probability sample is the preferred option, but this is usually not a practical possibility in market research. Ensure that both you and your client/supplier are fully aware of and have agreed to the sampling approach to be used.

07 HOW BIG SHOULD THE SAMPLE BE?

Remember that size is not everything. For any given quality of sample, a larger sample is going to be more reliable than a smaller sample. But a well-structured small sample can be more reliable, and can potentially have higher validity, than a much larger badly structured sample.

There is a science to choosing a sample size (n) based on sampling theory (the variability of the data, the desired reliability, and the desired accuracy), and this is covered in the appendix. However, in practice this theory is rarely the guiding principle.

The key factors in determining the sample size are:

1. Custom and practice: Different markets and different niches have their own accepted norms. For example, opinion polling for elections typically uses a sample of 1000; concept testing often uses 100 per cell. Find out what is custom and practice in your market and at your company.
2. The size of the smallest cell: If you want to look at young males (for example), you probably want to have at least 70 to 100 of them in the total sample. Once you know the number of cells you want and the size they need to be, you can quickly work out what the total sample size needs to be.
3. The budget: Larger sample sizes cost more money, so budget (and timing) will often drive sample size decisions.

A number of companies and organisations offer free sample size calculators online that may be helpful.
The sample size/cost relationship can often be a point of tension between suppliers and buyers. It is critical for both sides to understand the business objectives so that both parties can reach agreement on the most cost-effective sampling approach to be used.

**08 WHAT IS SIGNIFICANCE TESTING?**

Significance testing is a way of estimating how much attention we should pay to a result in a quantitative sample. It allows the researcher to assess whether the results of research are likely to represent a real opportunity or difference, and not just be attributed to luck or chance. For example, if we test two coffees and find 55% of people prefer Cappuccino and 45% prefer Latte, it might be because 55% of the relevant population prefer Cappuccino, or it might be just because the sample we chose tended to like Cappuccino.

Significance testing is covered more fully in the appendices, but in simple terms it is a measure of the probability that the differences in the data are large enough to be worth paying attention to. In market research we typically report findings at 95% and 99% confidence levels.

If differences are not statistically significant then it might mean that they do not represent ‘real’ differences or it might mean that the sample size was too small for this result to be significant.

**09 HOW DO WE LINK QUANTITATIVE DATA TO THE REAL WORD?**

In some cases the link between quantitative data and the real world is direct and obvious, for example when processing web analytics information or customer transaction data. However, in most cases, and especially with survey data, the link is less direct and less robust.

The weaknesses in the links between survey data and the real world are twofold:
1. Were the people spoken to truly representative of the target population?
2. Were the respondents willing and able to convey their actions, responses, and beliefs accurately?

In most cases the link between survey data and the real world is based on some sort of modelling, frequently based on norms collected over time. For example, a company specialising in new product testing may have a view that x% of the people who say they will definitely buy the product will actually buy it, and y% of those who say they will probably try it will actually buy it. That view will be based on the analysis of the results of previous tests; it will not be based on simply reporting the data as collected.
The link is not always obvious; it is the role of the market researcher to use his or her skill to find the best link, and communicate it in a manner that assists the client to achieve their objective. It is therefore also essential that the market researcher gets a clear and unequivocal briefing on what that objective is.

10 WHY DO RESEARCHERS SOMETIMES WEIGHT DATA?

In most studies there are discrepancies between the sample and the population. For example, a specific population might be 50% male and 50% female, but the sample collected might be 45% male and 55% female. Weighting would increase the representation of men in the analysis and decrease the representation of women, making the sample look more like the population.

Weighting is common in market research, and can help smooth over small problems. However, weighting always reduces the effective sample size, makes statistical tests harder to conduct, and if large weights are used can badly distort the findings. It is good practice to find out what the distribution of weights is in a sample, and to be concerned if any respondent has a weight of 10 or more; it is also good practice to agree upon the need for weighting before the survey is conducted.
QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

QUALITATIVE DATA DIFFERS SIGNIFICANTLY FROM QUANTITATIVE INFORMATION; THIS CHAPTER EXPLORES 11 Q’S ON HOW TO CONDUCT QUALITATIVE RESEARCH.
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01 WHAT IS QUALITATIVE MARKET RESEARCH?

Qualitative research tries to understand why consumers behave in the way they do, and why they say, think and believe certain things. It is concerned with meaning rather than quantification. Qualitative research goes beyond what people say, and seeks to uncover the tensions and contradictions between what people say, think and do.

The core methods of qualitative research are depth interviews and focus groups, although newer techniques such as online discussions are becoming popular. In both focus groups and depth interviews, the responses shape the flow of the discussion. Moderators guide the respondents through the themes of the research, and encourage them where necessary.

The analysis process for qualitative research is complex, and requires the researcher to reflect on why responses have taken a certain course. Researchers can’t just ask consumers ‘why’ they do or think something; the researcher needs to use different methods of exploration to get to the bottom of the ‘why’ question.

Qualitative research and analysis is a constantly evolving discipline. Amongst the disciplines that qualitative research draws on are: psychology, sociology, anthropology, cultural and linguistic theory, and the new developments in understanding how the brain works.

Qualitative research methods of today are often more complex than, say, twenty years ago, and frequently involve multiple approaches. One strong influence on qualitative research has been ethnography, increasing the focus on observing behaviour as part of the research.

02 HOW DO YOU KNOW THAT WHAT THE RESPONDENTS ARE SAYING IS WHAT THEY REALLY DO?

You don’t! The task of the qualitative researcher is to get beyond what people say, and to understand how this relates to what they do and what they think. If people really did what they said, qualitative researchers would have little to do.

Good qualitative analysis doesn’t just describe what people said, but tries to highlight the meaning behind consumer reactions. A qualitative researcher needs to be conscious of the factors influencing a reaction: the relationship between the respondent and the interviewer, the effect of the other people in the room in a focus group, the fact that people are being observed, etc.

Researchers should be sensitive to non-verbal reactions – to body language, energy levels during a discussion, hesitation and pauses. Sometimes it is just as important to understand what has not been said as what has.

A qualitative researcher needs to understand that each culture is different. In some cultures, individuals are more direct in voicing their opinions and feelings; in others, thoughts and feelings are layered beneath complex codes.
03 WHAT IS THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A QUALITATIVE SAMPLE AND THE FINDINGS?

Qualitative research has a different form of representation than quantitative research. Rather than find a group which numerically reflects the population, a qualitative sample is a collection of people who can best lead the researcher to answer the objectives defined for a piece of research.

These people may be defined by age or life-stage, by geography, by their affinity to a certain category, or by being users or non-users of a particular brand. The researcher then needs to decide how many different people of how many types are needed, and, depending on the methodology, define the number of focus groups, interviews or other forms of exploration required.

Typically, qualitative research involves talking to at least eight people per type/group/cell of interest. If the sample is too small, there is a danger of drawing false conclusions. Alternatively, if a sample becomes too large, the data becomes repetitive and may be difficult to analyse qualitatively.

The overall sample size required depends on the objectives of a piece of research, the various targets to be addressed, and – not least – the country or market to be explored. Thus, in a European market, for example, sample sizes of four to six groups, or eight to sixteen depth interviews are common. In more diverse and populous countries like China, India, Indonesia, Brazil, the USA, etc., geographical differences may call for larger numbers of groups or interviews.

With qualitative research it is not relevant to talk about ‘how many’; what matters is ‘why.’ For example, when exploring advertising in qualitative terms, it is not possible to predict how many people will purchase the product. The aim of qualitative research is to describe how the advertising works or doesn’t work.

04 CAN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH BE CONDUCTED ONLINE?

Early attempts to duplicate classic qualitative methods online were felt by many researchers to be less than satisfactory. Online focus groups and depth interviews were said by some to be missing the spontaneity, complexity and indeed depth of face-to-face interactions.

The online qualitative approaches of today go far beyond replicating offline approaches. They use the advantages offered by the internet in terms of independence of time and place to involve participants in other forms of qualitative exploration. These new approaches include online diaries and online communities. The interactive nature of the internet allows respondents to be given tasks to complete in natural settings. Online can also be useful when researching topics that involve more sensitive personal information (eg, on AIDS, cancer, etc.), as there is no interviewer to be “embarrassed” in front of.

Online methodologies also allow different stakeholders to get involved. Clients can follow the consumer discussion, interject questions or themes, and develop con-
cepts that can then be evaluated by the consumer community, making a research experience holistic and geared to concrete output.

05 WHEN DO YOU DO FOCUS GROUPS, WHEN DO YOU DO DEPTH INTERVIEWS?

One frequent criticism of focus groups is that respondents in a group may influence each other. However, that is the whole point of focus groups!

A focus group is an ideal methodology to explore themes that require a social dynamic, and in those cases when the researcher can benefit from understanding how people interact. For example, when exploring a verbal concept, it is interesting to see when the ‘tipping point’ in understanding occurs. This can be facilitated by a discussion in the group (as long as the moderator is in control and can successfully steer the discussion). In a piece of research on brand identity and positioning, it can be interesting to use the collective knowledge of a group to understand brand relationships, their proximities to and distances from each other.

Depth or individual interviews are a valuable form of exploration when seeking to understand individual biographies. In individual interviews, the researcher can explore in depth how people’s past experiences, value systems and lifestyles impact their consumer behaviour today. Depth interviews can illuminate how brand perceptions have developed, and what has contributed to this development for each individual consumer.

Whilst there are differences between the characteristics of a focus group and depth interviews, there is also a degree of overlap. Individual reactions are often an invaluable part of a group setting. Reactions to advertising or packaging are often very personal, and degrees of comprehension and spontaneous engagement vary.

06 DO YOU DO QUALITATIVE FIRST AND THEN QUANTITATIVE – OR THE OTHER WAY AROUND?

Both scenarios are possible, and the research background and objectives should determine which order is best, or whether both are required.

Research questions concerned with ‘how many’ and ‘who’ will often call for quantitative research; research questions concerned with ‘why’ call for qualitative. When we are asked to find out ‘which’ (ad, concept, packaging, etc.) has most potential, both are possible (though we should always take into consideration the fact that with qualitative research we can only answer this question for the people we have asked, not for the whole population).

A typical scenario for quantitative first would be a case in which we need to find out what drives consumers of a certain brand or category, but we don’t yet know who these consumers are. A piece of quantitative research can help identify the individuals we then need to talk to in the qualitative stage.
A qualitative first scenario would be a case in which we first want to explore the range of drivers, need-states or consumer types in particular segments, and then want to quantify the size of each of these. The qualitative research will provide the understanding to design a comprehensive set of questions; the quantitative research will then add the figures. Many researchers find qualitative approaches useful for hypothesis building.

Qualitative and quantitative research are sometimes conducted in parallel, often because of time constraints. For example, in research about testing, combinations of qualitative and quantitative can deliver more than the sum of their parts. The combined research can determine which ad performs best, and how and why it does as well.

**07 WHAT IS A PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUE?**

Projective techniques are visual or verbal techniques used to enable research participants to express abstract ideas or associations that they may not be aware of on a conscious level.

A very simple example is the personification exercise. If we ask a consumer what the personality of a brand is, he or she will likely find it difficult to verbalise. But if we ask the same consumer to imagine that the brand turned into a person—with a particular style and lifestyle, a home, a car, values, ideals, dreams, and fears—then the consumer will have a starting point from which we can begin to talk about personality attributes.

The idea behind a projective technique is that the respondent ‘projects’ an idea onto an imaginary surface (eg, a person, a building, a landscape, a country, etc.), and is then asked to describe what they ‘see.’ (In traditional psychology, Rorschach’s ink blots were stimuli for projective research.)

Some projective techniques use additional stimulus materials, for example stick men or toy figurines. The respondent might be asked to describe the brand user and an onlooker, explaining what he or she thinks each of them is saying, what each of them is thinking, and what each of them is doing.

**08 WHAT IS A DISCUSSION GUIDE?**

The discussion guide describes the flow the moderator intends to take during an encounter (for example a focus group or depth interview) with a participant or participants.

The discussion guide fulfills three key roles:
1. A plan of what will be covered in the encounter, enabling the researcher to organise his or her thoughts in the context of the client’s business need
2. An agreement with the client as to what will be explored during the encounter
3. A resource for the moderator during the encounter
A discussion guide may be one of the following:

- A detailed description of every question that is going to be asked during the encounter, often in the form of a multi-page document
- A loose outline, perhaps one side of a sheet of paper, defining the structure and flow of the encounter
- Any point between these two extremes

The discussion guide tends to be more detailed and prescriptive when either:
1. The project is using several moderators, possibly in several countries; where a standardised approach makes it easier to combine the outputs
2. The client wants to specify the process very closely

Shorter and less prescriptive discussion guides tend to reflect the following qualitative values:

- The research should follow the flow defined by the participants/respondents, rather than a document.
- The moderator should apply the right questioning techniques when they are required. Projective techniques, for example, can work very differently by target, category and culture, and may need to be adapted accordingly.

**09  WHY DOES QUALITATIVE RESEARCH COST SO MUCH PER PERSON?**

There are three key drivers of cost in qualitative research:

1. Respondents for qualitative exercises, such as depths, focus groups or ethnography, cost more to recruit than for most types of quantitative research.
2. Incentives tend to be higher for qualitative than quantitative research, as the time, effort and contribution being asked for are usually greater.
3. In all but the simplest cases, the analysis of qualitative data is time consuming and requires specialist skills.

Good analysis takes time, and the number of respondents is not the only factor in defining how much time it takes. A qualitative analysis of three or four ethnographic interviews may take just as long as another project with more straightforward objectives and five or six groups.

(For more information on qualitative analysis, see Chapter 10.)

**10  HOW DO YOU FIND RESPONDENTS, AND WHAT ARE THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE RECRUITMENT PROCESS?**

In most cases, participants for qualitative research are recruited by professional recruiters, although in some parts of the world recruiting panel members has become acceptable.
Respondents are typically recruited using a screener which defines exactly who is being looked for, the products and/or brands they are using or not using, socio-demographic factors, and sometimes psychographic factors.

Good recruitment is essential to the quality of a qualitative research project. Unfortunately, some recruitment is mediocre, and in some cases even fake. This can lead to decisions being made on the basis of incorrect assumptions from badly conducted research.

Luckily for the researcher, it is very difficult for consumers to conceal reality in a qualitative context. It tends to become very clear whether people really are who they say they are. Researchers tend to be loyal to good recruiters, and avoid those who let them down.

11 WHAT SORT OF BUSINESS NEEDS DOES QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ADDRESS?

When a client needs to know how many, what and where, they will typically turn to quantitative research, especially if they want to project estimates from the sample to the population.

When a business needs to understand why people are doing something, or how a brand fits within people’s wider lives, they will typically turn to qualitative research. When clients want to understand why people chose a specific brand, how they set about buying it, what it adds to their inner sense of self, and how they think the brand makes them look to others, then qualitative research is a more natural choice.

However, there are many cases in which one client will choose qualitative whilst others will choose quantitative. For example, when conducting ad testing, some will choose a quantified approach which will tend to be predictive of success; others will prefer a qualitative approach which will provide more diagnostic information on why the ad works and how it could be improved. There are also many cases in which both qualitative and quantitative are used, either sequentially or in parallel. For example, qualitative may be used in the early stages of new product development (NPD), first for ideation and then to refine the ideas. Quantitative research may then be used to estimate predicted market share.

Qualitative research can also be particularly important in international research, where cultural differences mean that it is important to understand how people respond to a product or service, and where the reasons or motivations behind consumer behaviour may differ from those markets the researcher is already familiar with.
WRITING QUESTIONNAIRES

THIS CHAPTER LOOKS AT THE PROCESS OF WRITING QUESTIONNAIRES FOR QUANTITATIVE MARKET RESEARCH SURVEYS (INCLUDING WEB, PAPER, TELEPHONE AND POSTAL). QUESTIONNAIRES ARE VITAL TO THE MARKET RESEARCH PROCESS AS, DESPITE MANY OTHER INNOVATIONS, THEY REMAIN THE MAIN DATA COLLECTION METHOD IN MARKET RESEARCH.
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01 HOW SHOULD A QUESTIONNAIRE BE LINKED TO THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES?

It is easy to lose sight of the research objectives when writing a questionnaire. For each objective, consider which questions or combinations of questions in the survey will be used to address that objective. Every objective should link to a sufficient number of questions in the questionnaire.

Then work the other way. Consider each question in the questionnaire. For each question ask yourself what objectives it serves. Does it move the respondent towards a key question, or provide essential background or screening information? If not, then it is not needed for the study.

02 WHAT ARE THE MAIN TYPES OF QUESTIONS USED IN SURVEYS?

The first distinction is between open and closed questions. Open questions allow the respondent to respond in their own words, or to type in numerical values. Closed questions present a set of possible answers from which the respondent picks. Closed questions can either be dichotomous (Yes/No), single coded (choose one answer only) or multi-coded (choose as many answers as apply). Answer lists will tend to be either categories (eg, Which of these brands of soft drink have you bought in the last year?) or scales (eg, a five-point agree/disagree scale).

The boundary between open and closed questions can be blurred by adding an open-ended option to the list of closed responses, for example by including an “Other – please type in” option.

Sometimes, closed questions are grouped together in what is known as a grid. A grid applies a single scale (for example a ten-point importance scale) against a set of questions. (The term grid describes the way the question is laid out on paper or on a computer screen, with the scale across the top and the questions down the side.)

There is considerable debate surrounding specific aspects of the scales to be used in survey questions (eg, the merits of a five-point versus a seven-point scale, whether to label each point on the scale, and whether to use graphic devices such as sliders, etc.). New researchers should familiarise themselves with the ‘house style’ (ie, the preferred formats) of their organisation, and seek further advice from textbooks.

03 HOW LONG SHOULD A SURVEY BE?

Surveys should be as short as possible. Longer surveys tend to reduce cooperation rates, and the quality of responses tends to decline after a certain point in the survey. Surveys need to be long enough to capture the essential information.

The definition of too long is contextual. An engaging survey can often afford to be longer than a relatively boring, low-engagement survey. Surveys about high-interest subjects such as chocolate can often afford to be longer than surveys about less
engaging topics such as bank accounts. Surveys conducted with members of online access panels can often afford to be longer than surveys conducted with ‘fresh’ respondents (for example people drawn from a client’s database).

The modality of the survey will also impact the maximum length. When a respondent is interrupted during his or her day (for example by an interviewer in the street or via a web pop-up), the survey needs to be shorter; a pre-arranged interview (which might be face-to-face, telephone or online) can be a little longer.

The best advice about the maximum length for a specific questionnaire will come from people familiar with the sample source, for example from the online access panel provider. However, as a rough guide, the following should help:

- Surveys with online access panel members – maximum length of 20 minutes
- Surveys with anybody else – maximum length of 12 – 15 minutes

If a survey needs to be longer, the researcher should think about how to break it into multiple sessions, or multiple surveys.

04 SHOULDN'T THE RESPONDENT BE FORCED TO ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS?

To an extent, it is possible for the researcher to ‘force’ the respondents to answer every question, for example by configuring an online survey not to move on until a valid answer is entered, or instructing the interviewer not to move on until the question is answered. Of course, the respondent always has the option to quit the survey.

Researchers argue as to whether to allow answers like “Don’t know” or “Prefer not to answer,” or simply to permit the respondent to proceed without supplying an answer. Some researchers worry that allowing respondents not to answer makes some types of analysis (for example multilinear regression) difficult or impossible, and feel that if respondents know the answer it is part of the implied ‘contract’ for the respondent to answer all the questions.

Other researchers say respondents may not want to answer, or genuinely not know (or not remember) the answer, and that this should be respected. Surveys without the option to not answer a question force the respondent either to ‘lie’ in order to continue, or to abandon the survey. Some research associations take a view that the respondent should always have the ‘Prefer not to answer’ option, but this is not universal.

05 WHEN SHOULD “DON’T KNOW,” “NONE OF THESE,” “NOT APPLICABLE” AND “PREFER NOT TO SAY” BE USED?

The researcher needs to understand what is meant by the answers given. Therefore, it is vital to use the correct code given the context. For example, “Don’t know” is the respondent saying “This question applies to me but I do not know the answer.”
Similarly, “None of these” means “I have an answer to this question, but it is not one of the ones you have listed.” “Not applicable” means “This question does not apply to me.”

“Prefer not to say” should be used when the researcher thinks there is a reasonable probability that the respondent knows the answer, but may be embarrassed to answer it or it is culturally inappropriate to ask it.

In interviewer-administered surveys, there is a middle option between offering a code such as “Don’t know” and not offering it, which is to put it on the questionnaire, but to instruct the interviewer not to read the option out, and instead only use it when appropriate.

06 WHEN SHOULD “OTHER” BE USED?

“Other” is used to capture answers that the researcher has not thought of, or are less popular and the researcher wants to save time and/or space on the questionnaire. “Other” is particularly important when the most important item for a respondent may not be on the list. “Other” is more likely to be necessary when conducting international or multi-cultural research, where the chance of missing a key option is greater. “Other” is often coupled with an option for the respondent to type their answer in.

07 WHAT ARE THE KEY RULES FOR SURVEY QUESTIONS?

The following are key rules for survey questions:

■ The respondent should know what he or she is supposed to do. This means using language that the respondent is likely to understand, and making the instructions clear and complete.

■ The question should not be ambiguous. If the respondent should pick only one option, the options should be mutually exclusive. The question should ask a single question. Avoid double-barreled questions such as “To what extent do you agree that brand X is good quality and good value?” People who agree with both parts have no problem, people who disagree with both parts find the question easy, but people who agree with one part and disagree with the other find this question ambiguous.

■ Questions should minimise bias. For example, they should not ‘lead’ the respondent, and they should not unnecessarily be subject to social desirability bias. A question like “Do you clean your teeth?” is going to lead to the answer “Yes.” A question like “How many times per day do you normally clean your teeth: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 or more times?” is more likely to reduce leading, anchoring, and bias.
08 HOW SHOULD I BEST COLLECT NUMERICAL INFORMATION?

Researchers often write questionnaires with numerical answers in bands. This is done for several reasons:

- The respondent may not know the exact answer. For example, the answer to the question “How many times do you listen to your MP3 player in a typical week?” is likely to vary week-to-week, and many people will not know the specific answer.
- Respondents can find it difficult to enter numbers into online surveys, especially if they are confused about the units (e.g., miles versus kilometres, per day versus per week).
- Bands can be used to reduce the risk of social desirability bias. A wide range of answers, including 0 and a very high band, can help convey the message that there are a wide range of ‘acceptable’ answers.

However, there are also disadvantages of using bands for numerical information. These include:

- Bands are not as precise as individual entries. If respondents do know the precise values, then direct entry will be more accurate.
- If the range of numbers to be entered is hard to predict, the bands can create a distorting frame, pushing responses towards the middle of the presented range.

09 HOW CAN THE SURVEY BE MADE MORE ENGAGING?

There is a widespread view that engaging surveys can result in better response rates, higher levels of cooperation, and a willingness of respondents to tackle longer surveys. However, there are also concerns that some types of engagement can change the responses in ways that are not predictable or helpful.

The following steps can be taken to improve questionnaires:

- The survey should be written in an engaging and appropriate style. The questionnaire should be written in a style that matches the audience and the topic. A survey for young mobile phone users might be written in a very informal style; a survey amongst men over 50 years old asking about sexual problems might adopt a professional, almost medical style.
- The questionnaire should have a narrative flow. Questions should be written so that the flow seems natural, so that people almost expect the next question and can understand why they are being asked that question at that time.
- Images, graphics and animation can be used to make the survey more interesting. However, care must be taken to ensure that the images and animation do not change the meaning of the survey and result in different responses.
- The survey should avoid question types that are known to be disliked by respondents. Examples of problem questions include grids, questions that appear to be similarly worded to earlier questions, and questions that require lots of typing.
There is a lot of interest in gamification at the moment. The idea behind gamification is to use learnings from gaming to improve surveys. These include setting time limits, improving graphics, setting objectives, and providing feedback. As with images and animation, the researcher needs to be alert to the risk that the process of gamification will change the results.

10 HOW SHOULD I TEST A QUESTIONNAIRE?

The method of checking a questionnaire depends to some extent on the data collection medium (for example a paper survey with face-to-face administration versus an online survey).

For a face-to-face survey, the key steps include:
- Checking the survey against the research objective(s)
- Spelling and grammar checking
- Piloting the survey

For an online survey, the first two points are the same, but there are also the following considerations:
- Asking the software to check the scripting and logic
- Printing a copy of the survey and running through the survey multiple times until every question and option has been seen and checked
- If the software has an auto mode, running several thousand dummy interviews to check that every question and every loop in the survey collects information
- Starting the survey with a soft launch, inviting 10% or 50 respondents (whichever is smaller) to check that the survey is working satisfactorily (it is always worth checking any open-ends at this stage to see if respondents have typed in any clues about problems)
Pricing Research

The interpretation and communication of pricing research findings may be significantly influenced by the researcher's knowledge of the market and category under examination. This type of project does require specific skills and experience and this chapter explores some of the key issues & approaches.
01 WHY IS PRICING RESEARCH SO HARD?

There are three key challenges with researching price:
1. Pricing appears to be rational, but customers often behave in non-rational ways.
2. People tend to be poor evaluators of what they would do in hypothetical circumstances.
3. People are often unaware of current prices.

The three points above tend to work in combination to make pricing research difficult. For example, if respondents tend to be unaware of current prices, it is hard for them to envisage a market with different prices, and this difficulty is then compounded by the framing and anchoring effects of the survey process.

Because pricing research is so challenging, there is no single best approach. The research industry has developed a variety of techniques, each providing some insight into some types of research questions. However, there is one general guide that seems to help with most survey based approaches: when asking respondents to answer questions about price, it is important to create a context that is as close to the real world as possible.

02 WHAT DOES A CLIENT TYPICALLY NEED FROM PRICING RESEARCH?

The main criterion that differentiates one pricing study from another is whether the aim is to research an existing product or a new product.

In terms of an existing product, clients tend to need to understand the following:
1. Brand elasticity: if they change the price of their product what will happen to sales?
2. Cross-elasticity: if one brand changes its price what happens to the sales of other brands?
3. The size of the market: will price changes just result in changes in shares, or will the total market grow or shrink?

In terms of a new product, clients typically need to know the impact of launching the product at different prices, or the optimum price at which to launch it.

In addition, a pricing study may need to look for more nuanced information. For example, will the customer ‘buy forward’ (eg, buy now, use later), trade-up to larger/better options, or change where/when they buy?

03 HOW TO PICK THE RIGHT RESEARCH APPROACH?

Because there is no single best way to conduct pricing research, the researcher needs to pick a technique from those that meet the criteria of the project (ie, those that are likely to meet the research objectives, and fit the budget and the timeline). The fol-
lowing is a list of the more popular techniques (later sections in this chapter cover these techniques in more detail):
- Econometrics – an aggregate use of historic sales and pricing data
- Test Markets – trying new prices out in real markets
- Priced Concept Test – a survey approach showing a concept and prices
- Van Westendorp PSM – a survey approach asking people to estimate what they would expect to pay
- Gabor Granger – a survey-based approach asking people what they would pay
- BPTO – a survey-based approach looking at varying prices
- Conjoint Analysis/DCM – a survey-based approach looking at varying attributes and prices

04 WHAT ARE THE KEY TERMS IN PRICING RESEARCH?

The following expressions are used regularly in pricing research (they are all explained in more detail in the glossary, but a short introduction here will help with the remaining questions in this chapter):
- Elasticity. If a small increase in price results in a large drop in sales, the product is said to be elastic. If a large increase in price results in a small drop in sales, the product is said to be inelastic. The elasticity of a product is calculated as the ratio of the change in sales over the change in price.
- Cross-elasticity. Cross-elasticity is the degree to which the change in the price of one product affects the sales of another product. For example, a drop in the price of Coke is likely to reduce the sales of other colas.
- Zero-sum and N-sum markets. A zero-sum market is one in which demand does not grow or shrink. For example, if the price of toilet paper falls, it is unlikely that people will start buying more toilet paper per year. An N-sum market is one which is likely to grow or shrink in total. For example, when a low-cost airline enters a market, it normally increases the number of flights purchased in that market.
- Aggregate and individual analysis. Some pricing research, such as BPTO and conjoint, can provide data at the individual respondent/customer level, allowing a wide range of analyses to be conducted. Other pricing techniques look at data across respondents, and can only report findings at an aggregate level (eg, for the total market or for sub-groups such as men versus women).

05 WHAT IS ECONOMETRICS?

Econometrics uses data about sales and price over time, and seeks to identify the link between price changes and changes in sales. For example, the historical data for a product may indicate that an X% increase in price is associated with a Y% decrease in sales.
### Characteristics of Econometrics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of data</th>
<th>Sales and market data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elasticities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-elasticities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of analysis</td>
<td>Aggregate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market assumption</td>
<td>N-sum market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key uses</td>
<td>When prices tend to increase together (e.g., following tax changes or supply problems), and to benchmark the introduction of new products</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See question 4 and the glossary

One limitation of econometrics is the need to have access to historical price change and sales data, ideally for all the products being reviewed. A bigger limitation of econometrics is the problem of disentangling the price-related changes in the market from those changes that relate to other market initiatives (e.g., advertising and other promotions) and the prevailing economic conditions, and the problem of correlations between the price changes for one product and the price of other products.

### 06 HOW ARE TEST MARKETS USED FOR PRICING RESEARCH?

The traditional way to utilise test markets for pricing research is to take one or more geographical locations and experiment with different prices. The difficulties with this approach include: it takes time; it is hard to organise; sales can leak from one location to another; and it can be very expensive in terms of lost sales or discounted sales.

A newer, more flexible version of test markets has been created online, where vendors can dynamically change prices and assess their impact.

### Characteristics of Test Markets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of data</th>
<th>Sales data following experiments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elasticities</td>
<td>Limited, as only a few prices are normally tested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-elasticities</td>
<td>Limited, as only a few prices are normally tested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of analysis</td>
<td>Aggregate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market assumption</td>
<td>N-sum market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key uses</td>
<td>Tends to be used in geographically large markets, such as the US, or across countries (e.g., Europe), or in the context of online sales</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See question 4 and the glossary
**07 HOW ARE CONCEPT TESTS USED IN PRICING RESEARCH?**

A concept test is a survey-based market research technique whereby the respondents are asked to evaluate a concept. The concept can either be a new product or a modification to an existing product. The price of the product is typically assessed using a number of cells, with each cell seeing a different price.

**Characteristics of Priced Concept Tests**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of data</th>
<th>Surveys, usually online or face-to-face</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elasticities</td>
<td>Limited, as only a few prices are normally tested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-elasticities</td>
<td>Limited, as only a few prices are normally tested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of analysis</td>
<td>Aggregate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market assumption</td>
<td>N-sum market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key uses</td>
<td>Tends to be used for the pricing of new products, when the client has a pretty good idea of the sort of price at which they want to sell the product</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See question 4 and the glossary

**08 WHAT IS THE VAN WESTENDORP PRICE SENSITIVITY MEASURE?**

The price sensitivity measure (psm) tends to be used to gather an estimate of the price at which consumers expect a product to be offered. psm is most often used to assess the price for a new product, and is not normally used for tactical or detailed pricing.

psm data is typically based on a single product, and the fieldwork is conducted by asking respondents to provide four prices based on the following questions:

1. At what price would you feel the product was so expensive that you would not consider buying it?
2. At what price would you feel the price was so low that you would feel the quality couldn’t be very good?
3. At what price would you consider the product to be expensive, but still worth considering?
4. At what price would you consider the product to be a real bargain?

(The precise wording of these four questions varies from one expert to another.)

The data is combined into cumulative frequency curves, and the points at which the curves cross are interpreted as being indicative of possible pricing strategies. There are detailed notes on the curves and their interpretation in the literature and online.
09 WHAT IS GABOR GRANGER?

Gabor Granger is a survey-based method of finding out what respondents are willing to pay for a product. The technique is named after its founders, André Gabor and Clive Granger.

The basic version of the test is performed by showing the respondent a product and a price, and asking if they would buy it. Variations of the test include showing the same respondent more than one price, or varying the price across respondents.

10 WHAT IS BPTO?

BPTO stands for brand price trade-off. BPTO is a survey-based approach which involves showing a respondent a set of products with prices, and asking the respondent to make a choice. After the respondent makes a choice, the price of the item they select is increased (and the prices of other items may also be modified), and the question is repeated. This process is repeated multiple times until the respondent has revealed the structure of their price and brand preference.

BPTO is an advanced technique, and normally requires the input of a marketing scientist at both the design and analysis stages.
11 WHAT ARE CONJOINT ANALYSIS AND DCM?

Conjoint analysis and DCM (discrete choice modelling) are survey-based methods of assessing the value to the customer of various components of a product (e.g., size, capacity and quality), as well as price.

The respondents are shown sets of options and asked to indicate which they would select. A typical study might show each respondent 14 sets of options, with each set having perhaps four items to pick from. The values of the attributes (including price) are calculated from the respondent’s answers, typically via some form of regression.

Conjoint analysis and DCM require more design time and more analysis time than most other forms of market research, and normally require the involvement of a marketing scientist.

See question 4 and the glossary
B2B RESEARCH (THAT IS, RESEARCH WHICH COLLECTS THE VIEWS OF BUSINESSES RATHER THAN INDIVIDUALS) REQUIRES A DIFFERENT APPROACH AND UNDERSTANDING OF SAMPLING AND INTERROGATION PROCESSES. THIS CHAPTER EXPLAINS SOME OF THOSE KEY DIFFERENCES.
01 WHY IS B2B RESEARCH DIFFERENT?

B2B research differs from B2C research in many ways:
1. You are talking to an individual as a representative of a business, not as an individual consumer.
2. A business is not always easy to define – it might have a single location or be a global multinational. You need to know what you want to cover both from the sample perspective and in the interview.
3. Respondents are not always easy to define. Businesses define and combine responsibilities in numerous ways to suit themselves and the way they work.
4. Businesses are much more variable in their consumption than consumers. This has all sorts of implications for sampling and weighting.
5. Business decision making is incredibly complex and variable, both within a business and between different businesses. It is rare that a business decision is taken by a single individual (except in the case of a single-employee business). This makes defining the respondent more challenging.
6. Sample sources tend to be incomplete and of variable quality. Hence, B2B sampling is more complex.
7. Data on the universe is less easily available.
8. B2B research tends to be much more expensive than consumer research.

02 HOW DO I DEFINE THE UNIVERSE?

Think of all the types of businesses that might consume the product or service that you are researching. Try to define them in terms of industry classification and size. Decide whether you need to cover very small businesses in your survey, or whether you can just cover large businesses. (Very small businesses are difficult from a sample point of view, because it’s difficult to find sample frames.) Remember that you may need to include the public sector (eg, government).

The term large is contextual: on one level it means larger than the majority of firms in that sector; on another level it means large in an absolute sense in terms of number of employees, turnover, number of locations and, potentially, number of countries.

03 WHERE CAN I FIND SAMPLE?

There are various sources of business sample, all of them imperfect. There are reasonable sources (eg, Dun and Bradstreet) of larger businesses in most countries, but the zero-employee sector is generally difficult to sample. Public sector sample is also a particular problem.
04 WHAT’S THE 80:20 RULE ALL ABOUT?

The 80:20 rule applies to B2B research in that it is almost always the case that a large part of the market will be accounted for by a small part of the universe. This means that you can hardly ever do proportionate sampling; you must always over-sample the large consumers without under-sampling smaller businesses too much. You must ensure that you have enough of the large and important consumers in your sample.

05 WHAT ABOUT SAMPLE DESIGN?

Sample design for B2B research is mainly an exercise in stratification. Decide which are the key sub-groups (strata) that you need to cover, and obtain the universe counts by strata (check that they make sense). Decide the sample fraction in each stratum based on a judgement between the size of the strata in terms of businesses and consumption, and the relative size of the final weight factors.

For example, in the simplest case you might have 500,000 small businesses and 500 large businesses in your defined universe. The 500 large businesses might account for approximately 70% of the market. If your sample size is 200, then you certainly don’t want to do a proportionate sample because you would only do two interviews with large businesses.

Nor, however, do you want to do 140 large businesses and only 60 small businesses. You have to find a balance.

06 HOW DO I DEFINE THE RESPONDENT?

Remember that you should define the respondent in terms of function, not job title, since job titles vary widely and do not mean the same thing in different businesses. Think in terms of ‘the person responsible for deciding on the supplier of mobile phones to your business,’ ‘the person who would be responsible for purchasing lorries for your distribution system,’ etc.

And remember that decision making encompasses influence, recommendation and sign-off. The ultimate decision maker may just be rubber-stamping the recommendations of someone else. You probably need to interview the person who evaluates different suppliers and makes the recommendation to get the best results.

Whatever you decide, be careful to check level of decision-making responsibility (the person who signs off, one of a group who influences, etc.). Remember, too, the role of procurement in larger businesses.

Once the ideal respondent has been defined, there may still be problems with securing access to that person due to policies, gate-keepers, or other logistical issues. These sometimes result in an alternate person needing to be interviewed, or the interview being conducted indirectly via an intermediary (such as a PA).
07 HOW DO I COLLECT THE DATA MOST EFFECTIVELY?

Most B2B research is still done by telephone or face-to-face. Online approaches are successful for more qualitative methods (online forums, communities, etc.), but less successful for straightforward surveys. This is because business sample frames with email addresses are rarely available, many businesses do not allow receipt of surveys, and so response rates are generally variable and very low.

It is possible to sample job function within consumer online access panels, but be careful of representivity. To be IT director of a five employee business is very different from being IT director of a global multinational organisation.

08 HOW DO I DEAL WITH MISSING DATA?

By ‘missing data’ we mean answers of “Don’t know” or “Not stated” to crucial quantitative questions like “How much do you spend on X?” or “What percentage of your expenditure is outside your local country?”

Missing data can be a real issue if you are trying to establish market sizes or make forecasts, since non-response is invariably biased, generally towards larger organisations. Do not use simple averages. You need to impute values based on the best information you can gather and taking particular account of issues like the size of the organisation or the number of countries it operates in.

09 DO I NEED TO WEIGHT THE DATA?

Absolutely. It is a rare B2B survey that does not require weighting. This is mostly because it is unlikely that the sample design will be proportionate, so you need to correct for that. In addition, response rates are usually significantly biased by size and industry, so that response bias needs to be corrected. The most common procedure is to weight by industry and size. Be very careful to check for ‘outliers’ – interviews with high weight factors and high consumption.

10 ARE THERE SPECIFIC ISSUES WITH ETHICS AND CONFIDENTIALITY?

Obviously, any business-sensitive information must remain confidential, but as far as data privacy is concerned, although the code of conduct applies equally to businesses and to individuals, businesses are generally less sensitive about privacy, and are frequently quite happy to have their comments passed on to the client on an attributed basis. Obviously, again, you must be careful to ask permission properly, but this can be a very valuable and powerful source of insight for your client.

Some companies have policies that prevent employees talking to researchers, receiving incentives, or being quoted.
You must be sure to adhere to your local market research code of conduct. In some countries, it is not permitted to pass respondents’ names on to the client, even if the respondent gives permission.
COMMUNITIES REPRESENT AN EMERGING AND INCREASINGLY POPULAR APPROACH TO FACILITATING A TWO-WAY DIALOGUE WITH CONSUMERS, CUSTOMERS AND/OR OTHER INTEREST GROUPS. AS WITH ALL NEW METHODOLOGIES, COMMUNITIES HAVE THEIR OWN UNIQUE (AND EVOLVING) CHARACTERISTICS AND CHALLENGES AND THIS CHAPTER REVIEWS 11 KEY POINTS TO BE AWARE OF.
01 WHAT IS AN ONLINE COMMUNITY? 62
02 WHAT IS A RESEARCH COMMUNITY? 62
03 WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN AN MROC AND A COMMUNITY PANEL? 62
04 HOW ARE RESEARCH COMMUNITIES RECRUITED? 63
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08 HOW IS A BLIND PANEL MOTIVATED? 64
09 WHAT ARE SHORT-TERM AND LONG-TERM RESEARCH COMMUNITIES? 64
10 HOW ARE MEMBERS INCENTIVISED? 65
11 WHAT TYPES OF RESEARCH ARE CONDUCTED VIA COMMUNITIES? 66
01 WHAT IS AN ONLINE COMMUNITY?

An online community is a generic term for any online system used to facilitate a community, including social networks, bulletin boards, and topic communities such as Mumsnet and PatientsLikeMe.

The three core elements that tend to define a community are:
1. The ability for members to have a profile. A member’s community name and, if used, an image are called an avatar. Profiles can be as basic as a cryptic online name, or as full and identifiable as a Facebook profile.
2. The ability to express a view, for example by posting a comment, setting a status, or uploading an image.
3. The ability to interact with other members of the community. This can be as marginal as commenting on other people’s posts, or can include actions such as creating contacts, friends and sub-groups.

02 WHAT IS A RESEARCH COMMUNITY?

A research community is a purposed community, ie, a community which has been created for a specific purpose and which somebody has paid for. Research communities are created to facilitate research.

There are several different forms of research communities, including MROCs, community panels, and bulletin board focus groups.

Research communities differ from most other groups used in research in that they combine the following characteristics:
- They operate over a period of time, from days to months to years, rather than existing for a single episode, as in a focus group or survey.
- They are asynchronous, in that they do not require the members or researcher to take part at the same time.
- They allow results to emerge, or be co-created, through repeated engagement.
- They usually include the utilisation of stored information.

03 WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN AN MROC AND A COMMUNITY PANEL?

An MROC (Market Research Online Community) is a qualitative research community, or a community which is primarily used for qualitative research. MROCs tend to have between 30 and 900 members.

Community panels tend to be larger than MROCs (typically 3,000 to 50,000 members), and are used for both quantitative and qualitative research.
**04 HOW ARE RESEARCH COMMUNITIES RECRUITED?**

Research communities are recruited in a number of different ways. If the community is focused on customers, then the preferred method is via the client, ideally via emails sent from the client.

If customer lists are not available, then key options include:
1. Website invites
2. Trade relationships with other partners (advertising partners, magazines, etc.)
3. Purchased recruit via panels
4. Purchased recruit via other vendors
5. Purchased recruit via advertising (online or otherwise)
6. Other options, including putting links on products and in games, or via telephone and/or post, or face to face (eg, in store)
7. Word of mouth/find a friend/snowballing

(Some researchers argue that engagement and creativity start with the recruitment process, and advocate screening for and seeking to attract those who are already more engaged and/or more creative.)

**05 WHY ARE MOST RESEARCH COMMUNITIES PRIVATE?**

Research communities tend to be private (ie, only invited people can enter), and require an entry procedure (eg, the use of a password). The key reasons communities are private are:
1. To prevent competitors from observing or interfering with the research
2. To give the members of the community a sense of being special
3. To protect the members from unwanted third-party attention
4. To enable the creation of a specific membership profile for the community (eg, a representation of the customer base)
5. To facilitate the removal of disruptive or antagonistic members

**06 WHY ARE MOST RESEARCH COMMUNITIES BASED ON CUSTOMERS?**

Over the last ten years, the focus of market research has shifted from an approximation of the general population to customers. Examples of this trend include the growth in customer satisfaction, NPS, and big data/CRM analysis. One of the reasons for this change in focus is the fact that, for many companies, value is more likely to be generated by keeping customers than by finding new customers.

A second reason why communities of customers are proving so popular is that customers often have a community of interest with the brand. If customers of brand X work with X to improve the services offered by X, then its customers will reap the benefit. A short-term community (eg, 2 to 8 weeks) can be sustained via extrinsic incen-
tives (eg, cash); a longer-term community tends to need intrinsic rewards, such as shared purpose and recognition.

07 WHY ARE MOST RESEARCH COMMUNITIES BRANDED?

Communities can be broadly divided into two categories, branded and blind. A branded community is one which is clearly owned by its sponsor, and which shares the brand’s key look and feel characteristics. A blind community is one that is either themed (eg mums, a type of food, activities, etc.) or generic.

In most situations, communities comprise customers of the sponsoring brand. One of the key motivations for members taking part is the desire to be heard by the brand; that is to say, they want to make a difference. This feeling of shared purpose is enhanced by the community being branded, and by the brand being seen to listen, respond, and be engaged. Being listened to, in turn, leads to greater transparency and honesty, and better response rates.

08 HOW IS A BLIND PANEL MOTIVATED?

If a community is not branded, the community can’t be motivated by the shared purpose of improving what the brand offers. There are two common alternatives, and one that has been gaining interest recently. The first two are themed communities and incentive-based motivation; the newer method is motivation based on fun/engagement/gamification.

A themed panel is one that seeks to create a community of interest; examples include an interest in snack food, a geographical connection such as a city, and common concerns such as health or disease.

Incentive-based communities are perhaps the lowest common denominator version of a community, and tend to be similar in nature and character to online access panels.

Interest in fun/engagement/gamification is quite widespread, but the concerns about bias have not yet been fully settled. Some researchers are quite cautious about issues such as leading or sensitising community members, whereas others believe that making the process fun, providing games, and rendering tasks enjoyable are essential to the process.

09 WHAT ARE SHORT-TERM AND LONG-TERM RESEARCH COMMUNITIES?

A short-term community tends to last from two to eight weeks, but there are variations. Some are as short as a few days, and others last months. Long-term communities are usually treated as if they would run indefinitely, although commercial realities mean they are usually commissioned on an annual basis. Short-term com-
Communities tend to have fewer members and be more homogenous than long-
term communities.

Short-term communities tend to be more incentive based than long-term communities. This is due to the fact that members find it harder to develop a sense of shared purpose. Indeed, some people (such as Diane Hessan, CEO of Communispace) argue that a short-term community is not really a community at all.

Short-term communities tend to be used to solve a single research problem, and are used as an alternative to other, more traditional, research methods. Long-term communities can develop a shared purpose between the brand and the members, and a deeper sense of community. A longer-term community tends to be used as a platform for research and a resource for the brand to keep in touch with customers, rather than as part of a solution to a specific research problem.

10 HOW ARE MEMBERS INCENTIVISED?

Incentives are often divided into extrinsic rewards, such as cash or prizes, and intrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards include praise, respect, being listened to, being provided with entertainment or interesting information (including feedback from the research and on what other community members said).

In ongoing communities the trend is towards using intrinsic rewards as the primary motivation, whereas extrinsic rewards tend to be the norm for short-term communities. However, many researchers argue that intrinsic rewards should be the primary motivation for both long and short term communities.

The main types of extrinsic rewards are:
1. **Sweepstakes/prize draws/lotteries**: all of the relevant respondents are entered into a random process to select one or more winners.
2. Merit based rewards: the researcher uses some criteria to select ‘winners’, for example, prize for best post of the week.
3. Cash per respondent: given the overhead of handling money this tends to be used when the amount of incentive per respondent is quite high, for example 15 members might be engaged in filming their lives and uploading videos for a week, in such a case each of them might be paid a sum of money, e.g. $100.
4. Points per respondent: the company organising the research operates a system of points and respondents completing tasks are allocated points. Respondents are usually able to exchange the points for prizes or cash once they have accumulated a sufficiently large amount of them.

There are many types of intrinsic rewards, but four key motivations that underpin intrinsic rewards are:
1. Influence: some people like to feel that they have had an impact.
2. Fame/status: some people like their contribution to be noted and/or praised.
3. Affiliation: some people like to feel they have joined something, particularly if they make new contacts.
4. Information: some people like having inside information, i.e. information that is not known by everybody

11 WHAT TYPES OF RESEARCH ARE CONDUCTED VIA COMMUNITIES?

The types of research that are today typically conducted via communities need to be considered in the context of short-term MROCs, long-term MROCs, and community panels. The table below illustrates the ways that communities tend to be used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research</th>
<th>Short-term MROC</th>
<th>Long-term MROC</th>
<th>Community Panel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Market sizing/audits</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideation</td>
<td>❤️</td>
<td>❤️</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice of the customer</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ad creation</td>
<td>❤️</td>
<td>❤️</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ad testing</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept screening</td>
<td>❤️</td>
<td>❤️</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept forecasting</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ad and/or brand tracking</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U&amp;A</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pricing research</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer satisfaction</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mystery shopping</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>🍀</td>
<td>❤️</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- 🍀 = Widely suitable
- ❤️ = Partly suitable (e.g., with care or supplemented with other research)
- 🍀 = Not really suitable

Some researchers extend the reach of what communities can be used for by utilising them in conjunction with studies conducted via more traditional methods (e.g., an online access panel), to enable the community to be benchmarked against the marketplace.
SOCIAL MEDIA RESEARCH

SOCIAL MEDIA IS ANOTHER NEW ENTRANT TO THE WORLD OF BUSINESS INFORMATION SOURCES; VIEWS ON ITS ROLE AND APPLICATION IN THE PORTFOLIO OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES VARY CONSIDERABLY AND THIS CHAPTER REVIEWS SOME OF THE KEY CONSIDERATIONS WHEN USING SOCIAL MEDIA FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES.
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02 CAN SOCIAL MEDIA RESEARCH BE USED INSTEAD OF OTHER RESEARCH METHODS? ................. 70
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01 WHAT IS SOCIAL MEDIA RESEARCH?

Social media research is primarily the process of using data obtained from naturally occurring conversations on social media websites for the purposes of market research. The websites most commonly used for social media research include social networks like Facebook, microblogs like Twitter, blog-hosting sites like WordPress, video sites like YouTube, photo sites like Flickr, and many more.

For some researchers, the term ‘social media research’ encompasses techniques such as conducting online focus groups, sampling from social media websites, conducting polls within social media websites, and utilising communities within social media.

Other researchers, however, prefer a more narrow definition which focuses on the collection and analysis of naturally occurring comments, opinions, and messages created in social media, and using that data to report on brand trends, satisfaction, and other common market research measures.

02 CAN SOCIAL MEDIA RESEARCH BE USED INSTEAD OF OTHER RESEARCH METHODS?

In some cases, social media research can replace other research; in some cases, it can be used where other techniques would struggle; and in many cases, it can’t replace traditional research.

The key point about social media research is that it is limited to what is already being discussed in social media. Thus, hypothetical issues, experiments (such as the comparative evaluation of two concepts), issues that require probing, and most things that are not in the public domain are difficult or impossible to assess with social media research.

Surveys are good at focusing on representative samples; social media research’s strength lies in listening to a massive range of people from all walks of life, all around the world. And whereas focus groups allow you to dig deep into the perceptions and opinions of individual people, social media research allows you to gather opinions from thousands and millions of people.

If the research objective requires historical consumer opinions, tracking opinions instantly, or gathering more variables than is possible with other research methods, social media research may be the method of choice (although it should be noted again that social media research can only look at naturally occurring comments, conversations, etc.).

03 WHAT IS SENTIMENT ANALYSIS?

Sentiment analysis is the process of evaluating words and phrases to determine their level of positivity or negativity. The words and phrases can come in the form of tweets,
status updates, video comments, and even survey or focus group verbatims. If there is only a small amount of text, the analysis can be done manually by experienced human coders. However, if there are many thousands or millions of messages, the analysis would be better done automatically by computers.

Two methods are common: first, the analysis can use a dictionary classification, whereby specific numbers are assigned to specific words (e.g., “love” = 5 and “hate” = 1); second, the analysis can be done with a natural language processing (NLP) system, whereby computers attempt to interpret the grammar of a comment, post, message, etc., and assign appropriate values to it.

Both manual and automated systems have flaws. Sarcasm, for example, can be difficult to detect; new slang and acronyms are constantly being created and yet are generally not initially widely understood; and poor grammar and spelling can make texts hard to interpret. Though neither method generates perfectly valid scores, it is generally accepted that human scoring is more valid than automated scoring.

Whether the analysis is done manually or automated, via dictionary or NLP, the key question is whether or not the results are valid.

04 WHAT IS CONTENT ANALYSIS?

Content analysis is the process of evaluating the topics contained within a message. For instance, the sentence “Conferences are a good place to learn” references the topics ‘conferences’ and ‘learning.’

As with sentiment analysis, content analysis can be done manually or automatically. Human coding is much more likely to correctly assign topics, as people generally instinctively understand the contexts in which words are used. Automated systems tend to have a much harder time of this. For instance, in the sentence “My target is to eat three apples per day and track it on my apple,” a person would generally have no difficulty determining that the word ‘target’ does not refer to the Target department store, and that the first ‘apple’ refers to a fruit, while the second ‘apple’ refers to a computer.

Where the number of messages to be coded is small, the higher validity of manual coding is preferred. However, when thousands or millions of messages must be coded, the speed and efficiency of automated coding are often necessary.

Again, as with sentiment analysis, what matters most is ensuring that the final result is as valid as possible.

05 HOW VALID IS SOCIAL MEDIA RESEARCH?

Compared to other methodologies, social media research (SMR) is still relatively new. This means that most companies that provide SMR are still putting significant resources into measuring, evaluating and improving the validity of their systems. During this early phase, some SMR systems will have higher validity than others. Over
the next few years, researchers will have a much better understanding of the validity of social media research, and the information will be shared more widely.

Until then, it is important to understand how every vendor measures validity. Scores that are generated using different methods may not be comparable. Hence, a validity score of 65% generated by one method may actually be better than a validity score of 75% generated by another method, simply because it was generated by a better process. For instance, a method that measures 1000 messages from 100 brands is likely to be better than one that measures only 100 messages from one brand. And a process that is based on blind evaluation (in which the evaluators don’t know how the system originally coded the data) is better than one in which the evaluators can see how the system rated each message.

06 **IS SOCIAL MEDIA RESEARCH SKEWED BECAUSE THE CONTRIBUTORS ARE COMPLAINERS?**

Twitter and Facebook seem to abound with people who are either extremely upset or extremely happy with a brand. Fortunately, when large samples of data are collected, those highly memorable comments are rounded out with a full range of moderate and neutral opinions. When thousands or millions of messages about a single brand are collected, and the sentiment of each message is charted, the end result usually represents a wide variety of views.

07 **WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM SOCIAL MEDIA RESEARCH?**

Any brand, company, category or person that is talked about in sufficient numbers in the social media space can benefit from social media research.

Some very large brands may not generate sufficient conversations for measurement, simply because they are not consumer-facing brands. And smaller brands, even if they are consumer brands, may simply not have large enough awareness. However, even a family-run coffee shop that receives no social media mentions could still benefit from researching the coffee shop category.

08 **IS SOCIAL MEDIA RESEARCH QUALITATIVE OR QUANTITATIVE?**

It can be both. Many social media research systems provide all of the raw data in verbatim form, making the most basic and complex types of qualitative research viable. In addition, SMR systems that incorporate sentiment scoring and content analysis can be set up to provide quantitative data (eg, number of mentions, average score of mentions, average score by topic area, average score by date, etc.).
09 CAN WE ENGAGE WITH PEOPLE WHO SHARE THEIR OPINIONS ONLINE?

Social media research abides by most of the same criteria as other market research methods. Even though it is possible to identify and engage with social media contributors, doing so without their permission is not allowed by most market research bodies.

When researchers wish to enter or join an existing community to engage with members, they should obtain permission by first making their presence known and their objectives transparent. Be sure to read the ESOMAR guidelines for more information.

10 ARE THERE PRIVACY CONCERNS?

Social media research has additional privacy concerns. Anyone whose data is included in this research is individually identifiable. Even when a person’s username and photo are hidden, they can be personally tracked through the URL of the message, or by simply copying a section of their message and pasting it into a search engine.

Particular care must be taken with the sharing of verbatim to ensure that consumer privacy is not violated. When messages may cause embarrassment or harm, they should either not be shown in reports, or be masked so that they are difficult to find through an internet search.

(See also Chapter 15 for more information.)
10

ANALYSING QUALITATIVE DATA

CHAPTER 4 REVIEWED SOME OF THE KEY ELEMENTS IN CONDUCTING QUALITATIVE RESEARCH; THIS CHAPTER EXPLORES THE OBJECTIVES AND PROCESS OF ANALYSING THAT INFORMATION.
01 WHAT IS QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS?

Qualitative analysis is the process that researchers use to make sense out of unstructured qualitative data. Qualitative data comes in many forms, including recordings, notes, transcripts of focus groups and interviews, imagery, photos, video, and the responses to open-ended questions in quantitative surveys. In qualitative analysis, the researcher also includes his or her assessments of non-verbal behaviour such as body language and patterns of talk.

02 WHAT IS THE MAIN AIM OF QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS?

Ultimately, the main aim of qualitative analysis is to reduce the complexity of the information generated in the qualitative research process into ideas and messages which are meaningful for the client and, in the same way as quantitative research, contribute to more informed and better decision making.

Although data reduction is a critical step in the process of qualitative analysis, it is not the only aim. In a sense, the researcher’s task is to translate consumers’ words, ideas and behaviour into the language of business or government, while helping the client see the issue from the perspective of the consumer or customer.

03 WHAT ARE THE MAIN STAGES IN QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS?

Qualitative analysis is an iterative process which starts during fieldwork and ends during report-writing. Although there are distinct stages of analysis, it is very common for researchers to repeat some of the stages and to have several false starts before arriving at the final analysis. The main stages are as follows:

Stage 1. Start
Analysis starts during fieldwork. Qualitative researchers start to develop hypotheses and to formulate insights while in the midst of fieldwork. These can take the form of notes, jottings or drawings.

Stage 2. Manage
The second step is to work out how to physically manage the data. This choice will depend on the form the data is in. Some people use analysis grids (paper or electronic), some use mind maps. Try including drawings as well as text.

Stage 3. Categorise into themes
Next, categorise the data into its main themes. Start with the themes from the research objectives, then add others that emerge during fieldwork. Take care to stay focused on the objectives and don’t be tempted to add themes just because they are interesting findings.
Stage 4. Explore patterns
Next, explore the relationships and patterns that have emerged during the process so far. At this point, it can help to develop models from the data. These can take the form of drawings which help explore relationships between different findings.

Stage 5. Segments
The next step involves ordering the data to identify differences between segments (if any). Possible segmentations include users versus non-users, men versus women, employed versus non-employed. How this is done will depend on the size and nature of the project. There are no hard and fast rules. Steps 3 and 4 are then re-visited.

Stage 6. Interpret
Interpret the research questions. Why do these findings exist? What do they mean for the research problem?

Stage 7. Report
The final stage is the write-up. This can be an opportunity to refine the analysis.

04 HOW DETAILED SHOULD THIS ANALYSIS BE?

This is partly a matter of personal preference, and partly a matter of the size and nature of the project. Some researchers like to code the whole transcript, and then build up their analysis into the themes that emerge. Others prefer to identify the main themes only.

05 WHAT ARE SOME COMMON MISTAKES?
The two most common mistakes are:
- To reduce the data too much. In this case the ‘flavour’ of the consumer language or behaviour is lost. Judicious use of verbatim quotes in the report can help here, so make sure that the analytic method you use keeps track of quotes.
- Not to reduce the data enough. The final stages of the analytic process require the researcher to interpret what the data means, not just describe what people have said.

It should be noted that counting words, creating word clouds, and conducting automated sentiment analysis can form a small part of the analysis process, but only a small part. They should never comprise the entire analytic process.
06 HOW DO RESEARCHERS OVERCOME THE SUBJECTIVITY OF QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS?

Qualitative analysis, like all the stages of qualitative research, is subjective; the researcher is an integral part of the research process.

The most important issue is to acknowledge and work with the researcher bias. One of the benefits of conducting a thorough, well-documented analysis is that it helps researchers acknowledge and minimise researcher bias.

Qualitative research results can also be considered against other relevant data sources. This is referred to as triangulation.

07 WHAT TYPES OF QUALITATIVE SOFTWARE ARE AVAILABLE?

In practice, most agency researchers currently use a combination of paper, whiteboards, Post-it notes and spreadsheets to store and sort their qualitative data.

However, some qualitative analysis software is also available. Specialist analysis software can be beneficial to researchers, especially those working in a team. The software becomes the central storage area of the transcripts (and some versions allow visual images as well). Most types of software allow the researcher to code the transcripts manually. Some can be used to explore patterns in the data as they emerge.

08 HOW DOES THIS RELATE TO VERBATIMS IN SURVEYS?

Surveys are typically quantitative, so the verbatims tend to be used in two ways:

1. They are coded thematically, so that they can be used quantitatively (eg, 25% said they liked the dog, 15% said they liked the music, etc.).
2. They are used to explain ideas not expressed by the closed questions and prescripted answers. One example of this is when “Other” is used in a list, and people are asked to type in their ‘Other.’

Verbatims in surveys are special, in that they tend not to be a dialogue between participants, but are answers from each respondent to the questionnaire, in the context of the rest of their survey responses.

09 HOW DOES THIS RELATE TO FORUM DISCUSSIONS?

In at least one sense, forums are simpler than many other forms of qualitative data because the transcript is the data. All the stages of qualitative analysis listed above should be followed.
10 ARE THERE SPECIALIST FORMS OF QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS?

More advanced forms of qualitative analysis include:

- **Content analysis.** Content analysis involves the systematic quantitative analysis of text, with the results reported as frequencies. Some word clouds and some analysis software use content analysis. However, many qualitative researchers disagree with reducing qualitative data to frequency counts.

- **Discourse analysis** involves a close qualitative analysis of the way in which people use language. It is particularly concerned with the context in which words are used. Discourse analysis can be conducted on transcripts and on social media data.

- **Semiotics** – refer to the Glossary

- **Ethnography** – refer to the Glossary

11 HOW DO WE ASSESS THE VALIDITY OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH?

Qualitative analysis does not rest on claims to a mechanistic, absolute connection to real world facts. Indeed, many qualitative researchers reject the idea that there is something that can be termed objective fact in all but the simplest of cases.

Two key tools in assessing qualitative findings are:

- **Coherence.** Does the story created from the data account for all the important observations in the data?

- **Triangulation.** Does the story created from the data agree with what is ‘known’ from other sources (eg, sales data or psychological models)?

The key test for qualitative research is whether it is useful to the client. Can the client use it to make better decisions?
HOW TO ANALYSE QUANTITATIVE DATA

TEN COMMON QUESTIONS ABOUT HOW TO CONDUCT QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DISCOVERING AND PREDICTING?</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>WHERE DO I START WITH QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS?</td>
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<td>03</td>
<td>HOW DO I SELECT KEY VARIABLES FOR ANALYSIS, FOR EXAMPLE, THOSE TO CROSS-TAB?</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>WHAT IS SIGNIFICANCE TESTING?</td>
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</tr>
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<td>05</td>
<td>HOW DO I DECIDE WHAT THE KEY FINDINGS ARE?</td>
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</tr>
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<td>WHAT CAN I DO WITH VERBATIMS?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>HOW DO I TELL THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ASSOCIATION AND CAUSATION?</td>
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</tr>
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<td>09</td>
<td>HOW LONG SHOULD I GIVE MYSELF TO CONDUCT DATA ANALYSIS?</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>WHAT IF I HAVE TOO MUCH DATA?</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The questions addressing quantitative analysis have been broken into two chapters: this first chapter answers ten common questions about how to go about quantitative analysis; the following chapter looks at ten techniques and tools used for quantitative analysis.

01 WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DISCOVERING AND PREDICTING?

A good way to frame your analysis is to make a very clear distinction. Am I analysing data to *discovery* attitudes and behaviours? Or am I specifically looking to *predict* attitudes or behaviours?

1. An example of discovery: looking through a data set on MP3 players to get a general sense of what attitudes and behaviours exist. Which ones are stronger amongst specific subgroups? What appears to be the structure of the market? Are there gaps in the market?

2. An example of prediction: looking to determine what variables predict MP3 purchase. Is there a set of music-related behaviours that predict higher purchase probabilities?

Each is useful, but each takes a different approach. However, there is usually some overlap, for example, a market structure study implies that filling a gap would be good; a study of the drivers of satisfaction will often require that the current structure be discovered.

02 WHERE DO I START WITH QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS?

Resist the temptation to jump from ‘shiny object’ to ‘shiny object’ in your data. Many new researchers find it irresistible to immediately concentrate on their favourite questions. Doing so can cause you to focus on your preconceived expectations, instead of taking a more disciplined approach.

When you first sit down with a new data set, follow the following three steps:

1. First, conduct an initial read of your data by looking at the totals. Typically, this will involve data tables, and the first column will show you what percentage of participants replied with what answer (e.g., that 60% of all participants reported they currently own an MP3 player). Those top-level results are your ‘frequencies.’ Read them over carefully. What are the big findings? Are some responses and attitudes high or low for all the questions?

2. Then, look closely at the distributions on any scaled questions (for example, questions that use 5-point agree/disagree scales). Be cautious about over-relying on the means from such items, as they can often be misleading: if half the people are “very unlikely” to buy a new MP3 player this month, and the other half are “very likely,” you will end up with a mean of “neutral.” This would totally miss the story.
Some researchers instead focus on the ‘top 2 boxes’ (the percentages that answered for the two most preferred responses, eg, “Agree strongly” and “Agree”).

3. Next, look at your cross-tabs. How did MP3 ownership vary by your predefined banner variables? Look at standard breaks, such as age or gender, and breaks specifically chosen for the study. Do you see any patterns? For example, do men like the concept much more than women? Very often we find that some breaks tell a stronger story than others in a specific study. In one study, you will see notable differences by gender; in another, the key differences might be related to income or marital status.

03 HOW DO I SELECT KEY VARIABLES FOR ANALYSIS, FOR EXAMPLE, THOSE TO CROSS-TAB?

A common mistake made by those new to quantitative analysis is to try to analyse everything. In the commercial world, you normally won’t have that kind of time. You will need to set priorities and use tools that will help you narrow things down. This will allow you to focus on the most important data.

In most cases, the best way to start is as follows:
- Set priorities based on project objectives. Normally, when the project was initially scoped, there were some clear goals. Perhaps there was a hypothesis that MP3 feature preferences would vary by musical tastes or age range. Those are the variables you want to include.
- Do not assume that demographic variables (eg, age or gender) are going to be the important variables. Often they aren’t.
- Set priorities based on actionability. If your sales strategy varies by region, then you absolutely should use that as a banner question.
- As your analysis begins to develop, you will find additional variables to add to your key variables. You will similarly find that you can remove those that turn out not to be helpful.

04 WHAT IS SIGNIFICANCE TESTING?

Significance testing indicates whether a research result is big enough to probably be worth paying attention to. With any research based on a sample, there is a chance that results are due to sampling error. For any given population that error reduces when the differences are larger and/or the sample is larger.

When reading quantitative results, for example crosstabs, you will often see significance testing codes, for example letters in crosstab tables. Differences that are not statistically significant should not normally be reported unless there is some other reason to believe they are not just ‘noise’.

Do not rely on statistical significance too much. Sometimes a result is ‘significant’ but not necessarily actionable. For example, the tables might show that 5% more
men than women liked the MP3 player being tested, it might be significant, but is it actionable? Would a brand change its marketing because of that difference? Statistics are a tool, but common sense should still apply.

Another common sense approach is not to compare small subgroups. The smaller the size of the group the greater the difference required in order for it to be significant. For example, when comparing two groups of 50 interviews the difference between two percentages needs to be about 20 points for it to be significant at the 95% level. A good rule of thumb is not to compare sub-groups with fewer than 50 people in them.

The researcher’s goal is to find differences that are probably genuine differences (not attributable to random “noise”) AND are actionable. Clients do not want a laundry list of hundreds of differences when only ten are actionable.

Many researchers feel that even if the data are not statistically significant it is permissible to describe the findings as ‘directional’, others disagree.

05 HOW DO I DECIDE WHAT THE KEY FINDINGS ARE?

A single data set can yield a lot of data. Part of the researcher’s job is to be a data editor. This means not just dumping every interesting finding into the clients’ laps. If too much detail is presented, there is a risk of the key results not being communicated.

Instead of doing a data dump, try these best practices:

- Focus on those results that link to project objectives.
- Focus on ‘need to know,’ as opposed to ‘nice to know’ information. Save the nice to know results for subsequent deliverables or follow-up reports.
- Seek recurring themes and patterns. A single data point is rarely compelling, but weaving three or four points together can often provide something worthwhile.
- Seek out data points that have some clear meaning (e.g., “market segment A has more unmet needs than any other market segment”). Avoid purely factual reporting (e.g., “50% of segment A respondents said they need X; 40% said they need Y).”

If you can’t find a compelling story, consider using a framework to help search the key patterns and themes. For example, a study looking at brand awareness could utilise a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analysis, first looking at elements in the data that supported each of the four factors, then looking outside the data for further support and clarification.

06 IS MY DATA ‘RIGHT’?

Several factors impact data quality. The three most fundamental questions are the following: Were the right questions asked? Were the people who took part in the study the right people? Was the sample large enough?
First, if you have not already checked during fieldwork, check that the answers to the questions make sense. If they don’t, it might be the case that the question was not clear, that a key answer option was missing, or that the processing of the survey has introduced a problem.

Second, look to see if there are any signs that some of the people are the wrong people. For example, are there too many “Don’t knows”? Are the choices people are making at odds with the market data?

Third, consider whether there is enough data to represent the population of interest. Assumptions will have been made when the project was designed, but only once the data is collected can the differences be checked for statistical significance.

Even if your data set is sufficiently large and your sample source is excellent, you may still get sceptics who question your data. An important strategy in countering criticism is to find ways to validate and triangulate your data. Do other data sources support or show contextual consistency with your analyses? Secondary research, published market research reports, and results from qualitative studies can all lend support to your findings.

In general, if the data seems wrong, the data usually is wrong.

07 WHAT CAN I DO WITH VERBATIMS?

In many survey projects you will have some verbatims (open-ended questions which participants answer in their own words). These verbatims are unstructured data in the form of text.

It is always worthwhile reviewing the verbatims to see what the main themes seem to be. If the number of open-ends is small (100 respondents, with perhaps 50 comments between them), then a manual review is all that is typically needed.

If there are a large number of open-ends, then there are two main strategies that researchers tend to apply:

- The data is reviewed manually. This could mean sorting them in Excel, creating word clouds, or utilising some other method for assessing the message or messages in the data.
- The data is coded. Coding is a specialist skill, often performed by a third-party supplier or specialist team. In coding, the open-ends are assessed to produce categories. The verbatims are then reviewed one-by-one and assigned to codes. Once the verbatims are coded, they can be added to the tables.

Several software companies now offer tools to help with the processing of open-ended data. Some of these packages work by helping code the data, whilst others seek to interpret the information directly.
08 HOW DO I TELL THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ASSOCIATION AND CAUSATION?

Association – whether or not two variables move in a pattern with each other (ie, are correlated) – is something that can be inferred and measured from the data. Causation cannot be inferred from data. The evidence for causation has to come from outside.

For example, researchers might believe that spending more on marketing tends to result in higher sales. This is a proposition of causation. A market research study can measure whether there is a link between the two, and what the strength of that link is. If a link is found, this would support and quantify the proposition. However, causation can be incorrectly assumed on the basis of associations in the data. The following are two examples:

- In the UK riots in 2011, most of the rioters were young. This led some to conclude that young people were out of control, and that systems needed to be changed. But in fact, 99.8% of young people were not involved in the riots. This suggests that it is unlikely that age was ‘causing’ involvement.

- In a recent study, a researcher concluded that people who avoid alcohol are less likely to have diabetes. But the research sample was drawn from a community known to not only avoid alcohol, but also sugary foods and meat. Thus, there was no way that the research could have isolated the avoidance of alcohol as a causal factor.

To paraphrase the 19th-century philosopher John Stuart Mill, if A is correlated with B, then we can infer that A causes B; or that B causes A; or that they are both caused by some third factor C; or that the correlation is a result of chance.

09 HOW LONG SHOULD I GIVE MYSELF TO CONDUCT DATA ANALYSIS?

A simple project, comprising basic frequencies and cross-tabs, should be capable of being analysed in three to seven days. That will allow time to do the analysis, make any adjustments, and do a quality check.

At the other extreme, if the analysis includes advanced analytics or modelling (eg, conjoint, cluster analysis or Logit), you may need 10 to 20 business days. As well as requiring more complex procedures, the researcher may need to go through several iterations, and then find ways of displaying the information in a manner that transfers the complexity of the analysis into meaningful visualisations.

10 WHAT IF I HAVE TOO MUCH DATA?

Some projects legitimately deliver overwhelming amounts of data. However, it is important not to overwhelm the clients with ‘information overload.’
The following strategies can help with delivering quantitative analysis in ways that will maximise the chance of it actually being read and understood:

- Only report the key data that answers the research questions, relegating the rest to appendices.
- Avoid graphics that represent a single question or view of the data like pie charts and bar graphs. Use tools that apply a data-reduction approach, such as perceptual maps, quadrants, tables, Venn diagrams and spider charts.
- Structure reports to be modular. Write each section so that it makes sense independently. If a reader is interested in specific subtopics, he or she can easily read just those sections.
- Extend the modular approach and break larger reports into a series of smaller ones.
- Produce creative deliverables that add interest. Instead of delivering all the data in slides, consider infographics, video reports and podcasts.
QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

TEN TECHNIQUES AND TOOLS USED FOR QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS.
01 WHAT ARE CROSS-TABS?

A simple cross-tab is a matrix with answers to one question forming the rows and another question forming the columns. The following are two examples of simple crosstabs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex by Pref.</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Coffee</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Tea</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink Neither</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this table, gender (male versus female) has been tabbed against preferences for drinks.

The table shows there are 150 men and 150 women. 65 of the men prefer coffee, 54 prefer tea, and 31 drink neither tea nor coffee. There are 116 people who prefer coffee; of these 65 are men and 51 are women.

In the second crosstab, below, row and column percentages have been added.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex by Pref.</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Coffee</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Tea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink Neither</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The top left data cell shows that there are 65 men who prefer coffee; this is 56% of all the people who prefer coffee and 43% of all men. The top right data cell shows that there are 116 people who prefer coffee; 100% of them are either men or women (ie, everybody in the study); and 39% of all the people in the study prefer coffee.

Tables can also display the Total %, ie, the number of people in a data cell as a percentage of everybody in the study. For example, the 65 men who prefer coffee are 22% of the 300 people in the study. Simple cross-tabs are normally used when looking at a small number of specific questions. For a broad picture, data tables tend to be used.
Most quantitative studies utilise data tables. These are reports in which the same columns are cross-tabbed for every question in the study, and in which several questions are used to create the columns (see a simplified example below).

**Question: Are you enjoying this book?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base:</th>
<th>16–24</th>
<th>25–34</th>
<th>35+</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>205</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Yes</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>24%</strong></td>
<td><strong>37%</strong></td>
<td><strong>39%</strong></td>
<td><strong>49%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>68%</strong></td>
<td><strong>50%</strong></td>
<td><strong>75%</strong></td>
<td><strong>80%</strong></td>
<td><strong>67%</strong></td>
<td><strong>70%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>53%</strong></td>
<td><strong>26%</strong></td>
<td><strong>21%</strong></td>
<td><strong>53%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>32%</strong></td>
<td><strong>50%</strong></td>
<td><strong>25%</strong></td>
<td><strong>20%</strong></td>
<td><strong>33%</strong></td>
<td><strong>30%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The collection of questions used for the columns is called a **banner** (or cross-break, break, or header). Each matrix in the report is referred to as a table, and the rows are sometimes called down-breaks or side-axes. Tables are capable of being read cross-wise as well as downwards, but the focus tends to be on reading them downwards.

Tables will often be run showing statistical significance. In the example above, 80% of people over 35 years of age are enjoying the book, while only 50% of those aged 16–24 are. This statistic could be flagged in the tables, typically by using letters, numbers, bold face, colour, or underlining.

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**02 WHAT IS SEGMENTATION?**

The first task in quantitative analysis is usually to understand the average or total picture. The next step is generally to see if there are differences between people. This is the reason for the columns in the crosstabs. Segmentation is a technique that finds differences, usually differences between people.

Segmentation can either be a research tool, or the purpose of a research project.

Segmentation is the process of defining groups of people who are like each other, but who as a group are different from other groups in terms of the criteria measured by the study (eg, behaviour, attitudes or needs).

One typical reason to use segmentation is to allow a brand to develop different offers for different types of customers. For example, a coffee brand might identify and produce products for people who prefer decaffeinated coffee, bland coffee, strong coffee, high-status coffee, sophisticated-taste coffee, or Fair Trade coffee.

The most common tool used in segmentation is **cluster analysis**, but other techniques can be also be used, including **decision trees** (**CaRT, CHAID**) and **perceptual mapping**.
03 WHAT IS CORRELATION?

Correlation is a measurement of the extent to which two variables are related to each other. When two items are correlated, it means that when one variable moves the other moves with it. The movement can be either positive (the two attributes go up or down together) or negative (one goes up as the other goes down).

Correlation produces a number called a coefficient (often shown as r). The value for r ranges from -1 to +1. An r of +1 means that the two variables are perfectly correlated, ie, they move up and down in the same pattern; an r of -1 means that they are perfectly negatively correlated, ie, as one goes up the other goes down in exactly the opposite proportion. If r=0, the two variables are uncorrelated, ie, movement in one of the variables is not associated with any movement in the other.

The correlation coefficient is often squared (**r-squared** or \( r^2 \)), which expresses the degree of variation shared by the two variables. For example, if the r-value was 0.7, then the r-squared value is 0.49, implying that the two variables share 49% of their variance.

Correlation is a measure of association. It measures the movement of two variables, but it does not imply causation. If A is correlated with B, that implies that A causes B; or that B causes A; or that they are both caused by some other factor; or that the correlation is purely the result of chance.

Market researchers use correlation to help identify patterns. For example, a researcher might be interested to see what attributes correlate with satisfaction, or whether satisfaction correlates with consumption.

04 WHAT IS FACTOR ANALYSIS?

Factor analysis is used to deal with attributes that are correlated with each other. This is useful because the presence of correlations between attributes can lead to misleading results.

In quantitative data, attributes are often correlated with each other (eg, waist measurement, chest measurement and neck size tend to go up and down together). Attributes are often assumed to be correlated with some unseen or unmeasured variable, such as body mass in the case of waist, chest and neck measurements. These unseen variables are referred to as latent constructs, latent variables, or simply as underlying factors. In this case, latent means they are not seen or measured directly.

Factor analysis finds underlying factors and reports the correlation between all the attributes and these underlying factors. These correlations are referred to as the loadings or factor loadings.

Sometimes factor analysis is used to help explore the structure of the market. Sometimes factor analysis is used to remove redundant attributes from a study, or to produce data suitable for more advanced analyses.
**05 WHAT IS PERCEPTUAL MAPPING?**

Perceptual mapping is a data visualisation technique allowing the researcher to display items in a multidimensional space, usually two dimensions. Two dimensions are typically chosen because they are easy to represent on the computer screen and on paper.

There are a wide range of techniques used to create perceptual maps, including factor analysis, **multidimensional scaling** and **correspondence analysis**. Each technique has different strengths, makes different assumptions about the data, and needs to be read in slightly different ways.

Some perceptual maps show the brands in the space and arrange the attributes around the outside; some techniques put the brands and attributes in the same space; others show vector lines, as in the example below.

One of the key issues that researchers need to check is how much of the information in the original data is being expressed by the perceptual map. If the map represents 70% of the information in the original data, then we’d usually expect the map to be a good representation of the data. However, if the map only represents 20% of the information, we would be surprised if the perceptual map turned out to be helpful.
06 WHAT IS REGRESSION?

Correlation measures the degree of association between variables. By contrast, regression measures the scale of the relationship between variables. For example, if we take a series of temperature measurements in both Celsius and Fahrenheit, we could use regression to determine that F (the temperature in Fahrenheit) is given by the formula F=32 + 1.8 * C (where C is the temperature in Celsius). In this formula, F is the dependent variable (i.e., the variable we want to estimate), and C is an independent variable (i.e., the variable we know the value for).

Note that, even though we use regression to estimate the dependent variable from the independent variable, this does not necessarily imply causation. For example, regression could be used to predict the amount of alcohol consumed by measuring the amount of alcohol in the bloodstream; but the alcohol in the blood did not ‘cause’ the consumption.

In market research, we typically have multiple independent variables, and therefore multiple regression is used (e.g., multilinear regression). For example, the probability that somebody will prefer a product (the dependent variable) might be linked via multilinear regression to satisfaction with taste, portion size, and price. The regression might, in this case, deliver a type of driver analysis.

Regression produces a range of statistics like r-squared which indicate the degree to which the regression equation accurately predicts the independent variable.

07 WHAT ARE DECISION TREES?

Decision trees are tools for determining the ability of attributes from a study to predict responses to a dependent variable. For example, in a direct mail study, the dependent variable might be responses to the mailing, and the attributes might include location, age, gender, family type, etc.

The two main types of decision trees are CHAID and CART (Category and Regression Trees). CHAID is the older of the two techniques, and is based on categorical variables only, such as gender and social class. (That does not prevent a five point agree/disagree scale being treated as a categorical scale for the purposes of the analysis.)

CART works with both categorical and cardinal data (for example, the number of fast food meals eaten in the past month).

The first step in running a decision tree is to select a dependent variable, such as user/non-user, cluster membership, or account membership. The next step is to choose the attributes to use. These tend to be those without large amounts of missing data. The software will then search through the data to find the question that best predicts the dependent variable.
In the hypothetical example above, there are 4000 respondents, and the dependent variable is whether respondents buy product X or not. In this example, based on CaRT, the software has found that the calculated continuous variable measuring the importance of ‘cheap’ is the best predictor, with the 3000 people who rated ‘cheap’ as less important than 7.5 being less likely to buy X (only 10%). The 1000 respondents rating the importance of price greater or equal to 7.5 were more likely to buy X (50%).

The second level of the CaRT analysis then explores the two nodes from the first split, this time finding categorical variables as the best predictors. The 1000 people in the right-hand node were divided into male (500 people) and female (500). The females with an importance of ‘cheap’ greater than or equal to 7.5 were 60% likely to buy X.

**08 WHAT IS TURF?**

TURF (total unduplicated reach and frequency) is a method of finding optimal combinations of products or services. The key characteristic of TURF is that it seeks to maximise the total number of people who are satisfied with the product offering, rather than measuring, say, the extent to which people like it.

A simple example will help explain the total unduplicated reach part of the process. Assume that an ice cream manufacturer can only offer one flavour; the best choice to offer will be the one that is the most popular (perhaps vanilla or chocolate). If the manufacturer can offer two flavours, then the optimal combination can be found by iteratively searching for two flavours that, between them, provided at least one liked flavour to as many people as possible. Similarly, if three flavours are to be offered, the software needs to find the combination that reaches the largest number of people.
Add frequency to the picture: two options may reach the same number of people, but one of them may be used or purchased more frequently, making it more attractive.

TURF typically requires each respondent to evaluate each of the concepts, ideas or products being tested. The modelling of the results is typically conducted via what-if modelling.

**09 WHAT IS MAX DIFF?**

Max Diff is typically used to assess the relative importance of a set of alternatives. For example, a retailer might be able to modify 20 features of a store, from the parking, to the vegetables, to the bread, to the checkouts. What the retailer might want to know is the hierarchy of importance, to customers, of these attributes.

Max Diff is both a specific way of collecting data and a specific way of analysing data. For example, if a researcher has 20 attributes, he or she might show them to the respondent as a set of randomised sub-groups (known as tasks), perhaps four or five to a task. The respondent is asked to pick which is the most and least important to him or her, and then he or she is shown the next task.

The analysis software calculates the values for each of the attributes by looking at how many times it was picked as most important, least important, and how many times it was not picked.

Max Diff can be used to segment people on the basis of their preferences; it can be used to create unbiased scales; and it can be used as part of a conjoint analysis study. For example, if a client were conducting a customer satisfaction study, different features of their service could be shown, and the respondent could be asked to indicate which aspect they were most happy with and least happy with, choosing from each set of four randomly selected features.

**10 WHAT ARE CONJOINT ANALYSIS AND DISCRETE CHOICE MODELLING?**

Conjoint analysis and **DCM** (discrete choice modelling) are techniques for estimating the value to respondents for each level of a set of attributes. Conjoint and DCM are most typically used in **NPD**, pricing, **needs-based segmentation** and **portfolio management**. Conjoint analysis and DCM both require the data to be collected in a special way, as well as requiring special analysis. (See also Chapter 6 – Pricing Analysis.)

Conjoint analysis and DCM divide the material to be analysed into attributes and levels. The attributes are things like brand, gears, price, and doors. The levels are the options within the attributes. For example, within the attribute ‘brand,’ the levels might be Ford, Honda and Fiat; within the attribute ‘gears, the levels might be manual and automatic; within the attribute ‘doors,’ the levels might be two door and four door.
Conjoint analysis and DCM seek to calculate how much the respondents want each of the levels for each of the attributes. The amount respondents want a level is known as its utility. The impact an attribute has on the overall choice is known as its attribute importance.

The data is collected by showing the respondent combinations of the attributes, each combination containing one level for each attribute shown. These combinations are referred to as options or cards (historically they were shown on physical cards). In DCM, the respondent is shown a set of options, and picks the one he or she would be most likely to choose. In conjoint analysis, the respondent may be asked to rank, choose, or rate the options. The number of times the respondent has to choose something or rate something is known as the number of tasks.

The analysis of the results of DCM and conjoint analysis is normally conducted via specialist software that uses advanced versions of regression to work out the values for each level of each attribute. These values are the utility values, i.e., how much each one drives choice compared to all the other attributes and levels in the study.

The utilities can be fed into cross-tabs or segmentation studies, but in many cases the utilities are used to create a market simulator where the analyst, researcher or client can play ‘what-if’ games – analysing many different options and strategies.

Designing and analysing a conjoint or DCM study is a specialist task, and is normally performed by somebody with experience in the field – a marketing scientist, analyst or statistician.
COMMUNICATING RESULTS

Effectively communicating the results and implications of your research project is a critical skill for all researchers; this chapter proposes ten key questions you should consider when preparing your report or presentation.
01 WHY DOESN'T ALL GOOD RESEARCH RESULT IN ACTION? ................................................. 100
02 IS THE FIRST STEP TO UNDERSTAND THE AUDIENCE? 100
03 HOW CAN YOU KNOW AND UNDERSTAND YOUR AUDIENCE? ............................. 100
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09 HOW CAN TABLES, GRAPHS AND INFOGRAPHICS BRING DATA TO LIFE? .................... 103
10 WHAT ARE SOME TIPS FOR DELIVERING A GREAT PRESENTATION? ......................... 105
01 WHY DOESN’T ALL GOOD RESEARCH RESULT IN ACTION?

Despite all the expertise, care and even love poured into projects, there are times when quality research remains left on the shelf. There is nothing more frustrating than standing by while the urgently needed knowledge you just uncovered is ignored, and others continue down a path you know to be wrong.

How can you prevent your research suffering this fate? Of course, you need to be factually correct; but you also need to be believed, and you need to compel your audience into action. Being a great researcher is not enough; the people who pay the bills also need researchers and insight managers to become great communicators. This means developing communication skills, as well as ensuring that project timelines allow room for the communication to be developed.

02 IS THE FIRST STEP TO UNDERSTAND THE AUDIENCE?

Well, sort of. In any communication, keeping your audience in mind makes complete sense. However, before focusing on the audience, consider how the research is going to be used. Each project is different, and there are multiple ways its findings can be communicated. From a 500-page report to a simple one-line email, there may be several appropriate ways to pass on the message. Knowing the communication goals will assist you in selecting the correct method, and in allocating the appropriate time to the communication process.

Most research will have two major communication needs that will need to be addressed. The research may need to be considered long after everyone involved in the process has moved on. Therefore, results need to be transferred in full to create a holistic and historical record of the research. This can best be achieved via the provision of a dataset, or via an in-depth report (depending on the audience’s preferences and technical capabilities).

The second – and more complex – task will be to inspire action from the findings. This can be achieved via the presentation’s delivery, or via the innovative use of alternative communication methods (eg, vox pops, videos, newsletters, or other attention-grabbing methods). Here, one needs to be more directly focused on the immediate audience for the research.

03 HOW CAN YOU KNOW AND UNDERSTAND YOUR AUDIENCE?

Now it is time to consider your audience. What seems like a simple task is subject to all manner of complications which can impact the researcher’s ability to connect.

The first question to consider is who your ultimate audience is. When dealing with an internal research buyer, the researcher not only has to meet their needs, but also help the buyer meet the needs of their internal client or clients.
It is often a good idea to identify who will be making the ultimate decision. Regardless of the fact that a researcher will usually be presenting to a roomful of people, there will often be a single decision maker who should be the focus of the recommendations.

Consider the following as well: What is the situation that awaits the arrival of the research? What are the current perceptions? Does the research touch on controversial areas? How much time is available to communicate the research and findings? What communication style works best with this group or person?

You should read the briefing document for some indication of how to begin to answer the questions posed above. However, it is when researchers and buyers work closely together to finalise a presentation that these areas can best be addressed. At the very least, ensure that there is ample time for the buyers and suppliers of research to jointly review any presentation materials and conclusions before they are presented to a wider audience.

**04 WHAT DOES IT TAKE TO CONNECT WITH AN AUDIENCE?**

There are three Rs that are useful in connecting with an audience: the right info, the right people, and the right time.

Researchers should also consider four Cs and one E to help make communication a success. The four Cs are:
- Concision: don’t clutter the message with unnecessary facts.
- Clarity: state the message as clearly as possible.
- Consistency: don’t use conflicting messages or differing styles unnecessarily.
- Credibility: this is where researchers usually excel.

And the one E?
- Emotion! If you want the audience to remember and act on your message, you will need to connect on an emotional level.

**05 HOW CAN I FIND AN EMOTIONAL CONNECTION IN MY DATA?**

Since the dawn of time, humankind has understood the power of stories as a form of communication. It is a little surprising that much of the research world has only recently embraced the power of storytelling.

We may know what the data conveys, but if the research industry is going to evolve, it needs to move from communicating the black and white facts of the data to communicating its messages, implications and opportunities.

So where to start? When it comes to finding the story within your data, while statistical variance is a good place to start, it is usually a terribly limiting place to end. Not everything that varies (for example by sub-group) is important, and not everything important will show variance. Don’t let variance replace your inquisitiveness,
your opinion, or your experience. Research should be a knowledge-building process, not research in isolation.

Don’t be afraid to bring you to your communication. Your opinion matters. Let the audience know that this is what you think. Use your questions to generate a discussion.

It is often important to avoid treating your projects as silos. In many cases, the addition of existing knowledge, knowledge from previous projects, or knowledge gleaned from similar situations can be used to contextualise research and bring power to the results.

06 WHAT METHODS OF COMMUNICATING SHOULD I CONSIDER?

Currently, the most common methods are a mixture of face-to-face meetings, emails, and written reports or PowerPoint presentations. Surprisingly, despite the availability of other methods and the changing consumption of information, there has been little change in the way research results are communicated (possibly in part due to the ease and familiarity of current methods).

Modern methods include the use of video, either within presentations or as stand-alone vehicles. End-user technology should also be considered. Does your final presentation consider your potential smartphone audience? Are you taking advantage of the latest technologies? By the time you are reading this, there is a good chance that there will be even more ways to communicate, and more ways people are prepared to listen.

Researchers need to keep abreast of new technologies and trends, and should be willing to trial them to see if they help get a message across or help connect with elements of the audience. This also means researchers may need to use multiple ways to connect with different elements of the audience.

07 WHAT STRUCTURE SHOULD I USE FOR A FULL REPORT?

A typical research report structure should contain background information on why and how the research was conducted, continue with a breakdown of the results, and finish with any conclusions and recommendations. It is also accepted practice to include an executive summary highlighting the key points. Full or formal reports have long been a mainstay of the research industry, and your organisation may have an accepted template or format. The following are just a few hints that you may consider when writing your report:

- Don’t forget to go back to the research objectives set out in the original research brief to ensure that all are listed and addressed.
- When demonstrating how the research was conducted, ensure that you include both method and sample size used.
- Don’t forget the four Cs (concision, clarity, consistency and credibility).
If you are working on a tracking study with multiple reports, try to keep changes between waves to a minimum.

**08 WHAT SHOULD I THINK ABOUT WHEN DESIGNING A PRESENTATION?**

Your presentation, like your reports, should be designed with a clear structure. Start with an introduction or background; introduce evidence to support your case; and end with a conclusion or call to action. Don’t try to fit too much into each slide or the presentation as a whole. Consider both your ability to deliver each slide and your audience’s ability to understand your messages within the given timeframe.

Key questions that may influence the design are:

1. How long, in minutes, has been allocated for the presentation?
2. What type of research is being presented? (A concept test will differ from an ethnographic investigation of product usage.)
3. What type of message needs to be delivered? (A 'yes, you are right, launch the product' presentation will differ from a 'no, your preferred option is wrong, here is why' presentation.)
4. Is the presentation also going to be the main deliverable (in general a bad idea)?
5. Is the format a classic presentation (the agency will deliver their findings) or a workshop?
6. Will the material be projected onto a screen, or circulated on paper?
7. Are there any specific requirements from the clients? (Some may specify a software package, some may specify types of charts, some may even specify details such as fonts and colour tones.)

**09 HOW CAN TABLES, GRAPHS AND INFOGRAPHICS BRING DATA TO LIFE?**

Infographics, charts and (occasionally) tables can bring data to life, and can be an aid to communication. However, the incorrect use of tables, charts, and infographics can have the reverse effect, and limit your ability to communicate.

The choice between infographics, charts and tables will often be determined by the level of granularity and clarity that is required by the audience and the data.

The table below outlines the characteristics and implications of tables, charts and infographics:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLES</th>
<th>CHARTS</th>
<th>INFOGRAPHICS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MESSAGE ACCESSIBILITY</strong></td>
<td>The message in a table usually requires that the presenter spell it out, or that the audience works its way through the table.</td>
<td>The message in a chart should either be immediately accessible (eg, sales are increasing), or require only a brief introduction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MESSAGE DETAIL</strong></td>
<td>Tables usually contain more detail than charts and infographics, but the relationship between the details can be hard to see.</td>
<td>Charts typically convey less detail than tables, but they can usually better convey the relationships between the details.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AUDIENCE INDEPENDENCE</strong></td>
<td>Tables allow audience members the best chance of forming their own views, and enabling them to challenge the presenter.</td>
<td>Charts can make it difficult for audience members to arrive at their own views about the details, but can help audience members arrive at a view about the relationships in the data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOP TIPS</strong></td>
<td>Use 2 or at most 3 significant digits (eg, 75%, 34K, $21MM). Use bold face and colour to group information. Order the rows and columns by the key message.</td>
<td>Don’t try to add too much detail to a chart (eg, too many labels, arrows, data points, etc.). Don’t put every brand, attribute, and scale on the chart, just the ones that need to be there.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10 **WHAT ARE SOME TIPS FOR DELIVERING A GREAT PRESENTATION?**

When thinking about the presentation, it is useful to think of researchers as actors, ie, as people who need to engage with and entertain their audiences.

**Actors:**
- Know their scripts
- Practise their presentations
- View themselves on video to see how they come across
- Seek to eradicate weaknesses and obvious signs of nervousness
- Understand that communication is grounded in the visual
- Use and aim to improve the full potential of their voices (eg, power, articulation, range and tone)

Most importantly, actors seek to be the stars of their stage. So should researchers. The screen should be used to support the researcher; the screen mustn't dominate the show.

Key tips include not reading the slides in full; introducing each slide, then revealing the message; reading short quotes; and, finally, elaborating before moving to the next slide. Try to engage with your audience ‘one on one,’ rather than skimming the whole audience. This will help you develop a conversational style and improve your credibility.

Ensure that the presentation has a narrative flow and that it tells a clear story. Ensure that the audience understands its role. If interaction is warranted, then this should be signalled. If supporting information is coming on the next slide, then this too should be made clear.

To improve your presentations, attend courses, read relevant blogs, ask clients to tell you what they like in presentations, and seek advice and feedback on your presentations.
CURRENT AREAS OF SENSITIVITY

MEMBERS OF DIFFERENT PROFESSIONS ARE REQUIRED TO CONDUCT THEIR BUSINESS IN CERTAIN WAYS; THESE 11 QUESTIONS CONSIDER SOME OF THE CURRENTLY CHALLENGING ISSUES WE FACE ON A DAILY BASIS WHEN CONDUCTING RESEARCH PROJECTS.
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03 CAN WE CONDUCT ONLINE RESEARCH GLOBALLY?......109
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06 WHY DO WE HAVE CODES OF CONDUCT AND GUIDELINES?.................................109
07 DOES BEHAVIOURAL ECONOMICS SUGGEST THAT MARKET RESEARCH DOES NOT WORK?........110
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09 CAN WE SCRAPE INFORMATION FROM SOCIAL MEDIA AND USE IT?...............................110
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11 WHAT ARE THE CONCERNS ABOUT WE-RESEARCH?....111
01 CAN I CONDUCT RESEARCH WITH NATIONALLY REPRESENTATIVE SAMPLES ONLINE?

In general, no. However, there are a few panels in some countries (including the US, the Netherlands, and France) that are recruited using probability-based methods such as telephone or mail to achieve a nationally representative sample. In these panels, when a recruited panel member does not already have internet access, the panel provides it. However, these panels tend to be very expensive to build and maintain, and as a consequence are much smaller than other panels, making it difficult to achieve acceptable sample sizes with anything other than the entire adult population. These panels are not available in every market. Most online panels are not created using probability methods, and therefore exclude people who do not have access to the internet. An online sample can, in many cases, be matched on key demographics against census data, but the sample will not be truly nationally representative.

02 WHAT ARE THE ISSUES ABOUT PROFESSIONAL, DUPLICATE AND FRAUDULENT RESPONDENTS?

Most online research is conducted via online access panels. Over the last few years, there have been a number of concerns raised about some of the people in online access panels, in particular:

- Professional Respondents. This term is applied to people whose prime motivation is to earn money from completing surveys. Professional respondents are often sub-divided into those who, despite being motivated by money, try to do their best, and those who change their answers in order to maximise the surveys they qualify for. Fraudulent respondents are dealt with below, but respondents who do surveys for money but who try their best are generally considered to have no negative implications.

- Duplicates. There are two ways that duplicates can get into studies. Some people join a panel multiple times, in order to qualify for more studies - this is a type of fraudulent respondent. The second way is that many projects draw respondents from multiple panels (many panels draw on other panels to meet quotas). Over the last few years, there has been a growth in the number of tools that help identify and remove duplicates from studies.

- Fraudulent Respondents. A concern in research is fraudulent respondents, people who change their answers and identities in order to maximise the number of studies they qualify for and/or to minimise the time it takes to earn the rewards. Researchers can minimise the problems by utilising best practice in recruitment, duplicate removal, and the use of lie-detector questions to identify fraudulent respondents (for example, including a non-existent brand in the screener brand list, and removing people who claim to use it).

In recent years, there have been considerable technical developments that help identify who respondents are, detect duplicates, and avoid some forms of cheating. There
are also a number of guidelines and standards, such as ESOMAR’s 28 Questions and ISO 26362, that seek to make online research more predictable and transparent.

**03 CAN WE CONDUCT ONLINE RESEARCH GLOBALLY?**

Technically, it is possible to collect interviews from every major country. However, the sorts of people who are online differ from country to country; some countries control access to the internet; and laws about things like incentives differ from country to country.

**04 CAN WE CONDUCT FACE-TO-FACE STUDIES GLOBALLY?**

Again, it is technically possible to collect interviews from every major country, but there are major limitations. In many countries, it is not possible to mix men and women in focus groups, nor to use male interviewers to interview women. In some developed countries, for example the USA and Australia, it is almost impossible to commission door-to-door research.

**05 CAN WE CONDUCT TELEPHONE RESEARCH GLOBALLY?**

It is possible to collect data via telephones from every country, but there are major differences in what will be delivered. The balance of landlines and mobile phones is different in every country, and mobile phones are harder to sample than landlines. For example, there tend to be fewer phone lists for mobile phones, and it tends to be difficult or even impossible to use random digit dialling with mobile phones. On the plus side, phone interviews can help deal with literacy issues (the UN reports literacy rates of 90% for Brazil, 78% for Iraq, 67% for Nigeria, and 58% for Pakistan) and issues relating to hard-to-reach groups such as urban youth.

**06 WHY DO WE HAVE CODES OF CONDUCT AND GUIDELINES?**

Over the last two years, there have been a growing number of voices questioning why market research needs codes of conduct and guidelines. The key reasons are:

- To help avoid or minimise external regulation
- To provide guidance to researchers about best and ethical practice
- To provide guidance to the buyers and users of research as to what they should expect
- To minimise the risk that unethical and low-quality research will drive down standards, and avoid competition from low-cost but inferior alternatives

(For more on codes and guidelines, see Chapter 15.)
07 DOES BEHAVIOURAL ECONOMICS SUGGEST THAT MARKET RESEARCH DOES NOT WORK?

Behavioural economics has become very fashionable in market research circles in the last couple of years. Some of the interest that has been generated has suggested that asking people questions is fruitless, because we are not privy to our own beliefs and motivations.

Whilst it may be true that behavioural economics reminds researchers of the problems of order effects, framing and anchoring, context, and asking people to rationalise emotional or unconscious decisions, most of this has been known for many years, and good research has sought to deal with it. Behavioural economics may offer reasons for market researchers to review their methods and to change some, but it is not a major challenge to research as we know it today.

08 DOES NEUROSCIENCE SUGGEST THAT MARKET RESEARCH DOES NOT WORK?

Neuroscience, especially as practised by people like Martin Lindstrom, has been challenging the model of how people think for a few years, highlighting many of the same phenomena as behavioural economics, such as the role of heuristics and emotion in decision making.

Whilst neuroscience has challenged some assumptions about the usefulness of over-rationalised questions and answers, and has provided some new insights into the measurement of advertising, the scale of change and challenge can easily be overstated. Neuroscience, like behavioural economics, mostly provides a reminder that bad research can easily mislead both the researcher and the client.

09 CAN WE SCRAPE INFORMATION FROM SOCIAL MEDIA AND USE IT?

Market research has always been based on informed consent, and this needs to remain the case with information gathered from social media. In addition to a market researcher’s point of view, there is a growing collection of activities from legislators, regulators, and owners of platforms.

Countries are passing incompatible laws about privacy, intellectual property, and commercial interests. The EU is proposing a right to be forgotten, the US is considering do-not-track legislation, and platforms such as Facebook jealously guard their right to protect ‘their’ data.

Researchers should be aware that the laws, regulations and guidelines are changing on an almost weekly basis, so before collecting information online, researchers should take advice and also ask themselves whether what they are proposing to do seems fair and reasonable.
10 CAN WE JOIN ONLINE COMMUNITIES TO GATHER RESEARCH INFORMATION?

Whilst there is debate about precisely what publicly available online information can be accessed, used and reported, there is little doubt that market researchers should not falsely sign up to communities, lurk, observe, and gather information for their clients without seeking to announce themselves and to ask permission.

Researchers would not pose as health visitors in order to trick their way into people’s homes to secretly gather information for their clients. Similarly, a researcher should not pretend to be sick, or pretend to be a mother, to join communities like PatientsLikeMe or Mumsnet for the purpose of secretly gathering information.

11 WHAT ARE THE CONCERNS ABOUT WE-RESEARCH?

WE-Research seeks to involve citizens in the research project, and in many ways is seen as almost a liberation school of research. It democratises the process and throws the doors open. Examples of WE-Research include co-creation, auto-ethnography, and recruiting respondents to function as hybrid journalists/anthropologists using their smartphones.

However, there are several concerns that are being aired:

- In terms of people using smartphones and similar techniques to capture stories of their lives, the main issues are the privacy of the people they report on, the safety of people taking part in the research, and conflicts over the ownership of any findings they report.
- In terms of collaborative creativity, the key issues are ones of intellectual property and client confidentiality.
- In terms of creating online personas, the issues tend to relate to the informed consent of people who are one and two levels removed from the initial connections, who may not realise they are being researched.
RESEARCH ETHICS, GUIDELINES AND LAWS

PROFESSIONAL ETHICS DEFINE AND CATEGORISE MANY DIFFERENT SERVICES. THE ICC/ESOMAR CODE HAS LONG BEEN THE BASIS FOR STANDARDS OF BEHAVIOUR IN THE MARKET RESEARCH INDUSTRY. IN THIS FAST EVOLVING WORLD, THIS CHAPTER REVIEWS 10 COMMON QUESTIONS ON STANDARDS THAT NEW ENTRANTS TO THE INDUSTRY MAY HAVE.
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02 BUT WHY ARE CODES SO IMPORTANT? ................ 114
03 SO HOW MANY CODES OF CONDUCT ARE THERE? ... 114
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Some may feel that turning a discussion towards the ethics of market research is a sure-fire way of killing the conversation. They may be right! However, let us not forget that individual breaches of best practice, respondent trust or prevailing law can affect the reputation of our entire industry.

In a recent attempt to understand what new recruits to our industry think about our industry’s ethics, Finn Raben (director general, ESOMAR) posted a discussion on RWCONNECT and tweeted an invitation to comment. The tweet was retweeted several times, and posted in various LinkedIn and Facebook groups. We estimate it reached +/- 3,000 people, yet the discussion board attracted 6 comments in total.

If the professional standards of our industry are that unknown or that uninteresting to the next generation within our industry, then it is our sincere hope that this chapter outlines why we need to mentor these standards into our next generation.

01 WHY DO WE HAVE CODES OF CONDUCT?

Almost every profession that deals with members of the public (eg, the legal profession, the medical profession, accountancy, etc.) has a code of conduct; market research is no different. These codes of conduct serve to highlight for the public that there are standards (or principles) of behaviour that we must abide by, and which they can expect to receive from us. These codes differentiate us from door-to-door salesmen or, for example, unlicensed market traders.

02 BUT WHY ARE CODES SO IMPORTANT?

The market research profession relies on respondents or participants to provide us with information; often this information is personal, and respondents must therefore feel secure that what they are giving us will be held in confidence and treated with respect. This trust in our profession not to abuse the information they provide is founded on our codes of conduct. If we do not maintain that trust or respect, then the primary source of information for our profession will dry up very quickly.

03 SO HOW MANY CODES OF CONDUCT ARE THERE?

The most widely accepted one is the ICC*/ESOMAR code, which at the time of writing is accepted or endorsed by 65 different market research associations, in over 50 countries; details of the code may be found at the following link: www.esomar.org/knowledge-and-standards/codes-and-guidelines.php

While a few countries have chosen not to use the ESOMAR code, the principles embodied by their own codes are almost always the same as those listed in the ESOMAR code, but adapted slightly to suit the prevailing conditions in particular markets.

*(ICC = International Chamber of Commerce)
04 SO WHICH CODE OF CONDUCT SHOULD I USE?

You will never be wrong if you abide by the ESOMAR code, but you should check with your colleagues and contact your local association to see if there are any additional points that you need to be aware of within your own country.

05 WHAT’S THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A CODE OF CONDUCT AND A GUIDELINE?

A code of conduct is a set of behavioural principles that govern the way we deal with our clients, colleagues, peers and participants/respondents. A guideline is (usually) a set of directions, based on best practices from around the world, that will help you to use a new approach or methodology.

So, for example, the ESOMAR social media research guidelines (www.esomar.org/knowledge-and-standards/codes-and-guidelines.php) outline what are ‘acceptable’ applications of using social media to collect information from people; they also outline those practices which have been found to be unacceptable. By following these guidelines, you will ensure that you – and your company – are seen to be adopting commonly approved practices, and reduce the risk of respondent complaints.

06 WHY ARE THEY CALLED ‘GUIDELINES’? AREN’T THEY ENFORCEABLE?

Guidelines are usually produced to provide direction on emerging methodologies and/or practices. In most of these cases, acceptable behaviour or appropriate legal guidance varies enormously from country to country; what may be legal in one country may not be legal in another.

Guidelines are produced by a group of practitioners drawn from all over the world, and are thus a compilation of best practices from different legal jurisdictions. Ignoring such guidelines can often produce poor quality research, and will probably result in you, your company, and ultimately our industry losing the trust of the public that is so essential to our business.

07 IS EVERYONE IN THE RESEARCH CHAIN – FROM INITIAL PROVIDER TO ULTIMATE END-USER – BOUND BY THESE CODES AND GUIDELINES?

Most of them are, as they recognise that these principles and directions are all designed to maintain and improve the quality of what we do. However, we must also recognise that some do not, and are happy to put some of these standards at risk, usually for short term financial gain. This is an area in which we must continue to edu-
cate people about and enforce our standards, so that our business can continue to flourish.

It is also important to note that, as markets expand, both in terms of emerging markets and new entrants in existing markets, awareness of codes of conduct may vary. One consequence of this is that market researchers should check that sub-contractors are operating to an appropriate ethical and quality standard.

**08 WHAT ARE THE AREAS THAT ARE CURRENTLY THE MOST ‘SENSITIVE’ IN TERMS OF BEST PRACTICE?**

The most sensitive areas are online research generally (including techniques like netnography and self-administered questionnaires), social media research, mobile research and neuromarketing. Technology develops much more quickly than the law, so what can be done is not always what may be done. Legislators around the world are currently working very hard to align their legal positioning on the internet, e-privacy, and data protection. Please be especially careful when proposing work in these three arenas. ESOMAR has guidelines for all of them. If in doubt, ask.

Another major area of concern is research that relates to children. Whilst there is a general desire to protect children from both harm and exploitation, there is a confusing array of guidelines and laws from country to country. Even the definition of what a child is varies by country, and to a lesser extent by business sector (for example, in most countries the age at which alcohol-related research can be conducted is different from the age at which chocolate-related research can be conducted).

**09 SO IS THERE A QUICK AND EASY “CHEAT SHEET” ON THIS TOPIC?**

Well, there are three things you must always remember:

1. Do no harm. Respondents give of their time and attention willingly; do not abuse it.
2. Be respectful. The information we are given is usually personal; do not publicise it.
3. Get consent. Do not assume consent; make sure the respondent agrees to participate.

These three principles are key; but again, if you are in doubt, ask.

**10 IS THERE A WAY OF PUBLICLY PROVING TO MY CLIENTS OR PEERS THAT I ABIDE BY THESE CODES AND/OR GUIDELINES?**

Yes. Membership in ESOMAR is conditional upon agreeing to these principles; and as a member, you have the right to publicly use a membership mark to signify that adherence.
MAJOR APPLICATIONS OF RESEARCH

THIS CHAPTER LOOKS AT THE KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF SPECIFIC USES OF MARKET RESEARCH, SUCH AS INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH, PHARMA, AD TRACKING, AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION.
01 WHAT IS SPECIAL ABOUT INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH?

Up until about 10 or 15 years ago, international research often meant doing research across countries in Europe, North America and Japan. More recently, as multinational companies have come to realise the enormous market potential of developing countries, the demand for international research has increased dramatically. The initial focus was on the so-called BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China), both because of their large populations, and also because the economies of those countries seemed to be developing so rapidly. More recently, the focus has broadened to include almost any country in Asia or Latin America, with the Middle East and Africa not far behind.

Key challenges include the following:
- Methodologies that work well in Europe and North America (such as online or telephone) sometimes do not work well in emerging markets.
- Cultural differences need to be taken into account in questionnaire design and qualitative settings. Even simple questions, such as what are the competitive products in each country, can be tricky.
- Data collection often needs to be coordinated amongst numerous subcontractors, all in different time zones around the globe.
- Surveys and discussion guides need to be translated and then back-checked.
- Costs, standards and cooperation vary widely from one country to another.

02 WHAT IS SPECIAL ABOUT PHARMA?

There generally are two different kinds of pharma research. One involves drugs sold “over the counter” (sometimes referred to as OTC), and is not unlike the kind of research done with fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) generally. The other kind of pharma research involves prescription drugs (sometimes referred to as Rx), and typically requires research with physicians/doctors. In general, when researchers talk about pharma research, they are talking about Rx.

The goal of Rx research is often about helping a client understand the drivers of physician prescribing behaviour. Among the specific drivers frequently studied are the features of a drug (eg, efficacy, side effects, dosage, etc.), the physician’s view of the manufacturer’s brand, past prescribing behaviour, and the effectiveness of the sales strategy being used.

Two aspects of Rx set it apart from other types of market research. The first is that it tends to be extremely technical, relying on scientific terminology and concepts unique to medicine and pharmacology. The second is that it focuses on data collection from physicians, a historically difficult group to contact and engage with. Over the last few years, researchers have tried to solve this cooperation problem through extensive reliance on online panels and the payment of incentives that are extraordinarily high compared to other kinds of research.
03 WHAT IS SPECIAL ABOUT AD TRACKING?

The goal of ad tracking research is to understand the effectiveness of a company’s advertising campaigns. It tends to be a quantitative methodology that is distinct from ad testing, which is sometimes done qualitatively and in advance of an ad’s release. Ad tracking, as its name suggests, is generally continuous, and designed to determine on an on-going basis which ads are reaching specific audiences, the channels through which they are reaching those audiences (TV, radio, print, mail, online, etc.), and how those ads may affect a consumer’s likelihood to purchase. The interplay amongst these three dimensions is key to helping a company design and execute a campaign that maximises the return on investment (ROI) on advertising spend.

In many instances, ad tracking is linked to the segmentation models that a company may use to target specific types of ads.

04 WHAT IS SPECIAL ABOUT CUSTOMER SATISFACTION?

Customer satisfaction research, often referred to simply as CSAT or CSM (for customer satisfaction measurement), attempts to measure not just satisfaction, but also to understand the features of a product or service that drive satisfaction, so that companies know where to focus their improvement efforts. CSAT is often continuous, rather than a snapshot at a point in time, so that satisfaction can be tracked and the impact of a company’s efforts to improve satisfaction measured. Samples typically are drawn from lists provided by the client.

In one form of CSAT, samples of customers are interviewed about their general experiences, impressions and feelings about the product or service. In another form of CSAT, generally referred to as “transaction research,” samples of customers who have had a recent and direct interaction with the company (eg, a recent purchase, call to a service centre, filing a complaint, requesting repairs, etc.) are contacted for brief interviews to get feedback on those interactions.

CSAT data is often analysed using sophisticated mathematical modelling techniques that measure the impact of various features of a product or service on overall satisfaction.

05 WHAT IS SPECIAL ABOUT AD TESTING?

Ad testing is typically conducted on ads before they are deployed. Ad testing tends to have one of two core missions:

- Assessing the likely impact of the ad on the market. This is essentially a quantitative approach.
- Researching how the ad works. This is often a more qualitative approach, and often incorporates looking at how the ad can be improved.
There is a heated dispute about how advertising works, with people arguing about how important it is for an ad to be recalled, noticed, liked, and identified. This has resulted in a wide range of alternative techniques being used, from quant ad tests, to focus groups, to neuroscience, biometrics, facial coding and implicit measurements.

Forecasting success in the market place tends to require benchmarks (eg, a database of past results) that help interpret how a specific test result should impact the real world (after allowing for spend and other marketing activities).

06 WHAT IS SPECIAL ABOUT CONCEPT TESTING?

Most concept testing attempts to take an idea or a prototype, and to forecast what its success in the market will be. Concepts can vary from a single phrase through to a fully finished product (for example, something that might already be on sale in another country). Some concept testing focuses on testing how the concept works, and/or how the concept can be improved.

There is a considerable amount of overlap between the research approaches used in ad testing and concept testing. Market forecasts tend to depend on having models and databases that allow test scores to be converted into market forecasts. The evaluation of how concepts work and how they can be improved includes a wide range of qualitative and biometric approaches, and in addition quantitative techniques such as adaptive surveys and prediction markets.

07 WHAT IS USABILITY TESTING?

Usability testing looks at a product or idea and assesses its usability. This area of research is an area of overlap between market research and other professions such as HCI (human computer interface) and usability professions.

In terms of market research, the main field where usability is researched is in the area of websites, but usability can cover any product or service.

Usability testing employs a wide range of techniques and approaches, including focus groups, observation, usability labs, professional scoring (eg, when assessing disability access), eye tracking and, where appropriate, surveys.

08 WHAT IS IDEATION?

Ideation is different from most other forms of research in that it seeks to create something (most market research seeks to discover and interpret things that exist, or to assess the future impact of something). Ideation is a family of approaches used to create ideas and refinements.

Most ideation techniques are qualitative, with focus groups and communities being the two most common approaches. Gamification is often employed within
ideation in order to break rigid ways of thinking, and to create a degree of competition between the participants.

09 WHAT IS IMPORTANT TO KNOW ABOUT RESEARCH WITH CHILDREN?

Research with children raises several special and important issues, in particular:

- Research with children requires, under almost all circumstances, prior parental permission; in many cases this needs to be written permission.
- The research should be designed to be suitable for younger people. This means ensuring that the concepts and language being used are suitable for the age group and the range of abilities within that age group.
- The interpretation of the research collected from children should be conducted by people experienced in working with data from children; adult interpretations cannot be projected onto children’s responses.
- Care needs to be taken not to ‘lead’ children into specific responses, and care needs to be taken not to influence children generally.
- The background and credentials of researchers who will be working with children should be checked very carefully, in order to avoid putting children at risk.

There is a growing concern in many countries that research should not be conducted with children at all if its purpose is to design products that they will pester their parents for, or if the products are considered unhealthy (eg, sugary treats).

10 WHAT IS DIFFERENT ABOUT SOCIAL RESEARCH?

For some researchers, social research is a separate discipline, one conducted by social researchers, not market researchers. However, there are many occasions when governments or NGOs commission research from market researchers which is either social or partly social in nature and design.

In social research, it is often more important (compared with commercial research) to use methods that have both face validity (ie, they make sense to the stakeholders) and construct validity (ie, they agree with verified or accepted theory). By contrast, methods in commercial research often rest on predictive validity (ie, they correctly forecast the results).

The search for face and construct validity often results in social research using larger sample sizes for quantitative research, using telephone or face-to-face in preference to online, and working hard to improve response rates (for example, by employing multiple call-backs). This is particularly true when researching older groups (eg, the over 80s), disadvantaged groups (eg, the homeless), or hard-to-reach groups (eg, young unemployed men with a history of petty crime).
EMERGING RESEARCH METHODS

THIS CHAPTER EXPLORES SOME OF THE TRENDS THAT ARE CURRENTLY ATTRACTING INTEREST.
01 IS MOBILE THE NEXT BIG THING?

Mobile has been the next big thing in market research for at least the last ten years. However, global spend on studies that are intended for mobile amounts to about the same as for postal. To be sure, this does understate its impact a little, as something like 10% of studies that were intended for PCs are being completed on mobile devices, according to several of the panel companies.

The main issues that have held mobile back are:
1. It is not cheaper, in fact it is often slightly more expensive, than PC studies using online access panels.
2. Mobile is not considered suitable for 20 to 30 minute surveys, and much of the big spend on research is on longer surveys, such as brand and ad trackers, and customer satisfaction surveys.

However, mobile is making breakthroughs in some areas, such as:
1. Short surveys, especially amongst younger target groups
2. ‘In the moment’ studies, where people are served a survey when an event happens (eg, at point of sale) or to take some action when an event happens (eg, texting a message every time they see an ad for brand X)
3. Smartphone-enabled research, where respondents become collaborators and capture slices of their lives (or the lives of people around them).

02 WHAT IS BEHAVIOURAL ECONOMICS?

Behavioural economics has become popular following the success of books such as *Nudge* (Richard Thaler and Cass Sunstein), *Predictably Irrational* (Dan Ariely), and *Thinking Fast and Slow* (Daniel Kahneman). The key points raised by behavioural economics are that many decisions are not made on the basis of conscious, rational thought, and this can mean that asking people to describe what they will do, or why they did do something, can produce answers at odds with what they will or did do, even if they believe they are responding truthfully.

Behavioural economics reinforces many things that market research has known for many years, but it also raises some new issues.

Examples of things that have been understood for years include:

- The context (place, state of mind, or social situation) for an action can change the choices made.
- The way questions are asked can change the answers (the impact of order effects and anchoring, for example).
- People cannot tell us what the motivations behind many of their decisions are.

Issues which have perhaps not been fully recognised include:

- The fact that the process of rating a product may change the respondent's view of that product.
The fact that people’s tendency to copy others means that they may be at every level unaware of what they will do in the market place in the future, rendering questioning them pointless.

The fact that some activities are simply auto-programmed habit. When we say we ‘just’ buy our regular brand of toilet cleaner, we might be right; there is no deeper information that can be mined, either with quantitative, qualitative, or neuroscience.

03 HOW IS NEUROSCIENCE IMPACTING MARKET RESEARCH?

Neuroscience is sometimes referred to as brain science, and is linked to neuromarketing. The idea behind neuroscience in market research is that devices (such as an fMRI scanner) can divine what we are thinking, and bypass the need to ask people questions (especially given the concerns raised by behavioural economics).

The early interest in neuroscience seems to have waned, and to have become focused on a few specific areas, such as advertising testing.

Neuroscience tends to concentrate on trying to recognise and interpret two dimensions: arousal and valence. Arousal measures whether the brain is active or passive (and tends to be the easier of the two to detect). Valence measures attraction or repulsion.

Problems with neuroscience include:

- The cost/inconvenience/context of the devices used. The most sensitive (eg, fMRI) tend to be very expensive, and to change the context of the research. The cheaper, more convenient, options (such as EEG bands that fit around the head) are the least sensitive.
- The reverse inference problem. Knowing that a reaction happened at 8 seconds into the ad does not tell the researcher what happened; inferences have to be made from what was observed and the measurements.
- The lack of knowledge of how the brain truly works.

04 WHAT IS BIOMETRICS?

Biometrics uses a wide variety of measurements, such as eye tracking and GSR (galvanic skin response – a measure of the degree to which people are sweating; think lie detectors), as well as neuroscience devices such as fMRI scanners and EEGs.

In general, biometrics is used in niches, particularly in niches where the object is to assess the reaction to some set of stimuli. For example, advertising testing might use eye tracking to see where people are looking, or neuroscience to see which parts of an ad cause a reaction. Similarly, website testing might employ eye tracking to assess where people are looking, and GSR to assess reaction to the site.
05 WHAT IS FACIAL CODING?

Facial coding is an alternative to neuroscience and biometrics, used to assess reactions to stimuli (including questions). The idea is that people find it hard (or impossible) to disguise the way that their faces reflect their reactions.

The majority of the researchers offering facial coding do it manually, but there are also people promoting the use of machine recognition. In most cases, the data is collected face-to-face (using video cameras), but there are also systems which collect the reactions via webcams.

06 WHAT IS IMPLICIT MEASUREMENT?

Implicit measurement is another way of trying to access inner motivations without relying on direct questions. One method of doing this is to assess the speed of a response. Messages that ring true are associated with faster responses, whilst messages that do not seem to ‘fit’ are associated with slower responses. The aim of market research is to assess whether a brand or a stimulus fits certain concepts.

For examples of implicit association tests, see https://implicit.harvard.edu/implicit.

07 WHAT ARE PREDICTION MARKETS?

Prediction markets are based on the ideas articulated in *The Wisdom of Crowds* by James Surowiecki, and made popular by the Iowa Electronic Markets. The idea behind prediction markets is that people are better at predicting other people’s behaviour than their own.

The market element of the test refers to the way that the participants are encouraged to ‘trade’ their options. For example, a series of new concepts could be presented as options for which the participants are offered shares. The participants could then sell shares in one or more concepts, and buy shares in others.

One of the key benefits that is claimed for prediction markets is that they remove the need to conduct research with a representative sample of buyers.

08 WHY IS INTEREST IN ETHNOGRAPHY GROWING?

Ethnography is not new, but in recent years it has become a topic of increased interest. The growth of interest has been driven by two forces: 1) the availability of easy to use, low-cost video recording devices, which has resulted in ethnographies that are much more impactful when presented to the end-user of the research; and 2) a growing need amongst clients to get deeper than quantitative and traditional qualitative research allow.
Ethnography is the study of people’s lives in situ. The main tool of the ethnographer is observation. This stands in contrast with many other forms of market research, which are based on questions or discussions.

An example of ethnography might be a project to understand the use of fresh and prepared foods in the preparation and consumption of home meals. The ethnographer would arrange to spend time ‘hanging out’ with families in the run up to and the consumption of meals. Video recordings, etc., are the ethnographic data; it is the analysis and the writing-up of the material that is the ethnography.

Ethnography tends to cost more and take longer than many other types of research. This means it tends to be used when other techniques are unlikely to answer the research questions at issue. The growth of interest in and evidence from behavioural economics and neuroscience have helped show which activities are best researched via observation.

Netnography is the extension of ethnography into the world of online lives. Netnography might mean, for example, joining an online community and exploring people’s lives through their online interactions there.

09 WHAT ARE MASS ETHNOGRAPHY, AUTO-ETHNOGRAPHY AND WE-RESEARCH?

The three terms mass ethnography, auto-ethnography, and we-Research, are not synonymous, but there is considerable overlap between them. All three refer to recruiting members of the public to act as researchers, collaborators or informants.

Mass ethnography is the process of using participants to explore the world around them. Auto-ethnography is using tools such as smartphones to enable people to capture slices of their own lives. An early example of both mass ethnography and auto-ethnography was the Mass Observation project in the UK, which used a panel of 500 citizens collecting notes on their lives from 1937 to the 1950s.

WE-Research represents a shift from traditional top-down research (ME-Research) to a more collaborative approach. WE-Research includes auto-ethnography and mass observation, but can also include crowdsourcing and some forms of communities.

10 WHAT IS GAMIFICATION?

Gamification emerged as a major theme in market research in 2011, although it draws on ideas and practices which have been around for a while. The main idea behind gamification is that research is often tedious, and research can learn from the world of games to make surveys more engaging, and thereby improve the respondent experience, improve response rates, and improve the quality of the data.

In most cases, gamification does not mean turning a survey or focus group into a game; it means learning from the world of games. To cite one case, Jon Puleston (Vice President Innovation at GMI) has found that, when asking people for open-
ended responses, he has been able to improve responses by asking people to list, for example, as many brands of X as they can remember in sixty seconds (as opposed to simply asking them to list all brands of X they can think of).

Key elements of gamification tend to include better design, better wording, improved narrative flow, and improved user feedback.

It should also be noted that researchers such as Bernie Malinoff (President element54) and Jon Puleston have shown that gamification can change the research results, which may be a problem.

11 WHAT IS BIG DATA?

Big data is the combination of large data sets to construct an overall picture of the market, and in particular of consumers. Big data can, for example, combine web tracking data, transactional data, loyalty card data, CRM information, and market research data.

The ownership and utilisation of big data is widely considered a disruptive challenge to the way organisations research, communicate and sell to consumers, and it may, therefore, have a major impact on market research. Big data is associated with a wide variety of fields and processes, from accountancy to market research to software development and evaluation, but at the moment it appears to be having the greatest impact on business intelligence (BI).
QUESTIONS FROM NEW RESEARCHERS

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01 CAN I USE THE SAME QUESTIONS IN MULTI-COUNTRY RESEARCH?

Yes, but some local adaptation will be required. Some questions have to be framed considering local conditions (cultural sensitivity, relevance/importance of the issue being studied, language differences changing the meaning of a question, etc.). This is especially important in the case of usage and attitude (U&A) studies. It is best to engage a local researcher to help with the adaptation.

02 MY CLIENT IS ASKING FOR THE FILLED-IN QUESTIONNAIRES. SHOULD I GIVE THEM TO HER/HIM?

Clients usually indicate in the RFP and/or project agreement that all particular research-related documents shall be their exclusive property. However, filled-in questionnaires contain sensitive information like respondents’ personal details, which must not be shared with anybody without each respondent’s permission. Therefore, it is advisable to ask the client why s/he wants the questionnaires. If the client wants the questionnaires for their records, the personally identifiable information should be removed before handing over the questionnaires. If the client wants to conduct call-back checks, this should normally be conducted via a third party who is a member of the relevant trade body and who will select a sample for their call-back checks and will return them after conducting the checks.

03 IN A SEGMENTATION STUDY, HOW SHOULD I DETERMINE THE NUMBER OF SEGMENTS?

In theory, the number of segments should be determined by the analysis. For example, by the statistics produced by a clustering program. However, this is rarely the case and the researcher needs to use their judgement.

Issues to consider include:
1. How many segments can your client work with?
2. When does the process start to produce sub-groups, rather than groups.
3. If you have too few segments you can usually see that you are combining people who really should not be in the same group.
4. In many cases you will find 3 to 7 segments are the best outcome.

04 HOW DO I PREPARE A PROPOSAL WHEN I DON’T UNDERSTAND THE REASON(S) FOR THE RESEARCH?

It is very important to understand what the client needs. Sit down with the client and discuss it. Insist that understanding their needs is very important, and that you are
ethically bound as a researcher to be unbiased. Clearly formulate a research problem, and then develop your research proposal. Discuss the proposal with colleagues and the client.

**05 MY CLIENT HAS DEVELOPED A QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH IS VERY LONG. SHOULD I USE IT?**

Questionnaires which are very long and have too many questions are not helpful. Respondent fatigue can be a major problem. Moreover, the respondent might tend to give answers superficially, simply to “get it over with.” Therefore, discuss the selection of questions with your client, and focus on questions that help provide answers to the research problem. If a survey is longer than is desirable, it is important to establish realistic expectations for both respondent and client.

**06 THE RESEARCH FINDINGS PORTRAY A NEGATIVE PICTURE OF THE CLIENT’S BUSINESS. WHAT SHOULD I DO?**

First, double check you are right. If you are confident that you have conducted the study validly and ethically, explain to your client the importance of understanding the feelings and opinions of the consumers in the right perspective. A true picture of the current or potential customer base is more valuable than research that simply validates what the client feels. Remember, your research could make a difference in the success or failure of your client’s marketing strategy.

**07 THE CLIENT INSISTS ON GETTING INSIGHTS RATHER THAN DATA. HOW DO I DO THAT?**

Different people mean different things by “insights”. So, talk to your client, ask to see good examples from other suppliers.

For some clients, the term insight might simply be a clear recommendation, for example, launch the red option, but send the blue option back to NPD to improve its usability rating.

For other clients, the term insight relates to a new understanding that will inform a range of decisions. For example, the insight that the next billion mobile phones will be in Africa will highlight and inform a range of design and marketing issues, eg the need for innovation in how the phones are to be charged and/or placing a greater emphasis on how to produce lower cost options.

In general, insights are less precise than data, but convey a stronger message. For example, the data might say that 79.6% of your sales come from 21.2% of your customers, but the insight version of this might be that the 80:20 rule applies to your business.
08 WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MARKET RESEARCH AND MARKETING RESEARCH?

Both terms are often used in the same sense. The term market research is more widely used. The term marketing research is more common in North America than elsewhere.

09 WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SOCIAL RESEARCH AND MARKET RESEARCH?

There is little difference in terms of the techniques which can be used in market and social research. Some agencies do both social and market research, whilst others specialise in one or the other. The key difference between social and market research lies in the objectives of the client organisation.

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<td>Studying usage and attitude amongst grocery shoppers</td>
<td>Exploring the motivations of migrants in seeking to move to a new country</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Social research is often more conservative in its choice of methods than commercial market research as a wider range of stakeholders may need to be convinced of the reliability of the research.

10 AN INTERNATIONAL ONLINE STUDY HAS BEEN COMMISSIONED. HOWEVER, INTERNET PENETRATION IN MY COUNTRY IS VERY LOW. WHAT SHOULD I DO?

There are different options, all of which you need to discuss with your client. Some possible approaches are as follows:

- Would the client accept a non-representative sample if the limitations (mainly demographic profile) are known?
- Collect a representative sample using either F2F or CATI
- Adopt a hybrid approach i.e. use a combination of online and F2F or CATI to collect your sample
MOBILE MARKET RESEARCH

MOBILE DEVICES ARE PROVIDING A NEW MODE FOR DATA COLLECTION AND ARE CREATING NEW TYPES OF RESEARCH SUCH AS PASSIVE AND COLLABORATIVE RESEARCH, ALL OF WHICH ARE EXPLORED IN THIS CHAPTER.
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01 WHAT IS MOBILE MARKET RESEARCH?

The term mobile market research can refer to any of the following:

- Self-completion surveys, where the participant is completing the survey on their mobile phone or tablet.
- Web-based surveys, where some of the participants are completing the survey on their mobile phone or tablet.
- Passive data collection, where information is gathered about the participant directly from their mobile device, rather than by asking questions, for example tracking their route via GPS.
- Participant research, where the participant becomes an active part of the research process, collecting information about the world around them using their mobile device. This can include qualitative and/or quantitative approaches.
- Using mobile devices to take part in online qualitative exercises, such as focus groups or discussions.
- CAPI where the interviewers are using mobile devices often called mCAPI.
- CATI where the participants are being contacted on their mobile phones, sometimes called mCATI.

Note, not everybody includes mCATI or mCAPI as part of mobile market research.

02 CAN MY RESEARCH BE CONDUCTED ENTIRELY VIA SMARTPHONES?

With any sample, the question is whether it is a good enough proxy for the population of interest. If the research is not supposed to be a mathematical match of the whole population, for example when conducting ethnography, then the restrictions on the composition of the sample are more lax than if the study is supposed to produce quantitative data that can be directly projected on to the population.

If the research is qualitative, then the question is often about a suitable sample. If the research is quantitative, then most researchers would want the smartphone penetration in a market to be at least 50% before they started to use it for general research studies.

03 WHAT ARE FEATURE PHONES AND HOW ARE THEY USED IN MOBILE RESEARCH?

A feature phone is a label that tends to be used for any phone that is not a smartphone. This creates a massive variation in the attributes of feature phones. Some feature phones are very basic, they may not even have a camera or any form of internet access. At the other end of the spectrum they can be as feature rich as smartphones, with large screens and internet access, but not fit into the current market definition of a smartphone.
The smartphone keeps evolving and improving and the definition changing, which means that today’s smartphone may be tomorrow’s feature phone. However, when researchers talk about using feature phones for research, they often mean relying on SMS only, or failing that on very simple internet access, such as via WAP.

04 WHEN SHOULD I CONDUCT ‘MOBILE ONLY’ RESEARCH THAT EXCLUDES PCS?

The general trend in market research is towards giving respondents the ability to choose which device to use when responding to surveys, be that a mobile device or a PC. Consequently, studies should be ‘mobile only’ when they need to be.

The key types of research that need to be ‘mobile only’ are listed below.

- Where the research is conducted ‘in the moment’, for example when participants are taking part in surveys triggered by location, time, or activity.
- Where the device is using passive data collection, for example tracking the participant’s location.
- Where the study utilises features that are not usually found on a PC, such as a camera for taking photos on the move or recording action videos.
- In countries where CATI, face-to-face, and internet are all too expensive, slow, or impossible. This tends to occur when conducting research in developing markets, using feature phones.

05 SHOULD ALL ONLINE RESEARCH BE DESIGNED AS MOBILE FRIENDLY?

The general answer is yes, because an increasing number of respondents choose to use a mobile device rather than a PC to respond to survey initiations and the trend is towards allowing participants to determine which device they use to take part in research projects. However, there are exceptions, for example projects that require a large screen, or studies that require bandwidth amongst participants who might have access to via their mobile device.

If a study is not suitable for mobile devices, then the survey instructions should make that clear. The software being used should check the participant’s mobile device and if it is not suitable the session should be closed in a transparent and courteous way.

06 WHAT ARE THE KEY USES OF MOBILE IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH?

Mobile devices are used in a variety of ways in qualitative research, with uses as simple as arranging meetings, finding locations, and in the case of tablets as providing stimulus material. At present the key uses are:
To collect or aid in the collection of diaries;
To enlist the participants to collect data about their lives and/or the lives of people around them; and
As a method of connecting to online qualitative research, such as online focus groups, discussions and insight communities.

07 WHAT DO I NEED TO THINK ABOUT WHEN DESIGNING MOBILE SURVEYS?

There are several key issues to consider when designing mobile surveys, including:
- What sort of device is being used? Feature phone, smartphone, tablet? Each type of device has its own limitations and possibilities.
- Screen size. Mobile surveys need to utilise the screen efficiently, to minimise scrolling, and to avoid horizontal scrolling.
- Dexterity. Small boxes are hard to click on a touch screen, make targets as large as possible, and minimise the effort required to enter information.
- Length. The general consensus is that mobile surveys should be shorter than has become the norm for online surveys. Recommendations vary from 5 minutes to 15 minutes.
- Internet coverage. If the survey requires a connection to the internet then the researcher should consider the sort of connection that participants are likely to have in that market.
- Design optimisation. Maximising the use of the features of the mobile device whilst ensuring usability. For example, ensuring that items to be clicked or dragged are large enough and avoiding horizontal scrolling.

08 WHAT IS A RESEARCH APP AND WHEN ARE THEY USED?

An app (or mobile application) is a piece of software downloaded onto the mobile device. In market research apps can be used for a variety of purposes, including surveys, passive data collection, and qualitative research. Some apps are free standing (i.e. they do not require the internet to be available all of the time) and some are based on connecting to the internet when in use.

The key advantages of apps are:
- Some apps do not require the internet to be available all the time. Research can be conducted when needed and the results sent back to the server later.
- Actions can be triggered by the mobile device or by an external signal, not requiring the user to initiate the action. For example, an app can be programmed to use GPS tracking to initiate a survey when somebody visits a specific location, for example a specific superstore.
- Apps can access the sensors and features of the phone, for example collecting information about phone usage, location, and environment.
Reminders or notifications can be sent to the app to remind or trigger a user response.

There are two key drawbacks to the use of apps:
1. Apps have to be downloaded, and persuading participants to download apps can be a challenge and there can be competency issues.
2. Apps have to be written specifically for each operating system—which can be both a financial and logistical challenge. In addition, operating systems will evolve and therefore apps will need to be kept up to date.

Please also note that in relation to apps there are established guidelines for research agencies and participants e.g. cost of downloads, how to remove the app, etc. as outlined in the ESOMAR/MMRA “ Commitment to You as a Research Participant” guideline.

**09 WHAT IS PASSIVE DATA COLLECTION?**

Passive data refers to collecting information without the research participant having to do anything, other than consenting to the process. For example, an app could record the location of a participant every time they make a call or use the internet from their mobile device. This data collection carries on, once started, without the participant having to do anything.

One of the key benefits of passive data collection is that it can be more accurate than data entered by the participant, as it does not rely on memory or focus.

**10 HOW ARE MOBILE PARTICIPANTS RECRUITED AND CONTACTED?**

The two main sources of participants, especially for quantitative research are customer lists and access panels. The main limitations, at the moment, are that not all access panels offer mobile sample and that customer lists do not necessarily hold information about the type of mobile device, email address, and phone number.

Beyond customer lists and access panels there are a range of alternatives for finding participants to take part in mobile studies, including: recruiters (particularly for qualitative research), mail, telephone, social media and point of sale.

**11 DOES MOBILE RESEARCH GIVE THE SAME ANSWERS AS ONLINE RESEARCH?**

Research-on-research has been conducted on the difference between online and mobile responses, particularly between online and smartphones, however, the findings should be treated as provisional.
There are two types of differences that can occur when using mobile devices as opposed to online surveys. These are sample frame issues which are caused by different people participating in the research; and mode issues which arise from using one device/format as opposed to another.

Several studies have reported sample frame differences between online and mobile studies. For example, it is not unusual for mobile samples to be younger, more outgoing, and more modern. Most of these effects can be mitigated by sample balancing. However, this difference should not necessarily be seen as a weakness as one of the reasons to utilise mobile research is to reach people missed by online studies.

The majority of results to date suggest that the mode differences between online and mobile are modest. One difference that has been noted is when multi-select grids are used. Grid questions when displayed on a PC screen have been reported as attracting fewer selections than when they are shown one at a time on a mobile device.

12 HOW IS GEOLOCATION BEING USED IN MOBILE RESEARCH?

Geolocation is a term that is used to cover a range of techniques that utilise features of the phone to locate it geographically. The location of the phone can be used in a variety of ways, but the two key ones are:

1. To track where the person with the phone is, either on a macro scale (e.g. from home to work to the shops) or a micro scale (e.g. which fixture in a store did the participant visit); and

2. To cause some research action to be triggered, for example a survey about a retail store can be triggered when the participant approaches or leaves the store.

Geolocation can use a variety of approaches, including:

- GPS – this requires the device to have GPS, and to have it enabled, and for the participant to have a line of sight to at least three satellites – which usually means the participant has to be out-of-doors.

- Cell tower location – this requires the co-operation of the mobile phone providers and locates a phone using the mobile phone service.

- Short range communications – these can vary from Wi-Fi, to Bluetooth, and NFC (near field communication). With the appropriate hardware, these short distance approaches can track participants indoors. Other technologies are also being investigated, for example, sound frequency recognition.

One limitation of geolocation is that it tends to require apps, i.e. the user has to download something to their phone or tablet. Others limitations include impact on battery life and the variability in accuracy of some of the techniques.
13 WHAT ARE THE KEY LEGAL AND ETHICAL ISSUES FOR MOBILE RESEARCH?

The key issues around mobile research relate to informed consent, as they do for most forms of research. However, as with any new form of research, mobile gives a new context to the issue of informed consent, raising questions such as:

- Does the participant understand what information they are sharing when they agree to take part in the research, especially if passive data is being collected?
- What uses have the participants consented to? For example, have they consented to their data being transmitted across international borders?
- Is data being collected about third parties and has their consent been obtained? For example, if pictures or videos of other people are collected (and pictures of faces count as personal data) has their consent been obtained, or have their faces been obscured?

In addition to informed consent, two other concerns are cost and safety. In some markets mobile research might cause the participant to incur costs, this needs to be addressed and recompensed in some way.

In terms of safety, care needs to be taken that the participants do not put themselves at risk for example through one of the following:

- Taking part in a survey whilst driving or operating machinery;
- Taking part in some activity whilst walking;
- Taking pictures in a place where photography is not allowed;
- Taking photographs or videos of subjects that are inappropriate – for example other people’s children; or
- Allowing sensitive information to be vulnerable, either through a non-secure communication process or through allowing inappropriate access to a participant’s device.
INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH

COUNTRIES DIFFER IN MANY WAYS INCLUDING ECONOMY, LANGUAGE, CULTURES, AND MARKET RESEARCH INFRASTRUCTURE; ALL OF WHICH CAN HAVE AN IMPACT ON HOW MULTI-COUNTRY RESEARCH IS CONDUCTED. THE KEY ISSUES FOR INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH ARE EXPLORED IN THIS CHAPTER.
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01 WHAT IS MEANT BY INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH?

International research can mean any of the following:
- Research conducted in a country other than the researcher’s home country;
- Research conducted in two countries;
- Research conducted in multiple countries.

Countries differ in many ways, and these differences can and do impact market research, including:
1. Culture, for example language, idioms, beliefs, attitudes towards questions, forbidden topics, and differing response patterns.
2. Development, for example money and technology impact the range of products available, the way research can be conducted (if there is no internet, there is no online research), and differing language and literacy skills impact products and research.
3. Laws and customs; different countries have different laws, this impacts what can be asked, how the data collected can be used, and whether the data can be transferred from one country to another.

People who are described as experienced in international research are typically people who have conducted multiple projects in multiple countries.

02 WHAT IS THE IMPACT OF CULTURE ON SCALES AND QUESTIONS?

There is a large amount of evidence that people from different countries/cultures respond to questions in different ways. Some studies have shown that people in some of the developing countries are more likely to show higher approval or intentions to buy, and others have shown that in some countries, such as Japan, participants are more likely to use the middle of the scale than participants in the USA.

Researchers new to international research should read the literature on cultural differences and scales. When analysing the data, the researcher should look for, and seek to allow for, the differences in response patterns.

03 CAN I ASK THE SAME QUESTIONS IN EVERY COUNTRY?

Researchers typically want to ask the same questions in each country, because the client would like to be able to compare results across the countries and often wants to combine countries into regional and global totals. However, it is usually not possible to ask the same questions in every country for the following reasons:
1. Answer lists vary from country to country. For example, a list of retailers in the USA would not be useful if used in Brazil or South Africa.
2. If the languages are different from country to country, then the questions need to be translated. A translated question is usually not exactly the same in each language. Sometimes a literal translation does not read well, and something that reads well is often not a literal translation.

3. Even when the language in two countries is the same, some questions may need to be ‘localised’. Localised is a term used by market researchers and software people to describe modifications made to ensure that something makes sense to the participants in their respective locations or cultures. For example, a question that in the USA referred to renting a car would be changed in the UK to refer to hiring a car.

4. Culture and local circumstances can require some questions to be altered or even to be removed. These local circumstances might be cultural, but they can also result from different laws or regulations.

04 CAN I USE THE SAME DATA COLLECTION METHOD IN EVERY COUNTRY?

If a research project is being conducted in a similar range of countries, say USA, Canada, and Australia, it is usually possible to utilise the same approach in each country.

However, for global research there is, typically, no single research method which is available and cost effective. For example, in Indonesia internet penetration is not high enough for most research projects to be conducted via online, in Pakistan telephone penetration is not high enough to use CATI, and in USA the cost of door-to-door in-person research is prohibitive.

There is a body of literature that comments on the feasibility/wisdom of adding together data collected via different modes, and international researchers should familiarise themselves with that literature.

Care needs to be taken when using online research internationally. Many panel companies are able to offer online samples in a very wide range of countries. However, if the internet penetration in some of these countries is low (say 10% or 20%), the online community may be too different from the rest of the population. For example, in India somewhere between 150 and 200 million people have internet access, but that is less than 20% of the population.

05 HOW CAN I ENSURE MY SAMPLE DEFINITION IS COMPAREABLE ACROSS ALL THE COUNTRIES IN THE RESEARCH?

The answer being that you must be careful to specify the sample design in detail, so that every country fully understands the requirement.
In some countries the concept of a ‘nationally representative sample’ does not really exist. Samples are based on large urban areas or the population above a certain social grade.

Even with a quota sample it is useful to specify the geographic coverage and number of sample points you expect. Otherwise you might get a completely ‘purposive’ sample i.e. something that was easy for the local agency to deliver, rather than what you wanted.

In B2B work in particular it is important to be as definitive as possible about the sample source and distribution.

**06 CAN I USE ENGLISH IN EVERY COUNTRY IF THERE ARE ‘ENOUGH’ ENGLISH SPEAKERS?**

It is not unusual for some international research projects to be conducted in English only, even in countries where English is not the official or main language. This is possible because English is widely understood in a wide range of countries. However, it is rarely a good idea to conduct research in English in countries where English is not an official/main language.

Conducting research in English (in a country such as Japan, Netherlands, or Mexico) may collect the right number of responses, and possibly match the required demographics, but: a) those who understand English sufficiently well and are prepared to take part in a survey or a discussion are likely to have different life experiences and potentially different views and preferences from those who do not, and b) their level of understanding may well be different from native English speakers, making the data hard to interpret.

As an example of the issues involved, consider the position of a Spanish company planning to do research in Spain, Mexico, Argentina, and USA. Three of the countries speak Spanish; the company is Spanish speaking, so they might decide to conduct the research in all four countries in Spanish, since there are about 40 million Spanish speakers in the USA. If you think it would be fine to research the USA in Spanish, you will probably be comfortable using English in a wide range of non-English speaking countries.

**07 HOW IS MULTI-COUNTRY RESEARCH COMMISSIONED AND ORGANISED?**

There are a number of different models of how international research is commissioned, but the most common ones are as follows:

1. The client places the entire project with an agency which has operations in all of the relevant markets. This option has the advantage of being the most predictable, but if the number of countries is significant, only a few agencies fit the criteria, which reduces choice and can increase costs.
2. The client places the project with an agency which will place some or all of the country specific research with other agencies. This option has the advantage of being flexible, but it can be harder for the client to assess the quality of all the subcontractors.

3. The client places the research in different countries with different agencies. This option can provide the lowest cost, but it requires more skill and knowledge from the client and will require more client time to achieve the coordination.

If a client is based in more than one country, they might coordinate it from a single country, or use an inter-country group.

**08 HOW IS INTERNATIONAL QUALITATIVE RESEARCH CONDUCTED?**

The commissioning of international qualitative research is typically conducted in the same way as quantitative research, as is described in the previous question. In qualitative research the researcher is a key part of the process and the typical options are:

1. Researchers from the agency travel to each country, brief the local moderators, and observe the field work (with translators if they do not have the relevant language skills). The analysis is conducted by the lead agency/researchers.

2. Researchers from the agency brief the local moderators, either in-country, or by bringing the moderators to a central location, or remotely (e.g. via a web meeting). The analysis is either conducted by the local researchers or the local research is translated and sent back to the agency who then analyse it.

If the qualitative research is online (for example an online discussion or focus group), the research tends to be conducted centrally by people with the relevant and up-to-date language skills. Typically these researchers will be, at least, bi-lingual, able to communicate with the research participants, the agency, and often the client. However, if the discussion takes place over weeks or months, it is also common to utilise in-country moderators.

**09 WHAT ARE THE KEY CHALLENGES IN ANALYSING INTERNATIONAL DATA?**

The two key challenges in the analysis of international data are:

1. Understanding what the information from a different country/culture means, and

2. Combining data from different countries to create an overview or perhaps a single view.
The problems in understanding what the information from a different country/culture means include:

- Differences in the questionnaire, for example, different answer lists.
- Differences in the way scales are responded to in different cultures.
- Differences in the way the questions may have been interpreted by the participant (despite the best efforts of the translation process).
- Problems caused by not including something relevant to a particular country, for example missing American Football in a US sports study or ferries in a transport study.

The problems in combining data from different countries stem from the difficulties in interpreting the information from each country. Different scores from two countries do not necessarily indicate the market implications are different, it could relate to the way scales are used. The same scores from two countries may not necessarily indicate that the same market behaviour will occur.

Combining data tends to be part science (for example benchmarking, standardising, and normalising) and part experience.

10 DOES MARKET RESEARCH COST THE SAME IN EACH COUNTRY?

Market research does not cost the same in each country, and the differences are not as simple as research costing more in high income countries and less in low income countries. The key drivers of cost are supply and demand. If a country has a wide range of suppliers, who have capacity, and who are familiar with working with agencies from your country, the prices will tend to be lower. If there are relatively few agencies, and if they have tended to find working with agencies from your country onerous, the prices tend to be higher. Countries in which translations will be necessary tend to be more expensive than ones where translation is not necessary.

A good resource for clients and researchers seeking to find out about international research prices is the ESOMAR Global Prices Study, which is published every two years.

11 WHAT ARE THE DIFFERENCES IN LAWS AND ETHICS AROUND THE WORLD?

Different countries have different laws and differing codes of ethics. The sorts of issues that can be covered by local laws include:

- The age of a child. For example, the age that requires parental permission before research can be conducted.
- The sorts of questions that can be asked. In some countries the law requires some types of research (such as ‘social research’) to obtain permission from the government. In many countries leading questions are unethical.
The definition of informed consent needs to be considered. For example, Google’s aggregation of information across apps was ruled illegal by the Dutch courts because the courts felt that most users had not read or understood the terms and conditions, whilst in some other countries this action would have been legal.

The languages the research must be conducted in. For example, in Wales (in the UK) research for government agencies has to be offered in English and Welsh.

How participants can be contacted. Many countries have laws or guidelines about the use of auto-diallers when conducting telephone research, especially when calling mobile phones.

The use of incentives. Different countries have different laws about what can be offered as an incentive and/or the rules that apply to incentives. In some countries prize draws need to be licensed or may even be banned, in other countries the payment of incentives to government officials or even doctors is banned, restricted, or treated as income and subject to tax.

The length of time data can be held. Many countries have data protection laws that require personally identifiable information (pii and also pid – personally identifiable data) to be destroyed after a period of time, typically at the earliest date consistent with the purposes for which it was collected.

The use of data. In many countries data can only be used for the purposes agreed to at the time of data capture. Data collected solely for market research, often, cannot be used for training, videos, broadcasts, or advertising.

The movement of data. Many countries have laws that restrict, inhibit, or even ban the transfer of personally identifiable data from one country or region to another. For example, there are significant regulations and limits on what can be transferred from the countries in the European Union.

The list above is not exhaustive; it is simply a warning that laws, codes, guidelines, and ethics are variable by country and that care should be taken and advice sought. Visit the ESOMAR website for more information on many of these issues.
POLITICAL POLLING

The results from political polling, especially election forecasts, are often the public face of market research. The way it is conducted is of great importance to all market researchers. This chapter covers the key issues that market researchers need to be aware of.
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**01 WHAT IS POLITICAL POLLING?**

The verb “poll” has come to mean the collection of information based on a small number of questions. If you ask twenty of your friends what they think of your new toaster, then you have “polled” your friends on the subject.

However, to market researchers the term political polling has a special meaning. Political polling uses a short, well designed survey, to find out what the public think on a topic of public interest or what their political intentions are – often in terms of voting. Organisations such as ESOMAR, WAPOR, and AAPOR have created specific standards to define how an opinion poll should be conducted.*

Political polling is very often the most public face of market research; the visibility of results, for example in election polling, makes it extremely important that they be properly conducted and reported. If pre-election polls are perceived as inaccurate, that perception may affect client and public trust in all research.

**02 WHY IS POLITICAL POLLING CONDUCTED?**

Polls are used by a variety of organisations, but three key examples of their use are:

1. Governments (national, regional, local, and supranational) use polls to find out what the public knows, thinks, or wants in order to use this information in policy creation and implementation. For example, before implementing a new policy on energy conservation a Government might conduct a poll to assess public priorities.

2. Political parties use polls to estimate the support for themselves and other parties, to help them prioritise their election campaigns. For example, if a party found it was doing better than it expected, it might move resources away from defending seats towards winning new seats.

3. The media, political parties, and pressure groups use polls to provide evidence for a point of view. For example, a newspaper might believe that people were unhappy with the provision of health services and commission a poll to provide evidence which it could then use in its reporting and/or campaigning.

There is a wide consensus in the market research profession that political polling is important to society in terms of allowing governments and the public to make informed choices.

**03 ARE ALL SURVEYS ABOUT PUBLIC OPINION NECESSARILY ‘POLITICAL POLLING’?**

No, there are many types of research into the views of the public that would not be classed as political polling, and which in many cases do not abide by the standards that apply to political polling.
Examples of surveys that are not political polling, in terms of what market researchers and users of political polling mean are:

1. **PR studies**, for example those conducted by brands or their PR agencies. These studies do not have to conform to the same exacting standards as political polling and typically have a commercial agenda, as opposed to an information agenda.

2. **Social research**. Political polling is part of the broad category called social research, but most social research is not political polling. Social research is often seeking to understand society at a deeper level than is the case with political polling.

3. **Fun or ‘Voodoo’ polls**, for example polls on newspaper websites where visitors are invited to click to vote. These types of polls may be entertaining, but they cannot claim to represent any specific group of the population; the findings are unreliable, and unfortunately they are often confused with ‘real’ polls by the public and even by opinion leaders, the media, and politicians.

4. **Push polls**. Push polls are not a form of research; they are an attempt to change beliefs or intentions by pushing information at the public, often false information. For example, a candidate might sponsor a push poll to ring voters and ask them “Have you heard the rumour that Mr Jones, the candidate from the Acme party, is really a Martian?”. Push polling is banned by market research trade bodies and is illegal in some countries.

5. **Robo polls**. Robo polls refer to automated surveys conducted by IVR (interactive voice response); whilst some providers class this as political polling, others hold that the method is not sufficiently robust.

### 04 HOW IS POLITICAL POLLING CONDUCTED?

Whilst there is no single way a political poll is conducted, there are some broad themes that apply to all properly conducted studies:

1. The sample is selected in a way that enables the results to be generalised to the wider population, which has traditionally meant random probability samples, and more recently this has been broadened to include well constructed non-probability samples.

2. **Short surveys**.

3. **Carefully constructed questions**, drawing on a body of experience and research that has been shown to avoid biased or leading questions.

4. **Fast turnaround** – normal political polling, especially election polling needs to deliver its results very quickly, often within two or three days.

There is a sizable body of academic literature and practical experience that have given market researchers a great deal of knowledge about how questions should be phrased, so that they are neither leading, nor biased; furthermore, the same questions are often used repeatedly, as they have been thoroughly tested and are believed to measure what they are intended to measure and can also support tracking over time.
To give an example of common wording bias, asking the question: “How much do you approve of the way [Politician A] is handling...” infers a degree of approval, and the question therefore leads the research participant in a particular direction.

In contrast, if the question is phrased... “Do you approve or disapprove of the way [Politician A] is handling...” then the wording is neutral, and the participant may make up his or her own mind on the response.

More generally, political polling is conducted in accordance with the guidelines provided by the relevant associations, such as the ESOMAR/WAPOR Guide to Opinion Polls and Published Surveys.

05 WHAT INFORMATION NEEDS TO BE PUBLISHED WITH OPINION POLL RESULTS?

ESOMAR, WAPOR and AAPOR publish extensive guidelines on the publication requirements for a poll (detailed information may be accessed from any of their websites), but the key requirements are:

1. The name of the organisation carrying out the survey.
2. Who was interviewed, e.g. a nationally representative sample of adults of voting age.
3. The sample size and its geographical coverage.
4. The fieldwork dates.
5. The sampling method (and in the case of random probability samples, the response rate).
6. The data collection method, e.g. face-to-face, telephone interview, internet panel etc.
7. Was the data weighted?
8. The questions asked.
9. Who paid for the poll to be conducted?

These are important, because these are all factors that can affect the results of an opinion poll, and thus cause disputes around the different findings from different polls. The list below is not exhaustive, but it is indicative of the kinds of factors that you should be aware of:

a. Sample definition – if two surveys use two slightly different sample definitions (of respondents, regions, or political preferences), then it can have a significant impact on the results.
b. Methodology – did both surveys adopt the same methodology, or not? Even a slight variation (e.g. one was just face-to-face, the other was face-to-face with additional questions asked by phone) can produce significant differences.
c. Fieldwork timing – even a difference of one day may mean a different news climate; some new piece of information may have become known to the population or an event may occur, thereby affecting public views and responses.
d. Question wording (as pointed out above) and question order can impact the results. For example, did a key question come later or earlier in a different questionnaire?

e. For political polls, the nature of the survey is also key – was the poll conducted as an exit poll (conducted at the polling station) or, for example, in-home?

If you are planning to conduct a poll, be sure to review these elements with your colleagues before commissioning the fieldwork.

06 MUST ALL OPINION POLL RESULTS BE PUBLISHED?

No. Many private polls are conducted to provide, for example, political parties with an objective measure of public opinion for their own use. However, if a poll or a portion of a poll is to be published then the guidelines referred to above must be followed.

07 CAN POLITICAL POLLING BE CONDUCTED EVERYWHERE?

No, unfortunately not. There are broadly two reasons why political polling is not possible, the first is logistical and the second is political.

Logistical problems that can prevent polling, or make it very difficult, include the absence of a sampling frame (for example in countries that do not have an electoral register or census) or danger (such as trying to conduct polling in a war zone or one run by gangs, terrorists, militia or other problematic groups).

The political issues arise because some countries have restrictions on political polling, either banning it outright, or requiring onerous procedures, or banning some types or uses of political polling.

Because market researchers believe in the societal and governmental benefits of political polling, organisations like ESOMAR and WAPOR work with researchers and governments to mitigate the logistical problems and remove the political impediments to political polling.

08 WHY DO OPINION POLLS SOMETIMES CREATE PUBLIC OUTCRY?

There are a variety of reasons that people, often politicians, object to polls, including:

- Disbelieving the results. Often this is because they do not understand the sampling and research process. The growth in fun or voodoo polls has probably made it more likely that some people will distrust the findings of political polls.

- Not liking the results. When there is a public disagreement between one group and another, opinion polls can provide evidence that supports one view against the interests of the other.
Not wanting the public to know the facts.

When two polls disagree. These differences tend to be because of differences in methodology, such as fieldwork dates, questionnaire wording, sample definition, and data collection mode (e.g. telephone versus online).

When election forecasts are wrong – see the next question.

09 WHY ARE ELECTION POLLS SOMETIMES WRONG?

Election polls have a very good record of correctly forecasting election results. Their success rate may be one of the reasons why their failures are so memorable, such as the Literary Digest in 1936 and the “Dewey Defeats Truman” error in 1948.

Key reasons that polls are occasionally wrong include:

- Late changes in voting intention. When voters change their intentions very late, for example when there is a swing to or from a particular party or candidate, the pollsters can be behind the curve.

- Differential turnout. If the supporters of one party or candidate are more likely to vote in a specific election than the supporters of another party or candidate, the results can be hard to forecast.

- When there is a structural change in how people are voting, making historical models less predictive. For example, elections to the European Parliament were initially problematic for election pollsters as they tended to show different patterns than national elections.

10 MY CLIENT WISHES TO PUBLISH A STATEMENT WHICH IS NOT SUPPORTED BY THE FINDINGS OF THE POLL, WHAT DO I DO?

The credibility of your research and (potentially) your company is based on how you handle these sorts of issues.

The first step is that research organisations conducting political polling should write into their terms and conditions a clause that press statements should be cleared with the agency before being published.

If a client wants to publish something that is not supported by the data, the first step is to have a conversation with the client, explaining what the problem is, and at the same time listening to what the client is looking to communicate. Discuss options such as amending the statement to make it more appropriate or suggest positioning the statement as the client’s opinion as opposed to being a finding.

If the client declines to change the statement the agency should, at a minimum, say that their name should not be associated with the data in the press statement. In an extreme case agencies have found it necessary to publish their own statement repudiating the press release from the client.
Adaptive Surveys
An adaptive survey is one that changes according to the answers the respondent provides. On a trivial level, this description would apply to substituting a respondent-entered answer or text string for the word ‘Other,’ or using filters to take respondents through different routes. However, the term adaptive is usually applied to a survey where there are major changes, for example in an adaptive conjoint study, where the attributes and levels are varied during the survey to best explore the respondents’ previous responses. The term adaptive tends to imply that each respondent’s experience is potentially unique, and that the software had changed the questions in response to the respondent’s answers.

Aggregate analysis
Aggregate analysis means looking at the results of groups of people, rather than analysing them at the individual level. Many elements of quantitative analysis are based on aggregate analysis, including means, standard deviations, frequency counts, and regressions.

Anthropology
Anthropology is the study of humanity, including but not limited to the social and cultural organisation of society. Although there are academic and formal differences between anthropology and ethnography, in the world of market research the distinction is often blurred, and the term ethnography is usually preferred.

Attribute Importance
The term attribute importance has a special meaning when used in conjoint analysis and discrete choice modelling (DCM), where it describes the impact of an attribute on overall preference. Specifically, the term attribute importance refers to the difference between the appeal of the least favoured level of an attribute and the appeal of the most favoured level. For example, in a car study the attribute ‘transmission’ might have two levels: manual and automatic. The attribute importance would be the difference in appeal between manual and automatic. In conjoint analysis and DCM, the term ‘utility’ is used to express a value for the appeal of the level of an attribute.

Avatar
An avatar is the representation of an individual online. An avatar can be as simple as an on-screen name (which could be the person's real name), but can also include images or other material.

Banner
A banner is the heading that is used in a crosstab report. A typical banner comprises the key questions that the researcher expects to be useful. These are often a mixture of demographics (eg, age and sex) and project-related variables (eg, users vs. non-users).

BBFG (Bulletin Board Focus Group)
A bulletin board focus group is an online qualitative research method based on bulletin boards. A BBFG is a group discussion spread out over days or even weeks. BBFG participants log on periodically during the project, rather than all being online at the same time. A typical BBFG comprises 20 to 100 members, and usually lasts from 3 days to a month (but smaller, larger and longer are common).

BI (Business Intelligence)
The term BI tends to refer to large amounts of business information stored in ways that make processing possible in conjunction with software tools to analyse the data and extract information. The focus of most BI projects is to move beyond monitoring and towards predictive analytics, ie, assessing what will happen next or what would happen if certain actions were taken.
**Big Data**

Big data is a term that refers to the integration and utilisation of the growing amounts of data being generated by organisations and their interactions with customers. This data can include any combination of transactional data, CRM data, loyalty card data, and electronic communications, as well as financial data, sales data, etc. Thus, while the exact make-up of big data can vary from person to person and company to company, the concept of big data (i.e., the amalgamation of multiple data types) is commonly understood.

**Body language**

Body language is a term used to describe the involuntary things people do with their bodies in social situations or when exposed to stimuli. For example, if people are feeling guarded they may fold their arms and/or legs, or lean back. More engaged people will often lean forward.

Some qualitative market researchers claim to be able to use body language as an input to their interpretation of what people are saying in focus groups and depth interviews. The absence of body language is one of the most commonly referred to deficiencies of online qualitative research.

**Bulletin Board**

In many ways bulletin boards were the predecessors of social networks, and they existed for many years before the introduction of the internet. Although some bulletin boards still exist, most have been replaced by social networks or blogs. Most bulletin boards were text-based, and tended to focus on a core subject such as gaming, technology or politics.

The key elements of a bulletin board include:

- The ability to access the board online (originally via dial-in connections, currently via the internet)
- The ability to post discussions or comments
- The ability to see other people’s posts

**Bulletin Board Focus Groups**

See BBFG.

**Business Intelligence**

See BI.

**CART (Category and Regression Tree)**

See Decision Tree.

**Causation**

Causation refers to one event being caused by another, in the way that a light turning on is caused by flicking the switch. In market research it is rare for causation to be firmly established, as most social networks are reflexive (in the sense that outputs and inputs loop back on each other). For example, people may buy the brand they prefer, but they may also grow to prefer the brand they buy. Causation cannot be identified from data alone. Causation needs to be established via theory, and can then be tested via the relevant data.

**CFM (Customer Feedback Mechanisms)**

CFM is a generic term for companies engaging in systematic customer feedback. The term encompasses customer satisfaction, customer panels, point of sale feedback and customer comment systems.

**CHAID**

See Decision Tree.

**Cluster Analysis**

Cluster analysis is a statistical technique used with quantitative data to identify groups within a data set. A group comprises respondents who are similar to each other and dissimilar to members of other groups in terms of the relevant variables.

**Coding**

Coding is the process of turning open-ended responses into quantitative data, making it suitable for crosstabs and other quantitative processes. In a typical study, the researcher creates a code-frame describing how the text
Correspondence Analysis

Correspondence analysis is often used to produce a form of perceptual map, albeit one that has subtle differences from geometric systems such as factor analysis or multidimensional scaling. Unlike most mapping tools, correspondence analysis does not require the data to be metric, i.e., it can use some types of categorical data.

CRM (Customer Relationship Management)

CRM provides a comprehensive and accessible database of customers. The CRM system provides information to the company about customers, including profiles, transactions, geolocation, etc., and facilitates the use of this information.

Cross elasticity

See Price Cross Elasticity.

Crosstab

As a noun, a crosstab is a table of data from a study wherein the rows are typically taken from a single question, and the columns may represent several questions. (The row is often called the banner or the header.) It is normal to produce a set of tables in one go, and these are referred to as crosstabs. As a verb, crosstab means creating a crosstab or crosstabs.

Customer Feedback Mechanisms

See CFM.

Cultural and Linguistic Theory

Cultural and linguistic theory is one of several disciplines, along with sociocultural linguistics and ethnolinguistics, that study the interaction of linguistics, culture, and society. The key concept tends to be that culture and language interact, and each shapes the other.

Data Tables

In market research, the term data tables normally refers to special forms of crosstabs. The crosstabs are created as a report, with
typically one table for every question in the study, and with columns representing key areas of interest (such as gender, age and region) and topic-relevant issues (such as user/non-user). The list of questions across the top are typically called the banner or the header, and are repeated on each page. Data tables typically show the number of people who answered each question (the base), the number answering for each option in the question for each of the columns, and the column percentages.

**DCM (Discrete Choice Modelling)**
Discrete choice modelling is a quantitative research technique used to assess the value of attributes and levels through the presentation of choices to the respondent. For example, the respondent may be presented with four different hotel options (differing in price, features and brand). The respondent then chooses the item that he or she would be most likely to choose in the real world. The value of the attributes and levels is then calculated from the responses of the respondents.

**Decision Tree**
A decision tree is a quantitative technique for assessing the relationships between the variables in a study and a dependent variable. An example of a dependent variable might be buyer/non-buyer of a specific brand or membership of clusters. A program then searches the data to identify which question best predicts the dependent variable. This process is then repeated to find out what, given the first decision, is the next best variable to improve the estimation. The end product is a tree diagram (plus supporting tables) showing how the key variables interact with the dependent variable. There are two techniques: CaRT and chaid. The main difference between the two is that chaid only works with categorical variables (eg, yes/no, brands used, or demographics), whereas CaRT works with categorical and metric (eg, rating scales, importance weights, etc.) data.

**Depth Interviews**
Depth interviews are a form of qualitative research. Depth interviews are typically one-on-one interviews between the researcher and a relevant person. A depth interview can be as short as fifteen minutes or longer than an hour, depending on the needs of the project. Compared to focus groups, the depth interview allows the researcher to probe more deeply and to be specific about the participant’s experiences, views, and responses. Depth interviews are often held face to face, but can also be conducted via telephone or some online medium (eg, Skype, chat, or specialised software). In a typical study, the number of depth interviews tends to be relatively small (eg, ten to twenty). This is partly because of costs (the cost of recruiting, the time involved in interviewing, and the time involved in analysing) and partly because researchers have empirically determined that this is the optimal number.

**Desk Research**
Desk research, also called secondary research, is the process of finding information by looking through material that already exists (as opposed to commissioning primary research, eg, surveys or focus groups). Typical resources for desk research include previous research projects, published reports, newspapers archives and, increasingly, material drawn from the internet.

**Driver Analysis**
There are many techniques in market research to which the term driver analysis applies. The key assumption behind driver analysis is that good performance on some attributes is likely to result in better performance in a defined dependent variable. For example, an automotive study might indicate that high ratings on cost efficiency and safety are likely to result in higher purchase intentions. Driver analysis is most likely to use some form of regression, but measures of association and difference are also used by some researchers. Driver analysis is often
criticised on the grounds that it assumes causation from the attributes to the dependent variable (eg, intention to buy or use), and that it assumes that the most important items are included in the study.

**EFAMRO**

EFAMRO (the European Federation of Associations of Market Research Organisations) is a European federation of market, social and opinion research agency trade associations.

**Elasticity**

See Price Elasticity.

**ESOMAR**

ESOMAR (the European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research) is a global association for market, social and opinion research.

**ESOMAR Global Market Research report**

The ESOMAR Global Market Research report is an annual study conducted by ESOMAR which reports on key industry statistics such as market size, spend by country, and methodology.

**ESOMAR Guidelines**

ESOMAR has created and regularly updates a wide range of codes and guidelines. The central code is the ICC/ESOMAR Code, which was developed with the International Chamber of Commerce. The purpose of the codes and guidelines is to provide advice on what researchers should and should not do, and to provide information and protection to the users of research and to respondents.

**Ethnography**

Ethnography is the study of how people live their lives, usually involving some form of observation (as opposed to questions or experiments), and usually (at least to some extent) in terms of people’s own experiences. The predominant methodology used in ethnography is participant observation, and in essence ethnography is a qualitative discipline. Strictly speaking, ethnography can refer to the study of a group of people and the writing up of that study, or it can refer just to the writing up of a narrative. It should never be used just for the collection of data and observations. For example, videos of people's lives are ethnographic data, but they only become part of an ethnography when they are written up as a narrative.

In market research, the term ethnography is used somewhat more loosely than in academia. Even in market research, however, the term should imply that data about people's lives has been gathered in naturally occurring settings, and that the information has then been analysed to create a narrative that gives insight into the lived experience of those being studied. The adjective for ethnography is ethnographic (eg, ‘ethnographic research’).

**Extrinsic Rewards**

Incentives tend to be divided into extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards are objects that are of general value and can be traded (eg, cash).

**Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is a statistical technique applied to quantitative data, usually to sets of ratings or scales. In most studies, the attributes are correlated with each other. These correlations can make the data hard to interpret and can make procedures such as regression unreliable. Factor analysis looks for underlying factors (latent constructs) that can represent the data without being correlated. These factors can then be used instead of the raw data.

**Factor Loadings**

When a factor analysis is conducted, the correlation coefficients between the variables and the new factors are calculated. These are known as the loadings. If an attribute loads highly on a factor, it is associated with that factor. This is a relationship that is often used to help name the factors.
Focus Groups

Focus groups are a form of qualitative research. A relevant group of people (typically between six and twelve participants) is brought together in a single location. The most common tool used in a focus group is discussion. The discussion is typically led by the researcher, who adopts the role of moderator. A focus group typically lasts between and one and one and a half hours. In many cases the focus groups are held in specialist facilities which allow for the focus group to be observed (either via a one-way mirror or a video link) and recorded. In addition to discussions, researchers can use a variety of other approaches in focus groups, including sort tasks, projective techniques, usability testing, etc. The moderator normally creates a discussion guide setting out what subjects will be covered during the session. These discussion guides can vary from something as simple as a few topic headings to a detailed set of questions to be asked of the focus group members.

Gamification

In market research, gamification is the process of using elements of gaming to improve respondent engagement with the survey process. In some cases the gamification process can be as slight as improving a layout. In other cases gamification is used to turn a survey into a game. As an example, a company called Research Through Gaming has used the clarification of pixelated images of stars as a game for young people to help magazines identify the standout amongst various personalities.

Ideation

Ideation is the process of creating ideas, usually to a specific timeline and for a relatively narrow range (eg, a new type of drink container for pre-teens). Most ideation techniques are qualitative, but there has been growth in interest in ideas such as crowdsourcing, which combine a qualitative element along with some form of rating, liking or voting.

‘In the Box’

‘In the box’ is typically used in opposition to ‘out of the box.’ In the box refers to something that is within the normal boundaries of a situation. For example, testing a new breakfast cereal with a slightly different combination of grain, sugar, and chocolate is in the box. Market research tends to work best for in-the-box problems, because respondents can envisage the product or service and assess where it might fit in their lives. (See also ‘Out of the Box.’)

Incentives

In market research, the term incentive is used to describe what a respondent receives for taking part in the project, for example the cash paid to focus group attendees. Incentives are often divided into two categories: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic incentives are rewards given to respondents which are of general value, such as money. Intrinsic incentives are things which make respondents feel happier or more satisfied, such as being identified as having the best post of the week, or having his or her ideas or suggestions implemented. Extrinsic incentives tend to be divided into per-respondent incentives. For example, every member of a focus group is usually paid, to probabilistic incentives, such as prize draws and lotteries.

Individual analysis

Individual analysis means conducting analysis on a per-respondent basis. This process is not uncommon in qualitative analysis (for example, depth interviews). Individual analysis is also quite common in conjoint and DCM, where models are constructed at the individual respondent level. In any individual analysis, however, respondent privacy is an important point to be kept in mind.
Insight
Definitions of insight vary, but in general, in
the context of market research, an insight is
a piece of learning that was not recognised
before being presented and will illuminate
something for the client in a way that
enables them to do things better in the
future. One commonly adopted definition of
insight is “actionable thinking.”

Insight Manager
An insight manager tends to work for a
client-side company (ie, a buyer of market
research), and is responsible for finding out
what insight the company needs, commis-
sioning research, and organising the conver-
sion of market research results into insight.

Intrinsic Rewards
Incentives tend to be divided into extrinsic
and intrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards are
motivations that don’t have an external value,
but are of perceived value to the recipient.
Examples of intrinsic rewards include praise,
thanks and seeing suggestions implemented.

Latent
Latent, in market research and the social sci-
ences, is used to describe properties that
exist but are not visible or amenable to direct
measurement. One example is intelligence.
It is assumed that there is a latent variable
that we call intelligence, but we can only esti-
mate it, typically by measuring things like iq.

Latent Construct
See Latent Variable.

Latent Variable
A latent variable is one that is believed to
exist, but which cannot be directly measured.
In psychology, for example, the term iq
denotes a variable that cannot be directly
measured. A battery of tests is used to try to
approximate its value. In market research, it
is often assumed that customer satisfaction
exists but can’t be directly measured (ie, that
it is a latent variable). It is assessed by meas-

uring things like satisfaction with individual
elements of the product/service, likelihood
to recommend, likelihood to buy again, etc.

Lotteries
See Prize Draws.

Market Research Online Communities
See mroc.

Marketing Sciences
Marketing sciences are advanced mathemati-
cal and statistical techniques used in market
research. Practitioners of marketing sciences
are often referred to as marketing scientists.

Methodology
To some people the term methodology is
interchangeable with the term method, ie,
the way a project is to be conducted. More
formally, however, it refers to the study of
methods or the collection of methods or the
process of selecting an appropriate method.

Moderators
In a market research context, a moderator is
somebody who interfaces with research par-
ticipants in qualitative research, in particular
in focus groups and online discussions. The
role of the moderator is to lead the discus-
sion, generate questions, probe responses,
and assign tasks.

MROC
MROC stands for Market Research Online
Community. Although definitions vary, the
consensus is that an mroc is an online com-
munity which is used for research purposes
and is structured and organised primarily for
qualitative research. The typical size of an
mroc is 30 to 500 participants. mrocs typi-
cally come in two varieties: short term (which
tend to be smaller) and long term (which
tend to be larger).

Multidimensional Scaling
Multidimensional scaling is a statistical tech-
nique applied to quantitative data, especially
rating scales. The object of the scaling is to render the data in fewer dimensions. When the dimensions are reduced to just two, the results can be plotted as a perceptual map. There are several types of multidimensional scaling approaches and algorithms, but they tend to be based on dissimilarities (i.e., measures of difference), as opposed to factor analysis, which tends to be based on measures of similarity.

**Mumsnet**
Mumsnet is a popular social network aimed at mothers. It is based in the UK.

**Mystery Shopping**
Mystery shopping is the process of recruiting participants to act as shoppers or users of a service to audit the provider. For example, a mystery shopper might visit a store and purchase a pre-assigned basket of goods. The mystery shoppers may be asked to check the layout of the store, the quality of the checkout process, or other parts of the experience.

**N-Sum Market**
An N-Sum market assumes that a market may grow or shrink on the basis of the phenomena being researched. For example, the market for airline flights grew following the introduction of low-cost airlines.

**Needs-Based Segmentation**
A needs-based segmentation is a segmentation that divides a sample in terms of people’s needs, as opposed to their characteristics or their views about existing products. For example, a car study may divide a sample into people who want a sports car, people who want a people mover, people looking for a small town car, and people for whom cost is the main issue. The term ‘need’ is chosen over ‘want’ as this is the key determinant of behaviour: in order for car buyer to be happy, he or she needs it to be sporty, small, large, etc. Needs are typically calculated via conjoint analysis, DCM, or MaxDiff.

**Net Promoter Score**
See NPS.

**New Product Development**
See NPD.

**NGO (Non-Governmental Organisation)**
An NGO is typically a body that is not run by a government and is not for profit. NGOs include large charities, educational trusts, campaigns, and religious organisations.

**NPD (New Product Development)**
NPD is the processes of creating/envisioning a new product, refining that product, and assessing how best to launch it into the market. NPD often uses both qualitative and quantitative research. Techniques commonly used in NPD work include focus groups, segmentation, conjoint analysis, DCM, prediction markets, and concept testing.

**NPS**
NPS, the net promoter score, was developed by Fred Reichheld as a measure of customer satisfaction. NPS uses a proprietary system to ask a likely to recommend question with an 11 point scale, with respondents divided into promoters, passives, and detractors. The NPS score is the percentage of promoters minus the detractors. Although the evidence supporting NPS is disputed, the NPS scale has been adopted by some high-profile clients.

**Online Access Panel**
An access panel is a collection of potential respondents who have opted into taking part in market research. A panel differs from a list in that it normally includes a system of panel management involving, for example, sampling, incentives, de-duplication, and performance management. An online access panel is an access panel designed for online surveys. Most online surveys conducted by market research organisations are conducted via online access panels.
Online Discussions
Online discussion is a broad, generic term used in reference to comments on news sites, posts on Facebook pages, forums within online communities, etc.

‘Out of the box’
The phrase ‘out of the box’ is used to describe something that seems to transgress some pre-existing boundary or set of boundaries. Examples of out-of-the-box products or services include the iPhone, digital watches, mobile phones, low-cost flights, and the Sony Walkman. Market research tends to struggle with out-of-the-box products and services, since respondents find it hard to envisage the product or service in question, and how they will live their lives after adopting it.

PatientsLikeMe
PatientsLikeMe is a social network aimed at people with various health problems. In 2010, the Wall Street Journal reported that Buzzmetrics (a company that had recently been acquired by Nielsen) had been scraping information from the site for their clients without the permission of the site or its members. Following the outcry, Nielsen announced that it would not scrape any website or social network without permission.

Perceptual Mapping
Perceptual mapping is a way of showing multivariate data in two dimensions, so that they can be viewed on a screen or paper. There are a wide variety of techniques used to create these maps, including principal components analysis and correspondence analysis. Perceptual mapping is often used as a data visualisation technique or as an aid to presenting data.

Pilot (interviews, surveys, etc.)
A pilot survey is one that is conducted to test some aspect of the design of a project, for example its length or comprehensibility. A pilot survey might involve a small number of interviews, or trying the study out in a single location. Pilot interviews are interviews conducted to test a questionnaire. These may be conducted with real respondents, but are often trialled with a convenience sample (eg, friends, family, or colleagues). The difference between a pilot survey and pilot interview tends to be one of degree or linguistic preference. However, as a generalisation, a pilot survey offers the chance to test both the questionnaire and the results, and a pilot interview tends to just allow the testing of the questionnaire. When working with online samples (an online access panel or client database, for example), the term soft launch is often used to indicate that a small number of invitations are being sent out to test (or pilot) the study.

Portfolio Management
Some brands are represented in the market by several lines or sub-brands. Portfolio management is the process of assessing whether a brand has the right collection of lines or sub-brands. In many cases, the reason for conducting portfolio management is to reduce costs by reducing the number of variants, ideally without conceding overall market share.

Prediction Markets
Prediction markets ask respondents to estimate what is going to happen in the market, rather than asking them to say what they would do. The technique is associated with the book *The Wisdom of Crowds* by James Surowiecki. The Iowa Electronic Markets are often cited as a model. In a typical approach, respondents are presented with products or concepts, and are then asked to invest in some and sell others.

Price Elasticity
Price elasticity is a measure of the degree to which sales vary with changes in price. If sales tend to increase dramatically if prices are cut (for example, if a 10% price cut leads to a 20% increase in sales), then the product is said to be relatively price elastic. If the
sales of a product do not vary when prices change (for example, if a 10% price increase only leads to a 5% decrease in sales), then the product is said to be relatively price inelastic. The formula for calculating price elasticity is:

\[
\text{Price Elasticity} = \frac{\% \text{ change in quantity sold}}{\% \text{ change in price}}
\]

Strictly speaking, the result of the elasticity formula is usually a negative number. For example, if the price goes up the amount sold goes down. However, it is common practice to ignore the sign and show the figure for elasticity as ranging from 0 to infinity (∞). (It is also possible to see it shown correctly as ranging from 0 to minus infinity (-∞).)

The formula for price elasticity generates a number which can be interpreted using the table below (assuming that the positive version has been used):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elasticity Value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Perfectly inelastic: if price goes up or down, sales remain the same.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1</td>
<td>Relatively inelastic: X percent change in sales, less than X percent change in price.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Unit elasticity: X percent change in sales equals X percent change in price.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater than 1</td>
<td>Relatively elastic: X percent change in sales, greater than X percent change in price.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>∞ (infinity)</td>
<td>Perfectly elastic: any increase in price results in a total loss of sales.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Price Cross Elasticity**
Cross elasticity is the extent to which the sales of one product vary when the price of another product changes.

**Prize Draws**
Prize draws (also referred to as sweepstakes or lotteries) are a method of providing incentives to respondents and participants. When a prize draw is used, there are typically one or more prizes (for example, cash), and winners are drawn at random from the eligible participants (for example, those who have taken part in a survey). The main benefits of a prize draw system, as compared to a per-respondent payment system, are:
1. It is often cheaper.
2. It can be more motivating (if the amount per respondent is low and the prize is large).
3. The total exposure to costs can be estimated at the outset (with a per-respondent payment system, the costs go up when the number of respondents goes up).

One key point to bear in mind with these types of incentives is local legislation. Some countries do not allow these types of prizes to be made available to the general public without some form of licence or prior authorisation.

**Purchased Recruit**
Purchased recruits are people recruited, for example to a community, through intermediaries and for money.

**R-squared (r²)**
R-squared is the square of r, the correlation coefficient. R-squared is the ratio of the common variance divided by the total variance. If the common variance is equal to the total variance, then r-squared = 1. If there is no common variance, then r-squared = 0. R-squared is often expressed as a percentage. For example, an r-squared of 0.7 can be written as 70%, reminding us that 70% of the variation in the variables is shared.

**Reliability**
In general usage, the term reliability denotes the trustworthiness of a result or recommendation, i.e., that what is said can be relied on. In this sense, the question “Is that clock reliable?” would mean “Does it always display the correct time?”
More formally, and in the context of statistical theory, the term reliability has a narrower and more specific meaning, namely the extent to which a research process can be repeated and produce consistent results. For any method that claims to be ‘scientific,’ reliability is a necessary condition. If the method gives different results when re-used, it can’t be considered scientific.

**ROI (Return on Investment)**

ROI refers to the benefits which accrue as the result of some undertaking. The term can be used in a loose way, to describe the expectation that some action will result in some positive outcome (such as an increase in viewers, buyers, sales, etc.). More formally, ROI is the ratio of the increase in revenue or profit to the cost of an undertaking. If spending $1,000 on advertising results in an increase in profits of $1,500, then the ROI is 50%.

**SaaS (Software as a Service)**

The traditional model of computer software involves the user installing a program on his or her computer. The SaaS model puts the software on a vendor’s computers, which the client then accesses via the internet. Most of the leading data collection systems in market research are provided as SaaS. The benefits of SaaS include not having to look after servers, not having to attend to maintenance and upgrades, and being able to scale up (or down) more easily.

**Search Engine Optimisation**

See SEO.

**Semiotics**

Semiotics is the study of signs and their place in creating meaning in society. Typically, semiotics takes artefacts from a culture (for example, newspapers, films, TV shows, books, everyday objects and advertising) and analyses these for meaning, particularly in terms of semiotic processes such as analogy, metaphor, symbolism and signification. Semiotics is often described as a qualitative research technique, although it differs from most other qualitative research techniques in that it does not include working with people (ie, respondents, participants, informants, etc.).

**SEO (Search Engine Optimisation)**

SEO is a specialised web analytics and marketing discipline that seeks to make it more likely that search engines (such as Google) rank a given webpage highly. Techniques used include optimising content, tags and links.

**Significance Testing**

Significance testing indicates whether a research result is large enough to be worth paying attention to. For example, if the mean income of a sample from Group A is $22K and that of a sample from Group B is $23K, how sure can we be that the average of Group B really is larger than the average of Group A?

With any research based on a sample there is a chance that results are misleading due to sampling error, i.e. that the researcher was simply unlucky in how the samples were selected. The risk of sampling error is dependent on how much variation there is in the data and how large the sample size is. In general, the larger the sample size, the better, and the smaller the variance the better.

In simple terms, significance testing provides a measure of the probability that if we did the same survey, with the same sort of sample, from the same sample source, we would get the same result.

In market research we typically report findings at 95% and 99% confidence levels. If we say that a finding is significant at the 95% level, we are saying that if we ran the same test again on the same sort of sample, we would expect to get a similar result 19 times out of 20.

When reading quantitative results, for example crosstabs, you will often see significance testing codes, for example letters in crosstab tables. Differences that are not statistically significant should not normally
be reported unless there is some other reason to believe they are not just ‘noise’.

Do not rely on statistical significance too much. Sometimes a result is ‘significant’ but not necessarily actionable. For example, the tables might show that 5% more men than women liked the MP3 player being tested. It might be significant, but is it actionable? Would a brand change its marketing because of that difference? Statistics are a tool, but common sense should still apply.

Another common sense approach is not to compare small subgroups. A good rule of thumb is not to compare sub-groups with fewer than 50 people in them.

The researcher’s goal is to find differences that are probably genuine differences (not attributable to random “noise”) and are actionable. Clients do not want a laundry list of hundreds of differences when only ten are actionable.

It is important to note that sampling error and significance testing only look at one of several reasons why results might be misleading. Other reasons include measurement error (i.e. if people can’t or won’t answer the question in the way intended), sampling frame error (i.e. not using a random probability sample, for example using an online access panel instead), or non-response bias (i.e. if the people who complete the survey are different from those who decline to complete it).

Social desirability bias
Social desirability bias is the tendency of respondents to answer certain questions in a way that society expects, rather than truthfully. Questions which are likely to be subject to social desirability bias include “Have you ever cheated on your wife/husband?”; “Do you feed your children healthy food?”; “Are you influenced by advertising?”; and “How often do you clean your teeth?”

Social Networks
Social networks usually refer to online social networks, as opposed to the offline networks people have. The social network with the largest number of members globally is Facebook, and in many ways Facebook shapes the definition of what a social network is.

The core features of any social network tend to include:
- A website to act as the hub of the network
- The ability to make contacts (for example, friends or followers)
- The ability to post items (for example, comments, likes, status updates, pictures, etc.)
- The ability to create a presence (for example, a name, an avatar, or a home page)
- The ability to send messages to other members

Software as a Service
See SaaS.

Sweepstakes
See Prize Draws.

Task
On one level a task is anything that a respondent is asked to do (eg, a sort exercise in a focus group). However, the term has a very specific use in data collection for techniques such as DCM, conjoint analysis, and MaxDiff. In these approaches, the respondent is given a set of items and asked to make a choice. Each presentation and choice is referred to as a task, and the items in the task are referred to as options.

Themed communities
Most research communities are branded, ie, they appear to be run by the brand and utilise the company’s branding. However, if the organisation’s branding is weak, or if there are regulatory issues, it may be better to use a theme, such as sport, travel, or snack food.

For example, a food manufacturer may be present in the market as a variety of brands. In such a case, the community might be focused on snack food or home cooking.
Transactional Data
Transactional data, in the context of market research, relates to the information stored about an interaction between a customer and an organisation. In terms of a purchase the transactional data might include the time/date of the order, the amount paid, the method of payment, the description of what was purchased, and when the item was delivered.

The growth in online interactions, credit and debit card payments, loyalty card systems, and CRM has resulted in a massive growth in the amount of transactional data available.

Transcript
See Transcription.

Transcription
In market research, transcription normally means turning recordings of focus groups or depth interviews into text.

Triangulation
Triangulation is the process of drawing on different sources to increase the confidence a researcher or client can have in findings (eg, by using two or more methods). A researcher who conducts, say, an ethnographic study may find that people are more likely to use their car or public transport on rainy days, and more likely to walk or cycle on good weather days. They might seek to cross-reference this finding by looking at traffic records for bad and good weather days. The ethnographic data might help understand how people made the assessment whether to walk or take the car, and what factors tended to reverse the normal pattern (things the traffic data could not do); the triangulation would help reassure the client that the analysis was reporting generalisable behaviour.

Utility
In economics, utility is a generic term for the benefit of using a product (eg, the satisfaction we get when drinking a bottle of cola). In the context of choice modelling such as DCM, conjoint analysis and MaxDiff, the term utility refers to the estimated benefit of each level of each attribute.

Validity
The extent to which a research process is accurate and reflects actual market conditions.

Web Analytics
Web analytics is measurement of the characteristics and actions of people visiting a website. Tools for analysing visitors include things like web logs, Google Analytics, and a wide range of paid-for options. At a minimum, analytics tend to report how many people visited a site, which pages they viewed, which country they were from, what operating system they were using, and how long they stayed on each page. More advanced analytics track what people downloaded, more extensive information about visitors (especially if they had to register), search terms used, etc.

What-if Modelling
What-if modelling is the process of constructing a model from the research data so that the researcher and/or client can model different propositions and outcomes. A what-if model, for example, can be constructed in Excel from conjoint analysis data to allow different combinations of the attributes and levels to be combined, and these results to be assessed.

What-if modelling is an alternative to a static report, such as a book of tables or a PowerPoint presentation.

Zero-Sum Market
A zero-sum market is one which is assumed not to grow or shrink on the basis of the phenomenon being researched. For example, small price decreases do not increase the number of toilet rolls used in a year.
CONTRIBUTORS
Finn Raben  
**Director General ESOMAR**  
Finn Raben is an Irishman who was born in the Far East and grew up in Europe and the Middle East. He went to university in the Netherlands and Ireland, is an honours graduate in languages, with postgraduate degrees in business administration & marketing management. Finn’s career started at Millward Brown IMS in Dublin, followed by AC Nielsen. At TNS, he firstly turned around the ailing Irish business, and subsequently instigated the global accounts programme, working with a number of major global clients, including Procter & Gamble, McDonald’s and Microsoft as global director of planning and coordination for key accounts. Most recently at Synovate, Finn was CEO of southern Europe, where he was responsible for integrating and harmonising the many companies acquired in the region into the Synovate offering.

Ray Poynter  
**Director @ Vision Critical University**  
Ray has spent the last 30+ years at the intersection of research, innovation, and commerce, having been involved in the development of CAPI, online systems, online surveys, and social media research. Ray is the author of The Handbook of Online and Social Media Research, the founder of Newmr, and is a director of Vision Critical University, helping share the organisation’s knowledge and seeking to help develop the new world of technology enabled research.

Sue York  
**Chief Curator NewMR**  
Sue is the Chief Curator of NewMR, curating and organising the Festival of NewMR, Radio NewMR and other NewMR online learning events and a Market Research Consultant. Sue is based in Australia and has conducted workshops for ESOMAR, the Market Research Society of Singapore (MRSS) and AMSRS. Sue has a keen interest in new methods and techniques and has co-authored a multi-country project that explored respondents’ perceptions of a variety of research modalities titled “From Clipboards to Online Research Communities – A Cross-Cultural Review of Respondents’ Perceptions” presented at ESOMAR Congress 2010. Sue is a full member of AMSRS, the Australian Market and Social Research Society and has QPMR accreditation.
**Suz Allen**  
Senior Program Manager (Sensory Research), Campbell Arnott’s Asia Pacific  
A former CSIRO scientist and market research supplier, Suz offers over 20 years experience in consumer and sensory product research. Throughout her career, Suz has worked with a large number of FMCG companies as a sensory research specialist (including Nestlé, Fosters, McDonald’s, Kellogg’s, Uncle Bens, Frito-Lay and more...), and her experience has covered a wide range of products including food, beverages, pet food and personal/home care. Academically, Suz has completed a Science Degree in Physiology and Psychology, a Masters Degree in Cognitive Science, an MBA in Marketing, a Graduate Certificate in Gastronomy and more... Suz is currently managing the Sensory & Product Guidance group for Campbell Arnott’s, and is particularly interested in the interplay between sensory psychophysical research and consumer market research.

**Sven Arn**  
Managing Director and Partner H.T.P, Concept, Germany  
Sven Arn, is Managing Director and Partner at H.T.P, Concept. He has been with the company since 1991 and became Managing Director in 1997. His research focus is in international and cross-cultural research with a specific expertise in insight development, positioning and brand strategy. He works for clients in a wide range of industries and also regularly runs workshops and training courses to develop qualitative skills. He has been on a number of Programme Committees at various ESOMAR events including the Annual Congress, the Qualitative Conference and the Insight Conference. Sven has also been a guest lecturer at the UdK (University of the Arts), Berlin and the Design Academy, Berlin.

**Reg Baker**  
Consultant for ESOMAR and Senior Consultant for Market Strategies  
Reg Baker is the former President and Chief Operating Officer of Market Strategies. He continues to serve the company as a consultant on research methods and technologies. He is active in numerous professional associations and industry bodies including AAPOR, CASRO, ESOMAR and the Technical Committee responsible for ISO 20252 – Market Opinion and Social Research. He serves on the Executive Editorial Board of the International Journal of Market Research and is a consultant to the ESOMAR Professional Standards Committee. Throughout his career he has focused on the methodological and operational implications of new survey technologies including CATI, CAPI, WEB and now mobile. He writes and presents on these and related issues to diverse national and international audiences and blogs off on as thesurveygeek. Prior to joining Market Strategies in 1995, he was Vice President of Research Services for NORC at the University of Chicago.
**Susan Bell**  
Director, Susan Bell Research  
Susan Bell a Fellow of the Australian Market and Social Research Society (AMSRs) and is the Director of Susan Bell Research. Sue is a specialist in qualitative research and her key areas of expertise are in the use of behavioral economics, discourse analysis and semiotics within qualitative research. She is a regular conference and workshop presenter for AMSRS and has presented at the NewMR Festival on discourse analysis and behavioral economics. She chaired the NSW Division of AMSRS and was a member of the National Council from 2005 to 2010. Sue holds a BA (Hons) in English and Linguistics and Graduate Diploma in Psychology. Originally from Yorkshire, Sue is now a resident of Sydney.

**Pete Cape**  
Global Knowledge Director, Survey Sampling International  
Pete Cape has over 20 years experience in market research. Initially a specialist in international telephone research, he was a founder member of TNS Interactive in the late nineties and has concentrated on online research ever since. Joining Survey Sampling in 2005, he oversaw the rapid development of their online business in the UK and became Global Knowledge Director in 2006. He is a frequent speaker at conferences, seminars and training workshops for ESOMAR and others around the globe and a regular contributor to research and marketing publications.

**Alison Dexter**  
VP, Qualitative  
TNS  
Alison has over 20 years research and associated industry (management/marketing consultancy; advertising) experience gained in Asia (12 yrs), Australia (9 years) and Europe (2 yrs). After heading up the qualitative research division at TNS Vietnam for 7 years, Alison recently transferred to the TNS North America office to join the qualitative team there, based out of New York. Alison has assisted clients by sitting on advisory boards and planning and strategic committees, and was a committee member for the ESOMAR Asia Pacific Market Research Conference in 2010 and 2011. She co-won best paper at this event in Beijing in 2009 along with Bach Ngoc Hieu An. Alison is part of a global task-force dedicated to ensuring leading edge qualitative research techniques and processes, and well as training and development.
Dirk Huisman
Founder and Chairman, skim

Dirk Huisman is the founder and chairman of skim. Dirk is a thought leader in advanced market research methodologies, a specialist in conjoint analysis and related methods, and a recognised advocate of these methods in the market research world. In addition to developing skim into today’s international market research agency, he has over the years presented at many industry conferences, was involved in development of market research organizations MOA and ESOMAR, won an ESOMAR award twice and published over 30 papers on various themes (pricing, choice behaviour, means end, product development, future of market research, and conjoint analysis). He is known for his critical viewpoint on the role of market research in business over time.

Nasir Khan
ESOMAR Representative and Founder SOMRA-MBL Ltd.

Nasir Khan began his market research career as an international pricing researcher, in early 1980, as a student in Bulgaria. Since 1985, he has been a full time researcher. Besides founding his own research company, Somra-MBL Ltd in 1988, he has worked with researchers and research companies from around the world. Nasir has been a member of ESOMAR since 1998, is a full member of the MRS and is currently ESOMAR Representative for Bangladesh and winner of the “ESOMAR Outstanding Representative in an Emerging Market 2011” Award. He has authored a number of national and international research publications and participated in many research workshops and conferences. He has been a dedicated mentor of young researchers since 1990 with a view to developing the research industry in Bangladesh. He is an active blogger, discussion participant in social media and is a supporter of the NewMR festival and programs. He holds a Ph.D. in Economics.

Kathryn Korostoff
President, Research Rockstar LLC

Kathryn Korostoff has a special interest in how organisations acquire, manage, and apply market research. For over 20 years, she has personally directed more than 600 primary market research projects and published over 100 bylined articles in various magazines, including Quirk’s and the MRA’s Alert! magazine. Kathryn is also the author of the book, “How to Hire & Manage Market Research Agencies”. She has been a featured speaker at American Marketing Association (AMA) and Marketing Research Association (MRA) events, and is frequently hired by clients to facilitate on-site market research workshops. Kathryn is currently the founder and president of Research Rockstar, the only independent company dedicated to market research training (online and in-person). Prior to Research Rockstar, Kathryn completed the transition of Sage Research to its new parent company, Chadwick Martin Bailey.
Nikki Lavoie
Founder, MindSpark

Nikki Lavoie worked in market research in the United States for several years before relocating to France in 2011 to continue working internationally. She is a trained moderator with a certificate in projective techniques, and has numerous on and offline studies under her belt. She specialises in international research, having presented her first paper at the 2013 annual ESOMAR Congress on the importance of language in multi-country studies. Nikki looks to continue being an active member of the research community, and enjoys learning from and sharing with her colleagues and peers.

Phyllis Macfarlane
Chairman, GfK NOP and GfK Global Training Director

Phyllis Macfarlane is currently chairman of GfK NOP and GfK’s Global Training Director. From 2001 to 2009 she was Managing Director of GfK NOP. Starting as Assistant Statistician to the MIL Research Group, Phyllis has been involved in the development of business sampling and weighting techniques since the early 70’s. Throughout her career she has specialised in Business-to-Business research and managed the major European and International research programmes of companies such as Xerox and AT&T. Phyllis is recognised as an authority on business sampling and market measurement. Her paper on ‘Structuring and Measuring the Size of Business Markets’ was awarded the MRS Silver Medal for best published paper in 2003.

Phyllis has a degree in Mathematics from University College, London and is a Fellow of the Market Research Society.

Omar Mahmoud
Chief Market Research, UNICEF Private Fundraising and Partnerships

Omar Mahmoud is currently Chief Market Research of UNICEF Private Fundraising and Partnerships. He has held global, regional, and local positions in Western Europe, Middle East and Africa, and North America and brings over twenty-five years of experience in market research and marketing services, in Procter & Gamble, Novartis Consumer Health, and UNICEF. Omar has worked on several global brands and many successful and unsuccessful new product launches: Pringles, Pampers, Pantene, Ariel, Always, Oil Of Olay, Gerber, Ovomaltine, Isostar, Otrivin, Voltaren, and UNICEF. He has taught Market Research, Marketing, and Business Thinking at The International University in Geneva. Omar’s areas of expertise include innovation and initiative success, insights, advertising research, price research and concept development. Publications include articles and award winning papers on marketing, market research, and decision making.
Bernie Malinoff  
*President, element54*

Bernie is President of element54, a Toronto and Montreal based strategic full-service market research firm, specialising in concept and product innovation optimisation, brand strategy and positioning, creative development testing and brand/advertising tracking. element54 initiated groundbreaking research into Online survey design—“Sexy Questions, Dangerous Results?” and “Eyes Don’t Lie” (2009/2010), and “How Far is Too Far?” (2011), which have shaped industry dialogue and consciousness around the complex issues of emerging technologies in survey research. Bernie has spoken at a cross-section of high profile events, including ESOMAR, the MRIA, The Market Research Event, the Advertising Research Foundation, CASRO and the MRA.

In 2010, Bernie was nominated for the Next Generation Marketing Research (NGMR) “Disruptive Innovation” Award. He is a Past-President of the MRIA Quebec Chapter, and sessional lecturer at McGill University on Marketing and Research issues.

Katie O’Connor  
*Senior Research Executive, BrainJuicer*

Katie grew up in Phoenix, Arizona and studied International Business at Loyola University Chicago. Her career in Market Research started with an internship at Research International and continues at BrainJuicer where she’s worked on teams in Chicago, New York and London. Being a naturally curious person, she loves that working in Market Research affords her the opportunity to ask questions and gain a deeper understanding of consumer behavior on a daily basis. Katie’s entry about the importance of storytelling in Market Research made her a winner in the NewMR Young Researcher Competition.

Stephen Paton  
*Manager Insights at AGL*

Stephen Paton has 20 years experience as a researcher working with some of Australia’s largest Service Brands and currently manages the Insights team at AGL Energy, which he joined in 2006. Stephen previously worked as an independent consultant, focusing on on-line research issues, segmentations, improving customer experience and interpreting client-slide research needs for suppliers. He began his research career at Telstra.

He is passionate about promoting the researcher buyers role in our industry and in addition to chairing the Victorian Client Network Group, he represents clients on the Victorian AMSRS committee and is a member of the RICA Client Advisory Board.
Annie Pettit
Vice President, Research Standards at Research Now and the Chief Research Officer of Conversion Strategies
Annie Pettit, PhD is the Vice President, Research Standards at Research Now and the Chief Research Officer of Conversion Strategies. She has more than 15 years of experience as an online market researcher and specialises in social media market research, survey research, and data quality. Annie is a member of the CASRO, MRA, and ESOMAR social media research committees. She regularly presents at conferences and has published numerous articles in both professional and refereed magazines and journals. Annie tweets at @LoveStats, writes the LoveStats marketing research blog, and is the author of The Listen Lady, a novel about social media research. She is the Editor-in-Chief of the MRIA's Vue magazine.

Pravin Shekar
Founder The Social Catalyst and Kreator-in-Chief, krea
Pravin Shekar has been in the research domain for the past 15 years and continues to contribute to market research in various avatars: entrepreneur, technologist, research-evangelist and speaker. He heads two entities: ‘krea’, an India-centric panel research firm and ‘The Social Catalyst’, a non-profit trust aimed at professionalising the work of NGOs. In regular demand as a speaker, Pravin has presented papers and chaired discussions at several conferences. Pravin continues to work towards spreading the use of technology in research and spearheading the movement for making market research a career of choice for students. He was selected as an “Emerging Global leader in marketing research”, by the American Marketing Association (4 under 40 Award). He is a member of the ESOMAR Council.

Anouk Willems
Senior Research Innovator, InSites Consulting
Anouk is ‘Senior Research Innovator’ at InSites Consulting. With a background in marketing, she’s on a quest to merge research with structural consumer collaboration. After managing online research communities for global clients like Unilever, Danone and Heinz, she’s now focusing on the role of online research communities in marketing domains. Besides working at InSites, she founded a DIY website ‘Klusopedia’ three years ago (sold in 2011) and has great affinity with online marketing & social media. Anouk was nominated with her work by ESOMAR (“Research Effectiveness Award 2011” – ‘Bringing consumers alive within Unilever R&D’) and was a finalist of the NewMR Young Researcher Competition 2011.
Navin Williams has close to two decades of experience spread across the market research, technology, media and telecom sectors. Having worked with the top global agencies in four countries and two continents; he’s had the opportunity to be part of market research technological adoptions over the years in diverse developing environments. Navin has spend the better part of the last decade on new media technology and his quest to drive mobile adoption in market research led him to form MobileMeasure Consultancy. A pioneer in mobile-enabled market research, Navin is widely regarded as a thought-leader in the evolution of digital technology in the industry. He has written a number of whitepapers and is a frequent speaker at industry conferences. Recently, he was involved in the designing and writing of the curriculum for University of Georgia’s Mobile Marketing Research course and is currently working on a book on Mobile MR. Navin is based in Shanghai, China with his wife and two Children.

Tom Wilms
Manager Strategy, Media & Insights, Royal Grolsch N.V., a SABMiller Company, Netherlands

During the last decade Tom Wilms has been working in several marketing functions within the Royal Grolsch company, a subsidiary of SABMiller, starting as Marketing Services Manager (Media Management, Consumer and Market Insights and Consumer Services), followed by a two-year period as Brand Leader Grolsch (Brand Strategy, Brand Communication and Brand Sponsorship). Currently Tom is Manager Strategy and Insights, involved in strategic projects based on consumer, shopper and/or customer insights. Before Tom joined Grolsch, he worked at Sara Lee in several trade marketing functions, where category management and ECR projects were his main focus. Prior to Sara Lee, Tom worked at ACNielsen as an Analytical Consultant in the areas of promotional and price management. During this time he combined his work with a NIMA-C course (C1+C2) and a study of Econometrics, combined with several marketing courses, at the University of Groningen.
Many years ago, Woody Allen directed a movie called *Everything You Always Wanted to Know About Sex* *But Were Afraid to Ask* – and well, this book seeks to do the same for market research. In the everyday lives of market researchers there are some questions that are so basic that it can almost be embarrassing to ask them. In fact, it is usually fine to ask. But, for those who don’t want to ask, and for those who do not have somebody convenient to ask, this book has the answers to those questions.

Answers to Contemporary Market Research Questions contains almost 200 everyday market research questions, along with the answers. The answers have been created by a team of research heavyweights, a product of over twenty contributors, who between them have hundreds of years of market research experience. The book effectively creates a ‘brains trust’ for new entrants into market research and is aimed at new researchers and people new to a research topic.

THE TEAM
The contributing authors were: Suz Allen, Sven Arn, Reg Baker, Susan Bell, Pete Cape, Alison Dexter, Dirk Huisman, Nasir Khan, Kathryn Koroistoff, Nikki Lavoie, Phyllis Maciarlane, Omar Mahmoud, Bernie Malinoff, Katie O’Connor, Stephen Paton, Anne Pettit, Pravin Shekar, Anouk Willems, Navin Williams and Tom Wilms. The book was curated by Finn Raben, Ray Poynter, and Sue York and edited by Sue York and Ray Poynter.

ESOMAR is the essential organisation for encouraging, advancing and elevating market research worldwide.