

1 **Can consumer segmentation in projective mapping contribute to a better**
2 **understanding of consumer perception?**

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 In projective mapping tasks assessors create an overall representation of the similarities and
19 differences among samples by relying on a process of synthesis for analyzing and
20 processing sensory information. Individual differences in consumers' information processing
21 and preference patterns could strongly affect which sensory characteristics they consider
22 more relevant for estimating similarities and differences among samples. Therefore, low-
23 dimensional consensus configurations (obtained via MFA or GPA) may not represent the
24 perception of some consumer segments. This could lead to inaccurate conclusions about
25 consumers' sensory perception of the products or at least to the loss of valuable information
26 about the perception of some consumer groups. In this context, the aims of the present work
27 were to explore consumer segmentation in projective mapping. Datasets from nine studies
28 with 81-102 consumers were analyzed to explore consumers' segmentation. Through
29 applying hierarchical cluster analysis on consumers' coordinates in the first four dimensions
30 of the MFA, between 2 and 4 groups of consumers were identified in each study. Sample
31 configurations and consumers' descriptions strongly differed among the groups, indicating
32 heterogeneity in the relative relevance they gave to the sensory characteristics of the
33 samples for estimating the similarities and differences among samples. In all cases it was
34 observed that the consensus configuration was highly similar to the configuration of one of
35 the groups, which was not necessarily the larger but the one with the highest explained
36 variance by the first dimension of the MFA. These results suggest the need to explore
37 segmentation when analyzing data from projective mapping tasks, and to further study the
38 relationship between consumers' holistic perception of products and preference patterns.

39

40 **Keywords:** *sensory characterization; consumer profiling; consumer research; MFA; napping*

41 **Research highlights**

- 42 • Data from 9 projective mapping studies were used to explore consumer segmentation
- 43 • Hierarchical cluster analysis was performed on consumers' coordinates of the MFA
- 44 • Between 2 and 4 groups of consumers were identified in each study
- 45 • Sample configurations and consumers' descriptions strongly differed among the
- 46 groups
- 47 • Consumer segmentation in projective mapping tasks deserves further exploration

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Interest in consumer-based methodologies for sensory product characterization has steadily
51 grown in the last decade, partly motivated by the need to directly include consumer input in
52 the new product development process (Valentin, Chollet, Lelièvre, & Abdi, 2012; Varela &
53 Ares, 2012). Research showing that consumers can provide accurate information about the
54 sensory characteristics of products (Husson, Le Dien, & Pagès, 2001; Moskowitz, 1996;
55 Worch, Lê, & Punter, 2010; Ares, Bruzzone & Giménez, 2011) has led to the development of
56 new consumer-based methodologies (Varela & Ares, 2014).

57 Holistic methodologies are among the most popular novel methodologies for sensory
58 characterization which are being increasingly used for uncovering consumers' perception of
59 food products (Varela & Ares, 2012). These methodologies are based on the evaluation of
60 global similarities and differences among samples, and therefore they are useful to identify
61 the main sensory characteristics underlying judgments of perceived similarity (Ares & Varela,
62 2014). Projective mapping is one of the most popular holistic methods. Assessors are asked
63 to position samples on a bi-dimensional space according to their global similarities and
64 differences (Risvik, McEwan, Colwill, Rogers, & Lyon, 1994), being able to simultaneously
65 consider more than one sensory characteristic. Projective mapping has already been applied
66 for sensory characterization of a wide range of food product categories, including chocolate,
67 cheese, wine, citrus juices, fish nuggets, milk desserts, crackers, and fruits (Albert, Varela,
68 Salvador, Hough, & Fiszman, 2011; Bárcenas, Pérez-Elortondo, & Albisu, 2004; Hopfer &
69 Heymann, 2013; Nestrud & Lawless, 2008; Pagés, 2005; Risvik et al., 1994; Vidal, Cadena,
70 Antúnez, Giménez, Varela & Ares, 2014).

71 In a projective mapping task assessors should form an overall representation of the
72 similarities and differences among samples by relying on a process of synthesis for analyzing
73 and processing sensory information (Jaeger, Wakeling, & MacFie, 2000). This process of
74 synthesis determines the relative importance of the perceived sensory characteristics for
75 estimating the similarities and differences among samples. For this reason, individual
76 differences in the criteria used by assessors to evaluate samples and complete the task are

77 expected. These individual differences are worth studying, particularly when working with
78 naïve consumers (Nestrud & Lawless, 2008).

79 Heterogeneity in how consumers perceive food products has been long recognized, i.e.
80 consumers have been reported to differ in how they perceive products (e.g., Prutkin et al.,
81 1972) and/or in the relative importance they attach to the sensory characteristics of products
82 (Carroll, 1972; Love, 1994; Harwood, Ziegler, & Hayes, 2012; Moskowitz & Krieger, 2000).
83 Considering that projective mapping tasks do not involve training in attribute recognition or
84 quantification (Valentin et al., 2012), and also that consumers are not specifically asked
85 about individual attributes but rather to assess them holistically, consumers can generate
86 different sensory spaces which reflects differences in how they perceive samples and how
87 they cognitively assess them. Individual differences in consumers' information processing
88 and cognitive structure and task-related factors can affect synthesis processes and,
89 consequently, the number of sensory characteristics that are simultaneously considered for
90 estimating similarities and differences among samples (Malhotra, Pinson, & Jain, 2010). For
91 these reasons, sample spaces are expected to strongly differ among assessors.

92 Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA) or Multiple Factor Analysis (MFA) are used to handle
93 heterogeneity in individual maps and to obtain a consensus sample configuration in a low-
94 dimensional space (Dehlholm, 2014). However, the low-dimensionality of this sample
95 configuration may not reflect the cognitive representation of all consumers (Summers &
96 MacKay, 1976). Therefore, the perception of consumer segments may be underrepresented
97 in consensus configurations from projective mapping, which could lead to inaccurate
98 conclusions about consumers' sensory perception of the products.

99 In this context, the aims of the present work were to explore the occurrence of consumer
100 segmentation in projective mapping tasks and to estimate its effects when analyzing data
101 from consumer-based sensory characterization studies using this methodology.

102

103 **2. Materials and methods**

104 Data sets from nine different consumer studies with different product categories (Cadena et
105 al. 2014; Vidal et al., 2014b) were re-analyzed to explore consumers' segmentation. Table 1
106 shows the description of the data sets.

107

108 **2.1. Consumers**

109 Between 81 and 102 consumers participated in the studies (Table 1). In each study
110 consumers were recruited based on their consumption of the target product, as well as their
111 interest and availability to participate in the study. Participants were aged 18–75 years old
112 and the percentage of females ranged from 51% to 73%. Consumer samples were not
113 representative of the general population of the cities in which the studies were performed
114 (Montevideo -Uruguay- and Gualeguaychú –Argentina-).

115

116 **2.2. Samples**

117 Four product categories were considered: crackers, milk desserts, orange-flavoured
118 powdered drinks, and yogurt. Samples in Studies 1, 2, 7 and 8 corresponded to commercial
119 brands available in the market, which were purchased from local supermarkets. In Studies 3
120 - 6 vanilla milk desserts were prepared using water, powdered skimmed milk, inulin, modified
121 maize starch, commercial sugar, polydextrose, sodium tripolyphosphate, carrageenan,
122 vanilla aroma, caramel aroma, egg yellow food colouring and sucralose (Vidal et al. 2014b).
123 In Study 9 yogurts were formulated with skimmed pasteurized milk, commercial sugar, skim
124 milk powder, modified starch, locust bean gum, pectin, and lyophilised cultures of *S.*
125 *thermophilus*, *Lactobacillus bulgaricus*, *Lactobacillus acidophilus*, and *Bifidobacteriumlactis*
126 (Cadena et al. 2014).

127 Six or eight samples were included in the studies, as shown in Table 1. Samples were
128 presented to consumers in plastic containers labelled with three-digit random numbers, and
129 were served all at once in random order for their comparison. Mineral water was available for
130 rinsing between samples but it was not enforced.

131

132 **2.3. Data collection**

133 The studies took place in standard sensory booths, under white lighting, controlled
134 temperature (22-24°C) and airflow conditions. Explanation on how to perform the test was
135 provided to participants at the beginning of each study. Consumers were asked to evaluate
136 the samples and to place them on an A3 white sheet (42cm x 30cm), according to their
137 similarities and differences, in a way that two samples perceived as similar should be located
138 close together on the sheet, whereas samples perceived as very different had to be placed
139 far from each other. They were asked to complete the task using their own criteria and they
140 were told that there were no right or wrong answers. After completing the projective mapping
141 task, consumers were asked to provide a description of the sensory characteristics of each of
142 the samples.

143

144 **2.4. Data analysis**

145 The X and Y coordinates of the samples on each consumer's individual map were
146 determined by measuring their position on the A3 sheet, considering the left bottom corner
147 as the origin of the coordinate system. A Multiple Factor Analysis (MFA) was performed on
148 the coordinate data, considering the data from each consumer as a separate group of
149 variables (Pagès, 2005). Sample configurations obtained through this analysis for each study
150 are called "consensus". Confidence ellipses were constructed using parametric bootstrapping
151 (Dehholm, Brockhoff, & Bredie, 2012).

152 Consumers' representation in the relationship square of the MFA (i.e. the representation of
153 the groups of variables) provides a measure of the similarity between their individual sample
154 configurations (Pagès & Husson, 2014). In this representation, the coordinates of each
155 consumer (group of variables) on the MFA dimensions correspond to the *Lg* measure
156 between the X and Y coordinates of each individual sample map (the variables of each
157 group) and each of the MFA dimensions. The *Lg* measure is an indicator of the relationship
158 between a group of variables and a dimension. The proximity of two consumers (groups) in
159 this representation is a consequence of the similarity in the structures they induce on the

160 samples (Lê, 2014). Groups of consumers with similar individual maps were identified using
161 hierarchical cluster analysis on consumers' coordinates in the first four dimensions of the
162 MFA. Four dimensions were kept in the analysis as for 8 of the 9 studies considered the
163 percentage of variance explained by the first two dimensions of the MFA was lower than 70%
164 (Table 2), while for all studies at least 70% of explained variance was explained by the first
165 four dimensions (data not shown). Euclidean distances and Ward's clustering method were
166 used in the clustering procedure, and the optimum number of clusters for each study was
167 determined based on the Calinski and Harabasz index (Milligan & Cooper, 1985).

168 Projective mapping data were analyzed separately for each of the consumer groups
169 identified in hierarchical cluster analysis following the same procedure than for the original
170 datasets. However, to interpret the results of each consumer group, only the first two
171 dimensions of the MFA were considered, regardless of the cumulative percentage of
172 explained variance by the second dimension. Considering that the majority of the participants
173 in projective mapping studies pay attention to one or two dimensions, even if the sample set
174 has multiple sources of variation (Nestrud & Lawless, 2011), it seemed reasonable to
175 assume that the consensus sample space within a cluster would be two-dimensional.

176 Similarity between the sensory spaces provided by the identified consumer groups was
177 evaluated using the RV coefficient (Robert & Escoufier, 1976) between sample
178 configurations in the first two dimensions of the MFA. The RV coefficient was also used to
179 evaluate the similarity between the sample configuration of each of the consumer groups
180 identified and the consensus configuration of each study. RV coefficients between the first
181 two dimensions of the MFA of each cluster and all the possible pairs dimensions from the
182 first four dimensions of the consensus configuration (i.e., 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 2
183 and 4, 3 and 4) were calculated. The significance of the RV coefficient was tested using a
184 permutation test (Josse, Pagès, & Husson, 2008).

185 All the words provided by participants in the description phase were qualitatively analysed.
186 The terms elicited to describe each sample or group of samples were grouped by consensus
187 between two researchers. Terms mentioned by at least 5% of the consumers were retained

188 for further analysis. Global chi-square analysis was used to evaluate differences in the
189 frequency of mention of the terms among consumer groups. When the global chi-square test
190 was significant, a chi-square per cell analysis was performed to identify its source of variation
191 (Symoneaux, Galmarini, & Mehinagic, 2012). The chi-square per cell test determines if the
192 observed values of each cell of a contingency table are significantly higher, lower or equal to
193 the expected ones (Symoneaux & Galmarini, 2014).

194 The frequency table containing terms generated by each group of consumers and their
195 frequency of mention was considered a set of supplementary variables in the MFA of
196 projective mapping data.

197 All statistical analyses were performed with R language (R Core Team, 2013). FactoMineR
198 was used to perform MFA and to compute the RV coefficient (Lê, Josse, & Husson, 2008),
199 and NbClust was used to determine the optimum number of clusters for each study (Charrad,
200 Ghazzali, Boiteau & Niknafs, 2013).

201

202 **3. Results**

203

204 **3.1. Hierarchical cluster analysis**

205 Results from hierarchical cluster analysis and MFA are summarized in Table 2. In the nine
206 consumer studies between 2 and 4 groups of consumers (referred to as clusters from now
207 on) were identified, with relative sizes ranging from 12.4% to 58.2% (Table 2).

208 The RV coefficients between sample configurations of each of the identified clusters and the
209 consensus configurations ranged from 0.073 ($p=0.928$) and 0.975 ($p=0.005$) when the first
210 two dimensions of the MFA were considered. The majority of the clusters' sample
211 configurations (70.5%) were significantly correlated to the consensus configurations when
212 the first two dimensions of the MFA were considered. However, in 6 out of 9 studies there
213 was at least one cluster with a sample configuration that was not significantly correlated to
214 the consensus sample configuration in the first two dimensions of the MFA. The highest
215 correlations between clusters' and consensus configurations in the first two dimensions were

216 found for the clusters that had the highest explained variance by the first two dimensions of
217 the MFA, which were not necessarily the largest clusters. In fact, in studies 2, 6, 7 and 8 the
218 clusters with the highest RV with the consensus configurations were not the ones with the
219 largest relative size. For the rest of the clusters, their correlation with the consensus
220 configuration depended on both the percentage of variance explained by the first dimension
221 and their relative size (Table 2).

222 For some of the clusters, sample configurations in the first two dimensions of the MFA were
223 more correlated to higher dimensions of the consensus configuration than to the first two
224 dimensions (Table 2). For example, in Study 1 the first two dimensions of the configuration of
225 cluster 1 were more correlated to dimensions 2 and 3 of the consensus configuration than to
226 the first two dimensions. When the highest RV coefficients between the first two dimensions
227 of the clusters' MFA and two of the first four dimensions of the consensus MFA were
228 considered, values ranged from 0.531 ($p=0.048$) to 0.975 ($p=0.005$) (Table 2). All the RV
229 coefficients were significant, except for the configuration of one cluster in Study 7 that was
230 almost significant ($p=0.058$). This result suggested that each cluster was related to a part of
231 the consensus configuration, which indicated that the clusters gave different relative
232 importance to the sensory characteristics of samples when evaluating their similarities and
233 differences.

234 The similarity of sample configurations among the identified clusters for each study was
235 assessed by computing the RV coefficient in the first two dimensions of the MFA. The RV
236 coefficients ranged from 0.022 to 0.776, while the p-values varied between 0.0109 and
237 0.9649 but only 16.7% of them were significant.

238

239 **3.2. Description of sample configurations for the identified consumer clusters**

240 Similarities and differences between sample configurations in the first two dimensions of the
241 MFA for the consensus and the different clusters identified in each study were analyzed. In
242 the majority of the studies there was at least one cluster with a sample configuration very
243 different to the consensus, and at least one cluster with a sample configuration similar to the

244 consensus. However, consumer segmentation of projective mapping data led to different
245 results depending on the study. Examples are discussed below.

246 The three consumer clusters identified in Study 4 had sample configurations with clearly
247 different correlation to the consensus sample configuration (Table 2). In the first two
248 dimensions of the MFA, sample configuration of Cluster 2 (relative size 52%) was extremely
249 similar to the consensus (Figure 1 (a) and (d)), which is in agreement with the high RV
250 coefficient obtained (RV=0.958). Sample grouping in the sample configuration of Cluster 1
251 (relative size 30%) was somehow similar to the consensus, with the exception of samples B6
252 and B8 that were placed together in a distinct place in the consensus sample configuration,
253 but were overlapped with sample B5 in sample configuration from Cluster 1 (Figure 1(c)).
254 The separation of samples in the first dimension of the MFA for Cluster 1 corresponded to
255 the second dimension of the consensus configuration, suggesting that Clusters 1 and 2 might
256 be categorizing samples differently weighting some product characteristics. The RV between
257 these two configurations reflected that fact, it was significant but not so high (RV=0.759). On
258 the other hand, sample configuration of Cluster 3 (relative size 18%) was not significantly
259 correlated to consensus configuration. Consumers in this cluster placed samples B1, B2, B5
260 and B6 at positive values of dimension 1, and samples B3, B4, B7 and B8 at negative values
261 (Figure 1(e)). Interestingly, this distinction in two groups corresponded to samples with
262 different flavour. The first group of samples (B1, B2, B5 and B6) were formulated with vanilla
263 aroma, while the others were prepared with caramel aroma. In the consensus configuration
264 (Figure 1 (a)), sample grouping in the first two dimensions can be explained by two
265 characteristics: texture and sweetness. Samples formulated without sucralose (B1, B3, B5
266 and B7) were placed at negative values of the first dimension of the MFA, while samples with
267 sucralose were located at positive values. On the other hand, samples placed at negative
268 values of the second dimension of the MFA (B1, B2, B3 and B4) were formulated to have a
269 runny texture, whereas samples B5, B6, B7 and B8 were thicker. Apparently, the type of
270 aroma did not play a role in sample discrimination of the consensus in the first two
271 dimensions of the MFA, nor in the first four dimensions of the MFA of Clusters 1 and 2.

272 However, in the third and fourth dimensions of the consensus sample configuration, it can be
273 observed that samples with caramel aroma were placed at positive values of the third
274 dimension, while samples formulated with vanilla aroma were placed at negative values. This
275 explains the fact that the highest RV coefficient between sample configuration of Cluster 3 in
276 the first two dimensions was found with the third and fourth dimension of the consensus
277 (Table 2). In this study higher dimensions should be considered in order to represent
278 consumer perception of all clusters. These results clearly show the existence of groups of
279 consumers who weighted sensory modalities or individual attributes differently for the
280 categorization or else that the differences in threshold of detection of certain aromas or
281 tastes could play a role in the categorization.

282 Study 5 provided similar insights on the differences between the clusters' and the consensus
283 configuration. Sample configuration in the first two dimensions of the MFA of Cluster 2 was
284 clearly different from the consensus sample configuration in the first two dimensions (Figure 2
285 (a) and (d)), which is in agreement with the fact that the RV between these configurations
286 was not significant. However, sample configuration of Cluster 2 was highly similar to the
287 consensus configuration in the third and fourth dimensions of the MFA (Figure 2(b) and (d),
288 Table 2). Meanwhile, sample configuration from Cluster 1 (relative size 46%, Figure 4 (c))
289 was significantly correlated to the consensus (RV = 0.896). In both sample configurations
290 two groups were located in opposite sides of the first dimension: samples C1, C3, C5 and C7
291 opposed to samples C2, C4, C6 and C8. These groups corresponded to samples with
292 different sweetness. Sample configuration from Cluster 3 (relative size 24%, Figure 2 (e))
293 was also significantly correlated to the consensus, but with a lower RV coefficient (0.656). In
294 this example sample configuration of Cluster 3 showed the highest correlation with
295 dimensions 2 and 3 of the consensus (Table 2).

296 Similar results were found in Studies 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, and 9. In all of them, at least one of the
297 clusters had a sample configuration in the first two dimensions of the MFA very different to
298 the consensus, and some clusters with sample configurations significantly correlated to the
299 consensus, but with intermediate similarity. The configuration of the different clusters were

300 correlated to different parts of the consensus configuration (Table 2). An exception was
301 Study 3, in which the configuration of both clusters was similar to the consensus. In this
302 study although the RV coefficients between the configurations of both clusters and the
303 consensus were high and significant (Table 2), the configuration of Cluster 2 seemed uni-
304 dimensional. The first dimension of sample configuration of Cluster 2 sorted samples
305 identical to the first dimension of the consensus; however the second dimension of the MFA
306 did not seem to be correlated to the consensus configuration and did not provide relevant
307 information (data not shown).

308

309 **3.3. Samples' descriptions by consumers**

310 Between 11 and 25 terms were elicited by at least 5% of consumers in the nine Studies. The
311 frequency of mention of those terms was computed for each of the clusters identified in the
312 different studies. Study 5 was the only one for which the frequency of mention of the elicited
313 terms did not differ between the identified clusters ($\chi^2=25.4$, $p = 0.187$). This was also the
314 study in which the lowest number of terms was used to describe the samples (11).

315 In the other eight studies, between 16% and 56% of the terms had a significantly different
316 frequency of mention among the clusters ($p<0.0485$). The studies in which only two clusters
317 were identified (Studies 1, 3 and 8) were the ones that had fewer terms mentioned with
318 different frequency among clusters (16 to 20%). In general, both clusters were correlated to
319 the consensus, and the terms that were used differently by the clusters were not the most
320 frequently mentioned. As an example, results of the chi-square per cell test for Study 3 are
321 shown in Table 3. It is interesting to note that in this study, Cluster 1 had a sample
322 configuration in the first two dimensions of the MFA which discriminated samples according
323 to their caramel aroma (data not shown), and the frequency of mention of *Caramel flavour*
324 was significantly higher for this cluster. The other difference in perception suggested by the
325 samples categorization was sweetness, in this case though, although there was a trend in
326 Cluster 2 to mention *sweet/very sweet* in a higher proportion, it was not significant. These
327 results are further reinforced by the projection of the terms on the first two dimensions of the

328 MFA (Figure 3), where consumers in Cluster 1 are clearly discriminating *Caramel flavour*
329 from *Vanilla flavour*.

330 In Studies 2 and 6, more than half of the elicited terms were used differently by the identified
331 clusters. In both studies, sample configurations from different clusters were very
332 heterogeneous. For example, in Study 6, milk desserts were formulated to obtain samples
333 with subtle differences in texture and flavour. Sample configuration from Cluster 1 suggests
334 that consumers located the samples mainly according to their texture, while consumers from
335 Cluster 3 appeared to have given more relevance to samples' sweetness (data not shown).
336 Results from the chi-square per cell test showed that consumers from Cluster 1 used the
337 term *Creamy* more frequently than the other clusters, while the frequency of elicitation of the
338 terms *Very sweet* and *Vanilla flavour* was lower. Moreover, consumers in Cluster 3 used
339 more frequently the terms *Sweet* and *Tasty*, and less frequently the terms *Vanilla flavour* and
340 *Consistent*. On the other hand, consumers from Cluster 2 used less frequently the term
341 *Sweet*, which was on average the most frequently used term in this study. The terms *Vanilla*
342 *flavour* and *Consistent* were elicited more frequently by this cluster, as well as *Aftertaste*,
343 which was on average the least frequently used term in Study 6. In fact, the term *Vanilla*
344 *flavour* was used almost exclusively by consumers in Cluster 2. It is important to note that
345 sample configuration from this cluster was not correlated to the consensus sample
346 configuration. These results suggest that consumers in Cluster 2 might have used a different
347 criteria in the projective mapping task, and their perception was not reflected in the
348 consensus configuration. Similar results were found for Studies 7 and 9 but detailed
349 information is not provided.

350

351 **4. Discussion**

352 In the present work consumer segmentation in projective mapping was explored in nine
353 studies with different product categories. Between 2 and 4 groups of consumers were
354 identified and, in the majority of the studies, sample configurations and consumers'
355 descriptions differed among the groups. In most studies the RV coefficients computed

356 between sample configurations of the different clusters were low and not significant,
357 indicating different criteria for estimating global similarities and differences among samples
358 and, consequently, in the relative relevance they gave to the sensory characteristics of the
359 products. Similar results have been reported when analyzing consumer responses to sorting
360 tasks (Courcoux, Faye & Qannari, 2014).

361 Different factors can underlie consumer heterogeneity in the evaluation of similarities and
362 differences among products. One of the most important factors that could largely contribute
363 to heterogeneity in responses to projective mapping tasks is individual differences in
364 preferred ways of processing information (Allport, 1937). Consumers can be characterized as
365 mostly wholistic if they have a tendency to organize and process information at the global
366 level, while analytic consumers mostly organize and process information according to
367 separate characteristics (Peterson & Deary, 2006). It could be expected that sample
368 configurations from analytic consumers would be more detailed and based on a larger
369 number of sensory characteristics than those from wholistic consumers. In this sense,
370 research on the influence of cognitive style on results from holistic methodologies could
371 contribute to better understand the cognitive underpinnings of sensory characterization tasks.
372 One of the questions that arises when studying heterogeneity in projective mapping is if
373 consumer processing of sensory information when evaluating global differences among
374 samples would reflect information processing for reaching hedonic judgments. Jaeger et al.
375 (2000) suggested that a process of synthesis is also involved when consumers are asked to
376 score sample liking. Therefore, synthesis processes would be in charge of creating a
377 summary of sensory characteristics of the samples to evaluate global differences and to
378 evaluate how much they like the samples. If the same process is used for evaluating global
379 differences and liking, the main sensory characteristics responsible for perceived similarities
380 and differences among samples would also be the main drivers of liking. However, Torri et al.
381 (2013) reported a weak correspondence between projective mapping and internal preference
382 mapping in wine, which indicates that different synthesis process might be used by
383 consumers to complete hedonic and projective mapping tasks. Further research is needed in

384 this field to study the relationship between perceived similarities and differences among
385 samples and liking.

386 Familiarity, knowledge and experience with the product have been reported to affect
387 responses to projective mapping tasks (Nestrud & Lawless, 2008; Torri, Dinnella, Recchia,
388 Naes, Tuorila, & Monteleone, 2013). It could be hypothesized that the influence of these
389 variables would be more relevant in complex products, such as wine or olive oil. In this
390 sense, further research is necessary on the interplay between involvement and product
391 complexity on consumers' perception of global similarities and differences among products.

392 Another point of difference could arise from actual differences in perception, for example
393 taster status or threshold of aroma detection; physiological and perceptual differences
394 between groups would be another interesting point to better understand in relation to
395 categorization. For example, in Study 1 the information provided by one of the consumer
396 groups (Cluster 1) was not well represented in the first four dimensions of the consensus
397 configurations, which could be due to the fact that this group did not discriminate among
398 samples and located the samples randomly.

399 In most of the studies analyzed in the present work consensus configurations in the first two
400 dimensions were highly similar to the configuration of one of the clusters, and very different
401 to the others. This suggests that the information provided by some of the clusters may not be
402 well represented by the first dimensions of the consensus configuration and could potentially
403 underestimate the complexity of consumers' sensory perception of samples. The cluster with
404 the highest similarity with the consensus was not necessarily the largest one but that with the
405 highest percentage of variance explained by the first dimension (Table 2). Besides, in the
406 majority of the studies the clusters' sample configurations in the first two dimensions of the
407 MFA were correlated to different parts of the consensus configuration (Table 2). These
408 results suggest that the consensus configuration may jeopardize results interpretation as it
409 might overestimate the perception of consumers with the simplest configurations, i.e. those
410 who considered less sensory characteristics for estimating the similarities and differences
411 among samples. Therefore, higher dimensions of the MFA might represent the criteria

412 considered by some consumer groups to evaluate similarities and differences among
413 samples. In this sense, it is interesting to highlight that when projective mapping is used for
414 sensory characterization in new product development the consensus configuration may not
415 always be representative of the perception of the majority of the consumers.

416 There were studies in which consumers in different clusters clearly gave more relevance to
417 different sensory characteristics, but all clusters were well represented by the consensus
418 configuration. Such is the case of Study 3, where Cluster 2 discriminated mainly two groups
419 of samples according to their sweetness, while Cluster 1 discriminated samples with caramel
420 aroma from the milk desserts with vanilla aroma. In the consensus configuration, samples
421 location in the first dimension of the MFA was closely related to sample configuration from
422 Cluster 2, whereas the position on the second dimension resembled sample configuration
423 from Cluster 1. This stresses that segmentation in projective mapping studies might enable
424 the identification consumer groups that give different relative importance of the sensory
425 characteristics of samples to assess their similarities and differences.

426 Finally, it is important to note that in this exploratory research all the projective mapping
427 studies considered had 6 or 8 samples, while 5 to 32 samples have been reported in 41
428 studies published in scientific literature since 1994 up to date. Further research would be
429 necessary to explore consumer segmentation in projective mapping tasks with a larger
430 number of samples.

431

432 **5. Conclusions**

433 Results from the present work provided evidence of consumer segmentation in projective
434 mapping tasks, suggesting that different consumer groups used different criteria for
435 evaluating global similarities and differences among samples. The consensus configuration
436 was strongly correlated to the configuration of the consumer group with the highest
437 percentage of variance explained by the first dimension. On the other hand, the information
438 provided by some consumer groups was underrepresented in the first two dimensions of the
439 consensus sample configuration, suggesting the need to consider higher dimensions of the

440 MFA. These results indicate the need to further explore segmentation when analyzing data
441 from projective mapping tasks and to further study the relationship between consumers'
442 holistic perception of products and preference patterns.

443

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449

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561
562

563 **Figure captions**

564

565 **Figure 1.** Sample configurations in the first and second (a) and in the third and fourth (b)
566 dimensions of the MFA for the consensus, and sample configurations in the first and second
567 dimensions of the MFA for the three clusters identified in Study 4: Cluster 1 (c), Cluster 2 (d)
568 and Cluster 3 (e).

569

570 **Figure 2.** Sample configurations in the first and second (a) and third and fourth (b)
571 dimensions of the MFA for the consensus and the three clusters identified in Study 5:
572 Cluster 1 (c), Cluster 2 (d) and Cluster 3 (e).

573

574 **Figure 3.** Projection of consumer descriptions in the first and second dimensions of sample
575 space of the MFA for the consensus (a) and the two clusters identified in Study 3: Cluster 1
576 (b) and Cluster 2 (c). Terms in bold italic correspond to those with square cosine on either
577 the first or second dimension of at least 0.45.

578

579

580 **Tables**

581

582 **Table 1.**Description of the data sets used to evaluate consumer segmentation on data from
583 projective mapping.

584

Study ID	Product	Number of samples	Number of consumers
1	Plain crackers	8	91
2	Plain crackers	8	89
3	Vanilla milk desserts	8	101
4	Vanilla milk desserts	8	100
5	Vanilla milk desserts	8	100
6	Vanilla milk desserts	8	100
7	Powdered drinks	6	102
8	Powdered drinks	6	101
9	Yogurt	8	81

585 **Table 2.** Summary of the results from hierarchical cluster analysis and Multiple Factor Analysis performed on the projective mapping data of the
 586 complete data sets and the clusters identified in each study.

Study ID	Group	Relative size of the clusters (%)	Variance explained by the first two dimensions of the MFA (%)		Cumulative explained variance by the first two dimensions of the MFA(%)	Correlation between the Clusters' and consensus configuration in the first two dimensions of the MFA		Best correlation between the first two dimensions of the Clusters' MFA and two dimensions of the consensus configuration		
			Dim 1	Dim 2		RV	p-value	Dimensions	RV	p-value
1	Consensus	-	46.7	13.6	60.3	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	41.8	24.4	20.2	44.5	0.557	0.034	2,3	0.683	0.005
	Cluster 2	58.2	66.8	8.7	75.5	0.975	0.005	1,2	0.975	0.005
2	Consensus	-	23.0	17.4	40.4	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	24.7	35.9	17.8	53.7	0.286	0.415	2,3	0.794	0.001
	Cluster 2	22.5	51.7	15.6	67.3	0.778	0.004	1,2	0.778	0.004
	Cluster 3	40.4	26.3	19.9	46.2	0.645	0.013	1,2	0.645	0.013
	Cluster 4	12.4	50.9	16.0	66.9	0.126	0.784	3,4	0.673	0.010
3	Consensus	-	50.6	14.7	65.3	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	45.5	27.2	25.0	52.2	0.831	0.002	1,2	0.831	0.002
	Cluster 2	54.5	75.4	6.7	82.0	0.955	0.005	1,2	0.955	0.005
4	Consensus	-	44.6	21.3	65.9	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	30.0	46.3	20.2	66.5	0.759	0.009	2,3	0.769	0.005
	Cluster 2	52.0	68.4	12.2	80.5	0.958	0.002	1,2	0.958	0.002
	Cluster 3	18.0	40.1	19.9	60.0	0.317	0.303	3,4	0.753	0.005
5	Consensus	-	31.2	19.8	51.0	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	46.0	54.3	10.6	64.9	0.896	0.003	1,2	0.896	0.003
	Cluster 2	30.0	28.1	21.5	49.6	0.073	0.928	3,4	0.854	0.001
	Cluster 3	24.0	49.4	15.6	65.0	0.656	0.015	2,3	0.639	0.043

587 Values in bold mean significant RV coefficients (permutation test)

588

589 **Table 2 (cont.)**. Summary of the results from hierarchical cluster analysis and Multiple Factor Analysis performed on the projective mapping
 590 data of the complete data sets and the clusters identified in each study.

591

Study ID	Group	Relative size of the clusters (%)	Variance explained by the first two dimensions of the MFA (%)		Cumulative explained variance by the first two dimensions of the MFA(%)	Correlation between the Clusters' and consensus configuration in the first two dimensions of the MFA		Best correlation between the first two dimensions of the Clusters' MFA and two dimensions of the consensus configuration		
			Dim 1	Dim 2		RV	p-value	Dimensions	RV	p-value
6	Consensus	-	29.6	27.0	56.6	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	29.0	64.5	11.2	75.7	0.782	0.006	2,3	0.828	0.004
	Cluster 2	44.0	26.6	21.9	48.6	0.513	0.067	1,3	0.669	0.011
	Cluster 3	27.0	63.5	11.6	75.1	0.719	0.010	1,2	0.719	0.010
7	Consensus	-	34.0	25.0	59.0	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	16.7	62.6	15.4	78.0	0.644	0.029	2,3	0.803	0.018
	Cluster 2	33.3	30.5	24.1	54.6	0.638	0.031	1,4	0.683	0.041
	Cluster 3	22.5	70.6	11.3	81.9	0.848	0.004	1,2	0.848	0.004
	Cluster 4	27.5	40.7	25.8	66.5	0.420	0.407	1,3	0.678	0.058
8	Consensus	-	52.7	19.7	72.4	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	52.5	33.6	27.2	60.8	0.912	0.002	1,2	0.912	0.002
	Cluster 2	47.5	78.0	9.9	88.0	0.966	0.007	1,2	0.966	0.007
9	Consensus	-	26.3	20.8	47.2	-	-	-	-	-
	Cluster 1	16.0	42.07	15.62	57.7	0.141	0.803	3,4	0.732	0.003
	Cluster 2	25.9	54.43	13.15	67.6	0.604	0.031	2,3	0.881	0.002
	Cluster 3	25.9	30.48	21.88	52.4	0.122	0.866	3,4	0.531	0.048
	Cluster 4	32.1	62.22	10.02	72.2	0.772	0.008	1,2	0.772	0.008

592 Values in bold mean significant RV coefficients (permutation test)

593 **Table 3.** Results of the chi-square per cell test performed on the terms elicited in Study 3.
 594

Terms	Total number of mentions		
	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Total
Notmuchflavourintensity	55	95	150
Sweet	57	80	137
Verysweet	56	70	126
Notverysweet	47	58	105
Vanillaflavour	34	40	74
Tasty	13 (-) *	35 (+) *	48
Disgusting	19	24	43
Consistent	26 (+) **	15 (-) **	41
Creamy	19	20	39
Nice	16	22	38
Runny	15	19	34
Bitter	15	14	29
Intense flavour	6	15	21
Caramel flavour	13 (+) *	7 (-) *	20
Notsweet	3	9	12
Total	394	523	917

595

596 (+) or (-) indicate that the observed value is higher or lower than the value predicted by the
 597 chi-square distribution.

598 ** $p < 0.01$ and * $p < 0.05$; effect of the chi square per cell.

Figure 1

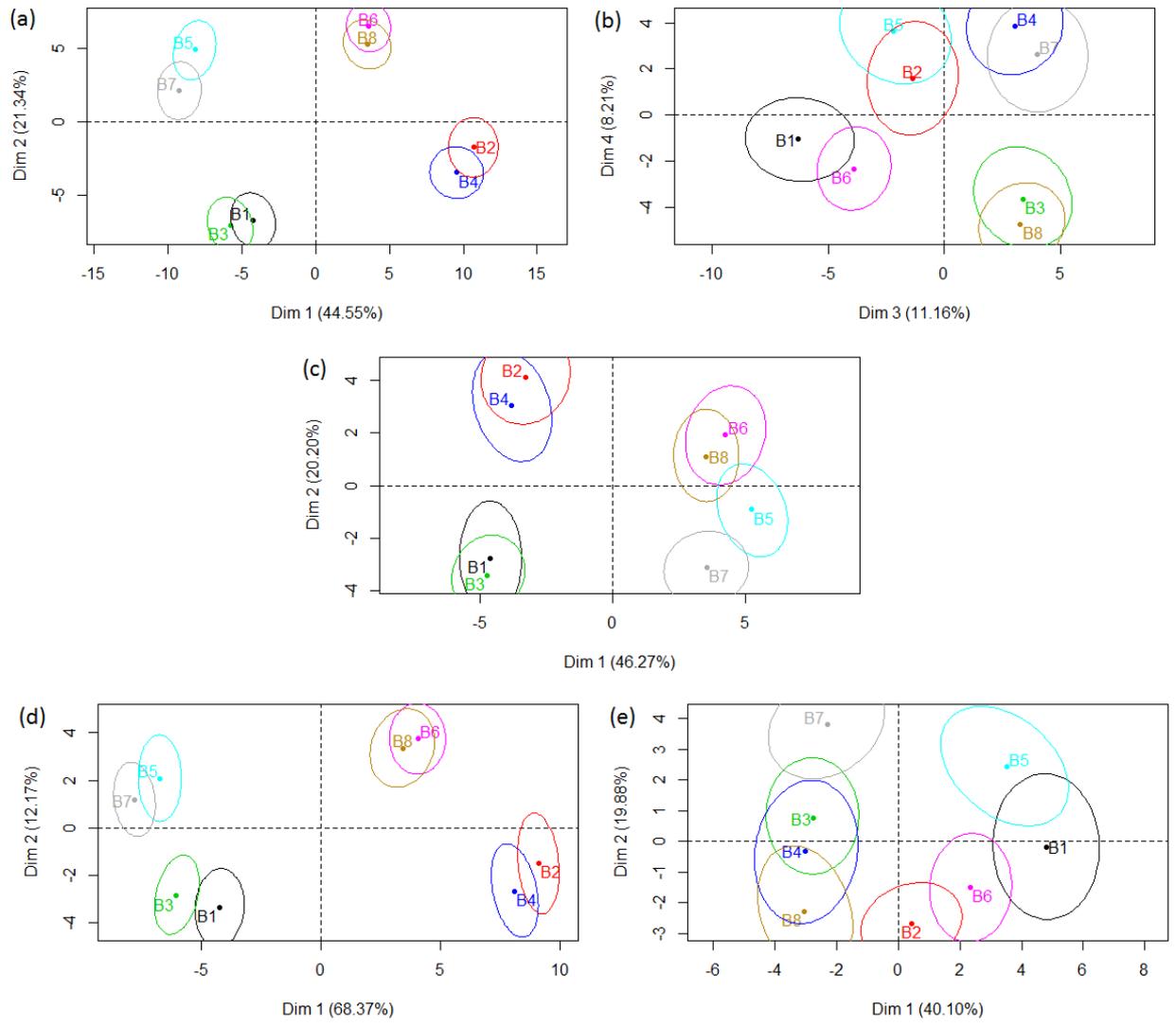


Figure 2

