

# The Perceptual Map

## Idea In Short

Build the map from perceived attributes, not objective specifications, since customers buy what they think a product is, not what its spec sheet says. Choose the Attribute Rating method when customers can articulate what matters to them, and the Overall Similarity method when the category is driven by taste, aesthetics or feel that resists being put into words. Treat market share and perceptual position as two different pictures: a dominant brand can still be vulnerable if its perceived position leaves a gap a competitor can occupy.

## Standing out in a crowded market

Today's markets overwhelm customers with options, whether they're choosing a restaurant, a car or their next smartphone. A company that can find a way to stand out clearly in the customer's mind has a real shot at outperforming its competitors, and a perceptual map is one of the sharpest tools available for doing exactly that.

A perceptual map is a strategic marketing tool that visually represents a brand's perceived position in the market relative to its competitors, built entirely around the attributes customers themselves consider important. Grounded in real consumer perception data, a perceptual map often replaces the informed but ultimately subjective judgment calls managers would otherwise rely on, giving a firm a far more accurate read on how the market will actually respond to its offerings.

## What a perceptual map actually shows

A perceptual map plots how target customers see competing alternatives within a kind of visual space representing the market itself. Maps can range from a simple comparison along two variables to far more complex representations built from many variables at once; these variables are commonly called dimensions or attributes.

Consumer ratings of these attributes determine where each brand lands on the map, and

those attributes can be objective or purely perceived, but a perceptual map is always built from perceived attributes, which may not match, or even include, the objective dimensions a researcher originally assumed mattered. A lawnmower manufacturer, for instance, might think of its new model in terms of color options and blade size, but customers might never register those details at all, perceiving the mower instead as expensive-looking or flimsy. These perceived attributes also aren't necessarily independent of each other or even accurate: customers might judge one soft drink to be sweeter than another simply because it smells fruitier, even if both contain identical amounts of sugar.

## **Two ways to build a map**

The most straightforward way to build a perceptual map is to ask consumers to name the two most important attributes that differentiate a set of products, then rate each product on those two attributes. This works in some cases, but two attributes are usually too thin a foundation for a genuinely reliable map. Researchers instead tend to rely on one of two more rigorous approaches: the Attribute Rating method and the Overall Similarity method, which differ fundamentally in what they ask customers to do.

### **The Attribute Rating method**

The Attribute Rating method extends the two-variable approach by presenting customers with a full list of potentially relevant attributes and asking them to rate every product on each one. This method works best when a product's relevant attributes are easy to identify and put into words. Dow's Specialty Chemical Group, for example, used exactly this approach to assess how customers perceived Dow against its competitors across eight attributes: meeting scheduled delivery dates, practicing innovation, offering fair pricing, product consistency, support in solving processing problems, custom color capability, adequate technical literature, and the ability to withstand high heat-distortion temperatures.

The resulting data forms what's often called a data cube: every respondent provides 32 ratings, eight attributes across four vendors, and across N respondents, that data stacks into a cube of 32-by-N numbers. Statistical techniques, particularly factor analysis and multiple discriminant analysis, then extract the underlying structure from that cube. The mathematics involved is genuinely complex, but the core idea is simple: find the two axes that capture the most information contained in the full data cube, built from the original attributes but reweighted in the process.

This works by identifying patterns in how attributes actually vary. If every vendor is rated identically on a given attribute, that attribute carries no differentiating information and gets little weight in the final map. If two attributes are highly correlated, so that vendors rated highly on one are consistently rated highly on the other, the analysis treats them as measuring the same underlying construct rather than two separate things. Extending this logic collapses the original set of attributes down to a two-dimensional map with each vendor positioned along the two resulting axes. Naturally, some information gets lost in that collapse: Dow's original data spanned eight dimensions, and reducing that to two inevitably discards some detail, though the map retains as much of the most important information as it reasonably can, in exchange for a picture that's far easier to grasp at a glance.

The Attribute Rating method has one significant limitation: it requires the researcher to articulate, and the respondent to think in terms of, specific attributes. That makes it a poor fit for products where the competitive differences come down to taste, aroma or aesthetics that resist being put into words, such as soft drinks or perfumes. In those cases, the Overall Similarity method tends to work better.

## **The Overall Similarity method**

The Overall Similarity method produces a map that looks similar to one built with Attribute Rating, but it starts from very different input data. Rather than asking customers to rate specific attributes, it simply asks them to judge how similar or different pairs of products feel overall. For any set of  $n$  items, this means ranking every possible pair, calculated as  $n$ -choose-2, from most similar to least similar.

Consider a study of six candy bars. Rather than gathering attribute ratings, researchers ask customers to judge overall similarity directly, through statements like rating the similarity of two products on a ten-point scale, or comparing whether one product feels more similar to a second than to a third. With six candy bars, there are 15 unique pairs, and respondents rank all 15 from most similar to least similar; in one such study, candy bars D and E came out as the most similar pair, and E and F as the least. That similarity data can first be visualized along a single dimension for a small number of products, but as more products enter the comparison, the one-dimensional view breaks down and a two-dimensional solution, built using a technique called multidimensional scaling, becomes necessary. Multidimensional scaling searches for a map layout where the visual distances between products match the similarity rankings customers actually gave, and it produces both the resulting plot and a statistic describing how well that layout fits the original data.

One wrinkle with this method is that the resulting axes don't come pre-labeled; the analyst has to infer what each dimension likely represents based on knowledge of the category. If, for example, three of the six candy bars are noticeably sweeter than the rest, the vertical axis might represent sweetness; if four of them contain chocolate, the horizontal axis might represent chocolate content. This inference is inherently somewhat subjective, since a different analyst might just as reasonably conclude the horizontal axis reflects size rather than chocolate content, and the method depends on the analyst genuinely understanding the product category well enough to interpret the result. The Overall Similarity method has been used to build perceptual maps in industries ranging from retail stores and desserts to ethical drugs and cigarette brands.

## **Choosing between the two methods**

The two methods differ across several dimensions. Attribute Rating relies on brand ratings against attributes the analyst specifies in advance, uses widely available statistical software such as factor analysis, and produces product positions defined explicitly as combinations of the original variables; it suits categories with concrete, easily articulated attributes. Overall Similarity relies on similarity rankings with the definition of similarity left entirely to the respondent, requires more specialized (though still relatively affordable) multidimensional scaling software, and produces relative product positions whose axes still need to be interpreted after the fact; it suits categories dominated by attributes that resist easy articulation. The nature of the available input data usually dictates which method fits, and Overall Similarity tends to work better once more than eight brands need to be mapped at once. The two methods are best understood as complements rather than substitutes for one another.

## **Types of perceptual maps**

Two-dimensional perceptual maps are by far the most common form, using a simple vertical and horizontal axis to convey position; brands sitting close together on this kind of map are understood to share many similar attributes in the customer's mind.

Multidimensional perceptual maps go further, using modern statistical and machine-learning techniques, including self-organizing maps, to represent several dimensions in a single visualization. A beverage study capturing customer perceptions across thirteen separate dimensions, such as availability, youthfulness, healthfulness and sweetness, is one example:

each dimension is represented as a vector whose length reflects its relative importance to customers, and a brand's position can be projected along any of these vectors to show how strongly it aligns with that particular dimension.

Joint perceptual maps combine two things at once: customers' perceptions of competing brands, and their notion of an ideal combination of attributes for different customer segments. A joint map of cold-drink brands plotted along sugar and caffeine content, for instance, can show where brands like Coke, Pepsi and Sprite actually sit, alongside the ideal position different segments, such as kids or teens, would prefer. Building a joint map takes more effort, since customers need to provide feedback on ideal positioning for each segment in addition to rating the existing brands, but the resulting map tends to be considerably more useful for real marketing decisions.

Intuitive maps, sometimes called judgmental or consensus maps, are built from a marketer's own understanding of an industry rather than from hard consumer data. They're far easier to produce but correspondingly limited, since their accuracy depends entirely on how good the marketer's intuition actually is.

Spidergrams offer a related but distinct alternative. Rather than plotting brands on two axes, a spidergram has customers rate each brand across every attribute of interest, averages those ratings, and plots the results on a radial diagram. A comparison of three car brands across six dimensions, convenience, reliability, brand value, design, features and economy, each rated on a zero-to-ten scale, produces a spidergram showing each brand's relative strengths and weaknesses across all six dimensions simultaneously.

## **Where perceptual maps get used**

### **Understanding market structure**

Perceptual maps help identify gaps, or "holes," in the product space that current competitors have overlooked, revealing genuine market opportunities alongside the vulnerabilities hidden in how customers actually perceive existing competitors. A market-share chart alone can make a dominant firm look essentially unassailable, but a perceptual map built from the same market can tell a very different story. Suppose Firm A holds a commanding market share, driven by quality-conscious customers who buy from it despite perceiving it as somewhat unfair in its dealings. If Firm A's position on the map sat comfortably in the upper-right quadrant, strong on both quality and fairness, there would be

little basis for challenging it. But if the map instead reveals a real weakness on the fairness dimension, that gap points directly to an opening: a competitor able to match Firm A's quality while genuinely treating customers well could realistically take share away from a firm that looks unbeatable on a market-share chart alone.

## **Testing perceptions of a new product or concept**

Once a genuine market opportunity is identified, concept development follows, then testing, either through product usage tests or test-market evaluation. A perceptual map built by exposing respondents to a new concept or product, whether through a concept statement or actual use, shows whether customers perceive it the way the firm intended.

Consider an appliance manufacturer competing in a market defined by three key attributes: ease of use, flexibility and price. A perceptual map of this market might show most competitors clustered near the center, while two firms occupy a position offering less flexibility and convenience, presumably at a lower price. The firm's own product might occupy a distinct position, differentiated through superior flexibility and carrying a modest price premium over the clustered competitors. Elsewhere on the map, another competitor might have carved out a position combining both greater flexibility and greater ease of use, but at a substantially higher price.

If this firm considered launching a new, easy-to-use appliance with only average flexibility, priced similarly to its existing product, the map could help predict whether that new product would cannibalize its own existing offering or instead draw customers away from competitors occupying a different part of the map. The real question a mapping study answers is whether customers would actually perceive the new product as landing in the intended position, even if, on paper, its flexibility is only average. Running a mapping study after customers understand the proposed concept reveals which of several possible zones the new product is likely to occupy, and if it lands in an unintended zone, the firm can take corrective action, whether through repositioning or a change in messaging, before or after launch. The same kind of mapping exercise can be repeated after a product actually launches, to track whether its intended position matches its real one; a product landing ambiguously between two zones might simply reflect limited market communication, correctable through a stronger marketing push to firmly establish the intended position. This diagnostic value complements a firm's ability to forecast the market share a new product might realistically achieve.

## **Guiding market positioning**

Getting a product's positioning right is critical to a company's survival. Most products carry a mix of physical and intangible attributes with very different consequences for the customer: an automobile, for instance, combines objective characteristics like size, color and price with subjective consequences like pride, power or prestige. A marketer's task is deciding how many attributes to build into a product, how much quality to invest in each one, and how to combine them into a genuine competitive advantage.

In practice, only a handful of attributes typically drive an actual purchase decision, often just two or three, and which attributes matter most tends to vary by market segment, requiring marketing effort to adapt accordingly. A perceptual map helps identify exactly which attributes matter and how customers currently perceive a brand against them, giving a firm a much sharper basis for positioning its offering. Perceptual maps are sometimes confused with positioning maps, but the two aren't the same: a perceptual map captures how customers perceive a brand's characteristics, while a positioning map evaluates the brand's actual, objective characteristics.

## **Setting direction for R&D**

Perceptual maps can also formalize the concept of a customer's "ideal point," the combination of attributes that would represent the perfect product for a given customer segment. Once identified, that ideal point gives research and development a concrete target, informing the goals and direction for the next generation of products or services.

## **Limitations of perceptual maps**

Perceptual maps are powerful, but they come with real constraints. Because they rely so heavily on consumer perception, they can diverge sharply from a product's actual attributes or quality. They are inherently subjective, and results can shift depending on sample size, method and the specific criteria used to gather and analyze the data. They also struggle to capture how dynamic a market really is, since consumer preferences, competitors and the broader environment all shift over time, meaning the mapping exercise needs to be repeated periodically rather than treated as a one-time snapshot. Perceptual maps only capture product-related attributes, largely ignoring the influence of marketing variables like promotion, distribution or after-sales service on customer choice and satisfaction. Customer segments themselves are often far from uniform, and a perceptual map built from a mixed

group of respondents may fail to represent that diversity accurately, potentially leading to misleading conclusions. It can also be genuinely difficult to identify the single best positioning strategy from a map alone, since real trade-offs often exist between different attributes and benefits. And because some products end up with similar or overlapping positions on the map, the tool doesn't always offer a clear basis for meaningful differentiation between them.

## **Summary**

A perceptual map shows a market the way customers actually see it, not the way a spec sheet or a market-share chart describes it. That difference is exactly where new product opportunities and competitive vulnerabilities tend to hide.