Overview

Google Surveys is a market research platform that surveys internet and smartphone users. Since its launch in 2012, Surveys has evolved in several ways: the maximum questions per survey has increased from 2 to 10, the online panel has expanded to tens of millions of unique daily users, and a new mobile app panel has 5M active users and additional segmentation capabilities.1 This paper will explain how Surveys works as of June 2018, while also discussing its advantages and limitations for mitigating different kinds of biases.2 A future paper will evaluate the accuracy of results against benchmarks.

Katrina Sostek and Brett Slatkin, Authors

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The rise of online surveys

Online surveys have increasingly gained acceptance for market research and polling as phone-based surveys have faced multiple challenges. In the United States, for instance, Random Digit Dialing (RDD) of phone landlines was the gold standard for many years. Randomly dialing a number yielded a probability-based sample where each household had a roughly equal chance of being sampled. However, from 2003 to 2017, the percentage of households with landlines declined sharply from 97% to 47%.3

One approach to increasing the coverage of phone surveys has been to add mobile phones into the sample, but that has raised additional problems. First, the Pew Research Center has determined that it’s more expensive to call mobile phones because US federal regulations impose greater restrictions against automated dialing of mobile phones.4 Second, mobile phone users may be less likely to answer calls from unfamiliar numbers. Response rates for phone surveys dropped from 36% in 1997 to 9% in 2016,5 partly due to the inclusion of mobile phones.6

These challenges have led to the gradual use of online surveys instead of or in addition to phone surveys. Online surveys are faster, cheaper, and can reach larger samples more easily than other survey modes. Unfortunately, it’s also harder to “randomly dial” an internet user, which is why online surveys are often non-probability-based samples.

Online surveys face an additional challenge: they can only reach people who are online. This has become a less severe problem in the US as more people have come online, increasing from 52% in 2000 to 89% in 2018. Still, the online US population differs from the general US population by skewing younger, having higher household incomes, attaining higher educational levels, and living in more urban or suburban areas than the 11% who are offline.7

Two questions prompted the launch of Google Surveys six years ago: (1) Could access to online content incentivize people to answer short surveys, and (2) Would the resulting data be accurate and cost effective? We believe that the answers to both questions are “yes.”

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1 Google Surveys originally launched with the name ‘Google Consumer Surveys’
2 For an earlier whitepaper on Google Surveys, see www.google.com/insights/consumersurveys/static/consumer_surveys_whitepaper.pdf
5 www.pewresearch.org/2017/05/15/what-low-response-rates-mean-for-telephone-surveys
6 www.people-press.org/2012/05/15/assessing-the-representativeness-of-public-opinion-surveys
7 http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2018/03/05/some-americans-dont-use-the-internet-who-are-they/
Who answers Google Surveys and where?

Google Surveys offers two panels of respondents: (1) internet users reading content on a network of web publisher sites using Google Opinion Rewards for Publishers, and (2) smartphone users who have downloaded and signed up to use an Android app called Google Opinion Rewards. We’ll address these two panels in more detail below.

Globally, Surveys reaches tens of millions of possible respondents per day, including 5M from the mobile app. In the US, there are also tens of millions of possible respondents per day, including 2M from the mobile app.

The publisher network

Surveys run on the publisher network are distributed across a wide-ranging network of 1,500+ sites that focus on a diverse set of topics.

Completed responses across all surveys come from a mix of sites that are 74% News, 5% Reference, 4% Arts and Entertainment, and 17% Other. Examples of publisher sites include Gannett’s regional newspapers, USA Today, and The Financial Times (all News); Woman’s World (Arts and Entertainment); babynames.com (Reference); and drivers-test.org (Other).

Researchers pay to run surveys, and Surveys pays publishers for each survey answered on their site. Surveys pays publishers tens of millions of dollars each year.

Surveys partially and temporarily block the content on each publisher’s site. Surveys are shown on both desktop and mobile sites, and the survey’s display is optimized for mobile devices.

See case study video from Gannett at youtu.be/OsvGyc8wrFA
Survey prompts on desktop and mobile publisher sites.

On the publisher network, a “river sampling” or “web intercept” approach is used to select survey respondents, as opposed to using a predefined panel. By intercepting site visitors, Google Surveys avoids one potential bias of opt-in survey panels, which can be composed of people who simply love taking surveys, aka Professional Survey Takers.

Surveys respondents on publisher sites are motivated to answer surveys to gain access to the sites’ content, such as articles, reference, or educational materials. This kind of survey is often called a “surveywall” because, like a paywall, the survey blocks a site’s content until the survey is answered. A surveywall uses that site’s content as an incentive to solicit a response.

Publishers choose where, when, and how frequently surveys appear. Readers have alternatives to answering the survey: either skip the survey entirely or take another action such as paying for a subscription.

To encourage high response rates, we make it easy for respondents to answer surveys. When Google Surveys first launched, surveys were limited to two questions. We have since determined that users are often willing to answer longer surveys, and the maximum number of questions is now 10. However, we limit the number of open-ended text questions to two per survey; those are typically the most time-intensive to answer and may decrease response rates.

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9 www.pewresearch.org/2016/05/02/variation-in-online-nonprobability-survey-design/#panel-recruitment-and-survey-sampling
10 onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/9781118763520.ch10/summary
The mobile app

The mobile app Google Opinion Rewards is a predefined, opt-in panel for Android users. Mobile panel members install the app, then earn 10¢-$1 in Google Play Store credit for each survey they answer. Credits can be used to purchase things like books, music, movies, and games. This incentive can introduce bias because, at this time, users of the mobile app must have an Android phone and generally be motivated by Google Play Store credit. We are actively working to diversify the rewards options on the mobile app to attract more types of users and reduce bias.

After downloading the mobile app from the Play Store, users sign up by entering their age, gender, and other demographic details. After completing the signup process, users will then get a notification whenever a survey is available to be answered. Users can’t request surveys; we ask them to answer surveys whenever we need their responses to improve the representativeness of survey results. Most users get 1-2 surveys per week, with each survey offering a reward of between 10¢ and $1 in Play credit in the US.

The Google Opinion Rewards app is also available in the iOS App Store, and allows users to earn PayPal credits. This app is currently not available for user sampling.

How big is Google Surveys?

So far in 2018, Surveys has completed an average of 5M surveys per month. Those surveys averaged 1-2M complete responses per day and 4M responses to individual questions per day.

For surveys run on the online publisher network, the response rate was 25%. For the opt-in mobile app panel, the completion rate was 75%.

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11 Response rate is defined as the percentage of surveys viewed by potential respondents that receive an answer to at least the first question.
12 Completion rate on the mobile app is defined as the percentage of surveys downloaded to a panelist's phone that are also completed.
How to run a Google Survey

Google Surveys are created with three steps: Define the audience, design the questions, and confirm pricing. After a survey begins collecting responses, the results will be available to view.

Define the audience

Researchers create Surveys with an online editor. First, the researcher names the survey and defines the audience.

Researchers begin by choosing a panel: the general population on the publisher network or the mobile app. In both panels, surveys can be sent to specific demographic groups based on gender, age, and geography (country, region, or state).

Surveys can be run in ten countries on the publisher network and the mobile app: Australia, Brazil, Canada, Germany, Italy, Japan, Mexico, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The publisher network is additionally supported in over 40 countries. Surveys on the mobile app can also be fielded to users who speak specific languages.

For the four US regions, see en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_regions_of_the_United_States#Official_regions_of_the_United_States

Only available with Convenience Sampling (described in section 'Sampling bias')
Surveys can have up to 10 questions. Up to four of the questions can be screening questions; if respondents screen out at any point, their survey ends there and they see no more questions.

Several question types are available: single select (radio button), multiple select (checkboxes), rating questions (Likert scale), image questions, and open-ended text questions.

Each respondent will see the questions in the order the researcher specifies. Answers for each question can be shown in a fixed order, randomized, or randomly reversed, which is useful for answers that have a logical order as in the example above. Question text can be formatted with *bold* and _italics_. Questions are limited to 175 characters and answers to 44 characters in English-speaking countries; these character limits differ by country.

Google Surveys does not support branching, where the answer to one question determines which question the respondent sees next. However, we support answer piping, where the answer to one question can be quoted in a later question’s text or answers. To pipe an answer to Question 1 into the text of a follow-up question or answer, use “Q1_ANSWER” without the quotations.

To include a screening question, as in the example above, click “Screen with this question.” Then select the answers to “screen in” respondents to continue on to the next question.
Confirm price

The pricing process is different for surveys with screening questions versus those without. If a survey has no screening questions, the price will vary from 10¢ to $3 per complete response, depending on the number of questions and user criteria of the survey. The editor will automatically display the pricing for the survey. The researcher will then confirm the survey's details, choose a desired number of responses (from 50 to 50,000), and set the frequency.

The confirm pricing step for a survey with no screening questions.

If a survey has screening questions, it may cost significantly more than $3 per complete response, depending on how difficult it is to reach the survey's audience. The price will not be shown automatically, but instead will be determined by a trial run of the survey.
The trial run will estimate the survey’s incidence rate; that is, the number of respondents who choose a screen-in answer to the last screening question in the survey. The lower the incidence rate, the more the survey will cost. For example, if the incidence rate is 10% and the researcher buys 1,000 complete responses, we’ll need to collect at least 10,000 responses to the screening question to reach 1,000 complete responses.

The trial run will run for up to 24 hours, at which point the researcher will get an email quoting the price for the survey. A survey must have a 5% incidence rate to run; if the incidence is less than 5%, the researcher will be asked to redesign the survey. Once this phase is complete, the researcher can then purchase the survey.

After a researcher creates and purchases a survey, a Google Surveys team member will inspect the survey to make sure it complies with our policies, then email the researcher if edits are needed. A common review note is to ask researchers to change “Yes” or “No” binary questions to add an additional option like “No Answer” or “Prefer not to say.” This kind of opt-out option increases the chance that users who may not fall into “Yes” or “No” will respond accurately. Once a survey passes review and begins running, it can no longer be changed.

Surveys are fielded for a minimum of two days to avoid bias from the time of day or a single day. Surveys with screening questions or stricter user criteria may take longer due to the rarity of the subpopulation being measured.
View results

After a survey has collected an initial portion of its responses, the researcher will get an email inviting them to view the results in an online report. These early results will have low sample sizes and large error bars; as more results are collected, the sample size will increase and the error bar sizes will decrease. The results will continue to update until the survey is complete.

Survey report pages offer more than just top-level results. They include comparisons (crosstabs), filters by demographic groups, controls like raw (unweighted) instead of weighted results, and options to share or download the respondent-level data to a spreadsheet.
A major challenge for online non-probability surveys is mitigating sampling bias; that is, ensuring that samples represent the general population of internet users. Within our panels, we offer representative sampling for some countries and convenience sampling for others (described below).

For representative sampling, we evaluate the representativeness of a survey by balancing its sample demographics to match the demographics of the specified population: adult (18 or older) internet users. We match based on three demographic dimensions: age, gender, and geography. In the US, we use estimates for the national internet population from the US Census Bureau’s 2015 Current Population Survey (CPS) Computer and Internet Use Supplement. In other countries with representative sampling, we rely on a combination of government data and internal Google data sources.

Convenience sampling means that respondents may be of any age, gender, or from any geographic region within a country.

15 www.census.gov/programs-surveys/cps/technical-documentation/complete.2015.html
Collecting representative samples

For countries with representative sampling, Google Surveys uses a two-step process to ensure each survey’s representativeness. First, we use stratified sampling to dynamically engage respondents with the goal of matching the demographics of the target internet population. Next, we apply post-stratification weighting to more closely match those same demographics of the target internet population.

While a survey is collecting responses, Surveys does its best to match the respondents’ demographics to the internet population’s demographics with the following steps:

1. Calculate the target percentage of the joint distributions; that is, the percentage of each three-dimensional demographic group, such as 18–24-year-old males in Idaho.

2. Select respondents randomly within each demographic group (age x gender x state) to answer the survey. We don’t balance responses using any additional paradata such as time of day, operating system, or answers to other survey questions.

3. As responses are collected, update the actual, current percentage of respondents of each group in real time.

4. If the actual and target percentages differ at any time, dynamically adjust the criteria of the survey to compensate for under- or over-sampling. For example, if a survey has enough responses from 18–24-year-old males in Idaho but needs more representation from 35–44-year-old females in Nebraska, we will show fewer surveys to 18–24-year-old males in Idaho and more surveys to 35–44-year-old females in Nebraska.

Once the survey has collected all responses, the ideal actual distribution would match the target population’s demographic distribution. In practice, however, actual distributions usually differ slightly from a target population’s demographic distribution. This discrepancy is due to the nature of the dynamic targeting described above, the availability of respondents on publisher sites at any given time, and the tradeoff between finishing a survey in a reasonable amount of time and perfectly matching the distribution.

A table at the bottom of each survey report shows the sampling bias: how the survey’s sample differs from the target internet population for gender, age, and geography.
The Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) score describes the square root of the mean of the squared errors across all values (e.g., male and female) within each dimension (gender, age, and geography). The larger the RMSE score, the less representative the sample is of the specified population.

One note about geographic representativeness: Google Surveys guarantees a representative distribution of regions or states within a country whenever possible. However, Surveys does not guarantee geographic representativeness within a region or state — such as a representative balance between cities and rural areas — as part of its dynamic fielding and weighting schemes. The publisher network does, however, have extensive coverage within states through its 1,500+ publisher sites, in which local newspapers are strongly represented.

We also balance responses across different publishers by preventing any one publisher from dominating a survey’s results. This reduces bias from specific publishers that may focus on local topics, national issues, or particular subject matters. This approach also limits the possibility of repeatedly sampling the same respondents for multiple surveys across our system. Our system also ensures that the same respondent doesn’t have the opportunity to answer the same survey more than once. These frequency capping measures help diversify our panel and mitigate bias towards frequent internet users.
Weighting

To correct for sampling bias after the survey is run, we apply weights to upweight underrepresented groups and downweight overrepresented groups. This calculation is coarser than the calculation for dynamic fielding: instead of matching the three-dimensional joint distributions, we match each single dimension — the marginal distributions — on their own. We then calculate weights using an iterative process, also known as raking, to reduce bias across all three dimensions.\(^{16}\)

Here’s how raking works. First, we exclude all respondents with unknown demographics for age, gender, or geography. Then we calculate weights that will match the gender breakdown to the target demographic. If the target distribution is 52% female and 48% male, but the actual distribution is 50% female and 50% male, then we apply a weight of \(52 / 50 = 1.04\) to all female responses and \(48 / 50 = 0.96\) to all male responses.

After weighting respondents by the gender dimension on its own, we do the same for the age dimension on its own, and then the region dimension on its own. Every time we get one dimension to perfectly match the target demographic, the previous dimensions will no longer exactly match. We use an iterative raking technique to do 10 rounds of calculations for all three dimensions on their own.\(^{17}\) After 10 rounds, the weights will approach convergence and all three dimensions will closely match their targets.

The weights in each survey are calculated based on the first question. We use the first question for weighting because that’s the only question we can assume should match the target population’s demographic distribution.

For example, if the first question is a screening question that asks “What is your gender?” and only respondents who answer “male” screen through to the second question, we wouldn’t want to match the second question to 52% female and 48% male; it will always be 100% male.

Even if the first question isn’t a screening question, respondents may drop off throughout the survey in a way that is skewed towards one demographic group due to the design of the survey. Thus, we weight responses to follow-up questions by taking the first-question weights, filtering them to only those who answered the follow-up question, and renormalizing so that the sum of the weights equals the total number of responses to the follow-up question.

\(^{16}\) Google Surveys moved to a raking methodology in October 2016. The previous methodology is explained in the original whitepaper: www.google.com/insights/consumersurveys/static/consumer_surveys_whitepaper.pdf

\(^{17}\) en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iterative_proportional_fitting
Error bars

In the survey results, the values displayed in the error bars represent the modeled margin of error. This means that if we repeat this survey many times in the same way, 95% of the time the resulting range of values would contain the true value.

We follow the Pew Research Center in using the term “modeled margin of error” to differentiate from the statistical term “margin of error,” which only applies to true probability-based samples. Because Google Surveys collects online non-probability samples, the margin of error calculation is based on assumptions about the Surveys sampling model and what would happen if we repeated the same sampling process many times.

We use the Modified (or ad hoc) Wilson method to calculate the error bars, which can be asymmetrical; e.g., +1.8%/-1.6%. The Wilson method works well for small sample sizes as well as extreme probabilities (close to 0% or 100%). We follow the Modified Wilson calculation using effective sample size, as shown in Applied Survey Data Analysis. The calculation is the same as the Wilson method but uses \( n^* = \frac{p(1 - p)}{\text{var}(p)} \) in place of \( n \).

Surveys may be subject to other sources of biases and errors, including — but not limited to — sampling and nonresponse, as discussed in more detail below.

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21 en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial_proportion_confidence_interval#Wilson_score_interval
How we know age, gender, and region

The way we determine respondent demographics differs by survey panel.

The mobile app is the simpler of the two panels: We ask users to self-report their age, gender, and zipcode when they sign up to use the app. We periodically ask these questions again to refresh the panelists’ demographics in case they have changed.

The publisher network uses inferred demographics, which means that we don’t explicitly ask the panelists for their demographics. We do this to minimize the number of questions in a survey, which offers a better respondent experience and encourages higher response rates. Any researcher who doesn’t want to rely on inferred demographics can explicitly add demographic questions to their surveys. However, our dynamic fielding and weighting process to match ground-truth data will still be based on inferred demographics.

Like many ads on the web, Google Surveys infers the age and gender of anonymous respondents based on browsing behavior and geography based on IP addresses. Users can opt out of inferred demographics in the Ads Settings, which applies across Google ads services, the 2M+ sites and apps that partner with Google to show ads, and Google Surveys. In the case of Surveys, opting out means that users’ demographics will show as unknown, and their responses will be excluded from weighted results. For all users, unless otherwise stated, responses are anonymous and collected in aggregate.

Response, non-response, and modal bias

In addition to sampling bias, Google Surveys monitors and mitigates other kinds of bias.

Response bias

Response bias is the bias from inattentive or untruthful answers to questions.

The publisher network and mobile app have different kinds of inattentive or untruthful responses. Respondents on the publisher network are intercepted while trying to view content online, so they do not necessarily want to answer a survey and may just want to see that content. The mobile app has the opposite problem, where users want to answer as many surveys as possible because they voluntarily opted into the mobile panel out of a desire to answer surveys and earn rewards.

Another source of low-quality responses from both the publisher network and the mobile app is open-ended text questions. Respondents may respond with gibberish, profanity, or something like “I hate surveys.” These types of answers are removed from the survey’s results using common natural language processing libraries employed across Google.
Google Surveys tracks, investigates, and removes multiple kinds of low-quality responses and respondents. If low-quality responses are dropped from a survey, the survey will remain in the field to collect more responses to make up for the sample that is now missing. If chronically inattentive or untruthful respondents are detected, they may be prevented from getting any more surveys in the future.

Non-response and dropoff bias

Potential responses to a survey can fall into several categories: non-response, screen-out response, partial response, or complete response. These categories are illustrated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POTENTIAL RESPONDENT</th>
<th>QUESTION 1</th>
<th>QUESTION 2</th>
<th>QUESTION 3</th>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Non-response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person 2</td>
<td>“No”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Screen-out Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person 3</td>
<td>“Yes”</td>
<td>“B”</td>
<td></td>
<td>Partial Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person 4</td>
<td>“Yes”</td>
<td>“P”</td>
<td>“Z”</td>
<td>Complete Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person 5</td>
<td>“Yes”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Non-response bias occurs when a group of people in the sample choose not to respond to the survey in a systematic way, which can cause the omission of that group’s opinions. Non-responses can come from people who don’t like answering surveys in general or are alienated by the first question in some way. Unfortunately, it can be difficult to ask non-respondents why they chose not to respond... because they are unlikely to respond!

Respondents may also choose to stop answering questions midway through a survey. These partial responses can introduce dropoff bias; perhaps an overly-specific question turns off respondents, or respondents could drop off towards the end of a long survey. For example, if a survey is about an extremely specific topic like equestrian equipment, then people who are uninterested or uninformed about equestrian equipment may stop answering partway through.
In a survey’s report page, we display the question response dropoff pattern.

Researchers may want to investigate if there's a systemic reason for potential respondents to not respond to part or all of a survey. The raw data download lists the status of each response: Screen-out, Partial, or Complete, along with the answers to each question, which allows more in-depth analysis.

Modal bias and survey design

Modal bias, or mode effects, occur when the way in which a question is asked affects the respondents’ answers in a systematic way because of how the survey is administered.

All methods of conducting surveys are susceptible to modal bias. In face-to-face or live phone interviews, the fact that respondents are talking to live interviewers can influence how they answer questions; they may want to be more agreeable in person. This phenomenon is called the social desirability bias.
Different survey modes can also allow for different question structures. In a live interview, when a respondent declines to answer a question, the interviewer can follow a script with follow-up questions; an online platform like Google Surveys can’t do this. For example, consider an election poll that asks respondents to choose between three candidates. Over the phone, a live interviewer could list the three candidates and no other answer options. If the respondent declines to answer the question, the live interviewer can then ask a follow-up question to see if the respondent prefers a candidate not listed, doesn’t want to answer, or is undecided.

This structure cannot be replicated online. If only three candidate options are presented to a potential online respondent, the only way to proceed is to choose one of those three candidates or drop out of the survey. We could attempt to replicate the live interview structure online by adding a fourth option such as “Other” or “Prefer not to say.” However, respondents may be more likely to choose one of these alternative options when they are explicitly offered as an “easy out” versus having to refuse to answer the question with a live interviewer.

One way to partially mitigate this mode effect is through survey design. Instead of adding “Other” or “Prefer not to say” options, an open-ended text option can be used instead, as in the Google Surveys 2016 US Election Poll. This makes it more difficult for users to select the “Other” option because they have to formulate and type out an alternative answer.

Another mode effect to consider is that different question types may yield different results. Results may differ if a question is formulated as a multiple-select (checkbox) question with five options versus separating that question into five individual single-select (radio button) questions. A respondent may not want to check all the boxes or remember to check all the boxes, whereas putting each option in a single question will encourage them to slow down and focus.

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Multi-select questions can help reduce the number of questions in a survey, but it’s important to note the effect that multiple-select questions may have on the results. This is even more important when comparing the results of multiple-select questions to the results from other survey modes, like live interviews, that often use single-select instead of multiple-select questions.

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22 See the Election Poll survey design at goo.gl/OA33DH

White paper | How Google Surveys Works
Conclusion

Since launching in 2012, Google Surveys has moved from 2-question surveys to 10-question surveys, expanded the publisher network, and built the mobile app panel. Surveys offers several advantages compared to traditional phone surveys: faster, cheaper results with larger sample sizes drawn from an online panel of tens of millions of potential respondents.

Like all survey modes, Surveys continues to face challenges from different kinds of biases — sampling, response, non-response, dropoff, modal — and we continue to improve our approaches to mitigate these biases. Our work to improve our survey capabilities and accuracy is never done, and we'll continue to refine our methodology as the landscape of respondents and technology continues to change.

AAPOR’s Transparency Initiative

Google Surveys is a member of the American Association of Public Opinion Research’s (AAPOR) Transparency Initiative. The initiative was founded in 2014 and establishes disclosure standards for organizations who run and publish surveys. By joining the initiative, Google Surveys pledges to uphold these disclosure standards when publishing results.

Privacy

Privacy is very important to Google. Users always have the option to pass on a survey and have the ability to opt out of the DoubleClick cookie completely. Unless otherwise stated, all responses are anonymous and collected in aggregate. Certain surveys, such as local surveys, may be used to get feedback about a location recently visited and request permission for these responses to be posted publicly. Google does not sell users’ personal information to advertisers or anyone else. For more information about the Google privacy policy, please visit www.google.com/policies/privacy.

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