Improving public services by mining citizen feedback: An application of natural language processing

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Abstract
Research on user satisfaction has increased substantially in recent years. To date, most studies have tested the significance of predefined factors thought to influence user satisfaction, with no scalable means of verifying the validity of their assumptions. Digital technology has created new methods of collecting user feedback where service users post comments. As topic models can analyse large volumes of feedback, they have been proposed as a feasible approach to aggregating user opinions. This novel approach has been applied to process reviews of primary care practices in England. Findings from an analysis of more than 200,000 reviews show that the quality of interactions with staff and bureaucratic exigencies are the key drivers of user satisfaction. In addition, patient satisfaction is strongly influenced by factors that are not measured by state-of-the-art patient surveys. These results highlight the potential benefits of text mining and machine learning for public administration.

1 | INTRODUCTION

Democratic governance is possible and effective when citizens’ opinions are incorporated into public decisions (Mahmoud and Hinson 2012; Feldman 2014; Fung 2015). However, the opinions of citizens are difficult to capture. They are generally unrelated to the formal performance measures used within organizations (Harding 2012;
Moynihan et al. 2014; Sanders and Canel 2015; Ma 2017) or the opinions of organization managers (Sanders and Canel 2015; Andersen and Hjortskov 2016). According to existing studies of citizen satisfaction, the nature of public opinion is determined by several factors, including the ways in which citizens use public services (Brown 2007; Van Ryzin and Charbonneau 2010; Im et al. 2012; Ladhari and Rigaux-Bricmont 2013; Pierre and Røiseland 2016), their involvement in providing such services (Scott and Vitartas 2008; Sanders and Canel 2015; Taylor 2015), and their held-out knowledge, beliefs (Brown 2007; Harding 2012; Ladhari and Rigaux-Bricmont 2013; Barrows et al. 2016) and emotions (Lawton and Macaulay 2013; Ma 2017). A continuous analysis of citizen preferences will help managers of public institutions make decisions that align with public needs (Walker and Boyne 2009).

Digital technologies have created a host of new opportunities for collecting citizen feedback (Kong and Song 2016). On the one hand, these new data resources can be very insightful because they contain a full range of citizen opinions about public services, whereas traditional survey methods probe narrower sets of issues. For this reason, private sector organizations make extensive use of user comments (Qi et al. 2016), although few public sector organizations have followed suit (Hogenboom et al. 2016). On the other hand, the new data resources also create problems. First, the datasets can be too large to read or analyse manually (Kong and Song 2016). Second, the data obtained may consist predominantly of unstructured text, which is hard to summarize using statistical techniques (Kong and Song 2016). Finally, sample biases may be difficult to pinpoint because author identities are unknown (Yang 2010). The volume and structure of textual feedback, such as that derived from reviews, makes it difficult to understand the causes of user satisfaction in relation to public services. At the same time, the existing tools developed for private organizations may not be suitable for use in the public sector. Public organizations require insights into service-user preferences in situations where citizens are ‘forced customers’ (Di Pietro et al. 2013) and where public organizations must fulfil objectives unrelated to service demand or profitability (Brownson et al. 2012).

The present study addresses the challenges associated with quantifying user satisfaction using unstructured textual feedback. Unstructured and anonymous opinions can provide a substantial answer to the research question: ‘What are the determinants of user satisfaction in public services?’ Large quantities of reviews can be summarized using natural-language processing (NLP) models, such as topic models, to obtain actionable insights (Blei et al. 2003; Hogenboom et al. 2016; Anastasopoulos and Whitford 2019). Insights drawn from topic modelling can be compared with other forms of analysis, such as surveys, to systematically evaluate the validity and reliability of text-derived insights. The present article makes two significant contributions to the public management field: (1) it evaluates a model of determinants of citizen satisfaction, constructed from a large corpus of written feedback; and (2) it offers a method of analysing big data that incorporates citizens’ voices into public service reforms. These contributions reflect the use of NLP to solve a public management analytical problem.

2 | USER SATISFACTION FOR INCLUSIVE PUBLIC POLICY

To include the voice of service users in public service decision-making requires a robust understanding of whether, how and why users are satisfied. Once this foundation has been established, citizen preferences can be taken into account when political or public policy decisions are made. As noted above, citizen satisfaction is known to correlate (often non-linearly) with a number of factors, including socioeconomic status, education and employment history (Christensen and Lægreid 2005; Yang 2010; Harding 2012; Jlike et al. 2014), demographic background (Yang 2010) and available knowledge (Im et al. 2012; James and Moseley 2014; Lavertu 2014; Hong 2015; Villegas 2017). While researchers have uncovered multiple possible determinants of user satisfaction with public services, it is rarely clear how the various determinants relate to each other within a specific context, or whether interactions among determinants are always the same, irrespective of context or the passage of time (Song and Meier 2018). Similarly, it is often unclear whether aspects of user satisfaction that interest researchers and those who commission research constitute a complete list of issues (Lavertu 2014; Roberts et al. 2014). Factors outside the scope of well-known determinants
of satisfaction may bias insights from commissioned studies in unpredictable ways. How, why and in what ways this happens can be entirely obscure (Pierre and Røiseland 2016).

As researchers choose from a wide range of theories when designing their opinion research, it is difficult to construct a robust, holistic understanding of the factors that matter most to public service users across multiple studies. Analysts may choose to emphasize the impact of available information (James and Moseley 2014; Marvel 2016), self-centred utility maximization (Jensen and Andersen 2015), emotions (Ladhari and Rigaux-Bricmont 2013), a sense of identity (Jlike et al. 2014), the unconscious tendency towards conformity (Sanders and Canel 2015) or the level of physical involvement with services under review (Loeffler 2016). In the end, it can be difficult to understand whether subconscious identification as a member of a group (Sanders and Canel 2015) interacts with, for instance, self-interest (Jensen and Andersen 2015), leading to a specific set of reasons why a given service user (dis)likes a specific public service. Similarly, it is not always clear why improved official performance measures often fail to generate equivalent citizen satisfaction levels (Brenninkmeijer 2016). Narratives used by citizens to explain their (dis)satisfaction may be unknown, even when their behaviour is well understood (Müssener et al. 2016). Politicians and policymakers frequently struggle to include the citizen perspective in decisions, even when user-opinion studies are abundantly available.

The existing literature reveals a gap in our understanding of the relative importance of (and relationships between) the determinants of service user satisfaction, combined with few ways to assess whether any factors that influence user satisfaction have been omitted from citizen satisfaction evaluations. Citizens’ written comments about public services are a big data resource that can address some gaps in our understanding of user satisfaction, making insights more useful for guiding policy-making. As citizen comments contain holistic insights into the reasons for user satisfaction, they can help to establish the relative importance of various issues. Machine learning can also be a useful tool for summarizing textual comments and retrieving relevant insights effectively (Anastasopoulos and Whitford 2019).

3 USER FEEDBACK AS A MEASURE OF SATISFACTION

Taking public opinion seriously is a prerequisite for successful democratic governance (Feldman 2014); this perspective is needed to solve problems that relate to service output performance (Mahmoud and Hinson 2012; Fung 2015). The physical participation of citizens in public decision-making is one way for the authorities to engage with and understand service users’ perceptions of public services (Fung 2015). This approach can facilitate institutional change and increase public satisfaction with public services (Moon 2015). At the same time, it can be difficult to include direct public participation in decisions that relate to complex policy areas. In an applied context, public participation may politicize and complicate administrative decisions that would otherwise be quick and straightforward, producing poor marginal returns (Bartenberger and Szésőtő 2016). Moreover, in many institutional contexts, it is difficult to generate enough interest among service users to keep them regularly involved in decision-making (Greer et al. 2014; Fung 2015). Liu (2016) has argued, using hands-on examples, that information technologies can produce a more complete understanding of service user preferences, leading to new modes of decision-making.

The collective voice of service users, captured through data collection and summaries, can replace direct citizen participation in situations where the latter is not feasible. Experiments and qualitative research are one way to study public opinion (e.g., Mahmoud and Hinson 2012; James and Moseley 2014). Such research methods, however, tend to be one-off initiatives that aim to understand specific problems involving public services. The high running costs involved may partially explain why none of the studies reviewed used experiments or qualitative research approaches to incorporate public feedback into public service decision-making on a day-to-day basis. Surveys, a widely used alternative method of measuring user satisfaction and assessing service providers (Van de Walle and Van Ryzin 2011; Olsen 2015), are also problematic. There are no systematic tools to adapt the structure of a survey or change its conditions (Burton 2012). The difficulties involved in carrying out frequent surveys make them
unsuitable for continuous opinion monitoring to observe organizational change in real time (Walker and Boyne 2009; Burton 2012). Feedback received through restricted lists of survey questions tends to oversimplify the reasons for user satisfaction (Amirkhanyan et al. 2013; Jlike et al. 2014). The structure of surveys may bias their results (Van de Walle and Van Ryzin 2011), while final survey outputs may blur the distinction between service providers with similar scores (Voutilainen et al. 2015). For these reasons, both practitioners and academics rely on other forms of data to determine user satisfaction with public services (Amirkhanyan et al. 2013; Lavertu 2014; Andersen et al. 2016; Brenninkmeijer 2016).

Alternative ways of measuring user satisfaction should map dynamic changes in the meaning of organizational performance across various contexts and timespans. Data-based insights must holistically capture and represent the role and significance of service users and other relevant individuals, including political decision-makers and public servants. The conceptualization of public service performance as an ever-changing phenomenon, defined in different ways by different people, can help to avoid deficiencies in evidence-based policy-making. Such deficiencies include the suppression of the less powerful voice of service users within the performance measurement process (Mergel et al. 2016) and methods of measuring user satisfaction that quickly lose their relevance, requiring efforts to develop replacements (Gao 2015). Newly available data have the potential to improve public services by enabling dynamic performance monitoring (Rogge et al. 2017). For example, network signals and written feedback have been used to improve services in the areas of e-government, traffic control and crime detection (Rogge et al. 2017). New technologies require additional effort to make use of new data within the public policy domain. As the sheer volume of data may be challenging to handle (Grimmer and Stewart 2013; Anastasopoulos and Whitford 2019) decision-makers may struggle to collect, process, visualize and interpret them (Lavertu 2014; Brenninkmeijer 2016; Rogge et al. 2017). Public policy researchers have highlighted ethical issues inherent in handling personal data, from respect for individual privacy and security to concerns around the quality of democratic processes (Mergel et al. 2016). The tools developed to handle complex service user data must be designed to address such concerns, while adding value to the delivery of public services.

One data resource that captures and includes the voice of service users in public decision-making is written reviews of public services. Online written reviews can be posted anonymously, addressing privacy issues. Despite complex sample biases (Grimmer and Stewart 2013), they can provide decision-makers in public institutions with a valid resource. Online written reviews can be validated against state-of-the-art structured forms of user feedback, such as carefully drafted surveys involving large numbers of reviewers (Grimmer and Stewart 2013; Rogge et al. 2017). Furthermore, basic literacy requirements in any language, combined with access to the Internet, can turn online forums into a channel through which almost any public service user can contribute to and inform research and practice. As online forums are easy to use, written reviews represent a valuable resource for ensuring the equitable distribution of services (Kroll 2017) and addressing concerns about democratic deficits in public decision-making (Mergel et al. 2016). Moreover, organizations assessed through user reviews may find it harder to manipulate performance scores, a common problem with the current performance evaluations of public institutions (Hood and Dixon 2015, pp. 265–67). User reviews make it less likely that decision-makers will make poor decisions because they rely too heavily on very narrow understandings of service quality (Luciana 2013). Thus, online reviews can help organizations understand and include citizen feedback when deciding how best to provide public services.

4 | DATA

The present article uses a dataset of online reviews about publicly funded primary care (GP) services in England to evaluate the link between satisfaction surveys and unstructured reviews. The reviews were downloaded in .xml format from a National Health Service (NHS)¹ web service and transformed into a .csv table format, used for modelling with the R programming language. The reviews of almost 7,700 GP practices were posted between July 2013 and January 2017; 208,287 reviews were completed and included in this study (about 89 per cent of all reviews). The reviews were five or six sentences long, on average, with a median length of five sentences.
The corpus of reviews was pre-processed, following standard practice (Grimmer and Stewart 2013; Anastasopoulos and Whitford 2019). The present study lower-cased and stemmed the tokens (words) and removed numbers, punctuation, stop words, tokens shorter than three characters and tokens that appeared fewer than 10 times or more than 100,000 times in the corpus. Pre-processing removed 46,277 terms that occurred 89,374 times in the GP reviews. The final corpus contained 9,148 terms, which occurred more than 8.5 million times in the dataset.

Each month, anonymous users posted between 3,000 and 5,000 written comments, accompanied by 5-point Likert-scale star ratings of six aspects of their GP service experiences. The Likert-scale star ratings referred to the following survey statements: (1) ‘Are you able to get through to the surgery by telephone?’ (2) ‘Are you able to get an appointment when you want one?’ (3) ‘Do the staff treat you with dignity and respect?’ (4) ‘Does the surgery involve you in decisions about your care and treatment?’ (5) ‘How likely are you to recommend this GP surgery to friends and family if they needed similar care or treatment?’ and (6) ‘This GP practice provides accurate and up-to-date information on services and opening hours’. The Likert-scale questions had stable formatting across the entire period when comments were posted, eliminating the risk of variable author comments or star ratings, due to fluctuating interpretations of the questions.

It should be noted that the users posting data had no known socio-demographic attributes, so the sample could have been skewed towards certain demographic groups. Anyone is free to comment on the NHS website or to evaluate a GP practice. A qualitative reading of the comments reveals that most comments are posted by patients or patients’ caregivers, relatives or friends, especially when a significant positive or negative experience has affected them emotionally. Although a lack of Internet access or computer skills among some groups of patients may not prevent them from sharing opinions, it may make their participation less likely. In addition, NHS administrators manually remove malicious or inappropriate messages from the server, while ensuring that unfavourable but legitimate reviews remain in the dataset across England.

5 | TOPIC MODELLING

One key challenge, when using written reviews to design inclusive public policy, is deciding how to process the reviews in a scalable way that public decision-makers will find meaningful. Fortunately, it is well known that machine-learning models, such as topic models, can simplify insights from any quantity of written reviews into easy-to-understand summaries in near real time (Blei et al. 2003; Griffiths and Steyvers 2004). In comparison to user surveys, these summaries have the advantage of being able to adapt automatically to changes in citizen comments (Blei and Lafferty 2006; Dai and Storkey 2015), without making prior assumptions or limiting which service elements reviewers are able to express opinions about (Blei et al. 2003). This function is especially useful when there are too many written documents to label manually, or when new documents are added to the dataset continuously and require processing. Several studies have attempted to use machine-learning algorithms to analyse written user feedback on services as a way of achieving organizational improvement (Gray 2015; Rogge et al. 2017, Anastasopoulos and Whitford 2019). However, none of these studies has firmly established how key themes that appear in online written reviews, identified through topic modelling, relate to established measures of user satisfaction, such as satisfaction surveys. This knowledge gap must be filled before online written reviews can be used to reliably measure user satisfaction or support the provision of public services (Grimmer and Stewart 2013; Rogge et al. 2017). The relationship between survey outcomes and the content of written reviews can help researchers understand how reviewer narratives relate to the dimensions of public service satisfaction included in the survey.

The present study has analysed written user comments using structural topic modelling (STM), implemented via the stm software package for R programming language2 and previously introduced to the political science literature by Roberts et al. (2014). A set of key topics from the database of written documents was identified; the proportional
presence of each topic in each document was estimated (Blei 2012). The review topics included thanking doctors, complaining about reception staff and commenting on the quality of GP facilities.

We calculated the topic proportions in comments by analysing the topic that each word in a comment was likely to relate to. In this, we adopted the form of topic-model description proposed by Blei et al. (2003). The probabilities of each word belonging to each topic were estimated during model training. The algorithm began model training with a random allocation of topics to every document in the corpus, a form of probability distribution. Each topic had a probability of 0–1 of occurring in a document, with the topic probabilities in the document adding up to 1. Next, for each word in every document, the algorithm picked a topic from the probability distribution of topics assigned to the document. After we had reviewed all of the documents, each word had some probability of belonging to each topic; given a particular word, there was some likelihood of a topic being chosen. The algorithm then attempted to reproduce the original text documents by picking random words from topics, in accordance with the topic-word probability distributions, based on the probability of each topic appearing in each document. The mismatch between the chosen words and the word content of the original documents constituted model loss; this loss was minimized iteratively during model training.

The model required a human analyst to select the number of topics to be uncovered within the dataset. We followed Roberts et al. (2015) in selecting the optimal number of topics by balancing exclusivity and semantic coherence in models ranging between three and 100 topics. Our analysis found that 20 topics was the optimal setting for our objective: to evaluate how well textual comments could be analysed through machine learning, for use in public policy research. Models with fewer than 20 topics suffered from lower topic exclusivity, meaning that topics were less likely to represent distinct meanings. Models with more than 20 topics showed no improvement in semantic coherence or topic exclusivity, although they contained more complex insights than the 20-topic model. However, greater complexity was not required to answer the research question. Appendix A in the supplementary materials discusses the selection process in more detail. The 20 topics in the selected model are listed in Table 1. Appendix B details the topic-labelling exercise, providing additional information on the content and frequency of topics in the data.

The map of topic correlations in Figure 1 is a convenient way of summarizing the topic-modelling results. It enables comparisons between topics, based on the use of similar words in topic pairs. The greater the distance and the thinner the connecting line between two topics, the less likely they are to occur together within reviews. Clusters of related topics are represented by node symbols. In this case, the symbol represented negative experiences, symbol topics represented positive experiences, and symbol = topics indicated themes without a strong positive or negative sentiment. The topic clusters were calculated using a sentiment-analysis model trained to predict star ratings (for further details, see appendix D). The node size of a topic corresponded to its popularity across patient reviews. Larger nodes indicated more common topics.

| Topic 1          | Topic 2               | Topic 3             | Topic 4              |
|------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| time expressions | not enough time       | proper treatment    | poor management      |
| Topic 5          | diagnosed and sorted  | Topic 6             | recommend            |
|                   | comparisons           | Topic 7             | Topic 8              |
|                   |                       | recommend           | helpful              |
| Topic 9          | thanks                | Topic 10            | Topic 11             |
|                   |                       | unprofessional care | unwelcoming          |
| Topic 13         | prescription problem  | Topic 14            | Topic 15             |
|                   |                       | discourage registration | great            |
|                   |                       |                     | Topic 16             |
| Topic 17         | hard appointments     | Topic 18            | Topic 19             |
|                   |                       | no appointments     | late appointments    |
|                   |                       |                     | Topic 20             |
|                   |                       |                     | rude reception       |

Table 1: Topic labels 20-topic STM model, labelled by the authors
In Figure 1, positive topics appear on the left side of the map. These topics are the most different from those that contain negative GP service evaluations, located in the top right-hand corner of the map. The second greatest difference is between topics that cluster words used to express personal thoughts and feelings (at the top of the map) and those that contain words used in third-person narratives or written in the passive voice (at the bottom of the map). The most common topics include expressions of gratitude and complaints about the difficulty/impossibility of accessing services.

**FIGURE 1** Topic map for the 20-topic STM model

Notes: (1) The topic map illustrates, on a two-dimensional plane, how similar 20 topics generated via the STM topic model from NHS GP practice reviews are to one another. The distances between topics are proportional to differences between the words they contain. Topics that contain the most similar words tend to be close together. (2) Nodes represent individual topics. The bigger the node, the more prevalent the given topic within the dataset. (3) The stronger the line connecting a pair of topics, the greater the similarity between the topics. (4) Node symbols indicate clusters to which topics have been assigned. The cluster containing topics marked with ‘˄’ related to positive evaluations of GP service quality. The cluster including negative evaluations of GP service quality are marked with a ‘˅’. The cluster indicating relatively neutral themes are marked with a ‘=’.

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6 | EXPLAINING USER SATISFACTION WITH FEEDBACK

As discussed above, the GP reviews in our dataset came with Likert-scale survey responses, a common and accepted measure of user satisfaction (Hartley and Betts 2010). In the present study, they provided a well-established template measure, related to the metrics of user satisfaction derived from topic modelling. We began by estimating Random Forest (RF) models, in which the proportional presence of topic reviews constituted independent variables and six Likert-scale ratings were treated as dependent variables.

RF is a machine-learning algorithm that builds decision trees on randomly sub-sampled data with a smaller subset of randomly sampled predictors. Many trees are grown, combined and averaged to create a trained RF model. RF takes advantage of both weak and strong predictor variables, with the weak variables making predictions that are only slightly better at predicting outcomes than random guesses. In addition to being easier to interpret than other popular machine-learning algorithms, this model captures non-linear relationships between predictors and predicted variables. By design, RF models also address multicollinearity between predictor variables, enabling researchers to unambiguously identify the importance of topics identified using an STM analysis when predicting Likert-scale ratings. RF belongs to the same family of tree-based machine-learning models as the gradient-boosted trees introduced to the public management literature by Anastasopoulos and Whitford (2019).4
Our multiclass RF model predicts outcome variables with a level of accuracy that ranges from 0.48 for 'phone-access ease' to 0.77 for 'likely to recommend' dimensions. Precision and recall measures vary across 'star' levels and dimensions, with the F1 score ranging from close to zero to 0.85.\textsuperscript{5} This variation is driven in part by sample-size differences across different models (as shown in the confusion matrices in appendix E). Overall, the present study has captured aspects of the relationship between unstructured data (reviews summarized using topic models) and structured data (Likert-scale 'star' ratings).

Figure 2 presents the results of the RF model, showing the importance ranking of the independent variables used to predict each Likert-scale outcome variable.\textsuperscript{6} The RF outcomes indicate that the topics generated from online reviews were related to the Likert-scale responses provided by service users. Furthermore, user satisfaction with multiple aspects of the GP service has a clear relationship with similar themes that appeared in user reviews. This finding suggests that user satisfaction could be improved across multiple dimensions by adopting a single approach that addresses important common problems and by enhancing key positive experiences.

\textbf{FIGURE 2} Random Forest model results—the importance rankings of topics related to six dimensions of GP service quality

Notes: (1) Random Forest model outcomes use horizontal bars to illustrate the importance of topics (independent variables) in correctly predicting the star ratings (dependent variables) given in response to six Likert-scale survey statements. The star ratings are treated as categorical data. (2) Topic importance represents the average improvement in classification at the moment when a topic is used in the Random Forest model as an independent variable. Model improvement is measured using the residual sum of squares. (3) Each sub-figure includes the 10 most important topics for predicting the dependent variable. The 10 omitted topics have scores similar to the least important included topics.
The topics drawn from the 20-topic STM model were labelled in accordance with the most common words they contained. Topics related to positive experiences were the strongest predictor of satisfaction, with topic 7 (‘recommend’) being the most important, followed by topics 9 ‘thanks’ and 8 ‘helpful’. The most common words in topic 7 included: ‘thank’, ‘recommend’, ‘support’ and ‘kind’ (see appendix B for details). The topic content indicated that caring staff behaviour towards patients was the most powerful positive factor influencing patient evaluations of GP services. Similarly, staff rejection of patients was the most powerful negative factor influencing patient evaluations of their experience. Topics 14 ‘discourage registration’ and 18 ‘no appointments’ belonged to a group of user opinions that expressed disappointment at being treated disrespectfully (topic 14) or being unable to access services—possibly because demand outstripped supply (topic 18). The lead topics showed that patients wanted to be treated by caring professionals.

More neutral experiences, represented by topics such as ‘proper treatment’, ‘diagnosed and sorted’ and ‘unwelcoming’ tended to be good predictors of a neutral sentiment (Figure 1). They had a weaker impact on the Likert-scale ratings. Among negative experiences, the quality of medical care was less important to patients than non-medical issues. Procedural problems with making an appointment had a strong negative impact on GP service evaluations. The number of patients who found it difficult to book appointments by telephone, online or on-site suggested that the NHS was not a fully efficient organization. Procedural problems increase the cost of providing GP services (especially administrative costs), without adding any value. They also worsen the atmosphere in GP practices, as suggested by topic 20 ‘rude reception’, which appeared consistently among the top 10 topics predicting star ratings (Figure 2).

Overall, our analysis suggests that access to healthcare services has the highest impact on patient experience, among all issue areas that do not relate to the quality of services offered by doctors and nurses. Improvements to this GP service dimension could boost patient satisfaction and provide cost-cutting opportunities within the NHS. It is plausible to argue that, if GP staff and patients spent less time on administration, the most important predictor of patient satisfaction with GP services (positive interactions with medical and non-medical GP staff) could be enhanced, raising patient satisfaction levels. To satisfy patients, it is less important to improve waiting times for scheduled appointments than to ensure that patients can schedule appointments when they need to. On a national scale, it would be more financially feasible to improve the system for booking appointments than to shorten appointment waiting times overall. Importantly, the NHS did not include topic 2 ‘not enough time’ in its most comprehensive GP Patient Survey,7 designed to gauge patient opinions of GP services. The words in topic 2 were used to comment on appointment brevity. The fact that this topic was omitted from a national survey is problematic and worrying—it could lead to inaccurate assessments of the factors that affect patient satisfaction.

Although the insights generated by the present study reflect a similar but wider range of patient issues than those obtained from patient surveys, they must also be treated with care. For example, it is evident that topic 10 ‘unprofessional care’ is one of the less important predictors of overall patient satisfaction. However, some issues that are less salient at a national level may have a significant impact in specific local contexts or for smaller groups of individuals with a particular concern. In addition, many issues that did not make it into the top 20 topics extracted from a dataset of over 200,000 reviews are likely to be very important to smaller groups of individuals.

Overall, the Likert-scale evaluations were firmly related to topics involving medical and administrative service experiences. The relationships between service users and GP staff, service accessibility, and the care and professionalism shown to users by GP staff were among the most important satisfaction-related factors involving GP services. Less important were waiting times for previously scheduled appointments and instances of perceived medical mistreatment. General opinions were less important in the patients’ Likert-scale ratings, probably because mixed sentiments were grouped into those topics. They include ‘time expressions’ (topic 1) and ‘comparisons’ (topic 6).

Insights into the determinants of patient satisfaction, obtained through the use of machine learning (with no assumptions made about issues that matter to patients), may prove useful in government efforts to increase patient satisfaction.
7  |  ROBUSTNESS ANALYSIS

Fixed-effects models were used to establish whether the statistically significant correlations between topics identified in the textual comments and star ratings continued to hold after other relevant variables were controlled for. For the sake of simplicity, topic proportions were grouped into negative, neutral and positive clusters, as indicated by the symbols scheme in Figure 1. The percentage of positive and negative topics in comments was used as an independent variable in fixed-effects models. Neutral topics were not used in the models to avoid any problem with multicollinearity (topic proportions in reviews always add up to 1). Patient reviews were pooled by month posted and NHS commissioning group. The grouping data made it easier to carry out calculations using fixed-effect models. Administrative data on GP practices were used to link GP comments to the Clinical Commissioning Groups (CCGs, mid-level units of NHS administration) that distribute funding to GP practices. The regional management styles of the NHS managers who disburse funds to GP practices and the month in which reviews are posted may affect patient satisfaction.

Two control variables were also used: GP practice size (expressed as the number of registered patients in a practice) and the average level of socioeconomic deprivation of patients registered with specific GP practices. The number of registered patients in each area of England (LSOA, Lower Layer Super Output Area—about 300 households per area) was merged with data on levels of deprivation at each LSOA to calculate the two control variables. Dataset mergers resulted in the inclusion of 205,214 reviews. We removed 3,073 reviews with missing attributes. Reviews of new, closed down and/or less popular GP practices were more likely to be removed. On average, there were 17.7 reviews per CCG and month, during the months when GPs funded by a given CCG received feedback. The panel dataset consisted of 11,594 cells for 209 CCGs over 60 months. There were almost 10,000 patients registered in a CCG, on average; the average IMD deprivation score was 5.37.

The results of the linear two-way (CCG and month) fixed-effects model are presented in Table 2. Taking into account the available control variables, these results suggest that what patients write is significantly correlated to how they rate their experiences. More prevalent clusters of positive topics in reviews predicted higher star ratings, while more prevalent clusters of negative topics predicted lower star ratings. While we could not access external data to validate these results, this expected direction of coefficients on positive and negative topic-cluster variables, when other covariates were controlled for, represented a weak form of validation. Another finding is that levels of deprivation in areas served by GP practices, combined with GP practice sizes, do not meaningfully change the relationship between star ratings and topics.

As part of the robustness analysis, we replicated the key analysis, using an alternative number of estimated STM topics. In addition to our main 20-topic model, we also estimated 5-, 10-, 30- and 40-topic models. The results are presented in the supplementary materials in appendix C.

8  |  LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the present study reflect the relatively low patient response rate. GP practices received approximately 27 reviews on average over a period of almost four and a half years, making it difficult to compare individual practices. We therefore limited our comparisons to mid-level administrative areas (CCGs). Given the effectiveness of the modelling approach, feedback frequency is the prime limitation to real-time performance evaluations or evaluations on a more granular level. In addition, biases in the sample of patient experiences analysed using the topic model were unknown and hard to predict (e.g., Xiang et al. 2017).

In addition, the summarized data used with the topic model had a few known methodological weaknesses (Grimmer and Stewart 2013; Anastasopoulos and Whitford 2019). These include the following: (1) a possible misalignment between the proportional presence of topics in reviews and the importance of topics to users; (2) an
unavoidable uncertainty over how many topics to generate to best represent reviews; and (3) crude assumptions made about natural language in the design of the topic model.

Given this context, we recommend combining topic-model results obtained from online reviews with a representative and systematic survey of service user opinions about their service experiences. Such a comparison could establish the representativeness of topic-modelling outcomes. For the NHS, the GP Patient Survey is the most systematic and regularly collected opinion survey of GP services in England (Cowling et al. 2015). It could therefore be used to validate topic-model outcomes. Validated topic models can, in turn, be used to decrease the frequency and cost of data collection through mass patient surveys by obtaining proxy survey values from textual comments. Moreover, this could allow researchers to include individual-level variables such as the demographics and the attitudes of service users. This could represent an important step towards generating a comprehensive model of user satisfaction for public services.

9 | CONCLUSION

Textual comments posted by citizens and processed using machine learning can address the deficit in citizens' contributions to the public service innovation process (De Vries et al. 2016; O’Leary 2016). Decisions about reforming public services are increasingly backed by data (Hood and Dixon 2015). Cues can come from small-sample qualitative studies (Salt et al. 2012), citizen surveys (Van Ryzin and Charbonneau 2010) or easy-to-access quantitative measures of citizen behaviour, such as the number of visits made to public service providers (Hood and Dixon 2015). Although qualitative studies offer comprehensive insights, their small sample sizes and high data collection costs make them unfeasible for decision-making. While surveys are reliable, they cover narrow sub-samples of citizen experiences.
Any understanding of public issues derived from survey data will limit and bias insights by over-emphasizing what is known. Behavioural data provide little or no information on the reasons for certain behaviours; as a consequence, decisions based on these data are likely to produce undesirable side-effects.

The systematic and exhaustive inclusion of citizen voices, processed using machine learning, therefore represents a substantial and desirable improvement over other prominent methods of incorporating citizen views into political and public policy decision-making. Large datasets can be processed to identify a full spectrum of citizens’ concerns. In the healthcare domain, this approach can generate a better understanding of the narratives that drive patient behaviours, enabling providers to deliver more cost-effective healthcare (McClellan 2011; Vlaev et al. 2016; Eton et al. 2017). Half of all deaths in the United States are self-inflicted; this figure gives some idea of the proportion of healthcare costs that could be avoided through behavioural changes (Vlaev et al. 2016).

Insights can be obtained very quickly from large samples of patient feedback. These insights will illuminate areas that have been wholly excluded from the most comprehensive survey of the GP service experience. For example, the present study shows that GP practice management style (topic 4) and appointment availability are equally important to patients. Of these two issues, however, only the latter was included in the GP Patient Survey. Insights from surveys that omit salient issues reported by patients may cause the NHS to make sub-optimal decisions when attempting to improve the service experience of patients.

The present investigation of issues that make patients happy and unhappy, notwithstanding unknown sample biases, may help administrators in the National Health Service identify and learn from successful GP practices across England. Patient feedback can be clustered by NHS institution, providing insight into patterns of satisfaction and GP management styles across the country. These findings can also help to identify GP services with poor telephone access or other factors that require improvement. The reviews themselves can be clustered by topical structure and Likert-scale satisfaction levels to reveal prevalent user narratives about the service experience. It is essential for the NHS to better understand where, how and why such user narratives occur. It is difficult to identify and analyse large volumes of user reviews without creating a quantitative representation of their content.

The insights generated by this study also point to key challenges facing public institutions. If the NHS could overcome these challenges at a national (rather than GP or CCG) level, the service would become more efficient in meeting the needs of all patients. Many patients express frustration with struggling to make GP appointments. If such comments are sufficiently frequent, machine-learning models could generate near real-time insights into patient satisfaction on the level of individual GP practices or doctors. They could also show how specific policies affect patients over time, whether some areas of England have significant shifts in perceived GP service quality, and how the impact of NHS decisions varies in different locations.

Finally, these findings may inform public preferences regarding NHS services. In addition to accessing a limited range of hard figures produced by the NHS, citizens should be able to obtain information about current NHS challenges, as seen through the lens of actual GP reviews written by patients. Quantitative summaries of written feedback at the national or regional level offer an extra advantage to members of the public who are lobbying for improvements.

In summary, researchers and public managers can use text analysis with machine learning to make better use of public service user satisfaction data and investigations. In the case of public healthcare in England, for example, topic-model outcomes obtained from online reviews suggest that, although patients frequently complain about the difficulties they face in accessing GP services, this is not the most important predictor of health service satisfaction. Instead, the way in which GP staff members treat patients largely determines whether those patients give their experiences a high or low rating; the patients’ experiences with reception staff and appointment availability are the second and third most important factors. These findings suggest that changing NHS staff communication styles, with support from a more convenient online booking service and streamlined bureaucratic procedures, could significantly raise satisfaction levels, even among patients who experience difficulties in getting GP appointments. The tools and insights provided by this study could be made publicly available in response to demands for more inclusive decision-making in the area of public service provision (O’Leary 2016).
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ENDNOTES
1 For more information on user comments about NHS services, see: https://www.nhs.uk/about-us/manage-user-comments/.
2 Further details about the R programming-language stm software library used for model implementation are available at: https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=stm.
3 The topic map was generated using Gephi, a software package for network modelling. For further information about Gephi, please visit: http://gephi.org.
4 For a more detailed explanation of RF models see, for example, Hastie et al. (2001, pp. 587–603).
5 For an overview of the performance metrics of such machine-learning algorithms, see Anastasopoulos and Whitford (2019).
6 We have highlighted only the top 10 most important predictors to simplify the plot presentation.
7 More information on the GP Patient Survey is available at: https://gp-patient.co.uk/surveysandreports.
8 Source: http://content.digital.nhs.uk/catalogue/PUB18468, currently available as an archived page at https://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20180328140206/http://digital.nhs.uk/catalogue/PUB18468.
9 Source: https://data.gov.uk/dataset/numbers-of-patients-registered-at-a-gp-practice-lsoa-level.
10 Source: https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/english-indices-of-deprivation-2015.
11 All fixed-effects models were calculated using the R programming language and plm package.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION
Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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