

WORKING PAPER

*Statistical methods for evaluating
satisfaction with public services*

Giancarlo MANZI & Pier Alda FERRARI



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*Statistical methods for evaluating
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Abstract

Contrary to private enterprises, public enterprises can be unaware of the impact of their performance when providing services to the public. This is often the case when a small array of choices is in citizens' hands or coercion is the only possibility and a public service must be received and accepted as it is. In these situations where citizens cannot switch to other providers, customer churn cannot occur, or the use of the service cannot be reduced, the assessment of users' satisfaction for public services becomes a very important topic. At the same time, this is also a tricky task, since satisfaction may vary among citizens according to their personal needs and expectations. Using proper statistical methods to assess and explain the level of satisfaction for services provided by public enterprises can be useful to face these issues. In this paper we analyse some of these statistical methods and suggest how to use them to improve citizens' satisfaction.

Keywords: evaluation, services of general interest, statistical indicators, statistical models, meta-analysis, consumers.

JEL-codes: C43, D18, H40, L88.

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1. Introduction

Over the last years the interest in the analysis of customer satisfaction has steadily increased in the private sector. Less interest has been paid to this aspect by public administrations, especially in the case of public services, even though it is precisely in this sector that investigations on customer satisfaction should be more frequently and more accurately performed. In fact, while private companies can be aware of customers' dissatisfaction with a product because, for example, its purchasing decreases, a public enterprise providing a service and operating in a monopoly might well be unaware of the lack of satisfaction if users cannot switch to other providers, refuse or reduce the consumption of the service. Furthermore, a good knowledge of satisfaction for different aspects of the service in connection with the characteristics of the users can suggest a multiple and more satisfactory provision of the service. Therefore a careful evaluation and monitoring of satisfaction through specific surveys and investigation should be particularly welcome in the public sector.

The European Union (EU) has gradually shifted its policy on public sector governance towards the so-called "Europeanization of public services" (Zatti, 2012). This shift has created a constant pressure on Member States to follow new general principles in this area: (i) a faster convergence towards a high-quality service provision; (ii) a standardized provision mode; (iii) a new financial system with limited and regulated transfers, and, wherever possible, (iv) an open encouragement for privatisation and liberalisation, with (v) a special focus on the spread of competition (Bognetti and Obermann, 2012).

Contemporary to the development of this new policy, the regulatory reform process on privatisation and liberalisation started in the 1990's has been viewed by the EU as the main way to improve citizens' well-being, as the liberalisation/privatisation process should imply an increased competition and a greater consumer choice for an improved welfare and a higher satisfaction (Clifton et al., 2012). Therefore, this satisfaction level should constantly be monitored to check if this process effectively works.

But why is monitoring customers' satisfaction with public services so important for the EU policy? Three main reasons may be provided. First, the EU needs to check the outcome of privatisation policies in terms of social welfare. Second, the EU needs to assess the efficiency of public institutions, especially in a context characterized by tight budget constraint for public administrations. Third, the EU needs definitive answers in terms of choosing different forms of organization in the provision of a public service (Fiorio and Florio, 2011; Roland, 2008). To this purpose, the EU has increasingly introduced monitoring instruments to evaluate citizens' and consumers' perception and satisfaction about services of general interest (SGI) in their home countries (Clifton and Diaz-Fuentes, 2010). Satisfaction monitoring tools adopted by the EU and other EU-related institutions are mainly in the form of opinion surveys or portals, such as the Eurobarometer (EB) Survey (European Opinion Research Group, 2002),

the European Quality of Life Survey (Anderson et al., 2009) and the “Your voice in Europe” portal (Sarikakis, 2011).

But an increasing interest towards customer satisfaction data analysis in the public sector would be perhaps beneficial beyond and independently of what the EU is already doing. In this paper, we will draw attention to the most recent statistical methods and models of satisfaction data analysis. In particular, we will focus on the objectives of these analyses, the interpretation of their results and their potential use in public administration. More specifically, after a brief discussion on the problems connected to customer satisfaction data collection, typology and related analysis (Section 2), some dependence models and reduction techniques for customer satisfaction analysis will be presented in Section 3. Section 4 is then devoted to methods for summarizing results from multiple data sets which are useful when information on satisfaction comes from different sources. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper and outlines some possible future research developments.

2. Measuring satisfaction for public services: issues and sources of bias

Public service satisfaction data are usually collected through opinion survey questionnaires containing items on personal judgements or perceptions about public services (European Commission, 2006).

A scale perception bias is sometimes present in responses to this item, especially with sensitive topics (León, Araña, and León, 2013; Tourangeau, and Smith, 1996). Respondents may have different reactions to the same question according to their cultural background, education and environment. For instance, a 5-level Likert scale answer to a question about corruption equal to 3 may denote a high level of corruption in countries where corruption is not a problem, whereas may be a choice to denote the “normality” in countries where corruption is widespread. Therefore, issues of comparison arise in these cases, especially in cross-country analyses. Even if survey researchers have built considerable experience and knowledge on survey respondent behaviour, developing many approaches to solve problematic issues in choice surveys and experiments (McFadden et al., 2005), still there exist significant bias to be handled.

When dealing with satisfaction for public services, answers from the public are self-reported expressed opinions and can be affected by many bias sources: respondents might feel uncomfortable and distressed about revealing their opinion (especially with services like the police service, the prison service, the health service) when they feel that their views are in the minority (Noelle-Neumann, 1974; Ho et al., 2013). Sometimes it could be the case that respondents have a negative attitude towards public service satisfaction surveys and have an interest to under report their satisfaction, being influenced by “not-in-my-backyard” mentality or because they believe that in this way improvements can be obtained more easily, or have an incentive to strategically

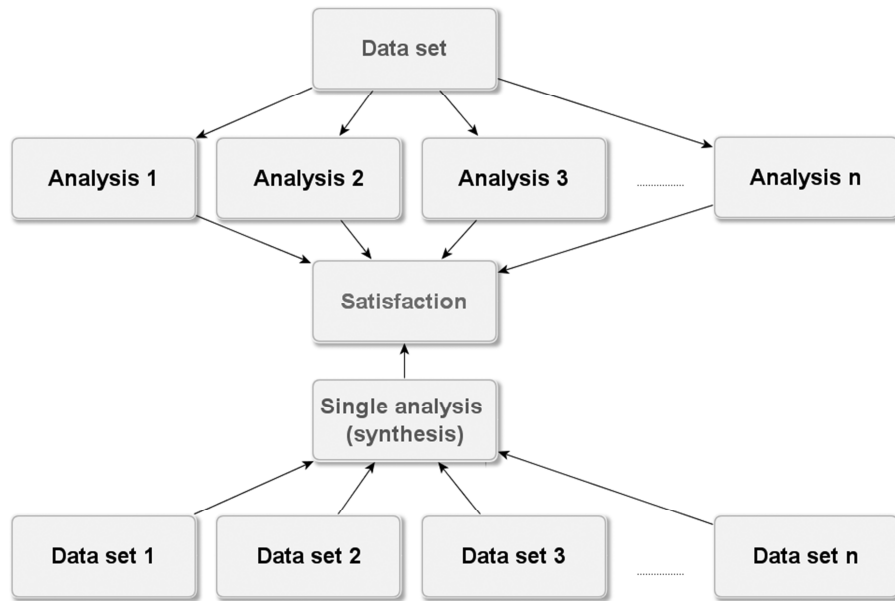
misrepresent their preferences in survey studies, so to influence the policy decision (Wardman, 1988; Ansolabehere & Koniski, 2009). Furthermore, non-response rates can also be high and post-survey validation of results is always hard to perform. A huge stream of literature has investigated the factors linking the refusal to answer the questionnaire to individual characteristics, being the understanding of this relationship a key factor to obtain real preferences in public opinion (Gray et al., 1996; Mannetje et al., 2011; Riphahn and Serfling, 2005).

Nevertheless, the collection of these data and a proper statistical analysis, as we will try to show in what follows, may be useful to measure and compare the level of satisfaction, and to improve the quality of the service, as perceived by users.

One of the most important issues is the nature of the items, and the nature (ordinal/categorical, not numerical) of the resulting variables. In many cases, survey respondents are given a Likert scale (see, Likert [1932]) or a list of ordered categories (see Agresti [2013]) to choose from. In both these cases, labels are used to assess the order of the categories (from the lower to the higher or vice versa), but not their real values, even if numerical as in a Likert scale, and distances between subsequent numerical labels do not reflect a numerical scale. With all these problems in public service opinion surveys, a well-managed statistical analysis is needed. A new stream of successful statistical methods developed to solve these problems has indeed flourished in the last years.

In the next sections we present some statistical methods for the evaluation of satisfaction for public services – focusing our investigation to the most promising proposals of the last years – and sketch some possible outlines of the usefulness of these tools for policy makers. We will categorize these methods into two groups: methods applicable to the same dataset for obtaining different kinds of information, and methods which give insights on specific information on a service by pooling the results from the analysis of different data sets. The first group can be subdivided in model-based methods, composite synthesising indicators, or a mix of them. The second group is essentially formed by meta-analytic procedures. In the first case, the analyses assume the availability of appropriate datasets (large, reliable, and consolidated over time) and appropriate methods of analysis, and stress the interpretative advantages in improving the knowledge on the levels of satisfaction provided by different methods with different objects of analysis applied to the same dataset; the focus is therefore on methods, findings and interpretation. In the second case, the information comes from several but possibly “weak” datasets using a unique method of analysis, and a “good” value about the strength of a specific hypothesized relationship is reached by pooling analyses even coming from not very reliable datasets. This dichotomy among methods to evaluate satisfaction is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 – Approaches to the evaluation of users’ satisfaction



3. Some methods to analyse user satisfaction data

There is a huge literature on methods for extracting useful information on satisfaction from survey datasets. Some of these methods are presented in the following subsections. More specifically, subsection 3.1 is dedicated to models which consider satisfaction as a dependent variable, explained by some covariates (model-based methods). In subsection 3.2 methods addressed to obtain a synthetic measure for satisfaction are described, while in subsection 3.3 mixed methods are presented. For each method, its potential and successful application given the available data and objectives of the analysis are critically discussed.

3.1. Model-based methods

These methods rely on statistical models to explain the dependence of the level of satisfaction with regard to a specific service item (for example, the electricity price) on individual (features of survey respondents: gender, level of education, etc.) or contextual variables (features of countries: GDP level, national education expenditure, regulatory index, etc.). Among these models, probit, logit, and linear regression are the most used.

Formally, for all these models individual satisfaction for the i -th individual, $i=1, \dots, n$, is intended as a variable S_i^* which is assumed dependent on k explicative variables (regressors) according to the following equation:

$$S_i^* = \beta_0 + x_i' \beta + e_i \quad (1),$$

where x_i' is the k -dimensional vector of the explicative variable values, $\beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k)$ is the $k \times 1$ vector of the coefficients of the k explicative variables and expresses the influence of the single variables on the level of satisfaction. Statistical models then differ depending on the distribution of e_i . If a linear regression is performed, S_i^* is the observed quantified variable and e_i is given a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance σ^2 . Even if this is the most popular model, it does not seem suitable, due to the categorical nature of the dependent variable (Cameron & Trivedi, 2005).

If a probit model is adopted, e_i is assumed distributed according to a standard normal distribution $N(0,1)$ and S_i^* is a latent continuous variable related to a dichotomous observed variable S_i , having two categories: $S_i = 1$ (satisfied) and $S_i = 0$ (unsatisfied), so that the following relationship holds:

$$P(S_i = 1|x) = P(S_i^* > 0|x) = \Phi(x_i'\beta - \beta_0) \quad (2),$$

where P denotes the probability that $S_i^* > 0$ and Φ is the cumulative distribution function of $N(0,1)$. If an ordered logit model is adopted, the individual satisfaction S_i^* in model (1) is still a latent variable, but $\beta_0 = 0$ and e_i is given a logistic distribution with mean 0 and variance $\pi/\sqrt{3}$. The relationship between the ordered level of the variable S_i with $j+1$ ordered categories and S_i^* is expressed in the following way:

$$\begin{array}{lll} S_i = 0 & \text{if} & S_i^* \leq \alpha_1, \\ S_i = 1 & \text{if} & \alpha_1 \leq S_i^* \leq \alpha_2, \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ S_i = J & \text{if} & S_i^* \geq \alpha_J, \end{array} \quad (3),$$

where $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_J$ are unknown thresholds. Whatever is the statistical model: probit, logit, or linear regression, the β coefficient vector is usually estimated by maximum likelihood method based on the e_i specific distribution.

The objective of all these methods of analysis is to detect the influence of some variables (regressors) on the level of satisfaction. They are usually based on responses to a specific item (observed variable). They are applied also in the context of SGI, and more specifically for utilities. For example, Jilke, and Van de Walle (2013) explicitly model the responses to questions on complaints about some aspects of the provision of public utilities against age and education through a binary logistic regression on EB survey data. They focus on citizens' complaints about SGI as a surrogate for dissatisfaction and as a mean for

amplifying citizens' voice. Their work is therefore aimed at finding socio-economic determinants of a two-track complaint behaviour among citizens: those who are assertive and best informed and receive high quality services and those who, by virtue of their socio-economic weakness, are marginalized and made vulnerable. Fiorio and Florio (2011) aim at addressing the question "are European consumers happy with the price they pay for electricity supply services after two decades of reforms?", being interested in the correlation between satisfaction and regulatory reforms in the EU, and using the random-effects probit model recalled in (2) where the latent level of individual satisfaction for each aspect of the services has to be explained by a set of socio-economic variables (i.e., gender, occupation, etc.), country macro-economic variables (i.e. GDP level, population density, etc.) and the level of privatisation and market regulation (Conway and Nicoletti, 2006). A similar analysis for telecommunications is carried out in Bacchiocchi, Florio, and Gambaro (2011). Fiorio et al. (2007) adopt an ordered logit model defined with thresholds (3) and find different level of satisfaction for gas supply, fixed telephone and electricity services in each country, depending on many explicative variables.

Clifton, Díaz-Fuentes, and Fernández-Gutierrez (2014) highlight the strong connection between consumers' stated and revealed preferences by contrasting them through five empirical probit models aiming at revealing the relationship between satisfaction for public utilities and socio-economic variables. As their approach is inspired by Behavioural Economics, their focus is intended to find the reasons why certain categories of vulnerable consumers behave differently from their peers. They use data from EB for stated preferences on satisfaction and from Household Budget Surveys collected by Eurostat for revealed preferences on expenditure.

Among linear regression analyses on satisfaction for SGI, an example is in Rahmqvist and Bara (2010) who deal with the relation of respondents' characteristics, and perceived quality dimensions of health care to overall patient satisfaction in out-patient hospital care.

3.2. *Synthetic measures and composite indicators*

These methods address the problem of building up a synthetic measure of satisfaction by combining different aspects of a service or different services and, at the same time, by providing suitable weights for every single aspect or service. For example, Ferrari, Annoni, and Manzi (2010) proposed a synthetic indicator for consumer satisfaction based on Nonlinear Principal Component Analysis (NPCA), a method introduced by Gifi (1990) and Michailidis and De Leeuw (1998) for dimensional reduction. This approach expresses the level of satisfaction as a linear combination of observed ordinal variables, whose categories are optimally quantified and the variable coefficients of the combination are also optimally determined. Formally, the measurement of

satisfaction is obtained through a latent variable, whose scores for n individuals and m ordinal variables are given by:

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j G_j \mathbf{q}_j \beta_j = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j \mathbf{t}_j \beta_j, \quad (4)$$

where \mathbf{x} is the $n \times 1$ vector of the scores, G_j an indicator matrix of categories of the j -th variable, \mathbf{t}_j the $n \times 1$ vector of the quantified variable j , obtained by substituting the observed ordinal categories of the variable with an $n \times 1$ vector of optimal quantifications \mathbf{q}_j , β_j the coefficient of \mathbf{t}_j and can be read as the importance of the variable in determining the level of satisfaction. This approach allows, like the standard Principal Component Analysis (PCA), to find the level of satisfaction for each individual, passing from m variables to a synthetic univariate indicator through a combination of the original m variables. Contrary to PCA, where category values are predetermined *a priori* with fixed distances as in Likert scale, NPCA category quantification allows for an optimal assignment of the category values taking into proper account measurement levels and nonlinearity (Ferrari and Barbiero, 2011).

Optimal \mathbf{q}_j and β_j in (4) are obtained by minimizing the loss of information due to dimensional reduction, given by the following sum of squared distances:

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m (\mathbf{x} - G_j \mathbf{q}_j \beta_j)^T (\mathbf{x} - G_j \mathbf{q}_j \beta_j).$$

Another important method in this area is the Rasch model (RM). It was introduced by Rasch (1960) to analyse tests on a subject's ability. These tests are based on a set of items and the model describes the probability of giving a specific answer to an item as depending on two factors: the *relative* subject *ability* and the item's intrinsic *difficulty*. In its simplest formulation, RM expresses the probability of having an answer $x_{ij} = 0$ (wrong) or $x_{ij} = 1$ (correct) from subject i having ability θ_i when he meets item j of difficulty β_j . This probability is:

$$P[X_{ij} = 1 | \theta_i, \beta_j] = \frac{\exp\{\theta_i - \beta_j\}}{1 + \exp\{\theta_i - \beta_j\}}.$$

The greater is the ability or lower is the difficulty, the greater is the probability of $x_{ij} = 1$.

In the context of user satisfaction, the two factors *ability* and *difficulty* become *customer satisfaction* (ability) and *item lack of quality* (difficulty),

respectively. Note that low ability (θ_i) corresponds to low level of satisfaction, while low difficulty (β_j) means high quality of the item.

RM can be extended to the polythomous case in different ways with similar meaning and interpretation (De Battisti, Nicolini, and Salini, 2012). For example, in the case of item j having m_j ordered categories ($0, 1 \dots, (m_j - 1)$), we can set $\dots, (m_j - 1)$ thresholds $\beta_{jk} = \beta_j + \tau_{ik}$, intended as the points where two adjacent answer categories (for example ‘*Good*’ and ‘*Very good*’) have the same probability to be chosen, being τ_{ik} the deviations of β_{jk} about the mean β_j , $\sum_{k=1}^{(m_j-1)} \tau_{jk} = 0$. The probability of subject i responding to item j through answer categories $x = 0, 1 \dots, (m_j - 1)$ is:

$$P[X_{ij} = x] = \frac{\exp\{\kappa_{jx} + x(\theta_i - \beta_j)\}}{\sum_{x=0}^{(m_j-1)} \exp\{\kappa_{jx} + x(\theta_i - \beta_j)\}},$$

where $\kappa_{jx} = -\sum_{k=1}^x \tau_{ik}$, $\kappa_{j0} = \kappa_{j(m_j-1)} = 0$ (Ferrari and Salini, 2011).

With this approach the objective is double: we can compare the level of satisfaction among individuals similarly to the scores in NLPCA, but, at the same time, evaluate the quality of different services or aspects of a service.

The complementary use of RM and NPCA thus allows for obtaining two rankings of the items of the service, one based on its perceived quality (via RM), and the other based on its importance (via NPCA), significantly enriching the interpretation of the results.

3.3. *Other methods*

With regard to users’ satisfaction, there are other proposals that combine the methods described above or are not included in the previous classification. For example, Ferrari et al. (2011) adopted a two-step procedure to analyse user satisfaction data which can be categorized as a mix of synthetic measure and model-based approach. With regard to a model of the type (1), in the first step they built a synthetic indicator via NPCA in order to obtain quantitative values for the continuous latent variable “satisfaction” (measurement of the variable S_i^* on the left-hand side in equation (1)). In the second step a dependence model is formulated to explain the level of satisfaction in relation to covariates (detection of explicative variables in the terms on the right-hand side of equation (1)). More specifically a Multilevel Model (ML) is used for detecting personal and environmental characteristics¹.

¹ Multilevel models have been extensively used in public service satisfaction analysis, especially in medical care (see, for example, Sixma et al., 1998). But in general they are used only with satisfaction scores as dependent variables, not with synthetic measures of satisfaction.

Salini and Kennet's method (2009) considers Bayesian network models to analyse the connection between different aspects of a service in the case of EB data. Furthermore, several comparative and ranking analyses have been performed in the last years in order to evaluate the opinion of Europeans on public services. For example, Annoni (2007) uses Hasse diagrams and POSAC methods to perform a ranking analysis on the EU15 countries through EB data; Annoni and Brüggemann (2009) show a way to rank EU countries through partial order theory; Clifton and Díaz-Fuentes (2010) analyse EB survey data by averaging responses on satisfaction for country comparison.

Other methods of analysis focus on the control of the response bias which may arise in satisfaction surveys and, more in general, in opinion surveys, either depending or not on the number of questions in the questionnaire. If the questionnaire is long and the cognitive task is hard, then problems such as learning effects, boredom and anchoring to earlier tasks may occur. But even if the questionnaire is short and well-conceived, individual fixed effects may emerge, as explained in McFadden (1986). Therefore, to avoid measurement error problems and to circumvent this issue, it is possible to exploit the fact that similar questions regarding different aspects of services are repeated over time in different survey waves, and a specific-individual fixed effect introduced in the model could adjust for this source of bias. A possible solution to the problem is given by Grassi and Puglisi (2008) who stack the observation about reported satisfaction over these different dimensions and run a regression model with individual-specific fixed effects. They assume that many of the biases affecting the respondents in satisfaction surveys, although specific to the individual, are common across similar questions being asked, and then can be captured by an individual fixed effect.

Finally, it is worth mentioning other possible methods still not applied to EU data which use statistical models to estimate the relationship between the latent variable and the manifest variables through structured equation models obtained via the Partial Least Squares method - PLS (Wold, 1982, see also the extensive presentation in Tenenhaus et al., 2005) or the LISREL method - Linear Structured RELationship (Jöreskog 1970; O'Brien and Homer, 1987).

A summary of some of the methodologies most used in the last few years to evaluate the user satisfaction and their characteristics are reported in Table 1. For a comparison of their applications to EU data see Ferrari and Manzi (2014).

Table 1 – Summary of the characteristics of some of the main methodologies available to measure satisfaction for public services

Methodology	Category	Characteristics
Logit, probit and linear regression	Model-based	Dependence analysis. Satisfaction can be explained by some hypothesized determinants. Only one response variable (one item at a time) is considered.
Multilevel models (ML)	Model-based	Dependence analysis. Satisfaction is still explained by some hypothesized determinants as above, but at different levels, e.g. at individual and country levels. Useful for hierarchical data. Only one response variable (one item at a time) is considered.
Nonlinear Principal Component Analysis (NPCA)	Synthetic measures & composite indicators	The focus is on measurement. More items (aspects) of satisfaction can be taken into consideration and weighted accordingly. Level of satisfaction, importance of items, and optimal quantifications of answers are determined.
Rasch Model (RM)	Synthetic measures & composite indicators	The focus is on measurement. Level of satisfaction and quality of items (aspects) of satisfaction can be assessed.
RA + NPCA	Synthetic measures & composite indicators	The complementary use of RM and NPCA allows for the joint representation of quality and importance of items in order to provide a set of indicators to decision makers.
NPCA + ML	Synthetic measures & composite indicators + models	Both synthesis and explanatory analyses are considered. The ML model is applied on a synthetic measurement of satisfaction obtained via NPCA.
POSAC, Partial order	Ranking analyses	Allows a ranking of countries according to satisfaction.
Bayesian networks	Model-based	Models of cause and effect. Only one response variable is processed at a time.
Averaging	Synthetic and comparative tools	Immediate synthetic indicator. Comparative analysis based on conditional mean values of observations.

4. Methods to simultaneously analyse multiple datasets

In the previous section we considered methods to analyse datasets with individual information on satisfaction coming from surveys carried out by major pollsters. In most cases, only aggregate findings from multiple studies/datasets are available with no access to individual data, and analysis can be developed only through a systematic review of the literature, aiming at summarizing the empirical evidence emerging out of these studies. Meta-analysis (MA) can therefore be useful in that it allows the pooling of the different satisfaction findings with regard to the variety of techniques used to get them. Sometimes

judgments from experts should also be considered to correct for bias in the studies selected for MA².

MA, originated in the social sciences but soon became a fundamental technique in other fields, could produce interesting results in the satisfaction analysis context. Hunt (1997), and Rosenthal and Dimatteo (2001) point out some criticism that has always been raised in many research fields about the meta-analytic approach. They state that “MA is like to taking apples and oranges and averaging over their weights, sizes flavour and shelf life. Too different are apples and oranges to be put together”. Paradoxically, the real strength of MA lies exactly in this criticism: if one wants “to generalize about fruit rather than about apples or oranges, then it is correct to consider both apples and oranges altogether” (Rosenthal and Dimatteo, 2001).

In the case of satisfaction, this “*generalization about fruit*” applies naturally: apple or oranges can be items of satisfaction or different measurements of satisfaction, but finally, MA helps to put everything together, giving a definitive evaluation of the *fruit-satisfaction*. MA can correct adequately the possible bias emerged in the studies, giving them more or less importance in the pooling exercise. As such, MA can be considered a valid alternative to the methods used to model satisfaction on a single dataset when individual or information is not available or is fragmented.

In the subsections below we first briefly recall the standard meta-analytic approach to summarize information on public satisfaction from multiple studies or datasets in the particular case of the correlation coefficient, and then describe a non-standard meta-analytic approach recently introduced, aimed at adjusting for multiple sources of bias (subsection 4.1). An example of application of the latter method to assess satisfaction for SGI is provided in subsection 4.2.

4.1. Standard and non-standard methods of MA

Very few MAs having satisfaction for public services as the main objective have been performed so far. One of these examples is in Hall and Dornan (1990) where the authors performed a standard meta-analysis of product-moment correlation coefficients with the aim of examining the relationship of patients' socio demographic characteristics to their satisfaction with public medical care. Meta-analysis of correlation coefficients r s is commonly performed by first converting them into Fisher-transformed z scores:

$$z = \frac{1}{2} \log \left(\frac{1+r}{1-r} \right),$$

² This bias could concern, for example, the choice and misspecification of a model for the determinants of satisfaction, possible omitted variables, the quality of the sample, the particular technique used, etc.

which have an approximate normal distribution with standard error $\sqrt{\frac{1}{(n-3)}}$, where n is the study sample size. In that analysis, z s are pooled across studies with weights proportional to the standard errors and are back-transformed to r , and Hall and Dornan found that a higher satisfaction is significantly associated with greater age and less education, and marginally associated with being married and having higher social status.

In primary studies (i.e. in studies selected for the MA) satisfaction can have been measured in many different ways. This introduces other types of biases in the analysis. First, studies can differ in design as well as in participants, exposures or outcomes. We refer to this bias as “statistical bias” or “*internal bias*” (i.e. lack of statistical rigour in performing the study). Second, if a given policy target protocol has been agreed, studies may be more or less relevant to this target and can or cannot agree with this protocol. We refer to this bias as “relevance bias” or “*external bias*” (i.e. lack of relevance of the study in view of the policy targets). To explain this latter point let’s suppose that an agreed protocol on “better standards” to evaluate satisfaction states, for example, that satisfaction is better evaluated if an item on the perception of quality of the service is present. Studies may or may not have such information: studies without the information on quality are not excluded from the MA, but are considered more “relevance biased” than the others. This setting requires a different approach where statisticians and policy experts are called together to evaluate these biases, and a model to incorporate these elicitations is thus required.

A proposal in this direction is introduced in Turner et al. (2009). They assume that potential internal and external biases act additively and proportionally on the estimates. To elicit these biases a panel of expert meets and discusses first jointly and then assess independently the amount of bias they believe is present in the studies. Each assessor completes checklists for sources of biases evaluating them on a shared scale. The number of different types of bias is usually defined in advance.

More formally, this method works as follows. Let’s have k selected studies forming a MA, in each of which the study-specific quantity θ_i has to be estimated, and the statistic y_i ($i=1, \dots, k$) is used as its estimator. Let τ^2 be an additional variance parameter to allow for unexplained between-study heterogeneity. Let’s have J^I sources of internal bias in the estimation process. Then, for each study i , an *additive model* to incorporate internal sources of bias $j = 1, \dots, J^I$ is formulated. A bias component δ_{ij}^I , having distribution $\delta_{ij}^I \sim f(\mu_{ij}^I; \sigma_{ij}^I{}^2)$, is supposed to have an additive effect on y_i in the following way:

$$y_i \sim f(\theta_i + \mu_i^I; [s_i^2 + \sigma_i^{I^2}]), \quad (5)$$

where $\mu_i^I = \sum_{j=1}^J \mu_{ij}^I$ is the total internal bias for study i elicited by the expert, s_i^2 is the sampling variance assumed known, and $\sigma_i^{I^2} = \sum_{j=1}^J \sigma_{ij}^{I^2}$

Similarly, an *additive* model to incorporate external sources of bias $j = 1, \dots, J^E$ is assumed and expressed as follows:

$$y_i \sim f(\theta_i + \mu_i^E, s_i^2 + \tau^2 + \sigma_i^{E^2}), \quad (6)$$

where $\mu_i^E = \sum_{j=1}^J \mu_{ij}^E$ is the total external bias for study i elicited by the expert, and $\sigma_i^{E^2} = \sum_{j=1}^J \sigma_{ij}^{E^2}$, being the external bias δ_{ij}^E distributed as $\delta_{ij}^E \sim f(\mu_{ij}^E, \sigma_{ij}^{E^2})$.

Combining together models (5) and (6) a general additive model is obtained:

$$y_i \sim f(\theta_i + \mu_i^E + \mu_i^I, s_i^2 + \tau^2 + \sigma_i^{I^2} + \sigma_i^{E^2}). \quad (7)$$

Proportional models corresponding to models (5), (6) and (7) are obtained in a similar way. Additional and proportional models are finally combined together to get the final bias-adjusted meta-analysis results. See Turner et al. (2009, pp. 37-41) for further details.

We believe that this approach can be used in MA on satisfaction *in general*, and on satisfaction with public services in particular.

4.2. *An application to patients' satisfaction data*

Suppose policy makers are interested in knowing what is the relationship between the level of satisfaction of patients and the competence/efficacy/performance of medical and nursing staff in public hospitals and only aggregate findings are available. An MA with the methodology by Turner et al. can be conducted in the specific framework of the evaluation of satisfaction. The steps to be performed can be summarized as follows:

(i) Select the primary studies containing measures of relationship between medical/nurse competence/efficacy/performance and satisfaction with standard MA selection techniques; (ii) list all the sources of (statistical or relevance) bias possibly present in the studies; (iii) ask experts to quantitatively elicit such biases for each studies and how they affect study results; (iv) incorporate such elicitations to adjust study estimates with the methodology used to get model (7) and the following generalization.

To illustrate this procedure, we conducted a pilot *adjusted* meta-analysis in the area of satisfaction for medical services in hospitals. We were interested in finding studies where the relationship between patient satisfaction and efficiency/competence of medical and nursing staff was evaluated through the Pearson's linear correlation coefficient. Our strategy to obtain the final set of studies to be included in the meta-analysis aimed at first browsing the most important internet bibliographic databases on public health management (Medline, Scopus, Web of Science, Google Scholar, etc.), and then manually searching in the most important journals in health management and health economics from 2009 to 2011. We also searched in the reference sections of the identified studies and among other publications of the authors for further work on the subject. Examples of key-words used for this search are the following or a combination of them: "patient satisfaction", "satisfaction for health care", "hospital". The inclusion criterion comprises the presence of a correlation coefficient between patient satisfaction and variables related to hospital staff competence. Eligible studies were those with survey data containing self-assessments on satisfaction for staff performance and services in hospitals. Studies containing regression models with satisfaction measures as dependent variables and variables on efficiency/competence of hospital staff as independent variables were excluded. This search strategy produced a collection of 24 studies reported in Table 2.

Table 2 – Studies in the meta-analysis

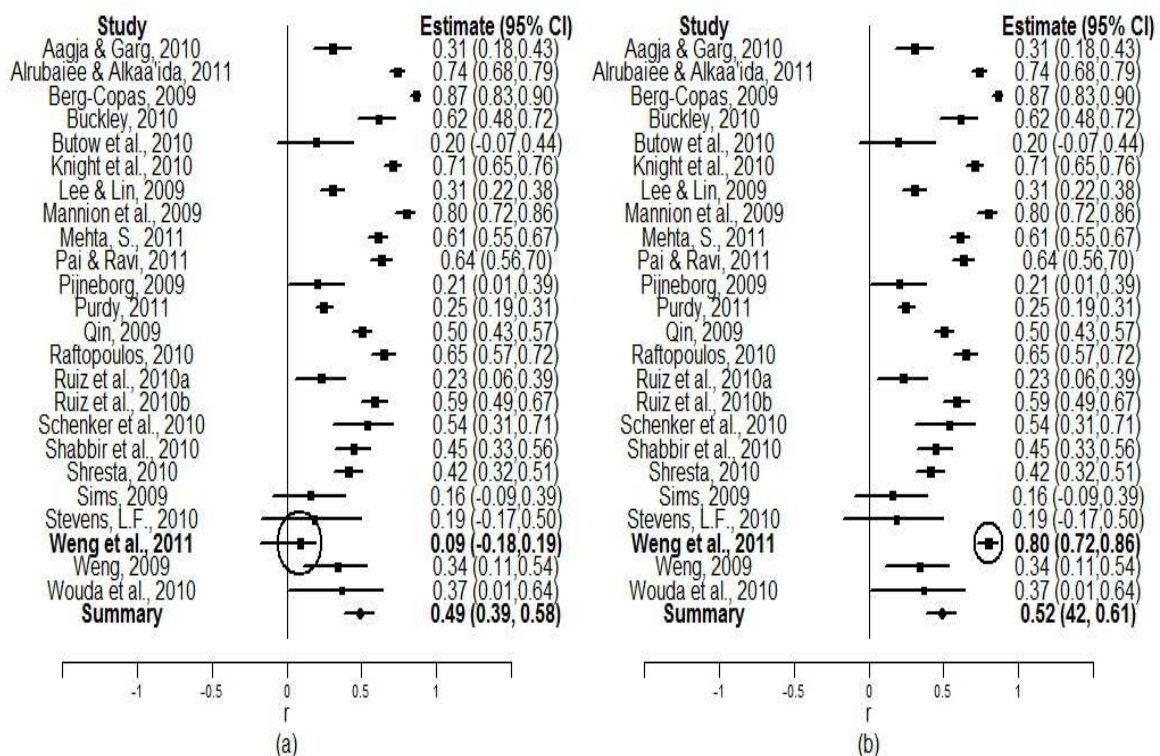
Study	Year	Geography	Satisfaction variable	Related variable	Sample size	Rho value	Rho type ³
Aagja and Garg	2010	India	Overall patient satisfaction in a public hospital	Competence and efficacy in medical services	200	0.31	direct
Alrubaiee and Alkaa'ida 2011	2011	Jordan	General satisfaction in two private hospitals	Reliability-Empathy-Assurance (SERVQUAL)	290	0.74	averaged
Berg-Copas 2009	2009	U.S.A.	Overall trauma patient satisfaction in the Wesley Medical Center, Wichita, Kansas, U.S.A.	Medical, nursing and staff care and efficacy	209	0.87	averaged
Buckley 2009	2010	New Zealand	Overall patient satisfaction with the emergency department nursing in a regional hospital (postal survey)	Nurse caring performance	100	0.62	direct
Butow et al., 2010	2010	NZ & Australia	Satisfaction with doctor consultation and skills	Doctors' care and concern	55	0.20	averaged
Knight, Cheng, and Lee 2010	2010	Australia	Overall client satisfaction with outpatient physiotherapy care in 25 clinics	Therapist's behaviour in discussing negative and positive aspects of treatment	312	0.71	direct
Lee and Lin 2009	2009	Taiwan	Diabetes patient trust in the physician assessed in one regional hospital and one district hospital	Adherence to physician's prescriptions and outcome expectations	480	0.31	averaged
Mannion et al. 2009	2009	Switzerland	Overall satisfaction with surgery in a clinic and a hospital (patients after knee arthroplasty surgery)	Global treatment outcome	120	0.80	direct
Mehta 2011	2011	India	Patient satisfaction in various hospitals	Medical, nursing and staff care and efficacy	400	0.61	averaged
Pai and Ravi 2011	2011	India	General satisfaction in a private hospital	Doctors', nurses' and dieticians' care and concern	257	0.64	averaged
Pijnenborg 2009	2009	Netherlands	Overall satisfaction with hospital, doctors and nurses	Expectations, medical empathy and quality	102	0.21	averaged
Purdy 2011	2011	Canada	Overall in-patient satisfaction for nursing care in medical and surgical units from 21 big hospitals (more than 70 beds)	Nurse-assessed quality of care	1005	0.25	direct
Qin 2009	2009	U.S.A.	Overall patient satisfaction with care providers (web survey)	Quality & expectations	485	0.50	averaged
Raftopoulos 2010	2010	Greece	Overall satisfaction with primary care in a variety of primary health care settings (outpatient setting, home care) service)	Medical and nursing care and efficacy	212	0.65	averaged
Ruiz et al. 2010a	2010	Spain	Patient satisfaction for glaucoma therapy in three locations (patients recruited by specialized clinicians in hospitals)	Competence and efficacy in medical services	124	0.23	averaged
Ruiz et al. 2010b	2010	Spain	Patient satisfaction with dermatological treatment of hand eczema in 18 hospitals	Medical care	213	0.59	direct
Schenker et al. 2012	2011	U.S.A.	Patient surrogates trust after 7 days in physicians in an intensive unit in a University Hospital	General trust in health care systems	50	0.54	direct
Shabbir, Kaufmann, and Shehzad 2011	2010	Pakistan	Patient satisfaction in public and private hospitals	Trust & service quality (SERVQUAL)	186	0.45	averaged
Shrestha 2010	2010	Indonesia	Out-patient satisfaction for access to primary care in three primary health care centers	personal treatment and medical ability	300	0.42	averaged
Sims 2009	2009	U.S.A.	Trust in physician (chronic pain patients from 4 chiropractic offices in two different southwestern towns)	Physician's empathy	62	0.16	averaged
Stevens 2010	2010	U.S.A.	HIV-positive racial/ethnic minority patient satisfaction for doctors, nurses and administrative staff of two urban, community medical clinics	Trust in doctors	33	0.19	averaged
Weng et al. 2011	2011	Taiwan	Relationship between patient satisfaction and doctor emotional intelligence, burn out and job satisfaction	Total emotional intelligence by doctors	110	0.09	direct
Weng 2009	2009	Taiwan	Patient satisfaction at initial visit and after two weeks with surgeons and internists	Medical efficacy and empathy	67	0.34	averaged
Wouda et al. 2011	2010	Netherlands	Patient satisfaction with physicians' working in a university hospital	Medical care	30	0.37	direct

³ “Averaged” means that the correlation coefficient entering the meta-analysis has been averaged across multiple correlation coefficients presented in the study.

Results of a standard MA performed on the selected studies are reported in Figure 2a where for each study the confidence interval for r is reported. It can be noted that all reported correlation coefficients are positive and the pooled Pearson's correlation coefficient is equal to 0.49, meaning a certain positive relationship between satisfaction and staff efficiency/competence. The overall r is also significantly different from 0.

Since we believed that one study (Weng et al., 2011) presented symptoms of internal and external bias, an elicitation process was performed. The reasons for adjusting this study for bias concerned the lack of statistical rigour (specifically about the sampling used), the measurement used to assess satisfaction, and the related variable (an “emotional intelligence”), all factors leading to the underestimation of the correlation coefficient. By applying the models from (5) to (7) for assessing elicitations (an *ad-hoc* software was used to this purpose⁴), a larger level of correlation was obtained in the study considered, affecting the overall effect sizes which increased from 0.49 to 0.52 (see Figure 2b).

Figure 2 – (a) Meta-analysis results of the relationship between satisfaction and medical, nursing and staff competence
(b) Adjusted meta-analysis results of the relationship between satisfaction and medical, nursing and staff competence: adjusted study is Weng et al. (2011)



⁴ A Java stand-alone version of this software is available on request.

5. Conclusion and future developments

This paper has presented some recent non-standard methodologies to evaluate users' satisfaction with public services and discussed their potential.

This has given us the opportunity to highlight that these methods do not only provide us with a measure of the level of satisfaction for public services, and show how it can vary in relation with different factors, but also allow us to evaluate and compare specific services or aspects of a service.

We have tried to highlight the practical utility of these statistical analyses both in presence of a suitable dataset and in the case when such availability is scarce but pieces of information can be extracted by pooling similar analyses whose results can be adjusted according to the different amount of bias they contain. All the presented methods are helpful to improve the efficacy of policy intervention/action, and can be adopted as tools for public managers to better understand citizens as public service recipients.

The methods proposed here are prone to further development both theoretically and in applications. Our future commitments will be centred on developing IT computational tools to apply some of these methods simultaneously or extend the application of these techniques to different datasets in multiple contexts. This will be addressed to give public managers the possibility to be provided with easy and convenient instruments for immediate decision implying a more central role for citizens in public enterprises' decision making.

Our hope is that in the next future increasing resources will be invested to reinforce citizen satisfaction surveys and to develop new methodologies to analyse these data, and methods to implement them in order to support the decision process of public enterprise.

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