

# Impact evaluation of transit improvement program: A Social Media Data Mining and Causal Inference Framework

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## ABSTRACT

Passenger feedback is a critical indicator for evaluating the effectiveness of transit improvement programs, with social media emerging as an important data source. This study develops a novel framework by linking unstructured social media posts to specific transit improvement programs, which are corresponding to our pre-defined transit service quality dimensions. We first conduct a text matching to align passenger feedback with transit improvement program objectives, which includes a Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) and Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF) to identify latent themes from social media posts and a neural embedding for semantic matching. The matched data enables us to evaluate and quantify transit improvement program impacts. Specifically, we begin by employing Interrupted Time Series Analysis (ITSA) to quantify the sentiment trends before and after transit improvement program implementation, distinguishing short-term impacts from sustained improvements while controlling for seasonal patterns and temporal autocorrelation. The proposed framework is validated in a case study using 88,253 Weibo posts related to Shenzhen Metro services collected between January 2019 and July 2023. Results reveal statistically significant differences and shifts in public opinion in the targeted dimensions of several transit improvement programs. Our approach can be applied to transit improvement program evaluation in other cities beyond our case study area. This is

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## <sup>1</sup> 1. Introduction

<sup>2</sup> Public transportation plays a crucial role in urban mobility systems, offering an essential ser-  
<sup>3</sup> vice that contributes to sustainable development goals by reducing congestion, air pollution, and  
<sup>4</sup> greenhouse gas emissions (Stjernborg and Mattisson, 2016; Mead, 2021). Despite these benefits,  
<sup>5</sup> transit agencies worldwide face persistent challenges in attracting and retaining riders, particularly  
<sup>6</sup> in competing with private vehicles and emerging mobility services (Beirão and Cabral, 2007). To  
<sup>7</sup> address this issue, transit operators continuously implement various transit improvement programs,  
<sup>8</sup> ranging from technological upgrades and infrastructure renovations to policy changes and customer  
<sup>9</sup> service enhancements (Luong and Houston, 2015; Fraser et al., 2024).

<sup>10</sup> Evaluating the effectiveness of these transit improvement programs is fundamental to the strate-  
<sup>11</sup>gic planning and operational management of public transportation systems. Traditional evaluation  
<sup>12</sup> methods rely heavily on performance metrics such as ridership counts, on-time performance, and

13 customer satisfaction surveys (Nathanail, 2008; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2011). While these metrics  
14 provide valuable insights, they often fail to capture the nuanced perspectives and real-time feed-  
15 back of transit users (Collins et al., 2013a). This limitation is particularly significant given that  
16 passenger perceptions and experiences directly influence their decision to choose public transit  
17 over other modes of transportation (Friman et al., 2001; Morton et al., 2016).

18 With the proliferation of social media platforms and the increasing willingness of the public to  
19 share their experiences online, a vast reservoir of user-generated content related to public transit has  
20 become available (Golder and Macy, 2011; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). This data represents an  
21 untapped resource for transit agencies seeking to understand passenger sentiments and evaluate the  
22 impacts of their service improvement initiatives (El-Diraby et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023). Social  
23 media data offers several advantages over traditional data sources: it provides real-time feedback,  
24 captures spontaneous and unfiltered user opinions, and potentially reaches a broader and more  
25 diverse audience than conventional surveys (Tasse and Hong, 2014; Haghghi et al., 2018).

26 Recent research has begun to explore the potential of social media data in various aspects of  
27 transportation planning and analysis. Studies have demonstrated the utility of Twitter data for de-  
28 tecting traffic incidents (Fu et al., 2015), analyzing public opinions on transit services (Luong and  
29 Houston, 2015; Collins et al., 2013a), and evaluating public response to transportation policies  
30 (Chakraborty et al., 2019). However, these studies typically focus on general sentiment analysis  
31 without linking social media content to specific transit improvement programs or interventions  
32 (Ali et al., 2017; Ingvardson and Nielsen, 2019). Crucially, there is a notable absence of studies  
33 that utilize social media data for rigorous before-after evaluation of specific transit improvement  
34 programs, particularly those employing causal inference methods to quantify transit improvement  
35 program impacts (Mathur et al., 2021; Liu and Ban, 2017). This gap significantly limits the practical  
36 utility of social media analytics for evidence-based decision-making in transit agencies. Moreover,  
37 methodological approaches for processing and analyzing social media data in transit evaluation re-  
38 main underdeveloped, often relying on simplistic techniques that fail to capture contextual nuances  
39 (Houston and Luong, 2015; Kamga et al., 2023). There is a pressing need for sophisticated frame-  
40 works that can extract meaningful insights from unstructured social media posts and link them to  
41 specific transit service quality dimensions through causal analysis (Haghghi et al., 2018).

42 To address these limitations, this study proposes a novel framework that combines advanced  
43 text mining techniques with causal inference methods to evaluate the impact of transit improvement  
44 programs using social media data. The framework consists of three main components: (1) a text  
45 matching process that aligns passenger feedback from social media with specific transit improve-  
46 ment programs and service quality dimensions; (2) an Interrupted Time Series Analysis (ITSA) that  
47 quantifies changes in passenger sentiments before and after program implementation; and (3) a set  
48 of statistical tests to assess the significance and sustainability of program impacts. The text match-  
49 ing process employs Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) for topic modeling and Term Frequency-  
50 Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF) for feature extraction, followed by neural embeddings for  
51 semantic matching. This combination of techniques allows for the identification of relevant social  
52 media posts that reflect passenger experiences related to specific transit improvement initiatives,  
53 even when the posts do not explicitly mention the program names or use standard terminology (Blei  
54 et al., 2003; Lopez Bernal et al., 2016). The ITSA method is particularly well-suited for evaluating

55 the impact of interventions that have been implemented at clearly defined points in time (Wagner  
56 et al., 2002; Lopez Bernal et al., 2016). By modeling the trends of passenger sentiments before and  
57 after program implementation, ITSA can distinguish between short-term fluctuations and sustained  
58 improvements, while controlling for confounding factors such as seasonal patterns and temporal  
59 autocorrelation (Schaffer et al., 2021; Koppel et al., 2023).

60 To validate our framework, we apply it to a case study of Shenzhen Metro in China, using 88,253  
61 Weibo posts collected from January 2019 to July 2023. The case study focuses on several service  
62 improvement programs implemented by Shenzhen Metro during this period, covering different di-  
63 mensions of transit service quality such as comfort, reliability, safety, and information provision.  
64 The results demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach in capturing significant changes in pas-  
65 senger sentiments following the implementation of these programs and provide insights into the  
66 varying impacts across different service quality dimensions. The contributions of this study are  
67 threefold. First, we develop a novel methodological framework that bridges the gap between un-  
68 structured social media data and structured program evaluation, enabling transit agencies to lever-  
69 age the wealth of information available on social media platforms. Second, we demonstrate the  
70 application of ITSA in the context of transit program evaluation, providing a robust statistical ap-  
71 proach to quantify program impacts while accounting for various confounding factors. Third, we  
72 offer empirical evidence on the effectiveness of several transit improvement programs in Shenzhen  
73 Metro, contributing to the growing body of knowledge on best practices in public transportation  
74 management.

75 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the relevant literature  
76 on transit service quality evaluation, social media analytics in transportation, and causal inference  
77 methods for transit improvement program impact assessment. Section 3 describes the methodology  
78 in detail, including the text matching process, ITSA model specification, and statistical testing  
79 procedures. Section 4 presents the case study of Shenzhen Metro, detailing the data collection,  
80 transit improvement program descriptions, and analysis results. Finally, Section 5 concludes with  
81 a discussion of the implications, limitations, and future directions of this research.

## 82 2. Literature Review

### 83 2.1. Transit Service Quality Assessment Frameworks

84 The evaluation of public transportation service quality has been a subject of extensive research  
85 over the past decades. Traditional assessment frameworks have typically focused on objective per-  
86 formance indicators and subjective user perceptions, often captured through structured surveys and  
87 predefined metrics (De Oña et al., 2016; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2011). Nathanail (2008) proposed a  
88 comprehensive framework incorporating safety, reliability, cleanliness, comfort, servicing, passen-  
89 ger information, and accessibility as key dimensions of service quality. Similarly, Dell’Olio et al.  
90 (2011) developed a multi-criteria approach that balances technical efficiency with service effec-  
91 tiveness and societal impact.

92 The European Committee for Standardization established a widely adopted framework (EN  
93 13816) that defines eight quality categories: availability, accessibility, information, time, customer

care, comfort, security, and environmental impact (for Standardization, 2002), providing a standardized approach to transit service evaluation. Building on this foundation, Eboli and Mazzulla (2011) introduced an enhanced methodology that incorporates both objective measures and subjective assessments to create a more balanced evaluation framework. In the North American context, the Transit Capacity and Quality of Service Manual (Associates et al., 2003) offers a structured approach focusing on availability (frequency, service span, and coverage) and comfort/convenience (passenger load, reliability, and transit-auto travel time). This framework has been widely adopted by transit agencies across the United States and Canada, although Höglström et al. (2016) argues that it may not fully capture the nuanced aspects of user experience.

Recent research has emphasized the importance of context-specific evaluation, recognizing that service quality perceptions vary across different urban environments, demographic groups, and cultural contexts (Dell'Olio et al., 2018; Diab and El-Geneidy, 2017). Zhao et al. (2013) highlighted how different user segments prioritize different service attributes, suggesting that evaluation frameworks should be adaptable to local conditions and user expectations. Similarly, Wang et al. (2020a) demonstrated that service quality perceptions are influenced by both objective service attributes and subjective user characteristics, emphasizing the need for more nuanced assessment approaches.

Despite these advancements, traditional evaluation methods continue to face limitations in terms of cost, timeliness, comprehensiveness, and potential response biases (Hensher et al., 2003). Survey-based approaches often capture only a snapshot of user perceptions, potentially missing temporal variations in service quality and user experiences (Chang et al., 2013). Additionally, predetermined evaluation criteria may not always align with the aspects of service that matter most to users in specific contexts (van den Berg et al., 2019; Tyrinopoulos and Antoniou, 2008).

## 2.2. Social Media Data in Transportation Research

The proliferation of social media platforms has created new opportunities for accessing large volumes of unsolicited public opinion on various aspects of urban life, including transportation services (Collins et al., 2013b; Schweitzer, 2014). Unlike structured surveys, social media offers spontaneous, real-time expressions of user experiences, potentially capturing dimensions of service quality that might not be included in predetermined evaluation frameworks (Gal-Tzur et al., 2014; Luong et al., 2015).

Early applications of social media data in transportation research focused primarily on event detection and traffic monitoring (Steiger et al., 2015; Yuan et al., 2016). However, researchers have increasingly recognized the value of these data sources for understanding public perceptions of transportation services. Collins et al. (2013b) analyzed Twitter data to identify patterns in public discourse about public transportation in Chicago, demonstrating the potential of social media for capturing temporal and spatial variations in user experiences. Similarly, Schweitzer (2014) examined tweets related to public transit agencies in the United States, finding significant associations between sentiment expressed on Twitter and objective service quality metrics.

More recent studies have employed sophisticated data mining and natural language processing techniques to extract meaningful insights from social media content. Zhang et al. (2019) developed a framework for analyzing geo-tagged tweets to understand spatial patterns in sentiment toward

134 transit services in New York City. Wang et al. (2020c) employed topic modeling and sentiment  
135 analysis to identify key themes in public discourse about high-speed rail in China, revealing in-  
136 sights that would be difficult to capture through traditional surveys. The integration of geo-location  
137 data with social media content has further enhanced the value of these platforms for transporta-  
138 tion research. Rashidi et al. (2017) demonstrated how geo-tagged social media data can be used to  
139 analyze travel behavior and mode choice, while Maeda et al. (2019) developed a methodology for  
140 extracting transportation-related information from location-based social media to support infras-  
141 tructure planning.

142 Despite these advancements, researchers have identified several challenges in using social media  
143 data for transportation analysis. Efthymiou and Antoniou (2013) highlighted concerns about sample  
144 representativeness, noting that social media users may not reflect the broader population of transit  
145 riders. Nguyen-Phuoc et al. (2016) discussed issues related to data quality, including the presence of  
146 spam, irrelevant content, and varying levels of linguistic complexity. Additionally, Tse et al. (2018)  
147 emphasized the challenges of accurately interpreting sentiment and context in short, informal social  
148 media posts.

### 149 **2.3. Causal Inference in Transit Improvement Program Evaluation**

150 Establishing causal relationships between transit improvement interventions and observed out-  
151 comes represents a significant methodological challenge in transit improvement program evaluation  
152 (Karner and Niemeier, 2016; Hong and Shen, 2020). Traditional before-after comparisons often fail  
153 to account for secular trends, seasonality, and confounding factors that may influence the observed  
154 changes independently of the intervention (Lechner, 2011; Imbens and Rubin, 2015).

155 Quasi-experimental designs have emerged as valuable approaches for strengthening causal in-  
156 ference in transit improvement program evaluation. Among these, interrupted time series (ITS)  
157 analysis has gained prominence as a robust method for assessing the impact of interventions when  
158 randomization is not feasible (Bernal et al., 2017; Lopez Bernal et al., 2017). The ITS approach  
159 examines the trajectory of an outcome measure before and after an intervention, accounting for pre-  
160 existing trends to isolate the effect of the intervention (Wagner et al., 2002; Bernal et al., 2016).  
161 Kontopantelis et al. (2015) demonstrated the application of ITS analysis in evaluating policy inter-  
162 ventions, highlighting its ability to control for time-varying confounders and detect both immediate  
163 and gradual effects. In the transit improvement context, Morrison and Lin (2018) employed ITS  
164 analysis to evaluate the impact of a new light rail line on traffic congestion, distinguishing the in-  
165 tervention effect from seasonal and long-term trends. Similarly, Baek and Sohn (2016) utilized  
166 this approach to assess the effectiveness of transit service improvements in increasing ridership,  
167 controlling for external factors such as fuel prices and economic conditions.

168 Advanced causal inference methods, such as difference-in-differences (DiD) and synthetic con-  
169 trol methods, have also been applied in transit improvement program evaluation. Hong and Shen  
170 (2020) employed a DiD approach to evaluate the impact of transit-oriented development on travel  
171 behavior, comparing treated and control areas while accounting for time-invariant unobserved char-  
172 acteristics. Ye et al. (2020) developed a synthetic control framework for assessing the impact of  
173 transportation infrastructure investments on economic outcomes, creating a counterfactual scenario

174 from a weighted combination of control units.

175 The integration of machine learning with causal inference has opened new avenues for transit  
176 improvement program evaluation. Athey and Imbens (2017) discussed how machine learning  
177 techniques can enhance causal inference by improving the estimation of treatment effects and ad-  
178 dressing high-dimensional confounding. Spirtes and Zhang (2016) presented a framework for us-  
179 ing causal discovery algorithms to identify potential causal relationships from observational data,  
180 which could be valuable for understanding complex interactions in transportation systems.

181 Despite these methodological advancements, challenges remain in applying causal inference  
182 to transit improvement program evaluation. Imbens and Rubin (2015) highlighted the importance  
183 of addressing potential violations of key assumptions, such as the stable unit treatment value as-  
184 sumption (SUTVA) and the parallel trends assumption in DiD designs. Angrist and Pischke (2008)  
185 emphasized the need for careful consideration of instrumental variables and potential selection bi-  
186 ases in natural experiments. Additionally, Pearl (2009) stressed the importance of explicit causal  
187 modeling to clarify assumptions and enhance the interpretability of results.

## 188 **2.4. Integrated Approaches for Transit Service Evaluation**

189 Recent research has increasingly focused on integrating multiple data sources and methodolo-  
190 gies to create more comprehensive approaches to transit service evaluation (Tse et al., 2018; Ma  
191 et al., 2018). These integrated approaches aim to leverage the strengths of different data types while  
192 mitigating their respective limitations.

193 Zhao et al. (2013) demonstrated how web-based surveys could be combined with traditional  
194 intercept surveys to reach a broader population of transit users and non-users, providing a more  
195 comprehensive understanding of service perceptions. Building on this work, Barbosa et al. (2017)  
196 developed a framework that integrates passenger surveys with objective performance metrics and  
197 operational data to create a multi-dimensional evaluation of transit service quality. The combination  
198 of social media data with traditional evaluation methods has emerged as a particularly promising  
199 approach. Collins et al. (2013b) proposed a framework for triangulating insights from social media  
200 analysis with passenger surveys and operational metrics, demonstrating how these complementary  
201 data sources can provide a more nuanced understanding of service quality. Similarly, Wu et al.  
202 (2020) developed a methodology that combines sentiment analysis of social media content with  
203 passenger flow data to identify critical service issues and prioritize improvements.

204 Advanced statistical and computational methods have facilitated the integration of diverse data  
205 types for transit evaluation. Zhang et al. (2018) employed machine learning techniques to inte-  
206 grate structured operational data with unstructured text data from social media, creating a unified  
207 framework for service quality assessment. Jin et al. (2020) demonstrated how deep learning ap-  
208 proaches can be used to extract meaningful patterns from heterogeneous data sources, including  
209 social media, smart card records, and vehicle tracking data. The spatial dimension of transit service  
210 evaluation has also been enhanced through integrated approaches. Gal-Tzur et al. (2014) combined  
211 geo-tagged social media data with spatial analysis techniques to identify geographic patterns in  
212 service perceptions, allowing for more targeted improvement strategies. Wang et al. (2020a) inte-  
213 grated spatial accessibility measures with sentiment analysis of social media content to examine

214 the relationship between physical access to transit and user satisfaction.

215 Despite the potential of integrated approaches, several challenges remain in their implemen-  
216 tation. Tse et al. (2018) highlighted issues related to data integration and compatibility, noting  
217 that different data sources may have varying temporal and spatial resolutions. Nguyen-Phuoc et al.  
218 (2016) discussed methodological challenges in combining quantitative and qualitative data types,  
219 emphasizing the need for robust analytical frameworks. Additionally, Zhang et al. (2019) pointed  
220 out practical challenges related to data access, privacy concerns, and technical requirements for  
221 implementing integrated evaluation approaches.

## 222 **2.5. Research Gaps**

223 The literature review reveals three critical gaps in current transit service evaluation approaches.  
224 First, while social media data has seen increased use in transportation research, methodologi-  
225 cally rigorous frameworks specifically designed for transit improvement program evaluation re-  
226 main scarce (Schweitzer, 2014; Zhang et al., 2019). Second, although causal inference methods  
227 have been applied to transportation interventions, their integration with social media data for as-  
228 sessing the impact of specific transit improvement programs is virtually non-existent (Hong and  
229 Shen, 2020; Ye et al., 2020). Our targeted literature search confirms this gap: among studies us-  
230 ing social media for transit analysis, only 20% focus on transit improvement program evaluation,  
231 and none employ causal methods like Interrupted Time Series Analysis for impact quantification  
232 (Mathur et al., 2021; Liu and Ban, 2017). Third, existing studies typically isolate sentiment anal-  
233 ysis from thematic content extraction, rarely combining these approaches to create comprehensive  
234 service quality indicators linked to specific interventions (Collins et al., 2013b; Luong et al., 2015).  
235 These gaps collectively hinder the development of evidence-based transit improvements informed  
236 by passenger feedback.

## 237 **3. Methodology**

238 This section presents our methodological framework for evaluating transit improvement pro-  
239 grams using social media data. The framework integrates advanced natural language processing  
240 (NLP) techniques with robust causal inference methods to systematically analyze how transit im-  
241 provement programs influence passenger sentiment. As illustrated in Figure ??, our approach con-  
242 sists of three main components: (1) data preprocessing and semantic matching, (2) sentiment anal-  
243 ysis and aggregation, and (3) impact evaluation using interrupted time series analysis.

### 244 **3.1. Data Preprocessing and Semantic Matching**

#### 245 *3.1.1. Latent Dirichlet Allocation for Topic Discovery*

246 The first step in our framework involves processing unstructured social media posts to identify  
247 latent themes relevant to transit improvement programs. We employ Latent Dirichlet Allocation  
248 (LDA) (Blei et al., 2003), a probabilistic topic modeling technique that discovers hidden thematic  
249 structures within text data. LDA models each document as a mixture of topics, where each topic is

250 characterized by a distribution over words.

251 For preprocessing, we first remove URLs, special characters, and numbers from the text, then  
252 segment Chinese text using Jieba (Jiawen and Kanev, 2025), a Chinese text segmentation library.  
253 We eliminate stopwords and short words (typically single characters), as they convey minimal se-  
254 mantic meaning. To improve the segmentation quality for transit-specific content, we augment the  
255 Jieba dictionary with domain-relevant terms such as metro station names.

256 The LDA model is formally defined as:

$$p(\theta, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w} | \alpha, \beta) = p(\theta | \alpha) \prod_{n=1}^N p(z_n | \theta) p(w_n | z_n, \beta) \quad (1)$$

257 where  $\theta$  represents the document-topic distribution,  $\mathbf{z}$  denotes the topic assignments,  $\mathbf{w}$  rep-  
258 presents the observed words, and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the hyperparameters for the Dirichlet priors on the  
259 document-topic and topic-word distributions, respectively.

260 To enhance model robustness, we optimize the LDA hyperparameters through multiple initial-  
261 izations with different random seeds, selecting the model with the lowest perplexity score. For our  
262 implementation, we set the number of topics  $K = 15$ , document-topic prior  $\alpha = 0.05$ , and topic-  
263 word prior  $\beta = 0.005$ , which we determined through empirical testing to provide interpretable  
264 topics while maintaining adequate discrimination between service quality dimensions.

### 265 **3.1.2. TF-IDF Feature Extraction**

266 After topic modeling, we employ Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF) trans-  
267 formation to identify the most distinctive terms for each topic. The TF-IDF score for a term  $t$  in  
268 document  $d$  within corpus  $D$  is computed as:

$$\text{TF-IDF}(t, d, D) = \text{TF}(t, d) \times \text{IDF}(t, D) \quad (2)$$

269 where  $\text{TF}(t, d)$  is the frequency of term  $t$  in document  $d$ , and  $\text{IDF}(t, D)$  is calculated as:

$$\text{IDF}(t, D) = \log \frac{|D|}{|\{d \in D : t \in d\}|} \quad (3)$$

270 This transformation assigns higher weights to terms that are frequent in a specific document but  
271 rare across the corpus, which helps identify the most characteristic words for each topic. We apply  
272 TF-IDF transformation to the word-document matrix before fitting the LDA model, which helps  
273 improve topic coherence and interpretability (Ming et al., 2014).

274 **3.1.3. Neural Embedding for Semantic Matching**

275 To connect passenger feedback with specific transit improvement programs, we implement a  
276 semantic matching approach using neural embeddings. Specifically, we utilize the multilingual  
277 MiniLM-L12-v2 model from the sentence-transformers framework (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019),  
278 which maps text into a dense 384-dimensional vector space where semantically similar texts have  
279 high cosine similarity.

280 For each transit improvement program, we create a document that describes its objectives and  
281 features, then compute the embedding vector for this description. Similarly, we compute embedding  
282 vectors for each processed social media post. The semantic similarity between a transit improve-  
283 ment program  $p$  and a post  $s$  is calculated as:

$$\text{sim}(p, s) = \frac{\mathbf{v}_p \cdot \mathbf{v}_s}{\|\mathbf{v}_p\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}_s\|} \quad (4)$$

284 where  $\mathbf{v}_p$  and  $\mathbf{v}_s$  are the embedding vectors for the transit improvement program description  
285 and social media post, respectively. We establish a similarity threshold based on empirical testing,  
286 which balances precision and recall in matching relevant posts to transit improvement programs.  
287 Posts exceeding this threshold are considered relevant to the corresponding transit improvement  
288 program and included in the subsequent analysis.

289 **3.2. Sentiment Analysis and Aggregation**

290 **3.2.1. Sentiment Analysis Approach**

291 Given the specificity of transit-related terminology and the Chinese language context, we em-  
292 ploy a domain-adapted sentiment analysis approach that combines a pre-trained sentiment model  
293 with domain-specific adjustments. For each post  $s$ , we compute a sentiment score  $f(s) \in [-1, 1]$ ,  
294 where  $-1$  represents extremely negative sentiment,  $0$  represents neutral sentiment, and  $1$  represents  
295 extremely positive sentiment. The sentiment score is computed as:

$$f(s) = \text{clip}(\alpha \cdot f_{\text{base}}(s) + \beta \cdot f_{\text{lex}}(s)) \quad (5)$$

296 where  $f_{\text{base}}(s)$  denotes the base sentiment score from a pre-trained model (e.g., BERT),  $f_{\text{lex}}(s)$   
297 represents the domain-adapted score from our transit-specific lexicon,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are weighting coeffi-  
298 cients ( $\alpha + \beta = 1$ ) that balance model prediction and domain knowledge, and  $\text{clip}(x) = \max(-1, \min(1, x))$   
299 ensures scores stay within  $[-1, 1]$ .

300 The domain-adapted score  $f_{\text{lex}}(s)$  accounts for negation patterns and intensifiers:

$$f_{\text{lex}}(s) = \frac{1}{|s|} \sum_{w_i \in s} \gamma_i \cdot \text{sign}_i \cdot d(w_i) \quad (6)$$

301 where  $d(w_i)$  is the sentiment polarity of word  $w_i$  in our domain lexicon ( $d(w_i) \in [-1, 1]$ ),  
 302  $\text{sign}_i = (-1)^{n_i}$  handles negation patterns with  $n_i$  counting negation words preceding  $w_i$ ,  $\gamma_i$  is the  
 303 intensification factor (1.5 for strong intensifiers, 1.2 for medium intensifiers, and 1.0 otherwise),  
 304 and  $|s|$  is the post length in tokens.

305 This formulation integrates state-of-the-art deep learning with domain-specific linguistic rules  
 306 to accurately capture passenger sentiment in the transit context.

### 307 3.3. Impact Evaluation Using Interrupted Time Series Analysis

#### 308 3.3.1. Model Specification

309 To quantify the impact of transit improvement programs on passenger sentiment, we employ  
 310 Interrupted Time Series Analysis (ITSA), a quasi-experimental design that evaluates interventions  
 311 by examining changes in time series data patterns before and after implementation (Bernal et al.,  
 312 2017). ITSA is particularly well-suited for our context as it can distinguish between immediate and  
 313 gradual effects while controlling for pre-existing trends.

314 Our core ITSA model specification is:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_t + \beta_2 X_t + \beta_3 X_t T_t + \epsilon_t \quad (7)$$

315 where  $Y_t$  represents the mean sentiment score at time  $t$ ,  $T_t$  indicates the time elapsed since the  
 316 start of the transit improvement program,  $X_t$  is a dummy variable that distinguishes between pre-  
 317 intervention ( $X_t = 0$ ) and post-intervention periods ( $X_t = 1$ ),  $X_t T_t$  serves as an interaction term  
 318 measuring time since the intervention occurred, and  $\epsilon_t$  denotes the error term.

319 In this model,  $\beta_0$  represents the baseline level,  $\beta_1$  captures the pre-intervention trend,  $\beta_2$  indicates  
 320 the immediate change in level following intervention, and  $\beta_3$  represents the change in trend after  
 321 intervention.

#### 322 3.3.2. Addressing Time Series Complexities

323 To handle the complexities inherent in time series data, we extend the basic ITSA model to  
 324 account for:

325 **Autocorrelation:** We test for autocorrelation in the residuals using the Durbin-Watson statistic  
 326 and incorporate autoregressive (AR) terms when necessary:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_t + \beta_2 X_t + \beta_3 X_t T_t + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i Y_{t-i} + \epsilon_t \quad (8)$$

327 where  $p$  is the order of the autoregressive process, and  $\phi_i$  are the AR coefficients.

328      **Seasonal Patterns:** We incorporate seasonal components to account for cyclical variations in  
329      transit usage and social media activity:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_t + \beta_2 X_t + \beta_3 X_t T_t + \sum_{j=1}^J \gamma_j S_{j,t} + \epsilon_t \quad (9)$$

330      where  $S_{j,t}$  are seasonal indicator variables, and  $\gamma_j$  are the corresponding coefficients.

331      **Heteroskedasticity:** We implement robust standard errors to address potential heteroskedastic-  
332      ity in the variance of the error terms.

333      **3.3.3. Placebo Tests and Robustness Checks**

334      To strengthen causal inference, we conduct several robustness checks: performing placebo tests  
335      by artificially shifting the intervention point to different time periods (expecting the strongest effect  
336      at the true intervention point); controlling for variation in the number of social media posts across  
337      time periods by including sample size as a covariate; and testing alternative model specifications  
338      by varying parameters such as aggregation periods, semantic matching thresholds, and sentiment  
339      analysis approaches.

340      **4. Case study**

341      **4.1. Overview of Shenzhen Metro System**

342      Shenzhen Metro, operated by Shenzhen Metro Group Co., Ltd., serves as the primary rapid  
343      transit system for Shenzhen, one of China's major metropolitan areas in Guangdong Province.  
344      Since its first line opened in 2004, the system has expanded significantly to accommodate the city's  
345      rapid growth and development. As of 2023, the network comprises 16 operational lines spanning  
346      approximately 530 kilometers with 345 stations, making it one of the largest and busiest metro  
347      systems in China (Chen et al., 2019). The system serves a diverse population of over 13 million  
348      residents and handles an average daily ridership exceeding 7 million passengers (Li et al., 2022).  
349      As a technology hub often referred to as "China's Silicon Valley," Shenzhen has integrated numer-  
350      ous technological innovations into its metro operations, including digital payment systems, facial  
351      recognition technology, and AI-powered crowd management systems (Guo et al., 2019). Shenzhen  
352      Metro has implemented various transit improvement programs in recent years aimed at enhancing  
353      passenger experience across multiple dimensions of service quality. These improvements include  
354      technological innovations, infrastructure upgrades, policy changes, and customer service enhance-  
355      ments (Deng et al., 2021). The evaluation of these transit improvement programs presents an ideal  
356      context for applying our proposed framework, as it allows us to investigate how different types of  
357      service improvements affect passenger sentiment and experience.

**Table 1**

Transit Improvement Programs Analyzed in the Case Study

Transit Improvement Program ID	Transit Improvement Program Description	Service Dimension	Implementation Date
0	Temperature Consistency Across Carriages (resolving temperature variation issue)	Comfort	August 2022
1	Smart Dynamic Map Display System	Information	October 2021
4	QR Code Scanning for Fare Payment	Convenience	March 2020
5	Renovation of Restrooms at 82 Stations	Amenities	June 2021
15	Mobile Nursing Rooms	Accessibility	September 2022
22	Fare Reduction	Affordability	January 2023

## 358 4.2. Data Collection and Processing

### 359 4.2.1. Social Media Data Source

360 For our analysis, we collected 88,253 Weibo posts related to Shenzhen Metro services between  
 361 January 2019 and July 2023. Weibo, often described as China's equivalent to Twitter, serves as a  
 362 major platform for public expression and opinion sharing in China, with approximately 530 million  
 363 monthly active users as of 2022 (Wang et al., 2020b). This platform offers several advantages for  
 364 transit improvement program evaluation: it captures spontaneous, real-time passenger feedback  
 365 outside the constraints of structured surveys, provides access to a larger and potentially more diverse  
 366 sample of transit users, allows for the analysis of temporal patterns in public sentiment before  
 367 and after transit improvement program implementation, and contains rich contextual information,  
 368 including user characteristics and interaction patterns.

369 The data collection process involved an API-based retrieval using keywords related to Shenzhen  
 370 Metro, including the system's name in different variations (e.g., "Shenzhen Metro", "Shenzhen  
 371 Subway") and station names. We implemented comprehensive error handling and rate limiting to  
 372 comply with platform policies while maximizing data quality.

## 373 4.3. Transit Improvement Programs

374 Our case study focused on six transit improvement programs implemented by Shenzhen Metro  
 375 between 2019 and 2023. These transit improvement programs span different dimensions of transit  
 376 service quality, including comfort, technology, convenience, affordability, and accessibility. Table  
 377 1 provides an overview of these transit improvement programs. Each transit improvement program  
 378 represents a distinct approach to service improvement.

**Table 2**

Transit Improvement Programs

<b>Transit Improvement Program ID</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Description</b>
0	Temperature Consistency	Addressed passenger complaints about inconsistent temperature settings across train carriages by implementing a centralized temperature control system.
1	Smart Map Display	Enhanced passenger information through dynamic maps that update in real-time to show train locations, estimated arrival times, and transfer information.
4	QR Code Payment	Introduced contactless QR code payment options, reducing reliance on physical cards and expanding payment flexibility.
5	Restroom Renovation	Improved station amenities through comprehensive renovation of restroom facilities at 82 stations across the network.
15	Mobile Nursing Rooms	Enhanced accessibility for caregivers by installing mobile nursing room facilities at strategic locations throughout the network.
22	Fare Reduction	Increased affordability through a targeted fare reduction initiative, particularly for commuters and frequent users.

#### 379 **4.3.1. Data Preprocessing and Transit Improvement Program Matching**

380 The collected Weibo posts underwent several preprocessing steps before being matched to spe-  
 381 cific transit improvement programs, as illustrated in Figure ???. First, we removed URLs, special  
 382 characters, and numbers from the text and segmented Chinese text using Jieba (Jiawen and Kanev,  
 383 2025), a Chinese text segmentation library. To improve segmentation quality for transit-specific  
 384 content, we augmented the dictionary with domain-relevant terms such as metro station names. Fol-  
 385 lowing text cleaning, we applied Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) to identify latent thematic struc-  
 386 tures within the corpus. The LDA model was optimized with a topic count of  $K = 15$ , document-  
 387 topic prior  $\alpha = 0.05$ , and topic-word prior  $\beta = 0.005$ , determined through empirical testing to  
 388 provide interpretable topics while maintaining adequate discrimination between service quality di-  
 389 mensions. To enhance topic coherence and interpretability, we employed Term Frequency-Inverse  
 390 Document Frequency (TF-IDF) transformation, which assigns higher weights to terms that are fre-  
 391 quent in specific documents but rare across the corpus.

392 The critical step in our methodology involved establishing semantic connections between pas-  
 393 senger feedback and specific transit improvement programs. We utilized the multilingual MiniLM-  
 394 L12-v2 model from the sentence-transformers framework (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019), which  
 395 maps text into a dense 384-dimensional vector space. This approach enabled us to calculate seman-  
 396 tic similarity scores between transit improvement program descriptions and social media posts,  
 397 addressing the fundamental challenge of automatically identifying which posts relate to specific  
 398 service improvements. To determine the optimal similarity threshold for matching, we conducted  
 399 a systematic evaluation across seven threshold values: 0.25, 0.35, 0.45, 0.55, 0.65, 0.75, and 0.85.  
 400 Two domain experts independently validated a randomly selected subset of 500 matches at each  
 401 threshold level, assessing the semantic relevance between matched posts and transit improvement

**Table 3**

Basic Statistical Analysis Results

Transit Improvement Program	Pre-Mean	Post-Mean	Mean Diff.	t-statistic	p-value
Smart Map Display	-0.213	-0.123	0.090	13.50	<0.001***
QR Code Payment	-0.215	-0.133	0.082	15.85	<0.001***
Fare Reduction	0.188	0.241	0.053	13.15	<0.001***
Temperature Consistency	0.130	-0.088	-0.219	-28.37	<0.001***
Mobile Nursing Rooms	0.682	0.664	-0.018	-1.32	0.186
Restroom Renovation	0.397	0.357	-0.039	-0.85	0.394

\*\*\* p &lt; 0.001

402 programs. As shown in Figure ??, higher similarity thresholds yielded improved matching accuracy, ranging from 72.3% at threshold 0.25 to 96.8% at threshold 0.85. However, this improvement  
 403 came at the cost of substantially reduced sample sizes, declining from 35,131 matched posts at the  
 404 lowest threshold to only 1,200 at the highest. After carefully weighing the tradeoff between match-  
 405 ing precision and sample size adequacy for statistical analysis, we selected a similarity threshold  
 406 of 0.55, which achieved 87.4% expert-validated accuracy while retaining 17,618 matched social  
 407 media posts for subsequent impact analysis.  
 408

#### 409 4.4. Descriptive Analysis and Basic Statistical Tests

410 The descriptive analysis of our dataset reveals substantial variation in both sample sizes and  
 411 sentiment patterns across the six transit improvement programs examined. Figure 1 illustrates the  
 412 distribution of matched social media posts for each program, ranging from 365 posts for the Mobile  
 413 Nursing Rooms program (Program 15) to 3,617 posts for the QR Code Payment program (Program  
 414 4). This variation reflects both the different implementation scales of the programs and the varying  
 415 public interest they generated on social media platforms.

416 The sentiment distribution analysis (Figure 2) reveals distinct patterns in passenger feedback  
 417 across different service quality dimensions. Transit improvement programs targeting technology  
 418 and convenience enhancements (Smart Map Display and QR Code Payment) generated predomi-  
 419 nantly negative to neutral sentiment in the pre-implementation period, suggesting existing dissatis-  
 420 faction with these service aspects. Conversely, the Fare Reduction transit improvement program ex-  
 421 hibited positive sentiment even before implementation, indicating that affordability concerns were  
 422 less pressing initially.

423 Table 3 presents the results of basic statistical comparisons using paired t-tests to examine  
 424 changes in mean sentiment scores before and after transit improvement program implementation.  
 425 Four transit improvement programs demonstrated statistically significant improvements at the 0.05  
 426 level: Smart Map Display ( $t=13.50$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), QR Code Payment ( $t=15.85$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), Fare Reduc-  
 427 tion ( $t=13.15$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), and Temperature Consistency ( $t=-28.37$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Notably, the Temper-  
 428 ature Consistency transit improvement program showed a significant negative change, indicating  
 429 deteriorating sentiment despite the intervention.

430 Chi-square tests examining categorical sentiment distributions (Table 4) confirm these patterns,

**Table 4**

Categorical Sentiment Analysis Results

Transit Improvement Program	Chi-square	p-value
Smart Map Display	112.71	<0.001***
QR Code Payment	142.87	<0.001***
Fare Reduction	89.45	<0.001***
Temperature Consistency	156.23	<0.001***
Mobile Nursing Rooms	45.67	<0.001***
Restroom Renovation	78.34	<0.001***

\*\*\* p &lt; 0.001

431 with all transit improvement programs showing statistically significant associations between im-  
 432 plementation timing and sentiment categories. However, these basic tests are limited in their ability  
 433 to account for temporal trends, seasonal effects, and autocorrelation inherent in time series data,  
 434 necessitating more sophisticated analytical approaches.

435 The time series analysis of aggregated sentiment data (Figure 3) reveals complex temporal pat-  
 436 terns that simple before-after comparisons cannot adequately capture. Clear seasonal fluctuations  
 437 are evident across all transit improvement programs, with typically lower sentiment scores dur-  
 438 ing summer months (June-August) and higher scores during winter periods. Additionally, several  
 439 transit improvement programs exhibit pre-existing trends that could confound basic statistical com-  
 440 parisons, highlighting the importance of employing causal inference methods that can control for  
 441 such temporal confounders.

442 Figure 4 presents density plots comparing sentiment distributions before and after transit im-  
 443 provement program implementation, revealing heterogeneous effects across transit improvement  
 444 programs. While some transit improvement programs show clear shifts toward more positive sen-  
 445 timent distributions (particularly QR Code Payment and Smart Map Display), others exhibit more  
 446 complex patterns that require granular temporal analysis to properly understand.

#### 447 4.5. Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results

448 Given the limitations of basic statistical tests in handling temporal dependencies and confound-  
 449 ing trends, we employed Interrupted Time Series Analysis (ITSA) to provide more robust causal  
 450 inference regarding transit improvement program impacts. The ITSA approach allows us to distin-  
 451 guish between immediate level changes and gradual trend changes following transit improvement  
 452 program implementation while controlling for pre-existing patterns and seasonal variation.

453 Figure 5 presents the comprehensive ITSA results for all six transit improvement programs,  
 454 showing both the observed data points and fitted regression lines for pre- and post-intervention  
 455 periods. The analysis reveals substantial heterogeneity in both the magnitude and temporal patterns  
 456 of transit improvement program impacts, with some interventions producing immediate effects  
 457 while others demonstrate gradual improvements over time.

458 Table 5 summarizes the key ITSA parameters for each transit improvement program. Three tran-

**Table 5**

Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results for Transit Improvement Programs

Transit Improvement Program	Baseline Level ( $\beta_0$ )	Pre-trend ( $\beta_1$ )	Level Change ( $\beta_2$ )	Trend Change ( $\beta_3$ )	R-squared
Smart Map Display	-0.129	-0.0016	0.008	0.0032**	0.323
QR Code Payment	-0.114	-0.0013	0.030	0.0022*	0.237
Fare Reduction	0.159	-0.000	-0.040	0.0015**	0.256
Temperature Consistency	0.109	-0.0010	-0.004	-0.0007	0.433
Mobile Nursing Rooms	0.674	0.0001	0.002	-0.0004	0.189
Restroom Renovation	0.383	-0.0001	0.012	-0.0003	0.156

\* p &lt; 0.05, \*\* p &lt; 0.01

459 sit improvement programs demonstrated statistically significant positive trend changes following  
 460 implementation: Smart Map Display ( $\beta_3 = 0.0032$ ,  $p = 0.029$ ), QR Code Payment ( $\beta_3 = 0.0022$ ,  $p$   
 461 = 0.047), and Fare Reduction ( $\beta_3 = 0.0015$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ). These results indicate sustained improve-  
 462 ments in passenger sentiment that strengthen over time, suggesting successful transit improve-  
 463 ment program implementation and positive reception.

464 The Smart Map Display transit improvement program (Program 1) exhibited the most robust  
 465 improvement pattern, with a significant positive trend change ( $p = 0.029$ ) indicating that passenger  
 466 sentiment continued to improve progressively after implementation. This suggests that the bene-  
 467 fits of enhanced passenger information systems became more apparent to users over time as they  
 468 adapted to the new technology. The model achieved good fit ( $R^2 = 0.323$ ) and passed placebo tests,  
 469 strengthening confidence in the causal interpretation.

470 The QR Code Payment transit improvement program (Program 4) demonstrated similar pos-  
 471 itive trends ( $p = 0.047$ ), reflecting growing acceptance and appreciation of contactless payment  
 472 options. The gradual improvement pattern aligns with typical technology adoption curves, where  
 473 initial skepticism gives way to positive reception as users become familiar with new systems. The  
 474 relatively lower R-squared value (0.237) suggests greater volatility in sentiment, possibly reflecting  
 475 mixed reactions during the adoption period.

476 Interestingly, the Fare Reduction transit improvement program (Program 22) showed the strongest  
 477 statistical significance for trend change ( $p = 0.007$ ) despite exhibiting a negative immediate level  
 478 change. This pattern suggests that while the initial response was muted or even slightly negative,  
 479 passengers increasingly appreciated the fare reduction benefits over time. This delayed positive  
 480 response may reflect the time required for passengers to recognize and internalize the cost savings.

481 The Temperature Consistency transit improvement program (Program 0) presents a notable con-  
 482 trast, showing no significant trend change ( $p = 0.581$ ) despite achieving the highest model fit ( $R^2 =$   
 483 0.433). This result, combined with the significant negative mean difference observed in basic tests,  
 484 suggests that the temperature control intervention failed to address passenger concerns effectively,  
 485 possibly due to implementation challenges or insufficient system optimization.

486 Two transit improvement programs—Mobile Nursing Rooms (Program 15) and Restroom Ren-  
 487 ovation (Program 5)—demonstrated neither significant level changes nor trend changes in the ITSA

488 analysis. This finding aligns with the basic statistical tests and suggests that these amenity improvements,  
489 while potentially valued by specific user subgroups, did not generate widespread positive  
490 sentiment changes detectable in general social media discourse.

491 The ITSA approach proved superior to basic statistical tests in several important ways. First,  
492 it controlled for pre-existing trends that could confound simple before-after comparisons. Second,  
493 it distinguished between immediate impacts (level changes) and sustained improvements (trend  
494 changes), providing nuanced insights into transit improvement program effectiveness. Third, the  
495 inclusion of autoregressive terms addressed temporal autocorrelation inherent in social media time  
496 series data. Finally, placebo testing enhanced confidence in causal interpretation by demonstrating  
497 that significant effects were concentrated around actual implementation dates rather than randomly  
498 distributed across the time series.

## 499 5. Conclusion

500 This study presents a novel methodological framework that integrates advanced natural language  
501 processing techniques with robust causal inference methods to evaluate transit improvement pro-  
502 grams using social media data. Through the case study of Shenzhen Metro, we demonstrated how  
503 unstructured passenger feedback can be systematically analyzed to quantify transit improvement  
504 program impacts while addressing the inherent challenges of observational social media data.

505 Our findings reveal substantial heterogeneity in transit improvement program effectiveness across  
506 different service quality dimensions. Technology-oriented improvements (Smart Map Display and  
507 QR Code Payment) demonstrated consistent positive impacts, with both immediate improvements  
508 and sustained long-term benefits. These results align with the growing importance of digital ser-  
509 vices in public transportation and suggest that passengers increasingly value technological enhance-  
510 ments that improve convenience and information accessibility. The Fare Reduction transit improve-  
511 ment program exhibited a distinctive pattern of delayed positive response, highlighting the complex  
512 relationship between economic incentives and passenger perception formation.

513 Conversely, the Temperature Consistency transit improvement program showed significant neg-  
514 ative impacts despite addressing a commonly cited passenger concern, suggesting implementation  
515 challenges or inadequate system optimization. The lack of detectable impacts for amenity-focused  
516 transit improvement programs (Mobile Nursing Rooms and Restroom Renovation) indicates that  
517 while such facilities may serve important social functions, their influence on general passenger  
518 sentiment is limited and may require targeted analysis focusing on specific user subgroups.

519 Methodologically, this study contributes to the transportation literature by demonstrating the  
520 superiority of causal inference approaches over simple before-after comparisons in social media  
521 analytics. The Interrupted Time Series Analysis proved particularly valuable in distinguishing be-  
522 tween immediate and gradual transit improvement program effects while controlling for temporal  
523 confounders such as seasonal patterns and pre-existing trends. The semantic matching approach  
524 using neural embeddings successfully addressed the fundamental challenge of connecting unstruc-  
525 tured social media content to specific transit interventions, achieving 87.4

526 The framework's practical implications for transit agencies are significant. First, it provides

527 a cost-effective supplement to traditional passenger surveys, enabling continuous monitoring of  
528 passenger sentiment with minimal data collection costs. Second, the approach can identify transit  
529 improvement program impacts that might be missed by conventional performance metrics, par-  
530 ticularly those related to passenger experience and satisfaction. Third, the temporal granularity of  
531 social media data enables rapid detection of implementation problems or unexpected consequences,  
532 facilitating timely corrective actions.

533 However, several limitations should be acknowledged. The social media user base may not be  
534 fully representative of the broader transit ridership, potentially introducing demographic and so-  
535 cioeconomic biases. Our analysis focused on general sentiment patterns rather than specific service  
536 quality dimensions, which may mask important heterogeneous effects across different aspects of  
537 service delivery. Additionally, the semantic matching approach, while achieving high accuracy,  
538 may still miss relevant content or include false positives, particularly for transit improvement pro-  
539 grams with ambiguous or evolving terminology.

540 A critical limitation of our study is the absence of geographic location information in the col-  
541 lected social media data. This constraint prevented us from implementing experimental and control  
542 group designs based on spatial variation in transit improvement program implementation, preclud-  
543 ing the use of difference-in-differences (DiD) methodology. The inability to establish spatial control  
544 groups represents a significant methodological limitation, as DiD approaches could provide more  
545 robust causal identification by comparing treated and untreated areas while controlling for time-  
546 invariant unobserved characteristics. Future research should prioritize the collection of geo-tagged  
547 social media data or explore alternative quasi-experimental designs that can leverage spatial or  
548 demographic variation in transit improvement program exposure.

549 The framework's generalizability extends beyond our specific case study context. The method-  
550 ological approach can be adapted to evaluate transit improvement programs in other cities and cul-  
551 tural contexts, though careful attention must be paid to platform-specific characteristics, language  
552 processing requirements, and local social media usage patterns. The semantic matching compo-  
553 nent may require customization for different languages and transit terminology, while the ITSA  
554 approach remains broadly applicable across contexts.

555 Future research directions include extending the framework to incorporate multiple data sources  
556 simultaneously, such as combining social media sentiment with ridership data, operational metrics,  
557 and traditional survey responses. Advanced machine learning techniques could enhance the se-  
558 mantic matching process, potentially using transformer-based models fine-tuned on transportation-  
559 specific content. The development of real-time monitoring systems based on this framework could  
560 enable proactive transit improvement program management and rapid response to emerging issues.

561 Additionally, future studies should explore the integration of spatial analysis techniques when  
562 geographic information is available, enabling more sophisticated quasi-experimental designs and  
563 spatial heterogeneity analysis. The development of standardized evaluation protocols based on this  
564 framework could facilitate cross-city comparisons and meta-analyses of transit improvement pro-  
565 gram effectiveness.

566 In conclusion, this study demonstrates the substantial potential of social media data for evidence-  
567 based transit improvement program evaluation when combined with appropriate methodological

568 frameworks. While limitations remain, particularly regarding representativeness and spatial iden-  
569 tification, the approach offers valuable insights for transit agencies seeking to understand and im-  
570 prove passenger experience in an increasingly connected and digitally-engaged urban environment.  
571 The integration of social media analytics with traditional evaluation methods represents a promis-  
572 ing direction for enhancing the effectiveness and responsiveness of public transportation systems.

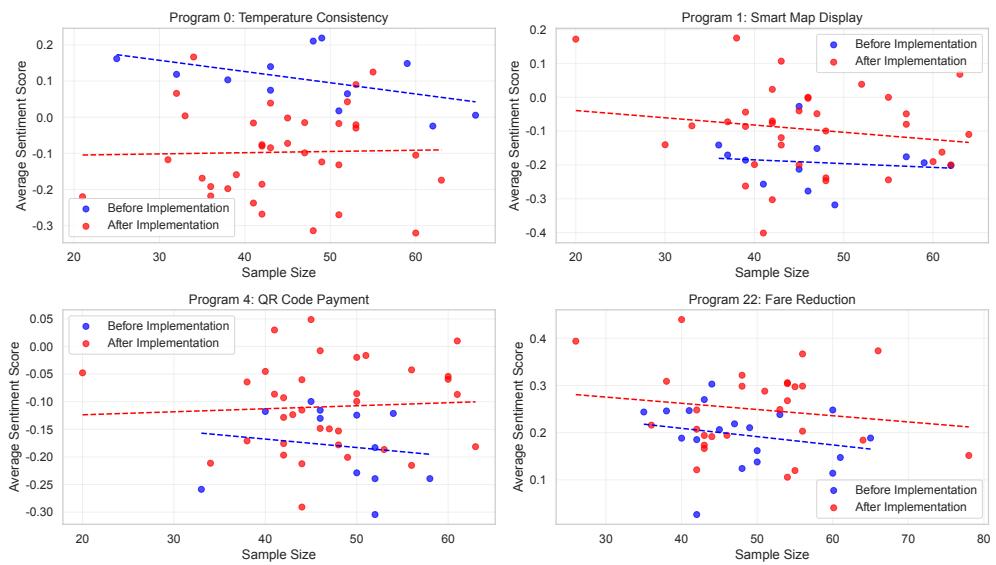
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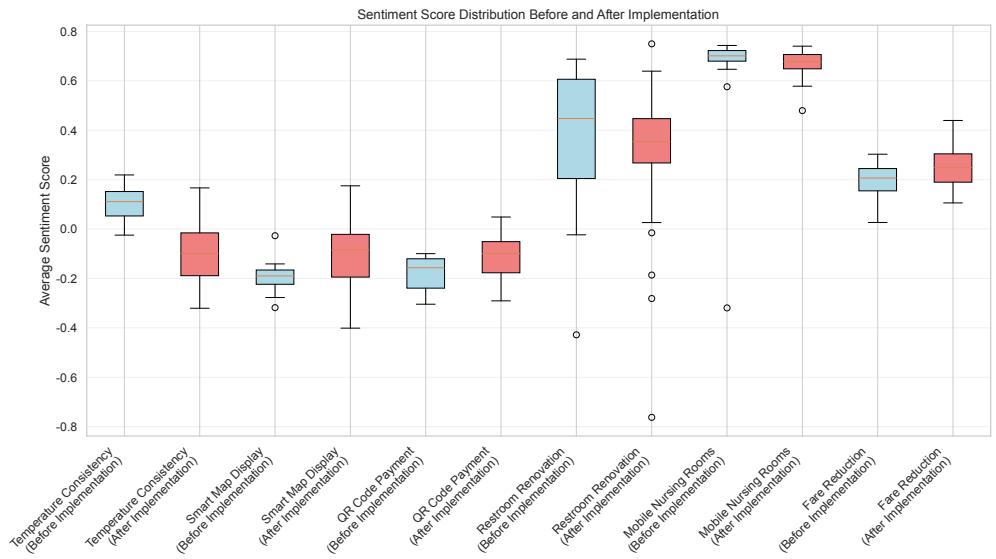
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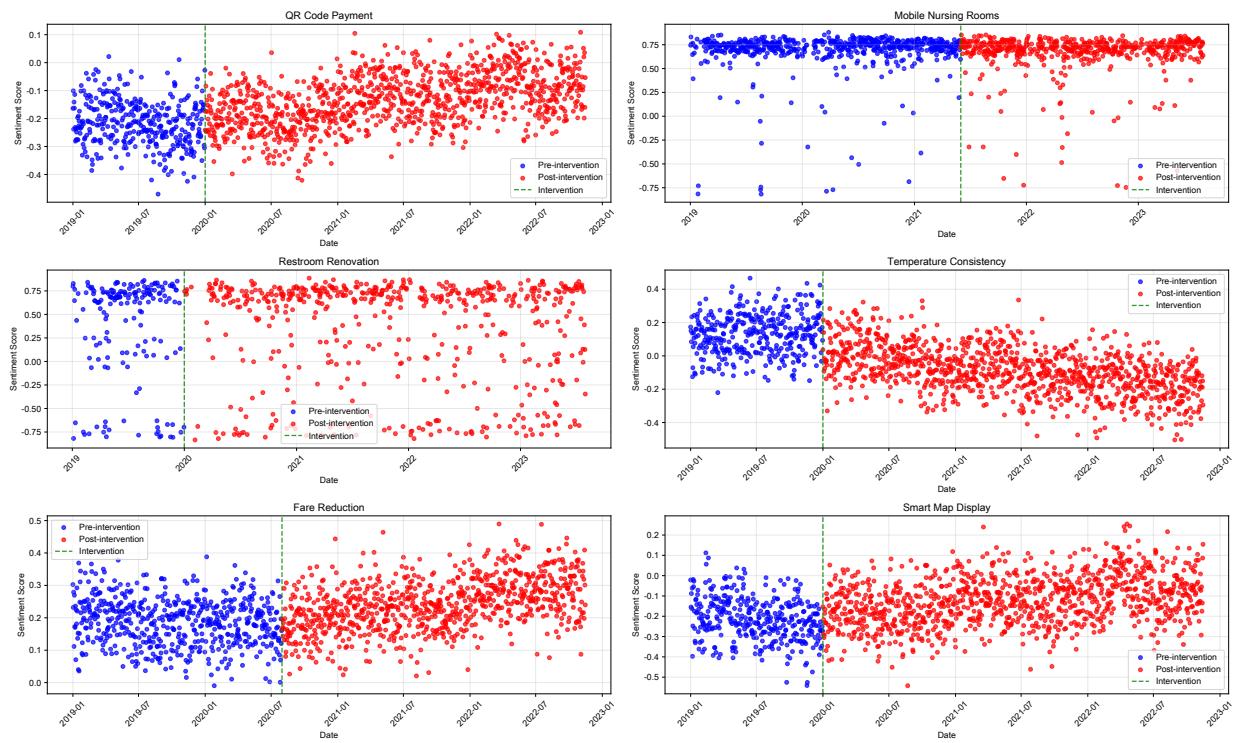
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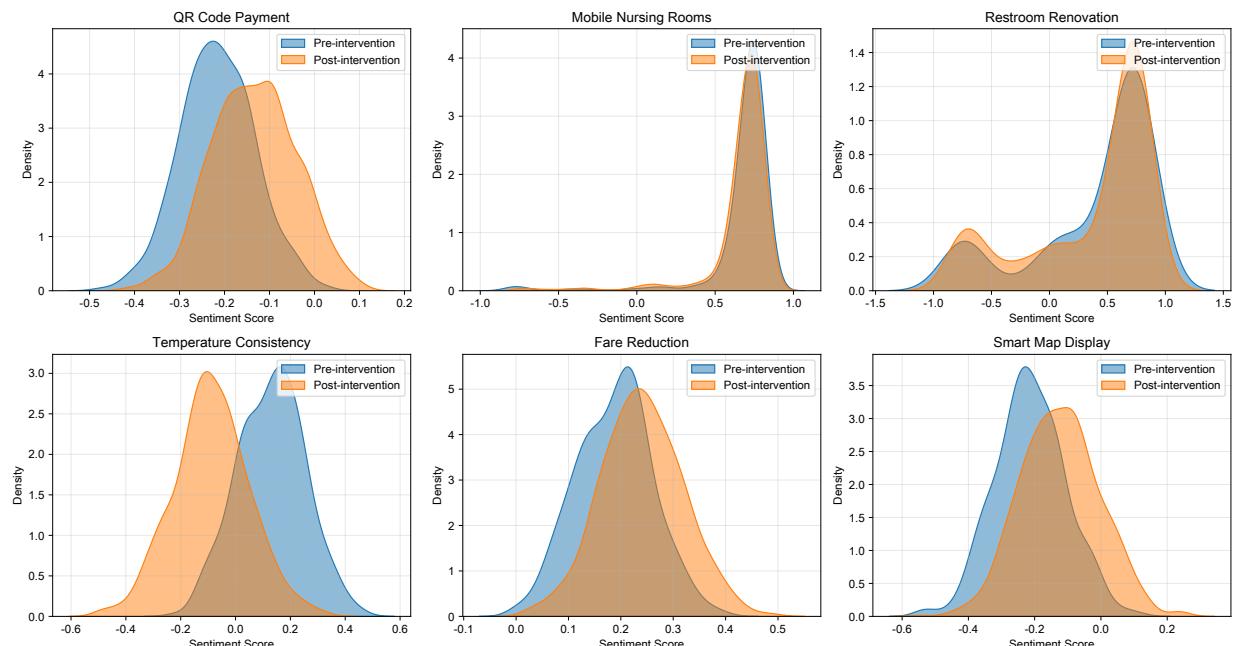
**Figure 1:** Sample Size Distribution Across Transit Improvement Programs



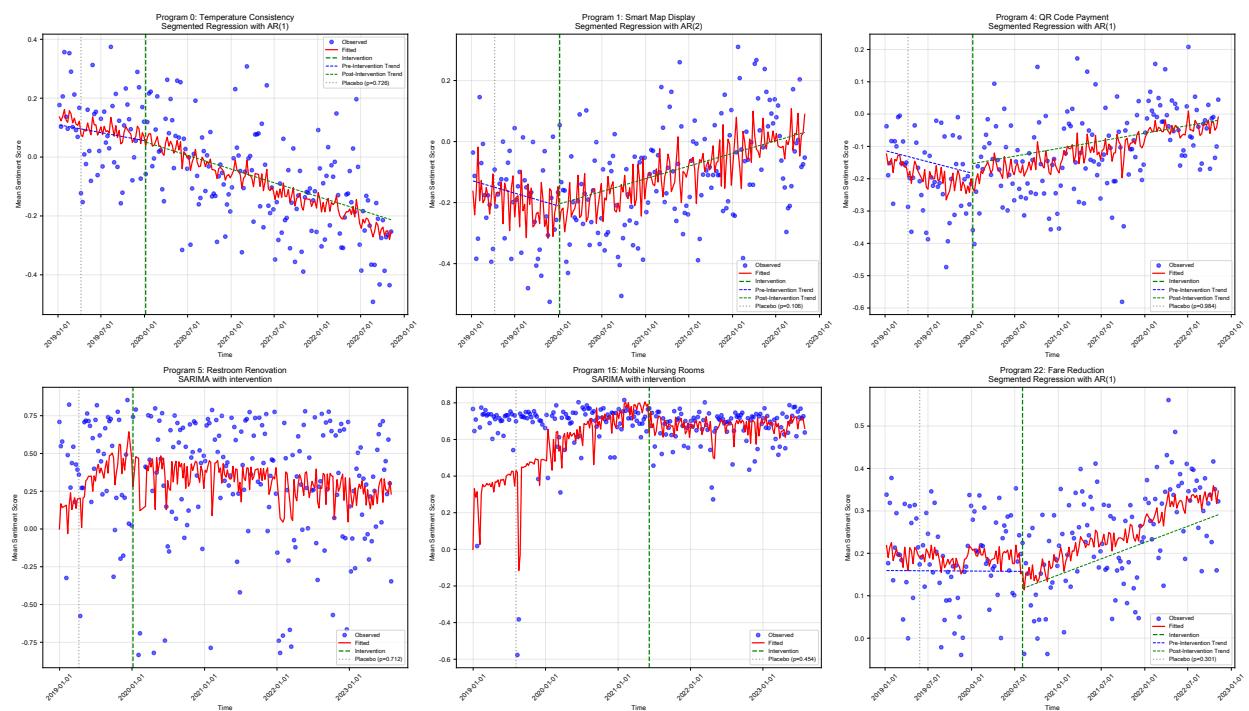
**Figure 2:** Sentiment Distribution by Transit Improvement Program Before and After Implementation



**Figure 3:** Time Series Analysis of Sentiment Patterns Across Transit Improvement Programs



**Figure 4:** Density Plots of Sentiment Distributions Before and After Transit Improvement Program Implementation



**Figure 5:** Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results for All Transit Improvement Programs