

Impact Evaluation of Transit Improvement Program: A Social Media Data Mining and Causal Inference Framework

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
social media data
transit improvement program
impact evaluation
transit service quality

ABSTRACT

Assessing the effectiveness of transit improvement programs is crucial to improving urban mobility, but traditional methods often lack timeliness and cannot capture passenger travel experiences. Although social media data can provide a wealth of real-time public opinions, there is a major research gap: Few studies have used these data to evaluate the impact of specific transit improvement programs by comparing passenger attitudes before and after implementation. To fill this gap, this paper proposes a new framework that combines advanced text mining with causal inference methods. Our approach uses semantic matching to associate unstructured social media posts with specific transit improvement programs and uses interruption time series analysis (ITSA) to quantify changes in passenger sentiment while controlling for potential time-trend effects. We apply the framework to a case study from Shenzhen Metro and analyze 88253 Weibo posts to evaluate six different transit improvement programs. The results showed that the framework is effective in measuring the impact of the transit improvement programs, showing that technology-oriented upgrades significantly improved public emotional attitudes over time, while other interventions had negligible effects. The study provides transit agencies with a reliable, data-based method to conduct evidence-based project assessments and better understand passenger travel experiences.

¹ 1. Introduction

² Public transportation plays a vital role in urban mobility systems, providing essential services
³ that can help to achieve the goals of sustainable development by reducing congestion, air pollution,
⁴ and greenhouse gas emissions (Stjernborg and Mattisson, 2016; Mead, 2021). Despite these
⁵ benefits, transit operators around the world continue to face continuing challenges to attract and
⁶ retain passengers, especially when competing with private cars and emerging mobility services
⁷ (Beirão and Cabral, 2007). To solve this problem, transit agencies continue to implement various
⁸ transit improvement programs, covering aspects ranging from technology upgrades and infrastruc-
⁹ ture renovations to policy adjustments and customer service improvements (Luong and Houston,
¹⁰ 2015; Fraser et al., 2024).

¹¹ Assessing the effectiveness of these transit improvement programs is crucial to the strategic
¹² planning and operational management of the public transportation system. Traditional evaluation

*Corresponding author

13 methods are heavily based on performance indicators such as passenger count, punctuality performance,
14 and traveler satisfaction surveys (Nathanail, 2008; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2011). Although
15 these indicators can provide valuable information, they often fail to capture the nuanced views and
16 real-time feedback of transit users (Collins et al., 2013a). This limitation is prominent given that
17 passenger perceptions and experiences directly influence their decisions to choose public trans-
18 portation over other travel modes (Friman et al., 2001; Morton et al., 2016).

19 With the proliferation of social media and the growing willingness of the public to share their
20 experiences online, a large amount of user-generated content related to public transportation is
21 available (Golder and Macy, 2011; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). These data are an important re-
22 source for transit agencies trying to understand passenger sentiment and assess the impact of their
23 transit improvement programs (El-Diraby et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023). Social media data has
24 many advantages over traditional data sources. It provides real-time feedback, captures sponta-
25 neous and unfiltered opinions from users, and has the potential to reach a wider and more diverse
26 audience than traditional surveys (Tasse and Hong, 2014; Haghghi et al., 2018).

27 Recent research has explored the potential of social media data in transportation planning and
28 analysis. Studies have shown that Twitter data can be used to detect traffic incidents (Fu et al., 2015),
29 analyze public perceptions of transit services (Luong and Houston, 2015; Collins et al., 2013a), and
30 evaluate the public response to transportation policies (Chakraborty et al., 2019). However, these
31 studies typically focus on general sentiment analysis and do not link social media content to specific
32 transit improvement programs or interventions (Ali et al., 2017; Ingvardson and Nielsen, 2019).
33 Crucially, there is a lack of studies using social media data to evaluate specific transit improvement
34 programs before and after their implementation, especially studies using causal inference meth-
35 ods to quantify the impacts (Mathur et al., 2021; Liu and Ban, 2017). This gap significantly limits
36 the practical usefulness of social media analytics for evidence-based decision-making in transit
37 agencies. Moreover, approaches to processing and analyzing social media data in transit evalua-
38 tion remain underdeveloped, often relying on simplistic techniques that fail to capture contextual
39 intricacies (Houston and Luong, 2015; Kamga et al., 2023). Therefore, there is an urgent need for
40 advanced frameworks to extract meaningful insights from unstructured social media posts and link
41 them to specific transit improvement programs through causal analysis (Haghghi et al., 2018).

42 To address these limitations, this study proposes a novel framework, which 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 aligns passenger feedback from social networks with specific transit improvement
46 programs; (2) an Interrupted Time Series Analysis (ITSA) that quantifies changes in passenger sen-
47 timents before and after transit improvement program implementation; and (3) a set of statistical
48 tests to assess the significance of transit improvement program impacts. The text matching pro-
49 cess employs Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) for topic modeling and Term Frequency-Inverse
50 Document Frequency (TF-IDF) for feature extraction, followed by neural embeddings for seman-
51 tic matching. This combination of techniques allows for the identification of relevant social me-
52 dia posts that reflect passenger experiences related to specific transit improvement programs, even
53 when the posts do not explicitly mention program names or use standard terminology (Blei et al.,
54 2003; Lopez Bernal et al., 2016). The ITSA method is suitable for evaluating the impact of inter-

55 ventions that have been implemented at clearly defined times (Wagner et al., 2002; Lopez Bernal
56 et al., 2016). By modeling passenger sentiment trends before and after transit improvement pro-
57 gram implementation, ITSA can distinguish between short-term fluctuations and sustained sen-
58 timent trends, 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 the Shenzhen Metro in China, using
61 88,253 Weibo posts collected from January 2019 to July 2023. The case study focuses on sev-
62 eral transit improvement programs implemented by Shenzhen Metro during this period, covering
63 different dimensions of the quality of transit service, such as comfort, reliability, safety, and infor-
64 mation provision. The results demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach in capturing significant
65 changes in passenger sentiments following the implementation of these transit improvement pro-
66 grams and provide information on different dimensions of service quality. The contributions of this
67 study are threefold. First, we develop a novel framework to bridge the gap between unstructured
68 social media data and structured transit improvement program evaluation, enabling transit agencies
69 to leverage the wealth of information available on social media platforms. Second, we demonstrate
70 the application of ITSA in the context of transit improvement program evaluation, providing a sta-
71 tistical approach to quantify transit improvement program impacts while accounting for various
72 confounding factors. Third, we offer empirical evidence on the effectiveness of several transit im-
73 provement programs in Shenzhen Metro, contributing to the growing body of knowledge on best
74 practices in public transportation management.

75 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the relevant literature
76 on the quality assessment of transit service, social media analytics in transportation, and causal
77 inference methods for transit improvement program impact evaluation. Section 3 describes the
78 methodology in detail, including the text matching process, ITSA model specification, and statis-
79 tical testing procedures. Section 4 presents the case study of Shenzhen Metro, detailing the data
80 collection, transit improvement program descriptions, and analysis results. Finally, Section 5 con-
81 cludes with 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 the quality of public transportation services has been the subject of extensive
85 research in recent decades. Traditional assessment frameworks have focused on objective perfor-
86 mance indicators and subjective user perceptions, often captured through structured surveys and
87 predefined metrics (De Oña et al., 2016; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2011). For example, Nathanael (2008)
88 proposed a survey incorporating safety, reliability, cleanliness, comfort, servicing, passenger infor-
89 mation, and accessibility as key dimensions of service quality. Similarly, Dell’Olio et al. (2011)
90 developed a multi-criteria approach that balances technical efficiency with service effectiveness
91 and social impact.

92 The European Committee for Standardization established a widely adopted framework that de-
93 fines eight quality categories: availability, accessibility, information, time, customer care, comfort,

94 security, and environmental impact (for Standardization, 2002), providing a standardized approach
95 to transit service evaluation. Building on this foundation, Eboli and Mazzulla (2011) introduced an
96 improved method that incorporates objective measures and subjective evaluations to create a more
97 balanced evaluation framework. In the North American context, the Transit Capacity and Quality
98 of Service Manual (Associates et al., 2003) offers a structured approach focusing on availability
99 (frequency, service span, and coverage) and comfort/convenience (passenger load, reliability, and
100 transit-auto travel time). This framework has been widely adopted by transit agencies in the United
101 States and Canada, although Högström et al. (2016) argue that it may not fully capture the intricate
102 aspects of the user experience.

103 Recent research has emphasized the importance of context-specific evaluation, recognizing that
104 perceptions of service quality vary between different urban environments, demographic groups,
105 and cultural contexts (Dell’Olio et al., 2018; Diab and El-Geneidy, 2017). Zhao et al. (2013) high-
106 lighted how different passenger groups value different service attributes, suggesting that evaluation
107 frameworks should be adaptable to local conditions and passenger expectations. Similarly, Wang
108 et al. (2020a) demonstrated that perceptions of service quality are influenced by both objective ser-
109 vice attributes and subjective user characteristics, emphasizing the need for advanced assessment
110 approaches.

111 Despite these advancements, traditional evaluation methods continue to face limitations in terms
112 of cost, timeliness, and potential response biases (Hensher et al., 2003). Survey-based approaches
113 often capture only a subset of user perceptions, which could miss temporal variations in service
114 quality and user experiences (Chang et al., 2013). Furthermore, pre-defined evaluation criteria may
115 not always align with the aspects of the service that matter most to travelers in specific contexts
116 (van den Berg et al., 2019; Tyrinopoulos and Antoniou, 2008).

117 **2.2. Social Media Data in Transportation Research**

118 The expansion of social media platforms has created new opportunities to access large volumes
119 of public opinion on various aspects of urban life, including transportation services (Collins et al.,
120 2013b; Schweitzer, 2014). Unlike structured surveys, social media offers spontaneous, real-time
121 expressions of user experiences, potentially capturing dimensions of service quality that may not
122 be included in pre-defined evaluation frameworks (Gal-Tzur et al., 2014; Luong et al., 2015).

123 The early applications of social media data in transportation research focused primarily on event
124 detection and traffic monitoring (Steiger et al., 2015; Yuan et al., 2016). However, researchers have
125 increasingly recognized the value of these data sources in understanding public perceptions of trans-
126 portation services. For example, Collins et al. (2013b) analyzed Twitter data to identify patterns
127 in public discourse about public transportation in Chicago, demonstrating the potential of social
128 media to capture temporal and spatial variations in passenger experiences. Similarly, Schweitzer
129 (2014) examined tweets related to public transit agencies in the United States, finding significant
130 associations between sentiment expressed on Twitter and service quality metrics.

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

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

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

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

150 Establishing causal relationships between transportation interventions and observed outcomes
151 represents a significant methodological challenge in transit improvement program evaluation (Karner
152 and Niemeier, 2016; Hong and Shen, 2020). Traditional before-after comparisons often fail to
153 account for secular trends, seasonality, and confounding factors that can 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 transportation context, Morrison and Lin (2018) employed ITS analysis
164 to evaluate the impact of a new light rail line on traffic congestion, distinguishing the intervention
165 effect from seasonal and long-term trends. Similarly, Baek and Sohn (2016) used this approach to
166 assess the effectiveness of improved transit service to increase ridership, controlling for external
167 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 promising approach.
199 Collins et al. (2013b) proposed a framework for triangulating insights from social media analysis
200 with passenger surveys and operational metrics, demonstrating how these complementary data
201 sources can provide a more nuanced understanding of service quality. Similarly, Wu et al. (2020)
202 developed a methodology that combines sentiment analysis of social media content with passenger
203 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 **3. Methodology**

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

229 **3.1. Data Preprocessing and Semantic Matching**

230 *3.1.1. Latent Dirichlet Allocation for Topic Discovery*

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

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

241 The LDA model is formally defined as:

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

242 where θ represents the document-topic distribution, \mathbf{z} denotes the topic assignments, \mathbf{w} rep-
243 presents the observed words, and α and β are the hyperparameters for the Dirichlet priors on the
244 document-topic and topic-word distributions, respectively.

245 To enhance model robustness, we optimize the LDA hyperparameters through multiple initial-
 246izations with different random seeds, selecting the model with the lowest perplexity score. For our
 247implementation, we set the number of topics $K = 15$, document-topic prior $\alpha = 0.05$, and topic-
 248word prior $\beta = 0.005$, which we determined through empirical testing to provide interpretable
 249topics while maintaining adequate discrimination between service quality dimensions.

250 **3.1.2. TF-IDF Feature Extraction**

251 After topic modeling, we employ Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF) trans-
 252formation to identify the most distinctive terms for each topic. The TF-IDF score for a term t in
 253document d within corpus D is computed as:

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

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

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

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

259 **3.1.3. Neural Embedding for Semantic Matching**

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

265 For each transit improvement program, we create a document that describes its objectives and
 266 features, then compute the embedding vector for this description. Similarly, we compute embedding
 267 vectors for each processed social media post. The semantic similarity between a transit improve-
 268ment program p and a post s is calculated as:

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

269 where \mathbf{v}_p and \mathbf{v}_s are the embedding vectors for the transit improvement program description
 270 and social media post, respectively. We establish a similarity threshold based on empirical testing,

271 which balances precision and recall in matching relevant posts to transit improvement programs.
272 Posts exceeding this threshold are considered relevant to the corresponding transit improvement
273 program and included in the subsequent analysis.

274 **3.2. Sentiment Analysis and Aggregation**

275 **3.2.1. Sentiment Analysis Approach**

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

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

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

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

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

286 where $d(w_i)$ is the sentiment polarity of word w_i in our domain lexicon ($d(w_i) \in [-1, 1]$),
287 $\text{sign}_i = (-1)^{n_i}$ handles negation patterns with n_i counting negation words preceding w_i , γ_i is the
288 intensification factor (1.5 for strong intensifiers, 1.2 for medium intensifiers, and 1.0 otherwise),
289 and $|s|$ is the post length in tokens.

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

292 **3.3. Impact Evaluation Using Interrupted Time Series Analysis**

293 **3.3.1. Model Specification**

294 To quantify the impact of transit improvement programs on passenger sentiment, we employ
295 ITSA, a quasi-experimental design that evaluates interventions by examining changes in time se-
296 ries data patterns before and after implementation (Bernal et al., 2017). ITSA is well-suited for
297 our context as it can distinguish between immediate and gradual effects while controlling for pre-
298 existing trends.

299 Our core ITSA model specification is:

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

300 where Y_t represents the mean sentiment score at time t , T_t indicates the time elapsed since the
 301 start of the study, X_t is a dummy variable that distinguishes between pre-intervention ($X_t = 0$) and
 302 post-intervention periods ($X_t = 1$), $X_t T_t$ serves as an interaction term measuring time since the
 303 intervention occurred, and ϵ_t denotes the error term.

304 In this model, β_0 represents the baseline level, β_1 captures the pre-intervention trend, β_2 indicates
 305 the immediate change in level following intervention, and β_3 represents the change in trend after
 306 intervention.

307 **3.3.2. Addressing Time Series Complexities**

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

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

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

312 where p is the order of the autoregressive process, and ϕ_i are the AR coefficients.

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

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

315 where $S_{j,t}$ are seasonal indicator variables, and γ_j are the corresponding coefficients.

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

318 **3.3.3. Placebo Tests and Robustness Checks**

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

325 **4. Case study**

326 **4.1. Overview of Shenzhen Metro System**

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

343 **4.2. Data Collection and Processing**

344 **4.2.1. Social Media Data Source**

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

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

358 **4.3. Transit Improvement Programs**

359 Our case study focused on six transit improvement programs implemented by Shenzhen Metro
360 between 2020 and 2023. These transit improvement programs span different dimensions of transit
361 service quality, including comfort, technology, convenience, affordability, and accessibility. Table

Table 1

Transit Improvement Programs

Name	Description	Service Dimension	Implementation Date
Temperature	Different temperatures in the same carriage	Comfort	August 2022
Smart Map Display	Enhanced passenger information through dynamic digital maps that update in real-time to show train location, estimated arrival times, and transfer information.	Information	October 2021
QR Code Payment	Introduced contactless QR code payment options, reducing reliance on physical cards and expanding payment flexibility.	Convenience	March 2020
Restroom Renovation	Improved station amenities through comprehensive renovation of restroom facilities at 82 stations across the network.	Amenities	June 2021
Mobile Nursing Rooms	Enhanced accessibility for caregivers by installing mobile nursing room facilities at strategic locations throughout the network.	Accessibility	September 2022
Fare Reduction	Increased affordability through a targeted fare reduction plan, particularly for commuters and frequent riders.	Affordability	January 2023

³⁶² 1 provides an overview of these transit improvement programs. Each transit improvement program
³⁶³ represents a distinct approach to service improvement.

³⁶⁴ 4.3.1. Data Preprocessing and Transit Improvement Program Matching

³⁶⁵ The collected Weibo posts underwent several preprocessing steps before being matched to spe-
³⁶⁶ cific transit improvement programs, as illustrated in Figure 2. First, we removed URLs, special
³⁶⁷ characters, and numbers from the text and segmented Chinese text using Jieba (Jiawen and Kanev,
³⁶⁸ 2025), a Chinese text segmentation library. To improve segmentation quality for transit-specific
³⁶⁹ content, we augmented the dictionary with domain-relevant terms such as metro station names. Fol-
³⁷⁰ lowing text cleaning, we applied Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) to identify latent thematic struc-
³⁷¹ tures within the corpus. The LDA model was optimized with a topic count of $K = 15$, document-
³⁷² topic prior $\alpha = 0.05$, and topic-word prior $\beta = 0.005$, determined through empirical testing to
³⁷³ provide interpretable topics while maintaining adequate discrimination between service quality di-
³⁷⁴ mensions. To enhance topic coherence and interpretability, we employed Term Frequency-Inverse
³⁷⁵ Document Frequency (TF-IDF) transformation, which assigns higher weights to terms that are fre-
³⁷⁶ quent in specific documents but rare across the corpus.

377 The critical step in our methodology involved establishing semantic connections between pas-
378 senger feedback and specific transit improvement programs. We utilized the multilingual MiniLM-
379 L12-v2 model from the sentence-transformers framework (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019), which
380 maps text into a dense 384-dimensional vector space. This approach enabled us to calculate seman-
381 tic similarity scores between transit improvement program descriptions and social media posts,
382 addressing the fundamental challenge of automatically identifying which posts relate to specific
383 service improvements. To determine the optimal similarity threshold for matching, we conducted
384 a systematic evaluation across seven threshold values: 0.25, 0.35, 0.45, 0.55, 0.65, 0.75, and 0.85.
385 Two domain experts independently validated a randomly selected subset of 500 matches at each
386 threshold level, assessing the semantic relevance between matched posts and transit improvement
387 programs. As shown in Figure 3, higher similarity thresholds yielded improved matching accu-
388 racy, ranging from 72.3% at threshold 0.25 to 96.8% at threshold 0.85. However, this improvement
389 came at the cost of substantially reduced sample sizes, declining from 35,131 matched posts at the
390 lowest threshold to only 1,200 at the highest. After carefully weighing the tradeoff between match-
391 ing precision and sample size adequacy for statistical analysis, we selected a similarity threshold
392 of 0.55, which achieved 87.4% expert-validated accuracy while retaining 17,618 matched social
393 media posts for subsequent impact analysis.

394 **4.4. Preliminary Statistical Analysis**

395 Before implementing the more sophisticated Interrupted Time Series Analysis, we conducted
396 basic statistical tests to examine overall patterns in passenger sentiment before and after transit im-
397 provement program implementation. Although these preliminary analyses provide initial insights,
398 they reveal important limitations that necessitate more robust analytical approaches.

399 Figure 4 illustrates the distribution of sentiment scores between the six transit improvement
400 programs, comparing the pre- and post-implementation periods. The visualization reveals het-
401 erogeneous patterns across different transit improvement programs. Technology-oriented transit
402 improvement programs (Smart Map Display and QR Code Payment) show predominantly nega-
403 tive sentiment in the pre-implementation period, suggesting existing passenger dissatisfaction with
404 these service aspects. In contrast, the Fare Reduction transit improvement program exhibits positive
405 sentiment even before implementation, indicating that affordability was less of a pressing concern
406 initially.

407 Table 2 presents the results of the paired t-test examining changes in the mean sentiment scores.
408 Four transit improvement programs demonstrate statistically significant changes: Smart Map Dis-
409 play ($t=13.50$, $p<0.001$), QR Code Payment ($t=15.85$, $p<0.001$), Fare Reduction ($t=13.15$, $p<0.001$),
410 and Temperature ($t=-28.37$, $p<0.001$). Notably, the Temperature transit improvement program
411 shows a significant negative change, suggesting sentiment deterioration despite transit improve-
412 ment program implementation.

413 Chi-square tests examining the association between implementation periods and sentiment cat-
414 egories yield contradictory results (Table 3). All transit improvement programs show statistically
415 significant associations ($p<0.001$), including Mobile Nursing Rooms and Restroom Renovation,
416 which demonstrated non-significant results in the t-tests. This inconsistency highlights a funda-

Table 2

T-test results for passenger sentiment analysis

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	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 < 0.001

Table 3

Chi-square test results for passenger sentiment analysis

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	156.23	<0.001***
Mobile Nursing Rooms	45.67	<0.001***
Restroom Renovation	78.34	<0.001***

*** p < 0.001

417 mental limitation of these basic approaches when applied to complex time series data.

418 The temporal visualization of aggregated sentiment data (Figure 5) reveals complex patterns
419 that simple before-after comparisons cannot adequately capture. These plots demonstrate substan-
420 tial variability over time, with apparent seasonal fluctuations and trend changes that occur indepen-
421 dently of transit improvement program implementation dates. Such patterns suggest that observed
422 differences between pre- and post-implementation periods may be confounded by underlying tem-
423 poral trends rather than representing true transit improvement program effects.424 Figure 6 presents density plots comparing sentiment distributions before and after implemen-
425 tation. While some transit improvement programs show apparent shifts toward more positive senti-
426 ment (particularly QR Code Payment and Smart Map Display), others exhibit overlapping distribu-
427 tions that make it difficult to assess the magnitude and significance of changes without controlling
428 for temporal confounders.

429 4.5. Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results

430 Given the limitations of basic statistical tests in handling temporal dependencies and confound-
431 ing trends, we employed ITSA to provide more robust causal inference regarding transit improve-
432 ment program impacts. The ITSA approach allows us to distinguish between immediate level
433 changes and gradual trend changes following intervention implementation while controlling for
434 pre-existing patterns and seasonal variation.

Table 4

Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results

Transit Improvement Program	Baseline Level (β_0)	Pre-trend (β_1)	Level Change (β_2)	Trend Change (β_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	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 < 0.05, ** p < 0.01

435 Figure 7 presents the comprehensive ITSA results for all six transit improvement programs,
 436 showing both the observed data points and fitted regression lines for pre- and post-intervention
 437 periods. The analysis reveals substantial heterogeneity in both the magnitude and temporal patterns
 438 of transit improvement program impacts, with some interventions producing immediate effects
 439 while others demonstrate gradual improvements over time.

440 Table 4 summarizes the key ITSA parameters for each transit improvement program. Three tran-
 441 sit improvement programs demonstrated statistically significant positive trend changes following
 442 implementation: Smart Map Display ($\beta_3 = 0.0032$, p = 0.029), QR Code Payment ($\beta_3 = 0.0022$, p
 443 = 0.047), and Fare Reduction ($\beta_3 = 0.0015$, p = 0.007). These results indicate sustained improve-
 444 ments in passenger sentiment that strengthen over time, suggesting successful transit improve-
 445 ment program implementation and positive reception. The Smart Map Display transit improve-
 446 ment program exhibited the most robust improvement pattern, indicating that the benefits of enhanced pas-
 447 senger information systems became more apparent to users over time as they adapted to the new
 448 technology. The QR Code Payment transit improvement program demonstrated similar positive
 449 trends, reflecting growing acceptance of contactless payment options with a typical technology
 450 adoption curve pattern. The Fare Reduction transit improvement program showed the strongest
 451 statistical significance despite exhibiting a negative immediate level change, suggesting that pas-
 452 sengers increasingly appreciated the cost savings over time despite an initially muted response.

453 In contrast, three transit improvement programs showed no significant improvements. The Tem-
 454 perature transit improvement program presents a notable contrast, showing no significant trend
 455 change (p = 0.581) despite achieving the highest model fit ($R^2 = 0.433$), suggesting that the tem-
 456 perature control intervention failed to address passenger concerns effectively. The Mobile Nursing
 457 Rooms and Restroom Renovation transit improvement programs demonstrated neither significant
 458 level changes nor trend changes, indicating that these amenity improvements, while potentially val-
 459 ued by specific user subgroups, did not generate widespread positive sentiment changes detectable
 460 in general social media discourse.

461 The ITSA approach proved superior to basic statistical tests by controlling for pre-existing
 462 trends, distinguishing between immediate impacts and sustained improvements, addressing tem-
 463 poral autocorrelation in social media data, and enabling placebo testing to enhance confidence
 464 in causal interpretation. This methodology provided nuanced insights into transit improvement

465 program effectiveness by demonstrating that significant effects were concentrated around actual
466 implementation dates rather than randomly distributed across the time series.

467 5. Conclusion

468 This study presents a novel methodological framework that integrates advanced natural lan-
469 guage processing techniques with robust causal inference methods to evaluate transit improvement
470 programs using social media data. Through the case study of Shenzhen Metro, we demonstrated
471 how unstructured passenger feedback can be systematically analyzed to quantify transit improve-
472 ment program impacts while addressing the inherent challenges of observational social media data.
473 Our findings reveal substantial heterogeneity in transit improvement program effectiveness across
474 different service quality dimensions. Technology-oriented transit improvement programs (Smart
475 Map Display and QR Code Payment) demonstrated consistent positive impacts, while the Temper-
476 ature transit improvement program showed negative impacts despite addressing a commonly cited
477 passenger concern. The ITSA proved valuable in distinguishing between immediate and gradual
478 transit improvement program effects while controlling for temporal confounders, with the semantic
479 matching approach achieving 87.4% accuracy in connecting social media content to specific transit
480 interventions.

481 The framework's practical implications for transit agencies are significant, providing a cost-
482 effective supplement to traditional passenger surveys that enables continuous monitoring of pas-
483 senger sentiment and rapid detection of implementation problems. However, several limitations
484 should be acknowledged. The social media user base may not be fully representative of the broader
485 transit ridership, potentially introducing demographic biases. A critical limitation is the absence
486 of geographic location information in the collected social media data, which prevented us from
487 implementing experimental and control group designs based on spatial variation. Future research
488 should prioritize the collection of geo-tagged social media data to enable more sophisticated quasi-
489 experimental designs such as difference-in-differences methodology.

References

- Ali, A.M., Parvez, J., Ahmed, M., Hasan, M.K., Rahman, S., Ishtiaque, S., 2017. A fuzzy approach to measuring transit service quality based on user perception. *International Journal of Fuzzy Systems* 19, 178–191.
- Angrist, J.D., Pischke, J.S., 2008. *Mostly harmless econometrics: An empiricist's companion*. Princeton University Press.
- Associates, K., Administration, U.S.F.T., Program, T.C.R., Corporation, T.D., 2003. *Transit capacity and quality of service manual*. Transportation Research Board.
- Athey, S., Imbens, G.W., 2017. The state of applied econometrics: Causality and policy evaluation. *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 31, 3–32.
- Baek, J., Sohn, K., 2016. Using an interrupted time-series analysis to evaluate the effects of transit service changes on ridership: a case study of daejeon, south korea. *Journal of Advanced Transportation* 50, 698–716.
- Barbosa, S.B., Ferreira, M.G.B., Nickel, E.M., Cruz, J.F.A., Forcellini, F.A., Garcia, J., de Andrade, D.F., 2017. Combining satisfaction and positive critical incidents to evaluate public transport service. *Transportation Research Record* 2643, 127–134.

- Beirão, G., Cabral, J.S., 2007. Understanding attitudes towards public transport and private car: A qualitative study. *Transport Policy* 14, 478–489.
- van den Berg, P., Kemperman, A., Weijs-Perrée, M., Borgers, A., 2019. Social media effects on sustainable mobility opinion diffusion: Model framework and implications for behavior change. *Travel Behaviour and Society* 16, 1–12.
- Bernal, J.L., Cummins, S., Gasparini, A., 2016. Methodological considerations in the evaluation of public health interventions: Interrupted time series designs. *Research Methods in Public Health* , 1–10.
- Bernal, J.L., Cummins, S., Gasparini, A., 2017. Interrupted time series regression for the evaluation of public health interventions: a tutorial. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 46, 348–355.
- Blei, D.M., Ng, A.Y., Jordan, M.I., 2003. Latent dirichlet allocation. *Journal of machine Learning research* 3, 993–1022.
- Chakraborty, K., Roy, S., Singh, M., Jannu, A., Lokras, V., Balamuralidhar, P., 2019. Public perception towards transportation: Interpreting twitter data through sentiment analysis. *Transportation Research Procedia* 48, 2400–2409.
- Chang, Z., Lu, J., Wang, F., 2013. Exploring time-varying effects of stakeholder determinants on metro stations commencement in taipei. *International Journal of Sustainable Transportation* 7, 292–306.
- Chen, Y., He, Z., Zhao, Y., Tsui, K.L., 2019. Geographically modeling and understanding factors influencing transit ridership: an empirical study of shenzhen metro. *Applied Sciences* 9, 4217.
- Collins, C., Hasan, S., Ukkusuri, S.V., 2013a. A novel method for measuring service quality: insights from public transportation twitter feeds. *Transportation Research Record* 2351, 79–89.
- Collins, C., Hasan, S., Ukkusuri, S.V., 2013b. A novel transit rider satisfaction metric: Rider sentiments measured from online social media data. *Journal of Public Transportation* 16, 21–45.
- De Oña, J., De Oña, R., Diez-Mesa, F., Eboli, L., Mazzulla, G., 2016. A composite index for evaluating transit service quality across different user profiles. *Research in Transportation Economics* 59, 229–240.
- Dell’Olio, L., Ibeas, A., Cecín, P., 2011. Public transportation quality of service: Factors, models, and applications. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice* 45, 419–432.
- Dell’Olio, L., Ibeas, A., de Oná, J., de Oná, R., 2018. A methodology to evaluate the effectiveness of different improvement strategies on the users’ perception. *Transportation Research Procedia* 33, 89–96.
- Deng, T., Zhang, K., Shen, Q., 2021. Quality of service improvements in public transport: A case study of shenzhen metro. *Transport Policy* 107, 1–12.
- Diab, E., El-Geneidy, A., 2017. Transit service performance and sustainability: A case study of the société de transport de montréal. *Journal of Public Transportation* 20, 3.
- Eboli, L., Mazzulla, G., 2011. A methodology for evaluating transit service quality based on subjective and objective measures from the passenger’s point of view. *Transport Policy* 18, 172–181.
- Efthymiou, D., Antoniou, C., 2013. Use of social media for transport data collection and traffic information. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences* 48, 775–785.
- El-Diraby, T., Shalaby, A., Camacho, F., 2019. Linking social media activity with transit ridership. *Transportation Research Record* 2673, 764–773.
- Fraser, A., McKenzie, G., Wu, X., Zhong, C., 2024. Using social media data to evaluate the impacts of public transport disruptions on mobility patterns. *Journal of Transport Geography* 112, 103678.
- Friman, M., Edvardsson, B., Gärling, T., 2001. Frequency of negative critical incidents and satisfaction with public transport services. i. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services* 8, 95–104.
- Fu, R., Huang, Z., Fink, J., 2015. Social media based analytics for understanding public transit rider complaints. *Transportation Research Record* 2553, 71–79.
- Gal-Tzur, A., Grant-Muller, S.M., Kuflik, T., Minkov, E., Nocera, S., Shoor, I., 2014. The potential of social media in delivering transport policy goals. *Transport Policy* 32, 115–123.

- Golder, S.A., Macy, M.W., 2011. Diurnal and seasonal mood vary with work, sleep, and daylength across diverse cultures. *Science* 333, 1878–1881.
- Guo, Z., Wilson, N.H., Rahbee, A., 2019. Smart card data mining for public transit planning: A case study of shenzhen. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies* 96, 1–19.
- Haghghi, N.N., Liu, X.C., Wei, R., Li, W., Shao, H., 2018. Using twitter data for transit performance assessment: a framework for evaluating transit riders' opinions about quality of service. *Public Transport* 10, 363–377.
- Hensher, D.A., Stopher, P., Bullock, P., 2003. Service quality—developing a service quality index in the provision of commercial bus contracts. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice* 37, 499–517.
- Högström, C., Davoudi, S., Löfgren, M., 2016. Relevant and preferred public service: Developing a new approach for public service quality. *Public Management Review* 18, 1554–1575.
- Hong, J., Shen, Q., 2020. Causal inference on travel demand of new nonmotorized paths in an existing network. *Journal of Transport Geography* 82, 102618.
- Houston, D., Luong, T.T., 2015. Public transit services for improving public health: A new approach to meet the transportation needs of vulnerable populations. *Transportation Research Board Conference Proceedings* 2.
- Imbens, G.W., Rubin, D.B., 2015. Causal inference in statistics, social, and biomedical sciences. Cambridge University Press.
- Ingvardson, J.B., Nielsen, O.A., 2019. The relationship between objective and perceived public transport service quality. *Journal of Public Transportation* 22, 2.
- Jiawen, X., Kanev, A., 2025. Chinese text classification based on different word segmentation methods , 1–6.
- Jin, C., Chen, H., Wen, Z., 2020. Deep learning-based traffic flow prediction for public transportation: A case study of bus passenger flow. *Journal of Advanced Transportation* 2020.
- Kamga, C., Wang, M., Sapp, D., Agrawal, S., 2023. Utilizing social media for public transit service quality assessment and interactive mapping. *Transportation Research Record* 2677, 118–131.
- Kaplan, A.M., Haenlein, M., 2010. Users of the world, unite! the challenges and opportunities of social media. *Business horizons* 53, 59–68.
- Karner, A., Niemeier, D., 2016. Transportation planning and regional equity: History, policy and practice. *Improving Pathways to Transit for Californians* .
- Kontopantelis, E., Doran, T., Springate, D.A., Buchan, I., Reeves, D., 2015. Regression based quasi-experimental approach when randomisation is not an option: interrupted time series analysis. *BMJ* 350, h2750.
- Koppel, M., Kim, K., Hong, A., 2023. Disentangling the causal effect of rail transit on crime: A spatiotemporal analysis of the expo line in los angeles. *Journal of Transport Geography* 109, 103583.
- Lechner, M., 2011. The estimation of causal effects by difference-in-difference methods. *Foundations and Trends in Econometrics* 4, 165–224.
- Li, X., Chen, Y., Wang, H., 2022. Comparative analysis of metro ridership before and after covid-19: A case study of shenzhen. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice* 155, 1–15.
- Liu, X.C., Ban, X., 2017. Monitoring transit service performance with social media: An application to the chicago transit authority. *Transportation Research Record* 2649, 42–50.
- Lopez Bernal, J., Cummins, S., Gasparrini, A., 2016. Interrupted time series regression for the evaluation of public health interventions: a tutorial. *International journal of epidemiology* 46, 348–355.
- Lopez Bernal, J., Cummins, S., Gasparrini, A., 2017. Interrupted time series regression for the evaluation of public health interventions: a tutorial. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 46, 348–355.
- Luong, T.T., Houston, D., 2015. Public transit service quality in san francisco: Sentiment analysis of user-generated content. *Transportation Research Record* 2538, 11–20.
- Luong, T.T., Houston, D., Boarnet, M.G., 2015. Mining public transit service quality from social media: A sentiment analysis approach. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies* 58, 373–385.

- Ma, J., Chan, J., Ristanoski, G., Rajasegaran, S., Leckie, C., 2018. An integrated framework for optimizing underground rail systems by using a hybrid swarm intelligence approach. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies* 90, 161–183.
- Maeda, T., Takashi, K., Kamino, K., Wang, C.H., Motoyama, M., Uchida, Y., Nishiyama, H., 2019. Transportation mode identification from mobility data using convolutional neural networks. *IEEE Access* 7, 122954–122963.
- Mathur, S., Zhang, Y., Ukkusuri, S.V., 2021. An exploratory analysis of social media for transit service evaluation: Opportunities and challenges. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies* 125, 103067.
- Mead, L., 2021. Road transport and climate change: Stepping off the greenhouse gas. *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment* 95, 102826.
- Ming, Z., Yang, L., Chen, X., 2014. Understanding the impact of tf-idf on topic modeling performance. *Journal of Information Science* 40, 645–655.
- Morrison, G.M., Lin, C.Y.C., 2018. The impact of light rail on congestion in denver: A synthetic control approach. *Regional Science and Urban Economics* 71, 57–72.
- Morton, C., Caulfield, B., Anable, J., 2016. Customer perceptions of quality of service in public transport: Evidence for bus transit in scotland. *Case Studies on Transport Policy* 4, 199–207.
- Nathanail, E., 2008. Measuring the quality of service for passengers on the hellenic railways. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice* 42, 48–66.
- Nguyen-Phuoc, D.Q., Currie, G., De Gruyter, C., Young, W., 2016. Transportation network companies and the ridesourcing industry: A review of impacts and emerging regulatory frameworks for uber. *Urban, Planning and Transport Research* 4, 40–63.
- Pearl, J., 2009. *Causality*. Cambridge University Press.
- Rashidi, T.H., Abbasi, A., Maghrebi, M., Hasan, S., Waller, T.S., 2017. Exploring the capacity of social media data for modelling travel behaviour: Opportunities and challenges. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies* 75, 197–211.
- Reimers, N., Gurevych, I., 2019. Sentence-bert: Sentence embeddings using siamese bert-networks , 3982–3992.
- Schaffer, A.L., Dobbins, T.A., Pearson, S.A., 2021. Interrupted time series analysis using autoregressive integrated moving average (arima) models: a guide for evaluating large-scale health interventions. *BMC medical research methodology* 21, 1–12.
- Schweitzer, L., 2014. Planning and social media: a case study of public transit and stigma on twitter. *Journal of the American Planning Association* 80, 218–238.
- Spirites, P., Zhang, K., 2016. Causal discovery from big data: theory and practice. *Frontiers in Big Data* 1, 1–10.
- for Standardization, E.C., 2002. EN 13816: Transportation-Logistics and Services-Public Passenger Transport-Service Quality Definition, Targeting and Measurement. Technical Report. European Committee for Standardization. Brussels.
- Steiger, E., Westerholt, R., Resch, B., Zipf, A., 2015. Twitter as an indicator for whereabouts of people? correlating twitter with uk census data. *Computers, Environment and Urban Systems* 54, 255–265.
- Stjernborg, V., Mattisson, O., 2016. The role of public transport in society—a case study of general policy documents in sweden. *Sustainability* 8, 1120.
- Tasse, D., Hong, J.I., 2014. Using social media data to understand cities. *Proceedings of NSF Workshop on Big Data and Urban Informatics* , 64–79.
- Tse, Y.K., Zhang, M., Akhtar, P., MacBryde, J., 2018. Social media data for urban sustainability: Opportunities, challenges, and future directions. *Sustainable Cities and Society* 39, 454–463.
- Tyrinopoulos, Y., Antoniou, C., 2008. Public transit user satisfaction: Variability and policy implications. *Transport Policy* 15, 260–272.
- Wagner, A.K., Soumerai, S.B., Zhang, F., Ross-Degnan, D., 2002. Segmented regression analysis of interrupted time

- series studies in medication use research. *Journal of clinical pharmacy and therapeutics* 27, 299–309.
- Wang, B., Zhang, L., Siebeneck, L., Sánchez, V., Shuai, X., 2020a. Analyzing public transit service quality based on mobile phone data. *IEEE Access* 8, 144704–144713.
- Wang, J., Zhou, Y., Zhang, W., Evans, R., Zhu, C., 2020b. Empirical analysis of social media usage patterns: A case study of weibo during covid-19. *Journal of Medical Internet Research* 22, e22152.
- Wang, N., Jin, X., Zhang, L., 2020c. Mining user opinions in social media: A case study on high-speed rail in china. *Transport Policy* 90, 1–12.
- Wu, Y., Zhu, L., Zhi, Y., Liu, M., Wang, Z., Lai, J., 2020. An integrated approach combining gis, social media data, and behavior surveys for passenger flow analysis in metro stations. *ISPRS International Journal of Geo-Information* 9, 570.
- Ye, H., Xiao, F., Yang, H., 2020. A causal inference approach to measure the vulnerability of urban metro systems. *Transportation* 47, 1939–1970.
- Yuan, N.J., Zheng, Y., Xie, X., Wang, Y., Zheng, K., Xiong, H., 2016. Discovering urban functional zones using latent activity trajectories. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering* 27, 712–725.
- Zhang, R., Zhang, Y., Lin, Y., Wang, S., Liu, Y., Lancelot Milthorpe, F., 2023. Changes to commuting patterns in response to covid-19 and the associated impacts on air pollution in china. *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment* 114, 103537.
- Zhang, T., Liang, L., Otten, M., Orosz, K., Fulmer, J., Marshall, R., 2018. Analytics of real-time transit demand using large-scale transit data. *Transportation Research Record* 2672, 583–591.
- Zhang, W., Li, Y., Ukkusuri, S.V., 2019. Examining spatial patterns in social media sentiment toward transit services in new york city. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies* 101, 1–16.
- Zhao, F., Pereira, F.C., Ball, R., Kim, Y., Han, Y., Zegras, C., Ben-Akiva, M., 2013. Web-based transit service quality survey: preliminary results from washington state. *Transportation Research Record* 2351, 100–108.

figs/methodological framework.pdf

Figure 1: Data Preprocessing and Transit Improvement Program Matching

figs/Data Preprocessing and Program Matching Workflow.pdf

Figure 2: Data Preprocessing and Transit Improvement Program Matching

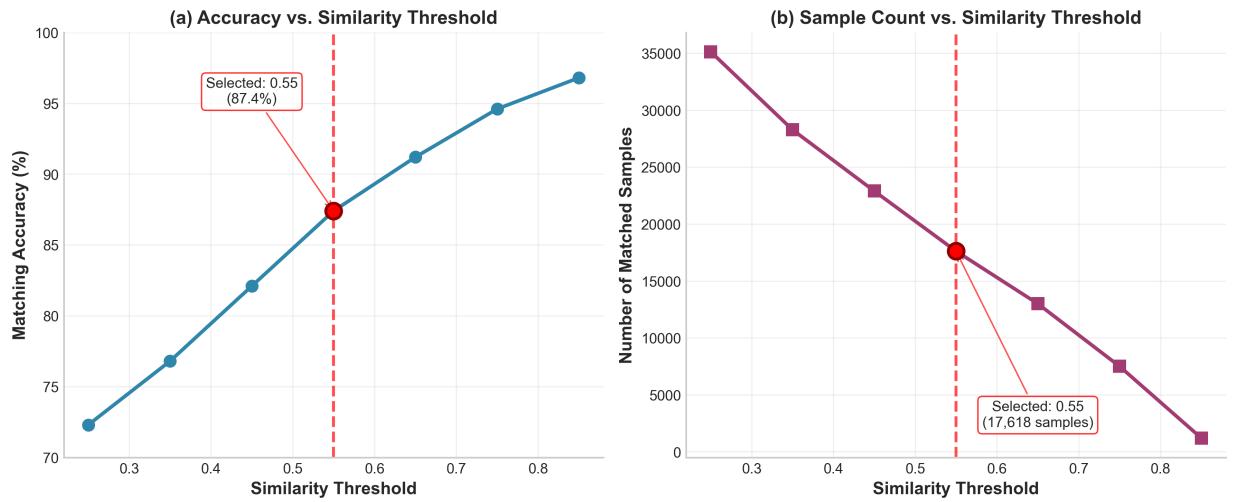


Figure 3: Tradeoff Analysis Between Matching Accuracy and Sample Size Across Similarity Thresholds

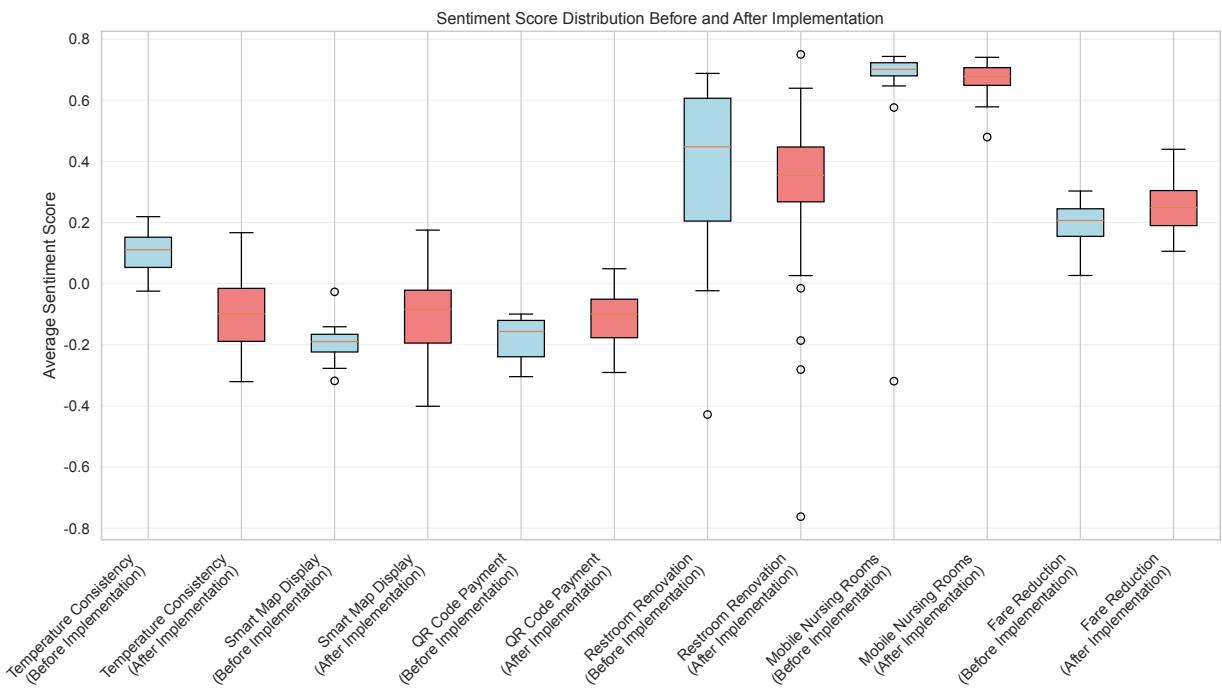


Figure 4: Sentiment Distribution by Transit Improvement Program Before and After Implementation

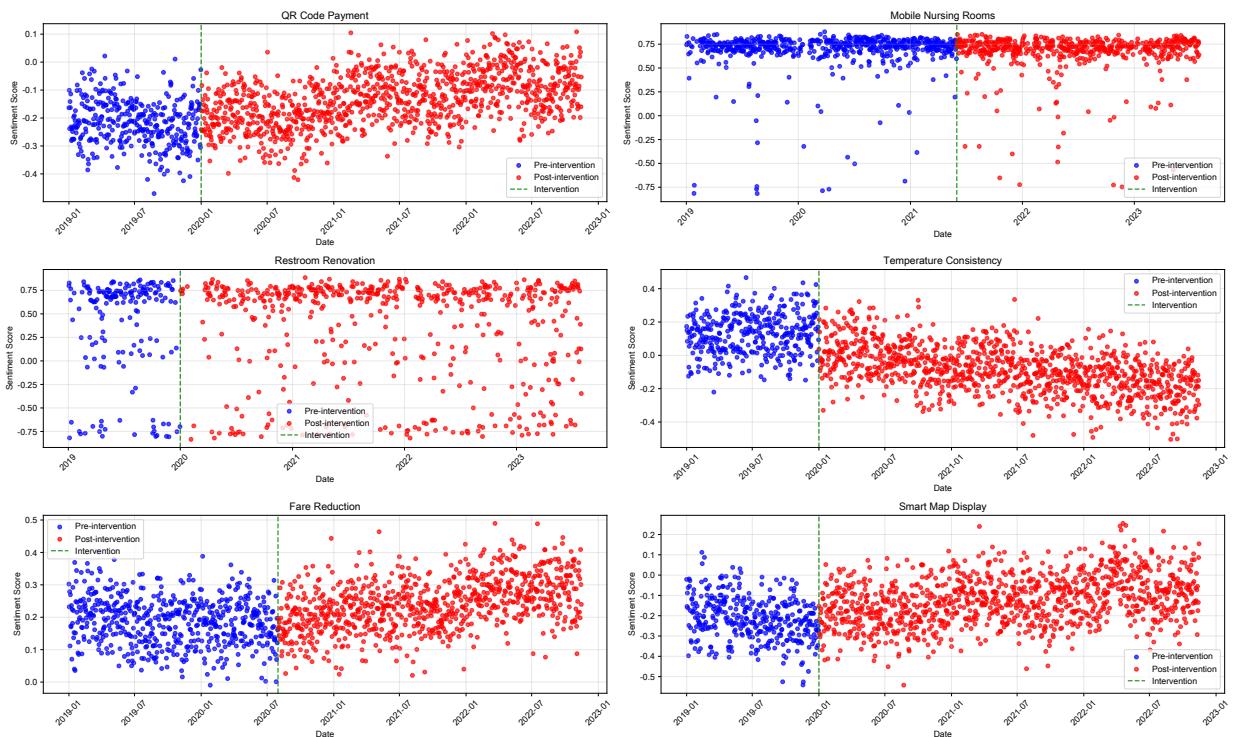


Figure 5: Time Series Analysis of Sentiment Patterns Across Transit Improvement Programs

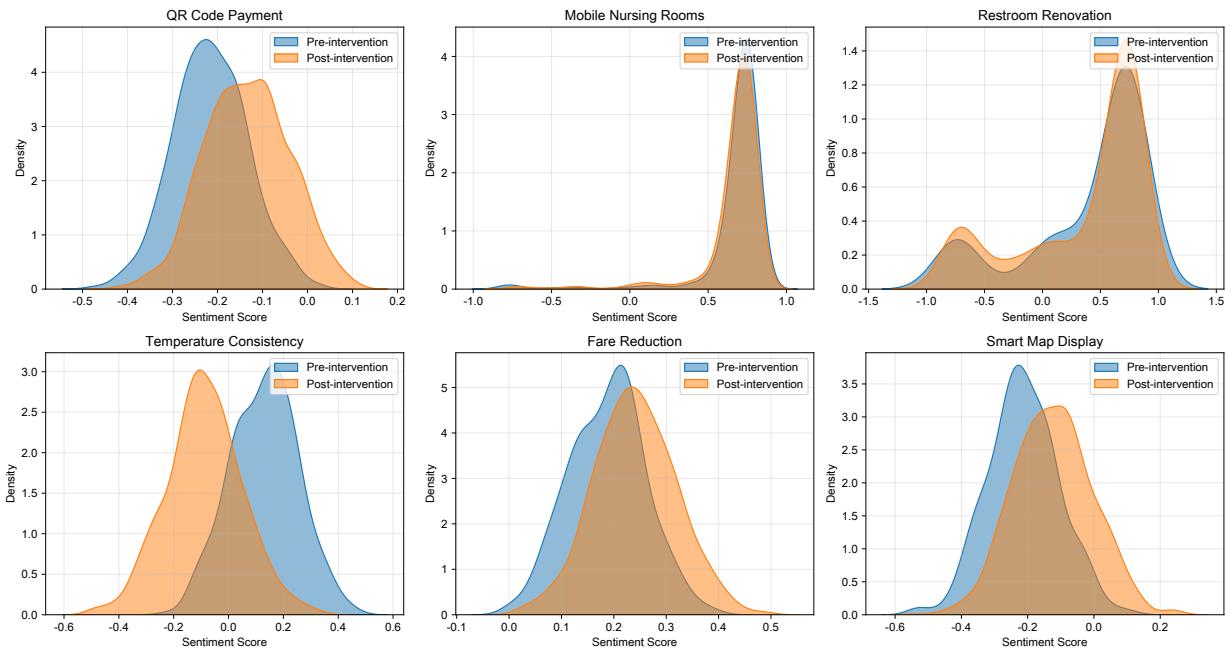


Figure 6: Density Plots of Sentiment Distributions Before and After Transit Improvement Program Implementation

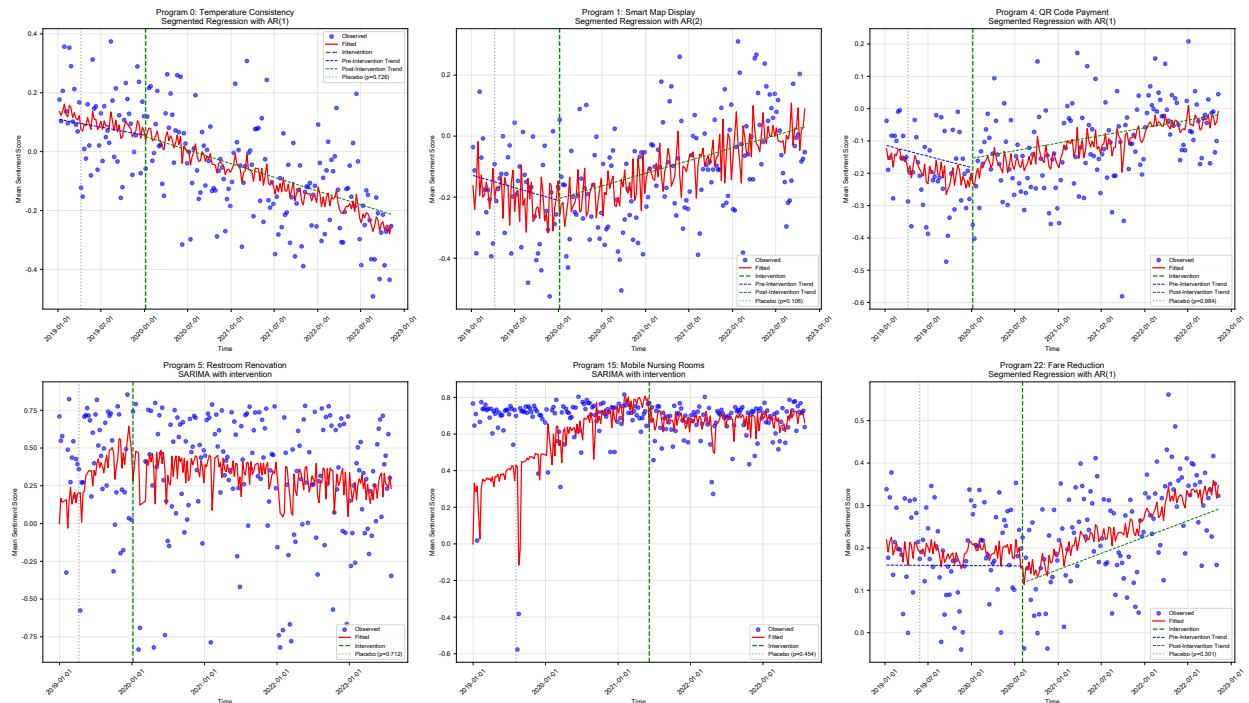


Figure 7: Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results for All Transit Improvement Programs