

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

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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 projects 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 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 service improvement programs. The results showed that the framework is effective in measuring the impact of the 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 pollu-
⁴ tion, 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 service 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
¹³ methods are heavily based on performance indicators such as passenger count, punctuality perfor-
¹⁴ mance, and traveler satisfaction surveys (Nathanail, 2008; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2011). Although

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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 service 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 projects or interventions (Ali et al., 2017; Ingvardson and Nielsen, 2019). Cru-
33 cially, there is a lack of studies using social media data to evaluate specific transit projects before
34 and after their implementation, especially studies using causal inference methods to quantify the
35 impacts (Mathur et al., 2021; Liu and Ban, 2017). This gap significantly limits the practical useful-
36 ness of social media analytics for evidence-based decision-making in transit agencies. Moreover,
37 approaches to processing and analyzing social media data in transit evaluation remain underdevel-
38 oped, often relying on simplistic techniques that fail to capture contextual intricacies (Houston and
39 Luong, 2015; Kamga et al., 2023). Therefore, there is an urgent need for advanced frameworks to
40 extract meaningful insights from unstructured social media posts and link them to specific transit
41 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
47 sentiments before and after program implementation; and (3) a set of statistical tests to assess the
48 significance of program impacts. The text matching process employs Latent Dirichlet Allocation
49 (LDA) for topic modeling and Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF) for feature
50 extraction, followed by neural embeddings for semantic matching. This combination of techniques
51 allows for the identification of relevant social media posts that reflect passenger experiences related
52 to specific transit improvement programs, even when the posts do not explicitly mention program
53 names or use standard terminology (Blei et al., 2003; Lopez Bernal et al., 2016). The ITSA method
54 is suitable for evaluating the impact of interventions that have been implemented at clearly defined
55 times (Wagner et al., 2002; Lopez Bernal et al., 2016). By modeling passenger sentiment trends
56 before and after program implementation, ITSA can distinguish between short-term fluctuations

57 and sustained sentiment trends, while controlling for confounding factors such as seasonal patterns
58 and temporal autocorrelation (Schaffer et al., 2021; Koppel et al., 2023).

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

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

80 2. Literature Review

81 2.1. Transit Service Quality Assessment Frameworks

82 The evaluation of the quality of public transportation services has been the subject of extensive
83 research in recent decades. Traditional assessment frameworks have focused on objective perfor-
84 mance indicators and subjective user perceptions, often captured through structured surveys and
85 predefined metrics (De Oña et al., 2016; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2011). For example, Nathanael (2008)
86 proposed a survey incorporating safety, reliability, cleanliness, comfort, servicing, passenger infor-
87 mation, and accessibility as key dimensions of service quality. Similarly, Dell’Olio et al. (2011)
88 developed a multi-criteria approach that balances technical efficiency with service effectiveness
89 and social impact.

90 The European Committee for Standardization established a widely adopted framework that de-
91 fines eight quality categories: availability, accessibility, information, time, customer care, comfort,
92 security, and environmental impact (for Standardization, 2002), providing a standardized approach
93 to transit service evaluation. Building on this foundation, Eboli and Mazzulla (2011) introduced an
94 improved method that incorporates objective measures and subjective evaluations to create a more
95 balanced evaluation framework. In the North American context, the Transit Capacity and Quality

96 of Service Manual (Associates et al., 2003) offers a structured approach focusing on availability
97 (frequency, service span, and coverage) and comfort/convenience (passenger load, reliability, and
98 transit-auto travel time). This framework has been widely adopted by transit agencies in the United
99 States and Canada, although Högström et al. (2016) argue that it may not fully capture the intricate
100 aspects of the user experience.

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

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

115 2.2. Social Media Data in Transportation Research

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

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

129 More recent studies have employed advanced data mining and natural language processing tech-
130 niques to extract meaningful insights from social media content. Zhang et al. (2019) developed a
131 framework for analyzing geo-tagged tweets to understand spatial patterns in sentiment toward tran-
132 sit services in New York City. Wang et al. (2020c) employed topic modeling and sentiment analysis
133 to identify key themes in the public discussion about high-speed rail in China, revealing insights
134 that would be difficult to capture through traditional surveys. The integration of geo-location data
135 with social media content has further enhanced the value of these platforms for transportation re-

136 search. For instance, Rashidi et al. (2017) demonstrated how geo-tagged social media data can be
137 used to analyze travel behavior and mode choice, while Maeda et al. (2019) developed a method to
138 extract transportation-related information from location-based social media to support infrastruc-
139 ture planning.

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

147 **2.3. Causal Inference in Transportation Program Evaluation**

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

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

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

173 The integration of machine learning with causal inference has opened new avenues for trans-
174 sit program evaluation. Athey and Imbens (2017) discussed how machine learning techniques can
175 enhance causal inference by improving the estimation of treatment effects and addressing high-

176 dimensional confounding. Spirtes and Zhang (2016) presented a framework for using causal dis-
177 covery algorithms to identify potential causal relationships from observational data, which could
178 be valuable for understanding complex interactions in transportation systems.

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

186 **2.4. Integrated Approaches for Transit Service Evaluation**

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

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

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

213 Despite the potential of integrated approaches, several challenges remain in their implemen-
214 tation. Tse et al. (2018) highlighted issues related to data integration and compatibility, noting
215 that different data sources may have varying temporal and spatial resolutions. Nguyen-Phuoc et al.

216 (2016) discussed methodological challenges in combining quantitative and qualitative data types,
217 emphasizing the need for robust analytical frameworks. Additionally, Zhang et al. (2019) pointed
218 out practical challenges related to data access, privacy concerns, and technical requirements for
219 implementing integrated evaluation approaches.

220 **2.5. Research Gap Summary**

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

235 **3. Methodology**

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

242 **3.1. Data Preprocessing and Semantic Matching**

243 ***3.1.1. Latent Dirichlet Allocation for Topic Discovery***

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

249 For preprocessing, we first remove URLs, special characters, and numbers from the text, then
250 segment Chinese text using Jieba (Jiawen and Kanev, 2025), a Chinese text segmentation library.
251 We eliminate stopwords and short words (typically single characters), as they convey minimal se-

252 mantic meaning. To improve the segmentation quality for transit-specific content, we augment the
253 Jieba dictionary with domain-relevant terms such as metro station names.

254 The LDA model is formally defined as:

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

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

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

263 3.1.2. TF-IDF Feature Extraction

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

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

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

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

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

272 3.1.3. Neural Embedding for Semantic Matching

273 To connect passenger feedback with specific transit improvement programs, we implement a
274 semantic matching approach using neural embeddings. Specifically, we utilize the multilingual
275 MiniLM-L12-v2 model from the sentence-transformers framework (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019),

276 which maps text into a dense 384-dimensional vector space where semantically similar texts have
277 high cosine similarity.

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

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

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

286 3.2. Sentiment Analysis and Aggregation

287 3.2.1. Sentiment Analysis Approach

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

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

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

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

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

298 where $d(w_i)$ is the sentiment polarity of word w_i in our domain lexicon ($d(w_i) \in [-1, 1]$),
299 $\text{sign}_i = (-1)^{n_i}$ handles negation patterns with n_i counting negation words preceding w_i , γ_i is the
300 intensification factor (1.5 for strong intensifiers, 1.2 for medium intensifiers, and 1.0 otherwise),
301 and $|s|$ is the post length in tokens.

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

304 **3.3. Impact Evaluation Using Interrupted Time Series Analysis**

305 **3.3.1. Model Specification**

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

311 Our core ITSA model specification is:

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

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

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

319 **3.3.2. Addressing Time Series Complexities**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

330 **3.3.3. Placebo Tests and Robustness Checks**

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

337 **4. Case study**

338 **4.1. Overview of Shenzhen Metro System**

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

355 **4.2. Data Collection and Processing**

356 **4.2.1. Social Media Data Source**

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

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

³⁶⁴ program implementation, and contains rich contextual information, including user characteristics
³⁶⁵ and interaction patterns.

³⁶⁶ The data collection process involved an API-based retrieval using keywords related to Shenzhen
³⁶⁷ Metro, including the system's name in different variations (e.g., "Shenzhen Metro", "Shenzhen
³⁶⁸ Subway") and station names. We implemented comprehensive error handling and rate limiting to
³⁶⁹ comply with platform policies while maximizing data quality.

³⁷⁰ 4.3. Service Improvement Programs

³⁷¹ Our case study focused on six service improvement programs implemented by Shenzhen Metro
³⁷² between 2020 and 2023. These programs span different dimensions of transit service quality, in-
³⁷³ cluding comfort, technology, convenience, affordability, and accessibility. Table 1 provides an
³⁷⁴ overview of these programs. Each program represents a distinct approach to service improvement.

375 **4.3.1. Data Preprocessing and Program Matching**

376 The collected Weibo posts underwent several preprocessing steps before being matched to spe-
377 cific service improvement programs, as illustrated in Figure 2. First, we removed URLs, special
378 characters, and numbers from the text and segmented Chinese text using Jieba (Jiawen and Kanev,
379 2025), a Chinese text segmentation library. To improve segmentation quality for transit-specific
380 content, we augmented the dictionary with domain-relevant terms such as metro station names. Fol-
381 lowing text cleaning, we applied Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) to identify latent thematic struc-
382 tures within the corpus. The LDA model was optimized with a topic count of $K = 15$, document-
383 topic prior $\alpha = 0.05$, and topic-word prior $\beta = 0.005$, determined through empirical testing to
384 provide interpretable topics while maintaining adequate discrimination between service quality di-
385 mensions. To enhance topic coherence and interpretability, we employed Term Frequency-Inverse
386 Document Frequency (TF-IDF) transformation, which assigns higher weights to terms that are fre-
387 quent in specific documents but rare across the corpus.

388 The critical step in our methodology involved establishing semantic connections between pas-
389 senger feedback and specific transit improvement programs. We utilized the multilingual MiniLM-
390 L12-v2 model from the sentence-transformers framework (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019), which
391 maps text into a dense 384-dimensional vector space. This approach enabled us to calculate seman-
392 tic similarity scores between program descriptions and social media posts, addressing the funda-
393 mental challenge of automatically identifying which posts relate to specific service improvements.
394 To determine the optimal similarity threshold for matching, we conducted a systematic evaluation
395 across seven threshold values: 0.25, 0.35, 0.45, 0.55, 0.65, 0.75, and 0.85. Two domain experts
396 independently validated a randomly selected subset of 500 matches at each threshold level, as-
397 sessing the semantic relevance between matched posts and programs. As shown in Figure 3, higher
398 similarity thresholds yielded improved matching accuracy, ranging from 72.3% at threshold 0.25 to
399 96.8% at threshold 0.85. However, this improvement came at the cost of substantially reduced sam-
400 ple sizes, declining from 35,131 matched posts at the lowest threshold to only 1,200 at the highest.
401 After carefully weighing the tradeoff between matching precision and sample size adequacy for sta-
402 tistical analysis, we selected a similarity threshold of 0.55, which achieved 87.4% expert-validated
403 accuracy while retaining 17,618 matched social media posts for subsequent impact analysis.

404 **4.4. Preliminary Statistical Analysis**

405 Before implementing the more sophisticated Interrupted Time Series Analysis, we conducted
406 basic statistical tests to examine overall patterns in passenger sentiment before and after program
407 implementation. Although these preliminary analyses provide initial insights, they reveal important
408 limitations that necessitate more robust analytical approaches.

409 Figure 4 illustrates the distribution of sentiment scores between the six programs, comparing the
410 pre- and post-implementation periods. The visualization reveals heterogeneous patterns in different
411 transit improvement program. Technology-oriented programs (Smart Map Display and QR Code
412 Payment) show predominantly negative sentiment in the pre-implementation period, suggesting
413 existing passenger dissatisfaction with these service aspects. In contrast, the Fare Reduction pro-
414 gram exhibits positive sentiment even before implementation, indicating that affordability was less

Table 2

T-test results for passenger sentiment analysis

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

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

415 of a pressing concern initially.

416 Table 2 presents the results of the paired t-test examining changes in the mean sentiment scores.
417 Four programs demonstrate statistically significant changes: Smart Map Display ($t=13.50$, $p<0.001$),
418 QR Code Payment ($t=15.85$, $p<0.001$), Fare Reduction ($t=13.15$, $p<0.001$), and Temperature ($t=$
419 28.37 , $p<0.001$). Notably, the Temperature program shows a significant negative change, suggest-
420 ing sentiment deterioration despite program implementation.421 Chi-square tests examining the association between implementation periods and sentiment cate-
422 gories yield contradictory results (Table 3). All programs show statistically significant associations
423 ($p<0.001$), including Mobile Nursing Rooms and Restroom Renovation, which demonstrated non-
424 significant results in the t-tests. This inconsistency highlights a fundamental limitation of these
425 basic approaches when applied to complex time series data.426 The temporal visualization of aggregated sentiment data (Figure 5) reveals complex patterns
427 that simple before-after comparisons cannot adequately capture. These plots demonstrate substan-
428 tial variability over time, with apparent seasonal fluctuations and trend changes that occur indepen-
429 dently of program implementation dates. Such patterns suggest that observed differences between
430 pre- and post-implementation periods may be confounded by underlying temporal trends rather
431 than representing true program effects.432 Figure 6 presents density plots comparing sentiment distributions before and after implemen-
433 tation. While some programs show apparent shifts toward more positive sentiment (particularly

Table 4

Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results

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

434 QR Code Payment and Smart Map Display), others exhibit overlapping distributions that make
 435 it difficult to assess the magnitude and significance of changes without controlling for temporal
 436 confounders.

437 4.5. Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results

438 Given the limitations of basic statistical tests in handling temporal dependencies and confound-
 439 ing trends, we employed ITSA to provide more robust causal inference regarding program impacts.
 440 The ITSA approach allows us to distinguish between immediate level changes and gradual trend
 441 changes following intervention implementation while controlling for pre-existing patterns and sea-
 442 sonal variation.

443 Figure 7 presents the comprehensive ITSA results for all six programs, showing both the ob-
 444 served data points and fitted regression lines for pre- and post-intervention periods. The analysis
 445 reveals substantial heterogeneity in both the magnitude and temporal patterns of program impacts,
 446 with some interventions producing immediate effects while others demonstrate gradual improve-
 447 ments over time.

448 Table 4 summarizes the key ITSA parameters for each program. Three programs demonstrated
 449 statistically significant positive trend changes following implementation: Smart Map Display ($\beta_3 =$
 450 $0.0032, p = 0.029$), QR Code Payment ($\beta_3 = 0.0022, p = 0.047$), and Fare Reduction ($\beta_3 = 0.0015,$
 451 $p = 0.007$). These results indicate sustained improvements in passenger sentiment that strengthen
 452 over time, suggesting successful program implementation and positive reception. The Smart Map
 453 Display program exhibited the most robust improvement pattern, indicating that the benefits of en-
 454 hanced passenger information systems became more apparent to users over time as they adapted to
 455 the new technology. The QR Code Payment program demonstrated similar positive trends, reflect-
 456 ing growing acceptance of contactless payment options with a typical technology adoption curve
 457 pattern. The Fare Reduction program showed the strongest statistical significance despite exhib-
 458 iting a negative immediate level change, suggesting that passengers increasingly appreciated the cost
 459 savings over time despite an initially muted response.

460 In contrast, three programs showed no significant improvements. The Temperature program
 461 presents a notable contrast, showing no significant trend change ($p = 0.581$) despite achieving the

462 highest model fit ($R^2 = 0.433$), suggesting that the temperature control intervention failed to ad-
463 dress passenger concerns effectively. Mobile Nursing Rooms and Restroom Renovation programs
464 demonstrated neither significant level changes nor trend changes, indicating that these amenity
465 improvements, while potentially valued by specific user subgroups, did not generate widespread
466 positive sentiment changes detectable in general social media discourse.

467 The ITSA approach proved superior to basic statistical tests by controlling for pre-existing
468 trends, distinguishing between immediate impacts and sustained improvements, addressing tem-
469 poral autocorrelation in social media data, and enabling placebo testing to enhance confidence in
470 causal interpretation. This methodology provided nuanced insights into program effectiveness by
471 demonstrating that significant effects were concentrated around actual implementation dates rather
472 than randomly distributed across the time series.

473 5. Conclusion

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

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

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figs/methodological framework.pdf

Figure 1: Data Preprocessing and Program Matching

figs/Data Preprocessing and Program Matching Workflow.pdf

Figure 2: Data Preprocessing and Program Matching

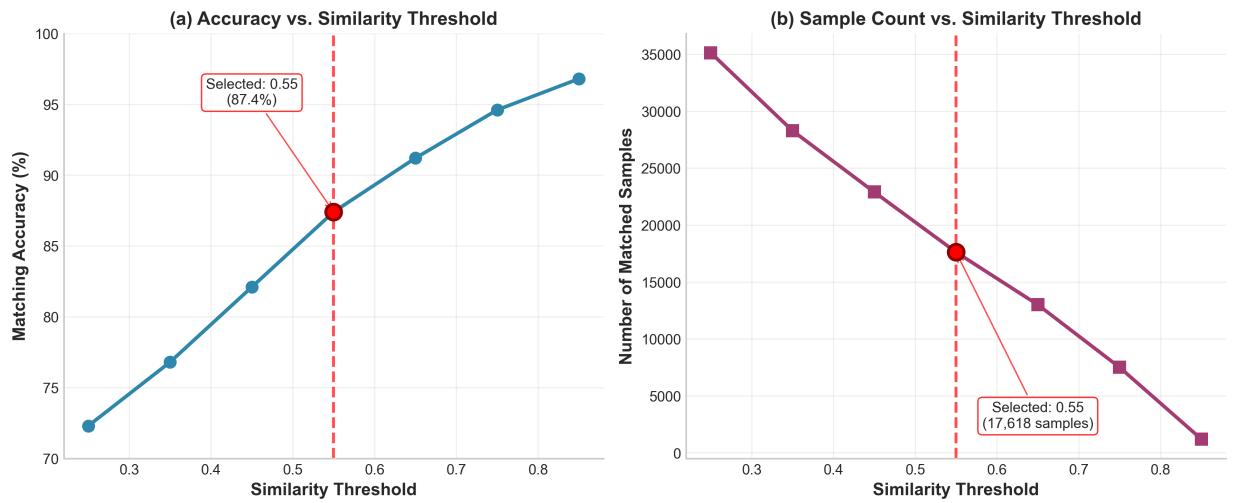


Figure 3: Tradeoff Analysis Between Matching Accuracy and Sample Size Across Similarity Thresholds

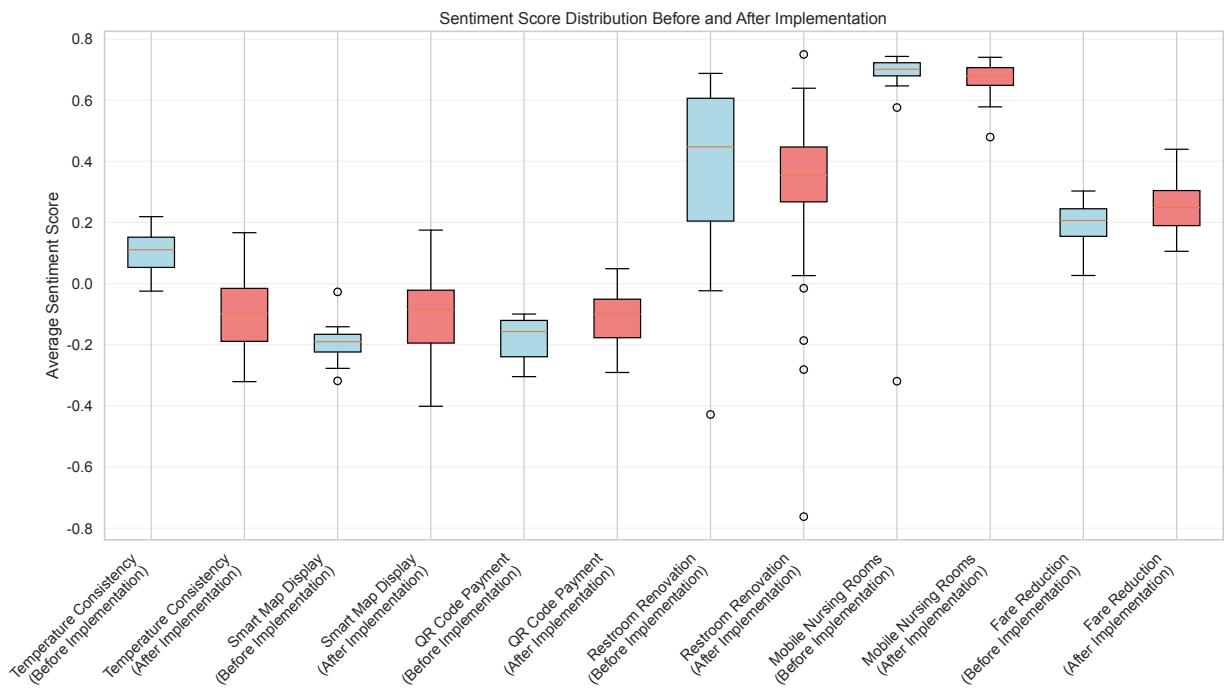


Figure 4: Sentiment Distribution by Program Before and After Implementation

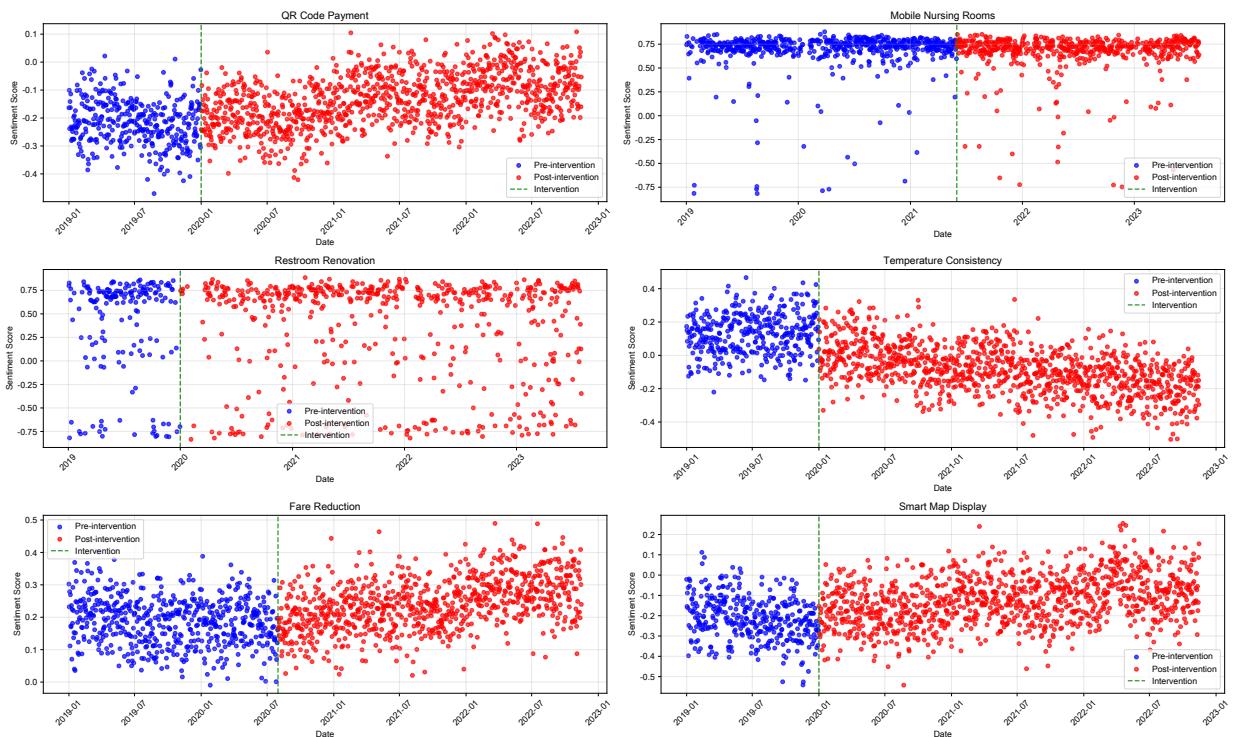


Figure 5: Time Series Analysis of Sentiment Patterns Across Programs

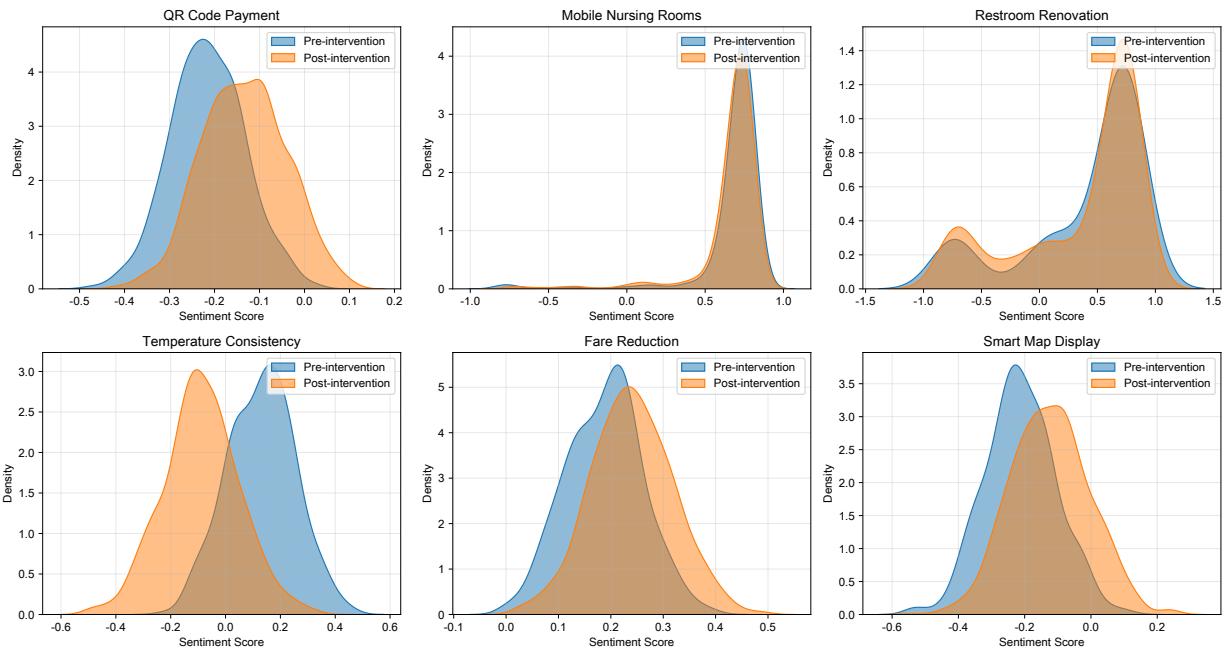


Figure 6: Density Plots of Sentiment Distributions Before and After Program Implementation

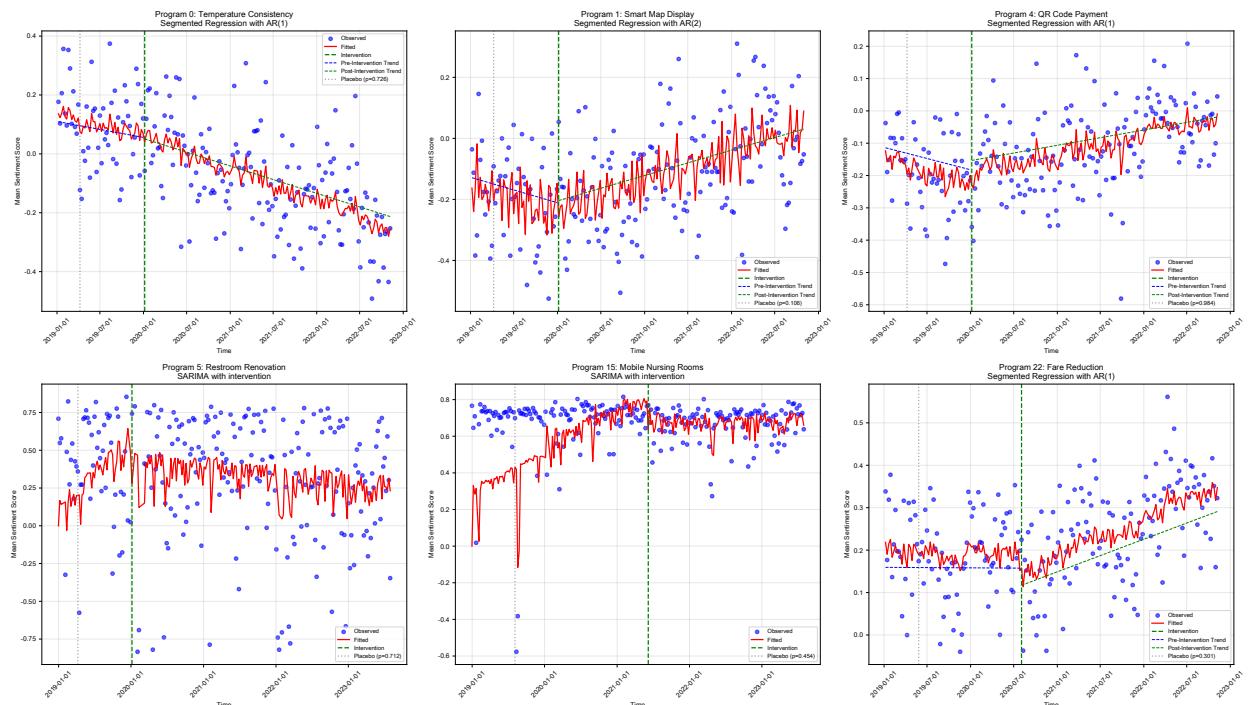


Figure 7: Interrupted Time Series Analysis Results for All Transit Improvement Programs