

Bridging or Bonding? Measures of Topic Centrality for Online Political Engagement

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Abstract

The advent of social media has enabled political elite to engage with the broader populous in new and unforeseen ways – and the ability to bypass the traditional mediating forces of mass media allows for a more direct promotion of policy, ideology and party stances. This has prompted questions as to how different types of messages modulate the overall political discourse, and if certain categories of messages carry bridging or bonding characteristics. Drawing on Twitter data leading up to the 2019 Canadian Federal Election, the notion of engagement graphs are introduced and two novel, graph-based metrics of topic centrality – one which measures how central a topic was to the general discourse, and one which measures how central a topic was to a particular voting bloc – are developed. Statistically significant variations in topic centrality are then shown, demonstrating the existence of bridging and bonding messages. Their implications for political polarization are then discussed.

Keywords: *centrality, political communication, social media, topic modeling*

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1 Introduction

The way information is distributed and received has changed significantly over the past decade. As Cogburn and Espinoza-Vasquez argue, Barrack Obama’s 2008 presidential

campaign was a watershed moment in social media campaigning – and in the subsequent decade, from Macron to Brexit to the Five Star Movement, social media has played an increasing role in how politics is conducted (Manucci & Amsler, 2018; Cogburn & Espinoza-Vasquez, 2011). The same holds true for Canada, between 2013 and 2018 the share of Canadian federal media expenditure spent on digital advertising rose from 27% to 65%, a 140% increase, making the study of new media critical from a social science perspective (ann, 2018). Over the past 12 years, political elites have subverted traditional models of political communication by using social media to directly promote various policies, topics and issues to the electorate¹(McNair, 2017).

Additionally, it is important to note that not all messages promoted by political elites are likely to serve the same purpose. As Schipper and Woo note — dog whistles, micro-targeting, and persuasion games are often a part of electoral politics (Schipper & Woo, 2018). Some topics may be logistical in nature, informing party affiliates of campaign events; other topics may be promoted in an attempt to rally that party's core voting bloc; others, finally, may be an attempt to attract engagement from new, untapped demographics (Shah *et al.*, 2007). The latter two categories are in many ways analogous to Robert Putnam's conception of social capital, which Putnam describes as the idea that "social networks have value." (Putnam, 2000). Here, Putnam draws the distinction between two forms of social capital: the bonding type, which occurs within a group – and the bridging type, which spans different demographics (Putnam, 2000). Hofer and Aubert note that usage of Twitter had some affect on perceived amounts of bridging social capital (Hofer & Aubert, 2013). As well, Miller *et al.* and Gil *et al.*'s findings suggest positive correlates between social media usage and political activity (Miller *et al.*, 2015; Gil de Zúñiga *et al.*, 2012). However, no research has touched on how different types of messaging affect the bridging or bonding capabilities of social media, and how this relates to political media. Therefore, the research question being proposed is: are their data to support the notion that some political messages are bonding in nature, rallying members within a group, while other political messages are bridging in nature? This question will be answered within the context of the 2019 Canadian Federal Election with the tweets of Canada's five major, English speaking party leaders: Andrew Scheer, Elizabeth May, Jagmeet Singh, Justin Trudeau, and Maxime Bernier.

In order to answer this question, a justification of Canadian politics and social media data in this context will be given. Then an overview of the data collected and a formal definition of the political engagement graph used will allow for the exploration of two measures of topic centrality: total network topic centrality, and party leader topic centrality. Finally, results from this process and a discussion of their implications will highlight possibilities for future research.

1.1 Social Media in the Canadian Context

While it is clear that technology is changing how information is received, and thus also changing how politics is conducted, it may not be clear the role of Canadian politics in this

¹ The terms policy, issue and topic will be used interchangeably to refer to categories of messages.

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context. However, Canada's political system is a fertile environment to test the importance of political messaging, because relative to most liberal democracies, it is dominated by party politicians (Cross & Young, 2004). As Carty put it:

No obvious simple geographic reality, no common linguistic or religious homogeneity, no common revolutionary experience or unique historical moment animated [Canada] or gave it life. Canada was created when a coalition of party politicians deemed it to be in their interest to do so, and it has been continuously grown, reshaped and defended by its politicians. (Carty & Cross, 2010)

Thus, it is not surprising that Canada's political system encourages electoral pragmatism – and developed large, “big tent” parties that are among the most organizationally weak and decentralized of established democracies (Cross & Young, 2004). This system defines political parties as brokers of the often conflicting, weakly integrated electorate — as opposed to mobilizers of distinct communities, articulating claims rooted in their pre-existing interests. In this way, parties act as the “principal instruments of national accommodation, rather than democratic division” (Carty & Cross, 2010).

The dominance of parties in Canadian politics, their amorphous ideological stances, and the many intersectional geographic, linguistic and religious cleavages have given birth to what's been coined the brokerage party system (Carty & Cross, 2010). The need to capture pluralities in a diverse range of electoral districts means that most parties have to take stances on most issues, and thus when a user engages with a specific issue, it doesn't necessarily invoke a specific party or vice versa (Franklin, 1992). This makes Canada a preferable case relative to systems with smaller, single-issue parties. The relative lack of ideological constraints mean Canadian politicians are forced to decide when to expand their voter base, risking fragmentation, and when to appeal to their existing supporters, potentially segmenting off parts of the electorate (Schipper & Woo, 2018; Franklin, 1992).

1.2 Content as a “First-Class Citizen”

Given the utility of Canadian politics in answering questions about different axes of political engagement, the question then is: how do we observe and interrogate this landscape? Social media data, culled from platforms like Twitter, are inherently relational – and thus lend themselves well to being represented as graphs. An empirical analysis that observes and measures how users behave and engage with political elite online privileges this relational aspect of social media. Social network analysis helps avoid the pitfalls of survey data, famously described by Allen Barton as “a sociological meat grinder, tearing the individual from [their] social context” (Freeman, 2004). While there exists studies on user engagement in social networks, online or otherwise, such research generally focuses on connections between individuals (*User A* is connected to *User B*) and rarely acknowledges the context with which engagement occurs (Zhang *et al.*, 2017; Kavanaugh, 2002; Hofer & Aubert, 2013; Miller *et al.*, 2015). In an online environment, certain users may engage with certain content producers when they produce certain forms of content, but choose not to engage with that same producer if the subject matter differs. As such, more nuanced graph models are needed and developed that acknowledge the importance of the producer of the content *as well as the content itself* in shaping engagement. Content holds an especially

important role in online mediums, where users have a granular ability to control what they expose themselves to. This theoretical underpinning allows for a more nuanced analysis and in doing so makes content a “first-class citizen.”

2 Methods

2.1 Data

The novel dataset used was collected via Twitter’s historical search application programming interface (API), which allows user’s to programmatically access any publicly available tweet. The API was used to collect all of the English² tweets from Canada’s five, English speaking party leaders: Andrew Scheer, Elizabeth May, Jagmeet Singh, Justin Trudeau, and Maxime Bernier. The timeframe of collection ranges from October 21, 2018 to October 21, 2019 – the eve of Canada’s federal election. While the tweets from each Federal party’s official Twitter accounts were also collected, they predominantly acted as logistical tools – informing party affiliates of events and rallies. The personal accounts for party leaders were generally more pertinent to their beliefs, platforms and style of rhetoric, and thus are better suited to analyze the bridging versus bonding nature of various topics. In this spirit, only tweets of the party leader were used, excluding retweets. Figure 1 visualizes the daily and cumulative number of tweets over time, in aggregate and by party leader, resulting in 7,978 total tweets. Additionally, for each tweet collected from a party leader, all of the available retweets by general users³ were collected for a total of 113,293 retweets by 36,450 general users. This is, again, visualized in aggregate and by party leader in Figure 2.

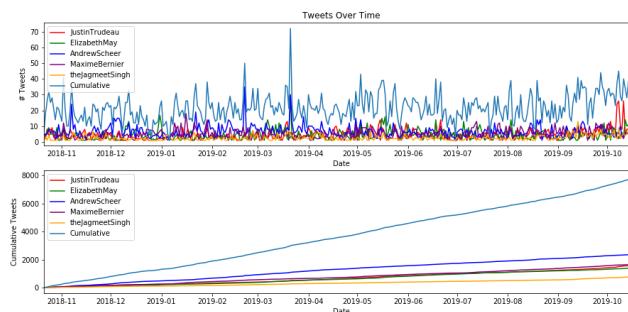


Fig. 1. Daily and Cumulative Tweets over Time

Given the inherent noise and extraneous info in text data, it is standard and necessary to preprocess text before modeling (Sapul *et al.*, 2017). The text cleaning pipeline removes punctuation marks, stop words, words with fewer than three characters, and URLs, as well as common Twitter symbols like “RT:”, “@” and “#”. Emojis were converted to

² Denoted by a language marker in the historical search API.

³ The term general users will denote those active on Twitter who are not party leaders.

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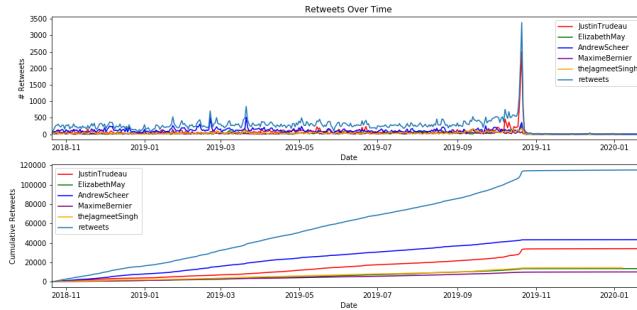


Fig. 2. Daily and Cumulative Retweets over Time

text using the Python package `emoji`. After this process, all text was converted to lower-case and lemmatized to get rid of common suffixes. Therefore, the tweet in Figure 3 after preprocessing reads: *wherever maple leaf fly represents rich history bright future value hold dear happy flag day canada.*



Fig. 3. Daily and Cumulative Retweets over Time

2.1.1 Engagement Graph

The networks considered in this paper are connected, unweighted, and undirected. Let (V, E) be a network, where V is the set of vertices and E is the set of edges. If vertex v_1 is connected to vertex v_2 , it is denoted by $(v_1, v_2) \in E$. Engagement graph's are defined with additional constraints that denote three categories of vertices: those that *produce objects* (tweets, songs, goods, services, *etc.*), those that represent the objects produced, and a third set of vertices that represent those who choose to engage with the various produced objects in the network. In this context the engagement graph represents the tweets that party leaders produce, and the general users who choose which tweets to engage with. An example of this type of political engagement graph is shown in Figure 4. More formally, the political engagement graph is defined below:

- *Vertices:* Let $V_1 = \{v_1, v_2, \dots\}$ be the set of party leaders; $V_2 = \{v_1, v_2, \dots\}$ be the set of tweets by the party leaders; and let $V_3 = \{v_1, v_2, \dots\}$ be the set of “general users” who retweet tweets. Let the total set of vertices $V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup V_3$.
- *Edges:* Let E be the set of edges. Allow the edge $(v_1, v_2) \in E$ if and only if $v_1 \in V_1, v_2 \in V_2$ or $v_1 \in V_3, v_2 \in V_2$. By this definition, we will only allow edges from a party leader vertex to a tweet vertex, or from a general user vertex to a tweet vertex.

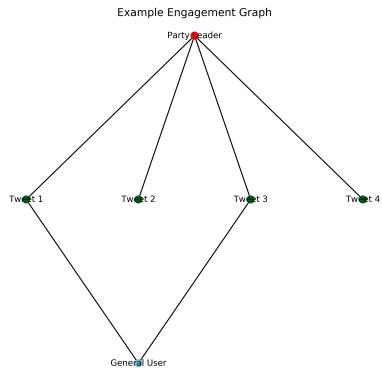


Fig. 4. Example Engagement Graph

Further nuances can be added to distinguish between different types of objects, which in this context would refer to tweets of different topics. Figure 5 visualizes the full political engagement graph collected with all 5 party leaders, 7,978 tweets, 36,450 general users, and 113,293 retweets⁴ built with these constraints.

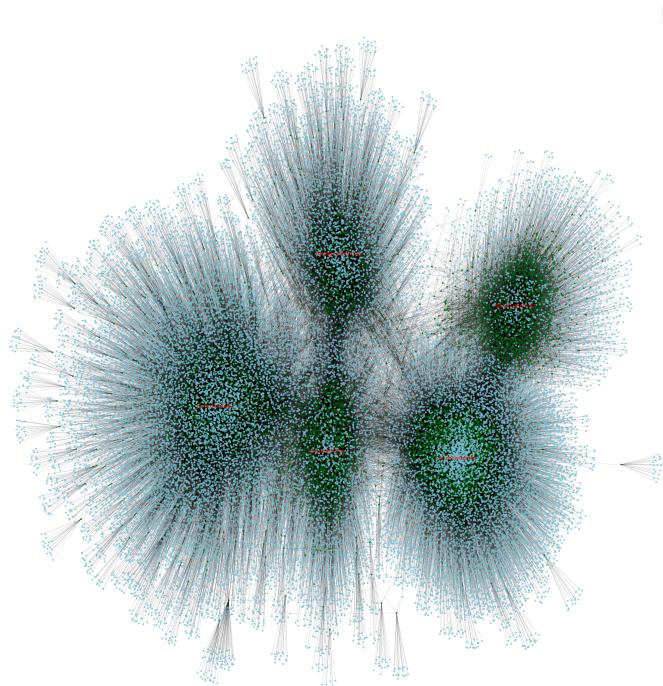


Fig. 5. Full Engagement Graph

⁴ The number of retweets is equivalent to the number of edges from tweet vertices to general user vertices.

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2.2 Topic Modeling

In order to evaluate the bridging and bonding characteristics of various political messages on Twitter, the tweets collected must first be organized by topic. Given the size of the data, manually coding each label is inefficient as well as subject to individual biases. As a result, there is a need for techniques that autonomously organize big, unclassified corpuses of text.

Topic modeling methods find clusters of words that frequently occur together (topics), connects words with similar meanings, and distinguishes different uses of words with multiple meanings (Alghamdi & Alfalqi, 2015). This is based on the underlying assumption that a document is concerned with a fixed set of topics, and that the frequency of words used is indicative of this latent structure (Blei *et al.*, 2003). Given that topic extraction approaches based on keywords are brittle, context specific and are unable to capture emergent topics – unsupervised machine learning techniques, like the latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA) developed by Blei *et al.*, are especially useful for autonomous topic extraction. An LDA model defines two distributions – one which models topics as “a distribution over a fixed vocabulary of terms,” and another which models documents as a distribution of topics based on the occurrences of words in each document, the topic distribution per word and the importance of words to each topic (Blei *et al.*, 2003). The LDA requires four inputs: the text corpus – which in this context are the cleaned tweets from all 5 party leaders; α – which acts as a concentration parameter for how documents are modeled as topics; β – which acts as a concentration parameter for how topics are modeled as words; and k – which is the number of topics to be modeled (Blei *et al.*, 2003).

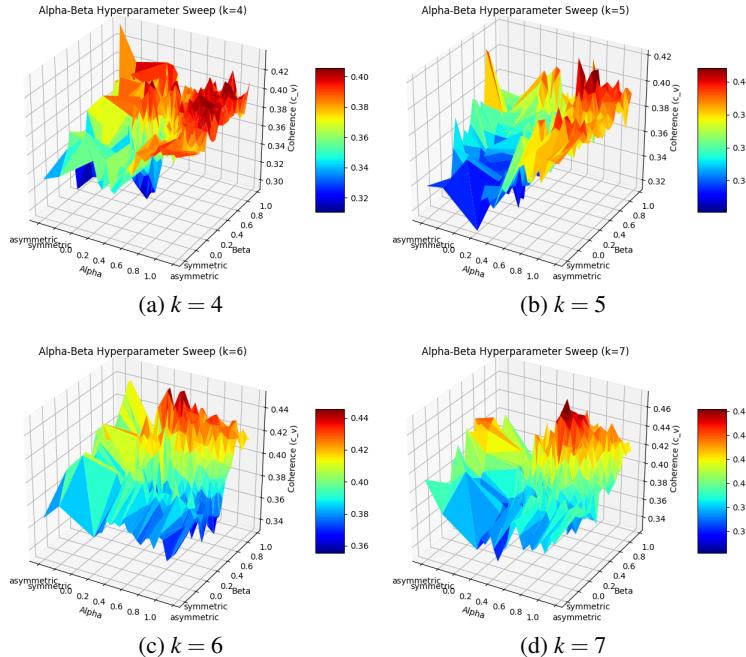


Fig. 6. LDA Parameter Sweep Results

By performing a parameter sweep, where α and β lie on the interval $[0, 1]$ with increments of 0.05, and k ranging from 4 and 7, various LDAs were exposed to the entire corpus of tweets and then evaluated using c_v coherence. Figure 6 shows, for each k value, the c_v coherence as a function of different combinations of α and β . The most performant model had a k value of 7, α of 0.31 and β of 0.81 and a c_v coherence score of 0.48. By labelling each tweet as the maximum probability value in its topic mixture, each tweet was assigned a single topic. The word clouds for each topic are described in Figure 7.

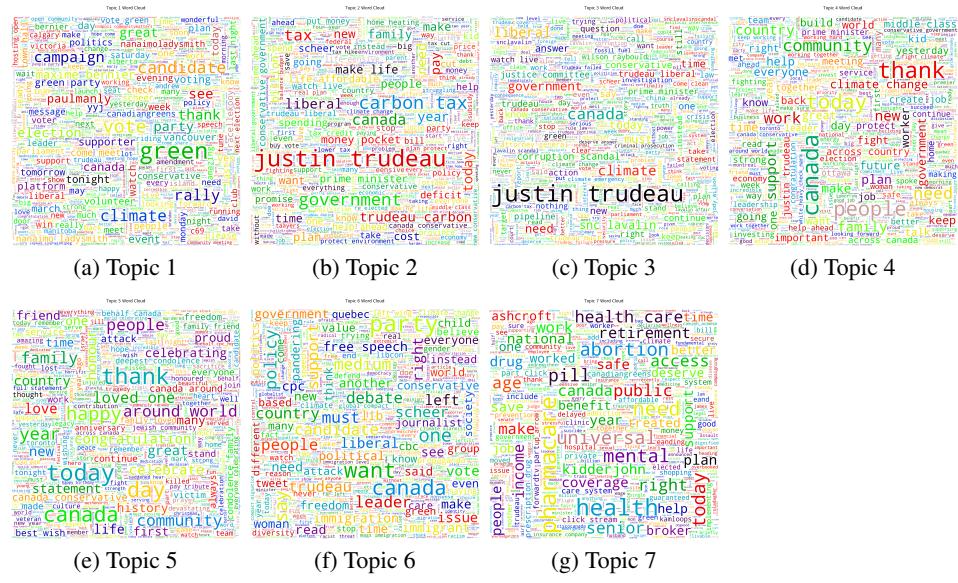


Fig. 7. LDA Topic Word Clouds

Topic 1 pertained to campaign messages, rallies and logistics – and makes up 8.2% of all tweets. Topic 2 contains tweets regarding a carbon tax, pipelines and the economy – and makes up 16.3% of all tweets. Topic 3 contains tweets about the SNC Lavalin affair, a scandal that plagued Justin Trudeau, and tweets about corruption – making up 18% of all tweets. Topic 4 is predominantly appeals to the middle-class and economy – and is 29.7% of all tweets. Topic 5 contains celebratory messages about the campaign, as well as tweets regarding national holidays and days of remembrance – and make up 15% of all tweets. Topic 6 is made up of tweets about immigration, diversity and free speech – and makes up 11.5% of all tweets. Finally, topic 7 contains tweets regarding healthcare, abortion and pharmacare – and makes up 1% of all tweets. The magnitude of how many tweets were assigned to each topic is shown in Figure 8.

As can be seen by part (b) of Figure 8 – while Topic 6, tweets pertaining to diversity and immigration, only made up 11.5% of all Tweets they made up the majority of Maxime Bernier's. This signals an attempt on his part to bring these topics to the forefront of the debate despite few other party leader's broaching the topic. Additionally, Andrew Scheer and Elizabeth May's campaigns relied heavily on topic 3, the SNC Lavalin affair, with a disproportionate number of tweets aimed at Justin Trudeau's handling of the scandal. Finally, it can be noted that Maxime Bernier and Andrew Scheer also had a disproportionate

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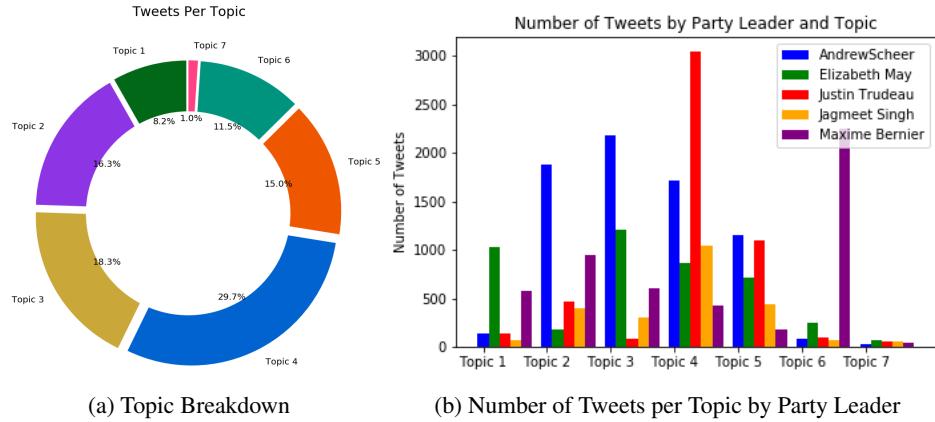


Fig. 8. LDA Topic Distribution

number of tweets pertaining to topic 2 – rebutting Justin Trudeau’s plan to implement a carbon tax, and arguing for greater access to Alberta’s Oil Sands. In Schipper and Woo’s model for political messaging, an initial assumption is that each party leader tailors their messages to appeal to various demographics; however, that remains to be seen without a more rigorous analysis of how the electorate engage with each category of message (Schipper & Woo, 2018). By assigning each tweet vertex to a topic and then coloring the tweet vertices accordingly, the full engagement graph (Figure 9) for online political content is complete and ready for analysis.

2.3 Topic Centrality

Descriptive measures like Figure 8 show the frequency with which tweets of different topics were promoted by Canadian party leaders leading up to a major election. However, these Figures say little about how different policies rallied groups of existing supporters, or bridged different voting blocs. In order to answer such questions – the metric eigenvector centrality is expanded upon. The result are two variations of topic centrality: total network topic centrality and party leader topic centrality. By juxtaposing the two, various insights about how different topics influenced discourse can be derived.

2.3.1 Eigenvector Centrality

Research concerning the centrality of vertices in a graph have successfully been applied to problems in marketing, economics and epidemiology; Stephenson and Zelen explored the utility of centrality measures in studying the social dynamics of Gelada baboons (Stephenson & Zelen, 1989). Common centrality measures include measures of degree and betweenness. This article will focus on the notion that central vertices are close to other central vertices, which is one of the founding intuitions behind Google’s “page-rank” algorithm and eigenvector centrality.

As Newman lays out in his 2016, Mathematics of Networks: “the eigenvector centrality [...] accords each vertex a centrality that depends both on the number and the quality of its connections: having a large number of connections still counts for something, but a vertex

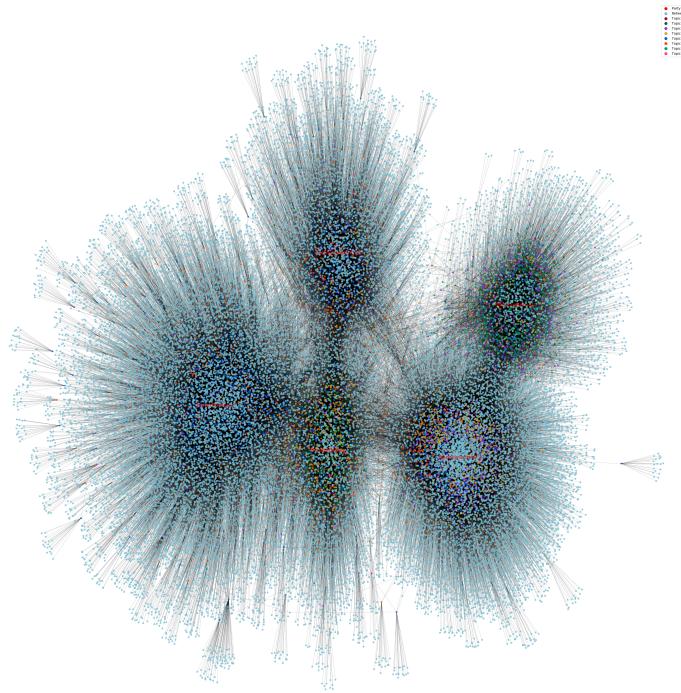


Fig. 9. Full Engagement Graph With Tweet Vertices Colored By Topic

with a smaller number of high-quality contacts may outrank one with a larger number of mediocre contacts.” (Newman, 2008) The eigencentrality of vertex i given an adjacency matrix A is defined as x_i where x_i is proportional to the average eigenvector centrality of i ’s neighbors:

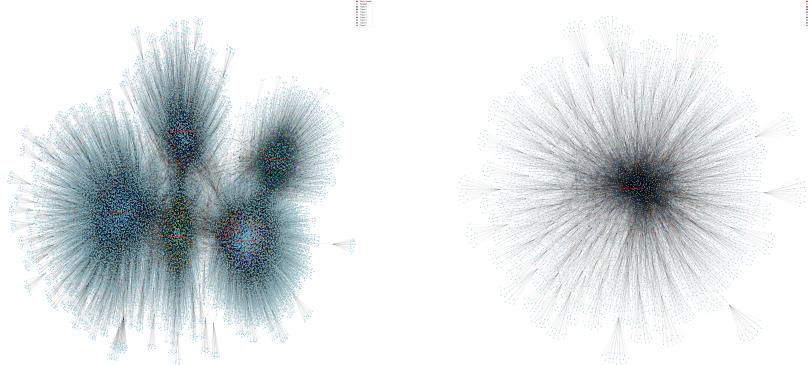
$$x_i = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j \quad (1)$$

where λ is some constant. By defining the vector of centralities as $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ this equation can be rewritten as $\lambda \vec{x} = A \cdot \vec{x}$, and it is evident that \vec{x} is an eigenvector of the adjacency matrix with eigenvalue λ (Newman, 2008). By Perron-Frobenius theorem, picking the largest eigenvalue of A will result in all elements of \vec{x} being non-negative (Newman, 2008).

2.3.2 Total Network Topic Centrality

Total network topic centrality is an aggregate of the eigenvector centrality of all tweets of a certain topic in the entire engagement graph. For reference, this graph has been reproduced in part (a) of Figure 10. More formally, and with slight abuse of notation, the total network topic centrality of topic t , T_t , can be defined as the set of all eigenvector centrality measures for tweet vertices of topic t in a graph G .

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(a) Full Engagement Graph (b) Political Engagement Subgraph for Jagmeet Singh

Fig. 10. Example Engagement Graph and Subgraph

$$T_t := \{x_i, \forall i \in G \mid \text{type}(i) = \text{tweet}, \text{topic}(i) = t\} \quad (2)$$

When taking the aggregate (sum, mean, z-score relative to other topics), a single number can be assigned to the relative importance of topic t . And in keeping with the strengths of eigenvector centrality, T_t will be larger if: those tweets are retweeted a lot, and if they're retweeted by *highly engaged* users. This is a desirable aspect as highly engaged users are more likely to share content, attend a political rally and vote (Miller *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, total network topic centrality provides a nuanced metric for how central different issues were to the entire online discourse.

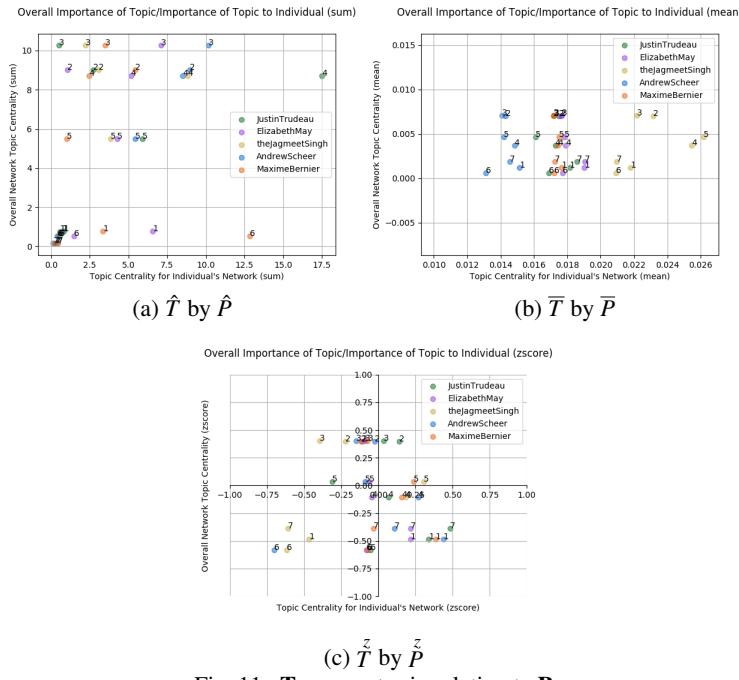
2.3.3 Party Leader Topic Centrality

In order to measure how central a topic is to a party leader's base, party leader topic centrality was developed. This assumes a world in which party leader j is the only actor with which general users can engage with. This is done by taking a subgraph of $G - G_j$ – which only contains party leader j , all of j 's tweets, I , and all edges from $i \in I$ to the general users who retweeted one of j 's tweets. An example of this is in part (b) of Figure 10, which demonstrates the subgraph for Jagmeet Singh.

After the subgraph G_j is constructed, the party leader topic centrality P_{tj} is defined as the set of all eigenvector centrality measures for tweet vertices of topic t in a graph G_j .

$$P_{tj} := \{x_i, \forall i \in G_j \mid \text{type}(i) = \text{tweet}, \text{topic}(i) = t\} \quad (3)$$

Similarly, by taking the aggregate of P_{tj} a single centrality score can be assigned that measures how important topic t was to those who engaged with that party leader. This will be higher if it: has a high number of retweets and is retweeted by j 's *most engaged followers*. Highly active users who rarely engage with that specific party leader are therefore discounted in this metric relative to someone who is less engaged, but concentrates their attention on that party leader's content.

Fig. 11. \mathbf{T} aggregates in relation to \mathbf{P}

3 Results

After calculating $\mathbf{T} = \{T_t, \forall t \in \text{topics}\}^5$ and $\mathbf{P} = \{P_{tj}, \forall t \in \text{topics}, \forall j \in \text{party_leaders}\}^6$, each individual centrality measure, $T_t \in \mathbf{T}$ and $P_{tj} \in \mathbf{P}$, can be summated (\hat{T}_t/\hat{P}_{tj}), have its mean calculated (\bar{T}_t/\bar{P}_{tj}), or have its z-score taken relative to other topics in its set⁷ ($\tilde{T}_t/\tilde{P}_{tj}$).

Figure 11 shows plots of \mathbf{T} as a function of \mathbf{P} ; each point is colored according to its party leader and is annotated with the topic that it pertains to. The x-axis is the party leader topic centrality score for all party leader and topic combinations – and the y-axis is the total network topic centrality score for each topic⁸.

Some initial insights from comparing \hat{T} by \hat{P} with \bar{T} by \bar{P} ; while Maxime Bernier promoted a large number of tweets regarding immigration, free speech and diversity as indicated by a high \hat{P}_{6M} – these tweets gained little traction overall in the entire network (\tilde{T}_6) as well as compared to other topics Bernier tweeted about (\tilde{P}_{6M}). Additionally, despite the relatively few tweets pertaining to health care and pharmacare (topic 7), and the low total network centrality score (\tilde{T}_7), they were disproportionately important to Justin Trudeau’s

⁵ *topics* refers to the seven topics that tweets could be assigned to.

⁶ *party_leaders* refers to the five Canadian Federal party leaders whose tweets were collected.

⁷ For the party leader topic centrality, the z-score of topic centrality is based off of other tweet topics for that party leader.

⁸ This explains why all party leader topic centrality scores for the same topic lie on the same point on the y-axis.

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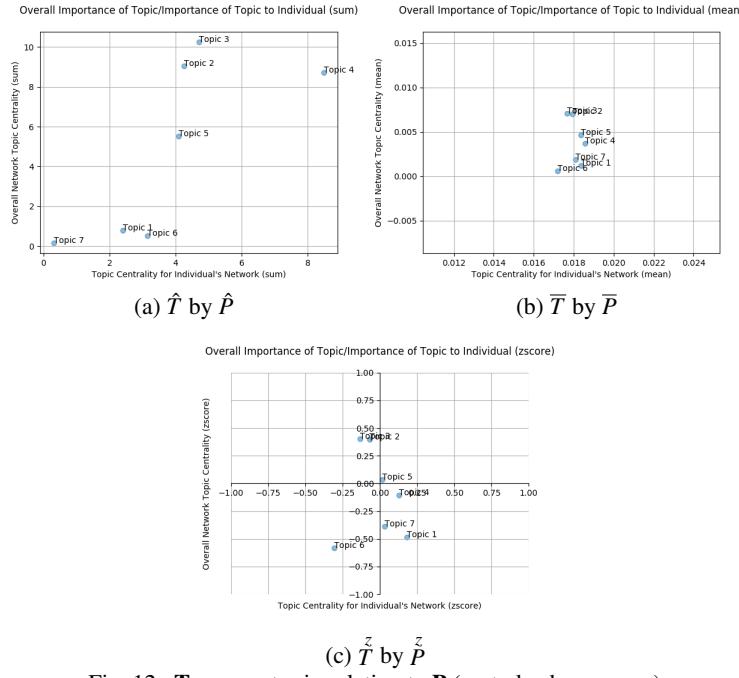


Fig. 12. \mathbf{T} aggregates in relation to \mathbf{P} (party leader average)

network (\tilde{P}_{7T}). Discrepancies in a topic that gives the highest \hat{P}_{tj} for a party leader (total topic engagement) and \bar{P}_{tj} (mean topic engagement) can illustrate inefficiencies in connecting with their target demographic.

As well, for each topic – the party leader topic centrality score can be averaged across all the different party leaders to give a more general analysis of how central topics were to the entire network, or to any individual party leader. This is shown in Figure 12. Here it is most insightful to look at \tilde{T} by \tilde{P} , specifically in the lower right-hand quadrant and upper left-hand quadrant. The former indicates tweet topics that are more important to a party leader's base than to the entire network (topics 7, 4 and 1). Topic 1 – campaign dynamics – intuitively makes sense in this category; it is not surprising that messages about the campaign, where rallies are, etc. would be most important to a party leader's base. Conversely, tweets in the upper left-hand quadrant indicate tweet topics that are more important to the overall network than to the individual network – which may be an indication of those topics spanning partisan divides (topics 2 and 3).

The full results for the topic centrality measures are in Figure 1. To ensure that the variation in the topic centrality means isn't the result of random variability, the Kruskal-Wallis test was performed on each set of topic centrality scores. In this context, a non-parametric test like the Kruskal-Wallis test is desirable compared to an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) as the eigenvector centrality scores for a topic were generally not normally distributed. The total network topic centrality had statistically significant variations across different topics at the $\alpha = 0.0001$ level. Andrew Scheer ($p = 3.23 * e^{-15}$), Elizabeth May ($p = 0.0007$), Jagmeet Singh ($p = 2.07 * e^{-12}$), Justin Trudeau ($p = 5.93 * e^{-10}$), and Maxime Bernier's ($p = 4.76 * e^{-6}$) party leader topic centrality scores showed significant variations at the

Table 1. *Topic Centrality Measure Results*

Topic	Total Network Topic Centrality			Andrew Scheer			Elizabeth May				
	\hat{T}	\bar{T}	\tilde{T}	\hat{P}	\bar{P}	\tilde{P}	\hat{P}	\bar{P}	\tilde{P}		
1	0.779	0.001	-0.486	0.726	0.015^a	0.438	6.566	0.019	0.216		
2	9.034	0.007	0.395	8.947	0.014	-0.024	1.074	0.017	-0.110		
3	10.263	0.007	0.402	10.176	0.014	-0.148	7.097	0.018	-0.090		
4	8.719	0.004	-0.106	8.500	0.015	0.269	5.156	0.018	-0.043		
5	5.507	0.005	0.033	5.425	0.014	-0.088	4.278	0.018	-0.061		
6	0.519	0.001	-0.580	0.380	0.013	-0.703	1.490	0.018	-0.082		
7	0.153	0.002	-0.387	0.145	0.015	0.107	0.438	0.019	0.218		
Jagmeet Singh			Justin Trudeau			Maxime Bernier					
Topic	\hat{P}	\bar{P}	\tilde{P}	\hat{P}	\bar{P}	\tilde{P}	\hat{P}	\bar{P}	\tilde{P}		
	0.567	0.022	-0.466	0.816	0.018	0.341	3.353	0.018	0.386		
1	3.081	0.023	-0.223	2.714	0.018	0.140	5.441	0.017	-0.117		
2	2.219	0.022	-0.395	0.515	0.017	0.036	3.493	0.017	-0.071		
3	8.813	0.025	0.184	17.505	0.017	0.067	2.458	0.017	0.158		
4	3.846	0.026	0.306	5.889	0.016	-0.312	1.015	0.018	0.237		
5	0.460	0.021	-0.619	0.558	0.017	-0.052	12.835	0.016	-0.073		
6	0.419	0.021	-0.611	0.316	0.019	0.484	0.224	0.017	-0.033		
7											

^a Bold figures represent the largest value for that metric.

$\alpha = 0.001$ level. What this demonstrates is that the content of the tweet produced has a clear impact on the levels of engagement observed, and that this holds true for individual party leader's bases as well as the general discourse as a whole. The box plots that demonstrate the variability in topic centrality scores, for both the total network topic centrality metric and for each party leader's party leader topic centrality, are visualized in Figure 13.

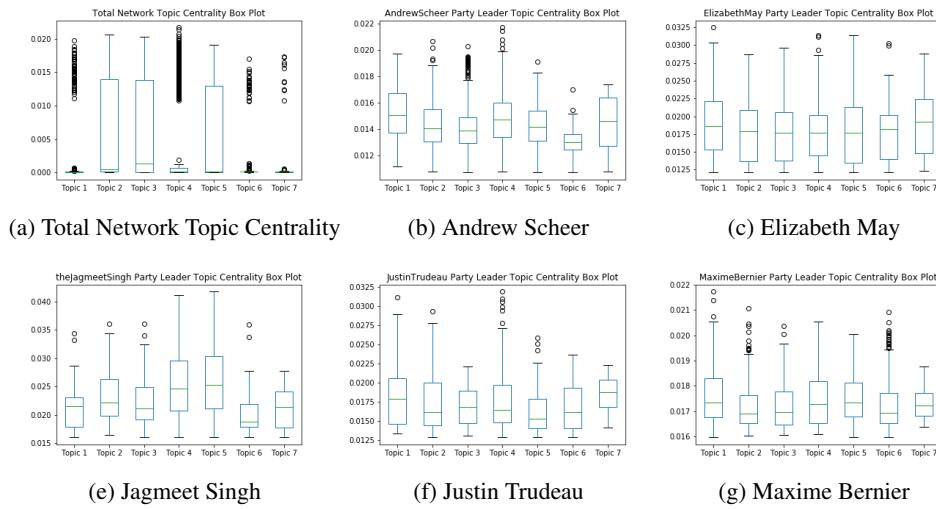
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Fig. 13. Topic Centrality Box Plots

4 Discussion

The methods and statistics developed in this study are new and warrant further refinement and interest – as even their preliminary uses have uncovered novel insights that may be overlooked with existing measures and models of political communication. They demonstrate statistically significant results that both the producer of the content *and the content itself*, are crucial in understanding how social media modulates political discourse and engagement. At a more granular level, it allows for the investigation, and confirmation, that certain messages are more important to the overall network, and certain messages are more important to individual party leaders' bases. The key insight is that these two categories do not necessarily overlap. The topics that informed individuals of party events and campaign information, as well as appeals to individuals economic worries (topics 1 and 4 respectively) tended to drive engagement amongst a party leader's supporters, but had less influence on the overall discourse. Conversely, issues that were pervasive in the public discourse, like the SNC Lavalin affair and discussion of a carbon tax, translated into the digital realm as well – and tended to be more important to the overall discourse. While all party leaders touched on these big “dinner table” topics, and presumably had differing stances on them, they were not the sole preserve of any one party and thus engagement was more likely to cross party lines.

Returning back to the loose analogy between bridging and bonding social capital, and bridging and bonding messages; in an era that is characterized by a heightened sense of political polarization, it is useful to know how different types of messaging provoke different forms of political engagement (Schipper & Woo, 2018). It is interesting to note that engagement surrounding policy issues like healthcare, while important, were often confined to the bubble of a political leader. Bonding social capital reinforces identities, and mobilizes solidarity – from a theoretical standpoint, it stands to reason that bonding messages may serve similar purposes (Putnam, 2000). Bridging messages, like bridging social capital, bring along weak ties, and diffuse information to a larger network of indi-

viduals (Putnam, 2000; Gil de Zúñiga *et al.*, 2012). These are the topics with a higher total network topic centrality score. However, while Putnam argues that "bridging social capital can generate broader identities and reciprocity, whereas bonding social capital bolsters our narrower selves," it remains to be seen if the same holds for bridging and bonding messages (Putnam, 2000). It is very well possible that individuals engage with these bridging issues along partisan lines, in which case a higher total network topic centrality would be more indicative of online arenas where partisans meet and clash. Further research is needed to illustrate and understand when and if bridging issues have the ability to calm partisan divides or flame them.

5 Conclusion

This study has theoretical and empirical contributions. First, the concept of engagement graphs were introduced. This allowed for a more full analysis of the online landscape, acknowledging that only looking at connections between users does not reflect the full relationship between producers of content and their consumers. Engagement graphs were then used in a political media context to develop two metrics of topic centrality, one which measures how central a topic was to the general discourse, and one which measures how central a topic was to a particular voting bloc. These theoretical developments were applied to Canada's 2019 federal election, which introduced a new data set of 7,978 tweets and 113,293 retweets across 36,450 general users. After the set of tweets was modeled and classified via unsupervised topic modeling techniques, metrics of topic centrality were then applied and analyzed. In doing so, discrepancies in engagement were found, showing that often party leaders ignored topics that drove higher levels of engagement amongst their base. Not only this, but often topics that were important to the overall discourse were less important to the party leader's base and vice versa. Variations in topic centrality were shown to be statistically significant and their limitations were discussed, suggesting future research opportunities. These metrics provide a new tool for analyzing what drives political engagement, how information diffuses across a network, and with more work demonstrates potential to analyze how messaging affects political polarization.

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