Government websites as data: A methodological pipeline for collection, processing, and text analysis

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Abstract

A local government's website is a standard and general source of information for citizens and other community stakeholders. Accordingly, government websites have become prominent sources of data for a variety of research agendas in public administration, public policy, and political science. Existing research has relied on manual methods of website data collection and processing. Reliance on manual collection and processing limits the scale and scope of website content analysis. We develop a methodological pipeline that researchers can follow in order to gather, process, and analyze website content with established text analysis techniques. First, for the acquisition of website data, we cover approaches to automated scraping methods. Second, pre-processing is a particularly vital step in text analysis, but when websites are concerned, additional measures need to be taken in order to guard against potential sources of bias. We propose a new method for dealing with the kind of duplicated content that is commonly found in government websites. Finally, we illustrate methods of text analysis using automatically gathered and pre-processed website content. We illustrate our methodological pipeline through a new and innovative dataset—the websites of municipal governments in Indiana and Louisiana. We build upon recent research that analyzes how change and variation in the partisan control of government relates to content made available on the government's website. We explore the association between mayoral partisanship and the content of city websites.

1 Introduction

Local governments convey voluminous information about all aspects of their policymaking, policy implementation, and public deliberation, via their official websites. The vital role of official websites in connecting the government and the governed has motivated a wave of research on the contents of government websites (e.g., Grimmelikhuijsen 2010; Wang, Bretschneider and Gant 2005; Osman, Anouze, Irani, Al-Ayoubi, Lee, Balcı, Medeni and Weerakkody 2014). Despite the potential for automated scraping of website contents, the conventional approach to data collection in projects focused on government websites involves manual content extraction from each website in the dataset. Though highly accurate, the manual approach to data collection is costly, and cannot be scaled to capture even a fraction of the volume of content available on government websites. In this paper we present a methodological pipeline that can be used to automatically scrape government websites in order to build datasets that can be used for text analysis. We provide an illustrative application in which we explore the ways in which the textual contents on city government websites in Indiana and Louisiana correlate with the partisanship of the city mayor.

Though there exists a variety of software tools that are designed to automatically scrape all of the files available at a website (Glez-Peña, Lourenço, López-Fernández, Reboiro-Jato and Fdez-Riverola 2013), raw website downloads have to be processed significantly before the files are adequately prepared for text analysis. We describe and provide solutions to two central challenges in automatically gathering and analyzing website textual contents. First, plain text must be extracted from the files. This involves purging the files of syntax in HTML and other programming languages, and discarding any other character encoding errors that result from reading the files. This challenge would arise in any context in which researchers sought to study the textual contents of websites, and is not unique to comparative analysis of government websites. The second challenge we address in our methodological pipeline is, however, specific to the research objective of comparing websites on the basis of a common lexicon. For any two governments, the textual signatures that most dramatically differentiate the textual contents of their websites consist of what we can call "boilerplate" text—header, footer, or other titling text that is designed to identify the website as being associated with a specific government entity (e.g., "Welcome to the city of Santa Cruz", "The City of Los Angeles welcomes you"). This boilerplate text is replicated across many files that are associated with a government's website, but it provides little information regarding the form and/or function of the government. The second methodological innovation we offer in our pipeline is designed to minimize the impact of this boilerplate text on the comparative analysis of government website content.

Government websites provide information about how public policies shape the lives of local residents, and how local residents can engage with government to shape public policy. As such, government websites reflect both the results of, and inputs to, the political leadership in the city. In our illustrative application we explore the ways in which the contents of city government websites differ on the basis of the partisanship of the city's elected executive. A substantial body of research has found that the partisanship of the mayor affects city governance along multiple dimensions, including city budget priorities (de Benedictis-Kessner and Warshaw 2016), policies affecting inequality in cities (Einstein and Glick 2016), and framing of criminal justice policy (Marion and Oliver 2013). Furthermore, recent media coverage of changes to government websites that follow transitions in party control suggest that changes in web content are salient government actions, as perceived by the general public (Sharfstein 2017; Kirby 2017; Duarte 2017) . We study whether significant differences between city governments based on mayoral partisanship are reflected in the contents of city websites.

2 The Significance of Government Website Content

According to Mayhew (1974), politicians engage in advertising, credit claiming and position taking in order to get re-elected. Official city websites allow mayors to do all three. Their offices frequently take a prominent position on the frontpage, and many websites also feature a picture of the candidate. In local politics, where campaign funds are low, this lends the incumbent a crucial advantage in becoming more well-known among her constituents. Furthermore, municipal politics

gives incumbents clear and tangible achievements they can point to, such as completed infrastructure projects, the acquisition of federal or state funding, or the hosting of city-wide events. City websites present an opportunity for local officials to brandish these accomplishments. Finally, they also give mayors a platform from which they can advertise their political beliefs. On municipal websites, this may not manifest in the form of brazen partisanship, but more subtle avenues are available. As noted by Einstein and Glick (2016), there are stark differences in the spending preferences of Democratic and Republican mayors. City websites can then be used to communicate the stance of a mayor on social or economic programs. Another advantage of websites with regard to communication is that unlike direct social interactions, officials have full control over them.

In addition to the use of city websites for the politicians that control them, variance in content also matters with regard to the people who visit them. Local residents likely rely on city websites to get news about events, hot-button political issues specific to their city, contact city officials or find out addresses or opening hours of city institutions. Visitors use city websites to look up local attractions, which are often described in great detail. Similarly, prospective residents looking to move, might rely on city websites to inform their decision on whether to relocate there. An inviting website emphasizing the city's receptiveness to new residents might make a real difference here. Finally, city websites frequently feature sections on business, but there is a lot of variance in this area: Some emphasize economic development, properties, or transportation, whereas others focus on undeveloped land and other business opportunities. Differences in websites likely say something about a city's economic profile, with potential repercussions for the political realm.

The literature making use of scraped websites clusters into a number of categories. One, and most pertinent to our own endeavors, the e-governance literature which discusses the online presence of governments from a usability and public service point of view. For the most part, research in this category develops a classification scheme to rate websites in terms of accessibility, ease-of-use and function, and then hand-codes a set of websites according to these criteria (Urban 2002; Armstrong 2011; Feeney and Brown 2017). As an example, Grimmelikhuijsen and Welch (2012) study local government websites with the goal of uncovering how they aid the goal of transparency. To this end, they analyze a set of Dutch municipalities in which air quality had deteriorated. The authors test whether local governments provide citizens with information about potential complications and solutions associated with this issue. Like most e-government studies however, this publication does not make any use of automated text analysis.

Websites have also played a major role in the field of media studies, as scholars have scraped and analyzed the online presence of newspapers, as well as the more diffuse world of online political blogs (Adamic and Glance 2005; Gentzkow and Shapiro 2010). Lin, Bagrow and Lazer (2011) provide a good example for a study which makes extensive use of automated content analysis - a necessity arising from its dataset of 66830 blog posts and 57221 online news articles. The authors estimate the political slant of these entities by counting the frequencies with which politicians of either side are mentioned and determine that blogs are generally more biased. Unfortunately for us, the authors don't go into the details of their text analysis, and offer no information on the acquisition and pre-processing of the data.

Another well-known example fitting into this area of study is the set of studies conducted by

King et al. (King, Pan and Roberts 2013, 2014, 2017), in which the authors study censorship by the country's government on its lively blogosphere. However, the authors also provide no information on how their data was collected "our extensive engineering effort, which we do not detail here for obvious reasons [...]".

The websites of politicians and their parties have also fallen under scholarly scrutiny. Researchers have found that in order to identify the constituencies, motives and modes of communication of these actors, their websites can be very illuminating sources of information (Druckman, Kifer and Parkin 2009; Druckman, Hennessy, Kifer and Parkin 2010; Cryer 2017; Esterling, Lazer and Neblo 2011; Esterling and Neblo 2011; Norris 2003; Therriault 2010). Druckman, Kifer and Parkin (2009); Druckman et al. (2010) rely on the Mational Journal to find the websites, then hand-coded them. Cryer (2017) provides fairly little information, but does mention the fact that she relied on Archive-it, the webservice of the Internet Archive we discussed recently. Esterling, Lazer and Neblo (2011); Esterling and Neblo (2011) rely on hand-coded data by the Congressional Management Foundation, a nonprofit organization which aims to assist Congress. Therriault (2010) (a working paper) actually portends to use automated text analysis, and also has the most extensive overview of the associated methodology. However, the division of the website into sections (home page, topics, issues, details) is done by hand, and the actual analysis is incomplete. The author acquired the websites from the Library of Congress (which only collected them from legislators who actually consented, and Therriault notes that this causes nonrandom missingness).

Importantly for us, research analyzing and improving the scraping, pre-processing and analysis methods of this literature is scarce. Eschenfelder, Beachboard, McClure and Wyman (1997) provide something of an overview of how how federal websites should be assessed from an e-governance point of view, but they largely focus on the substantive criteria that should be fulfilled, rather than the technical aspects of website acquisition and analysis.

3 Data

In this section we introduce the data we use in our application—the analysis of municipal websites in Louisiana and Indiana. The General Services Administration (GSA) maintains all .gov addresses, and provides a complete[1] list of all such domains to the public through GitHub[2]. This list is updated once per month - we rely on the version released on January 16, 2017. The data from the GSA contains the following variables: One, domain name, specifically, the all-uppercase version of domain and top-level domain (for example, 'ABERDEENMD.GOV'). Two, the type of government entity to which the domain is registered, such as city, county, federal agency, etc. Three, for federal agencies, the name is specfied. Finally, the city in which the domain is registered, is noted.

Here, we focus only on cities. As a first step, we use a webdriver-controlled browser (Firefox/Selenium/Geckodriver) to test whether all of the city websites actually work. Of the 2425

[1]Domains used for testing and internal programs are excluded.

[2]https://github.com/GSA/data/tree/gh-pages/dotgov-domains

domains listed by the GSA as cities, 292 are not accessible. Furthermore, the .gov domain, as registered at the GSA, is frequently not the website a city actually uses. In many cases, these sites redirect to another address, sometimes not a .gov domain (in this case, we simply use this domain). We record these URLs.

In order to provide an overview of our coverage (as not all cities, towns and villages use .gov addresses), we merge this list with U.S. Census data[3]. Here, several limitations in the GSA data need to be accounted for: One, even though the GSA nominally separates websites of cities and counties, some of the domains categorized as cities actually belong to counties. The same is true for townships and boroughs. Ergo, we eliminate all websites belonging to these three types of entities by hand. Furthermore, the city name, as given by the GSA, refers to the city in which the domain is registered, which is not necessarily equivalent to the city the website serves. In many cases, a website of a larger city may be registered to one of its subdivisions (for example, the website of New York is registered to Brooklyn), or vice versa (for example, the website of Homecroftin, a small town within Indianapolis, is registered to the city as a whole). Consequently we fix mismatches between websites and cities manually. Finally, a number of cities are simply misspelled, which we also correct by hand.

Filetype	current	before	after
	51455	13866	19199
pdf	9646	5489	7544
jpg	5216	1988	3512
html	3767	17842	17596
aspx	2832	4356	3271
png	2714	2327	3684
gif	1068	664	1077
JPG	478	182	263
1	443	61	54
css	390	265	518
js	350	255	468
htm	264	295	256
docx	203	106	120
doc	167	70	130
asp	161	201	211
svg	87	55	69
php	83	157	241

Table 1: The most common file types in scraped websites

[3]http://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/popest/datasets/2010-2015/cities/totals/sub-est2015_all.csv

Website	current_size	current_files	before_size	before_files	after_size	after_files	size_change	files_change	control_change
attica-in.gov	61988	1417	7528	164	55956	1390	7.43	8.48	0.00
bedford.in.us	57628	560	27452	182	46388	525	1.69	2.88	0.00
cityofboonvilleindiana.com	9848	110	16996	172	20784	229	1.22	1.33	0.00
frankfort-in.gov	205368	2652	12208	242	138360	1077	11.33	4.45	0.00
warsaw.in.gov	298440	2117	26844	539	360400	2036	13.43	3.78	0.00
www.bloomington.in.gov	131128	2713	443360	14384	247096	9640	0.56	0.67	0.00
www.brazil.in.gov	43056	845	34472	625	55152	1214	1.60	1.94	0.00
www.carmel.in.gov	2270016	8727	1919344	5361	899900	2219	0.47	0.41	0.00
www.ci.auburn.in.us	183296	1025	21444	345	23564	211	1.10	0.61	0.00
www.cityoffortwayne.org	2136424	4378	266784	3582	233600	3018	0.88	0.84	0.00
www.cityofhobart.org	722000	2463	44192	650	62660	1037	1.42	1.60	0.00
www.evansvillegov.org	6345932	11844	290784	1281	1697224	6853	5.84	5.35	0.00
www.gary.in.us	373888	1227	121812	485	157140	719	1.29	1.48	0.00
www.huntingburg-in.gov	388680	2496	8644	213	375900	1953	43.49	9.17	0.00
www.jasperindiana.gov	561968	4013	55900	460	439072	2224	7.85	4.83	0.00
www.lakestation-in.gov	48	2	7724	84	257272	1097	33.31	13.06	0.00
www.linton-in.gov	32	1	24	2	24	2	1.00	1.00	0.00
www.madison-in.gov	531044	1848	36636	575	191624	1444	5.23	2.51	0.00
www.martinsville.in.gov	46792	1463	71628	1052	80944	800	1.13	0.76	0.00
www.monticelloin.gov	33656	753	18120	448	100680	2104	5.56	4.70	0.00
www.newhavenin.org	84364	626	2524	86	6792	334	2.69	3.88	0.00
www.richmondindiana.gov	250968	1042	217252	918	401672	2422	1.85	2.64	0.00
www.southbendin.gov	1264076	4749	454456	3286	1424136	2562	3.13	0.78	0.00
connersvillecommunity.com	170688	569	162316	815	187276	808	1.15	0.99	1.00
www.batesvilleindiana.us	166564	2348	39592	496	95696	1310	2.42	2.64	1.00
www.cityofrisingsun.com	994956	3311	321400	1268	80848	868	0.25	0.68	1.00
www.cityofrockport-in.gov	12068	98	5148	16	12068	98	2.34	6.12	1.00
www.elkhartindiana.org	1132828	2345	5588	123	6204	223	1.11	1.81	1.00
www.elwoodcity-in.org	224412	765	5000	123	139692	517	27.94	4.20	1.00
www.indy.gov	5726048	9675	6119260	10451	4984080	7981	0.81	0.76	1.00
www.northvernon-in.gov	272016	403	3132	112	289336	416	92.38	3.71	1.00
www.winchester-in.gov	364592	2480	6508	135	45488	567	6.99	4.20	1.00

Table 2: Number of files and size of websites

For some cities, whose websites make heavy use of JavaScript, this method does not lead to satisfying results. Consequently we restricted our corpus to cities with at least 3 documents.

4 The Web to Text Pipeline

In the methodological pipeline from native website files to text data that is appropriate for comparative analysis we address two methodological challenges. First, though they contain significant amounts of text, websites are not comprised of clean plain text files. Rather, the files available at websites are of multiple types, including HTML, PDF, word processor, plain text, and image files. The first step in the methodological pipeline is aimed simply at extracting clean plain text from this heterogeneous file base. The second step in our methodological pipeline is to process the text to remove boilerplate language—language that is effective at differentiating one website from another, but is uninformative regarding policy or process differences between governments. We describe these methodological steps in this section.

4.1 Site to Text Conversion

For the most part, the file type of a document can be correctly determined through its ending. However, there are exceptions to this, which, if ignored, can lead to large amounts of garbage text, stemming from incorrectly converted documents, as well as a general decrease in the amount of usable data. Two issues in particular need to be addressed: One, HTML files on city websites frequently do not have an ending, but are still perfectly readable if correctly identified as such. Second, some documents contain the incorrect file ending - for example, we found thousands of documents on the New Orleans city website that ended in .html, when they were actually PDFs. To accurately assess their type, we read in the first line of each document, which, if it is an HTML or PDF file, contains a string indicating as much. Consequently we rename all documents so that their file ending reflects their actual file type. This is strictly necessary, because we rely on the readText R package[4] - which determines a document's type solely through its ending - to convert the files to plain text.

The text documents are then read into R line by line, converted to UTF-8 and then stripped of dates, punctuation, numbers and words connected by underscores. At this point, the documents of one city still closely resemble one another in the form of boilerplate content, be it website elements (i.e. "You are here", "Home", "Directory" etc.) in html documents, or commonly used forms or phrases in pdfs, doc and docx files. This is an issue, because it clusters documents around the cities from which they originate in a way that has nothing to do with their actual content. In other words, the signal would be drowned out by the noise. Our solution to this problem is described in more detail in section 4.2. Preprocessing further includes setting every character to lowercase, as well as the removal of bullet points which frequently occur in html documents, extraneous whitespace, xml documents mislabeled as html files, and empty documents. Furthermore, some documents

[4]We have also experimented with several Unix-based alternatives, but found that they largely led to the same results.

contain gibberish, often as a result of faulty or impartial OCR. To combat this problem, we employ two solutions. One, we use spellchecking, implemented through the hunspell R package, to remove all non-English words. However, hunspell does not cover everything, either because some tokens are not actual words (for example artifacts from defective encoding), or because random sequences of characters just so happen to form words that exist in a dictionary (for example "eh" or "duh"). Since we rely on a bag-of-words model in which syntax does not matter, we can ameliorate these problems by removing all text except for whitespaces and the characters that appear in the English alphabet. Since a lot of the nonsensical text tends to be quite repetitive, we also delete all documents in which the proportion of unique to total number of tokens is less than 0.15. Furthermore, hunspell does not spellcheck individual characters or two-character words, so we remove these token types entirely (none of these words are of any substantive relevance to our research question). Since these pre-processing steps reduce documents which are largely unsuitable to only a few words of texts that don't make much sense, we also remove all remaining documents containing less than 50 tokens. Finally, to remove words that are extremely rare (which also has the advantage of eliminating any remaining oddities) and thus add nothing substantive to our models while increasing their computational cost, we also discard any token types that occur in only one document.

4.2 Boilerplate Removal

As noted above, city websites contain a large amount of text that is uninformative for its actual content and therefore a hindrance to correct analysis by automatic text processing methods. Consequently we remove this content as following: Each line of every document is compared to every line in every other document belonging to the same city. We count how many times each line is duplicated for that city. We remove any line occuring more than our chosen threshold of 10.[5] This means that each document only retains the information that is particular about it. We implement this algorithm through hash tables, which reduces the computational complexity from O(N^2) to O(N). Before this step is taken, we remove numbers and dates from the documents because they frequently make lines unique, despite the fact that they are virtually the same (for example different days on a city calendar).

5 Bag-of-Words Text Analysis

We illustrate the analysis of municipal website content using bag-of-words (BoW) methods. BoW methods are methods of text analysis that do not take into account the sequence or placement of words in text—just the presence and frequency of words.

[5] Empirically, lines tend to be duplicated either hundreds of times, or only once or twice, if at all.

5.1 Informative Dirichlet model

For the analysis of the data, we present two approaches, the first being the informative dirichlet model developed by (Monroe, Colaresi and Quinn 2008). This approach aims to account for the fact that some words naturally occur more than others by applying a Dirichlet prior based on the distribution of words in random text. Table 3 shows the top words for both Democrats and Republicans - and accomplishes, to some extent, the goal of (Monroe, Colaresi and Quinn 2008) of banishing frequent words from this list and supplanting them with text with greater semantic, and in our case, partisan meaning.

In Indiana, Democrats exhibit a preference for words related to public finance, such as 'fund', 'budget', or 'tax', indicative of a greater willingness to emphasize the city's efforts to raise and spend money. This finding is consistent with (Einstein and Kogan 2015), who show that Democratic mayors tend to favor greater spending. Beyond the focus on public finance, the words preferably used by Democrats do not fall into any particularly congruent categories, and largely sort into various areas related to city administration - i.e. 'council', 'services', 'budget', 'committee', 'contract', etc. If there is theme around the words preferred by Republicans, it seems to center around city planning - street, fire, water, building, construction, park. These words suggest that the hands-off approach favored by Republicans results in a focus on supporting infrastructure and logistics.

For Lousiana, the results (see table 4) are less coherent. Only one of the finance-related terms appears again for Democrats - specifically 'fund', although 'rate' might also be used in a financial context. Beyond that, some focus on a 'historic' ''district of a city seems evident, as is the use of some words - 'infrastructure', 'water', 'building' that were used for Republicans in Indiana. Conversely, Republicans are now missing these words, and their preferred terms generally do not seem to follow any particular theme.

The weakness of the fightin' words method is evident here, as a list of words does not necessarily provide sufficient information to glean preferred topics from. This is especially the case when the texts are spread across a broad number of issue-areas, with little semantic similarity. In (Monroe, Colaresi and Quinn 2008), the authors focus on the fairly constrained corpus of U.S. Senate speeches with respect to abortion - our context, by comparison, is far more eclectic.

5.1.1 Structural topic model

A more powerful approach with the capacity of addressing this problem is the use of topic models. This class of clustering methods relies on the co-occurrence of words within documents to form a set of semantically coherent topics. In order to compare the degree to which Republicans and Democrats prefer specific topics, we rely on the structural topic model, developed by (Roberts, Stewart, Tingley, Lucas, Leder-Luis, Gadarian, Albertson and Rand 2014). Theoretically, the most widely-used form of topic model, latent dirichlet allocation, can also be used to test for the impact of a single covariate through a post-hoc comparison, but the structural topic model allows for multiple covariates, and also produced more meaningful topics in our experiments.

We use 60 topics - the number recommended by the authors for medium- to large-sized corpora, and party as well as city population (the literature frequently emphasizes city size as a determinant of the issues it faces - see, for example, Guillamón, Bastida and Benito (2013)) as covariates. The results are shown in tables 5 to 8. The coefficients in the table headers describe the size of the party covariate on a given topic. In order to test statistical significance, we calculated credible intervals - the topics shown here are all significant at the 0.1% level.

In Indiana, some of the topics associated with Democrats - one related to education, one to recycling - clearly seem to match the party brand. Interestingly enough, Democrats also 'own' the topic related to law enforcement, which might be somewhat unexpected given Republicans' usual focus on law and order (Gerber and Hopkins 2011). However, this kind of finding is not entirely without precedent in the literature (see (Einstein and Kogan 2015)). Similar to the informed dirichlet model, the structural topic model also finds the emphasis on construction and infrastructure by Republicans - in table 5, topics 2, 7 and 8 clearly focus on these issues.[6]

When comparing Indiana to Louisiana, it appears that the Democratic emphasis on law enforcement is robust. Furthermore, as with the fightin' words approach, some smaller degree of focus on money (see topic 1) is still evident. For Republicans, topics 2 to 4 seem to be, once again about infrastructure and utilities, pointing to a certain degree of robustness in these results, as well as the emergence of a trend. The results produced by the structural topic model are not flawless, but the two parties do seem to have somewhat consistent themes on which they focus on in both states. Furthermore, in comparison to the fightin' words approach, the ability of the structural topic model to form coherent topics is quite evident and helpful in the interpretation of the results.

6 Conclusion

We have developed a methodological pipeline for automatically gathering and preparing government websites for comparative analysis. This methodology holds the potential to vastly scale up the data collection efforts underpinning the rapidly growing body of research that is focused on government website analysis. Through an application to the analysis of municipal websites in Indiana and Louisiana, we show how our pipeline is capable of gathering corpora that shed light on the forms and functions of local government.

[6]The first Repuiblican topic in Indiana (library, stream, obj, etc.) is likely an artifact from incorrectly converted html, and since it presumably only happens only in one Republican city, the topic is classified as very Republican.

Figure 1: Word-topic probabilities for topics with big partisan differences, across documents (Indiana).

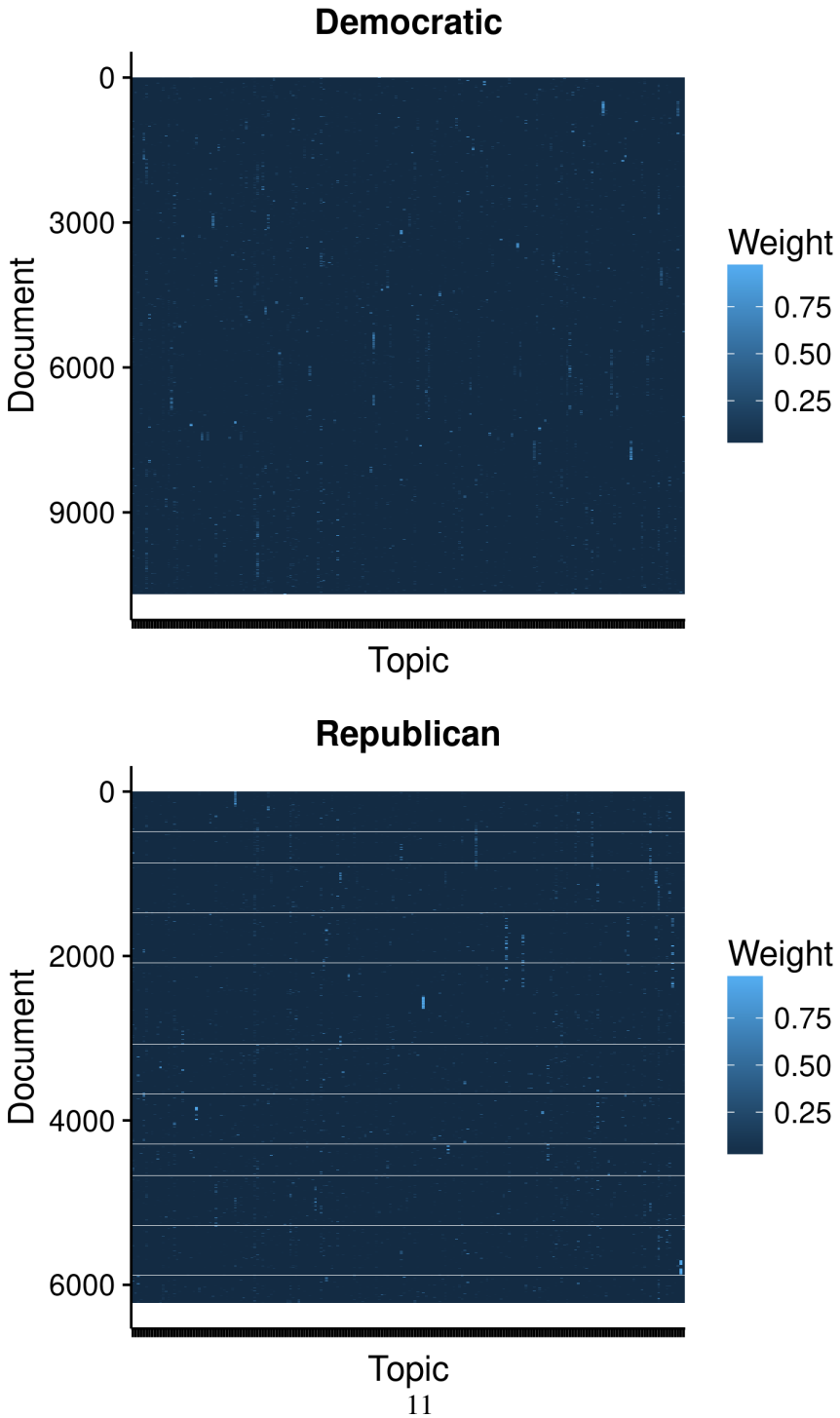

Figure 2: Cities in the corpus, by partisanship of mayor.

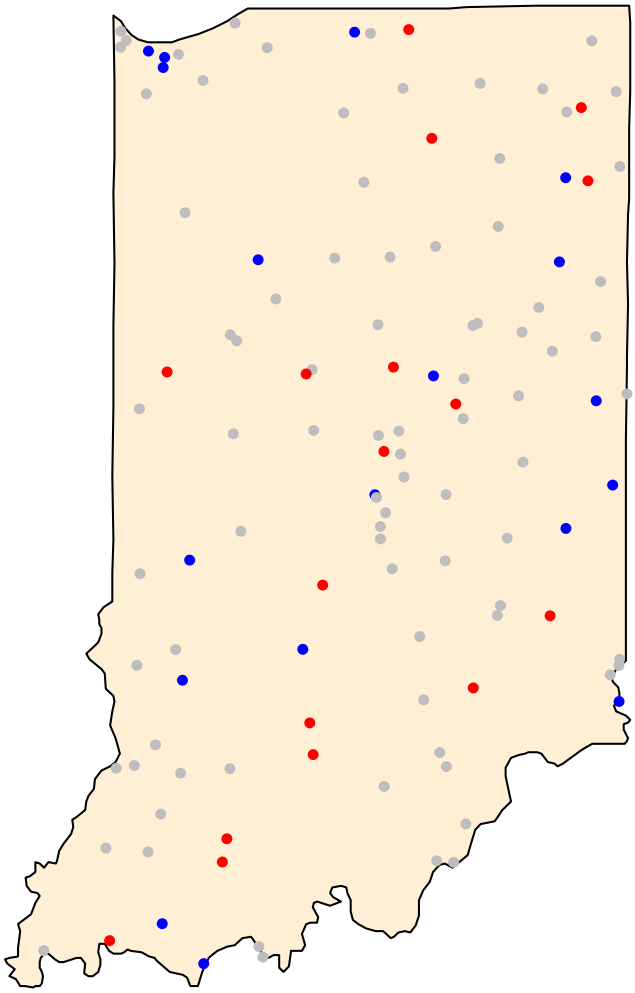

Figure 3: Results from a structural topic model, displayed as the p-values for each variable for each topic. This would normally be somewhat nonsensical, but here it illustrates why the model does not work.

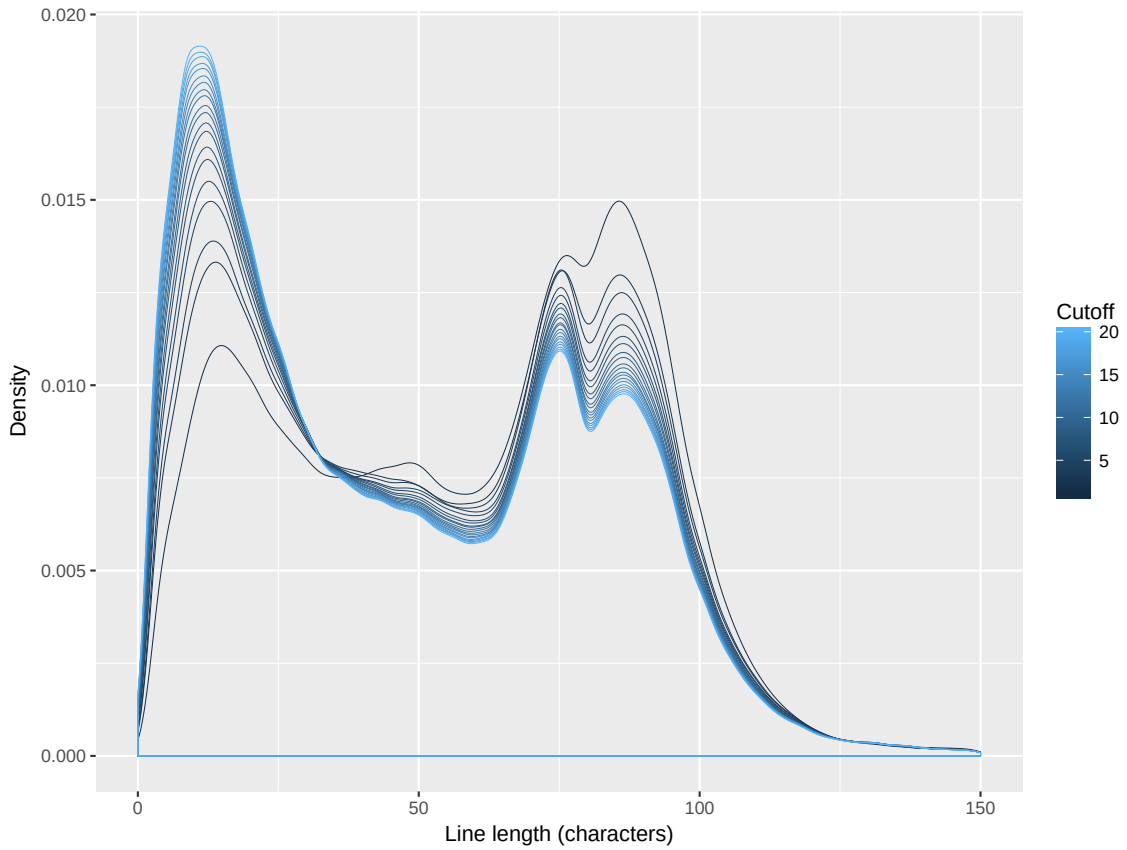

Figure 4: Total number of lines retained at a given threshold for removing duplicated lines. For example, at x = 10, all lines occurring more than 10 times within a city's documents are removed.

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Word (D)	z-Score (D)	Word (R)	z-Score (R)
say	93.15	main	60.56
proposal	80.78	ave	58.11
fund	66.61	sewer	57.85
county	60.76	tree	53.82
budget	57.16	sign	52.42
ask	54.53	councilor	51.18
tax	52.95	utility	49.95
state	49.40	line	49.35
revenue	42.96	stream	49.03
division	42.25	street	47.47
grant	42.25	oral	46.87
million	40.21	member	45.96
contract	40.12	water	44.45
agency	38.15	motion	44.14
general	36.74	building	42.41
introduce	35.96	site	42.10
animal	34.54	flow	39.21
chair	34.19	lot	38.03
metropolitan	33.87	plat	37.84
support	33.78	zone	37.49
authorize	33.65	amp	37.24
federal	33.60	grease	37.21
cost	33.20	plan	36.98
brown	32.78	downtown	35.86
management	29.69	old	35.22
clerk	29.66	root	34.96
increase	29.30	area	34.82
dollar	29.16	docket	34.81
appoint	29.10	rider	34.79
technology	29.07	station	34.45
service	28.32	variance	34.12
digest	28.30	use	34.00
recognize	27.90	carter	33.66
year	27.73	residential	33.56
justice	27.46	request	32.98
court	26.72	foot	32.76
criminal	25.99	clean	32.27
appropriation	25.60	obstruction	31.72
enterprise	25.54	rep	31.69
financial	25.45	overflow	31.42
sander	25.27	lateral	31.08
public	25.09	tablet	30.91
fiscal	24.77	river	30.70
corporation	24.58	road	30.32
whereas	24.46	ordinance	30.10
vendor	24.43	drive	29.96
sec	24.31	pump	29.95
prosecutor	24.30	clay	29.63
pursuant	24.02	secondary	29.61
crime	23.93	fence	29.54

Table 3: Top 50 Democratic and Republican words (Indiana), according to the informed Dirichlet model of Monroe et al. (2008).

Word (D)	z-Score (D)	Word (R)	z-Score (R)
otherwise	20.73	say	86.18
health	18.65	ordinance	77.67
respect	17.98	summary	59.81
use	16.62	bid	58.98
officer	16.22	council	46.92
staff	15.87	amount	41.21
district	15.82	official	39.79
historic	15.51	mayor	39.07
datum	15.19	accordance	37.91
fund	15.02	boulevard	37.78
thereto	14.86	weekend	35.41
building	14.70	weather	34.34
street	14.69	seal	33.27
total	14.60	responsive	33.15
window	14.50	veteran	31.96
applicant	14.41	resolution	29.52
exist	14.19	hold	28.71
housing	14.13	gathering	28.32
provide	13.84	furnish	27.36
review	13.58	councilman	27.19
source	13.54	meeting	26.74
neighborhood	13.09	exceed	26.54
revenue	12.99	show	26.44
target	12.88	emergency	26.01
policy	12.75	resident	25.23
training	12.52	city	24.89
process	12.51	accept	24.73
actual	12.45	visit	24.67
population	12.04	wheeler	24.21
green	11.95	night	24.11
rate	11.70	purchase	24.00
infrastructure	11.68	theater	23.76
urban	11.46	parish	23.63
average	11.45	sweep	23.39
retention	11.22	inc	23.27
master	11.03	tonight	22.09
bureau	10.93	recreation	21.92
roof	10.90	mike	21.82
strategy	10.89	park	21.78
water	10.82	department	21.71
construct	10.79	movie	21.65
residence	10.57	tropical	21.50
reduce	10.47	hall	21.49
relative	10.46	contract	21.31
construction	10.46	pet	21.24
monthly	10.46	morning	21.08
chapter	10.43	begin	20.84
individual	10.35	information	20.78
design	10.29	beach	20.60
standard	10.24	approve	20.56

Table 4: Top 50 Democratic and Republican words (Louisiana), according to the informed Dirichlet model of Monroe et al. (2008).

0.023	0.021	0.019	0.017	0.017	0.014	0.013	0.012
library	foot	team	ave	request	board	amp	building
stream	sign	game	inc	board	meeting	traffic	historic
obj	use	play	cross	member	member	stop	build
length	lot	league	creek	service	committee	vehicle	material
branch	building	camp	construction	street	council	block	preservation
type	zone	class	blvd	approve	commission	sign	wall
flag	area	age	park	city	meet	airport	roof
filter	district	must	lake	purchase	public	ave	window
rim	parking	child	hill	move	director	theft	floor
page	residential	participant	ridge	good	president	signal	new

Table 5: Top Republican topics and words (Indiana), according to STM. The words are the top words for the most Democratic/Republican topic, determined by the size (and significance) of the coefficient (see table header) of the party covariate.

-0.027	-0.022	-0.016	-0.015	-0.012	-0.011	-0.011	-0.01
city	school	downtown	service	contract	city	trash	housing
ordinance	community	business	division	bid	department	city	property
approve	program	project	provide	contractor	mayor	waste	program
resolution	student	city	city	city	police	day	fund
property	education	development	management	agreement	officer	recycle	home
purchase	university	new	public	work	public	street	city
area	national	center	department	service	citizen	collection	project
department	award	economic	program	department	work	resident	neighborhood
contract	high	company	include	bidder	safety	recycling	grant
service	year	community	office	move	resident	snow	unit

Table 6: Top Democratic topics and words (Indiana), according to STM. The words are the top words for the most Democratic/Republican topic, determined by the size (and significance) of the coefficient (see table header) of the party covariate.

0.071	0.054	0.054	0.034	0.033	0.024	0.023	0.02
event	ordinance	water	street	say	city	city	mayor
information	department	emergency	traffic	can	business	meeting	city
show	summary	city	parking	make	new	council	parish
park	amount	resident	lane	get	mayor	commission	town
music	bid	storm	project	take	development	plan	office
food	city	weather	work	people	economic	member	hall
visit	public	waste	bike	work	million	public	contact
weekend	police	system	downtown	need	continue	board	day
festival	approve	power	public	city	work	committee	official
begin	inc	service	bicycle	help	local	planning	state

Table 7: Top Republican topics and words (Louisiana), according to STM. The words are the top words for the most Democratic/Republican topic, determined by the size (and significance) of the coefficient (see table header) of the party covariate.

-0.136	-0.102	-0.043	-0.02	-0.02	-0.012	-0.012	-0.012
art	otherwise	whereas	water	street	shall	police	event
call	provide	city	main	inc	city	crime	city
cost	respect	ordinance	sewer	drive	agreement	officer	park
home	city	bond	project	construction	party	suspect	rental
sponsor	thereto	provide	infrastructure	permit	provide	arrest	use
church	authorize	resolution	street	service	property	report	hour
amp	ordinance	code	system	avenue	owner	victim	hotel
free	district	chapter	improvement	oak	provision	information	public
museum	amend	shall	remark	park	section	murder	provide
artist	locate	otherwise	phase	lane	agree	block	term

Table 8: Top Democratic topics and words (Louisiana), according to STM. The words are the top words for the most Democratic/Republican topic, determined by the size (and significance) of the coefficient (see table header) of the party covariate.

Word (D)	Instances (D)	Word (R)	Instances (R)
city	42493	will	53761
said	40480	city	36210
county	39209	street	21207
proposal	29019	board	19496
public	27070	water	18637
council	23492	plan	18241
shall	23162	public	14327
department	22926	use	13233
services	22703	information	13062
fund	21661	development	12916
will	20697	department	11554
new	19000	area	11270
stated	18794	shall	11247
project	18538	fire	10861
property	18378	can	10748
budget	16631	must	10633
community	16236	park	10493
asked	16231	building	10356
tax	14549	motion	10168
board	14363	ordinance	9625
state	13964	request	9512
office	13818	council	9098
program	13536	community	9072
year	13376	meeting	8990
service	13312	ave	8555
provide	13138	service	8040
one	13066	construction	7999
section	12669	one	7885
work	11986	property	7741
information	11886	also	7492
development	11854	per	7442
committee	11802	required	7407
district	11584	home	7334
time	11466	center	7316
total	10965	made	7301
general	10731	site	7279
parks	10704	business	7222
system	10668	time	7157
digest	10481	services	7140
police	10474	housing	7111
management	10433	new	7006
park	10356	within	6910
also	10112	date	6818
division	9964	year	6768
street	9853	following	6754
resolution	9768	road	6629
contract	9763	member	6450
ordinance	9456	inc	6367
safety	9362	number	6360
code	9342	day	6254

Table 9: Top 50 Democratic and Republican words (Indiana), according to LDA. Topic ownership is determined by the ratio of Democratic to Republican tokens in it (both weighted by the total number of tokens per party). The instances of each token type are then summed across all topics owned by the party.

Word (D)	Instances (D)	Word (R)	Instances (R)
city	19306	city	9930
stream	13397	ordinance	4413
new	13001	information	3756
obj	10440	council	3422
otherwise	8271	said	3301
street	7990	plan	3194
provide	7647	department	2991
district	7449	state	2598
property	7031	public	2594
public	6864	meeting	2392
shall	6750	mayor	2258
respect	6698	one	2166
water	6085	application	2105
thereto	5686	development	2017
development	5124	parish	1809
use	5086	can	1807
ordinance	4963	new	1807
business	4763	water	1780
department	4757	program	1691
community	4705	project	1674
authorizing	4440	time	1648
located	4315	code	1641
mayor	4266	year	1560
length	4215	date	1556
project	3918	number	1548
section	3863	name	1516
service	3831	street	1504
councilman	3824	motion	1500
services	3782	day	1483
zoning	3771	park	1471
parish	3731	home	1469
providing	3641	address	1415
one	3636	office	1408
system	3617	amount	1392
building	3607	ave	1384
can	3557	budget	1382
code	3532	please	1375
office	3305	community	1334
drive	3223	area	1326
work	3171	contact	1319
permit	3165	emergency	1308
following	3153	summary	1282
within	3123	also	1271
must	3088	make	1265
plan	3064	two	1224
neighborhood	3048	work	1213
construction	3016	fire	1184
chapter	2973	bid	1134
ordinances	2885	planning	1124
fire	2878	people	1108

Table 10: Top 50 Democratic and Republican words (Louisiana), according to LDA. Topic ownership is determined by the ratio of Democratic to Republican tokens in it (both weighted by the total number of tokens per party). The instances of each token type are then summed across all topics owned by the party.

	Democratic	Republican
Cities	15	17
Documents	10257	5859
Tokens	6101752	2310072
Token assignments	6006202	2259362
Topics	103	97

Table 11: Descriptive statistics for Indiana. "Tokens" describes the number of words in each party's documents, "token assignments" the tokens assigned to each party in the topic model depending on the ratio of Democratic to Republican tokens in it (both weighted by the total number of tokens per party).

	Democratic	Republican
Cities	11	7
Documents	6287	1327
Tokens	1955198	322915
Token assignments	1789373	314628
Topics	143	57

Table 12: Descriptive statistics for Louisiana. "Tokens" describes the number of words in each party's documents, "token assignments" the tokens assigned to each party in the topic model depending on the ratio of Democratic to Republican tokens in it (both weighted by the total number of tokens per party).