

A Political Spectrograph: High-Resolution Examinations of the United States' Political Landscape

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2 **A political spectrograph: High-resolution examinations of the**
3 **United States’ ideological landscape**

4
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14 **Abstract**

15 The concept of ideology is central to political discourse and dynamics, and is
16 often cast as falling primarily on a one-dimensional scale from “left-wing/liberal”
17 to “right-wing/conservative”, but the validity of this simple quantitative
18 treatment is uncertain. Here we investigate and compare various high-resolution
19 measures of ideology, both internal (self-identification and policy-stance
20 agreements) and external (estimating the ideological position of political opinion
21 statements). We find strong consistency between internal measures, although
22 policy-stance agreement ideology yields a systematically centralizing and
23 liberalizing portrait relative to more abstract “liberal/conservative” measures.
24 More remarkably, we find that external assessments of ideology, while noisy, are
25 largely consistent across observers, even for highly dissonant ideas and regardless
26 of speaker identity markers. This supports the use of these responses as
27 meaningful, comparable quantities, which general members of the public reliably
28 project from the abstract space of political thought onto a shared
29 one-dimensional domain.

30 **1 Introduction**

31 What does political ideology look like in the public mind? Despite the ostensible
32 importance of ideology for structuring political conflict and political organization in
33 the abstract, there is little clear agreement about what constitutes ideology in the
34 context of American politics—about what political ideology means, what it means to
35 the public, and whether it even exists outside a narrow segment of the population.

36 For decades the dominant view within political science was that ideology does not
37 exist in the public mind—that, with the exception of political elites and some
38 politically sophisticated members of the general public, American voters do not hold
39 anything resembling a political ideology (e.g., [1, 2]).

40 Within the general population, party identity and liberal/conservative
41 identification are more aligned than at any time in recent history [3, 4, 5, 6]. Debate
42 remains over how to interpret this alignment in the public—whether a public devoid of
43 ideological thinking is simply mirroring cues from ideologically-sorted partisan elites,
44 or if the increasing and increasingly party-aligned ideological self-identification is
45 based in something more reflective of underlying political preferences (e.g., [7]).

46 Conceptions of how representation functions and what democracy consists of are
47 tightly linked to this question of ideology among the public. A democracy could

48 operate with a purely non-ideological public. But if underlying ideological principles
49 do exist among the American public, a presumption that the public is “innocent of
50 ideology” [1] could deter efforts to uncover those principles and diminish the quality of
51 representation.

52 As Kalmoe [8] notes, scholarship on ideology in the American public has tended to
53 arrive at one of two apparently contradictory conclusions. In contrast to the
54 ideological innocence view of public opinion “signifying nothing ideological for most,”
55 ([8], p. 789), the maximal-dispositional paradigm holds that liberal/conservative ways
56 of viewing the world are deeply ingrained and pervasive. Jost and colleagues write
57 that “Left-right orientations permeate people’s public and private lives” ([9] p. 57).
58 Hibbing et al. [10] go even further, positing that a liberal/conservative outlook is not
59 only “universal” but “probably in our DNA” (p. 298).

60 The observations about ideology among the American public from these different
61 schools of thought are not incompatible. The predictive power of ideological
62 self-identification that the maximal-dispositional view tends to rely on does not in
63 itself show that a liberal-conservative framework plays an active role in shaping
64 political attitudes. And non-conformity of political attitudes to the liberal-conservative
65 framework does not in itself indicate that the public is non-ideological.

66 A persistent minority of scholars have raised and reiterated the point that a
67 one-dimensional liberal-conservative framework is by no means the only form of
68 ideological thinking possible ([11, 12, 13, 14]). Indeed, a number of apparently
69 conflicting observations about ideology among the American public are accommodated
70 when “ideological” is not treated as synonymous with liberal/conservative, and when
71 allowing for different uses of the liberal-conservative framework by political elites,
72 political sophisticates, and other members of the public.

73 While a small portion of the population—the highly-attuned ‘political
74 sophisticates’ identified by Kalmoe and others—may use the liberal-conservative
75 framework to arrive at their views, this does not imply that the rest of the population
76 is non-ideological. Rather, the degree of non-identification, instability, and
77 inconsistency in the public’s use of the liberal-conservative framework could arise if
78 this framework does not reflect the principles by which members of the public form
79 their political views, but rather a foreign language that can be learned and employed
80 for communication. With the aid of elite partisan-ideological sorting, this language
81 has become more intelligible over the past several decades, leading to increased
82 self-identification on the liberal-conservative spectrum ([15, 16]), increased strength of
83 liberal/conservative identification in predicting political attitudes ([17]); and greater
84 temporal stability now than in the past ([18]).

85 We present evidence that, far from exhibiting ideological innocence, voters show a
86 nuanced, consistent, and shared understanding of the liberal-conservative ideological
87 spectrum—but that public opinion also deviates from the liberal-conservative
88 framework in systematic ways. We argue that this combination of findings suggest
89 that members of the public make use of the liberal-conservative spectrum as a
90 *meaningful signal*. Rather than a generative framework they employ to form their
91 political views, the public can learn to translate their political views into the language
92 of this spectrum constructed by political elites—and, aided in deciphering this
93 language by elite partisan-ideological sorting, they have increasingly done so.

94 In an initial study and replication, we find that—although public opinion departs
95 in important ways from the liberal-conservative framework, supporting the idea that a
96 considerable portion of the public does not consist of liberal-conservative
97 ideologues—rather than ideological innocence, people employ the liberal-conservative
98 spectrum in a manner that is remarkably consistent—across different internal measures
99 of their own ideology, as well as their application of the scale across various external

100 stimuli (e.g., parties, policy statements)—and internalized (i.e., relatively insensitive
101 to cues). The consistency and accuracy with which people are able to communicate in
102 this elite-constructed language—as well as their systematic deviations from it—are
103 possible only if the underlying views are patterned and non-arbitrary. The extent to
104 which these patterns reflect sets of principles, shared within subsets of the population,
105 that people refer to when forming political opinions is beyond the scope of this article.

106 The consistency of this one-dimensional projection is a factor of considerable
107 importance for mathematical modeling of ideological dynamics (often under the
108 broader categories of “opinion dynamics” or “sociophysics,” e.g. [19, 20, 21, 22, 23]).
109 These models have generally utilized abstract, binary or one-dimensional “opinion”
110 variables to explore the implications of theoretical influence environments, without
111 necessarily connecting to real-world data due to the practical difficulties of observing
112 and interpreting relevant (often internal/individually-interpreted) quantities.

113 In this study, we present a multi-faceted evaluation of individuals’ sense of their
114 own ideology and their ideological perception of political statements. We hope this
115 work may serve as a bridge for these interested parties to understand the degree of
116 consistency and variability inherent in taking this crucial step of contention with
117 empirical data, and that with such grounding, future efforts may beget
118 theory-experiment feedback loops aimed at elucidating these fascinating and powerful
119 societal dynamics.

120 2 Background

121 Converse’s 1964 study of ideology in the American public began with a broad
122 definition of ideology as “a configuration of ideas and attitudes in which the elements
123 are bound together by some form of constraint or functional interdependence” ([1], p.
124 3). However, finding that “the liberal-conservative continuum... was almost the only
125 dimension of the sort that occurred empirically” in their interviews with members of
126 the public, Converse narrowed the primary focus of the study to whether political
127 views among the public reflected this continuum. Seeing little evidence that they did,
128 he concluded that most of the American public was “remarkably innocent” with
129 regard to “the familiar belief systems that, in view of their historical importance, tend
130 most to attract the sophisticated observer” ([1], p. 66).

131 Recent scholarship continues Converse’s ‘ideological innocence’ debate. Kinder and
132 Kalmoe [2] revisit and update Converse’s project, finding this thesis to hold for the
133 modern American public. Kalmoe [8] reiterates that only the most politically
134 sophisticated citizens hold views that conform to the liberal-conservative ideological
135 framework. In contrast, John Jost, Jonathan Haidt, and others working from a
136 psychologically oriented perspective, see pervasive influence of the liberal-conservative
137 framework on people’s thinking as well as indications that liberal-conservative
138 outlooks are connected to dispositional traits and psychological needs (e.g., [24]). Jost
139 et al. [9] hold that “most people do have political preferences (including beliefs,
140 opinions, and values) that can be understood fruitfully in left-right terms, whether
141 they realize it or not.”

142 Another line of research emphasizes the symbolic nature of liberal-conservative
143 identification among the public. Conover and Feldman [25], noting that research on
144 ideology within the public “has tended to ignore—or perhaps take for granted—the
145 meaning of liberal/conservative self-identifications,” argue that “ideological
146 identifications constitute more a symbolic than issue-oriented link to the political
147 world.” In a similar vein, Ellis and Stimson [26] contend that an identity-based
148 symbolic ideological self-placement should be considered as distinct from an
149 operational, issue-based ideology—noting that when separating these two measures,

150 the American public consistently exhibits issue-based/operational ideological
151 preferences that are more liberal than their general ideological self-placement.

152 Other authors have pushed against the ideological innocence thesis on its own
153 terms. Gries [18] argues that problems with traditional measures have obscured that
154 liberal-conservative ideology among the public is “not only temporally stable and
155 internally reliable, but also powerfully structures sociopolitical attitudes” (p. 133).
156 Simas [7] shows that newer data and improved measurement reveal operational
157 ideology to play an important role in political views for a larger segment of the
158 American population than previous literature has granted.

159 Our argument that the mass public use the liberal-conservative spectrum as a
160 meaningful signal rather than a generative ideology is consistent with a number of
161 observations about American public opinion. It accommodates the widespread
162 evidence that, in a variety of respects, a single liberal-conservative spectrum does not
163 adequately describe political views in the American public (see, e.g., [27, 28, 29]
164 among others on dimensionality; [30] on ordinality; [31] on asymmetry) as well as the
165 observation that voters exhibit a nuanced understanding of what the spectrum
166 represents [32, 33]; that deviations from this spectrum are not due to a lack of
167 awareness about ‘what goes with what’ [34]; and that preferences that appear
168 associated with liberal-conservative identification are in fact driven by issue
169 preferences [35]. Willingness and ability to locate oneself on the liberal-conservative
170 ideological spectrum has increased as elite partisan-ideological sorting has made the
171 language of the liberal-conservative spectrum more intelligible [36, 16].

172 This is not to suggest that people very often employ whatever ideology—the
173 “shared and systematic beliefs about how the world does and should work” [18]—they
174 might have. With elite partisan-ideological sorting, the language of
175 liberal-conservative ideology alongside the binary of partisanship make it very easy to
176 achieve a good-enough guess when it comes to the coarse political choices—e.g.,
177 selecting between two candidates—that comprise the entirety of political
178 decision-making for the vast majority of the public. We also do not suggest that most
179 people know what principles define the liberal/conservative framework, but rather
180 that, with increased sorting and exposure, the public has gained greater clarity on
181 “what goes with what” within that framework, even if they do not know or care what
182 the throughline is. This ignorance does not mean they are non-ideological, but that
183 they are not liberal/conservative in the strictest sense: they make no use of these
184 principles to inform their views. To them, the liberal-conservative spectrum is merely
185 a signaling language they need to learn if they want to convey their views to elites in
186 the manner afforded to them by nature of democratic politics.

187 2.1 Terminology and Survey Overview

188 In this section, we provide a brief overview of the terminology used in this study, as
189 well as a basic overview of the survey we conducted. For detailed study methods
190 including exact wordings, please see Section 5.

- 191 • **General ideological self-placement (General ideology):** $[-50, 50]$
192 ideological self-placement, where -50 is most liberal, $+50$ most conservative.
- 193 • **Issue-by-issue ideology:** $[-50, 50]$ ideological self-placement on each of
194 thirteen politically relevant issues.
- 195 • **Average issue-by-issue ideology:** average of issue-by-issue ideology values for
196 one individual.

- 197 • **Policy-stance agreement ideology:** $[-50, 50]$ agreement with each of 10
198 major policy positions/attitudes, where agreement for liberal positions is
199 sign-flipped to align with other ideology measures.
- 200 • **Average policy-stance agreement ideology:** average of policy-agreement
201 ideology values for one individual.

202 A pilot study was conducted with participants ($N=296$) recruited from Mechanical
203 Turk ($N=166$), a large midwestern university ($N = 90$), and volunteers ($N = 40$). The
204 primary study ($N=508$) was conducted with participants recruited through Prolific,
205 and collected to provide a sample representative of the U.S. population on age, gender,
206 race/ethnicity, and party identification. Figures in the main text are based on this
207 second, nationally-representative sample, with corresponding figures for the initial
208 study in Appendix B in the Supporting Information (SI).

209 3 Results

210 3.1 Internal Ideology Assessments

211 First, we examine different internal measures of individuals’ ideology in comparison:
212 their overall, “general” self-reported sense of their own ideology versus more granular
213 measures. These more granular metrics take two different forms: self-placement on a
214 liberal-conservative scale for individual issues, and policy-stance agreement. We find
215 several noteworthy relationships, as summarized in Figure 1.

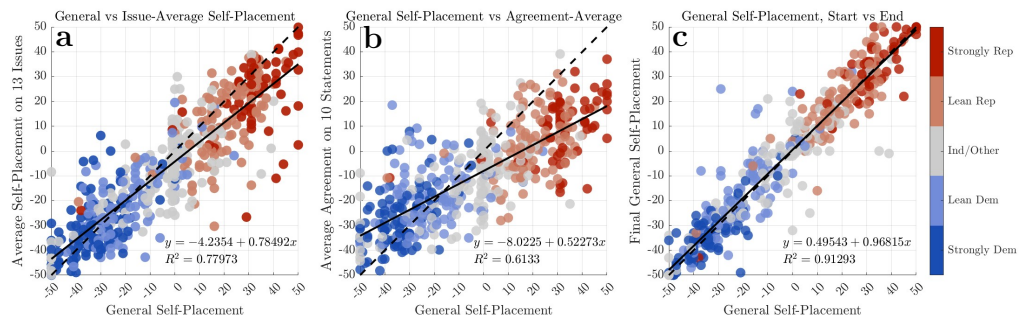


Fig 1. Comparing Ideology Measures. General ideological self-placement (at survey start) on the political ideology spectrum (x axis) plotted against three other measures to assess consistency and relative bias. **a)** Comparison to average of self-placement on 13 prominent political issues. **b)** Comparison to average policy-stance agreement ideology. We see a systematic centralizing and liberalizing effect of the agreement-based metric (best-fit slope of 0.52, intercept -8.0), along with a weaker, but still substantial fit ($R^2 = 0.6133$) based on respondents’ general ideology. **c)** For “null” comparison, general ideology is seen to be very consistent with itself across the length of the survey, despite potential re-contextualization of the political environment from the intervening stimuli—the average absolute deviation between measures of general self-placement was 5.25 on the 100-point scale, serving as an upper bound on individuals’ inherent response deviation.

216 3.1.1 Average issue-by-issue ideology is largely consistent with general 217 ideology.

218 We find that average issue self-placement largely agrees with general ideological
219 self-placement, albeit with a slight moderating bias, skewed towards liberalizing

220 respondents, as seen in Fig 1a. The 95% confidence interval for the slope is (.748,
 221 .817) with high concordance ($\rho_c = .868$) driven by close adherence to the diagonal
 222 ($C_b = .985$; $r = .881$). This suggests that general self-placement is a fairly accurate
 223 reflection of individuals' more granular issue-based positions as rated on the same
 224 individually-interpreted ideological scale.

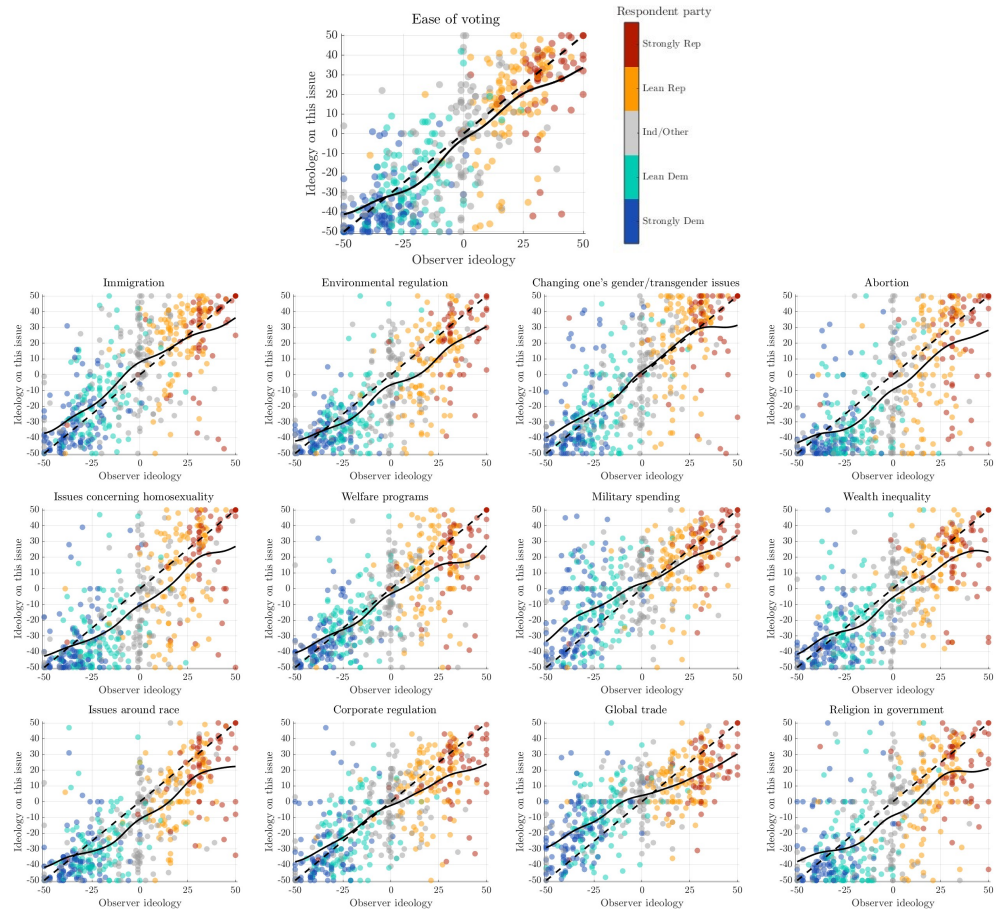


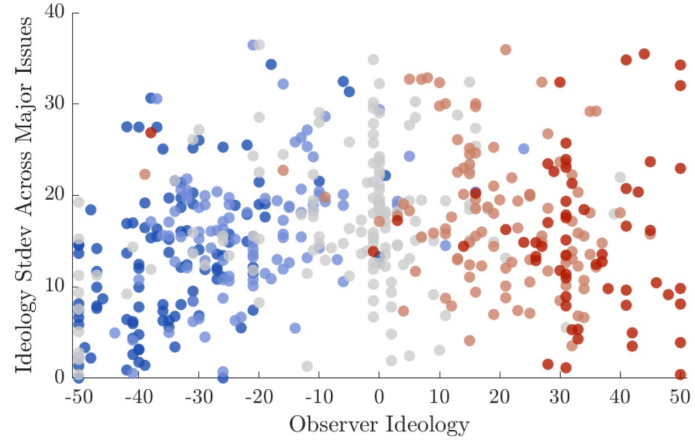
Fig 2. Issue Self-Placement. Full response data for ideological self-placement on each “major issue,” plotted against each respondent’s general ideology. Black trend curves are Gaussian-weighted moving average ($\sigma = 7$). Issues are ordered by decreasing polarization (far-left/far-right mean difference). Dots colored by respondent party affiliation, with additional hue variation to aid distinguishing despite dot transparency.

225 Fig 2 shows the ideological self-placement data for each individual issue. Overall,
 226 these issue-ideology scores follow the general-ideology-consonant diagonal, with some
 227 tendency toward moderation at the conservative end of the spectrum.

228 3.1.2 General ideological self-placement predicts spread on issue-by-issue 229 self-placement.

230 Fig. 3 plots an individual’s standard deviation across the 13 issues of the
 231 issue-by-issue measure against their general ideological self-placement. Self-identified
 232 moderates could be people who have consistently centrist views across issues, or they
 233 could be people who hold a mix of views, liberal on some issues, conservative on
 234 others. If people who self-identify as moderates on the general scale were as consistent

Fig 3. Issue-Ideology Standard Deviation By General Ideological Self-placement



235 in selecting the centrist position on an issue-by-issue basis as people who self-identify
236 as more liberal/conservative are in selecting liberal/conservative self-placement on
237 issues, we would see a relatively uniform distribution of standard deviations across
238 general ideological self-identification (see Fig A1). Instead, we see a concave down
239 distribution, indicating that standard deviation across issue-by-issue self-placement is
240 greater towards the middle of the general ideological self-placement spectrum. A linear
241 model explains only 3.6% of the variance; adding a quadratic term results in a
242 significant improvement ($F(1,561)=52.66, p < 0.001$) with a negative coefficient on the
243 quadratic term ($b_2 = -0.0034, p < .001$), confirming the concave-down relationship.

244 This curvature could be an artifact of the scale: if respondents toward the extremes
245 are constrained by the limits of the scale more than are respondents close to 0, the
246 more extreme respondents will appear to have lower variance due to this truncation.
247 Simulation tests (see Appendix A.1) indicate that the observed curvature exceeds that
248 which could be produced by truncation alone under a variety of assumptions about
249 the latent distribution, including the analytic maximum-censoring at the extremes.
250 For the three scenarios tested, none of the simulated datasets produced curvature as
251 concave as the empirical distribution shown in Fig. 3 (two-sided Monte Carlo p-values
252 < 0.001).

253 The pattern observed in Fig. 3 suggests that, in our sample, moderation looks
254 more like ideological variation in one's views across issues than like strict centrism.
255 For a full discussion of the analysis of cross-issue variation by general ideological
256 self-placement, see Appendix A.1.

257 **3.1.3 Average policy-agreement ideology is largely predicted by general** 258 **ideology, but shows a moderating compression relative to general** 259 **ideology.**

260 General self-placement is also highly predictive of ideology as communicated via a
261 second internal measure, policy-stance agreement. As seen in Fig 1b, a large amount
262 (about 61%) of the variance in average policy-stance agreement ideology is accounted
263 for by overall self-placement. However, the resulting distributions are systematically
264 biased such that individuals generally register as more moderate than their general
265 self-placement would suggest. This is seen in the flatter-than-diagonal slope in Fig 1b.
266 The slope has a 95% confidence interval of (.462, .535), and concordance is

267 considerably lower than in Fig 1a ($\rho_c = .670; C_b = .891, r = .751$). Right-leaning
268 respondents exhibit somewhat greater moderation than left-leaning respondents; this
269 liberalizing tilt to ideology as measured by policy-stance agreement reproduces a
270 durable finding that U.S. public opinion appears more liberal when people are asked
271 about policy specifics than when asked to place their ideology in general terms (see
272 e.g., [37, 38, 31]).¹

273 As Fig 4 shows, individual policy stances exhibit distinctly different trends from
274 one another, in at least two cases deviating considerably from diagonal (i.e.,
275 agreement-ideology equal to general ideology). The location of the curves near or
276 below 0 on the topics of government assistance for the poor and religion in government
277 indicate a broad, if tempered, agreement with the “liberal” position (favoring more
278 government assistance for the poor, against government informed by religion).
279 Abortion, demographic cultural alarm, wealth inequality, assistance for the poor,
280 religiosity in government, and corporate regulation all share a pattern of
281 “half-indifference” whereby liberals are tightly clustered but conservatives are quite
282 widely spread.

283 Interestingly, while the issues of corporate regulation and especially global trade
284 show relatively flat trends when evaluated by policy-stance, indicating broad
285 agreement with the liberal position across self-identified general ideology, these issues
286 show a pattern fairly close to the diagonal when respondents are asked to use the
287 ideological self-placement scale, as shown in Fig 2.

288 3.1.4 Overall ideology is mostly consistent when measured at the 289 beginning and end of the survey.

290 To investigate the inherent noise and individual precision of these measurements, we
291 compared respondents’ general ideological self-placement at the start and end of the
292 survey (Fig 1c), and found it to be quite consistent over this short, but ideologically
293 intensive interval: individuals exhibited an average absolute difference of 5.25 (median
294 absolute deviation 4, root-mean-squared deviation $\sigma = 8.08$). The 95% CI of the slope
295 is (.938, .988) with $\rho_c = .955$ ($C_b = .999, r = .955$).

296 Rather than a longitudinal effect (which others have investigated, e.g.,
297 [39, 40, 41, 42]), we intend this comparison to primarily serve as an estimate of the
298 “fuzziness” of these individually-interpreted quantities on a fine-resolution domain
299 such as ours, to provide important groundwork for future stochastic
300 mathematical-modeling approaches. We consider that on such a near-continuous
301 domain, any measurements are representatives of a narrow but inherently uncertain
302 distribution (due to both psychological quantitative imprecision and indifference to
303 precise slider positioning), whose width we seek.

304 By providing an estimate of reliability, this within-survey retest also allows us to
305 calibrate the extent to which the flattening in Figs. 1a and 1b is attributable to
306 ideological compression versus attenuation due to measurement error. Reliability here
307 is $\lambda \approx 0.95$, indicating that the slope estimates are only modestly attenuated by
308 measurement error. Disattenuation with bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals
309 produces corrected estimates of $b_{corr} = 0.82$ (95% CI[0.78, 0.86]) for Fig 1a and
310 $b_{corr} = 0.53$ (95% CI[0.49, 0.57]) for Fig 1b, indicating that the compression observed
311 is primarily due to substantive moderation relative to general ideological
312 self-placement, rather than an artifact of measurement error.

¹Our data suggest moderation more than liberalization: though the policy-stance agreement average is more liberal than the general self-placement, scale compression towards moderation contributes 72% of the C_b penalty driving the distributions away from concordance. C_b from liberalization (location-shift) alone would be .965, while from moderation (scale-shift) alone would be .921.

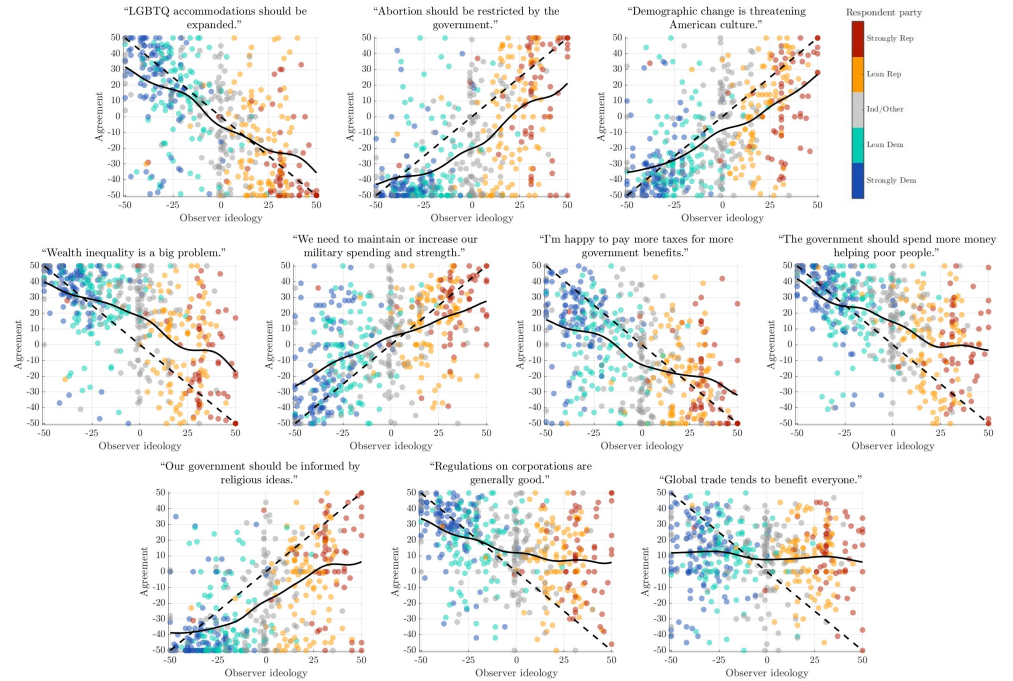


Fig 4. Policy-stance agreement: Agreement ideology responses by policy area, ordered from most polarized to least polarized (difference between far-left/far-right means) and plotted along with their $\sigma = 7$ Gaussian-weighted moving average—compare to Fig 2. Note that the vertical scale for “liberal-aligned” statements are flipped for easy comparability with general ideology (the “ideologically consonant” diagonal remains the same).

3.2 External Ideology Assessments and Reactions

Next, we present individuals’ assessments of political opinion statements, evaluating external stimuli from an ideological standpoint. We established a pool of 68 statements of political opinion—30 “liberal,” 30 “conservative,” and 8 “centrist,” with varying levels of extremity. Participants were shown a random sample of 30 statements from among those 68, and were asked where they would place that statement on the liberal/conservative axis, with a 100-point slider. An overview of the results are shown in Fig 5 (and in alternate forms in Appendix A in the SI). (Full statement list and all results are available alongside this publication.)

3.2.1 Individuals have a largely shared understanding of the ideological spectrum.

Respondents show a highly consistent view of the spectrum as a whole, regardless of their own ideology or party affiliation: the primary signature in Fig 5a is the “flatness” of ideological ratings within each opinion-statement pool.

However, it is important to clarify that this lack of systematic bias does *not* imply a lack of variance in ideological estimation for each opinion statement: the average standard deviation of ideological ratings of any particular statement was $\mu_{\sigma} = 19.64$ (distribution visible in Fig A5a in the SI). Thus, the takeaway should not be that political opinion statements have a single agreed-upon ideological value, but rather that (1) they have a particular *distribution* of ideological interpretations that all individuals draw from that does not vary with their own ideology or party affiliation,

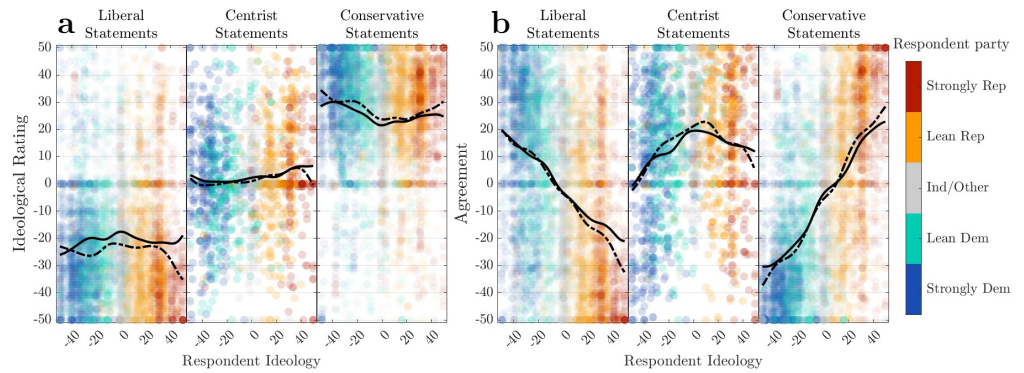


Fig 5. External Assessments: (a) Average ideological estimation and (b) acceptance of statements as a function of general ideology, divided by statement pool (left/center/right panels). Gaussian-weighted moving average trendlines ($\sigma = 7$) are shown for unattributed (solid) and party-cue (dot-dashed) treatment conditions. (a) We see overall “flat” trends for the three pools’ ideological positions, indicating a general universality of the abstract ideological scale (there remains differences in interpretation between individuals for any given statement—see Fig A5 in the SI—but there does not appear to be systematic observer-ideological bias in those differences). (b) We see clear “linear” trends in agreement for the liberal and conservative statement pools, and a centrally-peaked trend for the centrist statement pool.

334 and (2) the locations of the bulk of these distributions follow a distinct
 335 liberal/centrist/conservative ordering that is widely agreed-upon, again regardless of
 336 one’s own ideology. See Fig A5 in the SI for more details about individual variation.

3.2.2 Individuals show systematic, symmetric patterns of agreement corresponding with general ideology.

339 As Fig 5b shows, respondents exhibited a systematic pattern of agreement for each
 340 opinion-statement pool. The clear emergence of this trend (which is robust to our
 341 alternate-sample replication, as seen in Fig B5 in the SI) may inspire future
 342 quantitative exploration of the underlying psychological patterns at work in aggregate
 343 underneath these results. Particular issues for particular observers may clearly deviate
 344 from this pattern, and of course phrasing and reasoning are large determining factors.
 345 However, all other things being equal, estimating the likely distribution of reactions by
 346 observers across the political spectrum based on only ideological distance could be a
 347 valuable guide for advocacy and outreach efforts.

348 For an alternative sense of these agreement distributions, see box-plots in Fig A4 in
 349 the SI.

3.2.3 Party cue effects are negligible relative to cross-party consistency in statement evaluation.

352 Two versions of the survey were administered randomly which differed by one factor:
 353 whether statements were presented with the speaker’s supposed political party
 354 affiliation, e.g., “A [Democrat/Independent/Republican] says, . . .” prefacing each
 355 statement, with supposed partisan identity corresponding to which “statement pool”
 356 it came from.

357 Overall, party cues exerted well-defined effects of about 3 scale-points in the
 358 expected direction in terms of both ideological rating and agreement with the
 359 statements. Compared to conditions presented without attribution, liberal statements

360 were rated 3.5 scale-points more liberal when attributed to a Democrat
361 ($\tau = -3.50, se = 1.14, p = .002$), and conservative statements 2.5 scale-points more
362 conservative when attributed to a Republican ($\tau = +2.49, se = 1.10, p = .024$).
363 Respondents reported 2.6 points greater agreement when a statement was attributed
364 to a co-partisan compared to no attribution ($\tau = 2.59, se = 1.09, p = .018$), and about
365 5 points less agreement when a statement was attributed to an out-partisan
366 ($\tau = -4.67, se = 1.33, p < .001$).²

367 However, as the solid (unattributed) and dot-dashed (party cue) trend curves in
368 Fig 5 illustrate, these treatment effects of 2-5 scale points are vanishingly small in
369 comparison to the effect of the statement content. Among opinion statements with no
370 party cues, drawing a statement from the liberal pool (in contrast to the centrist pool)
371 exerted a 23-point effect on ideological rating ($\tau = -23.3, se = 2.40, p < .001$), with a
372 22 point effect of conservative statements in contrast to centrist
373 ($\tau = +22.2, se = 2.40, p < .001$). Statement content exerts a similarly overwhelming
374 effect on agreement, with assignment to an unlabeled ideologically-consonant
375 statement (i.e., liberal for Democratic respondents, conservative for Republican
376 respondents) increasing agreement by 27 points relative to an unlabeled statement
377 from the opposite ideological pool ($\tau = +26.78, se = 0.62, p < .001$). As is apparent in
378 Fig 5, these effects are remarkably consistent across respondent ideology and party.
379 All estimates remain significant after Holm-correction for the family of 7 tests.

380 **3.3 Political Party Identification**

381 Respondents were asked, “Which option best describes your political party
382 affiliation/voting tendency?” with 5 options, “Strongly Democrat,” “Lean Democrat,”
383 “Independent/Undecided/Other,” “Lean Republican,” and “Strongly Republican.”

384 In addition, to investigate the perceptions of the political parties themselves, we
385 asked respondents to rate where they believed the average Democrat and Republican
386 voter fell on the ideology scale, their sentiment towards such a person, and their
387 agreement towards the major parties’ policy platforms, and finally each party’s actions.

388 **3.3.1 Strong/Lean/Ind partisan identity well-orders respondent 389 distributions on all ideology measures and reactions.**

390 We found little overlap in general ideology between the combined Democrat and
391 Republican categories (see Fig 6a): out of 231 Republican respondents, only 7
392 self-identified left of the ideological center, while only 10 out of 392 Democrat
393 respondents self-identified right of center. However, overlap did appear when
394 considering average policy-stance agreement ideology, as seen in Fig 6b. In contrast to
395 our segregated and near-symmetric general ideological self-placement distributions,
396 these policy-stance agreement results show a consistently-liberal Democratic party and
397 an only weakly-conservative Republican party.

398 In all plots above, respondents are color-coded by party identification. As can be
399 seen via this color-coding, every result above exhibits a strong ordering effect by this
400 5-way partisan identity, with leaners falling solidly between strong partisans and
401 independents. An important exception to this ordering effect is that external
402 ideological assessments—the ideological placement of statements shown in Fig 5, as

²Self-identified “leaners” are included with partisans. Pure independents are retained for the in-party estimate, responding to statements marked “An Independent says...”. For the out-party estimate, only strong/lean partisans who view a statement attributed to the opposing party are retained. The out-party estimate is robust to inclusion of Independents with both Democratic and Republican statements categorized as out-party.

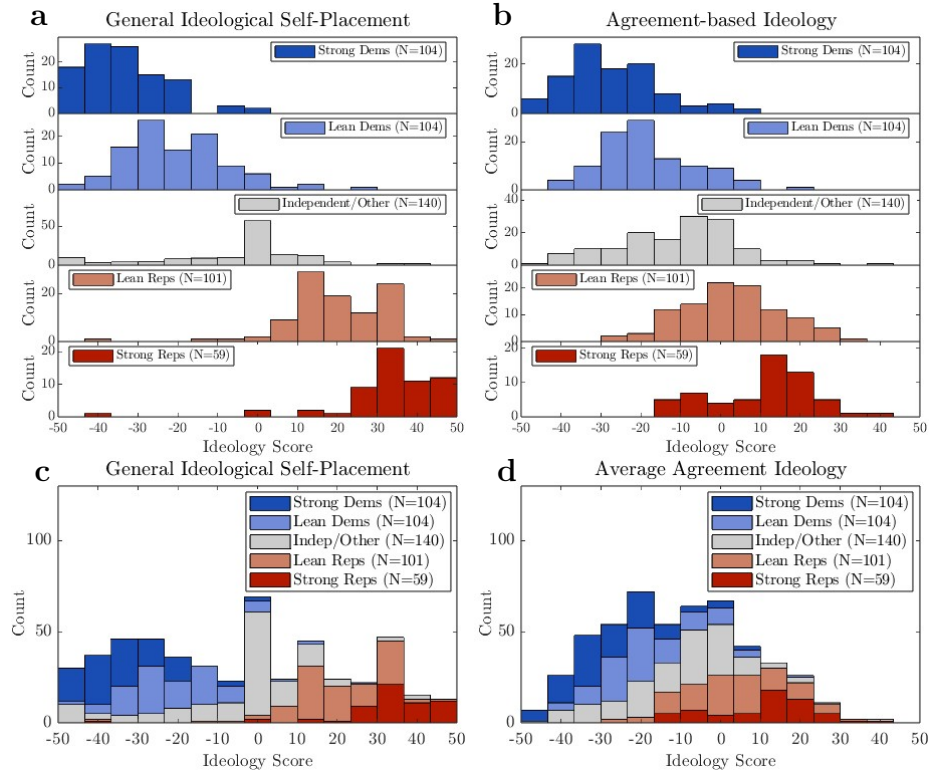


Fig 6. Ideology Histograms: Comparison of overall self-placement ideology (left panels) and policy-agreement average ideology (right panels), to illustrate the distribution of ideology for each party-identity group (top panels) and the overall ideology distribution of the population (bottom panels) by these two measures. Top panels are visually normalized with differing y axes to show the shape and position of each party-identity group, rather than their magnitude, while the bottom panels aggregate the bars to show the overall envelope of the sampled population while preserving party breakdown at each ideology level. **a)** General self-placement results in a nearly symmetric set of distributions, distinctly ordered by party identity, evenly filling the ideology space. **b)** Agreement ideology skews distributions central and liberal, though the distributions are still well-ordered by party. **c)** General ideology shows a more spread-out distribution which fills the whole ideological domain. **d)** Agreement ideology shows a more condensed distribution, slightly left of center.

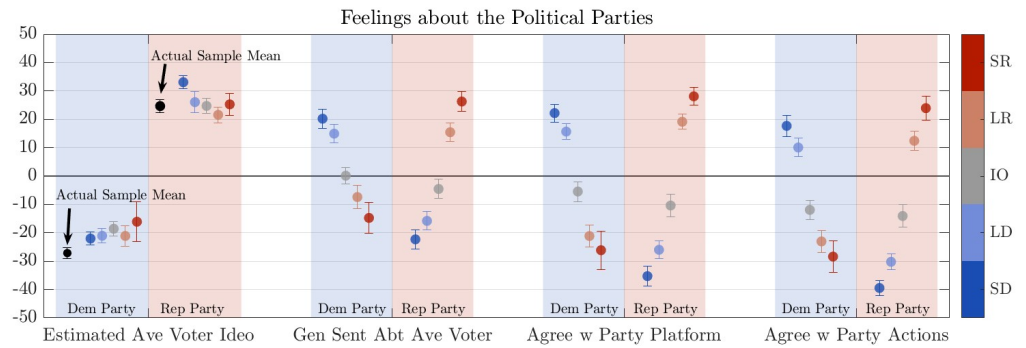


Fig 7. Mean responses to four prompts about the two main political parties (party in question indicated by column shading), broken down by respondent partisanship (dot color). Proceeding from the leftmost column pair, respondents provided (1) their estimation of the ideological position of an average voter for each party, (2) their positive/negative sentiment toward such a person, (3) their agreement with each political party’s policy platform, and finally (4) agreement with each party’s actions. Vertical scale’s meaning is relative to each question (e.g., +32 means “very conservative” ideologically, “very positive” sentiment, and “strongly agree” with party platform or actions). In (1), along with the estimations of average partisan ideology, the actual ideological means of respondents each party *in our sample* (Strong and Lean combined) are provided in black: Democratic respondents skewed more liberal than all estimates, and Strong Democrat respondents significantly overestimated the conservatism of Republicans.

403 well as the placement of the average voters shown in the first panel of Fig.7—appears
 404 to be *unbiased* by party.

405 3.3.2 Individuals are largely accurate at estimating average voter ideology.

406 Respondents were generally accurate in estimating the average voter for each party, at
 407 least when using our sample’s self-report ideology scores as this “target”—see the
 408 leftmost columns of Fig 7. Recent scholarship on partisanship on partisans’ perceptions of the
 409 ideological location of voters in the other party has emphasized the distance between
 410 in-party and out-party estimates, and our estimates generally reproduce the
 411 magnitude of these differences. Contextualizing these differences within the full range
 412 of the ideological spectrum available to respondents provides perspective on both the
 413 broad level of agreement across partisan identification and the relative accuracy with
 414 which respondents perceive the average voter in either party (given the imperfect
 415 benchmark of our in-sample average self-placement within each party).

416 4 Discussion

417 *Summary.* We found that different measures of individuals’ political ideology (general
 418 self-placement, average issue self-placement, average policy-agreement ideology)
 419 broadly agree with one another, though policy agreement is by far the most
 420 heterogeneous and issue-dependent. In particular, in terms of general ideological
 421 self-placement, individuals distribute themselves relatively evenly across the political
 422 spectrum, while policy-agreement ideology compresses the distribution to be
 423 single-humped and left of ideological center (Figure 6c and d).

424 Importantly, we found that the individually interpreted ideological spectrum was
425 remarkably consistent across participants, indicating a collective consensus on a
426 fundamentally abstract construct. This suggests that individuals' own "projections" of
427 political ideas onto this abstract, one-dimensional scale are meaningfully comparable
428 across individuals. When offered all 5 options transparently, Strong/Lean/Ind party
429 identity well-orders all trends in ideological identification and agreement with policies
430 and statements of political opinion.

431 Though ostensibly arriving at different conclusions about political ideology among
432 the American public, we view our findings as largely consistent with those of Yeung
433 and Quek [43], who also focus on self-reported measures of ideology. Yeung and Quek
434 find low levels of understanding of textbook definitions of "liberal" and "conservative"
435 in the American public, and show that when asked to place themselves on a scale
436 described only by the theoretical underpinnings of the liberal/conservative framework
437 (social change and active government versus traditional values and limited
438 government) instead of the labels "liberal" and "conservative," respondents self-report
439 as more moderate than when using the traditional ideological measure that presents
440 the labels with no further explanation. These findings regarding the public's
441 relationship to the terminology and theoretical through-lines of liberal/conservative
442 ideology are highly informative, and seem to us consistent with members of the public
443 employing the liberal-conservative framework as a signaling language through which to
444 communicate political views that imperfectly align with elite definitions of the terms.

445 The results presented here show the respondents in our sample to be adept at using
446 the liberal-conservative ideological spectrum to summarize their political views.

447 We allow people to situate along a spectrum, independently for multiple issues and
448 via multiple measures. The results both underscore that policy-level variability can be
449 hidden within aggregate ideological scores, and offer promise about the extent to
450 which individual-level ideological scores can provide meaningful information.

451 Individuals' general ideological self-placements are highly predictive of their average
452 self-placements across a range of issues, both in terms of positioning on a
453 liberal-conservative scale and extent of agreement/disagreement with different policy
454 stances. These different internal measures display strong consistency while also
455 revealing that people fittingly convey variation in their views across policies as
456 strength of their general ideological self-placement. Respondents who self-identify at
457 the center of the scale include some strict centrists, but in our sample the center is
458 defined more by people who have greater ideological variation in their views across
459 issues than do people who self-identify towards the extremes.

460 The coherence respondents demonstrate across internal (self-oriented) measures of
461 ideology is matched by a striking degree of external consistency, showing a shared
462 understanding of the liberal-conservative ideological spectrum across respondents'
463 political views. The data here show this to be true regarding members of one's own
464 party and the other party, as well as regarding placement of political statements.
465 Moreover, as the precisely estimated but negligible effect of party cues show, the
466 content of these statements exerts the definitive pattern of response, both in terms of
467 ideological placement and in terms of respondents' feelings about the political
468 sentiment expressed. Regardless of partisanship or ideological self-placement,
469 respondents here show a relatively internalized and shared understanding of where
470 different political views fall on the liberal-conservative spectrum and a fairly accurate
471 understanding of the ideological identity of voters in each party.

472 While the variability we see in people's self-placement across issues (see Fig. 4)
473 does not reflect the static "constraint" that Converse and subsequent researchers
474 suggest would be evidence of political views that are generated from within a
475 liberal-conservative ideological framework, our sample shows patterns of results that

476 are far from “ideologically innocent”. These findings would be consistent with a public
477 that, while comprising few individuals who employ a liberal-conservative framework to
478 generate their political views, has become remarkably adept at projecting their
479 political views onto an elite-defined, one-dimensional liberal-conservative scale, thus
480 conveying a meaningful signal via the coarse language in which those elites operate.

481 *Agreement vs Sentiment.* We collected both agreement (“How much do you agree with
482 this statement?”) and positive/negative emotional sentiment (“How do you feel about
483 this statement?”) throughout the survey, and found that the two tracked each other
484 almost universally—we have displayed only agreement data in the main text for
485 brevity’s sake, but the sentiment version of Fig.5b is available as Fig C1 in the SI,
486 displaying a similar but slightly muted pattern for both datasets.

487 *Limitations.* This survey had several limitations and areas for improvement for similar
488 data-gathering efforts in the future.

489 The survey used language “liberal” and “conservative” for salience and clarity to
490 participants due to their ubiquity in U.S. political parlance, but these might be
491 alternately described as “left-wing” and “right-wing” for concordance with
492 international (as opposed to just American) political-spectrum
493 terminology—“liberalism” indeed has a broader definition outside of the United
494 States, which could leave some more global-politics-minded respondents confused or
495 conflicted.

496 Next, while our results indicate that the one-dimensional ‘political spectrum’ is
497 remarkably consistent within and between individuals, our survey did not investigate
498 alternate, higher-dimensional ideology spaces. A survey set up to record two- or
499 higher-dimensional abstract positions (e.g., ‘political compass’-type
500 economic-redistribution and authoritarian axes) may explain more variance in political
501 identification. However, the increased burden of data collection, questions about
502 assessment when statements may not engage with all axes, and difficulty in visualizing
503 results may be a challenge.

504 Additionally, these results are cross-sectional rather than longitudinal, leaving
505 theories of ideological *dynamics* at best indirectly informed. However, the
506 accumulation of this type of high-resolution, transparent quantitative data on political
507 attitudes, reactions, and preferences will gradually strengthen the ability to validate or
508 falsify theories of political ideology and its dynamic changes.

509 These results were replicated across one convenience sample and one quota-based
510 sample reflective of the U.S. adult population on target demographics. To make
511 inferences about how well our findings in this study map to conclusions about U.S.
512 public opinion in general will require replication in a probability-based sample.

513 *Future work.* This survey was constructed with mathematical modeling in mind, with
514 the goal of interrogating basic consistency of foundational variables like ideology, and
515 seeking broad-stroke, robust patterns that can inform future models of political
516 psychology. We note that the application of unsupervised clustering or other
517 machine-learning analysis to these data may yield some additional “bottom-up”
518 insights in this regard, though we leave such investigations to future work. We hope
519 this work facilitates further mathematical modeling of the dynamics of political
520 ideology. The apparent robustness of general ideological self-placement lets it serve as
521 a (noisy) variable in nonlinear, complex, and dynamical models which may interrogate
522 novel hypotheses at the psychological (micro) and societal (macro) levels. Theoretical
523 mathematical “opinion dynamics” and “sociophysics” models which have relied on
524 abstract opinion variables may iterate with the perspective that contention with
525 sufficiently high-resolution real-world data (for certain generally understood concepts)
526 is indeed possible, and may build those models with such data-accountability in mind.

527 5 Methods

528 This survey was created to elucidate the perceptions and reactions of individuals
529 exposed to political statements of position. For increased resolution and ease of
530 quantitative trend-seeking, all answers except party identification were entered by a
531 100-point slider.

532 The non-standard, emotionally charged language on the slider endpoints was part
533 of an intentional attempt to expand the resolved response space by reserving the
534 endpoints for more extreme views and emotions (see Methods for more details).
535 Several efforts were made to discourage respondents from over-using the extremes of
536 the response scale, in order to resolve a wider range of true reactions by reserving
537 truly extreme positions and emotions. To this end, first, the following disclaimer
538 preceded the survey:

539 “For this survey, please try **not** to use the extreme values very often—they should
540 represent what you believe to be truly extreme views (e.g. inclined to drastic action or
541 violence), or highly emotional/zealous mental states.”

542 Second, the reference labels provided along with each slider included non-standard
543 and more emotionally salient language on the ends:

- 544 • For ideological placement (e.g., “Rate where you think this statement falls on a
545 Liberal/Conservative axis”), the markers were “Extremely Liberal,” “Very
546 Liberal,” “Somewhat Liberal,” “Unsure/Centrist,” “Somewhat Conservative,”
547 “Very Conservative,” and “Extremely Conservative.”
- 548 • For agreement (e.g., “How much do you agree with this statement?”), the
549 markers were “Vehemently Disagree,” “Strongly Disagree,” “Somewhat
550 Disagree,” “Unsure/Indifferent,” “Somewhat Agree,” “Strongly Agree,” and
551 “Emphatically Agree.”
- 552 • For sentiment (e.g., “How do you feel about this statement?”), the markers were
553 “Hatred/Disgust,” “Very Negative,” “Somewhat Negative,” “Indifferent,”
554 “Somewhat Positive,” “Very Positive,” and “Fervent/Impassioned.”

555 However, there was no indication of what exact position corresponded to each label, so
556 individuals were encouraged to position sliders smoothly anywhere between these
557 labels. The seven labels were approximately at the locations ± 48 , ± 32 , ± 16 , and 0.

558 The survey started with an assessment portion, aimed at measuring respondents’
559 ideological position in three different ways, for comparison: self-placement overall,
560 self-placement on thirteen salient political issues, and agreement with a slate of ten
561 broad statements on a similar slate of issues. These measures were compared to assess
562 the accuracy and consistency of self-report with researcher-computed ideological
563 positions.

564 The “general ideological self-placement” score was their response to the question,
565 “Below is a scale on which the political views that people might hold are arranged
566 from extremely liberal to extremely conservative. When it comes to politics, where
567 would you place yourself on this scale?”

568 The thirteen issues for more granular “issue self-placement”:

- 569 • Issues around race
- 570 • Issues concerning homosexuality
- 571 • Changing one’s gender/transgender issues
- 572 • Abortion

- 573 • Welfare programs
- 574 • Military spending
- 575 • Immigration
- 576 • Corporate regulation
- 577 • Global trade
- 578 • Wealth inequality
- 579 • Religion in government
- 580 • Environmental regulation
- 581 • Ease of voting

582 These were presented in a randomized order, and the “average self-placement”
583 ideology estimate was the mean of these self-placement scores.

584 The ten representative statements for “policy-stance agreement” ideology
585 estimation were:

- 586 • “The government should spend more money helping poor people.”
- 587 • “We need to maintain or increase our military spending and strength.”
- 588 • “Wealth inequality is a big problem.”
- 589 • “Our government should be informed by religious ideas.”
- 590 • “Regulations on corporations are generally good.”
- 591 • “Abortion should be restricted by the government.”
- 592 • “LGBTQ accommodations should be expanded.”
- 593 • “Global trade tends to benefit everyone.”
- 594 • “I’m happy to pay more taxes for more government benefits.”
- 595 • “Demographic change is threatening American culture.”

596 These statements were likewise presented in a random order. To construct average
597 policy-agreement ideology, the scores for “liberal-aligned” statements were sign-flipped
598 and the mean was taken.

599 Participants were also asked their party affiliation, i.e. “Which option best
600 describes your political party affiliation/voting tendency?” and the following options:

- 601 • Strongly Democrat
- 602 • Lean Democrat
- 603 • Independent/Undecided/Other
- 604 • Lean Republican
- 605 • Strongly Republican

606 This intentionally differs from the standard two-part ANES question, which first asks
607 participants to choose between Democrat/Independent/Republican and then ask
608 (only) the Independents to choose a “lean” direction. We believe that offering all
609 options from the start is both simpler and more transparent.

610 Respondents then rated where they believed the average Democrat and Republican
611 voter was on the ideology scale, their sentiment towards such a person, and their
612 agreement towards the major parties’ policy platforms, and their agreement with each
613 party’s *actions*.

614 This was followed by the main portion of the survey, where a random sample of
615 thirty out of sixty-eight statements were shown to each participant. Respondents were
616 randomly assigned to a control condition, where the statements were displayed on
617 their own, or a treatment condition, where statements were framed as coming from a
618 speaker of a particular political affiliation (e.g., “A Democrat says, ‘...’ ”).

619 The statement pool included thirty “liberal” statements, thirty “conservative”
620 statements, and eight “centrist” statements. This pool of statements was created to
621 represent positions encountered across the political spectrum in late 2022/early 2023,
622 emulating how a politically opinionated person might express their position online or
623 in person. These statements were intended to cover the ideological spectrum as evenly
624 as possible.

625 *Respondent Composition.* The respondents whose data are shown in the main text
626 comprised an age/sex/party representative sample gathered through the Prolific
627 platform between May 14, 2024 and May 28, 2024. See Appendix B of the SI for the
628 alternate-sample replication of all main-text figures.

629 *Human Subjects Ethics Statement.* This study was approved as oversight-exempt by
630 the University of Michigan Institutional Review Board, as it was an anonymous survey
631 and no identifiable information was gathered. Regardless, all participants granted
632 written informed consent for their response data to be gathered, analyzed, and shared
633 for academic purposes.

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742 A Alternate and Additional Figures

743 Here we offer additional analysis or alternative specification of several main-text
744 figures, for transparency and deeper analysis.

745 A.1 Cross-issue variation by general ideological self-placement

746 Fig. A1 plots the empirical Gaussian-smoothed curve (in black) over the data from
747 Fig. 3, along with four simulated alternative distributions. All simulations assume
748 that issue responses X_{ij} is a function of an individual's general ideological
749 self-placement (G_i), such that $X_{ij}^* = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij}$ with $X_{ij} = \text{clip}(X_{ij}^*, -50, +50)$ and
750 $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_i^2)$. The simulations differ in their assumptions about what form the latent
751 mean μ_i and latent SD σ_i take as functions of G_i .

752 Simulation (i), marked by the dotted line, shows a counterfactual model in which
753 moderates exhibit variation across issues similar to that observed among the extreme
754 respondents, with $\mu_i = \alpha G_i$, where $\alpha = .78$ is determined by the empirical distribution
755 (see Fig. 1) and $\sigma_i = 11.6 + 0.04|G_i|$. This counterfactual model serves to illustrate a
756 distribution that could have arisen—given clipping from the scale, the empirical
757 correlation observed in Fig. 1a, and σ as a function of G —if respondents with general
758 self-placement at $G_i = 0$ had been as consistently moderate across the 13 issues as
759 more extreme respondents ($G_i = +/- 45$) were consistently extreme in their
760 self-placement across issues. The primary purpose of this model is to illustrate that
761 the concave down shape is not a necessary result of the scale and correlation.

762 Simulations (ii-iv) look at the curvature that would arise from scale-truncation
763 alone, under different assumptions about μ and σ . Simulation (ii) assumes latent
764 homoskedasticity, with $\sigma_i = \sigma_0 = 18.58$ inferred from that of the presumably
765 uncensored moderates, and $\mu_i = \alpha G_i$ as in (i). Simulation (iii) allows for
766 heteroskedasticity and uses a mirroring method to empirically infer the latent
767 distribution of σ_i by calculating deviation from G_i in the uncensored direction and
768 imputing the same deviation in the censored direction. The selection of $\mu_i = G_i$
769 provides a harder test, based on the assumption that $\alpha = .78$ is itself a product of
770 censoring. Simulation (iv) also adopts the more stringent assumption of $\mu_i = G_i$, but
771 instead of empirically estimating and mirroring the latent distribution, it imposes the
772 analytical maximum censoring that could take place at the extremes, wherein the
773 latent mean is assumed to be exactly at the boundary ($-/+ 50$) and maximal latent
774 variance is assumed, such that observed variance is $\sigma^2(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2\pi})$. This produces a
775 recovery factor of $1/\sqrt{0.341} \approx 1.71$.

776 Monte Carlo simulations show the empirical curvature ($b_2 = -0.0034$) to be outside
777 the sampling distribution for each of these three censoring-alone models, with exact
778 +1-corrected 2-sided p-values of 2/10,001 for each (ii:
779 $b_2 = -0.0016, 95\%CI[-0.0020, -0.0012]$; iii: $b_2 = -0.0019, 95\%CI[-0.0024, -0.0015]$;
780 iv: $b_2 = -0.0024, 95\%CI[-0.0028, -0.0019]$). An intersection-union test governed by
781 the largest of the three p-values rejects the null hypothesis that any of the three
782 scenarios produce b_2 exceeding the empirical estimate.³ The empirical concavity
783 observed in Fig. 3 is beyond that which would result from even the most generous
784 reconstruction (iv: the analytic ceiling) of a censored latent distribution.

785 These tests indicate that the moderates in our sample do not respond as consistent
786 centrists on individual issues, relative to the degree of consistency exhibited on average
787 by those whose general ideological placement is more extreme. Censoring can only
788 account for about 50% of the concavity observed in Fig. 3. However, Fig. A1 makes
789 apparent the asymmetry of this distribution. Comparing the empirical curve to (ii),

³Taken separately, all three tests survive Holm correction.

790 the censored homoskedastic which imposes the average variance at $G=0$ uniformly
 791 across the full spectrum, highlights the uptick in the empirical distribution among the
 792 most conservative respondents, with the empirical line landing above the censored
 793 homoskedastic curve at the right-most extreme.

794 Respondents who place themselves at the center of the general liberal-conservative
 795 ideological spectrum exhibit far greater variance in their self-placement across issues
 796 than do respondents who place themselves on the liberal end of this scale. In contrast,
 797 the most-extreme conservatives appear to be just as varied in their self-placement
 798 across issues as moderates are, if not more. Both self-described centrists and
 799 conservatives appear to be highly cross-pressured. Figure 1a shows that respondents
 800 are able to use general placement on the liberal-conservative spectrum to accurately
 801 convey a summary of their views well to a first approximation. Fig. A1 provides a
 802 picture of how much underlying variation in views this masks among both
 803 self-identified centrists and conservatives.

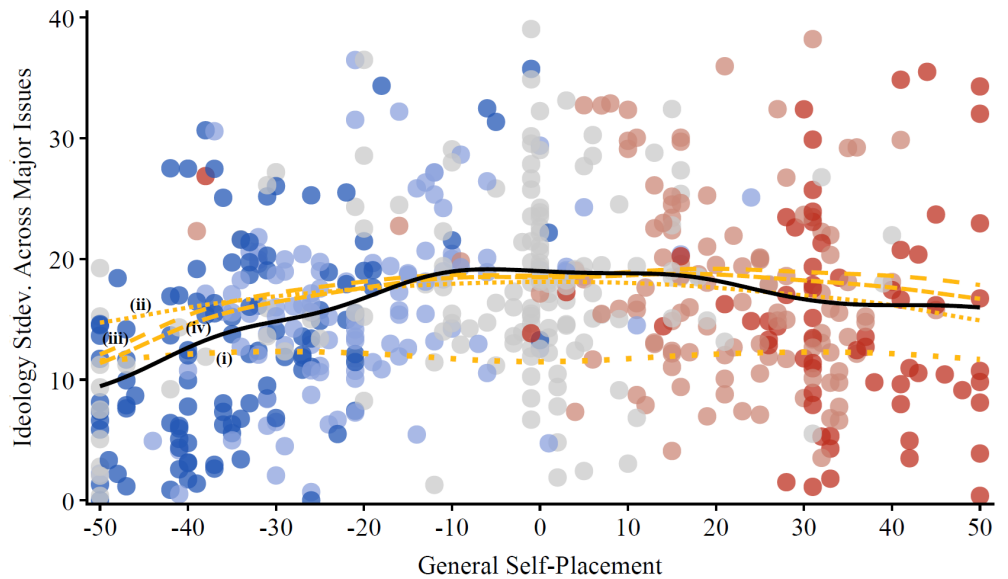


Fig A1. Standard Deviation across issues by General Ideological Self-placement with simulated contrasts. The solid black line shows the Gaussian-weighted moving average of the observed data. The gold lines show four simulations based on a common model under different assumptions about the underlying distribution of σ as a function of general ideological self-placement. The dotted line (i) shows a counterfactual model in which moderates exhibit variation across issues similar to that observed among the extreme respondents. Models (ii-iv) show the curvature that would arise solely from scale-truncation, featuring different assumptions about the true latent variance.

804 A.2 Response distributions by political party affiliation

805 Figs. A2 through A5 present alternative breakdowns of response distributions by
 806 political party affiliation, rather than general ideology. Due to the strong relationship
 807 between ideology and party, the resulting patterns are very similar.

808 Fig A4 shows the mean response values for each party of respondent and each
 809 panel of Fig 5. The left and right bars of each pair correspond to the unmarked and
 810 marked treatment conditions, respectively. Standard errors were calculated with
 811 clustering by individual in Stata. The one mean-difference that is significant at the

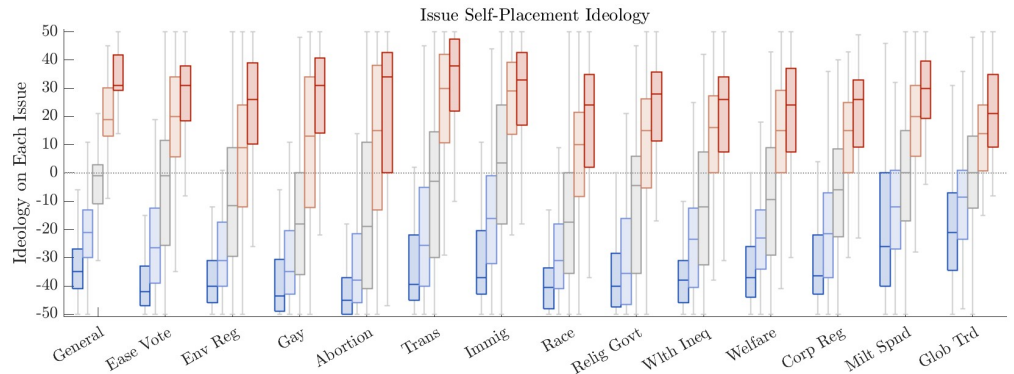


Fig A2. Self-Placement Ideology Distributions by Issue and Party. “Major Issue Self-Placement” distributions grouped by party, with 13 issues ordered by decreasing polarization (Strong Dem/Strong Rep mean responses—this party-based sorting results in a slightly different ordering than the ideology-based panels in Fig 2). General ideological self-placement distributions by party are also provided on the far left for comparison.

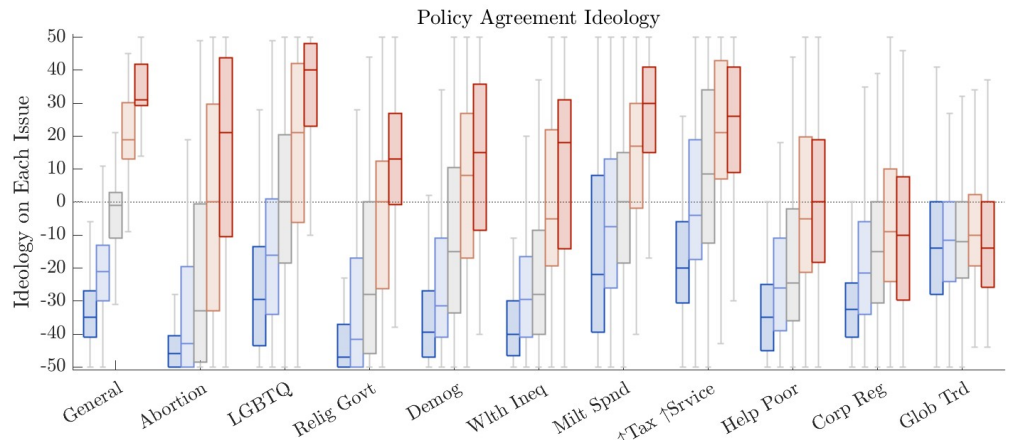


Fig A3. Policy-Stance Agreement Ideology Distributions by Issue and Party: Data from Fig 4, divided by respondent party, and ordered from most polarized to least polarized (Strong Dem/Strong Rep mean difference). We can see the more issue-specific patterns manifest again when compared to Fig A2.

812 0.05 level according to this analysis is strong Republicans’ agreement (or rather,
 813 degree of disagreement) when viewing Democrat content, which was more
 814 negative/stronger disagreement for marked statements ($p = 0.03$)—although this was
 815 not replicated in the other sample (see Fig B9 in Appendix A). It is possible that
 816 additional differences between marked and unmarked statements could become more
 817 detectable at a larger sample size, underscoring the need for further work in this area.

818 Fig A5 displays more information about the entire distribution of responses
 819 underlying Fig A4, rather than just the means and their standard errors.

820 A.3 Individual Bias in External Ideology Estimation

821 In Section 3.2.1 in the main text we showed that estimated ideology distributions
 822 themselves aren’t biased by ideology (or, as Fig A4a shows, by party). However, the
 823 spread of ideological estimation around the mean value is considerable, as

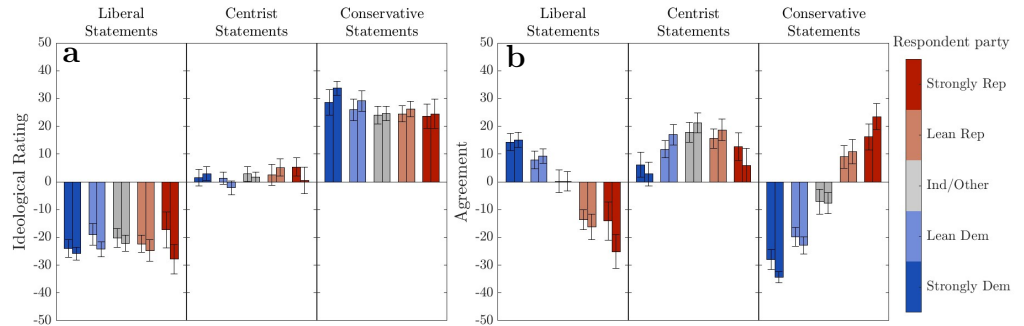


Fig A4. Bar-graph view of data in Fig 5, by party: (a) Average ideological estimation and (b) acceptance of statements, divided by statement pool (left/center/right panels) and respondent party affiliation (color). Error bars indicate 95 confidence intervals (clustering errors by individual in Stata). We see the same overall “flat” and “linear” trends in each panel. **Comparing bar pairs:** The right bar of each pair corresponds to those viewing the “identity-marked” version; we see little, if any, impact of this information in most cases.

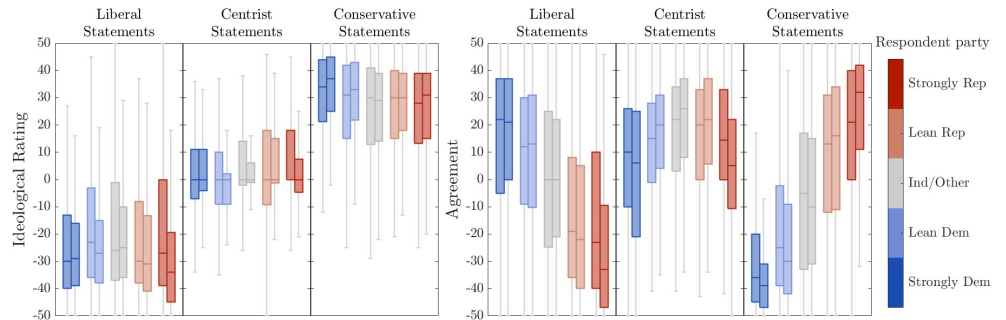


Fig A5. Box-plot view of data in Fig 5. Box-plot view of the distributions of responses in Fig 5 broken down by political party affiliation and marked/unmarked condition. We can see the same predominant patterns: “flatness” in the left panels signifying non-bias of observers in external ideological assessments, and quasi-linear self-favoring trends on the right for agreement with those statement pools.

824 demonstrated by Fig A6a, which displays the standard deviation of ideological
 825 position estimates for each of the 68 statements (average per-statement standard
 826 deviation $\mu_{\sigma} = 19.64$). Furthermore, the selection of ideology from each corresponding
 827 distribution isn’t entirely independent, as we can see by plotting individual average
 828 deviation/“bias” in Fig A6b—as a rough estimate, if individuals independently
 829 assigned ideologies with $\sigma = 19.64$ for their 30 statements, we might expect their
 830 average “bias” to have spread $\sigma_0 = 19.64/\sqrt{30} = 3.59$, and in Fig A6b the observed
 831 spread is $\sigma_b = 6.11$, indicating that individuals exhibit correlated deviations.

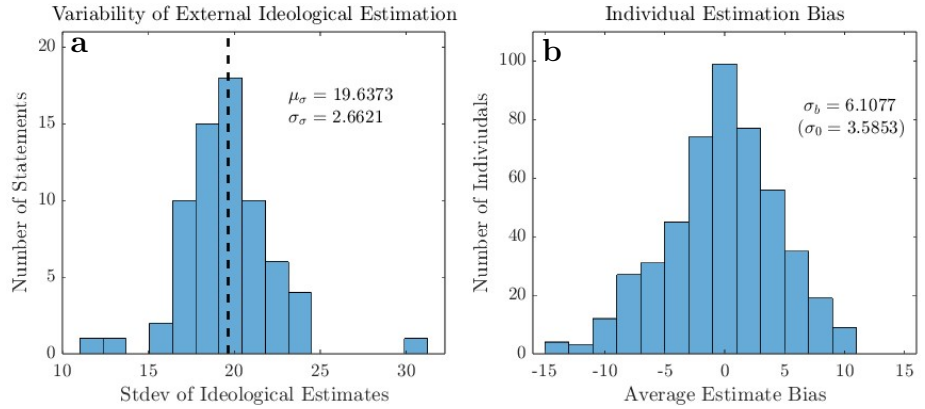


Fig A6. External Ideology Assessment: Variability by Issue, and Individual Bias. (a) Histogram of standard deviations for ideological assessment of the 68 political opinion statements. The upper outlier was a statement sympathetic to the USSR, which each side believed to be ideologically aligned with the other. (b) Average estimation bias by individual (ideology estimate - average ideology estimate, averaged across statements). The observed spread of this net bias is $\sigma_b = 6.11$, to be compared to the expected independent/null value $\sigma_0 = 3.59$; the mismatch indicates that there is some slight individual systematic bias in ideological estimation.

832 A Replication Figures

833 Here we include copies of all figures in the main text (and a few alternate figures from
 834 Appendix A), utilizing instead the combined data from $N = 166$ US-resident
 835 Mechanical Turk Masters and $N = 130$ volunteers (of which 90 were undergraduates at
 836 a large midwestern university). These data were gathered first as a pilot study, and
 837 (while not a nationally representative sample) share nearly all the major effects and
 838 non-effects the Prolific sample exhibited. We make note of the few differences below.

839 *Sample Differences.* This pilot sample (volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters)
 840 skewed significantly liberal and Democratic overall (as seen in Figs. B3c and d), and
 841 notably did not show the minor subgroup-specific treatment effects (see Fig B5,
 842 comparing trend curves, and B9a, comparing bar pairs). Nor did they share the
 843 asymmetric feelings about the political parties that the Prolific respondents did (see
 844 Fig B6). This highlights the considerable degree of variability between subsets of the
 845 population—for instance, Prolific estimates that their respondents are more “naïve”
 846 than Mechanical Turk workers, which may explain the increased susceptibility to
 847 speaker-identity framing bias among strong Republicans in the Prolific sample.

- 848 10-issue agreement scatters
- 849 10-bar x3 figure

850 C Sentiment

851 We include Figs. C1 and C2, which present the emotional-sentiment versions of
 852 overall-agreement figures (Figs. 5b, B5b, A4b and B9b). The same patterns are
 853 generally displayed, but at slightly lower amplitude than each corresponding
 854 agreement-based figure.

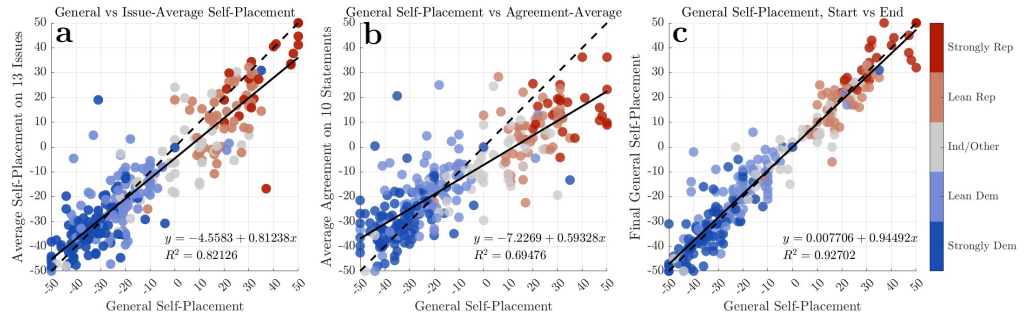


Fig B1. Version of Fig.1 displaying data from volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters. The same overall patterns—good alignment with average issue-ideology, weaker but still considerable alignment with agreement-average ideology, and strong self-consistency over time—are repeated.

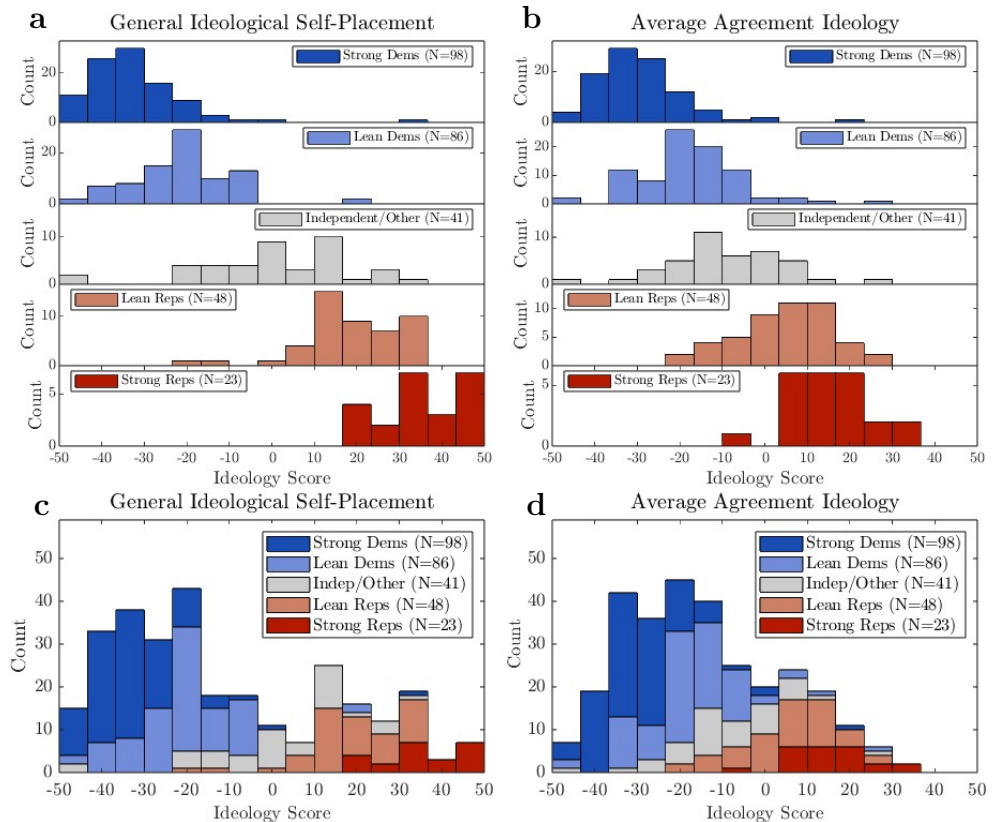


Fig B3. Version of Fig 6 displaying data from volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters. The same general pattern (well-distinguished party distributions, symmetrically spread for self-report and skewed liberal for agreement-average) is repeated. However, the large spike of Independents choosing exactly zero general ideology is not present, perhaps indicating a more nuanced/less “naïve” respondent pool. This shows the liberal skew in voluntary respondents, which was present in both sub-samples. Even after restricting Mechanical Turk respondents to self-identified US conservatives, responses stalled before anything close to parity was achieved.

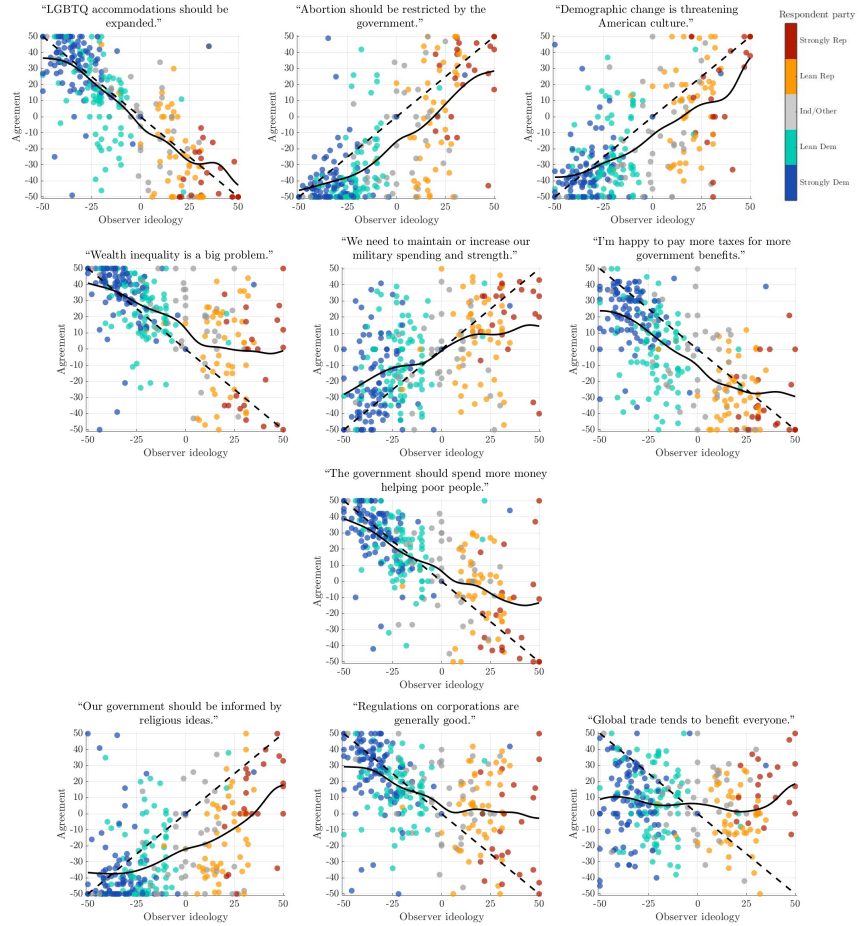


Fig B4. Version of Fig 4 displaying data from volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters (using the same issue ordering as the Prolific sample for ease of comparison, rather than its own decreasing-polarization ordering).

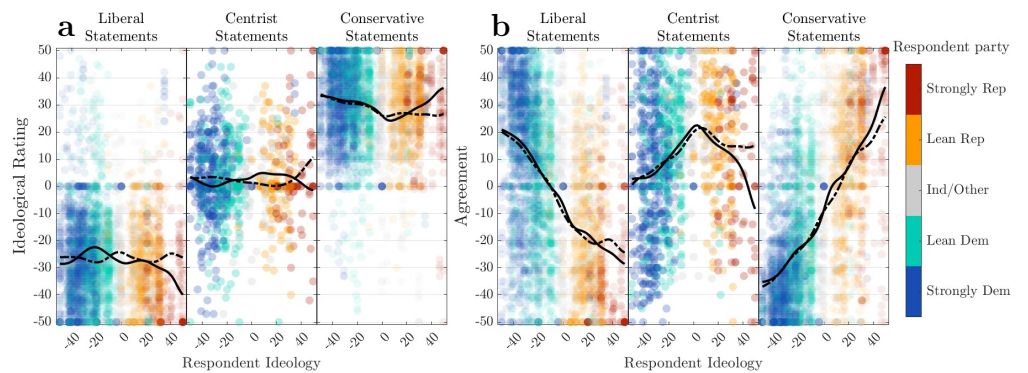


Fig B5. Version of Fig 5 displaying data from volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters. This sample does not replicate any marked-unmarked condition differences between the trend-lines; in fact, several deviations are reversed. However, note that the extreme conservative side of these graphs are of very low certainty due to the small sample size there.

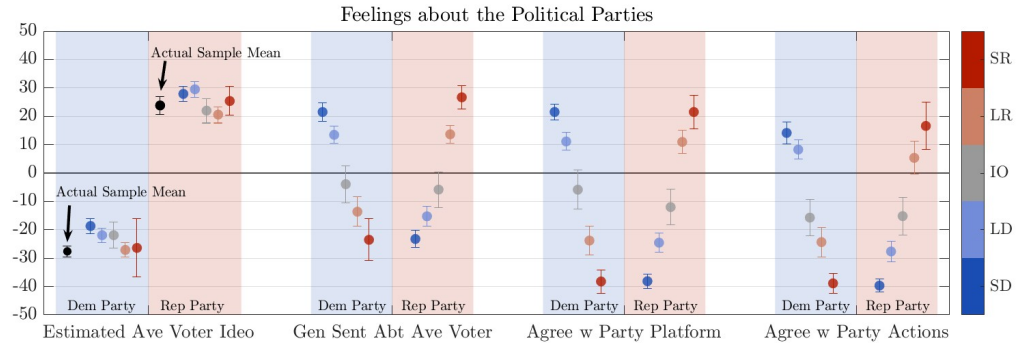


Fig B6. Version of Fig.7 displaying data from volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters. We see the same general patterns as Fig.7, but with near-perfect symmetry replacing the Republican upshift seen in that other dataset—here, both sides display the patterns Democrats did there.

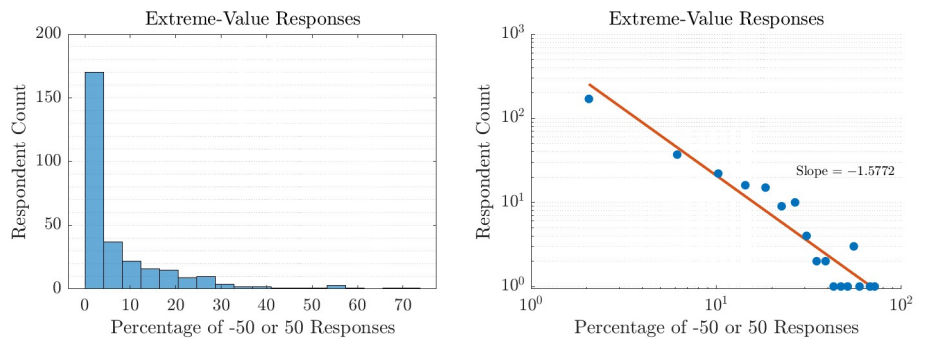


Fig B7. Version of Fig.?? displaying data from volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters. We see a similar apparent power law with exponent of about -1.58 .

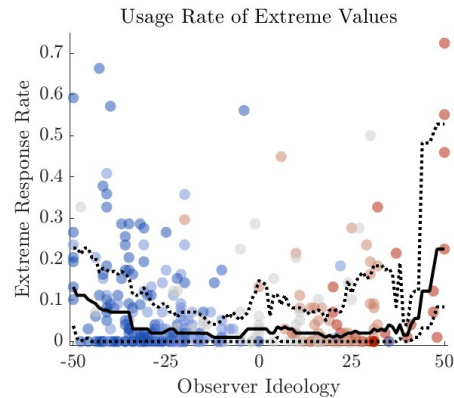


Fig B8. Version of Fig.?? displaying data from volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters. We see a similar signature of extreme ideologues using extreme values more.

Fig B9. Version of Fig.A4 displaying data from volunteers ($N_V = 130$) combined with Mechanical Turk Masters ($N_M = 166$), with 95 confidence intervals clustered by individual in Stata. We see essentially no signature of any treatment effect (comparing left and right members of each pair of bars). Many even exhibit a slight sign of the *opposite* effect—i.e., the marked condition (right bar) has more *moderate* ideology estimates, and more neutral agreement—though these opposite effects lack significance.

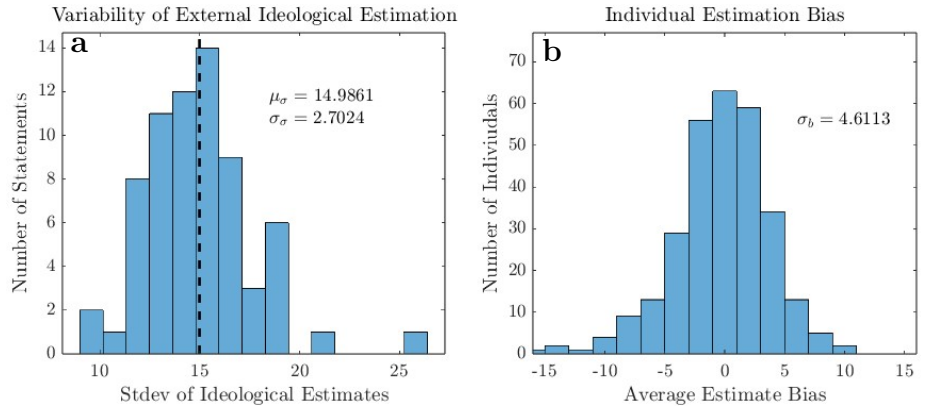


Fig B10. Version of Fig.A6 displaying data from volunteers and Mechanical Turk Masters. These respondents showed tighter ideological estimate distributions ($\mu_\sigma = 14.99$ instead of 19.64), but had a similar signature of individual bias (i.e. correlation of estimate deviations), since $\sigma_b = 4.61 > 2.74 = \sigma_0$.

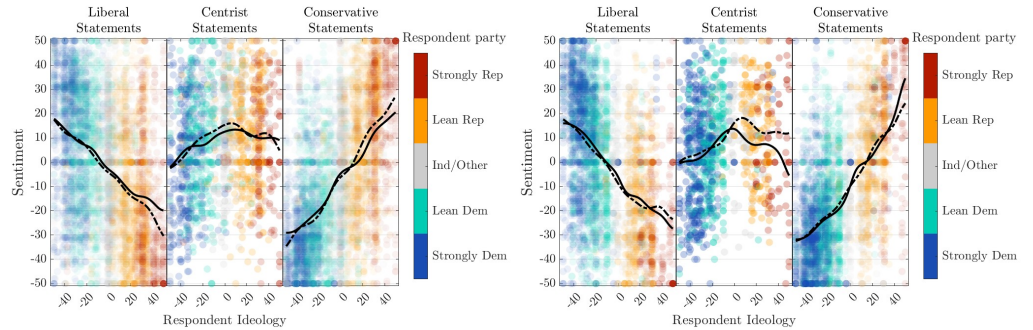


Fig C1. Average positive/negative sentiment towards each statement pool among Prolific (**left**) and Volunteers/Mechanical Turk Masters (**right**), with Gaussian moving-average trend curves as in Fig 5. Essentially the same pattern as Fig 5b is seen, but at slightly lower amplitude.

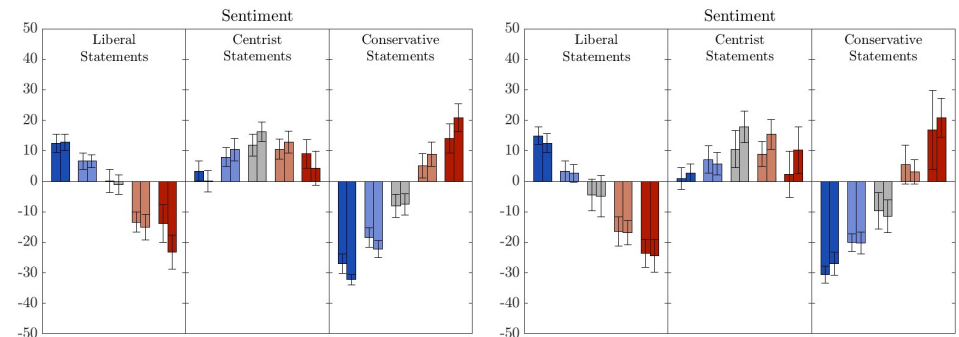


Fig C2. Average positive/negative sentiment towards each statement pool among Prolific (**left**) and Volunteers/Mechanical Turk Masters (**right**), with 95% confidence intervals clustered by individual in Stata. Essentially the same pattern as Fig A4b is seen, but at slightly lower amplitude.