Judicial Ideology and the Transformation of Voting Rights Jurisprudence

Adam B. Cox† & Thomas J. Miles††

INTRODUCTION

The history of Voting Rights Act litigation is usually told as a tale of formal jurisprudential change. The history divides voting rights litigation into two periods separated by a sharp break—a break marked by an amendment to the text of the statute and by the introduction of a new doctrinal framework. The amendment occurred in 1982, when Congress recast § 2 of the Act as the central judicial tool for enforcing minority voting rights. The Supreme Court responded to this revision a few years later by forging a new doctrinal framework in the seminal case of *Thornburg v Gingles*. This transformation by Congress and the Court ushered in the modern era of vote dilution litigation. Lawsuits brought under § 2 became a centrally important mechanism for the enforcement of minority voting rights. And the framework laid down in *Gingles* became the linchpin of this litigation.

This Article argues that the standard history is incomplete. The focus on the formal features of voting rights doctrine, while important, leaves out the actual practices of lower courts that decide voting rights cases. Recently, evidence on how judges decide these cases has begun to emerge. It shows that Democratic appointees were more likely than Republican appointees to vote for liability under § 2 of the Voting Rights Act, the primary private enforcement mechanism of the Act. Moreover, a judge’s race had an even greater effect than partisanship on the likelihood of favoring liability: minority judges voted more than

†  Assistant Professor of Law, The University of Chicago.
††  Assistant Professor of Law, The University of Chicago.

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3  See text accompanying notes 31–35.
twice as often as white judges in favor of liability. For both partisanship and race, “panel” or “peer effects” were strong. The average Democratic appointee voted in favor of liability under § 2 more often when she sat with other Democratic, rather than Republican, appointees. Similarly, the average white judge became substantially more likely to vote in favor of liability when she sat with at least one minority judge. 4

These findings, while important, do not account for the role of law in voting rights cases. In this way, the emerging evidence is typical of most modern empirical work on judicial politics. Studies of judicial decisionmaking typically link judicial ideology to ultimate case outcomes without tracing the impact of ideology through the analytical framework of the applicable legal doctrine. For political scientists who adhere to the more extreme versions of the attitudinal model, the inattention to law is unsurprising. They believe that the pursuit of judicial policy preferences fully explains judicial behavior; legal variables are irrelevant. But for legal academics, empirical evidence about the relationship between doctrinal structure and ideology should have paramount importance because it informs one of the central controversies (perhaps the central controversy) of law: the age-old debate over the choice between rules and standards.

Debates about rules and standards almost inevitably begin with the presumption that rules constrain judges more than standards. Judicial decisions seemingly provide a wealth of potential empirical data about the strength of this presumption. But by sidestepping legal doctrine almost entirely, studies of judicial behavior fail to capitalize on this resource. Studies that consider whether rule-like doctrines actually exert a more constraining effect than standard-like ones are remarkably rare. In view of the resurgent interest in empirical legal studies, 5 the omission of legal doctrine from statistical studies of judicial decisionmaking is particularly surprising.

This Article begins to remedy that omission by examining the doctrinal framework that the Supreme Court created in Gingles for evaluating claims brought under § 2 of the Voting Rights Act. Gingles laid out a sequential, two-part doctrinal framework that combines a set of rule-like preconditions to liability with a more standard-like totality of the circumstances inquiry. This unique doctrinal structure permits us to undertake two sorts of inquiries.

The first inquiry is static: the two-part structure of Gingles provides a preliminary means of testing the relationship among rules, standards,

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and ideological disagreement. The greater indeterminacy and flexibility of standards implies that ideological differences between judges would be more often observed in the application of a standard-like doctrine rather than of a rule-like one.

The second inquiry focuses on the doctrinal dynamics of vote dilution litigation over time. In the two decades since Gingles was decided, vote dilution litigation has undergone a remarkable transformation. Changes over time in the types of suits brought and the political realities on the ground have altered the significance of treating the Gingles preconditions as central proof of unlawful vote dilution. These movements have both undermined the close connection between the preconditions and minority representation and complicated the question of whether Democrats or Republicans are likely to benefit from rigid application of the preconditions. These changes allow us to investigate the way in which changes in the characteristics of litigated cases influence the way in which judges apply judicial doctrines. They suggest, for example, that both Democratic and Republican appointees may over time rely less on the Gingles preconditions, but that such reliance will drop more sharply for Democratic appointees.

Using a dataset of every decision issued in a § 2 case since Gingles, we examine the doctrinal route judges choose to follow when either finding or rejecting liability under the Act. We find strong evidence for both sets of predictions. Ideological divisions in judicial voting patterns are more pronounced in the standard-like second step of Gingles than in the evaluation of the more rule-like factors—precisely the opposite of what one might suspect given the existing literature’s preoccupation with ideological disagreements over the rule-like factors. Moreover, over time the Gingles factors that both judges and scholars claim are central to the liability inquiry have become far less important. Judges—particularly Democratic appointees—have concluded less frequently that liability should follow immediately from satisfaction of the Gingles preconditions. Courts’ sharp movement away from the centrality of the Gingles factors amounts to a largely unrecognized second transformation of voting rights litigation.

Uncovering this overlooked transformation enriches our understanding of how the Voting Rights Act has functioned over its near half-century life span. Among other things, it provides important evidence about how federal courts respond to the changes in the political and social circumstances that give rise to voting rights litigation, as well as an additional way to evaluate the doctrinal tools that structure that litigation. In this vein, one might see the transformation in the actual prac-

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6 See text accompanying notes 39–47.
tices of lower courts as something of an endorsement of federal judges’ capacities for change. It may reflect judicial responsiveness to the changing racial and partisan consequences of voting rights claims during this period. But the transformation also suggests that these changes were ones with which the doctrinal framework itself could not keep pace. The growing irrelevance of the *Gingles* framework might thus be seen as a critique of the Supreme Court’s efforts to create an objective framework for mediating judicial involvement in the political thicket of minority vote dilution claims.

I. DOCTRINE AND SOCIAL CHANGE

This Part sets the stage by sketching two central aspects of litigation under the Voting Rights Act. Part I.A describes the formal transformation of § 2 litigation in *Thornburg v Gingles*. This transformation gave rise to the rules-plus-standard doctrinal framework that provides a unique opportunity for analysis. Part I.B lays out the changes in the nature of voting rights litigation that took place in the two decades following *Gingles*—changes with profound implications for the doctrinal framework.

A. Congress, the Court, and *Thornburg v Gingles*

The Voting Rights Act was enacted in 1965 to combat America’s long history of excluding African-Americans from politics. Minority voters had been constitutionally entitled to the franchise since the adoption of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments in the wake of the Civil War. But these formal legal protections had been mostly dead letter since shortly after the end of Reconstruction. Throughout the South, states used a variety of legal mechanisms, often backed by intimidation and violence, to prevent African-Americans from registering to vote and casting ballots. Although courts (and eventually Congress)
occasionally intervened, as of 1965, African-Americans in many Southern states were still registered to vote in only trivial numbers.

The Voting Rights Act attacked this discrimination in three ways. First, the Act specifically prohibited (in certain parts of the country) the use of some legal restrictions on the franchise—such as literacy requirements—that were often applied in a discriminatory fashion to prevent potential minority voters from registering. Second, § 5 of the Act subjected the election practices of some states and local governments to ongoing federal oversight: these jurisdictions were prohibited from changing their electoral rules without first preclearing those changes through the Department of Justice. While the formula that determined which jurisdictions were covered was facially neutral, it was carefully crafted to pick out nearly all of the Deep South states for oversight. Third, § 2 of the Act created a private right of action authorizing minority voters to sue in federal court to secure their voting rights. That provision closely tracked the language of the Fifteenth Amendment, prohibiting states and political subdivisions from applying a voting rule “to deny or abridge the right of any citizen of the United States to vote on account of race or color.”

Section 2 was little used by litigants during the first decade and a half following the passage of the Voting Rights Act. This is not to say that there was no voting rights litigation during this period. Quite the contrary. But perhaps because of § 2’s similarity to the language of the Fifteenth Amendment, nearly all voting rights litigation was brought directly under the Reconstruction Amendments. Nonetheless, this con-

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11 See, for example, *Nixon v Herndon*, 273 US 536, 540–41 (1927) (striking down a white-only primary in Texas).
14 See 42 USCA § 1973c (setting up judicial and administrative procedures that covered jurisdictions were required to follow to ensure that new voting qualifications “will not have the effect of denying or abridging the right to vote on account of race or color”).
15 See 42 USCA § 1973b(b) (establishing that the proscriptions on use of certain voting tests would apply to states that have had less than 50 percent of residents of voting age registered as of specified dates).
17 See, for example, *White v Regester*, 422 US 935, 935–36 (1975) (per curiam) (holding that parts of Texas’s redistricting plan violated the Equal Protection Clause by diluting the votes of minorities); *Whitcomb v Chavis*, 403 US 124, 127 (1971) (“We have before us in this case the validity under the Equal Protection Clause of the statutes districting and apportioning the State of Indiana for its general assembly elections.”). Consider also *Gomillion v Lightfoot*, 364 US 339, 340, 345–46 (1960) (relying, prior to the passage of the Voting Rights Act, on the Fifteenth
stitutional litigation would eventually prompt the revision of § 2’s statutory language and lead to the first transformation in voting rights litigation. It is therefore helpful to understand how that litigation developed.

The first generation of constitutional litigation concerned claims of “vote denial”—claims that particular legal rules and practices unlawfully denied minority voters access to the ballot. Plaintiffs brought such claims against poll taxes, grandfather clauses, and so forth. But they quickly realized that bare access to the ballot was insufficient to guarantee electoral equality. Litigation turned to second-generation claims of “vote dilution”—claims that particular electoral rules or practices unlawfully diluted the votes of minority voters. Plaintiffs first brought vote dilution claims against at-large (and multimember district) voting arrangements. Over time, single-member districting schemes and other practices were also challenged as vote dilutive.

Courts were initially somewhat receptive to vote dilution claims. But in Mobile v Bolden, which concerned the at-large system used to elect Mobile’s County Commission, the Supreme Court issued two holdings that brought vote dilution litigation to a near standstill. First, the Supreme Court held that the Fifteenth Amendment prohibited only intentional racial discrimination in voting. Second, the Court confirmed that it considered § 2 to be only a restatement of the Fifteenth Amendment’s protections. These twin holdings meant that the plaintiffs in every voting rights case would have to prove that a voting practice was enacted or maintained for an invidious purpose in order to obtain relief under either the Constitution or § 2. Bolden’s effect was said to be devastating: “Existing cases were overturned and dismissed,” and a good deal of voting rights litigation ground to a halt.

Amendment to evaluate a statute that allegedly redrew the boundaries of the city of Tuskegee in order to segregate voters by race).

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18 See, for example, Harper v Virginia State Board of Elections, 383 US 663, 666, 670 (1966) (invalidating a Virginia poll tax of $1.50 because it denied “the opportunity for equal participation by all voters” as required by the Equal Protection Clause).

19 See White v Regester, 412 US 755, 765–66 (1973); Whitcomb, 403 US at 142, 142–44; Pamela S. Karlan, The Rights to Vote: Some Pessimism about Formalism, 71 Tex L Rev 1705, 1705–06 (1993). Plaintiffs argued that such systems diluted the votes of minority voters in part by submerging their votes within a larger white majority. To remedy the dilution, plaintiffs often asked courts to break up an at-large system into several single-member districts so that minority voters would have a greater chance of electing a candidate of their choice in a least one of these districts.


21 See id at 62 (plurality).

22 See id at 61.

The Court’s holding in *Bolden* sparked the first transformation of voting rights litigation. In response to widespread criticism of the case, Congress in 1982 amended § 2 of the Voting Rights Act. The Amendment, designed to overturn *Bolden*’s statutory holding, reworded § 2 to make clear that proof of discriminatory intent is not required to make out a claim of vote dilution. Moreover, the Amendment was accompanied by a Senate Report suggesting that courts evaluate vote dilution claims using a multifactor totality of the circumstances test that had been developed by lower courts in *pre-Bolden* cases.

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25 Prior to 1982, the provision prohibited states from using any voting practice “to deny or abridge” minority voting rights. The 1982 Amendment changed § 2’s language from active to passive voice, so that it prohibited states from using any voting practice “in a manner which results in a denial or abridgement of” minority voting rights. Compare Voting Rights Act of 1965 § 2, 79 Stat at 437, with 42 USCA § 1971. To further emphasize that this grammatical change was meant to eliminate the requirement that plaintiffs show intentional discrimination, Congress also elaborated on what was required for liability. As amended, § 2 now requires plaintiffs to show that, “based on the totality of circumstances . . . the political processes leading to nomination or election in the State or political subdivision are not equally open to participation” by minority voters—a condition satisfied when those voters “have less opportunity than other [voters] . . . to participate in the political process and to elect representatives of their choice.” 42 USC § 1973(b).

26 See Voting Rights Act, S Rep No 97-417, 97th Cong, 2d Sess 28–29 (1982), reprinted in 1982 USCCAN 177, 204–07:

To establish a violation, plaintiffs could show a variety of factors, depending upon the kind of rule, practice, or procedure called into question.

Typical factors include: (1) the extent of any history of official discrimination in the state or political subdivision that touched the right of the members of the minority group to register, to vote, or otherwise to participate in the democratic process; (2) the extent to which voting in the elections of the state or political subdivision is racially polarized; (3) the extent to which the state or political subdivision has used unusually large election districts, majority vote requirements, anti-single shot provisions, or other voting practices or procedures that may enhance the opportunity for discrimination against the minority group; (4) if there is a candidate slating process, whether the members of the minority group have been denied access to that process; (5) the extent to which members of the minority group in the state or political subdivision bear the effects of discrimination in such areas as education, employment and health, which hinder their ability to participate effectively in the political process; (6) whether political campaigns have been characterized by overt or subtle racial appeals; (7) the extent to which members of the minority group have been elected to public office in the jurisdiction.

Additional factors that in some cases have had probative value as part of plaintiffs’ evidence to establish a violation are: whether there is a significant lack of responsiveness on the part of elected officials to the particularized needs of the members of the minority group [and whether the policy underlying the state or political subdivision's use of such voting qualification, prerequisite to voting, or standard, practice or procedure is tenuous. While these enumerated factors will often be the most relevant ones, in some cases other factors will be indicative of the alleged dilution.

The cases demonstrate, and the Committee intends that there is no requirement that any particular number of factors be proved, or that a majority of them point one way or the other.
The Supreme Court interpreted the amended § 2 for the first time in 1986, in the now-seminal case of *Thornburg v Gingles*. But rather than focusing on the multifactor test suggested in the Senate Report and embodied in earlier lower court case law, the Court fashioned a new doctrinal framework for evaluating § 2 claims. The *Gingles* framework focused the inquiry on the actual behavior of voters: it moved the existence of racially polarized voting and its effect on the electoral success of minority-preferred candidates to the center of the judicial inquiry. Specifically, the new doctrinal structure included three rule-like preconditions for liability: it required plaintiffs to prove (1) that the minority group is sufficiently large and geographically compact; (2) that the minority group is politically cohesive; and (3) that white voters vote as a bloc and thereby typically defeat minority-preferred candidates.

The Supreme Court eventually clarified that the three *Gingles* factors are necessary but not sufficient conditions for liability under § 2. Once the preconditions are satisfied, a court is still required to engage in a multifactor balancing inquiry (focusing on the factors identified in the 1982 Senate Report) before determining whether vote dilution exists. In other words, § 2 doctrine is formally structured as a two-stage inquiry—the first stage more rigidly rule-like, the second involving a softer totality of the circumstances test. In practice, however, prominent opinions by lower courts have continued to downplay the significance of the second stage. The idea of the primacy of the first stage *Gingles* factors remains pervasive.

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28 *Gingles*, 478 US at 48–51. Both courts and commentators concur that the doctrinal inquiry became more rule-like by focusing initially on these three factors rather than the nine Senate factors. See *McNeil v Springfield Park District*, 851 F2d 937, 942 (7th Cir 1988) (“*[Gingles]* reins in the almost unbridled discretion that section 2 gives the courts, focusing the inquiry so plaintiffs with promising claims can develop a full record.”); Issacharoff, Karlan, and Pildes, *The Law of Democracy* at 618–19 (cited in note 23) (“Are the three *Gingles* factors more ‘objective’ in some sense than the Senate Report factors? If they are, is *Gingles* yet another manifestation of the Court’s preference for bright-line tests?”).

29 See *Johnson v De Grandy*, 512 US 997, 1011 (1994) (“*[Gingles]* clearly declined to hold [the three factors] sufficient in combination, either in the sense that a court’s examination of relevant circumstances was complete once the three factors were found to exist, or in the sense that the three in combination necessarily and in all circumstances demonstrated dilution.”).

30 See id at 1011–12.

31 See, for example, *Thompson v Glades County Board of County Commissioners*, 493 F3d 1253, 1260–61 (11th Cir 2007):

Although [ ] satisfying the three *Gingles* requirements is not, by itself, sufficient to establish vote dilution[,] . . . it would be only the very unusual case in which the plaintiffs can establish the existence of the three *Gingles* factors but still have failed to establish a violation of § 2 under the totality of circumstances.
These changes—to the statute and the doctrinal structure—had two transformative consequences. First, § 2 became the central tool of modern vote dilution litigation. After 1982, nearly every vote dilution challenge to an electoral practice included a claim that the practice violated § 2, whether the lawsuit concerned an at-large electoral arrangement, a statewide redistricting scheme, a felon disenfranchisement statute, or some other type of voting practice.\footnote{See Issacharoff, Karlan, and Pildes, The Law of Democracy at 596 (cited in note 23).}

Second, these changes created a two-stage, rule-plus-standard doctrinal structure for § 2 litigation. Within this framework, the first stage quickly assumed central importance: the three doctrinal preconditions in the first step of \textit{Gingles} came to be seen as the linchpin of the liability inquiry in modern voting rights litigation. Liability was thought overwhelmingly to rise or fall with the presence or absence of the three requirements laid out by Justice William Brennan in that case.

Within the judiciary, this view was articulated as early as \textit{Gingles} itself. Writing separately in that case, Justice Sandra Day O’Connor argued that Justice Brennan’s three-pronged test made electoral success the touchstone of vote dilution claims while rendering all other factors nearly irrelevant.\footnote{See \textit{Gingles}, 478 US at 90–93 (O’Connor concurring in the judgment).} Over time, this view came to be commonplace among lower courts as well. Lower courts have repeatedly reiterated that “it will be only the very unusual case in which the plaintiffs can establish the existence of the three \textit{Gingles} factors but still have failed to establish a violation of § 2 under the totality of circumstances.”\footnote{United States v Charleston County, 316 F Supp 2d 268, 277 (D SC 2003) (“[I]t will be only the very unusual case in which the plaintiffs can establish the existence of the three \textit{Gingles} factors but still have failed to establish a violation of § 2 under the totality of the circumstances.”).}

Among scholars, the central importance of \textit{Gingles}’s doctrinal framework has come to frame many debates in the field of election law. Perhaps the quickest way to get a sense of \textit{Gingles}’s dominance is to flip through two leading election law casebooks. These casebooks devote the vast majority of their coverage of § 2 litigation to \textit{Gingles}...
and the elaboration of its three-pronged test. Moreover, debates about the three preconditions have garnered by far the bulk of commentary and intellectual interest in § 2 litigation. A vast literature considers myriad questions about what exactly each of the three Gingles prongs requires. Can minority voters satisfy the first prong even if they are insufficiently numerous to constitute a majority of a single-member district? Can a multiracial coalition of voters constitute a single cohesive minority group for purposes of the second prong? Can the third prong be satisfied even when a nontrivial fraction of white voters are willing to vote for a minority-preferred candidate? These technical questions dominate the scholarship concerning modern vote dilution litigation.

B. The Changing Nature of Vote Dilution Litigation

The development of the modern doctrinal framework in Gingles is only half of the story. Since that framework was laid down, there have been substantial changes in the nature of vote dilution litigation. In the years immediately following § 2’s Amendment, vote dilution litigation most often targeted at-large and multimember voting arrangements in areas where voting was extremely racially polarized and where minority voters had almost no success electing their preferred candidates. Thornburg v Gingles itself involved just such a voting system. In a multimember or at-large district, several officials are elected from a single geographic district. Voters are permitted to cast one ballot for each official to be selected. As Justice O’Connor concluded in her Gingles concurrence, this electoral arrangement can submerge the voting power of the minority electorate, as compared to the alternative of using several single-member districts to elect the

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officials. The *Gingles* preconditions are designed to capture the possibility of such submergence. Oversimplifying a bit, the test identifies the circumstances under which minority voters *could* control the outcome of an election in a single-member district, but where, in the presence of racially polarized voting, they will be unable to elect a candidate of their choice in an at-large arrangement. In these situations, judicial intervention seemed relatively uncontroversial: intervening meant substituting *some* minority success for *none*, and the difficult questions concerning how to draw the single-member districts could be left largely to the remedial stages of the litigation.

Over time, however, two features of § 2 lawsuits changed. First, plaintiffs began to challenge more single-member redistricting practices in areas where minority voters had already achieved some level of electoral success. These challenges focused on the question of how many majority-minority districts to draw and on where to draw them, rather than on whether to disaggregate a multimember district within which minority voters had never succeeded in electing a minority-preferred candidate. Second, the political demographics underlying § 2 lawsuits began to change. Throughout the 1990s, levels of racially polarized voting declined in some parts of the South. This meant that growing numbers of white voters became willing, in some places, to vote for minority-preferred candidates.

These twin changes altered the significance of the *Gingles* preconditions and the consequences of treating those preconditions as central proof of unlawful vote dilution. Rick Pildes, Sam Issacharoff, and others have discussed these changes in considerable detail, but for present purposes we note briefly three consequences of these changes in case composition.

First, treating the *Gingles* preconditions as strong indicators of liability created the possibility in these later cases that § 2 would require the creation of majority-minority districts in excess of what would be

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37 *Gingles*, 478 US at 87 (O’Connor concurring in the judgment).
38 To better see this possibility, imagine a stylized example in which three officials are elected from a multimember district containing seven hundred white voters and two hundred black voters. As noted above, each voter is permitted to vote for each official to be elected. In other words, if all voters participate, there are nine hundred votes cast for each available seat—seven hundred by white voters and two hundred by black voters. If voting is perfectly racially polarized, it is easy to see that white voters will control the election of all three officials. But this result could change if the multimember district were divided into three single-member districts containing three hundred voters each. If all of the black voters were placed in one such district, they would constitute a majority of that district and could elect a candidate of their choice.
required even by a system of proportional representation. The pre-
conditions suggest that a minority-controlled district may be required
wherever a sufficiently large and compact group of minority voters
exists—implicitly incorporating an idea of representational maximiza-
tion into the doctrinal test.  

Second, it became less clear in these later cases that the represen-
tational interests of minority voters would be advanced by treating the
Gingles preconditions as nearly synonymous with vote dilution. The
Gingles framework is geared towards increasing the descriptive repre-
sentation of minority voters: as we explained above, the test generally
specifies the conditions under which it will be possible to draw an
electoral district in which minority voters can elect a candidate of
their choice, which in practice typically has meant a minority legis-
lator. When the Gingles test was introduced, it was generally assumed
that using § 2 to increase the descriptive representation of minority
voters would also increase their substantive representation—that is,
that electing more minority legislators would increase the likelihood
that the interests of minority voters would be reflected in the legisla-
tive process. Over time, however, this assumption became more con-
tested. As litigation shifted toward single-member districting plans, and
as voting patterns became less racially polarized, some scholars began
to conclude that using § 2 to increase minority descriptive representa-
tion might in certain cases—particularly in cases where § 2 was used
to force the drawing of majority-minority districts—impair minority
substantive representation by packing excessive numbers of minority
voters into a few districts.

Third, the partisan valence of the Gingles preconditions changed
over time. In the multimember context of Thornburg v Gingles, it was
generally thought that increasing the descriptive representation of mi-
nority voters would, if anything, benefit the Democratic Party. African-
American voters identified overwhelmingly with the Democratic

41 For evidence of the Court’s concern about this possibility, see De Grandy, 512 US at
1016–17 (cautioning that “reading the first Gingles condition in effect to define dilution as a
failure to maximize in the face of bloc voting . . . causes its own danger” and that “[f]ailure to
maximize cannot be the measure of § 2”).

42 See note 38 and accompanying text.

43 In Hannah Pitkin’s classic formulation, “descriptive” representation is concerned with
representing the identity of a voter while “substantive” representation is concerned with
representing the interests of a voter. See Hannah F. Pitkin, The Concept of Representation 60–61,
209 (California 1972).

44 See, for example, David T. Canon, Race, Redistricting, and Representation: The Unin-
tended Consequences of Black Majority Districts 74 (Chicago 1999); Carol M. Swain, Black Faces,
Party,\textsuperscript{45} and the combination of multimember districting with high levels of racial polarization left them with little influence over elections. But the turn toward single-member district litigation and declines in racially polarized voting changed this calculus. Once minority voters could control or influence elections with the crossover support of some white Democrats, the \textit{Gingles} preconditions’ pressure to create majority-minority districts threatened to pack minority voters into excessively safe Democratic districts. Such packing could waste Democratic votes and ultimately benefit the Republican Party.\textsuperscript{66} Some commentators began to argue in the late 1990s that safe districting practices were doing just this.\textsuperscript{47}

II. Judicial Responses to Doctrine and Social Change

Congress’s Amendment of § 2 was tremendously important to modern voting rights litigation. And \textit{Thornburg v Gingles} was an important acknowledgment by the Supreme Court that the actual behavior of groups of voters was critical to any understanding of the concept of vote dilution. But this formal story of jurisprudential change leaves out how judges actually applied the \textit{Gingles} test in specific cases. This leads the doctrinal story to miss important features of Voting Rights Act litigation by overlooking the significance for judicial decisionmaking of \textit{Gingles}’s two-stage, rule-plus-standard doctrinal structure. The way courts apply \textit{Gingles} in practice can give us new insights into how judges respond to rules and standards. Moreover, comprehensive data about the application of \textit{Gingles} can help us understand how judges reacted to recent changes in the consequences of vote dilution litigation for both minority voters and the major political parties.


\textsuperscript{46} The potential tradeoff between descriptive and substantive representation, as well as the potential political consequences, were made particularly salient by a few events in the early 1990s. Perhaps the most prominent was the 1994 landslide national election victory for the Republican Party. Before the 1994 election, discussions of the representational tradeoffs and partisan consequences of drawing majority-minority districts were mostly theoretical. But after that election there was considerable coverage in the popular press of the potential connections between Voting Rights Act enforcement and the Republican victory. And within a few years, a large political science literature emerged that was dedicated to measuring these representational and partisan effects. See note 47.

A. Hypotheses: Rules, Standards, and Ideological Disagreement

In our earlier work, we found persistent ideological differences in the rates at which judges assigned liability under § 2 of the Voting Rights Act. How are these ideological disagreements channeled by (or reflected in) the doctrinal structure of vote dilution litigation? As described above, Gingles framed the judicial inquiry as a two-part sequential test with a more rule-like inquiry preceding a more standard-like one. Legal scholars have long discussed the advantages and disadvantages of rules relative to standards. Two aspects of this literature are particularly relevant here: discretion and flexibility.

1. Discretion.

Rules deprive a decisionmaker of discretion. Rules announce ex ante the criteria according to which legal entitlements will be allocated. In a fully specified rule, the criteria are an exhaustive list of the considerations relevant to allocating the legal entitlement as well as a description of the relative importance and sequencing of each consideration. A decisionmaker applying a fully specified rule cannot deviate from the rule’s weighting or consider excluded factors. By restricting a decisionmaker’s actions, rules may guard against improper and arbitrary uses of authority.

Less dramatically, rules may prevent a decisionmaker’s own policy preferences from influencing her decision. A decisionmaker may con-
Consciously attempt to advance her own idiosyncratic objectives through a decision. Or preferences may operate at an unconscious level, such as in the implicit weighting of particular factors. By limiting the criteria for decisions and governing the conversion of these criteria into outcomes, rules permit less opportunity for a decisionmaker’s identity, preferences, or value judgments to influence the decision.

In voting rights cases, the first step of the Gingles framework is more rule-like in that it specifies three conditions that must be present in order for liability to be assigned. The test is structured as a checklist in which the court merely assesses the presence or absence of each of the three conditions: the size and geographic compactness of the minority group, the political cohesion of the minority group, and the presence of white-bloc voting. To be sure, there has always been some ambiguity about what each factor requires—as is the case for nearly all legal tests given that rules and standards exist on a spectrum rather than as purely dichotomous categories. But the Gingles preconditions do not call upon the court to assign relative weights to or balance the importance of these conditions. Each factor is a necessary precondition. Moreover, the first step in the Gingles framework does not allow the court to consider factors other than the three already specified. A judge may not, for example, discuss in the first step the presence or absence of a history of discrimination in the jurisdiction.

In contrast, the second step of the Gingles framework is much more standard-like. It requires the court to assess whether, “in the totality of the circumstances,” a finding of vote dilution is appropriate. This second step does provide some guidance to courts: it incorporates the nine factors that the 1982 Senate Report suggested are relevant to the inquiry. But that Report did not explain how courts should balance the importance of each factor, and it expressly declined to treat the enumerated factors as an exhaustive list.

In light of this doctrinal structure, our first hypothesis is that the rule-like first step of Gingles will better cabin the influence of judicial ideology than the standard-like second step. This leads to the simple prediction that there will be greater disagreement between Democratic and Republican appointees at the second step than the first.

To see this more clearly, consider a judge who for ideological reasons prefers a particular outcome in a § 2 case. The judge faces a choice: she may distort the rule-like preconditions to reach her pre-
ferred outcome, or she may massage the totality of the circumstances test to do so. The constraining power of rules makes the first option more costly than the second. This cost may take several forms. It may be that higher courts will be more likely to reverse decisions that conflict with the rule because the legal error is more obvious.

But even without reference to the hierarchical structure of courts, a rule may make it costly for a judge to impose her policy preferences. When a rule and a judge’s preferred policy outcome conflict, the task of writing an opinion that reconciles the rule and the outcome is more difficult. There is no guarantee that this effort will be successful. It may fail to persuade copanelists who have different policy preferences or who value fidelity to the rule above their preferred policy outcomes. It may even provoke a colleague into dissenting in order to expose the rule-disregarding judge’s reasoning as a fig leaf. Whether in dissent or majority, the judge who necessitates the drafting of a separate opinion taxes the collegiality of the bench. The weakness of the rule-disregarding judge’s reasoning or the reprimand of her colleague may prompt colleagues to view her future work with circumspection.

The fact that it is more costly to express ideological preferences through the application of a rule leads to the prediction that ideological disagreements should be less pronounced in the application of Gingles’s rule-like preconditions. These disagreements will be channeled more frequently into the standard-like second step.

We should note that our examination of judicial ideology and the Gingles doctrine has much in common with the literature developed by Emerson Tiller on the strategic use of legal instruments. In the strategic instruments model, judges seeking to advance their ideological pre-

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57 Relatedly, the fact that federal appellate courts must give greater deference to lower court factfindings may also raise the cost of relying on Gingles’s rule-like preconditions, as their application is somewhat less fact-intensive than the totality test.


ferences choose the legal materials on which to base their decisions according to whether appellate reviewers are likely to share their ideological preferences. Decisions based on facts or procedure rather than interpretations of substantive law have less precedential effect but are harder for appellate reviewers to reverse. Judges face a tradeoff between precedential effect and risk of reversal, and the alignment of the judge’s and the appellate court’s ideological preferences influences this tradeoff. When a high fraction of the appellate court shares a judge’s ideological preferences, she is more likely to render a decision on the basis of a legal interpretation. But when only a small fraction of the appellate court shares a judge’s preferences, she is more likely to base her decision on facts or procedure. Strategic instrument models thus offer predictions about how judicial hierarchy influences a judge’s choice between legal materials.

While our approach shares much of the spirit of the strategic instrument models, the question we ask is fundamentally different. We ask whether judges are more consistently ideological when applying rule-like tests than standard-like tests. Moreover, our account is in some ways a simpler one. Our inquiry does not turn on the impact of court hierarchy or the risk of appellate review. Nor does it flow from any difference between law and fact, or substance and procedure. Our approach depends solely on whether a judge may reach an ideologically preferred outcome more readily when applying a standard rather than a rule.

2. Flexibility.

Rules are relatively inflexible. Because they fix the decisionmaking calculus ex ante, they conform poorly to new circumstances. As a result, change in society may render rules “anachronistic” and “hopelessly outmoded.”61 Standards, in contrast, are more readily adapted to new and unanticipated situations. They are unlikely to provide an exclusive enumeration of relevant considerations or to specify the ordering or weighting of those considerations. Thus, more of the decision-making structure is fleshed out ex post.62

60 A further difference is that, unlike the strategic instrument models in which judges may choose their legal materials, the two steps of the Gingles test are joined by an “and.” Rather than picking between the rule-like portion and the standard-like portion, judges can only pick where to express their ideological preferences.


62 Kaplow, 42 Duke L J at 616–17 (cited in note 49) (explaining how “a standard promulgated decades ago can be applied to conduct in the recent past using present understandings” while “rules must be changed, which may require more effort”); Schauer, Playing by the Rules at 140–42 (cited in note 49) (noting that rules offer predictability at the cost of “diminishing [ ] capacity to adapt to a changing future”).
This second insight of the literature on rules and standards has important implications for our analysis of § 2 litigation. The *Gingles* framework does make it possible for courts to respond to changing social conditions—but only in one direction. The first-rules, then-standards sequence of the test implies that the framework can be used to reduce the scope of liability but not to expand it. The totality of the circumstances test may be used to defeat liability even when a claim satisfies the rule-like preconditions. 63 But if a judge feels that the totality of the circumstances warrants liability, she cannot impose it where the preconditions are not satisfied because the three first-stage factors are necessary conditions for liability. 64 Accordingly, the *Gingles* structure is not symmetric.

*Gingles*’s asymmetric doctrinal structure prompts several speculations about how its application will evolve over time. The first is that, as more decisions under the framework emerge, the circumstances in which liability is not warranted even though the rule-like preconditions are met will become clearer. As these precedents accumulate, the boundaries of liability may become clearer or may shrink. These changes lead to a series of familiar Priest-Klein-like predictions: plaintiffs may be deterred from bringing marginal claims, and defendants may be persuaded to settle strong claims. 65 The standard selection-of-disputes-for-litigation analysis would predict that the number of litigated cases would decline over time as precedents became clearer, but that the rate of plaintiff victory would remain unchanged. But in the context of § 2 litigation there are reasons to suspect that these standard predictions

63 In this sense, the totality of the circumstances in this test acts as a “trump” on the rule-like portion. Kaplow, 42 Duke L J at 560–61 n 5 (cited in note 49) (describing the concern about “whether rules can be binding” as centering on “whether there is any content to a rule as long as a standard can trump the rule”).

64 We do not address in this Article the question of why the Supreme Court chose a framework for analyzing claims under § 2 that effectively set an upper boundary on the scope of liability. The reasons are likely many. They may include Justice Brennan’s need to cobble together a sufficient number of votes to announce the judgment of the Court; his hope that the *Gingles* prongs would become seen as nearly sufficient (rather than just necessary) conditions for liability; or the Court’s desire to control the discretion of lower court judges. Consider generally Tonja Jacobi and Emerson H. Tiller, *Legal Doctrine and Political Control*, 23 J L, Econ, & Org 326 (2007) (presenting evidence of the use of legal doctrines as instruments of political control by higher courts); Linda R. Cohen and Matthew L. Spitzer, *Solving the Chevron Puzzle*, 57 L & Contemp Probs 65 (1994) (suggesting that the Supreme Court adopts different doctrines as signals to lower courts in order to exert policy preferences); Linda R. Cohen and Matthew L. Spitzer, *Judicial Deference to Agency Action: A Rational Choice Theory and Empirical Test*, 69 S Cal L Rev 431 (1996) (offering the same conclusions from a game theoretic perspective).

65 See George L. Priest and Benjamin Klein, *The Selection of Disputes for Litigation*, 13 J Legal Stud 1, 6–30 (1984) (presenting a selection theory of litigation in which trials result from litigants’ comparisons of the costs of settlement and trial and, importantly, the estimated probability of success at trial).
about the pattern of litigation may not obtain. The *Gingles* framework was initially designed to deal with challenges to at-large districting arrangements, and these were the paradigmatic early claims. By the mid-1990s, however, the types of cases brought began to change significantly. These new cases were less likely to satisfy the *Gingles* preconditions. Therefore, it is possible that in § 2 litigation, the rate of plaintiff success may fall over time along with the number of litigated cases.

Our primary interest, however, lies in the way that judges of different ideological stripes may use *Gingles*’s asymmetric structure to respond to changes over time in the nature of § 2 litigation. In Part I, we described the ways in which the character of voting rights litigation changed in the two decades since *Gingles*: challenges to single-member districts became more prevalent; racially polarized voting waned in some jurisdictions. These trends altered the consequences of treating the *Gingles* preconditions as strong indicators of liability. First, they created the possibility that following the *Gingles* preconditions would require the creation of even more majority-minority districts than would be required by a system of proportional representation. Second, they raised the possibility that the application of the preconditions would actually impair the substantive representation of minority voters. Third, they led to a situation in which the partisan consequences of following *Gingles* might shift by making liability under the Act less beneficial for the Democratic Party.

These changes in § 2 litigation suggest two ways in which we might expect the doctrinal patterns of vote dilution litigation to change over time. One hypothesis flows from the first and second consequences described above. If the *Gingles* preconditions proved over time to be excessively aggressive in some cases, and representationally counter-productive in others, judges of all political stripes would likely rely less on the *Gingles* preconditions as a measure of liability. Were this true,

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66 See text accompanying note 37.
67 See notes 41–47 and accompanying text.
68 This does assume that judges are interested, at least in part, in substantive representation. See Pitkin, *The Concept of Representation* at 60–61, 209 (cited in note 43) (elaborating on the difference between substantive and descriptive representation). To the extent that a judge believes that § 2’s vote dilution inquiry should concern only descriptive representation, she will obviously be unconcerned if the doctrine threatens to undermine the substantive representation of minority voters. There is little evidence, however, that federal judges are focused solely on descriptive representation in these cases and considerable evidence to the contrary.
69 Judges of both political parties might also more frequently decline to find the preconditions satisfied. But the constraints imposed by the rule-like structures of *Gingles*’s first stage would limit judges’ ability to do so. Thus, not only would the rate at which judges conclude that the second stage of *Gingles* warrants liability decline over time, it would decline more sharply than the rate at which judges found the preconditions not satisfied.
judges who found the Gingles factors satisfied would become more likely to vote against liability.\(^{70}\)

A second hypothesis flows from the third consequence. If the Gingles preconditions became more likely to favor the Republican Party over time (or at least came to have more contested partisan consequences), we would predict that Democratic appointees would become less enthusiastic about treating the preconditions as strong evidence of liability. Were this true, Democratic appointees would abandon the preconditions at a higher rate than Republican appointees—that is, the likelihood of voting for liability when the Gingles factors were satisfied would decline for Democratic appointees relative to Republican appointees.

Before proceeding, we should note one minor complication. Both hypotheses implicitly assume that the more rule-like preconditions remain relatively unchanged throughout the post-Gingles period. In reality, of course, this is an oversimplification. The legal requirements of the three prongs have been clarified and tweaked by a large body of case law over the last two decades.\(^ {71}\) But these minor changes likely sharpen our hypotheses. On balance, the changes to the preconditions have arguably made them a harder hurdle to clear. Some lower courts have imposed a causation requirement on the second prong of the test;\(^ {72}\) others have interpreted the first prong to disallow the coalition- and influence-district claims that Justice Brennan refused to rule out in Gingles itself;\(^ {73}\) and so on.\(^ {74}\) To the extent that the preconditions have

\(^{70}\) We should note that this hypothesis implicitly assumes that judges with different ideological dispositions share similar views about the appropriate theory of minority representation. If Democratic and Republican appointees operate with divergent theories of minority representation, they may respond differently to changing representational consequences. As we explained in Part I, the “representationally counterproductive” changes were ones that threatened to undermine substantive representation relative to descriptive representation. These changes would be more troubling to a judge who cared about the extent to which § 2 promoted the substantive interests of minority voters. A judge who cared only about securing the election of minority officials would be much less concerned about the changes. Thus, were it the case that Democratic appointees cared mostly about substantive representation while Republican appointees cared mostly about descriptive representation, then Democratic appointees would be more likely than Republican appointees to reduce their reliance on the Gingles preconditions in response to the changes in § 2 litigation. Differences in judges’ theories of representation would in that case provide an additional reason why Democratic appointees in particular might lose enthusiasm for treating the Gingles preconditions as nearly sole determinants of liability.

\(^{71}\) See Issacharoff, Karlan, and Pildes, The Law of Democracy at 596–672, 764–807 (cited in note 23) (surveying some of these changes). See also text accompanying notes 34–35.

\(^{72}\) See, for example, League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) v Perry, 999 F2d 831, 853–54 (5th Cir 1994) (en banc) (holding that courts must make an “inquiry into the reasons for, or causes of, [ ] electoral losses in order to determine whether they were a product of ‘partisan politics’ or ‘political defeat’ or ‘built-in bias’”).

\(^{73}\) See, for example, Brief of Amicus Curiae, League of Women Voters of the United States, Supporting Petitioners, Petition for a Writ of Certiorari, Bartlett v Strickland, No 07-689 (filed
become more difficult to satisfy, we would predict that judges would become more likely to find liability once the preconditions were satisfied. Our hypotheses above, however, predict that (either all or at least Democratic) judges will become less likely to do so. Thus, our assumption that the legal content of the preconditions remained fixed should, if anything, stack the deck against us.

* * *

To summarize our hypotheses, a comparison of the rule- and standard-like features of the Gingles framework generates three main predictions. First, the discretion afforded by standards predicts that the rate of disagreement between Democratic and Republican appointees should be greater under standard-like portions of the Gingles test than it is under rule-like portions. Second, the greater flexibility afforded by standards predicts that, as the changing nature of vote dilution litigation undermined the relevance of the Gingles preconditions, judges of both political parties would move away from their reliance on the preconditions as a nearly exclusive determinant of liability—leading to a decline in the rate at which judges find liability warranted in the totality of the circumstances. Third, that rate should decline more sharply over time for Democratic appointees than Republican appointees because of the changing partisan significance of the Gingles preconditions—leading to less ideological disagreement in later years.

3. A caveat.

Gingles’s sequentiality is part of what makes it possible for us to compare how judges evaluate rules and standards. The doctrinal frame-

Dec 21, 2007), available on Westlaw at 2008 WL 2468548 (laying out this disagreement among lower federal courts). See also Issacharoff, Karlan, and Pildes, The Law of Democracy at 637–38 (cited in note 23) (“Initially, most courts . . . either assumed without deciding or . . . explicitly permitted coalition suits under section 2,” but that “[i]n more recent decisions . . . several courts of appeals have rejected coalition claims.”).

74 Additional examples of the steady constriction include both the line of cases following Shaw v Reno, 509 US 630 (1992) (striking down a redistricting scheme designed to maximize majority-minority districts because the scheme was so bizarre on its face that it was unexplainable on grounds other than race), and League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) v Perry, 548 US 399 (2006) (holding that the large geographic distance separating groups in a district, coupled with the disparate needs and interests of these populations, made the district not “compact” for § 2 purposes), the Court’s most recent effort to elaborate on the meaning of § 2. In this vein, Rick Pildes has recently argued that “in every single districting case receiving plenary consideration [by the Supreme Court] since Gingles . . . the Court has continuously sought, without interruption, to cabin and confine safe minority districting to a narrower and narrower domain.” Richard H. Pildes, The Decline of Legally Mandated Minority Representation, 68 Ohio St L J 1139, 1140–41 (2007).
work requires judges first to analyze the rule-like preconditions before proceeding to the totality of the circumstances test. If Gingles did not specify the sequence of the analysis, a judge who opposed liability might immediately proceed to the standard-like step, conclude that the totality of the circumstances did not merit liability, and forgo analysis of the rule-like step. The application of the rule-like portion by judges opposed to liability would not be observed. The sequencing requirement of Gingles makes this possibility much less likely. While in practice some judges might assume the existence of the preconditions rather than addressing their merits, the doctrinal structure discourages this practice, and it does not appear to be prevalent in our data.

Gingles’s doctrinal structure does have its own shortcomings, of course. The ideal comparison of rules and standards would result from randomizing the methods of legal judgment across judges with varying ideological preferences. An experimenter would ask some judges to apply a rule and others to apply a standard to identical disputes and then compare the outcomes reached by judges of differing ideological predilections under each method of judgment. The Gingles test is not this ideal experiment, and there is some risk that our estimates overstate the constraining force of rules.

Overstatement might arise from the sequential nature of the Gingles framework that makes our analysis possible. Because the first step in the sequence is a necessary condition for liability, the full set of cases do not reach the second stage of the Gingles analysis. Nor are the cases reaching it a random selection of cases. The claims that fail to reach the second stage are those that cannot satisfy the first step of Gingles. Some of the cases that fail to satisfy the first step may be hard cases, but others will be easy cases—easy in the sense that judges would agree that liability is inappropriate. It is possible that more easy than hard cases are screened out at the first step. If that is so, the second step of Gingles may be marked by sharper ideological disagreements simply because the pool of cases reaching that stage includes more difficult cases.

Another possible source of overstatement is that the higher cost of disfavoring liability at the first stage may encourage insincere voting in favor of liability at that stage. If the standard-like prong permits a judge more discretion in arguing against liability or allows a judge to disfavor liability at lower cost than does the rule-like prong, a judge opposing liability might insincerely agree that a plaintiff’s claim satisfies the rule-like prong. She would do this because she would know that the greater discretion of the totality of the circumstances test provides an easier route to defeating liability. Loosely speaking, the
judge might save her ammunition for the second, standard-like prong.\textsuperscript{75} In this account, the degree of observed ideological disagreement under the rule-like prong would understimate the degree of actual disagreement. But to the extent such substitution by judges occurs, it supports our claim that the wider discretion involved in applying a standard affords greater room for ideological disagreement than applying a rule. Since our primary interest is in documenting the existence of such a difference rather than calibrating its exact magnitude, the possibility of insincere voting actually bolsters rather than undercuts our claims.

B. Data

We evaluate our central hypotheses using data that include a rich set of information about every § 2 case decided since the Supreme Court handed down its decision in \textit{Thornburg v Gingles}.\textsuperscript{76} The dataset includes all lower court dispositions, whether issued by a single district court judge, a special three-judge trial panel,\textsuperscript{77} or a three-judge appellate panel.\textsuperscript{78} To track the evolution of voting rights jurisprudence, we focus only on decisions in which courts addressed the issue of § 2 liability, rather than some preliminary or ancillary issue (such as whether attorneys’ fees should be awarded or a settlement approved). During

\textsuperscript{75} In this account, the totality of the circumstances prong in \textit{Gingles} acts as a broad exception to the set of preconditions for liability specified in the first prong. See Kaplow, 42 Duke L J at 560–61 n 5 (cited in note 49) (“When standards can be employed \textit{ex post} to trump rules, the value of rules might be significantly eroded to the extent their purpose was primarily to constrain adjudicators’ discretion for fear of abuse.”). On exceptions generally, consider Frederick Schauer, \textit{Exceptions}, 58 U Chi L Rev 871, 893–99 (1991) (characterizing legal exceptions not as a distinct category but rather as attributes of power to change rules or to avoid their constraints).

\textsuperscript{76} Detailed information on all of these opinions was initially collected by Ellen Katz and the staff of the Voting Rights Initiative at the University of Michigan Law School. See generally Ellen Katz, et al, \textit{Documenting Discrimination in Voting: Judicial Findings under Section 2 of the Voting Rights Act since 1982}, 39 U Mich J L Ref 643, 643–772 (2006); Ellen D. Katz, \textit{Not Like the South? Regional Variation and Political Participation through the Lens of Section 2}, in Ana Henderson, ed, \textit{Voting Rights Act Reauthorization of 2006: Perspectives on Democracy, Participation and Power} 183, 183–221 (Berkeley 2007). We supplemented the Voting Rights Initiative’s initial data collection with detailed information about every judge who adjudicated a § 2 case—information about both the judge’s treatment of the case and about the judge’s demographic characteristics. For a more detailed explanation of our data collection and the construction of the dataset, see Cox and Miles, 108 Colum L Rev at 18–49 (cited in note 4).

\textsuperscript{77} Trial panels are part of the § 2 landscape because the federal jurisdictional statute requires that a special three-judge district court be convened whenever a plaintiff challenges the constitutionality of a state legislative or congressional redistricting plan. See 28 USC § 2284 (2000) (“A district court of three judges shall be convened . . . when an action is filed challenging the constitutionality of the apportionment of congressional districts or the apportionment of any statewide legislative body.”).

\textsuperscript{78} Because we are interested in how trial courts and appellate panels behave within a legal framework established by the Supreme Court, we excluded en banc circuit court and Supreme Court opinions. For more explanation about the distribution of § 2 litigation across trial judges, trial panels, and appellate panels, see Cox and Miles, 108 Colum L Rev at 9–10 (cited in note 4).
the period covered by our dataset, courts issued 296 opinions concerning § 2 liability. For each decision, our dataset includes three broad categories of information:

1. **Case characteristics**: this includes information about what type of voting practice the plaintiffs challenged, where the challenged practice was located, and when the challenge was litigated.

2. **Judicial demographics**: this includes detailed information about the judges deciding the case—their political affiliation (as measured by the party of the appointing president), their race, their age, and so forth.

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79 The dataset groups the challenged practices into the following categories: at-large electoral systems, redistricting plans, election administration, and other practices. A single decision can encompass challenges to multiple types of practices. Challenges to at-large systems and redistricting plans make up the overwhelming majority of the cases. See id at 10–12.

80 The dataset includes two geographic variables. The first indicates whether the challenged practice was located in the South. The second indicates whether the challenged practice was located in a jurisdiction subject to special oversight under § 5 of the Voting Rights Act. (These jurisdictions are typically called “covered” jurisdictions.) The dataset includes these variables because, as we have discussed elsewhere, it is commonly thought that voting rights litigation is systematically different in the South and in covered jurisdictions. See Cox and Miles, 108 Colum L Rev at 12–13 (cited in note 4).

81 As the discussion thus far makes clear, we use party of the appointing president as a crude proxy for political ideology. Although not reported here in order to conserve space and to ease exposition, we have verified the robustness of our conclusions against other measures of judicial ideology, such as common space scores. For an explanation of common space scores, see Susan W. Johnson and Donald R. Songer, *The Influence of Presidential versus Home State Senatorial Preferences on the Policy Output of Judges on United States District Courts*, 36 L & Socy Rev 657, 663–65 (2002) (describing the common space score method as one that “tak[es] the data matrix of [congressional] roll call votes and estimate[e]s legislator [and president] ideal points and roll call outcomes that maximize the joint probability of the observed votes” in order to then extrapolate them to a measure of ideology of judicial appointees); Micheal W. Giles, Virginia A. Hettinger, and Todd Peppers, *Picking Federal Judges: A Note on Policy and Partisan Selection Agendas*, 54 Poli Rsrch Q 623, 631 (2001) (designating scores that account for both the ideology of the president and the practice of senatorial courtesy). On the appropriate measures of ideology generally, see, for example, Gregory C. Sisk and Michael Heise, *Judges and Ideology: Public and Academic Debates about Statistical Measures*, 99 Nw U L Rev 743, 779–90 (2005) (demonstrating from a study of religious freedom cases that both the common space score and the party-of-the-nominating-president methods are largely legitimate and interchangeable proxies for measuring judicial ideology); Lee Epstein and Gary King, *The Rules of Inference*, 69 U Chi L Rev 1, 87–96 (2002) (criticizing the adoption of the party of the appointing president as a measure of a judge’s policy preferences as invalid because “[p]residents of the same political party vary in their ideological preferences” and are not necessarily motivated to appoint judges with the same ideology as their own); Daniel R. Pinello, *Linking Party to Judicial Ideology in American Courts: A Meta-analysis*, 20 Just Sys J 219, 221–43 (1999) (synthesizing numerous studies and concluding that party of the appointing president is a reasonable proxy of judicial ideology). See also Joshua B. Fischman, *Decision-making under a Norm of Consensus: A Structural Analysis of Three-judge Panels* *1 (unpublished manuscript, 2008), available online at http://ssrn.com/abstract=912299 (visited Aug 29, 2008) (estimating ideology parameters for judges using data from asylum and sex discrimination cases).
3. Doctrinal data: this includes information about whether each judge voted for or against § 2 liability, as well as information about whether and how the judge applied the *Gingles* framework.

This dataset for the first time makes it possible to evaluate the way in which lower federal courts have evaluated liability under § 2, as well as permitting us to trace changes in the courts’ doctrinal treatment of § 2 cases over time. Moreover, this assessment is made much richer by the fact that we have judge-level, rather than just case-level, information about the treatment of § 2 claims. Thus, when a claim is resolved by an appellate court or a trial panel of three judges, we have three data points rather than just one. This expands our dataset from 296 judicial decisions to 588 judge votes. And because cases are randomly assigned to judges within districts and circuits, we are able to interpret causation as flowing from judicial characteristics to judge votes.

C. Initial Evidence

The parts below provide summary statistics that strongly support our central hypotheses. Part II.C.1 shows that there is considerably more ideological disagreement over the application of *Gingles*’s standard-like second step than over the application of the more rule-like preconditions. Part II.C.2 shows that, over time, the behavior of Democratic and Republican appointees has converged, and their use of the *Gingles* framework has changed, in exactly the way we have predicted. Part III tests the robustness of these results using multivariate regression analysis to control for other aspects of the cases. The regression analysis confirms the relationships we uncover in the summary statistics.

1. Static comparisons.

Do rules constrain judges more than standards? To begin investigating this question, Table 1 reports the average rates at which Democratic and Republican appointees vote to find either liability or that particular steps of the *Gingles* framework were met.
TABLE 1
RATES OF VOTING IN § 2 DECISIONS,
BY PARTY OF APPOINTING PRESIDENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party of appointing president</th>
<th>Difference of (1) – (2); (3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Democrat</td>
<td>Republican</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(A) Votes for § 2 liability</td>
<td>0.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.030)</td>
<td>(0.022)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[240]</td>
<td>[348]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B) Votes to apply Gingles factors</td>
<td>0.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.028)</td>
<td>(0.023)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[240]</td>
<td>[348]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C) Votes to find Gingles factors satisfied, conditional on factors discussed</td>
<td>0.439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.037)</td>
<td>(0.029)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[180]</td>
<td>[267]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(D) Votes for § 2 liability, conditional on finding Gingles factors satisfied</td>
<td>0.769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.048)</td>
<td>(0.050)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[78]</td>
<td>[99]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Table provides means, standard errors in parentheses, and number of observations in brackets.
* significant at 10 percent; ** significant at 5 percent.

Row (A) of the table displays the rates at which judges of each party voted to find liability under § 2, and it confirms that the partisan differences we identified in our earlier work are also evident in the shorter 1986–2004 period following the Gingles decision.\(^82\) This row shows that Democratic appointees voted to assign liability about 12 percentage points more often than Republican appointees. This difference is almost identical to the 13 percentage point difference we observed in the longer time period of our earlier study.

The remaining rows examine the judicial treatment of the Gingles test. Row (B) shows the rates at which these judges voted to apply the Gingles framework. They did so at high rates—about 75 percent. This pattern is consistent with the conventional wisdom that the Gingles test is the centerpiece of litigation under § 2.\(^83\) In addition, these aggregate figures reveal no sharp ideological differences in the rate at which the judges voted to apply the Gingles test. Fewer than 2 percentage points separate the rates at which Democratic and Republican appointees voted to apply the test, and this difference is not statistically significant.

\(^82\) See Cox and Miles, 108 Colum L. Rev at 18–49 (cited in note 4) (identifying substantial differences in the rates at which Democratic and Republican appointees voted in favor of § 2 liability).
\(^83\) See text accompanying notes 31–37.
In contrast, some ideological divisions are evident in the summary statistics for the judges’ conclusions about whether the *Gingles* preconditions are satisfied. Row (C) reports the rates at which judges concluded that the plaintiff’s challenge satisfied the *Gingles* factors in cases where they agreed to apply the framework. It shows that in cases in which they voted to apply the *Gingles* factors, Democratic appointees were more likely to conclude that the factors were met. The difference, more than 9 percentage points, is just above the standard 5 percent significance level. This difference provides some support for the characterization of § 2 litigation in the academic commentary—that conclusions about the satisfaction of the *Gingles* factors track conclusions about liability.

But even when judges agree that the *Gingles* factors are met, a court must assess the totality of the circumstances to determine whether liability is warranted. Row (D) reports the average rates at which judges concluded that liability was warranted after finding the factors satisfied. An important caveat in considering these figures is that the number of observations is modest because these cases are the subset in which judges have determined both that *Gingles* applies and that the three preconditions are met. Despite this, two strong patterns emerge. First, Democratic and Republican appointees differed widely in the rate at which they concluded (after deciding that the *Gingles* factors were met) that the totality of the circumstances warranted liability. Democratic appointees favored liability in this setting 77 percent of the time, while Republican appointees favored it only 56 percent of the time. The 21 percentage point difference in these conditional probabilities is larger in magnitude than the 12 percentage point difference in overall liability rates seen in Row (A), and it is double the 10 percentage point difference in conditional probability that the factors were met, as shown in Row (C). If taken at face value, these comparisons suggest that the question whether the totality of the circumstances warrants liability is even more polarizing than the question whether the *Gingles* preconditions are satisfied.

The second pattern evident in Row (D) is that, aside from the ideological difference, judges who reach step two’s totality test are quite likely to find a violation of § 2. The likelihood of assigning liability conditional on the three preconditions being met is well over 50 percent. For each set of appointees, it is more than 20 percentage points higher than the corresponding (conditional) probability that they found the preconditions satisfied. In other words, judges were much more likely to render a pro-plaintiff decision at the second stage of the *Gingles* analysis than at the first stage. These findings are consistent with the conventional wisdom that satisfaction of the *Gingles* factors correlates strongly with
liability. But they also suggest that the inquiry into the totality of the circumstances is an area of more intense ideological division.

These findings are consistent with the idea that the relatively rule-like Gingles preconditions constrain judges’ decisions more than the looser totality of the circumstances test. If the three preconditions were more constraining, one would expect to see greater ideological disagreement in the application of the totality of the circumstances test than in the application of the Gingles preconditions. The summary statistics suggest just such a result, and the regression analysis below suggests that the effect is fairly pronounced. To be sure, we must be somewhat cautious about this interpretation. Because the doctrinal test is sequential, the selection of cases to which judges apply the three preconditions is somewhat different than the selection of cases to which the judges apply the totality of the circumstances test. But for the reasons we explained above, we do not believe that these selection concerns undermine the central findings.

2. Comparisons over time.

Our earlier work demonstrates that the liability rate in § 2 cases has declined dramatically over the last two decades. The question of what accounts for that decline is important for both voting rights scholars and students of judicial behavior. Looking only at litigation outcomes, we were previously unable to explain this pattern. But capitalizing on the richer doctrinal data allows us to make more progress toward understanding these changes.

As we explained above, the character of voting rights litigation changed substantially in the two decades since Gingles. These changes in the potential representational and partisan consequences have led to two hypotheses: that judges who found the Gingles preconditions satisfied would become more likely to vote against liability, and that Democratic appointees would abandon the preconditions at a higher rate than Republican appointees.

a) Overall trends. For an initial assessment of these predictions, we first examine raw time trends in the liability rates and the rates of the application of Gingles. Figure 1 shows the volume of § 2 decisions in the two decades following the Court’s decision in Gingles on the left scale, as well the success rate of that litigation over time on the right scale. (Unlike the tables that examine the data at the level of judge-votes, Figure 1 analyzes the data at the level of case outcomes.) The number of

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84 See note 34 and accompanying text.
§ 2 decisions rises in the early part of each decade, which is consistent with a flurry of redistricting litigation following the decennial censuses. As we have previously reported, the rate of plaintiff success is marked by a sharp downward trend during the late 1980s and early 1990s. In the decade between 1986 and 1995, the rate of plaintiff success declined by more than 20 percentage points. Since the mid-1990s, the liability rate has exhibited more stability, but it has remained at levels far below its previous highs. Except for a brief uptick from 1998 to 2000, the rate of plaintiff success has been flat or slightly declining since 1997.

Has the doctrinal approach taken by courts remained constant as liability rates have declined? The remaining trend lines in Figure 1 provide partial answers to this question. The rate at which courts have applied the Gingles framework has remained high and relatively stable. Figure 1 shows that lower federal courts immediately accepted the framework the Supreme Court articulated in Gingles and have readily applied it in the vast majority of cases brought under § 2. Except for a slight decline after 2000, the rate at which courts applied the framework hovered between 70 and 80 percent.

In contrast, the rate at which courts found the Gingles factors satisfied fluctuated widely during the observation period. The movements can be separated into two periods: first, a period of sharp de-
cline, and then, a period of stability. The steep decline in the late 1980s and early 1990s resulted in a roughly 25 percentage point reduction in the likelihood that the average court found the factors satisfied. But these declines mirrored the fall in liability, with the result that, when judges found the Gingles conditions met, they voted in favor of liability at least two-thirds of the time. Thus, the factors were central to courts’ assessments of § 2 challenges in the first years after the decision.

Since the mid-1990s, the rate at which courts have found the factors satisfied has remained relatively steady but low. In addition, even when courts have found that a challenge satisfied the factors, they have less often reached a conclusion that the election practice violated § 2. In effect, the Gingles factors have become somewhat unmoored from liability determinations during this period. Unlike the earlier years, during which liability almost always followed from satisfaction of the factors, the later period more frequently witnessed courts concluding that the factors were met but that the challenged election practices did not violate § 2.

These patterns are consistent with the first prediction about the impact of the changing nature of § 2 litigation. Earlier cases typically involved multimember districts. In contrast, more recent § 2 challenges emphasized changing the number of majority-minority, single-member districts and were more likely to involve areas of the South where racial polarization had declined. These changes in the nature of § 2 claims made liability less likely for two reasons: First, the more recent challenges were less likely to satisfy the Gingles preconditions, and without satisfaction of the first stage of the doctrinal framework, these claims could not advance to liability. Second even when a court concluded that the Gingles factors were met, the different representational consequences of these cases made it less likely that the court would conclude that the totality of the circumstances warranted liability. The widening gap between the rate at which the factors were met and the liability rate suggests a greater hesitancy to let liability follow immediately from the satisfaction of the three preconditions. The raw overall trends are therefore consistent with our first prediction about the effect of the evolving nature of § 2 challenges.

b) Partisan trends. For an initial assessment of our second prediction—that Democratic appointees became less likely over time to conclude that liability should follow immediately from satisfaction of the Gingles factors—we turn from the case-level analysis in Figure 1 back

87 See notes 37–47 and accompanying text (explaining the changing representational and political consequences of vote dilution litigation over this period); notes 68–67 and accompanying text (setting out the hypotheses that flow from the changes in the nature of § 2 litigation).
to a judge-vote–level analysis. Table 2 displays the rates at which Democratic and Republican appointees favored voting rights plaintiffs at each step of the *Gingles* framework, and it breaks these comparisons into two periods: before and after 1994. The year 1994 was chosen because it was roughly the midpoint of the observation period, and thus, the comparisons give a sense of the time trends in judges’ applications of *Gingles.*

### TABLE 2

*RATES OF VOTING IN THE *GINGLES* FRAMEWORK, BY PARTY OF APPOINTING PRESIDENT*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Gingles Factors Discussed</th>
<th>Gingles Factors Met, Conditional on Factors Discussed</th>
<th>Liability, Conditional on Gingles Factors Met</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Before 1994</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democrat</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td>0.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.038)</td>
<td>(0.052)</td>
<td>(0.042)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[125]</td>
<td>[95]</td>
<td>[46]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republican</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.364</td>
<td>0.591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.037)</td>
<td>(0.047)</td>
<td>(0.075)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[151]</td>
<td>[107]</td>
<td>[44]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democrat - Republican</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.120*</td>
<td>0.322**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.053)</td>
<td>(0.069)</td>
<td>(0.085)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>After 1994</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democrat</td>
<td>0.739</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.041)</td>
<td>(0.053)</td>
<td>(0.054)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[115]</td>
<td>[85]</td>
<td>[32]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republican</td>
<td>0.812</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>0.527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.026)</td>
<td>(0.037)</td>
<td>(0.068)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[197]</td>
<td>[160]</td>
<td>[55]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democrat - Republican</td>
<td>-0.073</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.048)</td>
<td>(0.064)</td>
<td>(0.112)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Table provides means, standard errors in parentheses, and number of observations in brackets. *significant at 10 percent; **significant at 5 percent.

Column (1) reports the rate at which judges concluded that the *Gingles* framework should be applied. As seen in Figure 1, both groups of judges applied the framework at high rates, between 70 percent and 80 percent of the time. In each time period, Democratic and Republican appointees generally agreed that the *Gingles* framework was appropriate. Before 1994, the Democratic appointees applied it at a rate only 6 percentage points higher than Republican appointees did, and after 1994, they applied it at a rate only 7 percentage points lower.

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88 We also chose this breakpoint because it is the one we used for all two-period comparisons in our earlier work. See Cox and Miles, 108 Colum L Rev at 23 n 78 (cited in note 4).
than Republicans did. Neither of these differences are statistically significant. The movement in these rates is due almost entirely to an increase in the willingness of Republican appointees to apply the doctrinal framework. The rate at which Republican appointees voted to apply it rose by 10 percentage points, from 71 percent to 81 percent, between the two time periods. These data cannot reveal whether this increase is due to a greater acceptance by Republican appointees of the appropriateness of the Gingles framework, a conclusion by Republican appointees over time that application of Gingles might advance their own party’s interests, or some combination of the two. But the primary conclusion from Column (1) is that judges widely accepted Gingles as the organizing framework for voting rights claims. Judges of both political affiliations voted at very high rates to apply Gingles throughout the observation period.

Columns (2) and (3) show the rates of ideological disagreement at each step in the Gingles analysis. In these Columns, more pronounced differences between the two groups of judges are evident in the earlier time period, and these differences vanish in the later period. In the 1986–1994 period, Democratic appointees were more likely than their Republican counterparts to find the Gingles factors met, and conditional on having found the factors met, they were much more likely to conclude that the challenged electoral practice violated § 2. They concluded 48 percent of the time that the Gingles preconditions were met while Republican appointees did so only 36 percent of the time. The 12 percentage point difference between these figures is statistically significant.

The totality of the circumstances test featured an even larger degree of ideological disagreement in the earlier period. Column (3) reports the rate at which judges voted to assign liability conditional on the Gingles factors being met, and in the 1986–1994 period, the analysis of this prong featured the largest difference between Democratic and Republican appointees. When the average Democratic appointee determined that the Gingles factors were met, she was almost certain to vote in favor of liability: after concluding that a challenge satisfied the preconditions, Democratic judges favored liability fully 91 percent of the time in the years prior to 1994. The corresponding rate for Republican appointees were initially more reluctant to apply the Gingles framework to vote dilution challenges. The framework was crafted by Justice Brennan, one of the Court’s most liberal members. See Gingles, 478 US at 34. In a separate opinion, the considerably more conservative Justice O’Connor rejected Justice Brennan’s framework as misguided. See id (O’Connor concurring in the judgment) (complaining that under the Court’s framework, “electoral success has [] emerged . . . as the linchpin of vote dilution claims, and that the elements of a vote dilution claim create an entitlement to roughly proportional representation within the framework of single-member districts”).
can appointees was much lower—only 59 percent. The 32 percentage point difference between Democratic and Republican appointees is both large in magnitude and statistically significant.

The results for the 1986–1994 period provide further support for the static hypothesis about the degree of discretion afforded judges under standards versus rules. The difference in the rates at which Democratic and Republican appointees favored voting rights plaintiffs under the second prong of the Gingles framework was more than double the difference under the first prong. The larger gap in the second, standard-like prong of Gingles is consistent with the prediction that ideological disagreements will be more intense under standards than rules.

Importantly, however, this basic partisan division in the evaluation of the totality of the circumstances in the years immediately following Gingles did not hold up over time. During the years after 1994, Democratic appointees look nearly like Republican appointees at both steps of the framework. Column (2) shows that the rate at which Democratic appointees concluded that the rule-like preconditions were satisfied fell by 9 percentage points, from 48 percent to 39 percent. In contrast, the corresponding rate for Republicans fell by only 3 percentage points, from 36 percent to 33 percent. The sizable ideological difference in how judges evaluated this prong during the earlier period all but disappeared in the later period. In the years after 1994, there was only about a 6 percentage point difference in the rate at which Democratic and Republican appointees favored voting rights plaintiffs at the first stage of Gingles. The difference was not statistically significant and was half as large as the earlier period’s difference.

Column (3) shows that the evaluation of whether the totality of the circumstances warranted liability featured an even more substantial convergence. In both time periods, Republican appointees have always denied liability under the totality inquiry in a substantial fraction of cases. In cases where Republican appointees found the Gingles preconditions satisfied, they voted in favor of liability only about 59 percent of the time before 1994. This fraction fell somewhat over time, indicating that, for these judges, the significance of the Gingles preconditions waned. But the decline was modest: the likelihood that a Republican appointee voted in favor of liability after finding the preconditions met fell only by about 6 percentage points between the earlier and later period.

The rate at which Democratic appointees concluded that the totality of the circumstances required liability after finding the preconditions met fell much more sharply. In the first half of the observation period, Democratic appointees favored liability 91 percent of the time after concluding the factors were met. In the second half of the time period, they favored it only 56 percent of the time. The rate at which they concluded that the totality of the circumstances favored liability
thus fell by 35 percentage points. Although the number of votes by
Democratic appointees in this prong of the framework is small, the
decline is quite large and statistically significant.

To put this differently, these figures imply that Democratic and
Republican appointees favored voting rights plaintiffs under both the
first and the second prongs at roughly the same rate in later years. After
1994, the average Democratic appointee who found the preconditions
met voted for liability 56 percent of the time, while Republican appoin-
tees did so 53 percent of the time—a nearly identical treatment that
stands in sharp contrast to the gap of almost 25 percentage points sepa-
rating these groups of judges prior to 1994. These raw changes are
consistent with our second hypothesis regarding the inflexibility of rules to
social change—that, as the partisan and representational consequences
of vote dilution litigation changed, the rate at which judges found liabil-
ity was warranted in the totality of the circumstances should decline
more quickly for Democratic appointees than Republican appointees.

c) Preliminary conclusions. In short, these data point to a second
transformation of voting rights litigation. As the data show, the 1982
Amendments and the Supreme Court’s subsequent interpretation of
them did initially make *Gingles*’s three preconditions the central doc-
trinal tool around which § 2 litigation was organized. But within a
decade, a second transformation dramatically undermined the signi-
ficance of *Gingles*. Two doctrinal shifts propelled this transformation.
First, judges moved sharply away from the view that satisfaction of the
Gingles preconditions was essentially sufficient to establish liability. In
the early years following *Gingles*, courts that found the preconditions
satisfied overwhelmingly concluded that liability existed. More recent-
ly, however, the connection between the preconditions and liability
has grown much more tenuous. While courts have continued to insist
that finding the *Gingles* preconditions satisfied would almost inevita-
ably lead to liability, the actual practice of courts belied this rhetoric.
Second, the behavior of Democratic and Republican appointees has
converged over time. In fact, the declining significance of the *Gingles*
preconditions appears to be largely the product of changes in the vot-
ing patterns of Democratic appointees. These judges have come, over
time, to look much more like Republican appointees in their skeptic-
ism of the significance of the *Gingles* preconditions.

These findings are quite significant for our understanding of the
role that federal courts play in promoting minority voting rights. Other
voting rights scholars, perhaps most notably Rick Pildes, have sug-
gested that federal courts adapt quickly to changing social conditions

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90 See note 34 and accompanying text.
in voting rights litigation. Our findings provide some empirical support for his argument. But our data suggest a different sort of response than that predicted by most voting rights literature. The literature focuses principally on the implications of social change for the substantive content of the Gingles’s three-factor test. This focus is understandable, particularly in light of the fact that courts continue to claim that the test itself is so centrally important. But stepping back from judicial rhetoric and focusing instead on judicial practice reveals a very different pattern. Courts have responded to changing litigation and political realities not just by tweaking the Gingles test, but by moving substantially away from that famous test as an important determinant of liability under the Voting Rights Act.

III. CONFIRMING THE HYPOTHESES

To be sure that the patterns we observe in the raw data are robust—that is, they are not actually the product of some other characteristics of § 2 litigation—we turn in this Part to regression analysis. In so doing, we acknowledge that untangling the precise causes of the transformation in voting rights adjudication is no easy task. In part, this is because the jurisprudential features on which we have focused are not exogenous attributes of the cases. The doctrinal approach and analysis arise endogenously from each judge’s resolution of a particular case. In other words, we have no objective measure of whether the Gingles preconditions were met in any particular case; we have only a judge’s conclusion that they were or were not satisfied. We are also alert to the difficulty of distinguishing empirically between two possible reasons for the declining significance of the Gingles framework and the convergence of Democratic and Republican appointees: first, that the nature of litigated cases (which includes the underlying social conditions) changed in some important way over time; second, that litigated

92 See Pildes, 68 Ohio St L J at 1141–42, 1158–60 (cited in note 91); Pildes, 80 NC L Rev at 1567–73 (cited in note 40).
93 We estimated the probability that a judge votes in favor of a plaintiff with probit regressions in the form \( \Pr(\text{Vote}_{ijct}) = \text{Dem}_j + Z_{jt} + X_{ijt} + \alpha_c + \alpha_t + \epsilon_{ijct} \). The dependent variable \( \Pr(\text{Vote}_{ijct}) \) represents the probability that judge \( j \) in case \( i \) in year \( t \) and circuit \( c \) votes for the plaintiff. The dependent variable in some specifications is the likelihood of voting in favor of § 2 liability, and in others, it is the likelihood of voting in favor of satisfaction of the Gingles factors. In these equations, \( \text{Dem}_j \) is a binary variable taking the value 1 when a Democratic president appointed judge \( j \) and 0 otherwise. The term \( X_{ijt} \) reflects variables that are specific to case \( i \), and \( Z_{jt} \) contains variables reflecting characteristics of judge \( j \), some of which may vary over time. The binary variables \( \alpha_c \) and \( \alpha_t \) are fixed effects for circuit \( c \) and year \( t \). The term \( \epsilon_{ijct} \) is an error term. Standard errors are clustered on cases because the votes of judges sitting on the same panel may not be independent.
cases remained unchanged but that judge’s views about minority vote dilution litigation changed nonetheless. Still, the patterns in the data are consistent with our account of the substantial changes in the nature of vote dilution litigation that took place over the past two decades.

Table 3 presents the first set of regression results. The dependent variable in these equations is the probability that a judge votes in favor of assigning liability under § 2. These equations confirm that the findings we previously obtained regarding the relationship between liability and judicial characteristics in the entire period since the 1982 Amendments persist in the post-Gingles period. The results in the subsequent tables present analyses of the doctrinal factors.

Table 4 reports equations in which the dependent variable is the probability that a judge decides the Gingles factors are satisfied, and in these regressions the data are limited to those observations in which judges voted to apply the Gingles framework. These equations estimate the first step of the Gingles analysis: the probability a judge concludes that the Gingles factors are met, conditional on the judge having favored applying the framework.

Table 5 presents similar equations for the second stage of the Gingles framework, the totality of the circumstances. In these equations, the dependent variable is the probability a judge votes to assign liability under § 2, and here, the data are limited to those observations in which judges decided that the case satisfied the Gingles factors. These equa-

94 The views of judges could have changed because of ideological drift or because of generational replacement on the courts. A third possibility is that judges’ views changed because they acquired new information over time about the consequences of vote dilution litigation. But we believe that it is more appropriate to characterize changes in information as changes in case composition. Analytically, this more cleanly separates internal accounts of the change in judicial behavior from external accounts.

Also, as we noted above, we should emphasize that our results remain largely the same when we employ alternative measures of judicial ideology that are somewhat less crude than the party-of-the-appointing-president measure. See note 81. The robustness of the results to alternative ideological proxies lessens the likelihood that the results are driven by generational replacement that changed the ideological composition of the judiciary. Thus, while it might be tempting to think that the post-1994 changes are driven by President Clinton’s judicial appointments being more conservative than earlier Democratic appointees, we find no significant evidence of this possibility.

95 See notes 39–47 and accompanying text (summarizing this conventional account).

96 To make it easier to interpret our results, the regression results in Tables 3–5 show the marginal effects for each explanatory variable instead of the regression coefficients. This simply means that the numbers listed in these tables reflect percentage changes in the likelihood of a judge finding liability. To see this, consider, for example, the first row of Table 3, which shows how much more likely a judge was to vote in favor of liability if the “Judge was Democratic appointee.” Under our first regression (in Column (1)), the marginal effect was 0.089, which means that a judge was more likely to vote in favor of liability by 8.9 percentage points on average if she was appointed by a Democrat rather than by a Republican.

97 See Cox and Miles, 108 Colum L Rev at 18–49 (cited in note 4). The estimates in the shorter time period are quite similar to the earlier results, and our central conclusions remain unchanged.
tions estimate the probability a judge favors liability, conditional on the judge having concluded that the challenge met the *Gingles* factors.

Each of these tables presents four regression specifications. Column (1) displays the baseline estimates in which judicial ideology and race are the parameters of primary interest. The regression in Column (2) adds controls for the partisan and racial composition of the panel. Columns (3) and (4) present regression specifications that track Columns (1) and (2), respectively—except that this second pair includes a term interacting a judge’s partisan affiliation with the time period. To ease the exposition of the results, we organize the discussion around the parameters of interest rather than the equations.
TABLE 3  
LIKELIHOOD OF INDIVIDUAL JUDGES VOTING FOR § 2 LIABILITY:  
PROBIT REGRESSION ANALYSIS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Judge was Democratic appointee</td>
<td>0.089**</td>
<td>0.104**</td>
<td>0.114**</td>
<td>0.128**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.036)</td>
<td>(0.038)</td>
<td>(0.047)</td>
<td>(0.049)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judge was Democratic appointee * Year was</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>-0.051</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after 1994</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.055)</td>
<td>(0.052)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One additional Democratic appointee on panel</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.041)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.042)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two additional Democratic appointees on panel</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.087)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.087)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judge was African-American</td>
<td>0.272**</td>
<td>0.345**</td>
<td>0.271**</td>
<td>0.344**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.085)</td>
<td>(0.095)</td>
<td>(0.085)</td>
<td>(0.095)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional African-American on panel</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.306**</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.307**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.107)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.108)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appellate case</td>
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<td>-0.178**</td>
<td>-0.114**</td>
<td>-0.179**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.046)</td>
<td>(0.056)</td>
<td>(0.046)</td>
<td>(0.056)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to at-large election</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.056)</td>
<td>(0.058)</td>
<td>(0.056)</td>
<td>(0.058)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to reapportionment plan</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.062)</td>
<td>(0.062)</td>
<td>(0.062)</td>
<td>(0.062)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to local election practice</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.052)</td>
<td>(0.051)</td>
<td>(0.051)</td>
<td>(0.051)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plaintiffs were African-American</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.056)</td>
<td>(0.056)</td>
<td>(0.056)</td>
<td>(0.056)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case occurred in jurisdiction covered by § 5</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.061)</td>
<td>(0.061)</td>
<td>(0.061)</td>
<td>(0.062)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

log (likelihood)                              -286.199 -274.138 -285.882 -273.839
Pseudo-R²                                     0.1536 0.1892 0.1545 0.1901

Note: Estimated marginal effects and in parentheses standard errors. * significant at 10 percent; ** significant at 5 percent. N=588. All regressions also include fixed-effect controls for judicial circuits and years.

A. Judicial Ideology

The results of Table 3 show that, consistent with our earlier analysis, judicial ideology exerts a sizable and robust effect on the likelihood a judge votes to assign liability in § 2 challenges. The magnitude of the impact in Columns (1) and (2), about 9 percentage points, is similar to our previous findings, and it is very close to the difference observed in the summary statistics of Table 1.

Columns (3) and (4) include interactions of judicial ideology and time period. That interaction captures any change over time in the behavior of Democratic appointees relative to Republican appointees. It therefore allows us to test whether the ideological convergence that
shows up in the summary statistics remains after we control for other determinants of liability. The estimates in Column (3), for example, imply that the average rate at which a Democratic appointee in the years prior to 1994 voted in favor of § 2 liability was 11.4 percentage points higher than that of the average Republican appointee. In the years after 1994, this difference shrinks to 6.3 percentage points (0.063 = 0.114 – 0.051). Although the point estimates imply that, even after 1994, Democratic appointees are more likely to vote in favor of liability, the imprecision of the estimates implies that this 6.3 percentage point difference is not distinguishable from zero at conventional significance levels (p-value = 0.2099).

The equations in Columns (2) and (4) in Table 3 include control variables for the partisan composition of the panel, for those judges who sit on panels. Because some of our observations come from circuit panels and special trial panels, these variables are needed to control for the “indirect effects” or “panel effects” of partisanship. Numerous researchers have found evidence that the ideology of other judges on a panel can influence a judge’s decisionmaking. This research typically shows that Republican-appointed or conservative judges are more likely to cast liberal votes when they sit on panels with Democrat-appointed or liberal judges. Conversely, it indicates that Democrat-appointed or liberal judges are more likely to cast conservative votes when they sit with Republican-appointed or conservative judges.

The estimates in Columns (2) and (4) provide weak support for the presence of panel effects in liability determinations. The point estimates for the individual panel effects are not statistically significant. But they imply that, as Democratic appointees comprise a greater share of the panel, the likelihood that a judge votes in favor of the plaintiff rises. For example, the results in Column (2) indicate that the probability that a Republican appointee votes in favor of liability

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rises by 5.6 percentage points when she sits with one Democratic appointee and by 10.4 percentage points when she sits with two.\textsuperscript{99}

\textbf{TABLE 4}

\textbf{LIKELIHOOD OF INDIVIDUAL JUDGES VOTING TO FIND GINGLES FACTORS MET, CONDITIONAL ON APPLYING THEM: PROBIT REGRESSION ANALYSIS}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Judge was Democratic appointee</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.054)</td>
<td>(0.060)</td>
<td>(0.078)</td>
<td>(0.080)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judge was Democratic appointee * Year was after 1994</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.018</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.102)</td>
<td>(0.101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One additional Democratic appointee on panel</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.072)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.072)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two additional Democratic appointees on panel</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.099</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.118)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.118)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judge was African-American</td>
<td>0.251**</td>
<td>0.331**</td>
<td>0.250**</td>
<td>0.330**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.089)</td>
<td>(0.112)</td>
<td>(0.089)</td>
<td>(0.112)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional African-American on panel</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.321**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.322**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.129)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.129)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appellate case</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.077)</td>
<td>(0.090)</td>
<td>(0.077)</td>
<td>(0.090)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to at-large election</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.121)</td>
<td>(0.121)</td>
<td>(0.121)</td>
<td>(0.122)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to reapportionment plan</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>0.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.133)</td>
<td>(0.132)</td>
<td>(0.133)</td>
<td>(0.132)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to local election practice</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>-0.006</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.092)</td>
<td>(0.092)</td>
<td>(0.092)</td>
<td>(0.092)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plaintiffs were African-American</td>
<td>0.247**</td>
<td>0.251**</td>
<td>0.247**</td>
<td>0.251**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.085)</td>
<td>(0.084)</td>
<td>(0.085)</td>
<td>(0.084)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case occurred in jurisdiction covered by § 5</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.104)</td>
<td>(0.103)</td>
<td>(0.104)</td>
<td>(0.103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log (likelihood)</td>
<td>-245.660</td>
<td>-240.220</td>
<td>-245.645</td>
<td>-240.188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo-R\textsuperscript{2}</td>
<td>0.1739</td>
<td>0.1922</td>
<td>0.1740</td>
<td>0.1923</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Estimated marginal effects and in parentheses standard errors. * significant at 10 percent; ** significant at 5 percent. N=447. All regressions also include fixed-effect controls for judicial circuits and years.

The regressions in Table 4 shift focus to the role of ideology at the first step of Gingles. They show that judicial ideology plays a weaker role at this first step than it does with respect to ultimate votes for or against liability. In those cases where the framework is applied, the first

\textsuperscript{99} For a more extensive discussion of the role that panel effects play in § 2 cases, see Cox and Miles, 108 Colum L Rev at 25–29, 40–42 (cited in note 4).
two columns demonstrate that a Democratic appointee is about 8 percentage points more likely than a Republican appointee to vote in favor of finding the Gingles factors met. In addition to their slightly smaller implied magnitudes, these estimates are slightly less precise than the liability estimates in Table 3. Consequently, these estimates are not statistically significant. An additional reason to doubt that ideology has a meaningful effect on a judge’s decision regarding the satisfaction of the Gingles factors is that the estimated effects of panel composition are negative here and statistically indistinguishable from zero.

These estimates provide some support for the conclusion that judicial ideology exerts a more muted influence on the evaluation of the Gingles factors than it does on the overall liability determination. In that regard, the results are consistent with our hypothesis that the specific focus of the Gingles prongs and their more rule-like structure affords less opportunity for judicial ideology to assert itself.

The estimates in Table 4 contrast sharply with those in Table 5. Table 5 focuses on Gingles’s second step and shows that judicial ideology correlates strongly and significantly with the probability a judge votes to assign liability after concluding that the Gingles factors are satisfied. Ideology’s impact on this probability operates both directly, through a judge’s own political affiliation, and indirectly, through the partisan composition of a judge’s panel colleagues. For example, the estimates of Column (1) of Table 5 show that the probability the average Democratic appointee concludes that liability should follow from satisfaction of the factors is 27 percentage points higher than that of the average Republican appointee. When controls for panel composition are included, as in the regression in Column (2), this estimated difference is 38 percentage points. Moreover, the effects of panel composition are about as large as the impact of a judge’s own ideology. The equation in Column (2) implies that the presence of any additional Democratic appointee on a panel raises by 28 percentage points the probability that the judge concludes liability should follow from satisfaction of the Gingles factors. All of these estimates are statistically significant. These regressions indicate that, after controlling for other characteristics of the cases, judicial ideology has a strong influence on the evaluation of whether, in the totality of the circumstances, liability should follow from the plaintiff’s satisfying the Gingles factors.


**Table 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Judge was Democratic appointee</td>
<td>0.269**</td>
<td>0.382**</td>
<td>0.450**</td>
<td>0.485**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.074)</td>
<td>(0.088)</td>
<td>(0.125)</td>
<td>(0.105)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judge was Democratic appointee * Year was after 1994</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.532**</td>
<td>-0.388*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.232)</td>
<td>(0.235)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One additional Democratic appointee on panel</td>
<td>-0.283**</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.240**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.088)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two additional Democratic appointees on panel</td>
<td>-0.156</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.091)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.102)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judge was African-American</td>
<td>0.177*</td>
<td>0.232**</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.207**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.094)</td>
<td>(0.055)</td>
<td>(0.098)</td>
<td>(0.057)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional African-American on panel</td>
<td>-0.244**</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.223**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.060)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.063)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appellate case</td>
<td>-0.192*</td>
<td>-0.422**</td>
<td>-0.162</td>
<td>-0.371**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.100)</td>
<td>(0.112)</td>
<td>(0.096)</td>
<td>(0.119)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to at-large election</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>0.224</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>0.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.247)</td>
<td>(0.245)</td>
<td>(0.252)</td>
<td>(0.237)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to reapportionment plan</td>
<td>-0.093</td>
<td>-0.223</td>
<td>-0.095</td>
<td>-0.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.201)</td>
<td>(0.203)</td>
<td>(0.202)</td>
<td>(0.195)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to local election practice</td>
<td>0.337**</td>
<td>0.658**</td>
<td>0.455**</td>
<td>0.676**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.148)</td>
<td>(0.138)</td>
<td>(0.147)</td>
<td>(0.126)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plaintiffs were African-American</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.242)</td>
<td>(0.217)</td>
<td>(0.222)</td>
<td>(0.209)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case occurred in jurisdiction covered by § 5</td>
<td>0.336**</td>
<td>0.374**</td>
<td>0.327**</td>
<td>0.358**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.082)</td>
<td>(0.078)</td>
<td>(0.073)</td>
<td>(0.077)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log (likelihood)</td>
<td>-60.961</td>
<td>-53.101</td>
<td>-58.271</td>
<td>-51.847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo-R$^2$</td>
<td>0.4682</td>
<td>0.5368</td>
<td>0.4917</td>
<td>0.5477</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Estimated marginal effects and in parentheses standard errors. * significant at 10 percent; ** significant at 5 percent. N=177. All regressions also include fixed-effect controls for judicial circuits and years.

Table 5 also shows that the role of judicial ideology at the totality of the circumstances stage changed dramatically over time. The equations in Columns (3) and (4) present tests for differential trends in the effect of judicial ideology. When the regression includes an interaction of a judge’s partisan affiliation and time period, the baseline estimate of ideology remains substantial. For example, the results in Column (3) imply that, prior to 1994, a Democratic appointee had a conditional probability of voting in favor of liability that was 45 percentage points higher on average than a Republican appointee. But after 1994, the
estimated effect of ideology swung back, even into negative territory \((-0.082 = 0.450 – 0.532)\).

Without attaching too much importance to the precise magnitudes of these estimates, the general patterns are clear. Before 1994, Democratic appointment correlated strongly with a higher conditional probability of favoring liability once a plaintiff satisfied the Gingles preconditions. After 1994, there was no statistically significant difference between Democratic and Republican appointees in this conditional probability (p-value = 0.3618). The regression analysis provides some confirmation of the patterns seen in Table 2. Democratic appointees were initially more likely to conclude that liability should follow from a plaintiff’s satisfaction of the factors. But by the latter half of the 1990s, they were no more willing to assign liability in this circumstance than were Republican appointees.

In short, these models confirm that ideology correlates with liability under § 2; that there are only modest partisan differences in the likelihood that Democratic and Republican appointees will find the Gingles factors satisfied; and that ideology correlates much more strongly with the question of whether liability should follow from satisfaction of the factors. Panel effects of ideology are most clearly apparent during the evaluation of the totality of the circumstances.

Moreover, the models confirm that there were sharp changes over time in the role that judicial ideology played in the second stage of the Gingles inquiry. In the first half of the observation period, the probability that a Democratic appointee concluded that liability should follow from satisfaction of the Gingles preconditions was much higher on average than that of a Republican. But in the second half of the study period, this conditional probability for the average Democratic appointee was statistically indistinguishable from that of the average Republican appointee. This trend is consistent with the hypotheses we laid out in Part II about the possible changes over time in the representational and political consequences of voting rights litigation.

B. Other Characteristics

1. Judicial race.

In addition to its political salience, the Voting Rights Act—as a statute intended to protect minority voting rights—has particular relevance to the dimension of race. For that reason, we previously investigated the role of a judge’s race on the likelihood that the judge will impose liability under § 2.\(^{100}\) Although the number of African-American

\(^{100}\) See Cox and Miles, 108 Colum L Rev at 29–37, 42–45 (cited in note 4).
judges in the data was small, the magnitude of the effects we detected was quite large. We observed that African-American judges were substantially more likely to vote in favor of a § 2 plaintiff. In addition, race exerted a sizable panel effect. White judges who sat on panels with at least one African-American judge were considerably more likely to vote in favor of liability, and this effect was evident for both Democratic and Republican appointees. The results in Table 3 confirm that these patterns persist in the shorter time period studied here.

Table 4 shows that similar patterns exist between race and the conditional probability that a judge concludes the Gingles factors are met. The estimates for the direct and peer effects of race are large—over 25 percentage points. Again, the small number of African-American judges in the data may result in a few outliers driving the estimates. But the general pattern is remarkable in view of the muted effect of ideology on judicial assessments of whether the plaintiff has satisfied the Gingles factors.

In Table 5, the regressions indicate that a judge’s race also influences the conditional probability that she determines that liability follows from the preconditions’ satisfaction. Caution is warranted here because the number of observations of African-American judges in this subsample is quite small: there are only nineteen. Despite this limitation, it is remarkable that the race of the judge appears to correlate just as strongly with the likelihood that the judge determines the totality of the circumstances warrants liability as it does with the overall probability that the judge votes for liability.

2. Case characteristics.

The regressions control for a variety of case characteristics. Particular caution is warranted in interpreting these estimates because, unlike judicial characteristics, case characteristics are not the products of randomization. Rather, they are the result of litigant self-selection and are therefore likely correlated with the error term. With this caveat in mind, the estimates for these features of the cases warrant brief discussion.

The type of court correlates with the probability of liability and in some specifications with the likelihood that liability follows from a plaintiff’s satisfaction of the Gingles factors. The regressions in Table 3 show a pattern similar to our previous findings—that judges sitting on

appellate courts voted to assign liability at rates about 11 to 18 percentage points lower than their colleagues on trial courts. In Table 5, appellate cases appear correlated with lower rates of liability conditional on the factors having been met when the regression includes controls for panel compositions. In contrast, the type of court appears unrelated to the probability of a judge concluding that the factors are satisfied. The results in Table 4 show that the differences between court types are 3 percentage points or less and statistically insignificant.

CONCLUSION

Debates about the relationship between rules and standards are as old as law itself. While there is no shortage of theory about the advantages and disadvantages of each, empirical work on the relationship between the two has been lacking. Our findings provide support for two of the central theoretical intuitions about rules and standards. First, they indicate that rules indeed may, to a greater extent than standards, limit discretion and suppress ideological disagreements among judges. Second, they suggest that the flexibility preserved by standards may make it easier for adjudicators to respond to changing circumstances over time.

These findings have important implications for the long-standing debate about whether (and how) legal rules actually constrain judges. But our results also lead to a number of specific insights about the operation of the Voting Rights Act and the protection of minority voting rights. The doctrinal structure that Justice Brennan created in Gingles may well have been intended to encourage judicial intervention in the wake of Congress’s Amendments to § 2. By establishing a set of relatively objective preconditions to liability, Justice Brennan gave lower courts a steadier foothold for liability findings. Nonetheless, as these preconditions over time became a potential threat to substantive minority representation and the Democratic party, Justice Brennan’s two-stage analytic framework became more meaningful as a safety valve against liability than a spur to it. This safety valve may have allowed courts to respond more easily to changing social conditions and political consequences. But the cost has been the growing irrelevance of the Gingles preconditions themselves. Today the preconditions are surprisingly disconnected from the liability determination. Liability follows from a finding that the preconditions are satisfied only slightly more often than it would follow from a coin flip.

All this suggests that the Supreme Court’s effort to provide an objective test for identifying minority vote dilution has been largely
unsuccessful.\textsuperscript{102} The lack of success is important for ongoing debates about the structure of the Voting Rights Act. Recently, both Congress and the Supreme Court have confronted legal issues relating to how rule-like the Act should be. In 2006, Congress amended § 5 of the Act to make more rigid the test for measuring minority political opportunity.\textsuperscript{103} Similar changes may soon follow for § 2. A case currently pending before the Supreme Court raises the question of whether the first prong of the Gingles preconditions (which requires minority voters to be “sufficiently numerous” in the area where they claim a violation) should be made even more rule-like—by requiring minority voters to constitute at least 50 percent of the voting age population of the district whose creation they seek under § 2.\textsuperscript{104} Our results show that these changes might help suppress ideological disagreements among judges, even if these disagreements continue to beset the public conversation about voting rights. But to the extent changes to § 2 or § 5 do cabin ideological disagreements, they may also make it more difficult for lower courts to adjust the Act to changing social conditions.\textsuperscript{105}

More generally, our findings inform debates about judicial intervention in cases concerning political rights. Whenever federal courts

\textsuperscript{102} This transformation also suggests that the Supreme Court’s decision in \textit{Johnson v De Grandy}, 512 US 997 (1994), may be more consequential than is often recognized. Superficially, the case simply clarifies that the Gingles factors are necessary but not sufficient preconditions to liability. See id at 1011–12. In light of our evidence, however, one might read the Court’s decision in \textit{De Grandy} as an important indication of the Court’s own understanding of the growing disconnect between the Gingles preconditions and minority vote dilution, or perhaps even as a signal to lower courts about the declining importance of the preconditions.

\textsuperscript{103} See Fannie Lou Hamer, Rosa Parks, and Coretta Scott King Voting Rights Act Reauthorization and Amendments Act of 2006 § 5, Pub L No 109-246, 120 Stat 577, 580, codified at 42 USCA § 1973c. See also Nathaniel Persily, \textit{The Promise and Pitfalls of the New Voting Rights Act}, 117 Yale L J 174, 207–08 (2007) (noting that one of the two major changes instituted by the Act was to overturn \textit{Georgia v Ashcroft}, 539 US 461 (2003), by requiring “denials of preclearance when voting laws ‘diminish’ the ability of minorities ‘to elect their preferred candidate of choice’”).

\textsuperscript{104} See \textit{Pender County v Bartlett}, 649 SE2d 364 (NC 2007), cert granted as \textit{Bartlett v Strickland}, 128 S Ct 1648 (2008) (calendared for October Term 2008). The question presented in the case is “[whether a racial minority group that constitutes less than 50% of a proposed district’s population can state a vote dilution claim under Section 2 of the Voting Rights Act.” Petition for a Writ of Certiorari, \textit{Bartlett v Strickland}, No 07-689, *i (filed Nov 21, 2007), available on Westlaw at 2007 WL 4207130. There is currently some ambiguity about whether the first prong creates such an obligation. See, for example, Pildes, 80 NC L Rev at 1556–63 (cited in note 40).

\textsuperscript{105} This reification may be of considerable concern to the Court, as it has often emphasized that minority vote dilution jurisprudence was designed in part as a transitional regime rather than as a system that creates permanently safe sinecures for minority voters. See, for example, \textit{De Grandy}, 512 US at 1020:

\textit{[F]or all the virtues of majority-minority districts as remedial devices, they rely on . . . the ‘politics of second best’ . . . . [S]ociety’s racial and ethnic cleavages sometimes necessitate [such districts] . . . but minority voters are not immune from the obligation to pull, haul, and trade to find common political ground, the virtue of which is not to be slighted in applying a statute meant to hasten the waning of racism in American politics.}
intervene in the political process, they inevitably face charges of improper entanglement in politics. (*Bush v Gore*\(^{106}\) is but one example of this fact.) For that reason, many scholars have documented the strong pressure courts face in these cases to craft objective and relatively clear tests for liability. This pressure is in part what led the Supreme Court to adopt the bright-line test of one person, one vote in the 1960s—a legal test for which, as John Hart Ely once remarked, “administrability is its long suit, and the more troublesome question is what else it has to recommend it.”\(^{108}\) And it is in part what has led the Court to decline repeated invitations to police partisan gerrymandering. We show that the Court’s efforts to provide such an objective test in *Gingles* has turned out to be somewhat self-defeating. What this means for the future of minority voting rights jurisprudence is not entirely clear. Courts may respond to the pressure by reshaping § 2 doctrine to be more rule-like in practice. Or they may respond by scaling back their intervention in the field. Our findings cannot predict the future direction courts or Congress will take. But they do provide a rich account of the institutional constraints that will shape any effort to design a legal regime that protects minority political participation.

