

Are Democrats Really the Party of the Poor? Partisanship, Class, and Representation in the U.S. Senate

Cory Maks-Solomon

cmaks@gwu.edu

George Washington University

Elizabeth Rigby

erigby@gwu.edu

George Washington University

January 6, 2019

ABSTRACT

Scholars have identified partisan differences in policy representation—with Republicans more often found to represent the rich, while Democrats align with the preferences of less affluent voters. This paper explores these partisan differences, questioning this simple conclusion on both theoretical and methodological grounds. Instead, we develop and test a theory in which elected officials of both parties represent their co-partisans, who agree with one another on many policy issues. Yet, on a subset of issues, upper-class and lower-class co-partisans have diverging policy preferences: rich and poor Democrats disagree on social issues while rich and poor Republicans disagree on economic issues. We analyze roll call voting in the U.S. Senate and find that, in these cases, senators of both parties better-represent the preferences held by wealthier members of their party. Our findings underscore the value in examining the content of policy debates and theorizing about different forms of representation.

The conventional wisdom among political scientists and journalists alike is that Democrats are the party of the poor and Republicans are the party of the rich. To be sure, this conventional wisdom is motivated by party platforms: Democrats support redistribution of wealth while Republicans oppose such redistribution. However, this conventional wisdom seems to be at odds with Democrats' efforts to push for liberal social policies—like abortion rights and same sex marriage—despite the fact that lower-class Americans are more conservative on these issues (Ansolabehere, Rodden, and Snyder 2006; Bartels 2009; Flavin 2012; Gilens 2005, 2009). At least on social issues, the Democratic Party's platform is more-reflective of the preferences of the rich than the poor.

To reconcile the conventional wisdom with this reality, we cannot assume that the rich are a monolithic group with similar policy preferences. Is it true that rich Democrats share the same policy preferences as rich Republicans? Furthermore, we cannot assume that political parties in the mass public are monolithic groups with similar policy preferences. Is it true that rich and poor co-partisans always agree with one another? In this paper, we take on these questions and investigate representational inequalities in the U.S. Senate by political party.

Unlike previous literature, we pay attention to the specific policy issues under consideration when assessing representational inequalities. Investigations of income-biases in representation all-too-often aggregate across all issues or focus their attention on economic issues, treating social issues as an afterthought. We also contribute to the extant literature by probing differences in representational inequality between a senator's *geographic constituency* (all residents of a senator's state) and their *primary constituency* (a senator's core supporters) (Fenno 1977). If we want to truly understand representational inequality, then our analysis must

reflect the fact that senators represent those who put them in office; senators don't make decisions in an effort to win over strong partisans of the opposite party.

Using Cooperative Congressional Election Study (CCES) survey data on Senate roll call votes from 2006 to 2014, we examine rich-poor differences in policy preferences and unequal representation. We find that, on economic issues, the Republican rich are more conservative than the Republican poor and Republican senators over-represent the preferences of the rich when compared with the poor; on the other hand, the Democratic rich and poor are largely in agreement on economic issues, so there is no room for the rich to be over-represented vis-à-vis the poor. However, on social issues, we see that the Republican rich and poor are largely in agreement with one another, yet the Democratic rich are *more liberal* than the poor and Democratic senators over-represent the preferences of the rich on these social issues.

Once we look within each party, we see that both Democrats and Republicans consistently represent the rich better than the poor when rich and poor co-partisans have diverging policy preferences. In an era of polarized political parties, this means that both parties are more extreme than they otherwise would be if they weighted the policy preferences of the poor equally with those of the rich: Republicans are more conservative on economic issues and Democrats are more liberal on social issues than they would be if they listened to the poor as much as the rich.

AN OFTEN-BIASED POLITICAL SYSTEM

Recent empirical investigations have illustrated uneven responsiveness of policymakers to citizens from different income groups (Bartels 2009; Druckman and Jacobs 2011; Gilens 2005; Gilens and Page 2014; Jacobs and Page 2005; Rigby and Wright 2011). Together, these studies suggest that American democracy is falling far short of its ideal of political equality due

to policymakers' heightened attention to more affluent constituents and political elites at the expense of the poor. In a seminal work—also examining the U.S. Senate—Bartels (2009) found a strong relationship between the voting records of U.S. senators and the ideology of their more affluent constituents; this relationship was weaker for middle-income constituents, and nearly non-existent for opinions held by the poorest groups. Later, Hayes (2013) examined this question across multiple Congresses and also found consistent over-representation of upper income constituents relative to lower income ones in senators' voting records.

Examining policy outcomes of the federal government, Gilens (2009, 2012) finds that when the views of low- or middle-income Americans diverge from those held by the affluent, there is virtually no relationship between the policy preferences held by those less advantaged and the rate or direction of policy change adopted at the federal level. The rich are also over-represented at the state-level (Flavin 2012) and biases in representation may begin early on in the policy process, since candidates' platforms are better-reflective of the preferences of the rich (Rigby and Wright 2013) and state legislators are more likely to introduce bills that reflect the policy priorities of the rich (Flavin and Franko 2017).

It is important to note that a necessary precondition of the over-representation of the rich is divergent preferences between the rich and poor. This point was made eloquently by Soroka and Wlezien (2008) after finding a great deal of similarity in preferences for increasing or decreasing spending across income groups in the General Social Survey. They concluded that this congruence of average opinion across socio-economic groups places a “healthy limit” on the representational inequality that can occur, since even if the poor are entirely ignored by their elected officials, they will still get what they want—to the degree that their preferences overlap with those groups that are better represented in the political system. Enns (2015) points out that

even when the rich and poor disagree, the majority of the rich and majority of the poor still both support (or oppose) the issue. Because of this, the poor find themselves represented in American public policy outputs even if politicians aren't paying active attention to their interests. On a wide range of issues, Branham, Soroka, and Wlezien (2017) find that across income groups, disagreement between income groups public is very rare; and they find that, because of this, public policy is only slightly more conservative than it would be if politicians listened to the median as much as they listen to the rich. Likewise, Tausanovitch (2016) finds that the rich are better-represented than the poor but only to a small degree.

Since the degree to which researchers find representational inequality depends upon where they look, paying attention to the issues included in a study of representation is vital. On some issues, representational inequality exists—the rich and poor disagree, and the rich are represented much better than the poor. Yet, on many other issues, representational inequality is negligible, which simply reflect the reality that, on that issue, the rich and poor are mostly in agreement with one another.

PARTISAN DIFFERENCES IN UNEQUAL REPRESENTATION

A number of studies have identified greater differential responsiveness among Republican parties, Republican policymakers, and Republican-controlled government. For example, Bartels (2009) found differential responsiveness for both parties; yet, the greatest skew was among Republican senators. Further research has reinforced this notion that Republicans are the party more likely to represent the wealthy—with Democratic parties either representing the rich and poor equally or in some cases better representing poorer Americans (Brunner, Ross, and Washington 2013; Ellis 2013; Griffin and Newman 2016; Rhodes and Schaffner 2017). In fact, Rhodes and Schaffner (2017) characterize these party differences as one in which Americans

represented by Republicans experience an “oligarchic mode of representation,” which they contrast with the “populist model” experienced by those represented by Democrats. The fact that Republicans seem more likely to represent the rich is often understood as a function of their generally-wealthier constituency (Stonecash 2000) and their heightened attentiveness to co-partisan constituents (Clinton 2006).

Although Republicans’ policy platforms might be more in line with the rich, both parties are dependent upon the mobilization and resources of the affluent. Both parties increasingly focus their mobilization efforts on the wealthy who are in a position to make donations, as well as the most predisposed to vote (Huckfeldt and Sprague 1992; Schier 2000). Indeed, Campbell (2007) documented a sharp increase in both Republican and Democratic parties’ efforts to mobilize high-income voters over the last few decades, which has resulted in a world in which both parties depend on the wealthy to finance their campaigns. Since Republicans have a natural fundraising advantage given the higher average income of their party backers, these resource constraints may be most consequential for Democratic parties (Rigby and Wright 2013). For example, Rigby and Wright (2013) found representation to be particularly skewed among Democratic parties in states with high levels of income inequality—states where campaign contributions are more likely to be reliant on a smaller but wealthier share of the citizens in the state.

LOOKING IN THE RIGHT PLACES FOR REPRESENTATIONAL INEQUALITY

Extant scholarship leaves us with an empirical puzzle. Republicans are the “party of the rich” while Democrats serve as the “party of the poor,” with Democrats displaying *less* representational bias than do Republicans. Yet, both parties are dependent on wealthy donors and more generally composed of extended party networks often dominated by wealthier Americans.

We explain these conflicting findings by bringing in core theoretical realities of representation and ideology in America. Most notably, politicians represent who put them in office—not their geographic constituency.

The unequal representation literature overlooks the fact that a legislator will not be able to win over a constituent that strongly identifies with the opposite party. The degree to which legislators try to represent the preferences of a given constituent is dependent upon that constituent's support for the legislator. Fenno (1977) wrote of four different types of constituencies within each member's district: (1) the *geographic* constituency, all of the citizens of a member's district; (2) the *reelection* constituency of supporters and potential supporters; (3) the *primary* constituency of strong supporters; and (4) *intimates*, the Member of Congress' (MC) closest advisors. Fenno posits that MCs are most attentive to the intimates and least attentive to the geographic constituency. Motivated by reelection, MCs will need to serve policy wins to the reelection and primary constituencies to stay in office.

Bishin (2000) finds quantitative evidence in support of Fenno's theoretical expectations, demonstrating that the ideology of the reelection constituency is a stronger predictor of the behavior of senators than the ideology of the geographic constituency is. Similarly, in a case study of the assault weapons ban, Medoff, Dennis, and Bishin (1995) find a strong effect of the reelection constituency's preferences on legislative behavior. Both studies call into question the assumption that American legislators are only minimally responsive to voters; legislators may not be responsive to the geographic constituency, but they are responsive to the reelection and primary constituencies.

Our investigation looks within the geographic constituency, which is the focus of most research on representation in Congress. In this paper, concurring with Fenno, we take the stance

that MCs are most attentive to their strongest supporters, not their geographic constituency. This discussion of partisanship leads to our first expectation regarding unequal representation:

***Expectation 1:** Senators represent the rich better than the poor among their primary constituency (voters who are co-partisans of the senator).*

In addition to our focus on the primary constituency, we adopt the view that political conflict among the American public is best understood through issue domains, since the policy space is two-dimensional, where the two dominant dimensions of conflict take place on social issues and economic issues (Miller and Schofield 2003). These two dimensions shape political conflict at the mass and elite levels. In the American public, policy preferences are consistent within issue domains—but they are much less consistent between issue domains (Baldassarri and Gelman 2008). For this reason, statistical methods that force ideology to one dimension are inappropriate, since they make individuals who are conservative on economic issues but liberal on social issues, for example, appear to be moderate (Broockman 2016). In Congress, the policy space is multidimensional (Aldrich, Montgomery, and Sparks 2014; Crespin and Rohde 2010; Roberts, Smith, and Haptonstahl 2016) and therefore, the process underlying roll call vote decision-making varies depending upon on the issue area (Clausen 1973; Wilcox and Clausen 1991).

Across studies identifying income-group differences in opinion (employing a variety of data sources and analytic methods), a consistent pattern emerges: affluent individuals are *less* likely to support more liberal redistributive or spending programs (e.g., increased spending for schools, reduced differences between rich and poor), but are *more* likely to take liberal stands on social or moral issues (e.g., abortion, stem cell research, gay rights) (Ansolabehere, Rodden, and Snyder 2006; Bartels 2009; Flavin 2012; Gilens 2005, 2009). Similarly, the average campaign

donor—like the average wealthy American—is liberal on social issues but conservative on economic issues (Schlozman, Verba, and Brady 2012).

Ellis (2016) finds that whether the rich and poor disagree with one another is dependent upon context—with the rich and poor disagreeing the most in Republican-leaning, conservative congressional districts. This contextual effect has also been found to operate differently for economic and social policy issues across the states. Specifically, the biggest differences in economic policy preferences are found between the rich and poor in poorer states, while the class-based divide in affluent states is primarily over social issues (Rigby and Wright 2011). Therefore, both partisanship and policy domain condition whether the rich and poor agree with one another.

Analyzing cleavages within parties, Bartels (2018) finds that Republicans are divided on economic issues and Democrats are divided on social issues. We posit that these intraparty divisions are driven by class: the Republican rich and poor disagree on economic issues and the Democratic rich and poor disagree on social issues. This discussion of issue domains and party coalitions suggests that both parties will over-represent rich co-partisans when the rich and poor disagree, but each party faces different income-based cleavages. For Republicans, the cleavage is economic issues. For Democrats, the cleavage is social issues.

***Expectation 2:** Income-based representational inequality varies by issue domain and differs for each party. The strongest over-representation of rich co-partisans exists for Republicans on economic issues and Democrats on social issues.*

This notion—that the two political parties respond differently because they are responding to different core constituencies and separate party networks—aligns with Grossman and Hopkins' (2016) notion of asymmetric politics, in which supporters of each party care about

different things and hold very different ideas of what they want from their elected officials in terms of representation, legislative strategy, and policy outcomes. Grossman and Hopkins (2016, 13) argue that “The assumption that the parties are more or less interchangeable in their composition, objectives, and behavior must be discarded in order to properly understand the most important attributes of contemporary politics.” Instead, Democrats and Republicans are from fundamentally different kind of parties and must operate strategically, shaped by different constraints and opportunities. To some degree, this divergence is driven by important differences in their electoral supporters, activists, and institutional networks that extend far beyond elected officials and party leaders (Karol 2009). However, what both parties have in common is that they pay close attention to the preferences of their wealthier supporters who engage in politics in order to pursue specific policy goals (Hacker and Pierson 2014).

DATA

To test our expectations, we use Cooperative Congressional Election Study data from 2006 through 2014. Survey respondents are asked about their position on roll call votes that were previously or are currently on the congressional agenda. We recode each respondent’s preference on the roll call vote such that the conservative position is one (1) and the liberal position is zero (0). There were 25 issues where we could match a survey respondent’s preference with their senators’ roll call vote. Each of these roll call votes are presented in Table 1. Since states have different income distributions, we generate income quintiles specific to each state and year using the observed survey data. More details on our methodology are located in the Online Appendix.

Table 1: Roll Call Votes Included in Our Analysis

Survey Year	Issue	Domain	Senate Vote (R support vs. D support)	N Survey Responses	Support for <i>Conservative</i> Position		
					Public	Poor	Rich
2006	Late-term abortion ban	Social	94% vs. 30%	32,202	59%	57%	57%
2006	Stem cell research funding	Social	35% vs. 98%	32,598	32%	27%	32%

2006	Establish timetable for Iraq	Other	2% vs. 86%	33,401	36%	25%	44%
2006	Amnesty for undocumented immigrants	Econ	42% vs. 91%	33,077	61%	59%	56%
2006	\$6.25 minimum wage	Econ	7% vs. 100%	34,482	22%	12%	29%
2006	Capital gains tax cut extension	Econ	94% vs. 7%	31,609	48%	34%	58%
2006	Central Am. Free Trade Agreement	Econ	78% vs. 26%	28,101	35%	31%	47%
2008	Stem cell research funding	Social	35% vs. 96%	27,440	35%	33%	33%
2008	No warrant for overseas spying on terrorists	Other	100% vs. 44%	28,173	67%	62%	68%
2008	Same-sex marriage ban	Social	87% vs. 5%	29,279	47%	45%	43%
2008	CHIP	Econ	37% vs. 100%	27,651	26%	14%	37%
2008	Foreclosure assistance	Econ	74% vs. 100%	25,702	45%	32%	55%
2008	NAFTA extension to Peru	Econ	98% vs. 64%	21,388	49%	48%	57%
2008	\$7.25 minimum wage	Econ	94% vs. 100%	30,684	18%	9%	29%
2010	Stimulus	Econ	8% vs. 100%	54,692	47%	38%	54%
2010	CHIP	Econ	28% vs. 100%	54,928	26%	19%	34%
2010	Affordable Care Act	Econ	0% vs. 100%	54,983	47%	39%	55%
2010	Wall Street financial reform	Econ	7% vs. 98%	54,434	29%	26%	36%
2010	Don't-Ask-Don't-Tell repeal	Social	21% vs. 100%	54,454	38%	35%	39%
2012	Keystone pipeline	Other	100% vs. 21%	48,758	73%	70%	73%
2012 & 2014	ACA birth control mandate religious exemption	Social	100% vs. 21%	108,497	40%	35%	43%
2012 & 2014	Korea Free Trade Agreement	Econ	98% vs. 71%	107,170	54%	51%	61%
2012 & 2014	Extend Bush Tax Cuts	Econ	96% vs. 2%	105,895	55%	50%	55%
2012 & 2014	Tax cuts for middle class	Econ	0% vs. 96%	107,040	26%	26%	28%
2012 & 2014	Paul Ryan's Budget	Econ	89% vs. 0%	108,566	22%	16%	30%

IDEOLOGY AND SUBGROUP REPRESENTATION

We begin our analysis with the most aggregated level, analyzing representation across all 25 roll call votes. Previous research using this approach to examine income-based representational inequality typically finds that Republicans are the party of the rich and Democrats are the party of the poor. Research examining party representation finds that senator's co-partisans are better-represented than out-partisans. Before undertaking our primary analysis, we determine whether these relationships hold in our dataset. To do so, we transform the combined 2006-2014 CCES dataset such that there is one observation per respondent-senator-

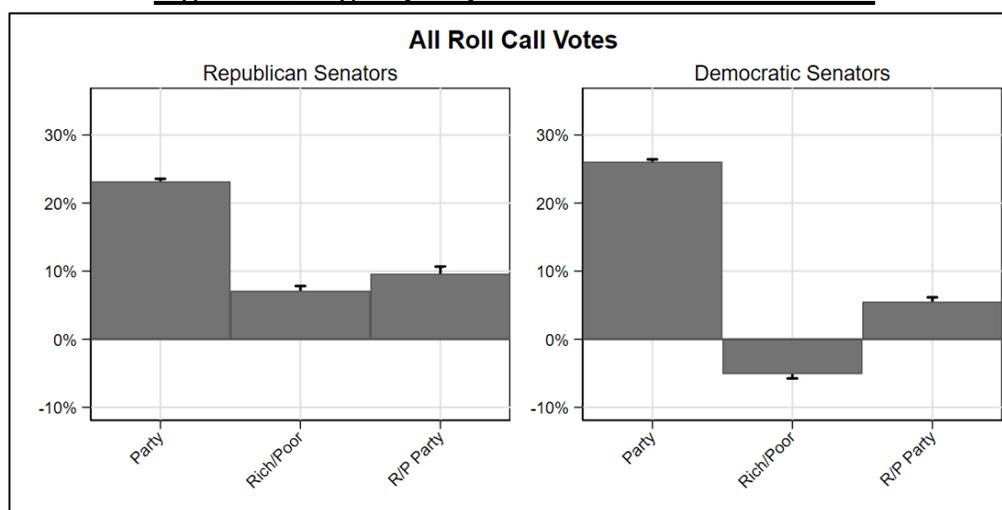
issue combination; in other words, each respondent is duplicated every time they can be matched with their senator on a roll call vote.

From this dataset, we can determine the degree to which a senator's co-partisans are better-represented than out-partisans and the degree to which rich are better-represented than the poor, on average pooling across all issues. The dependent variable in these aggregate analyses is a dichotomous measure for whether the senator and respondent do (1) or don't (0) share the same position on an issue. Put differently, if the senator voted the way the respondent wanted them to vote, the dependent variable takes a value of one, and if the senator did not vote the way the respondent wanted them to vote, the dependent variable takes a value of zero. Since the dataset is at the respondent-senator-issue level, we use linear probability models with fixed effects for senator and roll call vote while using survey-weights and clustering standard errors at the respondent-level. Fixed effects ensure that our results are not conflating unobserved heterogeneity between roll call votes or between senators. Clustering standard errors allows us to account for the fact that our effective N (the number of respondents) is much smaller than the number of observations in the dataset. Survey-weights allow us to generalize to the average American. The results of these analyses are presented in Figure 1. All regression output tables can be found in the Online Appendix.

Analyses of representation in the Senate traditionally use the state as the unit of analysis. However, like Gilens' (2012) does in *Affluence and Influence*, we model representation as a dyadic process between an individual and their senator. By using a modelling strategy with the level of analysis at the individual level, we are able to understand how the average rich American and the average poor American are represented in the U.S. Senate—as opposed to how the average state is represented in the U.S. Senate. Our results are robust to excluding the four

largest states in the union (California, Texas, Florida, and New York) so they are not driven by differences in constituency size.

Figure 1: Subgroup Representation Across All Issues



The point estimates are the linear probability model coefficient. The y-axis can be interpreted as the percentage better-represented one group is over another group. “Party” is the difference in representation between those who are of the same party as the senator and those who are of the opposite party of the senator. “Rich/Poor” is the difference in representation between the fifth and first quintiles of income. “R/P Party” is the rich-poor difference in representation among respondents who are co-partisans of the senator.

In the first set of regressions (“Party”), the only independent variable is a binary measure of whether or not the respondent is a member of the same political party as their senator (including Independents who lean toward the senator’s party). The linear probability model coefficient on the co-partisan variable is plotted in the bar graph. As can be seen in Figure 1, across all issues, co-partisans of both Republican and Democratic senators are more than 20 percentage points better-represented than out-partisans. These results are unsurprising; we expect senators to represent members of their own political party, especially in a polarized era of American politics.

In the second set of regressions (“Rich/Poor”), each income quintile dummy variable is included in the regression except for the first quintile, which is the omitted base category. The coefficient on the fifth quintile is plotted. Therefore, the value can be interpreted as a change in

predicted probability of being represented between the rich (fifth quintile) and poor (first quintile). As can also be seen in Figure 1, across all issues, Republicans better-represent the rich and Democrats better-represent the poor. However, the effect size is small. The rich are 7 percentage points more likely than the poor to be represented by Republican senators; and the rich are 5 percentage points less likely to be represented by Democratic senators.

Representational inequality exists but it is minor.

In the third set of regressions (“R/P Party”), we utilize the same regression model as Rich/Poor but we subset the data to only include co-partisans of the senator. We similarly plot the coefficient on the fifth quintile. In line with Expectation 1, we expect to see larger representational inequality among Republican senators’ co-partisans. We also expect to see that the rich are over-represented among Democratic senators’ co-partisans even though the poor are over-represented among Democratic senators’ geographic constituency. Our results are in line with these expectations. Among Republican senators, rich Republican constituents are 10 percentage points better-represented than poor Republicans. Among Democratic senators, rich Democratic constituents are 5 percentage points *better*-represented than poor Democrats. Once we look within the Democratic Party, we now see that Democratic senators are over-representing the rich—and not the poor as the conventional wisdom would predict.

However, representational inequality among co-partisans is still relatively small, especially when compared with the difference in representation between a co-partisan and an out-partisan. This high-level, aggregated analysis obscures the fact that the determinants of congressional voting decisions vary by policy domain (Clausen 1973). Different considerations enter a senator’s mind when they are voting on a social or economic issue. Further, we know that

the degree to which rich and poor Americans agree or disagree on policy issues depends on the domain—and sometimes the specific issue—under debate.

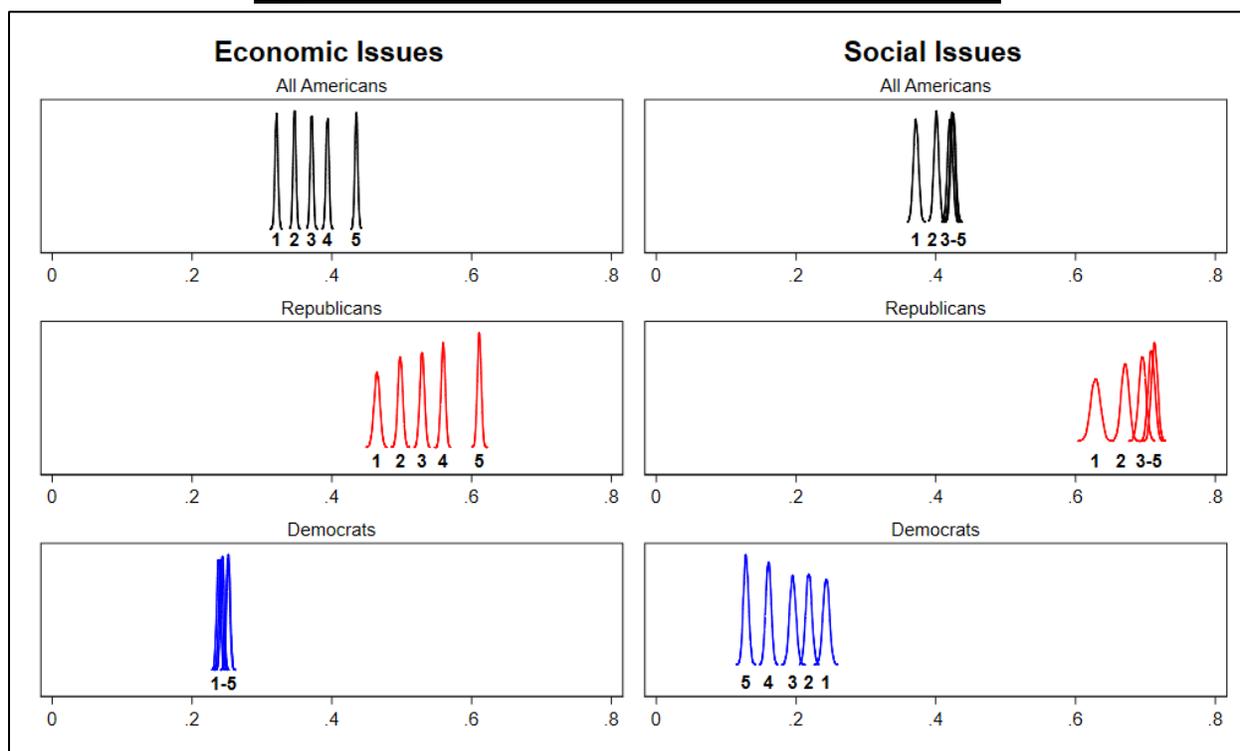
We begin our issue-domain-specific analyses by examining how policy preferences differ between Republicans and Democrats in each income quintile. We compare the economic and social issue domains, which together capture a broad range of domestic policy issues. The policy domain of each roll call vote is listed in Table 1. Note that three issues are categorized as neither social nor economic issues: Iraq timetable, warrantless spying overseas, and the Keystone pipeline. Foreign policies are outside of scope of social and economic domestic policies. With respect to the Keystone pipeline, conservatives see environmental issues as economic while liberals see environmental issues as moral, so we cannot classify it neatly into the moral or economic domains.

To determine how policy preferences between different quintiles varies in the economic and social domains, we build a simple ideological scale. For each respondent, we generate a variable equal to the percent of issues where the respondent took the conservative position for both economic and social issues. Thus, for each respondent in the dataset, we now have a measure of how conservative they are on economic and social issues where each issue is weighted equally (like in the regression analyses used in Figure 1). With a measure of ideology on economic and social issues, we can now estimate the average ideology of each income quintile. Figure 2 presents the average conservativeness for each quintile (the first throughout the fifth) with a normally-distributed confidence interval. In each panel, the x-axis ranges from 0% conservative to 80% conservative.

Examining the left side of Figure 2, we see that the general public and Republicans disagree on economic issues across income quintiles but Democrats are in agreement across

income quintiles. Rich Americans are 12 percentage points more conservative than poor Americans on economic issues. The Republican rich and poor are slightly less in agreement on economic issues than the general population; the Republican rich are 15 percentage points more conservative on economic issues than the Republican poor. On the other hand, regardless of income, Democrats are all in agreement on economic issues.

Figure 2: Conservatism across the Income Distribution



For each quintile (1 = poor; 5 = rich), the average ideology is plotted with a normally-distributed confidence interval surrounding it. Note that, unlike every other figure we present, this figure is not plotting the difference between two groups; instead, it is plotting the average ideology for each income quintile. The x-axis represents the percentage of issues that the respondent took a conservative stance, ranging from 0% to 80% of the issues.

Now turning to the right side of Figure 2, there is more agreement among both all Americans and Republicans on social issues than what we saw for economic issues. Conversely, Democrats of different income groups are much more likely to disagree with one another. The average rich American is only 5 percentage points more conservative on social issues than the average poor American. When looking within each party, rich Republicans are 8 percentage

points more conservative than poor Republicans while rich Democrats are 11 percentage points more *liberal* than poor Democrats.

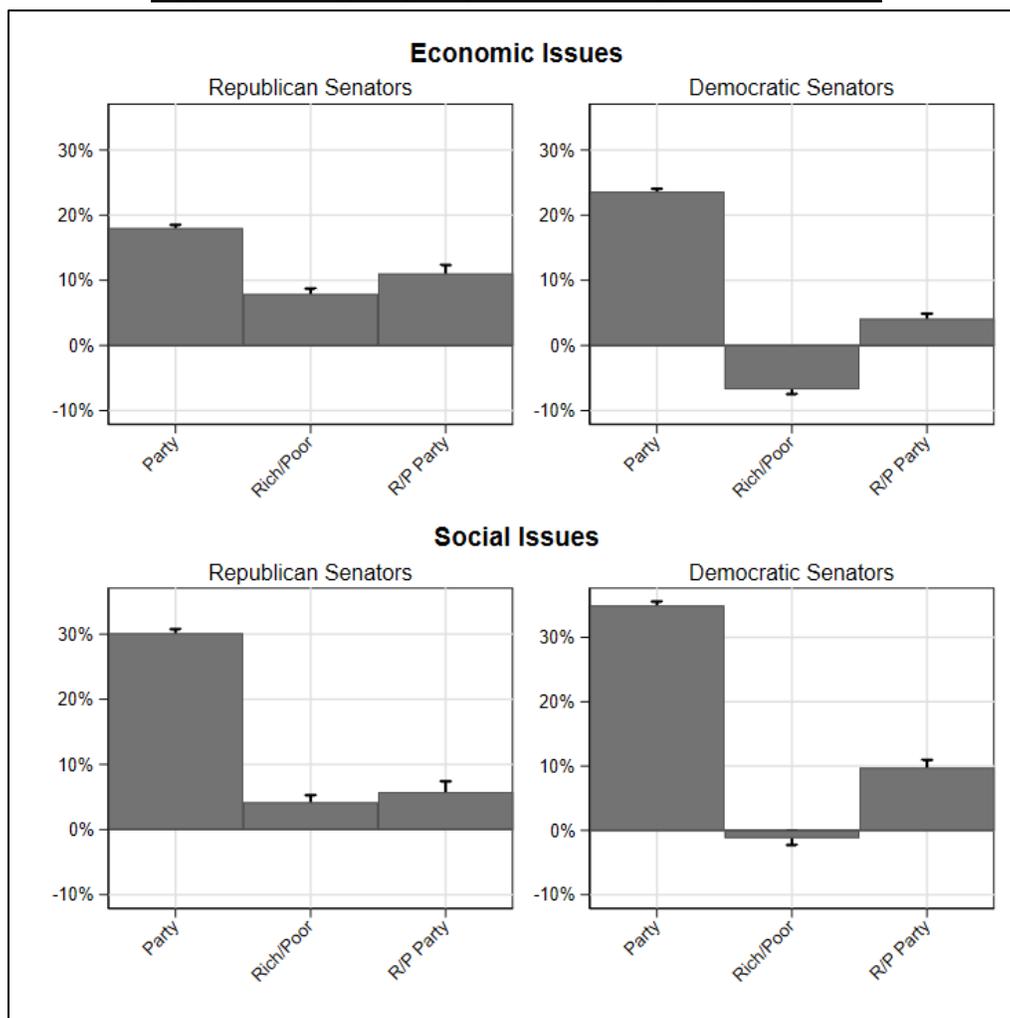
Summarizing Figure 2, rich and poor Republicans disagree strongly on economic issues but are more in agreement on social issues; meanwhile, rich and poor Democrats disagree strongly on social issues but are in absolute agreement on economic issues. We expect these differences in the policy preferences of the rich and poor to be reflected in how Republicans and Democrats represent members of their own party. As we suggest in Expectation 2, Republicans and Democrats should both over-represent rich co-partisans when compared with poor co-partisans, yet representational inequality will vary by policy domain since representational inequality cannot exist if preferences do not diverge.

Also note from Figure 2 that there is a consistent trend by income quintile. When there are differences between quintiles, the rich are always more conservative than the middle class which are always more conservative than the poor—except for Democrats on social issues, where we see the opposite pattern. This justifies our concentration on the difference between the upper class and the lower class. Sometimes the middle class and the rich agree with one another but the rich never agrees with the poor—with the one exception being Democrats on economic issues where all income groups are in agreement.

In light of these income-based differences within policy domains, we now present subgroup representation by policy domain in Figure 3. Comparing Figure 1 and Figure 3, what is immediately striking is that All Roll Call Votes looks quite similar to Economic Issues but Social Issues are quite different. What this suggests is that economic issues are driving the relationships that we see when we aggregate across all issues. Put differently, findings of representational

inequality are driven by economic issues because economics dominates the congressional agenda (Poole and Rosenthal 2007).

Figure 3: Subgroup Representation by Policy Domain



The point estimates are the linear probability model coefficient. The y-axis can be interpreted as the percentage better-represented one group is over another group. “Party” is the difference in representation between those who are of the same party as the senator and those who are of the opposite party of the senator. “Rich/Poor” is the difference in representation between the fifth and first quintiles of income. “R/P Party” is the rich-poor difference in representation among respondents who are co-partisans of the senator.

The story is much different when we examine representation on social issues, as presented in the bottom panel of Figure 3. We still see that the largest representational inequalities take place between co-partisans and non-co-partisans. Interestingly, co-partisans are

10 percentage points more likely to be represented on social issues than they are on economic issues for both Republican and Democratic senators. For Republican senators, they slightly represent the rich better than the poor in their geographic constituency on social issues. For Democratic senators, they essentially represent the rich as well as the poor in their geographic constituency.

Aggregating across all issues and only on economic issues, Republican senators have shown greater income-biases in representation than Democratic senators. However, when we turn to social issues, we now see that Democrats are substantially over-representing rich co-partisans, by 10 percentage points. On the other hand, on social issues, Republicans only slightly over-represent the rich. Are Democrats the party of the rich when it comes to social issues?

INDIVIDUAL ROLL CALL VOTES: PREFERENCE AND REPRESENTATION GAPS

To better understand the results from Figure 1, we need to shift our focus to the specific issues and roll call votes on which differential responsiveness could occur. It is easy for a senator to represent their poorer constituents when their preferences overlap with the rest of the constituency. And we know that for many issues, the preferences of the rich and poor do not differ (Soroka and Wlezien 2008). Differential responsiveness to the rich versus poor requires preference differences that force elected officials to actually choose to represent one set of constituents or the other. To identify when this occurs, we now examine representation gaps on individual economic and social issues.

In this section, we refer to two concepts: (1) *preference gaps* and (2) *representation gaps*. By preference gaps, we mean the difference in support for the conservative position between the rich and the poor. In these analyses, the dependent variable is a dichotomous measure for whether the respondent supported the conservative position on the roll call vote. We plot the

linear probability model coefficient that can be interpreted as the difference between the rich and the poor in likelihood that the respondent has a conservative position on the issue.

By representation gaps, we mean the degree to which the rich are better-represented (or worse-represented) when compared with the poor. The dependent variable takes a value of one if the senator and respondent share the same policy preference and zero if they do not (the same as Figures 1 and 3). We plot linear probability model coefficients that can be interpreted as the difference between the rich and the poor in the likelihood of being represented by their senator.

To measure the gap—preference gap or representation gap—we include dummy variables for each income quintile but omit the bottom quintile. The results that we report in Figures 4 and 5 are the survey-weighted linear probability model coefficient for the top quintile (the rich), relative to the bottom quintile (the poor). In representation gap analyses, we also include senator fixed effects and cluster standard errors by respondent (since there is one observation for each respondent-senator combination).

In this section, we exclude seven economic roll call votes from our analysis of economic issues. Our intent is to focus on the eight best examples of economic policy in our investigation of individual issues, but we include all roll call votes in the next section. Therefore, in this section, we omit four nearly-unanimous Senate votes (where a majority of both parties and over 80% of all senators voted in favor) and we also omit roll call votes that are not clear-cut examples of economic policy.¹ For analyses in this section, we include the following eight roll

¹ The following roll call votes were omitted because there was bipartisan support and the vote was nearly-unanimous: \$7.25 minimum wage, foreclosure assistance, NAFTA extension to Peru, and Korea Free Trade Agreement. (Refer to Table 1 for partisan break-down of roll call votes.)

call votes in our economic issues figures: capital gains tax cut, two votes on the Children's Health Insurance Program, \$6.25 minimum wage, the stimulus bill, Ryan Budget spending cuts, Wall Street reform, and the Republican plan to extend the Bush Tax Cuts. For social issues, we included all seven roll call votes from Table 1. This leaves us with eight economic issues and seven social issues to focus on.

Results

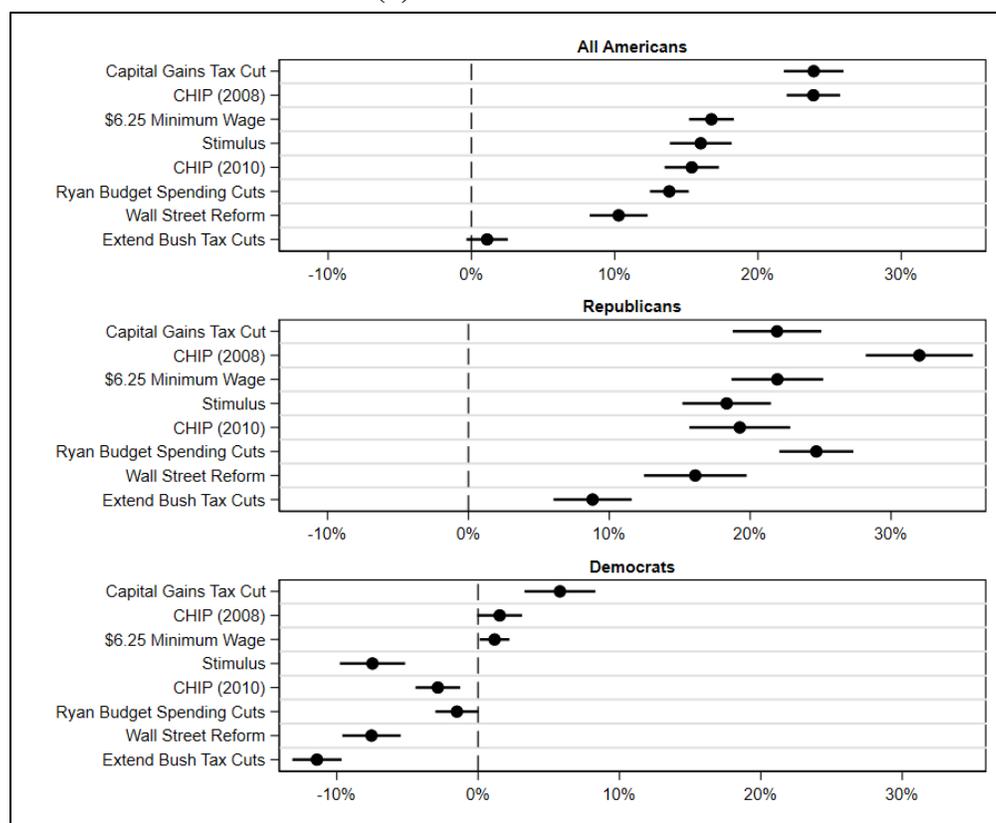
For there to be income-biased representation, there must be differences in the policy preferences of the rich and poor. Beginning with economic issues (see Figure 4a), among all Americans, we see the largest preference gaps on the capital gains tax cut and the Children's Health Insurance Program. The average rich American is about 15 percentage points more likely to be conservative on any given economic policy issue than the average poor American.

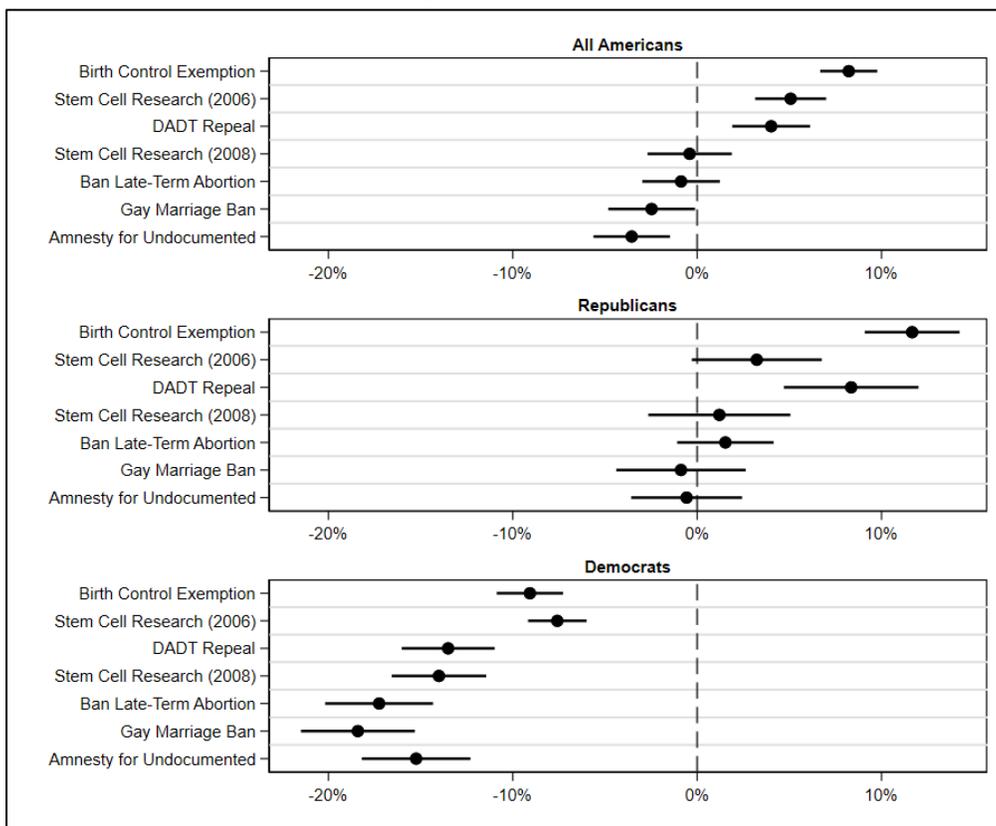
Though, there are important differences in the magnitude and direction of these preference gaps within each political party. On the one hand, rich Republicans were more likely to take the conservative position than were poor Republicans (with preference gaps of 15-30 points). Yet, rich and poor Americans identifying with the Democratic Party seem to be in general agreement on these policies. Thus, the Republican Party faces an electorate that is divided on these economic issues by income, while the Democrats do not. These differences in

Roll call votes on the Central American Free Trade Agreement and the Affordable Care Act were omitted because they are not clear-cut examples of taxing and spending (like the rest of the economic votes in our dataset). The Tax Cuts for the Middle Class vote was omitted because the ideological divide in the public did not match the ideological divide in the Senate. See Online Appendix Section 1 for further details.

preference gaps are reflected in representation gaps (Figures 5a and 5b, gray bars). We find that Republicans (5a) over-represent the rich vis-à-vis the poor across all economic issues—among their geographic constituency and also when only considering their co-partisans. In contrast, while Democrats (5b) better-represent the poor in their geographic constituency, they represent their co-partisans equally across income levels (since there is general agreement between rich and poor Democrats on these issues). Therefore, it is hard to distinguish between intentional representation of the poor and coincidental representation that results from Democrats simply representing their co-partisans on economic policy issues.

Figure 4: Rich-Poor Preference Gaps on Individual Roll Call Votes
(a) Economic Issues



(b) Social Issues

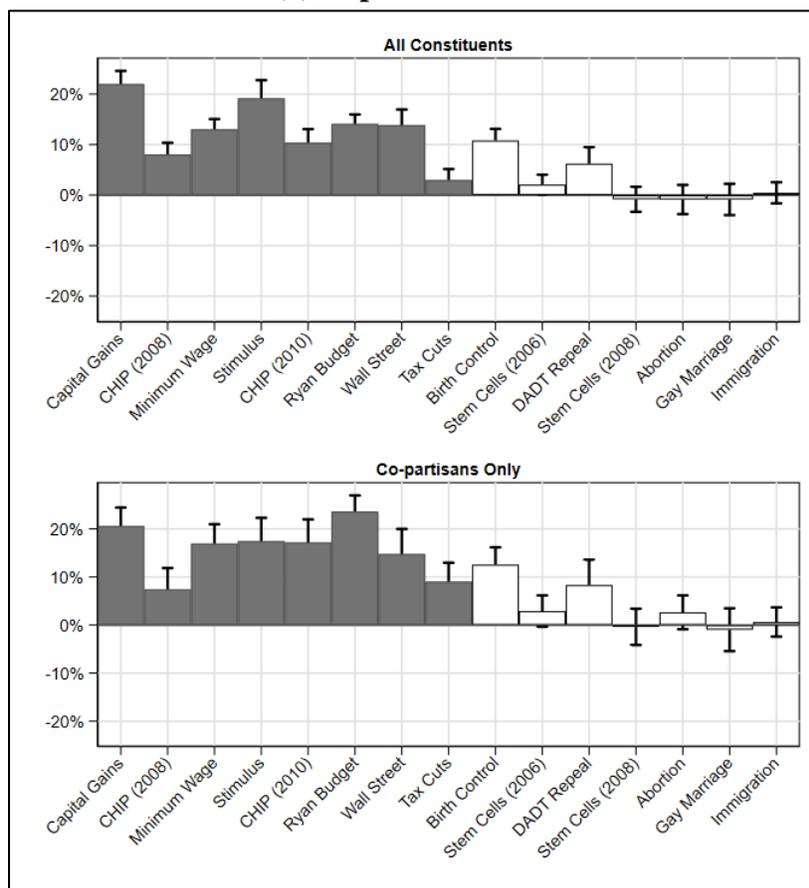
Higher, positive values indicate the rich are more conservative than the poor. The point estimates indicate the difference in support for the policy issue between the rich and poor (the linear probability model coefficient for the fifth quintile, relative to the first quintile base category). All issues are recoded so that a value of 1 indicates that the respondent supported the conservative position. Issues are ordered by the size of the preference gap within the American public with largest preference gaps at the top.

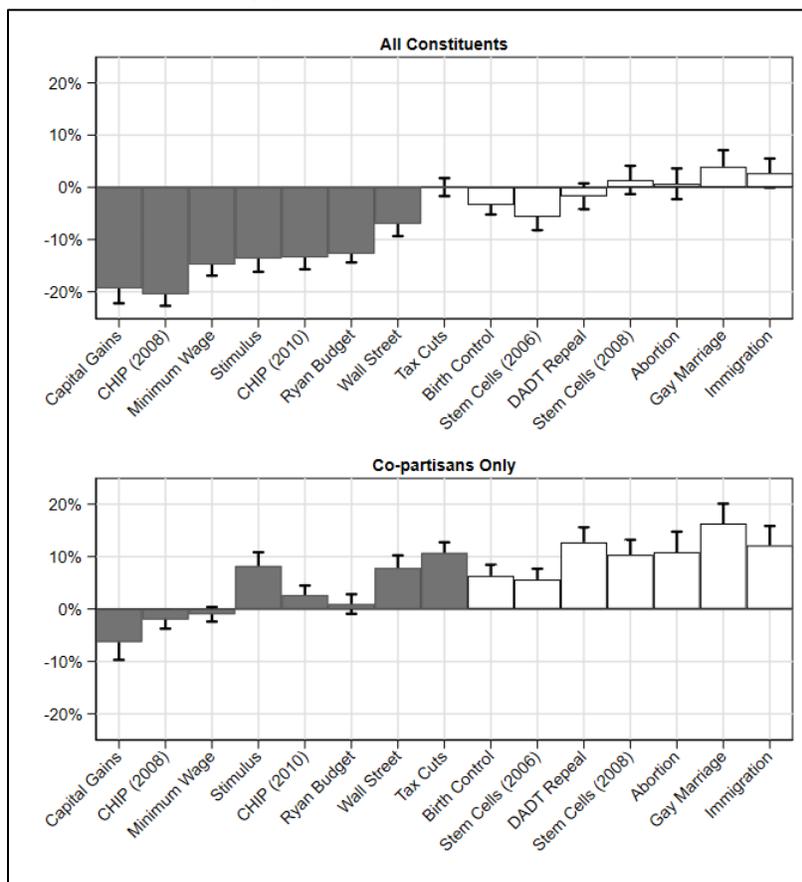
On social issues, there are fewer income-based differences in preferences among all Americans (Figure 4b) but the rich are perhaps *slightly* more conservative than the poor. However, rich Republicans and poor Republicans are largely in agreement on social issues with the exceptions being Don't-Ask-Don't-Tell repeal and the ACA birth control exemption, where rich Republicans are more conservative. On these two issues, we see that Republican senators are better-representing the rich than the poor; however, for most social issues, rich and poor Republicans generally agree and it is therefore not surprising that we find little to no differential responsiveness (see Figure 5a, white bars).

We see more preference gaps on social issues among Democrats, where the rich are significantly more liberal than the poor across all issues but especially on issues such as the gay marriage ban, late-term abortion ban, amnesty for undocumented immigrants, stem cell research (in 2008), and Don't-Ask-Don't-Tell repeal, where the rich are 10-20 percentage points more likely to be liberal than the poor (see Figure 4b). Generally speaking, on social issues, there are no strong representation gaps among Democratic senators' geographic constituency (see Figure 5b, white bars). But among co-partisans, Democratic senators better-represent the rich, especially on the five issues with the largest preference gaps where rich Democrats are 10-20 percentage points more likely to be represented than poor Democrats.

Figure 5: Rich-Poor Representation Gaps on Individual Roll Call Votes

(a) Republican Senators



(b) Democratic Senators

Higher, positive values indicate the rich are better represented the poor. The point estimates are the linear probability model coefficient on the fifth quintile dummy variable (relative to the first quintile dummy variable base category). Therefore, the point estimates can be interpreted as the difference in likelihood of being represented between the rich and the poor. Issues are ordered by the size of the preference gap within the American public with largest preference gaps on the left.

Sensitivity Analysis

To demonstrate the robustness of our findings, we undertook a series of sensitivity checks—with details provided in the Online Appendix.

First, we estimated the preference and representation gaps between the rich and middle class (the fifth vs. third quintiles, rather than the fifth vs. first quintiles). The results are generally similar with two differences: (1) effect sizes are typically smaller; and, (2) there are some minor changes in the direction of preference gaps on social issues for All Americans and Republicans.

Second, we estimated rich-poor preference and representation gap models adding in control variables for race and education. These results are also comparable. The only noticeable differences in effect sizes are for Democrats on social issues, where adding in controls reduces the rich-poor preference and representation gaps by about five percentage points.

Third, to provide the sharpest comparison between the behavior of Democratic and Republican senators, we undertook a robustness check where we only include states represented by both a Republican and Democratic senator in the representation gap analyses. This allows us to compare the representation gaps for Republican and Democratic senators who are representing the exact same geographic constituency. With only a few changes in statistical significance, the results of these analyses are substantively similar to those presented in Figures 5a and 5b, indicating that even when Republicans and Democrats are representing the same geographic constituency, they are representing *different people* within that same geographic constituency.

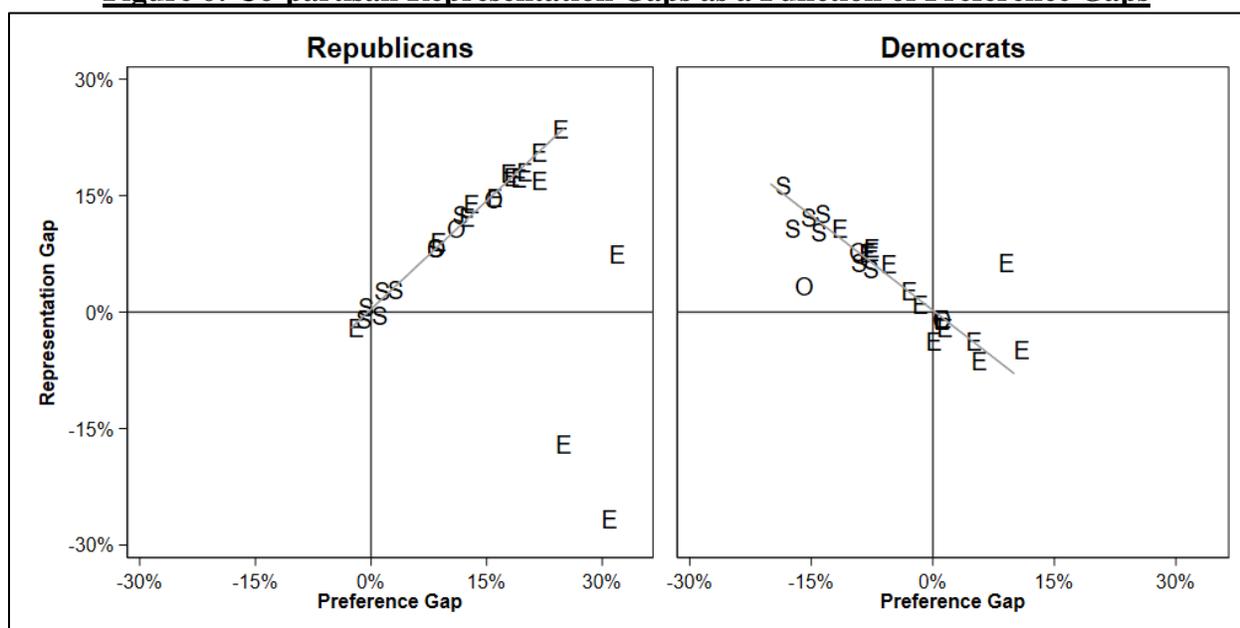
Finally, we estimated rich-poor representation gaps like we do in Figure 5, but we omit large states from the analysis. By omitting the four largest states in the U.S. (California, Texas, Florida, and New York), we ensure that our results are not driven by eight senators representing one-third of the U.S. population. And indeed, we see little difference in our results after excluding large states from the representation gap analyses.

REPRESENTATION GAPS REQUIRE PREFERENCE GAPS

We conclude our analyses by asking how-well variation in representation gaps can be explained by preference gaps. For all votes in Table 1 (including the ones excluded from the previous section), we plot the rich-poor representation gap among co-partisans as a function of the rich-poor preference gap among co-partisans. If senators are purposefully over-representing rich co-partisans, then we expect to see the greatest over-representation of the rich when they

disagree strongly with poor co-partisans. Figure 5 presents a scatter plot with representation gaps on the y-axis and preference gaps on the x-axis. We see an incredibly clear trend for both Democrats and Republicans. When preference gaps are larger, so are representation gaps. For both parties, co-partisan representation gaps are usually positive. The largest representation gaps for Republicans take place on economic issues (“E”) and the largest representation gaps for Democrats take place on social issues (“S”). In both instances, these issues are where we see the largest preference gaps.

Figure 6: Co-partisan Representation Gaps as a Function of Preference Gaps



Each panel shows the rich-poor representation gap among co-partisans as a function of the rich-poor preference gap among co-partisans. A line of best fit is derived from a robust regression (a regression that gives less weight to outliers). The marker symbol for economic issues is “E,” the marker symbol for social issues is “S,” and the marker symbol for other issues is “O.”

The results of a robust regression indicate that preference gaps among co-partisans are strong predictors of representation gaps. Since there are clear outliers, we use a robust regression (one that gives less weight to outliers) to determine the relationship between preference gaps and representation gaps. The dependent variable is the representation gap and the independent

variable is the preference gap. We find that the coefficient for the preference gaps variable is 0.93 for Republicans and -0.81 for Democrats.² Therefore, there is a nearly one-to-one relationship between the degree to which the rich are more conservative than the poor (the preference gap) and the degree to which the rich are better-represented than the poor (the representation gap) among co-partisans for senators of either party. These striking results demonstrate that senators are incredibly attune to the preferences of the rich members of their political party—and they vote in line with those policy preferences at the expense of representing the poor.

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

Unlike most literature on representational inequality, we examine and present survey data for individual issues, rather than scaling or pooling together issues of differing policy domains. This allows us to conceptualize representational inequality as an issue-specific (or at least policy-domain-specific) phenomenon and identify a more nuanced picture of the political dynamics at play. We see this research as heeding the call of Hacker and Pierson (2014) to move toward a more policy-focused political science; and we argue that this approach allows us to better capture the political dynamics at play in the representation process.

In this paper, we reassess the conventional wisdom: are the Republicans the party of the rich and Democrats the party of the poor? When pooling all issues together and examining the geographic constituency, as we do in Figure 1, this appears to be the case. Yet, plenty of previous research and theory has determined that senators of both parties represent their

² If we use a standard OLS model, the coefficient is 0.12 for Republicans and -0.62 for Democrats.

supporters (co-partisans) better than their detractors. Thus, we have argued that, in order to understand the biases in representation by income, we must look within the senator's party. After all, senators are unlikely to get support from strong identifiers of the opposite party. When only examining co-partisans, senators of both parties exhibit a bias toward the rich across all issues.

Our analysis has elucidated the need to look within issue domains to better-understand representational inequality. When we compare representation by issue domain, we see a different trend than when examining representation across all votes. *On economic issues*, Republican senators represent the rich—whether that is their constituency at-large or their co-partisans—while Democratic senators are biased towards representing the poor in their state and show no strong income-bias in representation among co-partisans. *On social issues*, Republican senators aren't that biased toward the rich; but for Democratic senators, while they are not biased toward the rich in their at-large constituency, they are biased toward the rich among their co-partisans. In sum, Republicans are the party that represents the rich on economic issues and Democrats are the party that represents the Democratic rich on social issues—at least among their own co-partisans.

Unequal representation is even more concerning when considering these trends in light of the composition of each political party. According to our data, using survey weights, 16% of Democrats are rich and 25% are poor; meanwhile, 21% of Republicans are rich and 16% are poor. Given this context, it makes sense that Republicans over-represent the rich vis-à-vis the poor on economic issues, but they do so by much more than we would expect if they were simply representing each income quintile equal to their share of the party. On the other hand, Democrats over-represent the rich *even though the rich make up a significantly smaller portion of the Democratic Party than the poor do*. If Democrats were representing each income quintile

equal to their share of the party, they should be representing the poor substantially more than the rich; instead, they over-represent the rich (sometimes by a great deal) on social issues.

One central contribution that we make is uncovering the structural nature of representational inequality. If senators are purposefully over-representing rich co-partisans over poor co-partisans, then we should see a nearly one-to-one relationship between representation gaps and preference gaps. Indeed this is what we see: for both Republicans and Democrats, where there are the largest gaps between the preferences of the rich and poor, there are also the largest gaps between the representation of the rich and poor. Preference gaps do indeed place a (healthy) limit on representational inequality (Soroka and Wlezien 2008). Nonetheless, our results strongly suggest that senators are still over-representing rich members of their own party and that they are in-tune with their policy preferences.

Another important point to underscore is that the Republican and Democratic constituencies are clearly composed of *different* rich people and *different* poor people since there exist preference gaps in opposite directions between the two parties. On the one hand, the Republican coalition shares similar policy preferences on social issues—where the rich and poor are both conservative. But the Republican coalition diverges along class lines on economic issues, where the rich are more conservative than the poor, and Republican senators are more representative of these conservative rich than more-moderate poor. On the other hand, the Democratic coalition shares similar policy preferences on economic issues—where both the rich and poor are liberal. But the Democratic coalition diverges along class lines on social issues, where the rich are more liberal than the poor, and Democratic senators are more representative of these liberal rich than more-moderate poor.

Understanding representation of the rich in this way leads us to a more nuanced understanding of the impact of political inequality on party polarization. Rather than expecting to find two parties converging on the policy preferences held by the upper class, we find that each party gives undue influence over policymaking to a small group of *their own* wealthy supporters. Our analysis aligns with other research that shows partisan campaign donors hold more extreme policy positions than other members of their party on specific policy issues—most notably a greater conservatism on economic issues among donors to Republican candidates and greater liberalism on social policy issues among donors to Democratic candidates (Broockman, Ferenstein, and Malhotra 2017; see also Schlozman, Verba, and Brady 2012). This suggests that the outsized influence of the wealthy in U.S. politics may serve to push the Democratic Party to the left on social issues and the Republican party to the right on economic issues. By better representing their rich constituents when the rich and poor disagree, both parties move away from the more moderate views of their less affluent constituents. Thus, our findings illuminate a process by which differential representation of the rich could co-exist with and even exacerbate the polarization of political parties.

REFERENCES

- Aldrich, John H., Jacob M. Montgomery, and David B. Sparks. 2014. “Polarization and Ideology: Partisan Sources of Low Dimensionality in Scaled Roll Call Analyses.” *Political Analysis* 22 (04): 435–56. <https://doi.org/10.1093/pan/mpt048>.
- Ansolabehere, Stephen, Jonathan Rodden, and James M. Snyder. 2006. “Purple America.” *The Journal of Economic Perspectives* 20 (2): 97–118.

- Baldassarri, Delia, and Andrew Gelman. 2008. "Partisans without Constraint: Political Polarization and Trends in American Public Opinion." *American Journal of Sociology* 114 (2): 408–46. <https://doi.org/10.1086/590649>.
- Bartels, Larry M. 2009. *Unequal Democracy: The Political Economy of the New Gilded Age*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- . 2018. "Partisanship in the Trump Era." *The Journal of Politics* 80 (4): 1483–94. <https://doi.org/10.1086/699337>.
- Bishin, Benjamin G. 2000. "Constituency Influence in Congress: Does Subconstituency Matter?" *Legislative Studies Quarterly* 25 (3): 389–415. <https://doi.org/10.2307/440413>.
- Branham, J. Alexander, Stuart N. Soroka, and Christopher Wlezien. 2017. "When Do the Rich Win?" *Political Science Quarterly* 132 (1): 43–62. <https://doi.org/10.1002/polq.12577>.
- Broockman, David E. 2016. "Approaches to Studying Policy Representation." *Legislative Studies Quarterly* 41 (1): 181–215. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lsq.12110>.
- Broockman, David E., Greg Ferenstein, and Neil Malhotra. 2017. "The Political Behavior of Wealthy Americans: Evidence from Technology Entrepreneurs." Working Paper 3581. Stanford, CA: Stanford Graduate School of Business. <https://www.gsb.stanford.edu/faculty-research/working-papers/political-behavior-wealthy-americans-evidence-technology>.
- Brunner, Eric, Stephen L. Ross, and Ebonya Washington. 2013. "Does Less Income Mean Less Representation?" *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy* 5 (2): 53–76. <https://doi.org/10.1257/pol.5.2.53>.
- Campbell, Andrea Louise. 2007. "Parties, Electoral Participation, and Shifting Voting Blocs." In *The Transformation of American Politics: Activist Government and the Rise of*

Conservatism, edited by Paul Pierson and Theda Skocpol, 68–102. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Clausen, Aage R. 1973. *How Congressmen Decide: A Policy Focus*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Clinton, Joshua D. 2006. “Representation in Congress: Constituents and Roll Calls in the 106th House.” *Journal of Politics* 68 (2): 397–409. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2508.2006.00415.x>.

Crespin, Michael H., and David W. Rohde. 2010. “Dimensions, Issues, and Bills: Appropriations Voting on the House Floor.” *The Journal of Politics* 72 (4): 976–89. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022381610000472>.

Druckman, James N., and Lawrence R. Jacobs. 2011. “Segmented Representation: The Reagan White House and Disproportionate Responsiveness.” In *Who Gets Represented?*, 166–88. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

Ellis, Christopher. 2013. “Social Context and Economic Biases in Representation.” *The Journal of Politics* 75 (3): 773–86. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0022381613000376>.

———. 2016. “Class Politics in Red and Blue: Explaining Differences (and Similarities) in What Rich and Poor Want from Government.” *Politics, Groups, and Identities* 4 (1): 144–65. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21565503.2015.1095681>.

Enns, Peter K. 2015. “Relative Policy Support and Coincidental Representation.” *Perspectives on Politics; Cambridge* 13 (4): 1053–64. <http://dx.doi.org.proxygw.wrlc.org/10.1017/S1537592715002315>.

Fenno, Richard F. 1977. “U.S. House Members in Their Constituencies: An Exploration.” *The American Political Science Review* 71 (3): 883–917. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1960097>.

- Flavin, Patrick. 2012. "Income Inequality and Policy Representation in the American States." *American Politics Research* 40 (1): 29–59. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1532673X11416920>.
- Flavin, Patrick, and William W. Franko. 2017. "Government's Unequal Attentiveness to Citizens' Political Priorities." *Policy Studies Journal* 45 (4): 659–87. <https://doi.org/10.1111/psj.12184>.
- Gilens, Martin. 2005. "Inequality and Democratic Responsiveness." *Public Opinion Quarterly* 69 (5): 778–96. <https://doi.org/10.1093/poq/nfi058>.
- . 2009. "Preference Gaps and Inequality in Representation." *PS: Political Science and Politics* 42 (2): 335–41.
- . 2012. *Affluence and Influence: Economic Inequality and Political Power in America*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Gilens, Martin, and Benjamin I. Page. 2014. "Testing Theories of American Politics: Elites, Interest Groups, and Average Citizens." *Perspectives on Politics* 12 (3): 564–81. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1537592714001595>.
- Griffin, John, and Brian Newman. 2016. "The Presidency and Political Equality." *Congress & the Presidency* 43 (3): 352–76. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07343469.2016.1203374>.
- Grossman, Matt, and David A. Hopkins. 2016. *Asymmetric Politics: Ideological Republicans and Group Interest Democrats*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hacker, Jacob S., and Paul Pierson. 2014. "After the 'Master Theory': Downs, Schattschneider, and the Rebirth of Policy-Focused Analysis." *Perspectives on Politics* 12 (03): 643–662. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1537592714001637>.
- Hayes, Thomas J. 2013. "Responsiveness in an Era of Inequality." *Political Research Quarterly* 66 (3): 585–99. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1065912912459567>.

- Huckfeldt, Robert, and John Sprague. 1992. "Political Parties and Electoral Mobilization: Political Structure, Social Structure, and the Party Canvass." *The American Political Science Review* 86 (1): 70–86. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1964016>.
- Jacobs, Lawrence R., and Benjamin I. Page. 2005. "Who Influences U.S. Foreign Policy?" *The American Political Science Review* 99 (1): 107–23.
- Karol, David. 2009. *Party Position Change in American Politics: Coalition Management*. Cambridge University Press.
- Medoff, Marshall H., Christopher Dennis, and Benjamin G. Bishin. 1995. "The Impact of Legislator and Constituency Ideology on Voting on the Assault Weapons Ban." *The Journal of Socio-Economics* 24 (4): 585–91. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-5357\(95\)90004-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-5357(95)90004-7).
- Miller, Gary, and Norman Schofield. 2003. "Activists and Partisan Realignment in the United States." *The American Political Science Review* 97 (2): 245–60.
- Poole, Keith T., and Howard Rosenthal. 2007. *Ideology and Congress*. Second Revised Edition of Congress: A Political Economic History of Roll Call Voting. Transaction Publishers.
- Rhodes, Jesse H., and Brian F. Schaffner. 2017. "Testing Models of Unequal Representation: Democratic Populists and Republican Oligarchs?" *Quarterly Journal of Political Science* 12 (2): 185–204. <https://doi.org/10.1561/100.00016077>.
- Rigby, Elizabeth, and Gerald C. Wright. 2011. "Whose Statehouse Democracy? Policy Responsiveness to Poor vs. Rich Constituents in Poor vs. Rich States." In *Who Gets Represented?*, edited by Peter Enns and Christopher Wlezien, 189–222. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

- . 2013. “Political Parties and Representation of the Poor in the American States.” *American Journal of Political Science* 57 (3): 552–65.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/ajps.12007>.
- Roberts, Jason M., Steven S. Smith, and Stephen R. Haptonstahl. 2016. “The Dimensionality of Congressional Voting Reconsidered.” *American Politics Research* 44 (5): 794–815.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1532673X15608940>.
- Schier, Steven E. 2000. *By Invitation Only: The Rise of Exclusive Politics in the United States*. University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Schlozman, Kay Lehman, Sidney Verba, and Henry E. Brady. 2012. “Political Activism and Electoral Democracy: Perspectives on Economic Inequality and Political Polarization.” In *The Unheavenly Chorus*, 232–62. Unequal Political Voice and the Broken Promise of American Democracy. Princeton University Press.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt7sn9z.15>.
- Soroka, Stuart N., and Christopher Wlezien. 2008. “On the Limits to Inequality in Representation.” *PS: Political Science & Politics*, no. 2 (April): 319–327.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S1049096508080505>.
- Stonecash, Jeffrey M. 2000. *Class and Party in American Politics*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Tausanovitch, Chris. 2016. “Income, Ideology, and Representation.” *RSF* 2 (7): 33–50.
<https://doi.org/10.7758/RSF.2016.2.7.03>.
- Wilcox, Clyde, and Aage Clausen. 1991. “The Dimensionality of Roll-Call Voting Reconsidered.” *Legislative Studies Quarterly* 16 (3): 393–406.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/440104>.