

The Effect of Party Loyalty on the Election of U.S. Senators, 1871–1913

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The American parties, with the party organization now their dominant part, had reached their "golden age" by the beginning of the 1900s. Party organizations now existed in all the states and localities and flourished in the industrial cities. Party discipline was at a record high in Congress and most state legislatures. Parties ran campaigns for public office; they held rallies and torchlight parades, canvassed door-to-door, and brought voters to the polls. They controlled access to many government jobs ranging from street inspectors to members of the U.S. Senate.¹

The post-Civil War period of American politics is widely regarded as a time when strong parties dominated American politics, not only at the national level, but at the state level, too. A key element of this party domination worked through the United States Senate, which was linked to the states through the mechanism of state legislatures electing U.S. senators. Under this view, boss-dominated state legislatures simply provided an express ticket from the state capitol to the U.S. Capitol for the party bosses.

In this paper, we argue that this textbook definition of parties in 19th century American politics tends to promote an overly simplified view of political parties, especially in reference to the influence of political parties on the selection of U.S. Senators. Part of the problem with current views of the strength of parties during this era is that there is very little concrete data about elected officials at the state and local level. Mayhew (1986) does an admirable job of categorizing parties in the 19th century but is not able to delve beyond generalizations precisely because there is insufficient data to do so.

We help fill that data gap with information about the party identification of state legislatures, their party cohesion, and the extent of their loyalty to party organization leaders. As the basis of evidence, we use original data collected as part of a larger project exploring the election of United States senators in state legislatures from 1871–1913. By studying the behavior of state legislators in all states on the key choice of U.S. Senator during a period many regard as the high water mark of party strength in the U.S., we can shed new light on the nature of party control in legislative and electoral politics at the state level.

Accounts of historians and contemporary observers have focused on the role of party organizations in narrating the history of senatorial elections after the Civil War. Poole and

¹ Hershey, Marjorie Randon. 2007. *Party Politics in America, 12th edition*. p.18. Also see Reichley, James. 2000. *The Life of the Parties*, chapters 6-11.

Rosenthal (1997) show that political party structured a significant portion of congressional roll call voting during this period; is it not a huge leap to suppose that party structured the voting of state legislatures, too, including voting for U.S. senators. It is true that party control of state legislative chambers was a powerful predictor of which party would win the Senate seat up for election at any given time. In the data we have assembled to date, over 31,000 individual roll call votes where we know the partisanship of individual state legislators, over 90% were instances of the legislators supporting the party's candidate.

However, many of these Senate elections began with multiple nominees from the majority party, and the process by which the party chose its candidate was a drawn out, complex, and fractious process far more frequently than previously supposed. Even when a party had majority control of the legislature, factions within the party were common, typically based on regional and economic divisions in the state. As Allard, Burns, and Gamm (1998) show, factions emerged over major or minor bills considered in state legislatures, and the Republicans were no more immune to this problem than the Democrats.

There are two aspects of Senate elections that provide ample opportunity to study political parties. First, they were statewide elected offices, which meant that the state party organization had the challenge of managing conflict over the seat between regional organizations; this task was made considerably harder when the majority margin was very narrow or very large. Second, there were two Senate seats, so that a choice in one election might very well influence the choice of the next Senate election.

What we have not known before, and what our research will eventually reveal, is how party leaders decided which candidate for the U.S. Senate to support, and the extent to which party leaders had to cajole, threaten, or otherwise pressure the rank and file in state legislatures to vote for their preferred candidate. Moreover, it is not yet clear to us that Senate elections were in fact a state party dominated process; given the number of candidates who were nominated for election, there is evidence that individuals who sought Senate seats tried to bypass or work independently of party leaders in their quest.

This paper is very preliminary and part of a larger project in which we are examining Senate elections in all states from 1871 to 1913 (Schiller and Stewart 2004a, 2004b; Stewart and Schiller 2007, 2008). Our data-gathering project involves collecting data at two levels in state legislatures: aggregate outcomes and individual voting behavior. Specifically, we are gathering

all the actual individual ballots in each Senate election, the district and the political party of each state legislator voting for senator (where available)² and election returns for each state legislator.³

We are nearing the end of gathering the roll call data and entering them into electronic databases. In doing the research for this paper, we have discovered that we are about 90% of the way to having this data completed, and should be finished by the end of 2008. Because we are not 100% finished in entering and cleaning the data, all results reported in this paper must be taken as preliminary. In that spirit, the remainder of the analysis is generally descriptive, and aimed at uncovering patterns that will be subject to closer scrutiny in the future.

The paper is laid out as follows. Part one describes the general process by which U.S. Senators were elected prior to 1913, and briefly describes our data gathering efforts. Part two discusses the aggregate trends in party loyalty we observe in state legislatures during this time period. Part three discusses the individual party loyalty trends in the data. We conclude the paper with three illustrative case studies of differing scenarios under which parties devolved into internal conflict over the choice for U.S. Senator.

Procedural Background and Data Gathering: How U.S. Senators Were Elected before 1913

Senate elections prior to 1913 were covered by an 1866 law that was passed in response to controversies that arose in Senate elections prior to the Civil War.⁴ The procedure enunciated in the 1866 act provided for a two-step process. Each chamber was required to meet separately at noon on the second Tuesday after the state legislature had organized, to vote separately for senator. On the following day at noon, the two chambers were required to meet in “joint assembly” to canvass the votes. If a majority of members of each chamber favored the same candidate, he would be declared elected. If one or both chambers failed to elect a senator with a majority of votes, or if the two chambers produced different majority vote winners, then the joint

² Political party information for state legislators is often fugitive and variable in coverage. At one extreme, according to the archivist at the State Library, North Carolina has no existing compilation of the party affiliation of legislators who served in the state House and Senate for this time period. At the other extreme, the Kentucky State Library contains a typescript volume in which party labels have been entered for all state legislators back to the 1790s.

³ The state legislative election data augments data gathering efforts led by Samuel Kernell (UCSD) and Stephen Ansolabehere and James Snyder (MIT).

⁴ See Haynes 1906, chapter 2, for the background on why the law was adopted. The law may be found at U.S. Statutes at Large, vol. 14, pp. 243-44.

assembly would vote to choose a winner, acting as a single body. If no candidate secured a majority of the joint assembly, House and Senate members were required to meet together and ballot at least once a day until a senator was chosen or their legislative session adjourned *sine die*.

The federal law that defined the election process requires us to separate the roll call votes into two major categories. The votes we label as “Separate ballots” are those roll call votes that were held on the first day of the voting process, when the two chambers met in their own chambers to cast ballots for senator. We have a total of 56,000 individual roll call votes in separate balloting available to use in this analysis. The votes we label as “Joint ballots” are those that were held after the first day, in those cases where the two chambers had failed to settle on a common winner, and were forced into the joint assembly procedure. We have 164,000 joint ballot roll call votes entered to date. All told, we have approximately 220,000 individual roll call votes entered.

For this paper, we focus only on the first day of balloting. Because we are exploring party effects on individual roll call behavior, we assume that the strongest of these effects should come at the earliest point in the balloting process. If a party is strong and organized, it will head into a Senate election in the legislature well prepared; if it is fractured, one would expect conflict to intensify over time, not diminish. Consequently we look first at the separate ballots roll call data.

Because this paper focuses on the partisan behavior of state legislators during this period, we should remark on the source of party information. The recent publication of Dubin’s (2007) compilation of state legislative party compositions, along with the compilation available in ICPSR study 0016, suggests that it is easy to ascertain the partisanship of individual state legislators during this period. However, it is not at all easy because the existing data often relies on other sources which only recorded the total party breakdown in the chambers, and not each legislator's own party affiliation. So we can discern the overall partisan breakdown, but the actual individual level partisan affiliation of specific state legislators is far more difficult to find.

Therefore, even under the best of circumstances, we have had to rely on a combination of sources to ascertain the partisanship of individual state legislators. The easiest legislature to work with is New York, because the partisanship of virtually every member is available through the *Tribune Almanac*, either through its listing of members, or inferring party membership using

election returns. Kentucky is also easy, since the state’s legislative reference library contains a volume in which a library researcher, decades ago, researched the partisan affiliation of individual Kentucky state legislators back to territorial days. More typical are states like Maine, Connecticut, and Vermont, in which state legislative manuals began recording party affiliation in the 1870s, and newspaper accounts can help fill in holes. Still, for many states, notably in the south, we are discovering that reporting on individual legislator partisanship may be so scattered that it will be virtually impossible to assign a definitive partisan label to each state legislator who served during the period from 1871 to 1913.

Table 1 reports the current status of coding the individual partisanship of state legislators during this period. Because of the limitations of different state sources about partisanship, we have individual party labels for only about 70% of the “separate ballot” roll call votes. In an effort to construct an alternative measure of party cohesion, we have also organizational roll call votes taken at the beginning of each legislative session, i.e. who would serve as Speaker or Senate President. All lower chambers and most upper chambers elected their presiding officer; presumably we can glean partisan and factional information from these elections. In other words, we can infer partisan affiliation from votes cast for specific chamber offices. However, we will not be able to conduct our analysis on all our states in the sample because some states did not hold recorded roll call votes on organizational matters, or if they did, they did not print the entire list of voters. We have accumulated data for those states that did hold roll call votes for organizational offices, and this data is also listed in Table 1; right now, we have complete data for chamber organization votes for 20 of the states in our sample, which are drawn from all regions of the country, and partial data for 10 more.⁵

[Table 1 about here]

Aggregate Party Loyalty in Senate Elections

We begin our data description at the broadest level by presenting individual roll call votes for 19 states. First, we counted up the number of votes cast by identifiable Democrats and Republicans in all the elections for which we have data. Second, for each election, we have identified the candidate who received the most votes by a chamber’s party contingent. For our purposes, we

⁵We have already used these organizational votes to ascertain individual partisanship in one state legislature, Alabama.

consider this to be the “party organization candidate.”⁶ We then sum all the votes cast for party candidates during this period, by members of that party.

[Table 2 about here]

From this broad perspective, we see a considerable degree of party loyalty among state legislators when they balloted for U.S. Senator. Summing all elections together, 91% of all ballots cast for senator were loyal party votes. Looking state-by-state, we see that there is variability in loyalty levels, however. These range from a low of 63% in Arkansas to a high of 100% in Arizona and 99% in Indiana and Wyoming. The variability is even greater when we disaggregate into chambers and, within chambers, by party. All of Arkansas’s parties, Kentucky’s House Democrats, Kentucky’s Senate Democrats, Maine’s Senate Democrats, New Mexico’s Senate Democrats, Wisconsin’s Senate Democrats, New Mexico’s House Republican, Utah’s House Republicans, Massachusetts’s House Republicans, and New Mexico’s Senate Republicans had loyalty levels that dipped below 80%. Thus, while there is not tremendous variability in party loyalty, there is enough to warrant further investigation.

Another way to explore party strength in the election of U.S. senators during this period is to examine the partisan control of the state legislative chambers, and ask about the partisanship of the eventual winner. As Table 3 illustrates, when we conduct this analysis, we see that Senate election results after the Civil War may be read off the partisan composition of the state legislatures. Overall, 87% of state legislatures in our larger data set were controlled by the same party in each chamber. In these unified legislatures, the party in control elected a co-partisan to the Senate 98% of the time. When the chambers were split, the aggregate results were a virtual toss-up.

[Table 3 about here]

The results reported in Tables 2 and 3 show that there was a high degree of partisan regularity after the Civil War in the election of U.S. senators, examined at a highly aggregated level. Does this macro partisan regularity correspond with micro regularity? Does this regularity vary across states and across time?

⁶In future research, we will use independent information, especially newspaper accounts, to identify candidates who were endorsed by party caucuses, and code them as the “party candidate.” Our initial impression is that our data-driven technique always identifies the candidate nominated by caucuses, and therefore it is a valid first-cut technique to identify party-endorsed candidates.

We can begin exploring these questions by disaggregating slightly, to the individual election. If party loyalty at the individual level determined the dynamics of Senate elections, then there should have been a very high correlation between the votes received by partisan candidates and the partisan composition of the two chambers.

Figure 1 provides graphical evidence that party loyalty was likely very high in most instances, even with exceptions to this generalization. The *x*-axis of each graph reports the percentage of the indicated chamber that was composed of Democrats or Republicans.⁷ The *y*-axis reports the percentage of the votes received by the top vote-getter among candidates of that party. (The data set used in this figure is the seat of all elections that are represented in Table 1.)

[Figure 1 about here]

As an example, take the first graph, labeled “House Democrats.” The *x*-axis is the percentage of the state House of Representatives composed of Democrats. The *y*-axis is the percentage of votes received by the main Democratic candidate. Notice, first, that most of the data is tightly clustered along the 45-degree line, suggesting that in most instances, simple party loyalty was the decision-rule driving most voting. Overall, 75% of all observations in the graph are within 5% points of the 45-degree line; 83% are within 10% point of the line. At the same time, there are many observations that are significantly away from the 45-degree line. One set of these observations consists of states in which the lower House was virtually all Democrats, but in which the top Democratic candidate received significantly fewer votes than the size of the party contingent. Observations from Arkansas and Kentucky tend to dominate this cluster. Initial investigation suggests that these were cases in which inter-party factionalism caused the dominant Democrats to significantly fragment on the first ballot. The remaining deviations from the diagonal line represent a combination of factors, including a few cases of widespread abstentions among Democrats when they were in the minority.

As a general matter, then, the correlations between chamber partisanship and support for partisan senatorial candidates was high, but not perfect. It is also evident from Figure 1 that some state legislatures exhibited a higher correlation between chamber partisanship and votes for Senate candidates than others.

Table 4 attempts to quantify the degree to which balloting for Senate candidates followed or deviated from chamber partisanship. We use two measures as applied to 23 states. The first is

⁷ The data source is Dubin (2007).

the simple correlation between chamber partisanship and the votes received by senatorial candidates. (For this exercise, we have combined both chambers in a single state, but have analyzed each major party separately.) The second measure is the average difference between the fraction of seats held by party p and the fraction of votes received by the top voter-getter of party p . Table 4 reveals there was significant heterogeneity among the states in how well changes in legislative partisanship mapped onto changes in the partisan fortunes of senatorial candidates. In some states (e.g., Indiana, Iowa, and New Hampshire among the Democrats) the state-level correlation was very high and the deviation in partisanship was very low. We would be surprised to find much party disloyalty in these states in any individual election. On the other hand, other states (e.g., Arkansas, Kentucky, and Texas among the Democrats), the correlation was very low and the deviation very high.

[Table 4 about here]

All together, Tables 1–4 enable us to sketch out a general set of categories that we might place states into according to party cohesiveness in balloting for U.S. Senators. We propose that the deciding factor in determining party cohesiveness is typically, but not always, the size of the majority party in both chambers. So we generally expect that states where the majority party hold is narrow will have the least amount of interparty conflict, and states where there is consistently a super-majority will have the greatest amount of interparty conflict. States where the size of the majority party control fluctuates over time experience parallel trends in internal party conflict.

Individual Party Loyalty and Majority Party Size in U.S. Senate Elections

In the preceding section, we saw that election results followed a partisan pattern at the aggregate level, but that there was heterogeneity across the states in how firmly this regularity held. In this section we push the question of partisan regularity down to the level of the individual state legislator, asking about how often individual state legislators held to the party line, and examining where (and when) party irregularity broke down.

To conduct this analysis we need to know the party membership of individual state legislators. In this section we start by confining ourselves to the states for which we have been able (thus far) to gather and analyze individual partisanship for long periods of time (Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine,

Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, South Carolina, Texas, Vermont, Wisconsin, and Wyoming).

In Table 5, we have summarized the degree of party loyalty among major party delegations, in both chambers, for these states. Table 5 reports elections by the year of the election and the seat up for election. (The seat is identified by the starting year of the term. In most years, the election year is also the starting year of the term. We designate special elections — i.e., elections to fill vacancies — with the letter “S” following the year. For instance, the seat designated as “1885S” in Illinois was the election to replace John A. Logan, who died in 1886.) We then separate the analysis by party (Democrats and Republicans) and by chamber (House and Senate).

[Table 5 about here]

For this analysis, we focus only on the separate balloting that occurred in each chamber on the first day of the election. For each chamber-party delegation, we record the total number of members of that party who cast votes, the total number of candidates who received votes by members of the party (regardless of how many votes they received), and the “effective number of candidates” receiving votes, which is a measure constructed identically to the “effective number of parties” in comparative electoral research. (Laakso and Taagepera 1979). The measure, *Effective Number of Candidates (ENC)*, can be defined as follows:

$$ENC_{s,t} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{C_{s,t}} f_{c,s,t}^2 \right)^{-1}$$

where $f_{c,s,t}$ = the fraction of votes received by candidate c in state s in year t and $C_{s,t}$ = the number of candidates receiving votes in a legislature in state s in year t .

For instance, in the 1881 U.S. Senate election in Connecticut, 69 House Democrats cast votes; 67 for Democrat William W. Eaton, the incumbent, and 2 for Republican Joseph R. Hawley, the eventual winner. Thus, two individuals received votes from the Connecticut House Democrats; because Eaton’s votes vastly outweighed Hawley’s, the effective number of candidates is very close to one — 1.06.

Among the nineteen states represented in Table 5, we have examples drawn from among three of the different types of states that were identified above. For instance, Connecticut, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, South Carolina, and Wyoming were

identified as states where the aggregate partisan outcomes mapped very closely onto the aggregate partisan composition of the legislatures. Table 5 shows that in most years, the party delegations of these states held together, with only a handful of defectors. There were exceptions, of course, such as the Connecticut House Democrats in 1891, and a run of divisive elections that split New York Republicans in the 1880s. Thus, even among the states that showed the greatest party regularity, an election could periodically come along to upset the partisan applecart.

One state in Table 5, Vermont, serves as an example of what can happen when a party achieves super-majority status in the legislature. The Republican proportion of the two chambers never dipped below 71% in the House and 83% in the Senate. These exceptionally large majorities apparently encouraged petty and inconsequential disloyalty of all sorts. First, House Democrats defected to the Republican candidate with some frequency. (Senate Democrats were perfectly loyal, but there were only 13 Democratic state senators Vermont during the entire period.) Second, Republican House members frequently abstained, or were otherwise absent (it is unclear from the record which this is). Abstentions did not appear to be correlated with the size of the Republican majority. Therefore, the majority going to the winning Republican candidate was typically less than the Republican majority in the chamber overall, varying in random amounts from year-to-year.

Four states — Illinois, Kentucky, and Wisconsin — serve as examples of states with typically stable and high party cohesion who suffered party breakdown at various moments in history. Illinois for example, had typically high party loyalty and only the elections of 1897 and 1913 exhibited deviations from this loyalty. However, as with Vermont, Illinois witnessed occasional bouts of majority-party abstention, particularly in 1897 and 1913, and in 1885, most House Republicans boycotted the vote for U.S. Senator.) Kentucky and Wisconsin, on the other hand, experienced periods of party fragmentation that resulted in no clear party candidate for the majority party. The result was a fracturing of majority party voting which produced a relatively small number of votes for the top majority party vote getter.

In Kentucky, this type of fragmentation occurred regularly from 1872 to 1890, but virtually disappeared afterwards. Wisconsin, on the other hand, experienced a few spectacular breakdowns of inter-party comity throughout this period. The worst instance was 1893, when the majority Democrats engaged in a three-cornered contest for the nomination in caucus. When

the caucus failed to reach agreement by the time came to commence formal balloting in the legislature, the caucus voted that Democrats would split their votes in the legislature, thus preventing the election of a senator (*Chicago Tribune*, 1/24/1893, p. 2). The result was that the 50 House Democrats named 47 different candidates for senator, while the 25 Senate Democrats each named a different person as their choice of senator. Two days and almost 30 caucus ballots later, the Democrats settled on John Mitchell as their nominee, who was promptly elected when the next joint ballot was cast in the legislature, with only one Democratic defection (*Chicago Tribune*, 1/27/1893, p. 1).

Thus, using the individual roll call data, combining it with party information, we see a high degree of party loyalty in state legislatures in voting for a Senate candidate from the same party, but we simultaneously observe considerable heterogeneity in the ability of state parties to impose party loyalty on its members in the election of U.S. senators. In other words, when the party coalesced around a single Senate candidate, most members of the party voted for that individual. However, the amount of time it took to choose *the* party candidate for Senate, and the conflict that ensued over the choice, varied considerably across states. As we discussed here, state parties like the Kentucky Democrats or the Massachusetts Republicans regularly failed to achieve party loyalty early in the Senate election process, and we have numerous anecdotal examples from other states that tell the same tale. We fully hope that once all of our state data is analyzed, we will arrive at a general explanation for the timing of party breakdowns as well as party repairs across states. To do so will likely rest on understanding the more systemic circumstances that surrounded the organization of parties in particular states.

Three Illustrative Cases: New York, Florida, and Pennsylvania

Three crystallizing examples of strong party organizations that experienced party breakdown over U.S. Senate elections come from New York State (1881), Florida (1891), and Pennsylvania (1899). These cases describe the internal party conflict that can ensue when party caucuses fail to serve as unifying mechanism for party organizations in legislatures. It is our hope that these cases provide contextual evidence for our preliminary quantitative results.

New York State and the election(s) of 1881: Stalwarts and Half-Breeds

From our perspective, the 1881 episode to fill the vacancies left by the resignations of Platt and Conkling illustrate the conditions under which parties could fail to coalesce, even in a state with a strong machine tradition, and yet the loyalty of party members in ensuring that the opposite party did not grab the nomination.

Some important background is necessary before launching into our story. The presidential election of 1880 is known, among other things, for the division that erupted in the nomination struggle between “Stalwarts” and “Half-Breeds.” Stalwarts were opponents of President Rutherford Hayes’s policies of reconciling with the South and instituting civil service reform. Half-Breeds were moderates, favoring both reconciliation and reform. The dispute between the two factions came to a head in the 1880 Republican National Convention, which witnessed a three-cornered contest between former-president Ulysses S. Grant (Stalwart), James G. Blaine, (Half-Breed), and John Sherman (neither faction). After a deadlock of thirty-five ballots, Blaine and Sherman threw their support to the “dark horse” James Garfield, thus defeating the Stalwarts.

Roscoe Conkling, who had been elected to the Senate by the New York legislature in 1879, was a leading figure in the nomination fight. He was a blistering critic of Hayes’s policies and led the effort to bring Grant out of retirement. As a conciliatory measure, the convention chose Conkling’s protégé, Chester A. Arthur, as the vice presidential nominee.

James Garfield carried New York (barely) in the 1880 presidential election. With this victory, Republicans in New York also carried the statewide races and won a majority of votes cast for their state legislative candidates. The victory gave them unified control of both houses of the legislature which all but guaranteed the defeat of the incumbent Senator, Democrat Francis Kernan. The legislature instead elected Republican Thomas C. Platt to succeed Kernan.

But all would not remain smooth sailing for the Republicans in the New York State legislature. To make a long story less long, the conflict in New York began when President Garfield forwarded to the U.S. Senate the nomination of Judge William H. Robertson to be the collector of the port of New York, a prime patronage appointment. Robertson had led the Half-Breed revolt within the New York convention delegation the previous year, and thus was Senator Roscoe Conkling’s greatest intra-state rival. Conkling “thoroughly detested” him (Gosnell 1924, p. 26). Conkling fulminated over the nomination, publicly and within closed Republican

caucuses in Washington, striking even his allies as being belligerent and childish. Platt brokered a “compromise” with the President that, in the end, still involved Robertson being appointed to the Custom House.

As Conkling’s Republican Senate colleagues decided to support their president rather than Conkling, Platt proposed that they both resign in protest and seek vindication by being immediately returned to the Senate by the New York legislature (Platt 1910, p. 150). Platt figured that this plan would both absolve Platt of his promise to support Garfield’s nominations and give Conkling political advantage over the president.

The public response to Conkling’s histrionics over the Robertson nomination had been negative, and his decision to resign in protest only made matters worse. Even Stalwarts attacked Conkling’s decision as childish and inimical to Republican Party unity. Platt suffered, as well, in the court of public opinion and party councils. Not only was he seen as trying to wiggle out of his promise to support Garfield’s appointments, but the public initially perceived the dual resignations as being Conkling’s idea, not Platt’s. This consequently earned Platt the nickname of “Me Too.”

The degree of the miscalculation was immediately apparent once word of the dual resignations reached Albany and the process of their “triumphant” vindications began. In an adroit piece of parliamentary maneuvering, two Half-Breed state senators managed to adjourn the Senate before Governor Cornell could formally convey the resignation letters to the legislature. This set back the clock that determined when the legislature would be required to begin voting to fill the vacancies. In turn, this maneuver gave anti-Conkling Republicans more time to organize.

Conkling’s and Platt’s problems in the legislature began when legislative Half-Breeds, along with a small number of Stalwarts who were outraged at Conkling’s behavior, refused to enter into a caucus to choose Republican nominees for the newly opened seats (Alexander 1909, p. 479). This defection meant that Conkling and Platt would have to press on with their efforts to regain their Senate seats without the endorsements of their party’s caucus.

The first ballots in the two chambers of the state legislature were not good for the state machine. Platt received only 20 and Conkling 25 of the 78 Republican votes cast in the House on the first ballot. In the Senate, Platt received 8 and Conkling 9 of 25 Republican first ballot votes. At this point, the only ray of hope they had was the fact that the opposition had not settled

on candidates that they could rally behind instead. For instance, on the first ballot in the House, Republicans voted for a total of 14 different candidates in opposition to Platt, and 17 candidates in opposition to Conkling.

The Democrats themselves were in an interesting position. The maximum degree of flexibility for the Democrats was illustrated in the caucus that was called to name two Democrats to stand for election to Platt's and Conkling's vacant seats. State Senator John Jacobs was nominated to receive Democratic votes in the race for Conkling's "short seat" vacancy, while former U.S. Senator Francis Kernan was endorsed for Platt's "long seat" vacancy. It was traditional in such caucuses to treat the nomination as binding on participants. However, when a motion was about to be made to that effect, there was a "disturbance in the hall," which allowed for a hasty adjournment motion which passed (NYT 5/31/1881, p. 1).

Thus, the Democrats had their nominees, but they were also free to try to get a better deal individually if they could find it. In the end, however, House Democrats ended up remaining loyal to Jacobs and Kernan when balloting began. Senate Republicans were much less loyal, splitting their support among six candidates for the "short seat" and nine different individuals for Platt's "long seat" vacancy.

Balloting to replace Platt and Conkling began on May 31 and dragged on for seven weeks and four days, well into the summer heat. No truly significant movements occurred in the balloting for a month, until two dramatic turns affected the outcome of the race. The first was when Platt was caught in the arms of a woman, not his wife, which led to his hasty withdrawal from the race on July 1. Platt's previous support splintered, never to unify again. On the next ballot after the revelations about Platt's extracurricular activities, half of Platt's supporters went over to Richard Crowley, but the other half split their votes among six other candidates.⁸ By the time Platt's open seat was settled on the 48th ballot, Platt's erstwhile supporters were divided among ten different candidates.

However, the more dramatic event was the attack on President Garfield on July 2. The assassination, which hinged on the issue of patronage, drew national indignation toward anything having to do with patronage, especially patronage in New York. (Recall that the assassin,

⁸ The last ballot before the Platt revelations was the 32nd, in which Platt received 27 of the 99 Republican ballots cast. The leader at that point was Chauncey Depew, with 50 votes. In the 33rd ballot, the 27 Platt voters split their support among Richard Crowley (12 votes), Alonzo B. Cornell (5), Orlow W. Chapman (2), Platt (2), Charles Daniels (1), Charles H. Adams (1), and Charles North (1).

Charles Guiteau, is reported to have shouted, “I am a Stalwart of the Stalwarts . . . Arthur is President now!”) Depew withdrew his name from consideration and worked to help bring together a conference of Republicans on July 8. At that meeting, they agreed to split the two seats, allowing the Half-Breeds to choose one nominee and the Stalwarts the other. The agreement also stipulated that the first faction to come up with a nominee would be allowed to claim the long term. As a consequence, the Half-Breeds reached agreement first, choosing Warner Miller for the long (Platt) term; the Stalwarts chose Elbridge Lapham for the short (Conkling) term. However, the former supporters of Conkling and Platt refused to enter into the agreement, and so the balloting continued.

The next significant break occurred on July 17, when Speaker Sharpe threw his support behind the two compromise candidates. This quickly resulted in the election of Miller the next day, who won without the support of the diehard machine supporters.⁹

However, diehard Conkling supporters continued to support him, making resolution of the short term vacancy more difficult. Finally, on July 22, during a Republican conference meeting, Sen. Edwin Halbert, who was the most stalwart of the Stalwarts and a consistent vote for Conkling, declared the need to resolve the election and his willingness to go over to Lapham. A vote was taken, Lapham was formally nominated by the caucus, and he was formally elected in that evening’s joint ballot in the legislature, with all Republicans, regardless of prior affiliation, supporting him.

The immediate result of these machinations was the election of two middle-level party functionaries to the U.S. Senate. The long-range result was more substantial for the history of party politics in New York. Conkling retired to New York City, where he entered private law practice, stayed away from politics, and died seven years later. Platt, on the other hand, beat a tactical retreat, and set about gaining control of New York Republican politics, in the wake of the vacuum left by Conkling’s retirement.

Loyalty to the Conkling machine kept a core of 27 New York Republicans unwilling to support any compromise candidate, even in the face of denying New York any voice in the U.S. Senate. That part of the controversy involved the political fate of the “big boss” in New York Republican politics no doubt added to the difficulty in sealing a deal. Indeed, it seems likely that

⁹ Among the 27 Republicans who had supported Platt until his withdrawal, for instance, only 6 supported Miller on the final ballot. All but one of the anti-Platt faction voted for Miller.

had Conkling himself not assented to the eventual election of Lapham, New York would have gone short one U.S. senator for the rest of the Congress.

Florida 1891: The Battle of the machines – Call v. Fleming

The Florida Senate election of 1891 is illustrative of the kind of factionalism that plagued super-majority parties in state legislatures during our study's time period. Wilkinson Call was a two term senator having been elected with little competition in 1879 and 1885 and headed a strong faction of the Florida Democratic Party. The other faction was essentially headed by the Democratic Governor, Francis Fleming, who had a number of allies in the state legislature. The extent of party in-fighting in this election drew the repeated attention of the national press, as embodied by this forecast by the *New York Times* in April 1891, entitled "Florida's Next Senator – Mr. Call in the Race with Many Competitors:"

The Legislature is made up of thirty-two Senators and sixty-eight Representatives. Of these ninety-nine are Democrats, Senator Smith of St. Johns County being the only Republican. Call is particularly strong in the country districts of the State, and the sparsely-settled and agriculture sections of the State are, of course, in the majority as far as representation in the Legislature is concerned. The legislative canvass in November last was prosecuted almost solely upon the Call and anti-Call issue. In almost every instance it became necessary, in order to secure a nomination to either branch, for the candidate to declare his position on the Senatorial question, and in this way, as soon as the election was over, the complexion of it was pretty well understood. Senator Call's friends claim 67 votes, but a more conservative estimate places his strength at about 55 or 56. If the caucus plan is pursued a general caucus of the Democratic members of both branches will number 99. If strict Democratic precedent is followed the two-thirds rule will prevail, and it will therefore require a vote of 66 in caucus to secure the nomination.

Until quite recently the members of the opposition to Call have given a scattered support to at least a half-dozen aspirants. Among these were John F. Dunn, of Marion County, who is known throughout the State as "the Phosphate King," he having within the past year and a half made several millions of dollars in the sale of phosphate lands; W.D. Bloxham, the present State Controller, who was at one time Governor; E.M. Hammond, the present State Senator from Orange County; Charles Dougherty of Volusia County, a member of the present Legislature and ex-member of Congress from the Second District; J.P. Taliaferro, the present Chairman of the Democratic State Executive Committee, and the Governor of the State, Francis P. Fleming. At a recent conference of the Call opposition, it was practically decided that the anti-Call votes should be centered upon Senator Dunn, and that no dark horses should be brought into the fight to embarrass Dunn's chances or to help Call.

It is generally agreed throughout the State that Dunn made a deal some months ago with Robert F. Rogers, President of the Farmer's Alliance, by which Rogers was to work in Dunn's interstate and exert his influence among Alliance men toward centering their strength upon Dunn. Rogers is very close to Chipley, who is the inside leader of the Call opposition, and as Chipley's policy is "anything to beat Call," he is prepared to enter into almost any sort of a deal whereby his purpose may be accomplished. (*New York Times*, April 7, 1891, pg. 1)

In the beginning Call received about the same relative support in each chamber: 7 senators (23%) voted for Call on the 1st ballot and 15 senators (53%) voted for Call on the 1st joint session ballot while 14 Assembly members (22%) voted for Call on the 1st ballot, and 25 members (39%) voted for him on the 1st joint session ballot.

In fact, the *New York Times* could not have been more inaccurate in their predictions. As it turns out, none of the supposed challengers was able to amass sufficient support to defeat Call, and only two men, Dunn and Hammond, even received more than a few votes. The main challenger to call turned out to be J.G. Speer, and he was the only other candidate to receive enough votes in the party caucus to deny Call the nomination. In fact it was a two-way race in the party caucus for almost all of the 86 ballots that were taken there from April 15 to May 25. Unable to choose a majority candidate within the caucus, the Democrats voted to disband it and did not send a nomination to the full legislature.¹⁰

Notably though, the members of the caucus voted early on to purposely spread their votes around several candidates until they party could choose a nominee; consequently neither Call nor Speer received a large number of votes in the joint session balloting. However, it is not clear from the actual joint session balloting that the members of the caucus stuck to this agreement — it appears that the anti-Call faction does try to cohere around a small number of candidates from the 7th ballot to the 16th ballot, but failing to get a majority, the members of the faction become more splintered again.¹¹ On the last ballot, the anti-Call members of the Assembly and Senate refused to vote, to the point where only 54% of the Assembly voted (all but one for Call) and 49% of the Senate voted (all for Call).

The *Times* overestimated the degree of unity within both factions — Call did not have the kind of strong support that the article suggested, or at the very least, it was soft support. The

¹⁰ Tribune Almanac, 1892, p. 69.

¹¹ In the Assembly, there was an average of 8 candidates on each joint ballot (s.d.=6) and in the Senate, there was an average of 6 candidates on each joint ballot (s.d.=4).

anti-Call forces were only united by their opposition to Call, but there were enough major players in that faction that legislators were not asked to be loyal to one candidate in particular. There was no overarching coordinator who was strong enough to marshal the troops.

In terms of vote shifting, the Call supporters stay relatively loyal, but again, there were not enough of them to give him an easy early victory. The anti-Call members shift their votes quite a bit in search of a viable opponent and they account for most of the outer tail of the vote shifts described below.

In a last ditch effort to prevent Call from returning to the Senate, Governor Fleming refused to acknowledge Call's victory, and appointed another man to Call's Senate seat. As the *New York Times* described it in a November 18 article,

The Senate of the United States, when it meets next month, will have to decide upon the title to a seat in that body of two claimants from the State of Florida, one elected by the Legislature on the 26th of May last, and the other appointed by the Governor on the 22nd of September....After the re-election of Senator Wilkinson Call in May, Governor Fleming refused to certify the election on the ground that it was not valid. When he appointed R.H.M. Davidson in September to the alleged vacancy, Secretary of State Crawford refused to attach the seal of the State to the certificate on the ground that the appointment was not valid, there being no vacancy when it was made. A mandamus was granted by the Supreme Court of the State requiring him to affix the seal to the Governor's certificate of appointment, and yesterday he complied with the mandate of the court rather than suffer the penalty for contempt.

As both claimants for the seat are Democrats, and as the majority of the Senate is Republican, this case ought surely to be decided upon its merits, without partisan or factional bias, and it ought to settle once for all the questions that have been raised, which are of considerable interest....

There is no dispute about the facts in connection with the election of Mr. Call. On the ballot for Senator,...Mr. Call received... a majority of all the members of both houses. [Gov Fleming argued that since a quorum of each house was not present, then a joint assembly without a quorum from each chamber cannot elect a senator]

The Florida case is clearly a faction contest in which a majority of the Legislature and the Secretary of State were on one side and the Governor and the Supreme Court of the State were on the other side....The Senate will have to decide between them, and it will be surprising if it does not make short work of the claim of Gov. Fleming's Senator.¹²

¹² *New York Times* – “The Florida Senatorship” Nov 18, 1891 pg 4.

As in the case of New York, conflict between two prominent state officials pervaded the U.S. Senate contest. The U.S. Senate did seat Call, and he served out his term until 1897, when Stephen Mallory was elected Senator in another extended election (25 joint session ballots), where Mallory beat the legislative leader of the anti-Call faction, W.D. Chipley. One interesting epilogue is that J.P. Taliaferro, a potential opponent to Call in 1891 and a state party leader, was elected to the Senate in 1899 by beating Samuel Pasco.

The history of Senate elections in Florida reveals a great deal about the *actual* control that party organizations had over the Senate election process in state legislatures. As witnessed by the public nature of the 1891 Senate race, certainly state legislative elections were influenced by the prospect of choosing a U.S. Senator but even when state legislators ran on tickets or platforms specifically stating their preference for Senator, it was no guarantee that such promises would hold once balloting began. Party control of chambers certainly meant a Senator of that party, but it by no means rested on expectations of cohesion within the majority party.

*The Pennsylvania Election of 1899: Corruption, machine politics, and an attempt at reform*¹³

The election of 1899 in Pennsylvania was a classic battle between entrenched machine politicians and reformers, within the same political party. Matthew Quay, long known as the powerhouse boss of the Philadelphia Republican party organization, was first elected U.S. Senator in 1887. During his second reelection bid, charges of corruption were lodged against Quay for taking state money that was supposed to be used to shore up the People's Bank of Pennsylvania. Senator Quay was indicted (and arrested) just about the time that the state legislature was beginning the election process for U.S. Senator (Klein and Hoogenboom 1973).

The reformers within the Republican Party were led by John Wanamaker, a prominent and wealthy actor in Pennsylvania politics. He had launched his campaign for Governor of Pennsylvania with a major attack on the Quay organization and the corruption he claimed permeated state politics. When the *New York Times* covered the speech, it titled the article "The Anti-Quay Campaign: John Wanamaker's First Speech as Candidate for Governor of Pennsylvania – He Denounces Boss Rule" (NYT, March 17, 1898). Wanamaker was defeated for Governor by a Quay loyalist (William A. Stone). Still, Wanamaker also tried to elect as many

¹³ This case study is based on research conducted by Jeremy Johnson, a PhD student in political science at Brown who has been a research assistant on this project.

non-Quay state legislators as possible but he was unsuccessful; not only did the Republicans have a large majority, most of the men serving were openly Quay supporters.

The *Philadelphia Inquirer* covered the U.S. Senate election, but from a completely slanted pro-Quay perspective. For example, the newspaper quoted one member of the legislature as stating that “I am for Senator Quay first, last and all the time. He has served the people of the State too well not to receive the support of his party at this time. I have no doubt of his nomination for the caucus and election on joint ballot” (*Philadelphia Inquirer*, January 1, 1899).

Before the election was held, the anti-Quay reformers briefly tried to form alliances with members of the Democratic minority, but the Democrats never really believed that the Republicans would cross the party line to support a minority Senate candidate, even when it meant trying to defeat Quay. Shortly before the election commenced, the *Inquirer* reported “A number of the Democratic members of the House [have] come to the conclusion to-day that they were not going to be taken in by any goldbrick game in the Wanamaker-Gordon fusion schemes” (January 2, 1899). As a demonstration of party cohesion, even in the midst of a conflictual Senate contest, reformers and Quay men alike voted together in their chamber organization votes, starting with votes for John R. Farr, a Republican from Scranton, as Speaker of the House. In his first few days as Speaker, Farr made it clear he would deny Democrats any government spoils. In the words of one frustrated Democrat, “We are asked to give these kicking Republicans a United States Senator, and they refuse to permit us to name a Democratic page boy in the House” (January 21, 1899).

The Republicans had their first caucus meeting on January 3, 1899 to choose their party’s nominee for U.S. Senate. But several Republicans who opposed Quay refused to join the caucus, while a few others attended the caucus but voted against Quay. On the first caucus ballot, Quay received 98 out of 109 total votes, after which time the Quay opponents acquiesced and agreed to nominate him unanimously. In the legislature, Quay would only need an additional 19 votes to win the Senate contest but John Wanamaker did not see his election as surefire at all, “For [Quay] to win he must hold all the votes he has and secure nineteen votes of those who refuse to go into the caucus, or in some way get what he lacks from the Democrats. I do not think he can succeed unless the Supreme Court on Saturday next clears him of the five indictments now hanging over him” (*Philadelphia Inquirer*, January 6, 1899).

The first separate balloting for the Senate election commenced on January 17, and the super majority Quay camp did everything it could to peel away the remaining votes necessary to elect him. His main Democratic opponent was George A. Jenks, who had run and lost the election for Governor. Indeed, Quay was unsuccessful on the first ballot, held separately in each chamber. In the House, Quay received 85 votes and in the Senate he received 27 votes; his next closest competitor, Jenks, received 70 voters in the House and 12 votes in the Senate. The remaining votes were spread across 10 minor protest candidates. From that day until March 1, the legislators cast 37 joint session ballots, and Quay consistently lacked between 10 and 13 votes necessary to win the seat.

In March, the reformers within the Republican Party joined briefly with the Democrats to try to take control of the chamber. On March 3, Speaker Farr adjourned the House, but the reformers refused to leave, instead declaring that they would try to elect a new Speaker. Their effort secured 101 votes, 2 votes short of the number needed to reach a quorum. Although the “revolt” was short lived, it served as a warning sign to the Quay-dominated Republican Party organization that the conflict over the Senate election could actually threaten their procedural hold on the legislature.

In the meantime, the Quay trial was proceeding along, but due to some clever legal maneuvering, the trial was not scheduled to start until the middle of April, just about the time the legislature was scheduled to adjourn. However, as the beginning of April drew near, the reformers came together in support of John Dalzell. By that time, the legislature had cast 59 joint session ballots in the Senate contest, and on the 60th ballot, the vote totals were as follows: Quay (87), Jenks (69), and Dalzell (51). When Dalzell did not win, the reformers decided to rotate a different candidate to see if he could attract enough support to win in a three way race, but that tactic failed (*Philadelphia Inquirer*, April 5, 1899).

April 20 was the day the legislature adjourned and consequently the last day of balloting for U.S. Senator. All-in-all, 80 ballots were cast (1 separate in each chamber, and 79 joint session), and despite the fact that the reformers could not form a successful coalition behind a candidate who could win the Senate seat, their tactics were successful enough to deny Quay the seat (at least by legislative election). But this story did not end there. The Quay trial was brief, and not surprisingly, he was acquitted of all charges. That same day, Quay’s political ally, Governor Stone, used his executive power to appoint Quay temporarily to the U.S. Senate.

While Pennsylvania might have been Quay country, the U.S. Senate was not so susceptible to his influence. As with many contested Senate seats, the election was considered first by a Senate committee, and then to the full Senate itself (Jenkins 2005). In late January 1900, the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections voted 5-4 that Quay was ineligible for his Senate seat (Kehl 1981, 220). By the time the case went to the full Senate, in late April, Quay had still not mustered enough support, and he lost his bid to be seated by one vote (Klein and Hoogenboom 1980, 365). From 1899 to 1901, Boise Penrose (R-PA) was the only Senator to formally represent Pennsylvania. Quay did ultimately return to the Senate in the election of 1901, but he died in 1904.

Conclusion

The indirect election of U.S. Senators, which was general practice until the adoption of the 17th Amendment in 1913, presents a number of important questions about political parties, electoral accountability, and state legislative voting behavior. In our project, which involves collecting all roll call ballots for U.S. Senator in state legislatures from 1871 to 1913, as well as membership and party affiliation of state legislators, we have observed a contradiction within this process. The contradiction that presents itself is one where seemingly strong state political parties experience repeated intra-party conflict during these elections in and out of the state legislature. This paper is a step in addressing this particular contradiction in the larger context of reexamining our assumptions about the strength and coherence of state political parties during this period of American history.

Using a subset of a larger dataset that includes 220,000 individual roll call votes, we examine the patterns of partisan loyalty among legislators during this period of time. We find that when parties ultimately decide who their “party candidate” will be, legislators are extremely loyal. In general, 93% of all ballots cast for senator were loyal party votes. However, we find variability in that measure; Kentucky has the low score of 83% while South Carolina has a 100% party loyalty score. Granted Kentucky’s 83% is not exactly a low number, but conventional wisdom has suggested that parties were monolithic and strong organizations in the late 19th century, so one would expect close to 100% party loyalty on Senate ballots across the board. Another way of examining the data is to look at chamber partisanship and the percent of the party membership that voted for the candidate who received the highest vote total (the *de facto*

party candidate). We find variation across states, and even between legislative chambers, in this number, with some states experiencing much more intra-party factionalism than others, and not just confined to the South.

We have observed in this paper that once it became clear to members of state legislatures that there was a single candidate who would receive majority support for election to the U.S. Senate, the election was decided because the vast majority of state legislators were party loyalists on this vote. However, the cases of elections in New York, Florida, and Pennsylvania, together illustrate that when the process of balloting began for U.S. Senator in state legislatures, there were frequently multiple nominees from the same party, which meant that party unifying devices, like the caucus nomination, were not always effective. How is it that strong party organizations would allow intra-party fracturing at the beginning of this process when all the participants knew full well that the ultimate winner of the Senate election would be from the majority party? The failure to control the nomination and election process efficiently resulted in elections with multiple ballots and extensive negotiation, and we plan to continue our efforts to arrive at a systematic explanation of this breakdown in party organizational strength.

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Note: Citations to the *New York Times* are abbreviated "NYT."

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Figure 1. Votes received by partisan candidates for U.S. Senate, compared to partisan composition of state legislatures, 1871–1913.

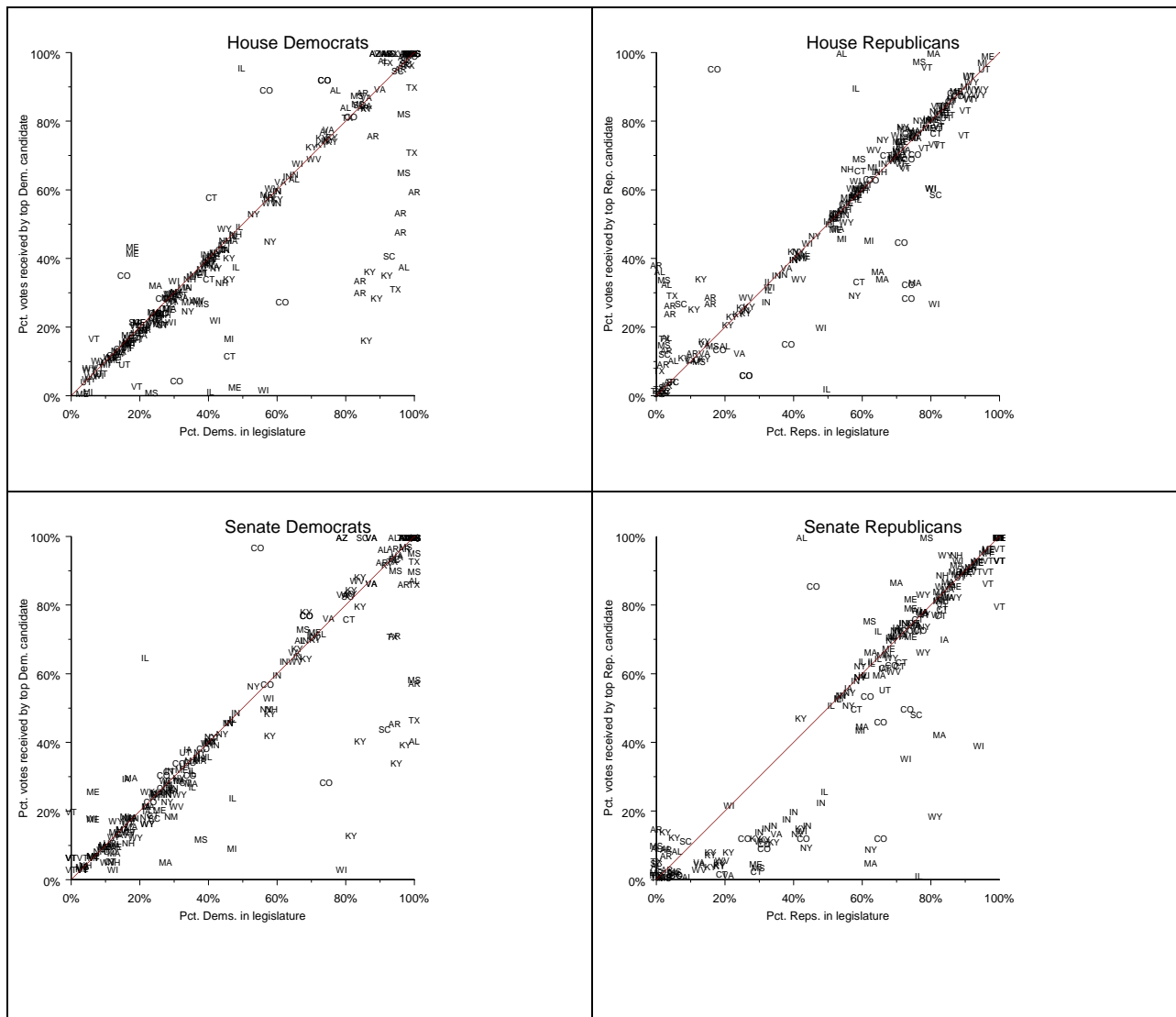


Table 1. Availability of individual-level partisanship for members of state legislatures, 1871—1913.

State	Coverage of partisanship	Presiding officer votes		State	Coverage of partisanship	Presiding officer votes	
		House	Senate			House	Senate
Alabama	1872–1913	Yes	Yes	Nebraska	No	Yes	Yes
Arizona	1912–1913	No	No	Nevada	Yes	Yes	Yes
Arkansas	1871–1889 (spotty)	1891+	No	New Hampshire	1871–1913	No	No
California	1871–1913	Yes	Yes	New Jersey	No	Yes	Yes
Colorado	1876, 1879, 1909	No	No	New Mexico	1913	No	Yes
Connecticut	1873–1913	No	No	New York	1871–1913	Yes	No
Delaware	No	No	No	North Carolina	No	Yes	Yes
Florida	1873–1913 (65 %)	Yes	Yes	North Dakota	1889–1913	Yes	Yes
Georgia	No	1900+	1900+	Ohio	1904–1913	Yes	Yes
Idaho	No	No	No	Oklahoma	No	Yes	No
Illinois	1881–1913	Yes	?	Oregon	1871–1913	Yes	Yes
Indiana	1871–1913	?	?	Pennsylvania	1871–1913	Yes	Yes
Iowa	1878–1913	?	?	Rhode Island	1871–1874; 1907	?	?
Kansas	1877–1913 (40 %)	Yes	Yes	South Carolina	1901–1913	Yes	Yes
Kentucky	1871–1913	Yes	Yes	South Dakota	No	Yes	Yes
Louisiana	1880–1913	Yes	Yes	Tennessee	No	Yes	Yes
Maine	1873–1913	?	?	Texas	1889–1913 (84%)	?	?
Maryland	1902–1913	No	Yes	Utah	Spotty	?	?
Massachusetts	1871–1913	No	No	Vermont	1876–1912	No	No
Michigan	None	?	?	Virginia	None	Yes	No
Minnesota	1892–1913	Yes	Yes	Washington	1889–1913	Yes	Yes
Mississippi	None	1892+	Spotty	West Virginia	Senate, 1899–1913	?	?
Missouri	1871–1913 (60%)	Yes	Yes	Wisconsin	1871–1913	?	?
Montana	1893–1913	1900+	1900+	Wyoming	1890–1913	Yes	Yes

Note: “Coverage of partisanship” records the legislative sessions for which we have been able to gather data about the partisanship of individual state legislators. The notation “spotty” indicates that there are large holes in the coverage. “Presiding officer votes” records whether we have

been able to gather individual-level roll call votes about the election of the chamber's presiding officer. "Yes" indicates that the data have been gathered. "No" indicates that the chamber did not record these roll call votes. "?" indicates that we have yet to ascertain whether the chamber recorded these roll calls in the Journal.

Table 2. Total number of roll call votes casts for U.S. senator, by Democrats and Republicans, 1871–1913.

State	House Democrats			Senate Democrats			House Republicans			Senate Republicans			All votes		
	Total votes	Loyal votes	Pct. loyal	Total votes	Loyal votes	Pct. loyal	Total votes	Loyal votes	Pct. loyal	Total votes	Loyal votes	Pct. loyal	Total votes	Loyal votes	Pct. loyal
Alabama	1,424	1,219	86%	463	372	80%	50	50	100%	0	0	–	1,937	1,641	85%
Arkansas	277	150	54%	134	87	65%	112	86	77%	53	41	77%	576	364	63%
Arizona	10	10	100%	30	30	100%	-	-	-	8	8	100%	48	48	100%
Connecticut	770	652	85%	76	71	93%	1,899	1,850	97%	217	207	95%	2,962	2,780	94%
Illinois	748	725	96%	211	193	91%	761	728	96%	351	327	94%	2,071	1,973	95%
Indiana	705	699	99%	372	368	99%	780	769	99%	394	385	98%	2,251	2,221	99%
Iowa	360	326	91%	201	177	88%	1,159	983	85%	628	549	87%	2,481	2,121	85%
Kentucky	1,220	972	77%	514	400	78%	352	338	96%	124	116	94%	2,210	1,826	83%
Maine	613	526	86%	76	57	75%	1,469	1,402	95%	391	384	98%	2,549	2,369	93%
Massachusetts	534	508	95%	118	110	93%	1,448	1,044	72%	451	409	91%	2,551	2,071	81%
New Hampshire	1,304	1,263	97%	29	27	93%	2,356	2,233	95%	121	118	98%	3,810	3,641	96%
New Mexico	64	64	100%	35	19	54%	120	90	75%	80	54	68%	299	227	76%
New York	791	765	97%	214	203	95%	1,251	1,099	88%	383	332	87%	2,639	2,399	91%
South Carolina	660	638	97%	205	202	99%	-	-	-	-	-	-	865	840	97%
Texas	1,168	982	84%	83	80	96%	11	11	100%	-	-	-	1,262	1,073	85%
Utah	8	6	75	12	12	100%	22	16	72%	10	10	100%	52	44	85%
Vermont	476	447	94%	13	13	100%	2,586	2,549	99%	391	388	99%	3,466	3,397	98%
Wisconsin	379	326	86%	117	91	78%	957	789	82%	337	283	84%	1,790	1,489	83%
Wyoming	43	43	100%	25	23	92%	254	250	98%	95	95	100%	417	441	99%
Total	8,619	7,964	92%	2,266	2,073	91%	14,008	12,974	93%	3,494	3,314	95%	31,685	28,864	91%

Definitions:

“Total votes” = total votes cast by party members, across all elections in which we have individual party affiliation data

“Loyal votes” = total number of votes cast by party members for the candidate who received the most votes by legislators of that party, in a particular election.

“Pct. loyal” = “Loyal votes” divided by “total votes”.

Table 3. Relationship between party control of state legislatures and party of state legislature.

Control of state legislature	Party of senator			Total
	Democratic	Other	Republican	
Democratic	258	1	3	262
Mixed	40	11	41	92
Republican	7	1	350	358
Total	305	13	394	553

Note: Data analyzed here includes virtually all U.S. Senate elections from 1871 to 1913.

$\Pi^2 = 654.8, p < .0005$

Table 4. Relationship between state legislative partisanship and votes for senatorial candidates.

State	Democrats		Republicans	
	Corr.	Diff.	Corr.	Diff.
Alabama	.39	.08	.88	.16
Arizona	--	.16	--	--
Arkansas	.33	.19	.38	.09
Colorado	.78	.11	.58	.20
Connecticut	.89	.04	.95	.05
Illinois	.37	.08	.43	.08
Indiana	1.00	.02	.93	.07
Iowa	.95	.02	.96	.02
Kentucky	.00	.19	.67	.09
Maine	.76	.05	.98	.02
Massachusetts	.83	.03	.64	.10
Michigan	.64	.06	.96	.03
Mississippi	.91	.07	.93	.11
New Hampshire	.97	.03	.97	.02
New York	.96	.02	.75	.07
South Carolina	.82	.06	.94	.08
Texas	.09	.12	.96	.06
Utah	.98	.02	.98	.02
Vermont	.65	.03	.82	.05
Virginia	.95	.03	.71	.07
West Virginia	.99	.03	.98	.06
Wisconsin	.43	.08	.66	.11
Wyoming	.93	.04	.58	.09

Table 5. Number of candidates receiving votes for U.S. Senate, by party and chamber, 1871—1913.

State	Election year	Seat starting year	Democrats						Republicans					
			House			Senate			House #			Senate		
			Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
Alabama	1876	1877	83	3	1.21	32	2	1.28	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1878	1879	85	3	1.05	28	1	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1882	1883	79	2	1.05	28	2	1.15	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1884	1885	m	m	m	26	2	1.08	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1888	1889	81	1	1.00	25	1	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1890	1891	91	4	3.36	32	4	3.41	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1894	1895	59	2	1.03	20	1	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1900	1901	81	1	1.00	27	1	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1903	1903	86	1	1.00	32	1	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1907	1907	92	1	1.00	30	1	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1907	1909	91	1	1.00	30	1	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1907	1909S	75	1	1.00	m	m	m	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1911	1913	88	1	1.00	30	1	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
Arizona	1912	1909	5	1	1.00	15	1	1.00	-	-	-	4	1	1.00
	1912	1911	5	1	1.00	15	1	1.00	-	-	-	4	1	1.00
Arkansas	1871	1871	23	3	1.43	5	3	2.27	49	3	1.13	17	1	1.00
	1871	1871S	24	6	3.20	6	3	2.57	51	5	2.15	16	2	1.66
	1873	1873	M	M	M	5	2	1.47	M	M	M	19	2	1.95
	1883	1883	M	M	M	29	2	1.07	M	M	M	1	1	1.00
	1885	1883S	75	7	4.16	28	8	3.96	2	1	1.00	1	1	1.00
	1885	1885	79	6	3.27	3	3	3.00	29	7	4.10	1	1	1.00
	1889	1889	76	2	1.24	32	3	1.21	7	2	1.69	M	M	M
	1891	1891	23	4	1.44	4	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	M	M	M
	1895	1895	8	1	1.00	4	2	1.60	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1897	1897	4	1	1.00	2	1	1.00	M	M	M	M	M	M

State	Democrats								Republicans					
	Election year	Seat starting year	Total votes	House		Senate		Total votes	House #	cands. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	Senate	
				# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates						# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
	1901	1901	4	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1903	1903	1	1	1.00	2	1	1.00	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1907	1907	1	1	1.00	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1913	1913	M	M	M	1	1	1.00	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1913	1907S	M	M	M	1	1	1.00	M	M	M	M	M	M
Colorado	1876	1871	18	2	1.25	7	1	1.00	28	2	1.07	18	1	1.00
	1876	1873	18	2	1.25	7	1	1.00	28	2	1.07	18	1	1.00
	1876	1877	13	1	1.00	6	1	1.00	29	1	1.00	18	1	1.00
Connecticut	1881	1881	69	2	1.06	4	1	1.00	156	2	1.01	16	1.00	1.00
	1885	1885	75	2	1.20	7	1	1.00	148	2	1.11	15	1.00	1.00
	1887	1887	98	2	1.02	10	1	1.00	128	1	1.00	12	1.00	1.00
	1891	1891	112	13	6.39	17	1	1.00	131	1	1.00	7	1.00	1.00
	1893	1893	101	2	1.04	11	1	1.00	124	3	1.05	11	1.00	1.00
	1897	1897	11	1	1.00	0	-	-	141	1	1.00	24	1.00	1.00
	1899	1899	51	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	156	2	1.01	19	1.00	1.00
	1903	1903	52	4	1.32	6	1	1.00	168	3	1.02	18	1.00	1.00
	1905	1905	30	1	1.00	5	1	1.00	199	2	1.01	27	1.00	1.00
	1909	1909	41	2	1.05	2	1	1.00	190	2	1.16	31	1.00	1.00
	1911	1911	95	2	1.16	m	m	m	146	2	1.01	m	m	M
Illinois	1883	1883	73	2	1.03	20	1.00	1.00	77	2	1.05	30	1	1.00
	1885	1885	44	2	1.05	m	m	m	1 (B)	-	-	m	m	M
	1887	1885S	60	2	1.14	17	2	1.12	78	2	1.14	32	1	1.00
	1889	1889	69	2	1.09	13	1	1.00	78	2	1.08	35	1	1.00
	1891	1891	77	1	1.00	23	1.00	1.00	72	1	1.00	27	1	1.00
	1895	1895	61	2	1.10	12	1	1.00	89	2	1.05	32	1	1.00

State	Election year	Seat starting year	Democrats						Republicans					
			House			Senate			House			Senate		
			Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
	1897	1897	54	1	1.00	11	1	1.00	12	8	4.50	8	8	8.00
	1901	1901	66	1	1.00	18	1	1.00	79	1	1.00	31	1	1.00
	1903	1903	61	1	1.00	12	1	1.00	88	2	1.02	36	1	1.06
	1907	1907	57	2	1.04	8	2	1.28	86	3	1.07	42	1	1.00
	1913	1909S	56	8	1.30	24	7	3.31	49	5	1.35	24	2	1.99
	1913	1913	67	1	1.00	24	1	1.00	49	1	1.00	24	2	1.09
Indiana	1872	1873	41	1	1.00	21	1	1	54	1	1.00	27	1	1.00
	1875	1875	52	2	1.12	23	2.00	1.09	29	3	1.33	24	3.00	2.07
	1879	1873S	50	1	1.00	23	1.00	1.00	37	2	1.06	22	1.00	1.00
	1879	1879	50	1	1.00	23	1.00	1.00	37	1	1.00	22	1.00	1.00
	1881	1881	39	1	1.00	24	2.00	1.09	57	1	1.00	22	1.00	1.00
	1885	1885	63	1	1.00	30	1.00	1.00	35	1	1.00	16	1.00	1.00
	1887	1887	44	2	1.05	31	1.00	1.00	56	2	1.11	18	1.00	1.00
	1891	1891	72	1	1.00	35	1.00	1.00	25	1	1.00	15	1.00	1.00
	1893	1893	60	1	1.00	35	1.00	1.00	35	1	1.00	13	1.00	1.00
	1897	1897	43	3	1.10	17	2.00	1.12	50	1	1.00	30	1.00	1.00
	1899	1899	37	1	1.00	20	2.00	1.10	58	1	1.00	27	1.00	1.00
	1903	1903	30	1	1.00	13	1.00	1.00	67	2	1.03	35	1.00	1.00
	1905	1903S	18	1	1.00	12	1.00	1.00	80	2	1.03	36	1.00	1.00
	1905	1905	18	1	1.00	12	1.00	1.00	80	2	1.03	36	1.00	1.00
	1909	1909	61	2	1.03	23	1.00	1.00	39	1	1.00	27	1.00	1.00
	1911	1911	60	1	1.00	30	1.00	1.00	40	1	1.00	20	1.00	1.00
Iowa	1876	1877	2	2	2.00	7	1	1.00	14	1	1.00	14.	1	1.00
	1878	1879	22	1	1.00	12	1	1.00	65	1	1.00	34	1	1.00
	1882	1877S	19	2	1.11	2	1	1.00	65	1	1.00	41	1	1.00
	1882	1883	20	2	1.10	2	1	1.00	65	1	1.00	41	1	1.00
	1884	1885	41	2	1.21	11	2	1.20	49	1	1.00	38	1	1.00

State	Election year	Seat starting year	Democrats						Republicans					
			House			Senate			House			Senate		
			Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
	1888	1889	27	2	1.16	11	1	1.00	56	3	1.07	29	1	1.00
	1890	1891	45	2	1.14	20	1	1.00	50	2	1.04	27	1	1.00
	1894	1895	18	2	1.12	22	1	1.00	75	1	1.00	60	1	1.00
	1900	1901	17	1	1.00	12	1	1.00	77	1	1.00	35	2	1.12
	1902	1901S	16	2	1.13	10	1	1.00	82	2	1.02	35	1	1.00
	1902	1903	16	2	1.13	10	1	1.00	81	2	1.02	35	1	1.00
	1907	1907	33	2	1.13	15	2	1.14	72	1	1.00	34	1	1.00
	1909	1909	24	1	1.00	15	2	1.14	77	1	1.00	33	1	1.00
	1913	1913	39	1	1.00	18	1	1.00	63	1	1.00	29	1	1.00
Kentucky	1869	1871	88	6	3.15	36	6	3.62	8	1	1.00	2	1	1.00
	1872	1873	34	1	1.00	34	2	1.06	3	1	1.00	3	1	1.00
	1876	1877	87	5	3.90	34	5	3.46	10	1	1.00	3	1	1.00
	1878	1879	84	3	2.75	37	3	2.82	14	2	1.15	1	1	1.00
	1881	1883	68	1	1.00	28	1	1.00	19	1	1.00	9	2	1.25
	1884	1885	85	4	3.10	33	3	2.98	8	3	1.68	0	-	-
	1888	1889	64	1	1.00	29	2	1.07	21	3	1.34	5	1	1.00
	1890	1889S	68	26	13.29	24	16	11.08	5	1	1.00	4	3	2.67
	1890	1891	61	1	1.00	18	1	1.00	7	1	1.00	3	1	1.00
	1894	1895	1	1	1.00	4	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	0	-	-
	1897	1897	7	1	1.00	m	m	m	2	1	1.00	m	m	M
	1900	1901	55	1	1.00	22	1	1.00	40	1	1.00	12	1	1.00
	1902	1903	72	2	1.03	23	1	1.00	22	1	1.00	11	1	1.00
	1906	1907	68	1	1.00	29	1	1.00	25	2	1.08	6	2	1.38
	1908	1909	47	2	1.04	20	4	1.37	48	1	1.00	14	1	1.00
	1912	1913	74	2	1.03	26	1	1.00	24	2	1.09	3	1	1.00
Maine	1875	1875	50	3	1.13	3	1	1.00	88	4	1.18	27	1	1.00
	1877	1877	29	1	1.00	2	1	1.00	112	2	1.02	26	1	1.00

State	Election year	Seat starting year	Democrats						Republicans					
			House			Senate			House			Senate		
			Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
	1877	1871S	29	1	1.00	2	1	1.00	112	2	1.02	26	1	1.00
	1881	1881	25	1	1.00	3	2	1.00	85	2	1.05	21	1	1.00
	1881	1877S	22	1	1.00	2	2	2.00	83	2	1.05	21	1	1.00
	1883	1883	23	2	1.09	0	-	-	107	2	1.02	27	1	1.00
	1887	1887	25	1	1.00	3	1	1.00	114	1	1.00	27	1	1.00
	1889	1889	25	2	1.08	0	-	-	121	2	1.02	29	1	1.00
	1893	1893	40	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	96	2	1.02	28	1	1.00
	1895	1895	M	M	M	0	-	-	M	M	M	27	1	1.00
	1899	1899	14	2	1.15	0	0	1.00	85	2	1.05	27	1	1.00
	1901	1901	14	2	1.15	1	1	1.00	106	1	1.00	24	1	1.00
	1905	1905	22	1	1.00	4	1	1.00	101	1	1.00	23	1	1.00
	1907	1907	61	2	1.07	6	1	1.00	85	2	1.02	23	1	1.00
	1911	1911	86	2	1.02	21	1	1.00	57	1	1.00	8	2	1.28
	1912	1907S	72	2	1.03	18	1	1.00	45	1	1.00	6	1	1.00
	1913	1913	75	2	1.03	10	1	1.00	71	3	1.09	21	1	1.00
Massachusetts	1871	1871	32	4	1.48	4	1	1.00	182	3	1.07	33	1	1.00
	1873	1871s	10	3	1.85	M	M	M	79	6	2.44	37	6	4.24
	1875	1875	74	3	1.21	14	1	1.00	142	7	2.23	25	4	1.78
	1877	1877	55	2	1.04	7	1	1.00	177	9	2.66	33	3	2.43
	1881	1881	45	5	1.38	3	1	1.00	183	3	1.24	34	1	1.00
	1883	1883	88	5	1.24	14	2	1.15	147	8	1.84	23	4	2.07
	1887	1887	74	4	1.09	6	1	1.00	150	4	2.92	15	3	2.10
	1889	1889	52	1	1.00	5	1	1.00	163	1	1.00	28	1	1.00
	1893	1893	44	1	1.00	9	1	1.00	118	2	1.02	29	1	1.00
	1895	1895	34	1	1.00	4	1	1.00	134	1	1.00	34	1	1.00
	1899	1899	62	1	1.00	7	1	1.00	154	2	1.01	31	1	1.00
	1901	1901	49	2	1.18	9	2	1.25	162	2	1.01	28	1	1.00
	1905	1901S	65	2	1.24	6	1	1.00	162	2	1.01	33	2	1.06

State	Election year	Seat starting year	Democrats						Republicans					
			House			Senate			House			Senate		
			Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
	1905	1905	65	1	1.00	6	1	1.00	162	2	1.01	33	1	1.00
	1907	1907	58	3	1.42	10	5	3.13	160	1	1.00	27	1	1.00
	1911	1911	110	3	1.04	14	1	1.00	125	4	1.18	26	2	1.17
	1913	1913	89	13	1.65	13	3	1.37	126	3	1.03	24	1	1.00
New Hampshire	1885	1885	118	2	1.09	m	m	m	175	3	1.04	M	m	M
	1887	1883S	134	2	1.06	m	m	m	164	2	1.06	M	m	M
	1889	1889	143	4	1.17	M	M	M	161	3	1.06	M	M	M
	1891	1891	157	3	1.05	m	m	m	184	2	1.11	M	m	m
	1895	1895	77	2	1.03	1	1	1.00	244	3	1.02	18	1	1.00
	1897	1897	58	2	1.19	2	1	1.00	259	1	1.00	21	1	1.00
	1901	1901	84	2	1.02	1	1	1.00	276	1	1.00	21	1	1.00
	1903	1903	120	2	1.09	2	1	1.00	217	2	1.01	16	1	1.00
	1907	1907	115	3	1.04	6	1	1.00	235	2	1.03	18	1	1.00
	1909	1909	104	2	1.02	4	1	1.00	238	2	1.01	18	1	1.00
	1913	1913	m	m	m	13	3	1.37	m	m	m	9	2	1.80
New Mexico	1913	1913	16	1	1.00	7	1	1.00	30	4	1.23	16	2	1.13
New York	1873	1873	27	2	1.08	5	1	1.00	91	1	1.00	22	3	1.20
	1875	1875	68	1	1.00	13	2	1.17	53	2	1.04	17	1	1.00
	1879	1879	20	1	1.00	12	1	1.00	96	2	1.04	19	1	1.00
	1881	1881	44	1	1.00	6	1	1.00	78	1	1.00	25	1	1.00
	1881	1879S	47	1	1.00	7	2	1.32	78	19	6.22	25	6	4.50
	1881	1881S	47	1	1.00	7	1	1.00	78	15	7.21	25	9	4.84
	1885	1885	51	1	1.00	12	1	1.00	74	2	1.03	19	1	1.00
	1887	1887	41	1	1.00	11	1	1.00	68	3	2.57	20	3	2.20
	1891	1891	65	1	1.00	13	1	1.00	57	1	1.00	19	1	1.00
	1893	1893	71	1	1.00	15	1	1.00	52	1	1.00	13	2	1.17

State	Election year	Seat starting year	Democrats						Republicans					
			House			Senate			House			Senate		
			Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
	1897	1897	34	3	1.20	13	2	1.35	110	1	1.00	35	1	1.00
	1899	1899	58	1	1.00	23	1	1.00	84	2	1.02	26	1	1.00
	1903	1903	56	1	1.00	21	2	1.21	85	1	1.00	28	3	1.45
	1905	1905	44	1	1.00	12	1	1.00	99	1	1.00	35	1	1.00
	1909	1909	31	2	1.07	14	1	1.00	89	1	1.00	35	1	1.00
	1911	1911	87	6	1.67	30	5	1.42	59	1	1.00	20	1	1.00
South Carolina	1898	1897S	48	1	1.00	9	1	1	0	-	-	0	-	-
	1901	1901	109	2	1.02	30	1	1.00	0	-	-	0	-	-
	1903	1903	108	1	1.00	35	1	1.00	0	-	-	0	-	-
	1907	1907	113	1	1.00	37	1	1.00	0	-	-	0	-	-
	1909	1909	113	1	1.00	38	1	1.00	0	-	-	0	-	-
	1913	1913	114	1	1.00	37	1	1.00	0	-	-	0	-	-
Texas	1881	1881	2	1	1.00	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1883	1883	1	1	1.00	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1887	1887	101	4	3.72	1	1	1.00	2	1	1.00	0	-	-
	1889	1889	96	1	1.00	2	1	1.00	3	1	1.00	0	-	-
	1892	1893	124	3	1.16	12	1	1.00	M	M	M	0	-	-
	1892	1887S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1895	1895	120	3	1.39	11	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	0	-	-
	1899	1899	124	4	1.18	7	1	1.00	M	M	M	0	-	-
	1901	1901	114	4	1.05	8	2	1.28	M	M	M	0	-	-
	1905	1905	123	1	1.00	10	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	0	-	-
	1907	1907	123	30	1.90	9	2	1.25	2	1	1.00	0	-	-
	1911	1911	118	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	7	7	7.00	0	-	-
	1913	1913	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
	1913	1913S	131	3	1.89	6	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	0	-	-

State	Election year	Seat starting year	Democrats						Republicans					
			House			Senate			House			Senate		
			Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
Vermont	1878	1879	42	3	1.21	1	1	1.00	164	3	1.12	28	3	1.16
	1880	1881	16	1	1.00	0	-	-	199	1	1.00	28	1	1.00
	1884	1885	25	2	1.47	2	1	1.00	174	5	1.10	28	2	1.07
	1886	1887	29	2	1.15	1	1	1.00	202	2	1.08	29	1	1.00
	1890	1891	57	2	1.07	1	1	1.00	158	1	1.00	25	1	1.00
	1892	1887S	35	2	1.06	0	-	-	189	2	1.01	28	1	1.00
	1892	1893	35	2	1.06	0	-	-	190	2	1.01	28	1	1.00
	1896	1897	15	1	1.00	0	-	-	212	2	1.01	30	1	1.00
	1898	1899	37	2	1.06	0	-	-	178	2	1.02	30	1	1.00
	1902	1903	46	2	1.29	4	1	1.00	164	1	1.00	24	1	1.00
	1904	1905	29	2	1.23	0	-	-	196	1	1.00	30	1	1.00
	1908	1905S	33	2	1.13	2	1	1.00	190	2	1.04	27	1	1.00
	1908	1909	36	2	1.12	2	1	1.00	194	2	1.01	27	1	1.00
1910	1911	44	1	1.00	0	-	-	176	3	1.02	29	1	1.00	
Wisconsin	1873	1873	26	2	1.08	8	1	1.00	61	2	1.07	19	1	1.00
	1879	1879	24	3	1.29	8	1	1.00	62	7	3.74	23	5	3.02
	1881	1881	20	1	1.00	9	2	1.25	75	3	1.06	23	1	1.00
	1885	1885	33	1	1.00	11	1	1.00	54	1	1.00	17	1	1.00
	1887	1887	27	1	1.00	5	1	1.00	55	1	1.00	25	1	1.00
	1891	1891	63	1	1.00	15	1	1.00	31	1	1.00	14	1	1.00
	1893	1893	50	47	44.64	25	25	25.00	42	1	1.00	7	1	1.00
	1897	1897	5	1	1.00	2	2	2.00	88	1	1.00	28	1	1.00
	1899	1899	17	1	1.00	2	1	1.00	79	5	4.18	31	5	3.77
	1903	1903	23	1	1.00	6	1	1.00	73	1	1.00	60	1	1.00
	1905	1905	12	2	1.18	3	1	1	78	1	1.00	23	2	1.19
1909	1909	15	1	1.00	m	m	m	64	5	1.17	m	m	M	
Wyoming	1895	1893S	2	1	1.00	4	2	1.60	33	1	1.00	14	1	1.00

State	Election year	Seat starting year	Democrats						Republicans					
			House			Senate			House #			Senate		
			Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates	Total votes	# cand. getting votes	Effective number of candidates
	1895	1895	2	1	1.00	3	1	1.00	33	1	1.00	14	1	1.00
	1901	1901	2	1	1.00	1	1	1.00	36	2	1.12	18	1	1.00
	1905	1905	2	1	1.00	4	1	1.00	45	2	1.05	19	1	1.00
	1907	1907	5	1	1.00	m	m	m	44	1	1.00	m	m	M
	1911	1911	27	1	1.00	7	1	1.00	28	1	1.00	17	1	1.00

m = data missing at present

B = Boycott of vote