

Judicial Politics and Sentencing Decisions[†]

By ALMA COHEN AND CRYSTAL S. YANG*

This paper investigates whether judge political affiliation contributes to racial and gender disparities in sentencing using data on over 500,000 federal defendants linked to sentencing judge. Exploiting random case assignment, we find that Republican-appointed judges sentence black defendants to 3.0 more months than similar nonblacks and female defendants to 2.0 fewer months than similar males compared to Democratic-appointed judges, 65 percent of the baseline racial sentence gap and 17 percent of the baseline gender sentence gap, respectively. These differences cannot be explained by other judge characteristics and grow substantially larger when judges are granted more discretion. (JEL D72, J15, J16, K41, K42)

In the United States, racial and gender disparities are prevalent in the criminal justice system. Black defendants receive significantly longer prison sentences than otherwise similar white offenders (United States Sentencing Commission 2012, Fischman and Schanzenbach 2012), with substantial across-judge variation in the racial sentencing gap (Abrams, Bertrand, and Mullainathan 2012). This racial disparity in sentencing decisions contributes to the fact that black defendants comprise a disproportionate fraction of the prison population relative to their proportion in the overall population (Carson and Sabol 2012). Similarly, male defendants are sentenced to substantially longer time in prison than female defendants even after accounting for arrest offense and criminal history (Mustard 2001, Starr 2015). These large racial and gender disparities have long been the subject of heated debate and thus, understanding the sources of these disparities is an important policy question.

Prior research has shown that Republican-appointed judges reach different outcomes compared to Democratic-appointed judges in a variety of settings (see Sunstein et al. 2006). In the context of criminal sentencing, Republican-appointed judges give longer sentences for the same crime compared to their Democratic-appointed counterparts (see Schanzenbach and Tiller 2007, 2008). However, virtually unexplored is the question of whether judges' political preferences are a source of the persistent and large disparities in federal criminal sentencing. In this study, we

*Cohen: Eitan Berglas School of Economics, Harvard Law School, Tel-Aviv University, 1525 Massachusetts Avenue, Griswold 305, Cambridge, MA 02138, NBER, and CEPR (email: alcohen@law.harvard.edu); Yang: Harvard Law School, 1525 Massachusetts Avenue, Griswold 301, Cambridge, MA 02138, and NBER (email: cyang@law.harvard.edu). We thank Sue Long and the Transactional Records Access Clearinghouse (TRAC) for their assistance in compiling and accessing data under our appointments as TRAC Fellows. We thank three anonymous referees and numerous seminar participants for helpful comments and suggestions. Molly Bunke and Michael Zhang provided excellent research assistance. All errors are our own.

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investigate whether the political affiliation of the appointing president (henceforth “judge political affiliation”) influences racial and gender gaps in sentencing decisions.

This question is of growing importance because of the increasing politicization of the federal judiciary where judges are appointed for lifetime terms, particularly among federal district court judges who “serve as the final arbiter of more than 99 percent of all federal court litigation” (Scherer 2005, Binder and Maltzman 2009, Wittes 2006). Today, the appointments process for lower court judges garners heightened interest, with senators regularly debating the qualification of nominees, such as whether nominees would bring with them ideological agendas or other disqualifying biases. Given the increasing politicization of the appointments process, the senate has confirmed fewer lower court judges by unanimous consent in recent years than it has historically. In addition, the average time from nomination to confirmation now exceeds several months (see Rutkus 2016), leading some to claim that “[j]udicial selection has been contentious at numerous junctures in US history, but seldom has it seemed more acrimonious and dysfunctional than in recent years” (Binder and Maltzman 2009).

Estimating the impact of judge political affiliation on sentencing decisions has been complicated by the lack of data linking judge identifiers to defendant characteristics and case outcomes. Prior research on the subject has almost exclusively relied on court-level variation in the percent of Democratic or Republican-appointed judges within a district court to study the impact of political affiliation on sentencing (see, e.g., Schanzenbach and Tiller 2007). However, relying on aggregate court-level variation can lead to biased estimates if courts with different compositions differ in ways that affect all judges in the district court, or if the partisan composition of a court is correlated with unobservables that affect sentencing. Using only court-level variation, one prior paper finds that racial disparities do not vary when a court is comprised of more Democratic-appointed judges (Schanzenbach 2015). A few papers employ small samples of defendants linked to sentencing judge to explore the impact of political affiliation on sentencing in the aggregate in the federal system. For example, Schanzenbach and Tiller (2008) links approximately 2,200 sentencing decisions to the assigned judge, finding that Republican-appointed judges give longer sentences for the same crime compared to their Democratic-appointed counterparts.

In this paper, we improve upon the prior literature by relying on individual judge-level variation in over half a million cases and controlling extensively for a full set of judge fixed effects to account for unobserved differences in sentencing across judges and prosecutors. Specifically, to investigate whether judge political affiliation affects disparities in sentencing, we build a new dataset linking federal sentencing data with judge information for defendants sentenced between 1999 and 2015. In our sample, we observe the sentencing practices of approximately 1,400 unique judges. Using this data, we analyze whether judge political affiliation can explain the large racial and gender disparities in sentencing. Intuitively, we compare how judges appointed by a Republican president (“Republican-appointed judges”) sentence black versus nonblack offenders, or female versus male offenders, relative to judges appointed by a Democratic president (“Democratic-appointed judges”).

The key assumption of our empirical design is that cases are randomly assigned to judges within the same district court, in particular to Republican-appointed versus Democratic-appointed judges. This assumption allows us to infer that any differences in disparities by political affiliation are not the product of differences in observed and unobserved case characteristics across judges. We document evidence consistent with random case assignment, finding that there is balance on a full set of observable case and defendant characteristics by judge characteristics such as race, gender, and political affiliation of the appointing president. As a result, any systematic differences in the sentencing outcomes of black versus nonblack offenders, or female versus male offenders, can be attributed to judge political affiliation rather than case selection.

In sharp contrast to the prior literature relying on court-level variation, we find economically meaningful and statistically significant evidence that judge political affiliation is a source of disparities in federal sentencing. We find that Republican-appointed judges give substantially longer prison sentences to black offenders versus observably similar nonblack offenders compared to Democratic-appointed judges within the same district court. The racial gap by political affiliation is 3.0 months, approximately 65 percent of the baseline racial sentence gap. We also find that Republican-appointed judges give female defendants 2.0 months less in prison than similar male defendants compared to Democratic-appointed judges, 17 percent of the baseline gender sentence gap.

These racial and gender gaps by judge political affiliation are largely driven by serious drug and violent offenses, and cannot be fully explained by other observable judge characteristics such as judge race, gender, former prosecutorial experience, or proxies for racial bias. However, we also find significant relationships between racial and gender gaps in sentencing and other judge traits. For example, we find that racial and gender gaps in sentencing are larger among less experienced judges, diminishing with more experience on the bench. We also find larger racial and gender gaps among judges who serve in courts from states with higher racial bias, which are disproportionately located in the South.

We next analyze whether differences in disparities by political affiliation are driven by individual judge preferences. Specifically, we test whether sentencing differences by political affiliation expand when judges are granted more discretion, and thus when they are freer to exhibit their preferences. We exploit plausibly exogenous variation in the timing of the Supreme Court's decision in *United States v. Booker*, which greatly increased judicial discretion by making the prior mandatory Federal Sentencing Guidelines advisory. We find that in the first few years after *Booker*, racial and gender disparities by judge political affiliation expand. Specifically, we find that the racial gap in sentence length by judge political affiliation doubles in magnitude post-*Booker*, with Republican-appointed judges sentencing blacks to 4.7 months longer in prison compared to similar nonblack defendants, relative to their Democratic-appointed colleagues, a statistically significant increase from the pre-*Booker* period. Importantly, however, the increase in the racial gap by political affiliation is due to Democratic-appointed judges reducing their sentencing of black versus nonblack offenders in the immediate aftermath of *Booker*, rather than Republican-appointed judges increasing their sentencing of black versus nonblack offenders post-*Booker*. While less statistically significant, we also find suggestive

evidence that gender disparities by political affiliation are larger after *Booker*, with Republican-appointed judges sentencing females to 1.8 fewer months than males compared to Democratic-appointed judges, a more than doubling of the gender gap prior to *Booker*. Yet, we also find that sentence gaps by political affiliation, in particular increases in gaps post-*Booker*, cannot be solely explained by differences in the willingness of Republican-appointed and Democratic-appointed judges to adhere to the guidelines, suggesting that gaps by political affiliation exist for reasons other than simply compliance with the guidelines.

Finally, we consider the possibility that decisions made largely by federal prosecutors may explain our results. Because prosecutorial discretion can lead to differential treatment of defendants prior to sentencing (Rehavi and Starr 2014), we consider whether our main findings can be accounted for by differential decisions made by prosecutors that affect sentence length. Accounting for the charging and application of mandatory minimums and the application of government-sponsored substantial assistance motions, we find that our main findings are not solely driven by prosecutorial discretion. A lower bound calculation on the effect of disparities in sentencing associated with political affiliation suggests an important role for judges, alongside prosecutors.

Overall, our findings suggest that judicial politics may be a source of the persistent racial and gender disparities in the federal criminal justice system, and that politics may play an even larger role today under the current state of increased sentencing discretion. These results indicate that the appointment of federal judges can have profound distributional effects on the criminal justice system, in particular because the federal criminal justice system is the source of the largest and fastest growing prison population (James 2013), with federal judges making tens of thousands of sentencing decisions a year. Our estimates suggest that a 10 percentage point increase in the share of Republican-appointed judges in each court would increase the racial sentencing gap by approximately 5 percent and the gender sentencing gap by roughly 2 percent. During an average four-year term, a Republican president has the potential to alter the partisan composition of the district courts by over 15 percentage points, potentially increasing the racial and gender sentencing gap by 7.5 and 3 percent, respectively.¹

Our paper contributes to a broad literature documenting the effects of judges' characteristics, including their political preferences, on their decisions.² Our paper is also related to a large literature on the presence of racial and gender disparities at

¹ According to the Brookings Institution, under reasonable assumptions about retirements and vacancies, the share of district court Republican appointees could increase from 34 percent of the judiciary in early 2017 to 50 percent by 2020. See <https://www.brookings.edu/blog/fixgov/2016/11/17/trump-lower-courts/>.

² See, e.g., Sunstein et al. (2006) and Epstein, Landes, and Posner (2013) for overviews of the literature, and a literature examining judge characteristics at the appellate level (e.g., Cox and Miles 2008; Chew and Kelley 2009) and trial court level (e.g., Schanzenbach and Tiller 2007; Tiede, Carp, and Manning 2010; Fischman and Schanzenbach 2012; Yang 2014; Kastellec 2016; and Lim, Silveira, and Snyder 2016). In particular, scholars have focused on the political affiliation of the appointing president, which reflects the policy preferences of judges (Cross and Tiller 1998; George 2001), with judges appointed by Republican presidents tending to be more conservative than judges appointed by Democratic presidents (Brudney, Schiavoni, and Merritt 1999; Gottschall 1986). In a related literature, scholars have studied the impact of judge race, gender, tenure, and family background on case outcomes (see, e.g., Gruhl, Spohn, and Welch 1981; Eisenberg and Johnson 1991; Ashenfelter, Eisenberg, and Schwab 1995; Glynn and Sen 2015).

various stages of the criminal justice process.³ Like prior work, we document the presence of both racial and gender disparities in federal sentencing, highlighting that these disparities emerge at both the fact-finding and sentencing stages of the criminal justice process. However, we build on this prior work by showing that judge political affiliation is a large source of these disparities, with implications for federal sentencing and the judicial appointments process.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section I provides a brief overview of the federal sentencing system. Section II describes our data and provides summary statistics. Section III describes our empirical strategy. Section IV presents our results, and Section V concludes.

I. Brief Background

A. Federal Judges

In the federal system, the judges that sentence criminal defendants are district court judges that are appointed by the president and confirmed by the senate. As of 2017, there are a total of 677 authorized federal district court judgeships among the 94 district courts, with the majority of district courts having between two and seven authorized judgeships.

New appointments are generally made when a judge retires, takes senior status, or dies, leaving a vacancy in a district court. Historically, district court appointments occurred quickly and without much controversy. However, in recent decades, these lower court judgeships have created substantial interest and concern given that these judges decide a wide range of issues and are appointed for lifetime terms (Rutkus 2016). Indeed, the nomination process for lower court judges has involved substantially more senate debate in recent years, in particular on whether nominees would be able to set aside any ideological biases, leading to a dramatic increase in the time from appointment to confirmation.

We follow the prior literature in using the most common measure of judge ideology in our preferred specifications: the political affiliation of the appointing president. A natural question may be whether the party of the appointing president is a good proxy for the political affiliation or ideology of the sentencing judge. Indeed, judicial appointments may be influenced not only by the president but also the Senate. In the United States, under the norm of senatorial courtesy, a senator of the same party as the president can exercise considerable influence on who is appointed to a judgeship. Nevertheless, prior researchers have found that in the context of federal district courts, the party of the appointing president is substantially correlated with other ideological proxies, such as the judge's own political affiliation or the political affiliation of same-party senators (see Epstein, Landes, and Posner 2013). In robustness checks, we explore the sensitivity of our results to alternative measures of judge ideology.

³ See, e.g., Antonovics and Knight (2009); Ayres and Waldfogel (1994); Rehavi and Starr (2014); Anwar, Bayer, and Hjalmarsson (2012); Abrams, Bertrand, and Mullainathan (2012); Alesina and La Ferrara (2014); Starr (2015); and Arnold, Dobbie, and Yang (2017).

B. Federal Sentencing Guidelines

Prior to the enactment of the Federal Sentencing Guidelines, federal judges had virtually unlimited discretion to sentence within broad statutory ranges of punishment. This large degree of discretion led to concerns about sentencing disparities (e.g., inter-judge, socioeconomic, and racial) and a lack of transparency in sentencing decisions (Frankel 1973). Some members of the public also argued that during this era of indeterminate sentencing, judges endangered public safety with lenient sentencing of offenders (Tonry 2005).

In order to reduce unwarranted sentencing disparities “among defendants with similar records who have been found guilty of similar criminal conduct” and to promote transparency and proportionality in sentencing, Congress created the United States Sentencing Commission (USSC) under the Sentencing Reform Act of 1984. The USSC, an independent agency located in the judicial branch of government, was charged with adopting and administering the Federal Sentencing Guidelines, which applied to all federal offenses committed after November 1, 1987.

Under the guidelines, each defendant is assigned to one of 43 offense levels and to 1 of 6 criminal history categories. The base offense level reflects the underlying severity of the crime. For instance, trespass offenses are assigned a base offense level of 4, while kidnapping is assigned a base offense level of 32. Adjustments are made to the base offense level for certain offense and defendant characteristics in order to obtain the final offense level. For example, adjustments are made based on characteristics such as the amount of loss involved in the offense, use of a firearm, and the age or condition of the victim. Further adjustments are made based on aggravating or mitigating factors, such as obstruction of justice or a defendant’s acceptance of responsibility. The criminal history category reflects the frequency and severity of a defendant’s prior criminal convictions, with points added for each prior offense. These points are then converted into a criminal history category that ranges from one to six. The combination of the final offense level and criminal history category yields a narrow guidelines recommended sentencing range.

Exploiting the random assignment of cases to judges, early work documented that the adoption of the guidelines reduced inter-judge sentencing disparities. Anderson, Kling, and Stith (1999) found that the difference in sentence length between two typical judges fell from 17 percent of the average sentence before the guidelines to 11 percent in the several years after the guidelines were implemented. However, many scholars criticized the adoption of the mandatory guidelines for shifting power to prosecutors in their charging and plea-bargaining decisions (see Stith and Cabranes 1998, Alschuler 1978, and Nagel and Schulhofer 1992).

For almost two decades, the guidelines were mandatory and a judge was only permitted to depart from the guidelines if there were recognized aggravating or mitigating circumstances. A judge departing from the guidelines sentencing range would also have to justify her reasons for departure to the appellate court. In *United States v. Booker*, decided in January of 2005, the Supreme Court held that the long-standing mandatory guidelines were unconstitutional under the Sixth Amendment. The Court ruled that the Sixth Amendment right to a jury trial requires that, other than a prior conviction, only facts admitted by a defendant or proved beyond a reasonable

doubt to a jury may be used to impose a sentence higher than the statutory maximum sentence. However, rather than invalidating the guidelines altogether, the Supreme Court held that the guidelines would be “effectively advisory,” as opposed to mandatory. The Court explained that “district courts, while not bound to apply the guidelines, must consult those guidelines and take them into account when sentencing.” Today, sentencing judges first calculate the recommended guidelines range but are free to vary or depart from the range. As a result, *Booker* greatly increased the degree of judicial discretion afforded to judges.

Subsequent Supreme Court cases further increased judicial discretion by reducing the degree of appellate review for sentencing decisions (*Rita v. United States*, *Gall v. United States*), and by explicitly allowing sentencing judges to impose sentences outside the recommended guidelines range because of policy disagreements with the USSC (*Kimbrough v. United States*). Since *Booker* and these subsequent cases were decided, researchers have found increases in both inter-judge sentencing disparities (Scott 2010, Yang 2014), as well as increases in racial disparities (USSC 2012, Fischman and Schanzenbach 2012, and Yang 2015).

C. Federal Criminal Justice Process

Following arrest and the filing of initial charges, each defendant’s case is assigned to a district court judge who presides over the trial, plea bargaining, and sentencing processes. In many courts, cases are randomly assigned to federal district court judges after charges are filed in order to “assure equitable distribution of caseloads and avoid judge shopping.”⁴ According to the Administrative Office of the US Courts, “[t]he majority of courts use some variation of a random drawing” as prescribed by local court orders.⁵

In the federal criminal justice system, prosecutors have enormous discretion in charging and plea bargaining. Because the identity of the judge is known to prosecutors during the plea-bargaining process, prosecutors can endogenously adapt their initial charges and/or plea offers to dictate the sentencing range by bargaining in the “shadow of the judge” (see, e.g., Lacasse and Payne 1999). We assess the potential contribution of prosecutors, rather than judges, to sentencing disparities in Section IVE.

Today, over 95 percent of criminal convictions are the result of guilty pleas. Once a plea deal is reached and accepted by a judge, the case is scheduled for sentencing. To assist the judge in sentencing, a probation officer prepares a document known as the presentence report (PSR), which contains detailed information on the offender’s background and history, as well as facts about the crime that are either stipulated to as part of the plea agreement or relevant to sentencing. The probation officer often conducts an interview with the defendant in order to collect information on the offense, related but uncharged criminal conduct, criminal history, personal history such as family and employment, and other issues that might be relevant to sentencing.

⁴ Administrative Office of the US Courts, Frequently Asked Questions: Federal Judges, available at <http://www.uscourts.gov/faqs-filing-case>.

⁵ See <http://www.uscourts.gov/faqs-filing-case>.

From this information, the probation officer also calculates the base and final offense levels, the defendant's criminal history category, and the applicable guidelines sentencing range. The prosecution and defense are both presented with a copy of this PSR prior to the sentencing hearing and permitted an opportunity to submit objections. Absent any objection, judges often directly follow the calculation of the criminal history category and final offense level prepared in the PSR and sentence the defendant accordingly. As documented by other scholars, however, the base and final offense levels may be endogenous if judges independently make findings of fact, such as drug weight or the use of a firearm, a phenomenon broadly known as "offense level manipulation" (Schanzenbach and Tiller 2008). In addition, other actors may engage in differential fact-finding depending on which judge is assigned to the case. For example, prosecutors may bargain with defense counsel over the facts of a case in order to apply an offense level adjustment under the guidelines, such as a mitigating role reduction in order to lower the recommended guidelines sentence (Schulhofer and Nagel 1997).

II. Data

A. Data Sources

This paper utilizes data from three sources: the United States Sentencing Commission (USSC), the Transactional Records Access Clearinghouse, and the Federal Judicial Center.

United States Sentencing Commission.—We use publicly available data from the USSC on records of all federal offenders sentenced in fiscal years 1999–2015 (October 1, 1998–September 30, 2015). These data include demographic, guidelines application, and sentencing information on federal defendants. This information is obtained from numerous documents on every offender such as the indictment, presentence report, plea agreement (if applicable), and judgment of conviction. However, judge identifiers are redacted in the USSC data.

Demographic variables include each defendant's race, gender, age, number of dependents, citizenship status, and educational attainment. Data is also provided on the primary offense type. Offense level variables include the base offense level and the final offense level after all adjustments. Criminal history variables include whether the defendant has a prior criminal record and the criminal history category.

Sentencing characteristics include the district court in which sentencing occurred (94 total) and the sentencing month and year.⁶ Data is also available on whether a case is settled by plea agreement or trial, probation length, and the amount of any fines imposed. In this paper, we rely on sentence length in months, including zeros, as our primary sentencing outcome. For sentence length, we top code at the first and ninety-ninth percentiles to remove the influence of outliers. Additional outcomes of interest include nongovernment-sponsored departures from the guidelines, the

⁶ USSC data prior to 2004 includes information on the exact sentencing day, but this variable is not available in later years.

application of mandatory minimums at sentencing, and the application of government-sponsored substantial assistance motions.

Transactional Records Access Clearinghouse.—We also use proprietary data from the Transactional Records Access Clearinghouse (TRAC), which provides sentencing data obtained through Freedom of Information Act requests. The data do not contain defendant demographics or guidelines application information, but defendants are linked to the sentencing judge. The TRAC data also provide basic information on the sentencing district, sentencing month and year, as well as the length of any probation and sentence imposed, and the amount of any fines imposed.

To link detailed defendant and crime characteristics to sentencing judge identifiers, we match sentencing records from the USSC to records provided by TRAC. Specifically, we match on district court, sentencing year, sentencing month, sentence length in months, probation length in months, amount of total monetary fines, whether the case ended by trial or plea agreement, and whether the case resulted in a life sentence. On the basis of these characteristics, we successfully match approximately 50 percent of all USSC cases from fiscal years 1999–2015.⁷ The final matched dataset consists of 546,916 cases during the sample period.

Because our matching variables are not always unique, particularly for cases that result in no term of imprisonment (sentences of zero), our matched sample is different in some dimensions from the full sample of USSC cases. Compared to unmatched cases, matched cases are more likely to be of defendants who received a longer prison sentence and those who received mandatory minimums. For example, in the full USSC data from 1999–2015, the average sentence length is 46.8 months, the average final offense level is 18.2, the average final criminal history is 2.4, and 26.8 percent of defendants have a mandatory minimum that applied at sentencing. In our matched dataset, the average sentence length is 59.0 months, the average final offense is 20.3, the average final criminal history is 2.5, and 31.4 percent of defendants have a mandatory minimum that applied at sentencing. In the full USSC data, 26.5 percent of cases are sentenced at the guidelines recommended minimum and 4.7 percent of cases are sentenced at the mandatory minimum, compared to 26.7 percent and 4.0 percent in the matched dataset, respectively. In terms of offense type, our matched dataset is also less likely to contain immigration offenses, which often carry no prison sentence (12.3 percent) compared to the full USSC data (26.5 percent). All our results are estimated on this matched sample, and thus our results should be interpreted with this sample in mind.

While the sample of cases in our matched dataset is skewed toward more serious cases, we also explicitly test for the underlying assumption in our empirical design: that there are no statistically significant differences in case and defendant characteristics across judges, in particular by judge political affiliation. We empirically explore this assumption in Section IIB.

⁷ We drop a small handful of cases heard by “visiting” judges, less than 0.5 percent of the sample.

Federal Judicial Center.—To obtain information on characteristics of each sentencing judge, we further match the USSC and TRAC linked data to judge biographical data from the Federal Judicial Center.⁸ From the Federal Judicial Center, we obtain information on judge race, gender, political affiliation of appointing president, commission year, birth year and region, and prior experience as a prosecutor. In our sample from 1999–2015, there are a total of 1,398 unique active judges. Among these judges, 43.8 percent were appointed by Democratic presidents, 82.2 percent are white, and 79.6 percent are male.

Table 1 presents summary statistics of the cases in our matched estimation sample. Column 1 presents summary statistics for cases assigned to Republican-appointed judges, column 2 presents summary statistics for cases assigned to Democratic-appointed judges, and column 3 presents summary statistics for the full estimation sample.

Panel A of Table 1 shows that in terms of offender characteristics, Republican-appointed judges are assigned very similar cases to Democratic-appointed judges. For example, 29.8 percent of defendants assigned to Republican-appointed judges are black and 28.7 percent of defendants assigned to Democratic-appointed judges are black. Similarly, 13.6 percent of defendants assigned to Republican-appointed judges are female and 13.5 percent of defendants assigned to Democratic-appointed judges are female. Republican and Democratic judges are also assigned defendants similar in age, rate of pleading guilty, number of dependents, US citizenship status, and educational attainment.

Panel B of Table 1 reveals a similar balance in terms of criminal history category, base offense level, and final offense level. Defendants assigned to Republican-appointed and Democratic-appointed judges have, on average, similar base offense levels, final offense levels, and criminal history category. Cases assigned to Republican-appointed judges have an average criminal history category of 2.6, base offense level of 18.8, and final offense level of 20.5, compared to 2.5, 18.3, and 20.0 for cases assigned to Democratic-appointed judges, respectively. In terms of our main outcome variable—sentence length—Republican-appointed judges give average sentences of 61.8 months compared to average sentences of 55.5 months given by Democratic-appointed judges.

Panel C of Table 1 presents summary statistics on other judge characteristics by judge political affiliation. In our sample, there are a total of 710 Republican-appointed judges and 688 Democratic-appointed judges. Panel C reveals that black judges are disproportionately appointed by Democratic presidents, with 14.5 percent of Democratic-appointed judges being black compared to 4.8 percent among Republican-appointed judges. Similarly, Democratic-appointed judges are more likely to be female, with 26.5 percent being female compared to 15.7 percent among Republican-appointed judges. However, Democratic and Republican-appointed judges are qualitatively similar in terms of age at appointment, judge tenure, background experience as a former prosecutor, and region of birth.

⁸The Federal Judicial Center does not collect demographic information on judges in three districts: Guam, Virgin Islands, and Northern Mariana Islands.

TABLE 1—SUMMARY STATISTICS

	Republican appointed (1)	Democratic appointed (2)	All judges (3)
<i>Panel A. Offender characteristics</i>			
Offender black	0.298 (0.458)	0.287 (0.452)	0.293 (0.455)
Offender female	0.136 (0.343)	0.135 (0.341)	0.136 (0.342)
Offender age	36.019 (11.171)	36.091 (11.218)	36.051 (11.192)
Guilty plea	0.941 (0.236)	0.943 (0.232)	0.942 (0.234)
Offender number of dependents	1.532 (1.707)	1.532 (1.720)	1.532 (1.713)
Offender noncitizen	0.232 (0.422)	0.261 (0.439)	0.245 (0.430)
High school	0.336 (0.472)	0.325 (0.468)	0.331 (0.471)
Some college	0.185 (0.389)	0.183 (0.387)	0.184 (0.388)
College	0.069 (0.253)	0.073 (0.261)	0.071 (0.256)
<i>Panel B. Case characteristics</i>			
Criminal history category	2.570 (1.793)	2.500 (1.774)	2.539 (1.785)
Base offense level	18.800 (10.229)	18.250 (10.164)	18.560 (10.204)
Final offense level	20.456 (8.958)	19.990 (8.795)	20.252 (8.890)
Sentence length (months)	61.790 (71.754)	55.532 (66.564)	59.046 (69.595)
<i>Panel C. Judge characteristics</i>			
Judge age	62.043 (9.223)	61.370 (9.094)	61.747 (9.174)
Judge tenure	13.593 (8.167)	11.693 (8.282)	12.760 (8.271)
Judge former prosecutor	0.066 (0.248)	0.062 (0.241)	0.064 (0.244)
Judge born in South	0.401 (0.490)	0.365 (0.482)	0.385 (0.487)
Judge black	0.048 (0.214)	0.145 (0.352)	0.091 (0.287)
Judge female	0.157 (0.363)	0.265 (0.442)	0.204 (0.403)
Observations	307,106	239,810	546,916

Notes: This table presents summary statistics on defendant characteristics, case characteristics, and judge characteristics, by political affiliation of judges' appointing president. Standard deviations are presented in parentheses.

B. Testing for Case Selection by Political Affiliation

In this section, we empirically test for whether there is random case assignment to Democratic versus Republican-appointed judges within each district court. As described previously in Section IC, cases are randomly assigned to federal district court judges after charges are filed in order to “assure equitable distribution of case-loads and avoid judge shopping.”

Because our paper tests whether judge political affiliation is a source of disparities in sentencing, we rely on the assumption that there are no significant differences in offender characteristics by judge political affiliation. If this assumption holds, we can attribute differences in sentence length disparities to political affiliation itself, rather than observable and unobservable characteristics that affect sentencing outcomes. In order to formally test this assumption, we regress individual judge characteristics on a full set of exogenous case characteristics.

Table 2 verifies that assignment of cases to sentencing judges is random after we condition on sentencing year and district court fixed effects. In columns 1 and 2, the dependent variable is an indicator for being assigned to a Republican-appointed versus Democratic-appointed judge. In columns 3 and 4, the dependent variable is judge tenure (number of years the judge has served on the bench). In columns 5 and 6, the dependent variable is an indicator for being assigned to a judge who was a former prosecutor. In columns 7 and 8, the dependent variable is an indicator for being assigned to a judge who is female. Each row in columns 1, 3, 5, and 7 displays the coefficient from running an ordinary least squares regression of each dependent variable on the defendant characteristic in that row. Columns 2, 4, 6, and 8 display the coefficients obtained from running the same specification controlling jointly for all defendant characteristics. Across each judge characteristic, we find that there is evidence consistent with random case assignment, with p -values of the joint F -test for each judge characteristic ranging from 0.26 to 0.68. These results indicate that any differences in racial or gender gaps in sentencing by political affiliation are unlikely to be due to differential case selection, but rather judge political affiliation.

III. Empirical Methodology

A. Estimation Specification

This paper estimates the impact of judge political affiliation on racial and gender disparities in sentencing. Intuitively, we compare how similar nonblack and black defendants (or female and male defendants) are sentenced based on whether they are assigned to a Democratic-appointed or Republican-appointed judge within the same district court.

Our preferred specification is of the form

$$(1) \quad Y_{ijtc} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{Republican}_{j(i)} + \beta_2 \times \text{Black}_i + \beta_3 \times \text{Female}_i \\ + \beta_4 \times \text{Republican}_{j(i)} \times \text{Black}_i + \beta_5 \times \text{Republican}_{j(i)} \times \text{Female}_i \\ + \mathbf{X}_i + \gamma_t + \sigma_j + \epsilon_{ijtc},$$

TABLE 2—TEST OF RANDOM CASE ASSIGNMENT TO JUDGES

	Republican		Tenure		Prosecutor		Female	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Offender black	0.004 (0.008)	−0.002 (0.008)	0.042 (0.127)	0.047 (0.133)	−0.001 (0.002)	−0.001 (0.002)	0.004 (0.005)	0.005 (0.005)
Offender female	−0.001 (0.003)	−0.003 (0.003)	−0.068 (0.048)	−0.068 (0.050)	−0.002 (0.001)	−0.002 (0.001)	0.005 (0.002)	0.004 (0.002)
Offender age	−0.000 (0.000)	−0.000 (0.000)	0.004 (0.002)	0.003 (0.002)	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)
Guilty plea	−0.003 (0.006)	−0.001 (0.006)	−0.080 (0.088)	−0.062 (0.083)	−0.001 (0.002)	−0.001 (0.002)	0.002 (0.004)	0.003 (0.004)
Offender number dependents	−0.001 (0.001)	−0.000 (0.001)	−0.001 (0.010)	−0.001 (0.000)	−0.001 (0.000)	−0.001 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)
Offender noncitizen	−0.022 (0.011)	−0.023 (0.009)	−0.081 (0.113)	−0.068 (0.098)	0.001 (0.002)	0.001 (0.002)	−0.002 (0.005)	0.002 (0.005)
High school	0.006 (0.004)	0.003 (0.004)	−0.003 (0.038)	0.016 (0.043)	0.000 (0.001)	−0.001 (0.002)	−0.001 (0.001)	0.002 (0.002)
Some college	0.001 (0.004)	−0.000 (0.005)	0.014 (0.052)	0.029 (0.066)	−0.002 (0.001)	−0.003 (0.002)	0.005 (0.002)	0.006 (0.004)
College	0.001 (0.005)	0.001 (0.007)	0.106 (0.099)	0.096 (0.128)	−0.001 (0.001)	−0.003 (0.002)	0.008 (0.004)	0.010 (0.005)
Observations	524,914		524,723		524,914		524,914	
R^2	0.139		0.101		0.214		0.097	
Joint F -test	[0.433]		[0.683]		[0.267]		[0.260]	

Notes: This table reports tests of random case assignment to judges. Each row in columns 1, 3, 5, and 7 display the coefficient from running an OLS regression of each dependent variable on the defendant characteristic in that row, controlling for sentencing year and district court fixed effects. Columns 2, 4, 6, and 8 display the coefficients obtained from running the same specification controlling jointly for all defendant characteristics. In columns 1 and 2, the dependent variable is an indicator for being assigned to a Republican versus Democratic judge. In columns 3 and 4, the dependent variable is the number of years the judge has served on the bench. In columns 5 and 6, the dependent variable is an indicator for being assigned to a judge who was a former prosecutor. In columns 7 and 8, the dependent variable is an indicator for being assigned to a judge who is female. The p -value reported at the bottom of columns 2, 4, 6, and 8 is for a F -test of the joint significance of the variables listed in the rows with the standard errors clustered at the district court level.

where Y_{ijtc} is the outcome of interest for defendant i sentenced by judge j in year t and district court c . $Republican_{j(i)}$ is an indicator variable for whether defendant i was sentenced by a Republican-appointed judge j . $Black_i$ is an indicator for whether the defendant i is black, where the omitted category is nonblack. In robustness checks presented in Section IVD, we explore comparisons between blacks, whites, and Hispanics. $Female_i$ is an indicator for whether the defendant i is female, where the omitted category is male.

The term \mathbf{X}_i comprises a vector of demographic characteristics including gender, age, age squared, whether the defendant pled guilty, number of dependents, education, and citizenship status. Note that \mathbf{X}_i also includes fixed effects for the most severe primary offense type and fixed effects for each criminal history category. In our preferred specification, we exclude any controls for base offense level and final offense level because of the possibility that offense level may be endogenous to the judge, as discussed previously.

Our preferred specification also includes sentencing year fixed effects (γ_t) and a full set of judge fixed effects (σ_j). These judge fixed effects capture time-invariant unobserved differences in sentencing across judges, and also control for differential

behavior of prosecutors/defense attorneys in response to the particular identity of the sentencing judge. Note that with the addition of a full set of judge fixed effects, $Republican_{j(i)}$ is unidentified. We also note that these judge fixed effects are collinear with district court fixed effects. All standard errors are bootstrap-stratified at the district court level given the case assignment process within courts.⁹

In this preferred specification, β_1 estimates the difference in the average sentences imposed by Republican-appointed versus Democratic-appointed judges for observably similar offenders; β_2 captures the presence of any baseline racial disparities in sentence length, and β_3 captures the presence of any baseline gender disparities in sentence length. The main coefficients of interest are β_4 , which estimates whether racial disparities in sentence length are different across Republican-appointed and Democratic-appointed judges, and β_5 , which estimates whether gender disparities in sentence length are different across Republican-appointed and Democratic-appointed judges.

IV. Results

A. Guidelines Fact-Finding

We begin by exploring the impact of judge political affiliation on guidelines fact-finding to assess whether there is differential fact-finding depending on the assigned judge. Table 3 presents the results of our main specification where the dependent variables are criminal history category, base offense level, and final offense level. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, and primary offense type fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

Column 1 of Table 3 reveals that black offenders have higher criminal histories than nonblack offenders, and that female offenders have lower criminal histories than otherwise similar male offenders. Older offenders have more extensive criminal histories than younger offenders. Offenders with more children, noncitizens, and more educated offenders have lower criminal histories than their counterparts. However, there is no economically meaningful or statistically significant difference in racial or gender differences in criminal history by judge political affiliation, consistent with prior work.

In contrast, we find statistically significant differences in racial gaps in base offense level (column 2) and final offense level (column 3) by judge political affiliation. Black defendants assigned to Republican-appointed judges have a 0.12 higher base offense level relative to nonblack defendants compared to black defendants assigned to Democratic-appointed judges, 0.6 percent of the mean base offense level of 18.6, suggesting that “offense level manipulation” may be endogenous to the sentencing judge. Black defendants assigned to Republican-appointed judges also have a 0.18 higher final offense level relative to nonblack defendants compared to black defendants assigned to Democratic-appointed judges, 0.8 percent of the mean final

⁹ Results are robust to clustering standard errors at the district court level.

TABLE 3—GUIDELINES FACT-FINDING

	Criminal history (1)	Base offense level (2)	Final offense level (3)
Offender black	0.706 (0.007)	0.307 (0.028)	0.641 (0.031)
Offender female	-0.770 (0.009)	-0.709 (0.033)	-2.054 (0.050)
Offender age	0.128 (0.001)	0.055 (0.003)	0.188 (0.004)
Offender age squared	-0.002 (0.000)	-0.001 (0.000)	-0.002 (0.000)
Guilty plea	-0.041 (0.008)	-1.908 (0.035)	-5.986 (0.046)
Offender number dependents	-0.024 (0.001)	0.109 (0.004)	0.112 (0.006)
Offender noncitizen	-0.794 (0.006)	0.536 (0.031)	-0.002 (0.027)
High school	-0.066 (0.005)	-0.159 (0.019)	-0.117 (0.019)
Some college	-0.554 (0.006)	-0.459 (0.024)	-0.422 (0.026)
College	-0.899 (0.008)	-0.587 (0.031)	-0.096 (0.044)
Judge age	0.013 (0.004)	0.134 (0.015)	0.226 (0.017)
Judge age squared	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.001 (0.000)	-0.001 (0.000)
Judge rep × offender black	0.010 (0.008)	0.120 (0.035)	0.176 (0.040)
Judge rep × offender female	-0.017 (0.011)	0.010 (0.043)	-0.017 (0.054)
Observations	524,717	523,620	524,717
R^2	0.276	0.746	0.49
Mean of dep. variable	2.539	18.560	20.252

Notes: This table presents OLS results for criminal history category and offense level. The dependent variable in column 1 is criminal history category (1–6), the dependent variable in column 2 is base offense level (1–43), and the dependent variable in column 3 is final offense level (1–43). Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, and primary offense type fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

offense level of 20.3. Given these findings, our preferred specification for sentence length excludes any control for base or final offense level. We also note that these results suggest that we are likely to underestimate the magnitude of true racial gaps in sentence length by judge political affiliation if we control for measures of offense severity.

B. Sentence Length

We now turn to our main results on sentence length in months. Our main outcome variable includes sentence lengths of zero and is winsorized at the 1 percent level.

Table 4 presents these results. In columns 1 and 2, we begin by presenting baseline results with district court fixed effects rather than judge fixed effects. In column 1, when controlling only for district court fixed effects, we find that on average, black offenders are sentenced to 4.8 months more in prison compared to similar nonblack offenders. Female offenders receive 12.1 fewer months compared to similar male offenders. Older offenders receive longer sentences than younger offenders and defendants who are non-US citizens receive longer sentences than US citizens. Defendants with more dependents receive longer sentences than defendants with fewer dependents. Defendants who plead guilty and defendants with higher education receive lower sentences than their respective counterparts. These results are largely consistent with the demographic differences reported in prior papers (see, e.g., Mustard 2001), although we note that our demographic results should be interpreted with caution as we are not controlling for any measure of offense severity given our findings from Table 3.

Column 1 also indicates that black judges impose lower sentences on average than nonblack judges and that judges with more years of experience on the bench impose slightly longer sentences relative to their less experienced counterparts. Regarding political affiliation, we find that controlling for defendant and case characteristics, Republican-appointed judges give defendants an average of 2.4 months longer in prison than Democratic-appointed judges, 4 percent of the mean sentence length. We also find that part of the racial and gender gaps in sentencing are driven by judge political affiliation. Our interaction of Republican judge and defendant race indicates that Republican-appointed judges give black offenders an additional 2.7 months in prison compared to nonblack offenders, relative to Democratic-appointed judges in the same district court, over half of the baseline racial sentence gap and 5 percent of the mean sentence length.¹⁰ We also find that, relative to Democratic-appointed judges, Republican-appointed judges give female offenders 1.8 fewer months in prison compared to males, 15 percent of the baseline gender gap in sentence length and 3 percent of the mean sentence length. These results are similar with the addition of final offense level fixed effects in column 2, although the magnitude of the estimates on the Republican judge indicator interacted with defendant race/gender is somewhat smaller with this control, likely due to our findings of “offense level manipulation” in Table 3.

Finally, in columns 3 and 4, we present our preferred specification from equation (1) where we control for a full set of judge fixed effects. Similar to our previous results, we find that Republican-appointed judges give black offenders an additional 3.0 months in prison compared to nonblack offenders, relative to Democratic judges in the same district court, 65 percent of the baseline racial gap. We also find that Republican judges give female offenders 2.0 fewer months in prison compared to males, relative to Democratic judges, 17 percent of the baseline gender gap. With

¹⁰ Republican-appointed judges also sentence black defendants more harshly relative to Democratic-appointed judges compared to nonblack defendants when the coefficients from Table 4 are expressed relative to race-specific baselines. Relative to the unconditional mean sentence for nonblack defendants (52 months), Republican-appointed judges sentence nonblack defendants to 4.6 percent longer sentences compared to Democratic-appointed judges. Relative to the unconditional mean sentence for black defendants (79 months), Republican-appointed judges sentence black defendants to 6.6 percent longer sentences compared to Democratic-appointed judges.

TABLE 4—SENTENCE LENGTH IN MONTHS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Offender black	4.811 (0.272)	3.313 (0.237)	4.562 (0.297)	3.537 (0.149)
Offender female	-12.056 (0.245)	-4.211 (0.150)	-11.803 (0.253)	-4.154 (0.169)
Offender age	0.807 (0.040)	0.220 (0.022)	0.791 (0.037)	0.231 (0.018)
Offender age squared	-0.009 (0.000)	-0.003 (0.000)	-0.008 (0.000)	-0.003 (0.000)
Guilty plea	-72.307 (0.580)	-24.400 (0.243)	-71.855 (0.500)	-24.281 (0.331)
Offender number dependents	0.870 (0.051)	-0.170 (0.033)	0.880 (0.045)	-0.175 (0.025)
Offender noncitizen	5.305 (0.225)	2.036 (0.138)	5.546 (0.210)	2.225 (0.129)
High school	-1.301 (0.156)	-0.711 (0.161)	-1.313 (0.197)	-0.689 (0.083)
Some college	-3.109 (0.207)	-2.271 (0.130)	-3.270 (0.191)	-2.241 (0.079)
College	-3.124 (0.231)	-3.995 (0.182)	-3.256 (0.267)	-3.842 (0.288)
Judge age	0.377 (0.075)	-0.117 (0.035)	0.816 (0.154)	-0.472 (0.054)
Judge age squared	-0.003 (0.001)	0.001 (0.000)	-0.005 (0.001)	0.002 (0.000)
Judge tenure	0.032 (0.014)	-0.040 (0.009)		
Judge former prosecutor	-0.670 (0.299)	-0.232 (0.200)		
Judge born in South	-0.202 (0.242)	0.050 (0.124)		
Judge black	-0.773 (0.322)	-0.361 (0.148)		
Judge female	0.311 (0.191)	0.142 (0.127)		
Judge rep	2.423 (0.176)	1.567 (0.136)		
Judge rep × offender black	2.749 (0.303)	1.708 (0.265)	3.018 (0.348)	1.624 (0.080)
Judge rep × offender female	-1.829 (0.318)	-1.511 (0.166)	-2.047 (0.294)	-1.671 (0.240)
Observations	524,266	524,266	524,266	524,266
R ²	0.427	0.774	0.436	0.778
Court fixed effects?	Yes	Yes	No	No
Judge fixed effects?	No	No	Yes	Yes
Final offense level fixed effects?	No	Yes	No	Yes

Notes: This table presents OLS results where the dependent variable is sentence length in months winsorized at the top and bottom 1 percent. Each regression controls for sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Columns 1 and 2 control for district court fixed effects. Columns 3 and 4 control for judge fixed effects. Columns 2 and 4 add final offense level fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

the addition of final offense level fixed effects in column 4, we find that Republican-appointed judges give black offenders an additional 1.6 months in prison compared to nonblack offenders, and female offenders 1.7 months less than male offenders, relative to Democratic judges. Overall, these results suggest that Republican-appointed judges exhibit larger racial and gender disparities in sentencing compared to Democratic-appointed judges.

Next, we explore the potential for judges to exhibit differential sentencing behavior due to other judge characteristics, rather than political affiliation *per se*. For example, Republican-appointed judges are more likely to be male. If male judges are more likely to give fewer months in prison to female defendants compared to male defendants, this could explain our main finding that Republican-appointed judges exhibit smaller gender disparities than Democratic-appointed judges. Similarly, Republican-appointed judges are more likely to be white. If white judges impose higher sentence lengths for black defendants compared to nonblack defendants, judge race may explain our previous finding that Republican-appointed judges exhibit larger racial disparities than their Democratic-appointed counterparts.

In Table 5, we test for the impact of other judge or court characteristics on racial and gender disparities in sentencing. Specifically, we test for the impact of judge race, judge gender, judge experience as a prosecutor, judge tenure as measured by years of experience,¹¹ and a measure of racial bias in the court. In each column of Table 5, we add double interactions between the additional judge/court characteristic and defendant race and defendant gender, in addition to triple interactions between the judge/court characteristic, judge political affiliation, and defendant race and defendant gender.

We continue to find, even after controlling for these judge characteristics, that there is a large and significant effect of judge political affiliation on racial and gender gaps in sentencing. As before, Republican-appointed judges exhibit larger racial and gender disparities compared to Democratic-appointed judges, and the magnitudes of these effects are almost identical to those in our main results (Table 4). These results suggest that other judge characteristics correlated with political affiliation are unlikely to explain our main findings.

However, we also find some evidence that other judge characteristics impact racial and gender gaps in sentencing. For example, black judges exhibit smaller gender disparities than white judges (column 1 of Table 5). In addition, black Republican-appointed judges exhibit smaller racial disparities than other Republican-appointed judges, with the effect largely offsetting the main racial gap by judge political affiliation. We also find that female judges exhibit smaller racial disparities compared to male judges, although they do not differ significantly by political affiliation (column 2). Judges with former experience as a prosecutor show smaller gender disparities, and if Republican-appointed, also exhibit smaller racial disparities that largely offset the main racial gap by judge political affiliation (column 3).

¹¹ In these tenure results, we limit cases to a balanced panel of judges with at least ten years of experience who we can observe in the first five years of experience. Given the time span of our study and the life tenure of district court judges, the majority of cases in our sample are decided by judges with at least ten years of experience on the federal bench.

TABLE 5—SENTENCE LENGTH CONTROLLING FOR OTHER JUDGE AND COURT CHARACTERISTICS

<i>Judge/court characteristic:</i>	Black (1)	Female (2)	Prosecutor (3)	Tenure (4)	Racial bias (5)
Offender black	4.488 (0.296)	4.964 (0.315)	4.539 (0.290)	10.943 (0.575)	4.434 (0.297)
Offender female	−11.986 (0.234)	−11.902 (0.274)	−11.912 (0.251)	−13.068 (0.651)	−10.959 (0.257)
Judge rep × offender black	3.264 (0.336)	3.016 (0.407)	3.396 (0.360)	1.643 (1.162)	2.567 (0.389)
Judge rep × offender female	−2.096 (0.292)	−2.024 (0.406)	−2.180 (0.337)	−2.784 (0.947)	−1.881 (0.282)
Judge char × offender black	0.432 (0.745)	−1.492 (0.557)	0.329 (0.951)	−0.580 (0.049)	3.519 (0.416)
Judge char × offender female	2.912 (0.571)	0.384 (0.493)	1.772 (0.840)	0.092 (0.062)	−1.605 (0.339)
Judge rep × judge char × offender black	−3.695 (1.503)	−0.984 (0.835)	−4.732 (1.018)	−0.332 (0.162)	0.490 (0.531)
Judge rep × judge char × offender female	0.937 (1.095)	0.084 (0.885)	2.014 (1.039)	0.252 (0.114)	−2.121 (0.297)
Observations	524,266	524,266	524,266	246,484	492,764
R^2	0.436	0.436	0.436	0.430	0.437

Notes: This table presents OLS results where the dependent variable is sentence length in months winsorized at the top and bottom tenure (limited to a balanced panel of judges with at least ten years of experience who we can observe in the first five years of experience), and column 5 controls for the racial bias of the district court using a classification of states (low, medium, and high racial bias) developed by Mas and Moretti (2009). Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

These results suggest that the appointment of more diverse judicial candidates could lead to lower disparities in sentencing.

Column 4 of Table 5 shows that judge tenure also has a significant effect on disparities, with more experienced judges exhibiting smaller racial and gender gaps compared to less experienced judges. In other words, with greater experience on the bench, Republican-appointed and Democratic-appointed judges become more similar in their sentencing patterns. These results suggest that judges may learn with experience (see Epstein et al. 1998; Kaheny, Haire, and Benesh 2008), potentially from their peers, and/or that the impact of the political affiliation of the appointing president may dissipate over time, perhaps because any “loyalty” effect diminishes when the appointing president is no longer in office (Sharma and Glennon 2013, Epstein and Posner 2016).

In column 5, we control for the degree of racial bias in each district court. We follow Mas and Moretti (2009), who measure racial bias in a state based on the proportion of white respondents who answer affirmatively to a question about support for laws against anti-interracial marriage from the General Social Survey. We use Mas and Moretti’s (2009) classification of states into low, medium, and high racial bias groupings, with Southern states overrepresented in the high racial bias group. We find that judges in higher racial bias states exhibit substantially larger racial disparities and gender disparities than judges in other states. These results are roughly consistent with Alesina and La Ferrara (2014) who find that racial bias in capital sentencing is driven exclusively by capital sentences from Southern states.

Tables 6 and 7 present subsample results. In Table 6, we present our main results by primary offense type for the most common federal offenses. We find evidence that gender disparities by political affiliation are largely driven by violent offenses and drug offenses. We also find that racial disparities by political affiliation are largely driven by drug offenses. In Table 7, we divide the sample of cases by various measures of offense severity. In columns 1 and 2, we follow Schanzenbach (2015) and divide our sample into categories of more serious crimes (e.g., violent offenses, sex crimes, drug trafficking, firearms), which have substantially higher sentences, and less serious crimes. We find evidence of racial and gender disparities by political affiliation across both subsample splits, but the magnitudes of the gaps are twice as large among the more serious offenses. In columns 3 and 4 of Table 7, we divide our sample into offenses that fall within zones A, B, and C of the guidelines grid, which recommend lower sentences, and offenses that fall within zone D, which recommends higher sentences and requires that the minimum term must be served in prison. We find evidence that while racial and gender disparities by political affiliation are present in cases in all zones, the gaps are largest among the most severe cases that fall within zone D.

C. Increased Judicial Discretion

In this next section, we further explore whether racial and gender disparities driven by judge political affiliation are the result of judge-specific preferences. Specifically, if these disparities in sentencing by political affiliation reflect preferences, we might expect to see larger or more pronounced differences when judges are given more discretion. Recall that prior to 2005, the Federal Sentencing Guidelines were mandatory, such that judges were generally constrained to the sentence length recommended by the intersection of the offense level and criminal history. The Supreme Court's January 2005 decision in *Booker* rendered the guidelines advisory, such that judges could sentence outside of the guidelines-recommended range. As a result, one might expect judges to be more free in exhibiting their true sentencing preferences in the aftermath of *Booker*. Indeed, the rate of departures from the guidelines-recommended range increased sharply in the aftermath of *Booker* (USSC 2012, Yang 2014).

Table 8 presents these results limiting our sample to defendants sentenced between 2002 and 2008 to explore the immediate effects of *Booker*, prior to subsequent cases that further increased judicial discretion. We focus on this more narrow time span to limit the possibility of compositional changes in offense severity over time given that we do not control for any measure of offense level severity in our preferred specifications. In column 1 of Table 8, we present results from our main specification using cases decided before *Booker* (2002–2005), and in column 2, we present results using cases decided after *Booker* (2005–2008). Column 3 reports *p*-values of the differences in the coefficients between columns 1 and 2. In all specifications, we control for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects.

In the sample of cases decided before *Booker* (column 1), we find that in general, black defendants are sentenced to 7.3 additional months compared to observably similar nonblack defendants. We also find evidence that Republican-appointed and Democratic-appointed judges exhibit different racial gaps in sentencing, with

TABLE 6—SENTENCE LENGTH BY OFFENSE TYPE

	Violent (1)	Drugs (2)	Firearms (3)	Property (4)	Immigration (5)	Sex (6)	White collar (7)
Offender black	7.327 (1.409)	5.089 (0.463)	7.591 (0.715)	0.558 (0.712)	0.102 (0.521)	-8.303 (4.895)	-1.959 (0.308)
Offender female	-16.822 (1.549)	-20.091 (0.405)	-19.905 (1.446)	-2.253 (0.489)	-4.785 (0.475)	-3.342 (9.812)	-5.599 (0.240)
Judge rep × offender black	1.348 (1.770)	3.872 (0.643)	0.146 (0.959)	1.476 (1.060)	0.584 (0.780)	-0.391 (5.830)	0.408 (0.473)
Judge rep × offender female	-4.626 (2.100)	-1.576 (0.605)	1.176 (1.940)	-0.876 (0.661)	-0.257 (0.641)	1.521 (11.328)	-0.432 (0.341)
Observations	27,650	194,724	74,850	16,069	61,319	17,075	101,577
R^2	0.455	0.410	0.346	0.406	0.421	0.328	0.260

Notes: This table presents OLS results where the dependent variable is sentence length in months winsorized at the top and bottom 1 percent. Column 1 includes violent crimes such as murder, manslaughter, kidnapping, sexual abuse, assault, and bank robbery. Column 2 includes drug crimes. Column 3 includes firearms offenses. Column 4 includes theft and larceny offenses. Column 5 includes immigration offenses. Column 6 includes sex offenses such as child pornography. Column 7 includes white collar offenses. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

TABLE 7—SENTENCE LENGTH BY OFFENSE SEVERITY

	Less serious (1)	More serious (2)	Zone A, B, and C (3)	Zone D (4)
Offender black	-1.049 (0.233)	6.508 (0.351)	0.511 (0.079)	5.086 (0.357)
Offender female	-5.191 (0.179)	-21.179 (0.447)	-0.993 (0.066)	-15.739 (0.304)
Judge rep × offender black	0.947 (0.313)	2.077 (0.505)	0.270 (0.140)	3.046 (0.470)
Judge rep × offender female	-0.442 (0.237)	-1.163 (0.599)	-0.439 (0.087)	-1.423 (0.466)
Observations	215,116	309,150	96,089	428,364
R^2	0.327	0.359	0.200	0.380

Notes: This table presents OLS results where the dependent variable is sentence length in months winsorized at the top and bottom 1 percent. Column 1 includes less serious offenses with lower guidelines sentences following Schanzenbach (2015) as described in the main text. Column 2 includes the remaining more serious offenses. Column 3 includes cases with guidelines sentences in zones A, B, and C. Column 4 includes cases with guidelines sentences in zone D. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

Republican-appointed judges issuing sentences that are 2.4 months longer for black defendants relative to nonblack compared to their Democratic-appointed counterparts. In contrast, we find more limited evidence of differences in gender disparities by judge political affiliation in this pre-*Booker* period.

Among cases decided after *Booker* (column 2), racial and gender disparities by judge political affiliation expand relative to pre-*Booker*. According to column 2, Republican-appointed judges sentence black defendants to 4.7 months longer in prison relative to nonblacks compared to their Democratic counterparts in the

TABLE 8—SENTENCE LENGTH—BOOKER

	Before <i>Booker</i> (1)	After <i>Booker</i> (2)	<i>p</i> -value (3)
Offender black	7.286 (0.595)	3.827 (0.701)	0.000
Offender female	-12.867 (0.470)	-12.581 (0.533)	0.693
Judge rep × offender black	2.403 (0.921)	4.731 (0.942)	0.080
Judge rep × offender female	-0.837 (0.652)	-1.771 (0.750)	0.357
Observations	100,437	120,250	
R^2	0.461	0.456	

Notes: This table presents OLS results where the dependent variable is sentence length in months winsorized at the top and bottom 1 percent. The before *Booker* sample includes cases sentenced from the beginning of 2002 to January 11, 2005. The after *Booker* sample includes cases sentenced from January 12, 2005 to the end of 2008. Column 3 presents *p*-values of the difference in the coefficients between column 1 and column 2. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

post-*Booker* period, a doubling of the gap prior to *Booker*. The difference in this racial gap by political affiliation across the two time periods is statistically significant (p -value = 0.08). Importantly, the increase in the racial gap by political affiliation is due to Democratic-appointed judges reducing their sentencing of black versus nonblack offenders in the immediate aftermath of *Booker* (p -value = 0.000), rather than Republican-appointed judges increasing their sentencing of black versus nonblack offenders post-*Booker*. Gender disparities by political affiliation are also larger and highly significant after *Booker*, with Republican-appointed judges sentencing females to 1.8 months less than males compared to Democratic-appointed judges, a 111 percent increase from the gender gap prior to *Booker*, although the difference across the two time periods is not statistically significant (p -value = 0.36). These results indicate that disparities by judge political affiliation, in particular racial disparities, are larger after judges are granted substantially more discretion after *Booker*. Our evidence is consistent with the hypothesis that judges may learn to sentence more consistently under the constraining effect of the mandatory guidelines. In a world in which the guidelines are simply advisory, disparities by judge political affiliation expand.¹²

In Appendix Tables A1 and A2, we also explore whether sentence disparities by judge political affiliation are driven by differences in the propensity of Republican-appointed versus Democratic-appointed judges to depart or vary from the guidelines. In Appendix Table A1, we find that black offenders are less likely to receive

¹² Recall that we also find that as judges become more experienced, they converge in their sentencing of different offenders (Table 5). In unreported results, we find that judge tenure has a smaller impact on convergence in sentencing outcomes when judges are granted more discretion after *Booker*, potentially because the guidelines have less of a constraining effect when they become advisory.

nongovernment sponsored below range departures (excluding substantial assistance motions) and more likely to receive above range departures (defined as receiving a sentence above the top of the recommended guidelines range) relative to similar nonblack offenders. In contrast, female offenders are much more likely to receive below range departures and less likely to receive above range departures relative to similar male offenders. However, in terms of racial and gender gaps in departures, we find minimal evidence of any substantial differences depending on whether the defendant is assigned to a Republican-appointed judge or Democratic-appointed judge, although Republican-appointed judges are slightly less likely to issue an above range departure for black and female offenders. In Appendix Table A2, we find that racial gaps in below and above range departures are larger post-*Booker* but that there is no significant change by judge political affiliation before and after *Booker*. These results suggest that our main findings on sentence length are not driven solely by differences in the propensity of Republican-appointed and Democratic-appointed judges to adhere to the guidelines, either before or after increases in judicial discretion.

D. *Robustness to Alternative Specifications*

Table 9 presents a series of robustness checks for our main results. Column 1 excludes immigration offenses, which often carry no prison sentence. Column 2 excludes a small subset of life sentences. Column 3 excludes border districts, which disproportionately use “fast-track” or early disposition programs for low-level immigration and drug offenses.¹³ We find very similar evidence of racial and gender disparities by political affiliation under these sample restrictions. In column 4, we use standardized sentence length as a dependent variable following Rhodes et al. (2015), where sentence length is normalized by the mean and standard deviation of sentence length in each guidelines cell for each sentencing year. We continue to find evidence that Republican-appointed judges exhibit larger racial and gender gaps in standardized sentences compared to Democratic-appointed judges.

In columns 5 and 6, we use alternative measures of judge ideology in the literature. Column 5 measures judge ideology using the judicial common space score from Bonica and Sen (2017). Column 6 measures judge ideology using the imputed common-space CFscore by Bonica and Sen (2017), computed using data on political contributions from the Database on Ideology, Money in Politics, and Elections. Both alternative measures of ideology are highly correlated with the political affiliation of the appointing president. Under both alternative proxies for judge ideology, we continue to find that more conservative judges exhibit larger racial and gender disparities relative to more liberal judges within the same court. Finally, in column 7, we present our preferred specification controlling for district court fixed effects interacted with the black offender indicator to account for any unobserved time-invariant inter-court differences in racial gaps in sentencing. We find very similar evidence of racial and gender gaps in sentencing by judge political affiliation.

¹³ Border districts include Southern District of California, District of Arizona, District of New Mexico, Western District of Texas, and Southern District of Texas.

TABLE 9—ROBUSTNESS TESTS

	Excluding immigration offenses (1)	Excluding life sentences (2)	Excluding border districts (3)	Sentence z-score (4)	Common space scores (5)	Political contribution scores (6)	Dist × black FE (7)
Offender black	4.044 (0.236)	4.689 (0.280)	4.071 (0.290)	0.104 (0.005)	6.036 (0.163)	5.688 (0.200)	
Offender female	-11.841 (0.239)	-11.624 (0.237)	-11.836 (0.260)	-0.239 (0.006)	-12.784 (0.179)	-12.687 (0.222)	-12.582 (0.430)
Judge rep × offender black	2.628 (0.370)	3.085 (0.399)	3.426 (0.435)	0.024 (0.007)	2.155 (0.258)	2.542 (0.280)	1.826 (0.514)
Judge rep × offender female	-2.470 (0.360)	-2.067 (0.266)	-2.152 (0.294)	-0.016 (0.007)	-1.538 (0.225)	-1.667 (0.236)	-1.669 (0.522)
Observations	462,947	521,423	452,004	524,017	523,918	506,777	506,777
R ²	0.430	0.435	0.443	0.117	0.436	0.436	0.438

Notes: This table presents robustness checks for our main results. Column 1 uses sentence length as a dependent variable but excludes immigration offenses. Column 2 uses sentence length as a dependent variable but excludes life sentences. Column 3 uses sentence length as a dependent variable but excludes border districts. Column 4 uses a standardized sentence length as a dependent variable, which is normalized by the mean and standard deviation in each guidelines cell in each sentencing year. Column 5 uses sentence length as a dependent variable and measures judge ideology using the judicial common space score from Bonica and Sen (2017). Column 6 uses sentence length as a dependent variable and measures judge ideology using the imputed common-space CFscore computed using data on political contributions from the Database on Ideology, Money in Politics, and Elections by Bonica and Sen (2017). Column 7 controls for district court-by-black fixed effects. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

In Appendix Table A3, we also test the robustness of our results to alternative comparisons of defendant race. In our main results, we compare black offenders to all white and nonblack offenders, including those who are of Hispanic ethnicity. In Appendix Table A3, we present alternative measures of racial disparities by comparing blacks to Hispanics, blacks to non-Hispanic whites, and Hispanics to non-Hispanic whites. Interestingly, we find that racial gaps by political affiliation are present regardless of the comparison group by which black offenders are measured against (columns 1 and 2), but that there are no significant gaps in the sentencing of Hispanics versus non-Hispanic whites by judge political affiliation (column 3), although Hispanic defendants receive longer sentences on average than whites (Yang 2015, McConnell and Rasul 2016). These results suggest that black offenders are treated differently relative to both non-Hispanic whites and Hispanics by Republican-appointed judges compared to Democratic-appointed judges.

E. Accounting for Prosecutorial Discretion

Because prosecutors have an enormous amount of discretion in the criminal justice system, we also consider whether our main findings can be accounted for by differential decisions made by prosecutors that might affect sentence length. In particular, we consider three important decision margins made largely by prosecutors, although in combination with judges. First, we assess whether a mandatory minimum applies at sentencing given that this decision yields large racial disparities (Rehavi and Starr 2014). A mandatory minimum applies at sentencing to the extent that prosecutors have charged a mandatory minimum and judges have made

findings of fact that trigger a mandatory minimum (such as drug weight or use of a firearm). Second, we assess whether a mandatory minimum binds the guidelines recommended range such that the length of the mandatory minimum sentence exceeds the lower end of the guidelines recommended range. Finally, we assess whether the government has applied a substantial assistance departure on the basis of significant cooperation of the defendant with the government, a decision that could result in a sentence below an applicable mandatory minimum (see Fischman and Schanzenbach 2012, Yang 2015).

Appendix Table A4 regresses each of these three decisions on our preferred set of controls, and our interactions between defendant race/gender and judge political affiliation. Consistent with prior research, we find that mandatory minimums, including binding mandatory minimums, are more likely to apply at sentencing against observably similar black defendants compared to nonblack defendants and less likely to apply to female offenders relative to male offenders. In contrast, prosecutors are significantly less likely to offer substantial assistance motions to black defendants relative to nonblack defendants, while they are more likely to offer substantial assistance motions to female defendants relative to male defendants. In column 1, we also find some evidence that the racial gap in the application of mandatory minimums is slightly larger for Republican-appointed judges compared to Democratic-appointed judges (0.8 percentage points relative to a mean of 31.2 percentage points), potentially because Republican-appointed judges may be more likely to find facts that invoke the application of a mandatory minimum at sentencing. In column 2, we find no difference by political affiliation in racial or gender gaps in the application of a guidelines-binding mandatory minimum, our preferred charging measure given that guidelines-binding mandatory minimums (compared to nonbinding mandatory minimums) more directly affect and limit the sentence that a judge can impose. We also find in column 3 that the racial gap in substantial assistance motions is slightly smaller for Republican-appointed judges compared to Democratic-appointed judges (0.4 percentage points relative to a mean of 17.7 percentage points), which might lead us to underestimate the true racial sentencing gap by judge political affiliation.

To explore how much the application of a mandatory minimum could explain our main findings, we calculate an upper bound effect of a mandatory minimum on sentence length for black offenders sentenced by Republican-appointed judges. To do so, we regress sentence length on our preferred set of controls and the full set of interactions between our mandatory minimum indicator, offender race/gender, and judge political affiliation. In unreported results, we find that a mandatory minimum is associated with an increased sentence of 81.0 months for black offenders sentenced by Republican-appointed judges in the full estimation sample and 59.2 months among drug offenses, which drive our main results.

Under the assumption that the average OLS estimate of a mandatory minimum is at least as large as the true causal effect of a mandatory minimum, our estimates suggest that racial gaps in the application of a mandatory minimum can explain at most a 0.47–0.65 month racial gap in sentence length by political affiliation. We note that this magnitude is substantially smaller than the main effect of 3.0 months we find in Table 4. In sum, this calculation suggests that our main findings are not

solely driven by prosecutorial discretion and that judges play an important role in explaining disparities in sentencing.

V. Conclusion

In this paper, we explore the impact of judge political affiliation on racial and gender disparities in federal sentencing. Linking approximately half a million defendants to their sentencing judges, we find that Republican-appointed judges sentence black defendants to longer prison terms than nonblack defendants compared to Democratic-appointed judges, with the difference by political affiliation representing approximately two-thirds of the baseline racial gap in sentence length. Republican-appointed judges also sentence female defendants to shorter prison terms than males compared to Democratic-appointed judges, with this difference representing roughly one-sixth of the baseline gender gap in sentencing. These racial and gender disparities by political affiliation emerge at both the fact-finding and sentencing stages of the criminal justice process, and are robust to controlling for other judge and court characteristics, such as judge race, gender, and proxies for racial attitudes.

We also find that differences in disparities by political affiliation, particularly racial gaps in sentence length, expand when judges were given more discretion after the mandatory guidelines were rendered advisory. Moreover, these enlarged differences cannot be solely explained by differences in the willingness of Republican-appointed and Democratic-appointed judges to depart from the guidelines. These results suggest that a consequence of the advisory guidelines system is an expansion of sentencing disparities by judge political affiliation.

Overall, these results indicate that judicial ideology may be a source of the persistent and large racial and gender disparities in the criminal justice system. The precise reasons why these disparities by political affiliation exist remain unknown, and we caution that our results cannot speak to whether the sentences imposed by Republican- or Democratic-appointed judges are warranted or “right.” Our results, however, do suggest that Republican and Democratic-appointed judges treat defendants differently on the basis of their race and gender given that we observe robust disparities despite the random assignment of cases to judges within the same court. Our results also indicate that these disparities are not solely due to differences in the treatment of certain offense types by judge political affiliation, as we find large racial and gender gaps even within specific crimes such as drug offenses. More speculatively, our results are consistent with some judges holding discriminatory attitudes given that we find larger disparities among judges who serve in courts from states with higher racial bias, which are disproportionately located in the South. For instance, some have suggested in the context of defendant gender that judges may sentence females more leniently than males because of a perception that women are mere accessories to male partners, or that women are primary caregivers to children (see Goulette et al. 2015, Starr 2015).¹⁴ Our results suggest that a judge’s political

¹⁴ In unreported results, we find that female defendants with more dependents receive shorter sentences than females with fewer dependents, although this relationship does not differ by judge political affiliation.

ideology may affect how he or she views the dangerousness or blameworthiness of different defendants by race and gender.

According to our findings, racial disparities in sentencing would be almost halved if federal district courts were comprised of all Democratic-appointed judges, and reduced by more than 5 percent if courts were comprised of 10 percent more judges appointed by Democratic presidents. In recent decades, the typical president has appointed roughly 160 district court judges in a four-year term.¹⁵ Under the current composition of the federal court system, these appointments could change the partisan composition of district courts by 15 to 20 percentage points, which could substantially alter gender and racial disparities in the criminal justice system depending on the political affiliation of the appointing president. The potential to affect disparities is even larger for two-term presidents.

Our results also have implications for the appointments process of federal judges, potentially suggesting the importance of more rigorous and nonpartisan selection and vetting procedures. Historically, the American Bar Association (ABA) Standing Committee on the Federal Judiciary has played a large role in providing evaluations of federal judicial candidates, noting that they rate candidates not based on political affiliation or ideology, but rather “strictly on ... integrity, professional competence, and judicial temperament” (American Bar Association 2009). However, our results suggest that political ideology does, in fact, infuse the federal judiciary, consistent with Bonica and Sen (2017), who document the presence of ideologically-based selection in federal courts. This politicization of the judiciary may in fact increase given the position of the current administration to disregard the long-standing practice of inviting the ABA Standing Committee to review the professional qualifications of candidates.¹⁶ Indeed, our results caution against recent reforms to reduce the votes needed for confirming federal judges,¹⁷ and the elimination of the use of blue-slips that allow home-state senators to block judicial nominations, which commentators have claimed would allow presidents to “prioritize ideology over experience or legal talent.”¹⁸

Ultimately, our results indicate that the selection and appointment of federal district court judges is not only important for administering the legal system, but also has important distributional consequences, particularly in the current system where judges are granted considerable discretion and where they hold lifetime tenure.¹⁹ We view exploring the impact of the selection of public officials on disparities in the criminal justice system as an important area for future research.

¹⁵ See, e.g., <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R43058.pdf>.

¹⁶ See, for example, <https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/courts/news/2017/05/12/432340/trump-disregarding-senate-norms-get-judges-bench/>.

¹⁷ See <https://www.wsj.com/articles/reid-moves-to-dilute-senate-filibuster-rules-1385050841>.

¹⁸ <https://www.wsj.com/articles/checks-on-trumps-court-picks-fall-away-1511119789>.

¹⁹ See, for example, George Soros' mission to “find, prepare, and finance criminal justice reform-oriented candidates for jobs that have been held by longtime incumbents and serve as pipelines to the federal courts...” See <http://www.politico.com/story/2016/08/george-soros-criminal-justice-reform-227519>.

APPENDIX

TABLE A1—DEPARTURES FROM THE GUIDELINES

	Below range (1)	Above range (2)
Offender black	-0.014 (0.002)	0.007 (0.001)
Offender female	0.037 (0.003)	-0.007 (0.001)
Judge rep × offender black	0.001 (0.003)	-0.003 (0.001)
Judge rep × offender female	0.001 (0.003)	-0.003 (0.001)
Observations	524,717	524,266
R^2	0.112	0.032
Mean of dependent variable	0.177	0.031

Notes: This table presents OLS results for departures from the sentencing guidelines recommended range. The dependent variable in column 1 is an indicator variable for a nongovernment-sponsored, below-range departure, and the dependent variable in column 2 is an indicator variable for an above-range departure. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

TABLE A2—DEPARTURES FROM THE GUIDELINES—BOOKER

	Below range		Above range	
	Before Booker (1)	After Booker (2)	Before Booker (3)	After Booker (4)
Offender black	-0.011 (0.003)	-0.014 (0.004)	0.001 (0.002)	0.004 (0.002)
Offender female	0.042 (0.004)	0.030 (0.005)	-0.006 (0.002)	-0.011 (0.002)
Judge rep × offender black	0.001 (0.004)	-0.003 (0.005)	0.002 (0.002)	0.000 (0.003)
Judge rep × offender female	-0.014 (0.005)	0.005 (0.007)	-0.002 (0.002)	-0.002 (0.002)
Observations	100,585	120,377	100,437	120,250
R^2	0.181	0.088	0.038	0.037
Mean of dependent variable	0.109	0.157	0.022	0.036

Notes: This table presents OLS results for departures from the sentencing guidelines recommended range. The dependent variable in column 1 and column 2 is an indicator variable for a nongovernment-sponsored, below-range departure, and the dependent variable in columns 3 and 4 is an indicator variable for an above-range departure. The before *Booker* sample includes cases sentenced from the beginning of 2002 to January 11, 2005. The after *Booker* sample includes cases sentenced from January 12, 2005 to the end of 2008. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

TABLE A3—SENTENCE LENGTH BY DEFENDANT RACE

	Blacks v. Hispanic offender race = 1(black) (1)	Blacks v. non-Hispanic whites offender race = 1(black) (2)	Hispanic v. non-Hispanic whites offender race = 1(hisp) (3)
Offender race	-0.596 (0.402)	6.563 (0.319)	8.221 (0.389)
Offender female	-12.957 (0.378)	-10.902 (0.216)	-10.778 (0.242)
Judge rep × offender race	2.317 (0.521)	2.992 (0.473)	0.221 (0.383)
Judge rep × offender female	-2.128 (0.500)	-2.675 (0.322)	-1.332 (0.396)
Observations	315,450	341,093	341,507
R ²	0.453	0.451	0.403

Notes: This table presents OLS results where the dependent variable is sentence length in months winsorized at the top and bottom 1 percent. Column 1 includes blacks and Hispanic defendants where the race indicator is equal to 1 for black defendants. Column 2 includes blacks and non-Hispanic white defendants where the race indicator is equal to 1 for black defendants. Column 3 includes Hispanic and non-Hispanic white defendants where the race indicator is equal to 1 for Hispanic defendants. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

TABLE A4—PROSECUTORIAL DISCRETION

	Mand. min (MM) (1)	Binding mand. min (BMM) (2)	Sub. assistance (SA) (3)
Offender black	0.041 (0.002)	0.013 (0.002)	-0.028 (0.002)
Offender female	-0.032 (0.002)	-0.001 (0.002)	0.033 (0.002)
Judge rep × offender black	0.008 (0.002)	0.001 (0.002)	0.004 (0.002)
Judge rep × offender female	-0.001 (0.002)	0.002 (0.003)	0.005 (0.003)
Observations	524,122	524,717	517,103
R ²	0.443	0.204	0.143
Mean of dependent variable	0.312	0.146	0.177

Notes: This table presents OLS results. The dependent variable in column 1 is an indicator equal to 1 for any mandatory minimum applied at sentencing. The dependent variable in column 2 is an indicator equal to 1 for any "binding" mandatory minimum, defined if the mandatory minimum length exceeds the lower end of the guidelines recommended sentence. The dependent variable in column 3 is an indicator equal to 1 for any government-sponsored substantial assistance motion. Each regression controls for judge fixed effects, sentencing year fixed effects, primary offense type fixed effects, and criminal history category fixed effects. Bootstrapped standard errors stratified by district court are presented in parentheses.

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