

INTEREST GROUP POLITICS

EDITION 9

ALLAN J. CIGLER • BURDETT A. LOOMIS • ANTHONY J. NOWNES
EDITORS



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Ninth Edition

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SAGE was founded in 1965 by Sara Miller McCune to support the dissemination of usable knowledge by publishing innovative and high-quality research and teaching content. Today, we publish more than 750 journals, including those of more than 300 learned societies, more than 800 new books per year, and a growing range of library products including archives, data, case studies, reports, conference highlights, and video. SAGE remains majority-owned by our founder, and after Sara's lifetime will become owned by a charitable trust that secures our continued independence.

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Preface

This, the ninth edition of *Interest Group Politics*, continues the work begun with the first edition, published by the then-fledgling CQ Press in 1983. Thirty-plus years later, CQ has changed, becoming part of the Sage publishing group. And so has the collaboration between Al Cigler and Bird Loomis; we welcome to our editorial team Tony Nownes, our former student, a professor at the University of Tennessee, and for many years a leading scholar of organized interests and lobbying.

As always, this edited volume seeks to offer a wide range of scholarly perspectives on interest group politics. With a mix of veteran and new contributors, we continue to explore the internal politics of organized interests and their impact—actual and attempted—on electoral politics and the nexus of lobbying and policymaking across an array of issues.

Darren Halpin begins at the beginning, as he addresses the question of how organized interests choose issues to address; their agendas help direct which issues rise and fall in national politics. Peter Francia and Allen Hertzke use their considerable expertise to examine labor unions and religious lobbying, respectively; these scholars have published extensively on these subjects over their careers, and their over-time perspectives provide real insights in these two corners of the interest-group world. Likewise, Don Haider-Markel, one of the discipline's most distinguished LGBT scholars, joins with Steve Sylvester to provide a similar long-term take on organizing and lobbying within this community, where change has increasingly become the order of the day.

From his perch at the center of research on the growth in outside funding of campaigns, Lee Drutman offers both a primer on the dramatic changes in campaign finance and how contemporary interests take advantage of an environment in which there are almost no meaningful limits on campaign spending. With their focus on congressional campaigns, the chapters by Brian Richter and Tim Werner and by Bob Boatright give us sophisticated insights into how organized interests help fund campaigns and engage in primary challenges. To an extent, these are “dogs that don't bark” chapters that clear away some of our assumptions about how politics currently operates.

Turning to lobbying, Dorie Apollonio, a new contributor, also provides a long-term perspective on group behavior, in this instance an examination of how tobacco interests have weathered fifty years of attacks by the government and by other groups. To an extent, her analysis fits with the conclusion in emphasizing the considerable resources that the tobacco sector can muster, even in the face of great adversity.

Tim LaPira has emerged as one of the most important (and most quoted) lobbying analysts over the past year, as he has published several pathbreaking

articles from a truly remarkable data set on Washington lobbyists. Here, he explores the nature of the Washington lobbying community and how it differs considerably from its formal dimensions. In short, a lot of lobbying is done by those who claim not to lobby, and that has consequences. His analysis is complemented by Bob Healy's hands-on discussion of how corporate lobbyists work. A longtime DC lobbyist with a PhD, he successfully bridges the scholar-practitioner divide in offering a ground-level take on representing corporations.

Jim McCormick contributes another of his first-rate chapters on foreign policy lobbying, in this instance focusing on domestic interest groups. In a piece that addresses low-visibility policymaking, Tony Nownes and Josh Cole examine lobbying that is essentially invisible, but yet most important, in their chapter on special districts, where many significant local policies are made. And Amy McKay continues her work on negative lobbying, which constitutes a tremendous amount of activity and which helps account for the power of the status quo.

Finally, Scott Ainsworth, Erik Godwin, and Ken Godwin return to our pages, this time with an incisive look at intergovernmental lobbying, which is remarkably common and important.

We also include an examination of the idea of an "interest," which allows Bird Loomis to link Arthur Bentley to the Tea Party in searching for how the "interest" of the Tea Party is expressed. And we conclude with a consideration of lobbying and interest group politics in a world of great inequality.

As always, it has been an adventure putting this collection together, and we offer our profound thanks to all our contributors. In addition, Beth Cigler, Michel Loomis, and Elsa Nownes deserve their full share of gratitude for putting up with us as we wrangled one more edition.

Of course, the editors at CQ/Sage—Charisse Kiino, Sarah Calabi, and Raquel Christie—have been helpful, encouraging, and demanding, a great combination. We greatly appreciate all their efforts and support.

It has been most gratifying to produce these books over the years, and we hope the readers enjoy the book as much as we enjoy editing it.

Allan J. Cigler, Lawrence, KS
Burdett A. Loomis, Lawrence, KS
Anthony J. Nownes, Knoxville, TN
 November 2014

About the Contributors

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Lee Drutman is a senior fellow at New America Foundation in the program on political reform. His work on politics and money is widely cited among journalists, and he is the author of the 2015 book *The Business of America Is Lobbying*. He also teaches at the Johns Hopkins University Center for Advanced Governmental Studies.

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Erik K. Godwin began his career as a consultant to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency and the U.S. Department of Justice, conducting financial and economic analyses on environmental issues. From there he joined the Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs in the Office of Management and Budget, where he was the principal White House regulatory analyst on policies involving energy (fossil, renewable, and nuclear), pesticides, radiation, and indoor air. He left at the end of the Clinton administration to become an executive-branch lobbyist on environmental, petrochemical, nuclear, pharmaceutical, and health issues. Most recently, he was an assistant professor of political science at Texas A&M University. He continues to consult for federal agencies on regulatory policy, benefit-cost analysis, environmental policy, budgetary systems, and strategic information control.

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Timothy Werner is assistant professor of business, government, and society at the McCombs School of Business at the University of Texas at Austin. His research explores the role of business in American politics and public policy-making, as well as the financial consequences of business’s political activity. He is the author of *Public Forces and Private Politics in American Big Business* (2012).

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Introduction

The Changing Nature of Interest Group Politics*

Burdett A. Loomis and Allan J. Cigler

From James Madison to Madison Avenue, political interests have played a central role in American politics. But this great continuity in our political experience has been matched by ambivalence toward interest groups from citizens, politicians, and scholars. James Madison's warnings of the dangers of faction echo in the rhetoric of reformers from Populists and Progressives near the turn of the century to the so-called public interest advocates of today.

If organized special interests are nothing new in American politics, can today's group politics nevertheless be seen as having changed fundamentally? Acknowledging that many important, continuing trends exist, we seek to place in perspective a broad series of changes in modern interest group politics. Among the most substantial of these developments are these:

- A great proliferation of interest groups since the early 1960s
- A centralization of group headquarters in Washington, DC, rather than New York City or elsewhere
- Major technological developments in information processing that promote more sophisticated, more timely, and more specialized communications strategies, such as grassroots lobbying and the message politics of issue-based campaigns
- The rise of single-issue groups
- Changes in campaign finance laws (1971, 1974) and the ensuing growth of political action committees (PACs) and, more recently, the sharp increases in soft money contributions to parties and issue advocacy campaign advertisements for individual candidates
- The increased formal penetration of political and economic interests into the bureaucracy (advisory committees), the presidency (White House group representatives), and the Congress (caucuses of members)

*This overview chapter remains unchanged from its revision circa 2000 of a piece first written in 1983. Thus references to the "health care debate" address the Clinton-era proposals, and some material does not reflect subsequent developments, especially for campaign finance.

- The continuing decline of political parties' ability to perform key electoral and policy-related activities, despite their capacity to funnel soft money to candidates
- The increased number, activity, and visibility of public interest groups, such as Common Cause and the Ralph Nader-inspired public interest research organizations
- The growth of activity and impact of institutions, including corporations, universities, state and local governments, and foreign interests
- A continuing rise in the amount and sophistication of group activity in state capitals, especially given the devolution of some federal programs and substantial increases in state budgets

All these developments have antecedents in earlier eras of American political life; there is little that is genuinely new under the interest group sun. Political action committees have replaced (or complemented) other forms of special interest campaign financing. Group-generated mail directed at Congress has been a tactic since at least the early 1900s.¹ Many organizations have long been centered in Washington, DC, members of Congress traditionally have represented local interests, and so on.

Still, the level of group activity, coupled with growing numbers of organized interests, distinguishes contemporary group politics from the politics of earlier eras. Group involvement trends lend credence to the fears of scholars such as political scientist Theodore Lowi and economist Mancur Olson, who have viewed interest-based politics as contributing to governmental stalemate and reduced accountability.² If accurate, these analyses point to a fundamentally different role for interest groups than those suggested by Madison and group theorists after him.

Only during the past thirty years, in the wake of Olson's path-breaking research, have scholars begun to examine realistically why people join and become active in groups.³ It is by no means self-evident that citizens should naturally become group members—quite the contrary in most cases. We are faced, then, with the paradoxical and complex question of why groups have proliferated when it can be economically unwise for people to join them.

Interest Groups in American Politics

Practical politicians and scholars alike generally agree that interest groups (also known as factions, organized interests, pressure groups, and special interests) are natural phenomena in a democratic regime—that is, individuals will band together to protect their interests.⁴ In Madison's words, "The causes of faction . . . are sown in the nature of man." But controversy continues as to whether groups and group politics are benign or malignant forces in American politics. "By a faction," Madison wrote, "I understand a number of citizens, whether amounting

to a majority or minority of the whole, who are united and actuated by some common impulse of passion, or of interest, adverse to the rights of other citizens, or to the permanent and aggregate interests of the community.”⁵

Although Madison rejected the remedy of direct controls over factions as “worse than the disease,” he saw the need to limit their negative effects by promoting competition among them and by devising an elaborate system of procedural “checks and balances” to reduce the potential power of any single, strong group, whether that interest represented a majority or minority position.

Hostility toward interest groups became more virulent in industrialized America, where the great concentrations of power far outstripped anything Madison might have imagined. In the early twentieth century many Progressives railed at various monopolistic “trusts” and intimate connections between interests and corrupt politicians. Later, in 1935, Hugo Black, then a senator and later a Supreme Court justice, painted a grim picture of group malevolence: “Contrary to tradition, against the public morals, and hostile to good government, the lobby has reached such a position of power that it threatens government itself. Its size, its power, its capacity for evil, its greed, trickery, deception and fraud condemn it to the death it deserves.”⁶

Similar suspicions are expressed today, especially in light of the increased role of money in electoral politics. The impact of groups on elections has grown steadily since the adoption of the Federal Election Campaign Act of 1971 and its 1974 amendments—reform legislation originally intended to limit the impact of organized interests. Instead, such interests accelerated their spending on campaigns. Until the 1990s most concerns focused on PACs; indeed, direct PAC contributions to congressional candidates rose from less than \$23 million in 1975–1976 to nearly \$260 million in the 1999–2000 election cycle. The number of PACs has leveled off at about 4,000, and only a few are major players in electoral politics. Moreover, PACs encourage large numbers of contributors to pool their funds, a tactic that enhances Americans’ political participation.

More worrisome over the past decade have been the growing amount and impact of essentially unregulated money from organized interests. “Soft money” contributions to national political parties totaled nearly \$600 million in 2000, almost doubling the amount in the 1996 presidential year. Democrats received 98 percent more, and Republicans upped their totals by 81 percent. Even more troublesome may be issue advocacy advertising by organized interests, which does not fall under the expenditure limits and disclosure requirements of the Federal Election Commission. Thus in the 2000 campaign, the drug industry group called Citizens for Better Medicare spent more than \$40 million on advertisements designed to help congressional allies, both past and prospective.⁷ At the time, this group and many like it did not need to disclose where their funds came from. Nor was there any limit on the amount of expenditures, as long as they did not “expressly advocate” a preference for a

candidate (that is, use the words *vote for* and similar words) or coordinate efforts with a candidate or party committee.

By focusing on “hard money” activity (largely reported contributions to candidates), “the [Federal Election Commission] . . . could no longer restrain most of the financial activity that takes place in modern elections.”⁸ Such an environment has renewed calls for additional campaign finance reform. So far, however, Congress has resisted changing laws that regulate group activity in national elections, and public cynicism about special interest influence will likely continue.

Pluralism and Liberalism

Despite popular distrust of interest group politics, political scientists and other observers often have viewed groups in a positive light. This perspective draws on Madison’s *Federalist* writings but is tied more closely to the growth of the modern state. Political science scholars such as Arthur Bentley, about 1910, and David Truman, forty years later, placed groups at the heart of politics and policymaking in a complex, large, and increasingly specialized governmental system. The interest group becomes an element of continuity in a changing political world. Truman noted the “multiplicity of co-ordinate or nearly co-ordinate points of access to governmental decisions” and concluded that “the significance of these many points of access and of the complicated texture of relationships among them is great. This diversity assures various ways for interest groups to participate in the formation of policy, and this variety is a flexible, stabilizing element.”⁹

Derived from Truman’s work and that of other group-oriented scholars is the notion of the pluralist state, in which competition among interests, in and out of government, will produce policies roughly responsive to public desires and no single set of interests will dominate. Interest group scholar Carole Grewald summarizes:

Pluralist theory assumes that within the public arena there will be countervailing centers of power within governmental institutions and among outsiders. Competition is implicit in the notion that groups, as surrogates for individuals, will produce products representing the diversity of opinions that might have been possible in the individual decision days of democratic Athens.¹⁰

In many ways the pluralist vision of American politics corresponds to the realities of policy making and the distribution of policy outcomes, but a host of scholars, politicians, and other observers have roundly criticized this perspective. Two broad (although sometimes contradictory) critiques have special merit.

The first argues that some interests habitually lose in the policy process, while others habitually win. Without endorsing the contentions of elite theorists that a small number of interests and individuals conspire to dominate