The United States is in the midst of a crisis in confidence in elections, despite the many process protections baked into every stage of election administration. Part of the problem is that few Americans know just how rigorous the protections in place are, and most Americans have no concept of how modern elections are run. Election observation statutes are intended to provide a window for members of the public to learn about and oversee the process and to satisfy themselves that elections are fair and that outcomes are reliable. Yet in 2020, in part due to unforeseen pandemic conditions, election observation fell short. This Essay examines the shortcomings of modern election observation in the United States, looks at reform proposals on the table, and suggests several principles that should inform efforts to address the most worrisome shortfalls.

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How can we trust election outcomes? This question leapt to the fore after the 2020 election as millions of Americans (to this day) think the country inaugurated the wrong person. A lack of public confidence in the 2020 election outcome was not entirely unpredictable: for the first time in U.S. history, a sitting president actively undermined public faith in our system of elections throughout his term in office (and beyond). In addition, the ravages of internet-fueled misinformation and disinformation threatens to destabilize democratic functioning. As a result, even before the massive disruptions brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic, many worried the public would not abide the result of the 2020 election.

In this fraught and hyperpolarized environment, state election observation mechanisms may have provided ways for members of the public to satisfy themselves that the election was fairly run. Generally speaking, state election observer statutes allow members of the public to observe election processes like ballot casting and counting. Virtually all states have election


4. For example, the National Task Force on Election Crises (the author is a member) was formed to address challenges to the peaceful transition of power. See About, Nat’l TASK FORCE ON ELECTION CRISIS, https://www.electiontaskforce.org/about [https://perma.cc/3TS7-P499] (last visited Sept. 17, 2021) (“Disruptions to elections can come from natural disasters or human-made disasters such as cyberattacks or improper interference by elected officials . . . . [I’ll] it’s critical to know the proper steps forward in dealing with a crisis to ensure a free and fair election.”).


6. The terminology of election observation differs. Many states refer to election observers as “poll watchers,” but the term is not universal. For example, Connecticut refers to election observers as “unofficial checkers,” and Massachusetts refers to election observers as “observers.” See CONN. GEN. STAT. § 9-235 (2021); 950 MASS. CODE REGS. 54.04(22) (2021).
observation statutes, and though rules differ on who is allowed to see what, all share the same motivation: to provide an avenue of transparency in the process to ensure that candidates and the public accept the result.\(^7\)

In 2020, state election observation did important work to calm a nervous public. Yet, in many instances, election observation practices cracked under pressure. At Detroit’s TCF Center, for example, chaos broke out during the ballot counting process. Misunderstandings and miscommunications about observation rules—specifically, the number of partisan observers allowed at the site and rules governing what observers could and could not do—led to heated protests outside the counting room.\(^8\) Police formed a barricade blocking protestors from entryways into the TCF Center.\(^9\) Election workers reported feeling loomed over and intimidated.\(^10\) Democratic and Republican representatives volleyed complaints that observers and elections officials failed to adhere to the law.\(^11\)

Election observation problems arose in Detroit and elsewhere in 2020, in part, because of the particular burdens the COVID-19 pandemic placed on observers’ ability to monitor election processes.\(^12\) COVID-19 restrictions

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9. See Noble & Mauger, supra note 8.


forced observers, for example, to stand farther away from the processes they observed than they might have in a typical election. The model of observers peering over the shoulder of election workers was simply not safe in November 2020.

The 2020 election also featured dramatic differences in how voters cast ballots. States with traditionally low mail-in voting rates saw huge spikes in 2020 since many perceived voting by mail to be a safer option during the pandemic. The challenge in processing and counting mail-in ballots in states not accustomed to high volumes garnered much attention. Many states had inadequate time to consider not only how to manage election observation in a pandemic but also how to do so amidst drastically changed methods of ballot casting and counting.

Even beyond pandemic-related disruptions, election observation rules were in many ways doomed to fall short for a variety of reasons. In a trend starting decades ago, fewer and fewer Americans cast ballots at polling places on Election Day—a condition that many election transparency rules assume. The “disembodied voter” is harder to keep tabs on, making it difficult for election observers to serve their function as proxies of public trust in elections. In addition, in today’s easily manipulated information environment, technology tools intended to boost public confidence in elections sometimes undermined it. Finally, a lack of uniformity in election observation rules contributed to confusion and mistrust. These factors combined to reduce the effectiveness of election observation mechanisms when the American public arguably needed them most.

Since the 2020 election, a growing number of state legislatures are exploring election observation reform. As discussed below, election observation reform

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[13]. See, e.g., infra note 54 and accompanying text.


[15]. The idea of a “disembodied voter” is adapted from surveillance studies literature. Voting processes increasingly take place without face-to-face interaction, for example through online voter registration and mail balloting. This mimics a phenomenon surveillance studies scholars have identified with respect to financial and other transactions in modern life. See, e.g., Josh Lauer, From Rumor to Written Record: Credit Reporting and the Invention of Financial Identity in Nineteenth-Century America, 49 Tech & Culture 301, 301, 304, 306 (2008) (discussing the shift of creditworthiness determinations with the rise of “disembodied” financial identities in the nineteenth century).

observation reform is needed. Some proposals address core problems exposed during the 2020 elections. Other proposals threaten, paradoxically, to contribute to eroding public confidence in election outcomes. This Essay examines U.S. election observation rules and reforms in three parts. It first discusses key shortcomings of election observation in 2020. It then canvasses proposed state election observation reforms post-2020. Finally, it offers recommendations to help right the ship.

I. WHY ELECTION OBSERVATION STATUTES FELL SHORT IN 2020

A comprehensive review of the history of state election observer rules pre-2020 is beyond the scope of this Essay. But, for purposes of laying out the successes and shortcomings of election observation rules in 2020, a short overview of state election observer basics will set the stage. As a preliminary matter, this Essay focuses on election observation rules and practice. It does not tackle a related, but very different, role of the election “challenger,” which allows certain individuals (usually party or candidate designees and, sometimes, observers themselves) to challenge a voter’s eligibility to register or cast a ballot at the polls. The present effort confines discussion to election observation in part for analytic clarity and, in part, because observation rules have received less attention among legal scholars.

and that “[t]he plurality of bills introduced and currently moving have been filed in Texas”).

17. Importantly, every aspect of state election processes builds in protections to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the outcomes. From preelection machine certification, to rules requiring members of both parties to serve as election judges, to postelection audits, American elections are designed to inspire confidence before, during, and after Election Day. See Rachel Wright, Election Safeguards—Combating Election Disinformation, OVERSEAS VOTING INITIATIVE (Oct. 29, 2020), https://ovi.csg.org/blog-election-safeguards/ [https://perma.cc/SMA3-VYJT]; Danielle Root et al., Election Security in All 50 States, CTR. FOR AM. PROGRESS (Feb. 12, 2018, 12:01 AM), https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/democracy/reports/2018/02/12/446336/election-security-50-states/ [https://perma.cc/LD6D-T2NM] (describing the many procedural safeguards in place to ensure U.S. elections are secure and accurate). The present effort examines only one aspect of this complex web: statutes governing observation by candidate or party representatives, the media, and/or members of the public.


Election observation rules generally permit observation at four phases during the elections process: (1) observation of preelection processes (e.g., voting equipment testing), (2) observation of in-person voting, (3) observation of absentee ballot processing and counting, and (4) observation of postelection processes (e.g., tabulation, audits, and recounts). The majority of states permit observation of some kind at all four stages. According to the National Conference of State Legislatures, during the 2020 election, only six states lacked statutes permitting public observation of preelection processes.20 Only one state (Nebraska) lacked rules permitting observation of in-person voting.21 Nine states and the District of Columbia lacked statutes permitting observation of absentee ballot processing and counting,22 and only one state lacked provisions for postelection observation (Wyoming).23

Despite the widespread practice in most states of allowing observers to watch before, during, and after elections, state statutes vary in who can be an observer and what observers can and cannot do in their roles. Almost all states rely on a system of partisan election observation by which political parties or candidates appoint observers.24 Critics of partisan observation suggest that partisan observers are not present to ensure elections are fair but instead work against basic fairness principles because they push a particular partisan agenda.25 This is almost certainly why international observation principles require nonpartisan observation.26 Yet, much like the justice
system relies on the adversarial process to ensure fair judicial outcomes, a system of elections that employs candidate- and party-appointed election observers seeks to achieve much the same effect: to ensure that the voters of each candidate or party are protected and that elections are administered according to the law. At least in theory, assuming all candidates’ and parties’ observers are diligent in their roles, and further assuming they are given meaningful access to the election process to satisfy themselves that elections are fairly run, results are more likely to be abided.27 Still, the shortcomings of partisan observation are, no doubt, why thirty-three states allow nonpartisan observers (i.e., members of the public not appointed by political parties or candidates) in addition to, or sometimes instead of, partisan observers.28

Most states affirmatively list activities observers are permitted to do and/or are prohibited from doing.29 Some states take diametrically opposed approaches. Rhode Island, for example, explicitly allows observers to challenge voters,30 whereas Wyoming prohibits observers from doing so.31

As discussed further below, no two state election observation statutes are alike.

organizations has emerged as one of the most tangible and significant dimensions of democratic development around the globe.”.

27. Sheagley & Cohen, supra note 5; Judd Choate, Director of the Division of Elections in Colorado, takes this concept even further. When he started in his role in 2009, his office was embroiled in twenty different lawsuits. Conversation with Judd Choate, Dir., Div. of Elections, Colo. (May 28, 2021) (notes on file with author). Aggravated by the high volume of litigation, Choate decided to involve attorneys representing both Democrats and Republicans in every major decision his office made about the administration of state elections. Id. He reports convening regular meetings—sometimes monthly, sometimes weekly, sometimes more than once weekly—to get partisans’ perspectives and buy-in. Id. Of the practice, Choate reports, “I think the single most important thing that we have ever done to create confidence in our election is that for every major decision we make, Democrats and Republicans are in the room . . . . Whether [or not their side] won the election, they say, ‘I understand why those decisions were made.’” Id.

28. In some instances, a state’s statute may not explicitly provide for nonpartisan observers, but, in practice, election officials allow nonpartisan observers to watch. See Policies for Election Observers, NAT’L CONG. OF STATE LEGISLATURES (Oct. 13, 2020), https://www.ncsl.org/research/elections-and-campaigns/policies-for-election-observers.aspx [https://perma.cc/9XYM-4QEZ] (“Fourteen state [sic] don’t explicitly authorize nonpartisan citizen observers in statute but have allowed them in practice in the past. This may be left up to the discretion of the state or local election officials and evaluated on a case by case basis: Colorado, Delaware, Idaho, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska (will explicitly allow them in statute beginning Nov. 14, 2020), New Jersey, New York, North Carolina and Oregon.”).

29. See, e.g., IOWA CODE § 39A.4.1.b (2021) (prohibiting observers from activities such as handling or inspecting ballots, voting equipment, or voter rolls; inspecting documents produced by voters to establish their identity; comparing signatures on record to a signature on any document or ballot or ballot envelope).

30. 17 R.I. GEN. LAWS § 17-19-22 (2021) (“The watchers and any election official shall have the right to challenge the right to vote of any person offering himself or herself as a voter.”).

31. WYO. STAT. ANN. § 22-15-109(b) (2021) (“A poll watcher is authorized to observe voter turnout and registration and may make written memoranda but shall not challenge voters, conduct electioneering activities or disrupt the polling process.”).
With these basics in mind, the following discussion suggests three important reasons election observation rules fell short in 2020: (1) a mismatch between anachronistic observer rules and how modern elections are, in fact, run; (2) misfires when measures designed to increase transparency instead fueled conspiracy theories; and (3) a lack of uniformity in election observation rules among states and within states. The following discussion considers each in turn.

A. Mismatch

The 2020 election exposed a mismatch between the rules governing observers and the way modern elections are run. Many observer statutes were written when the casting and counting of ballots in this country looked very different. Pennsylvania, for example, was a poster child for this problem. The observer statute in place in Pennsylvania in 2020 provided that candidate- and party-appointed observers may be present at “polling places” from the “time the election officers meet prior to the opening of the polls until the time that the counting of votes is complete and the district register and voting check list is locked and sealed.”

Pennsylvania’s observer statute made no provision for observation of pre-Election Day in-person voting, which the Pennsylvania legislature enabled by statute in 2019 via Act 77. During the 2016 election, approximately 2 percent of Pennsylvania voters cast absentee ballots. With the change to no-excuse absentee voting, election administrators had time to prepare for an increase in votes cast this way. But they could not have anticipated that, due to COVID-19, over 50 percent of Pennsylvanians would cast early absentee ballots in 2020.

The 2019 law permitted voters to request and receive an absentee ballot in person at a County Elections Office (CEO). On January 10, 2021, the Pennsylvania secretary of state issued guidance on in-person absentee voting, noting that the law provided for in-person absentee voting at more than one CEO located within a county. The guidance advised that “[a]dditional

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32. 25 PA. CONS. STAT. § 2687(b) (2021).
35. Id.
36. 25 PA. CONS. STAT. § 3146.5(b)(2) (2021) (“[A] voter who presents the voter’s own application for an absentee or mail-in ballot within the office of the county board of elections during regular business hours may request to receive the voter’s absentee or mail-in ballot while the voter is at the office. Upon presentation of the application and the making of the request and upon approval under [applicable law], the county board of elections shall promptly present the voter with the voter’s absentee or mail-in ballot.”).
37. See PA. DEP’T OF STATE, PENNSYLVANIA APPLICATIONS AND BALLOTING GUIDANCE: MAIL-IN AND ABSENTEE BALLOTS AND VOTER REGISTRATION CHANGES 4 (2020),
business hours for CEOs may be established” and encouraged local election officials to offer voters opportunities to vote in-person absentee on weeknights and weekends “to enable maximum flexibility and convenience to voters.”  

Citing concerns about early absentee voting in Pennsylvania, the Trump campaign sought access to observe election activities at satellite locations pursuant to Pennsylvania’s election observation statute. On October 3, 2020, after election officials refused to allow the campaign to observe at satellite voting locations, the Trump campaign filed an emergency petition seeking court-ordered access. The trial court denied the campaign’s request on October 9, 2020, as did the appellate court on October 23, 2020. Both courts reasoned that the election observation statute applied only to “polling places” and that “satellite election offices are ‘not polling places . . . at which watchers have a right to be present under the Election Code.’” After all, the trial court explained, “polling places operate only on Election Day and are available only to voters residing in specific districts, whereas satellite offices are restricted by neither date nor location.”

In her dissenting opinion, Judge Patricia A. McCullough pointed out that the “plain language definition of a ‘polling place’ is ‘the room . . . for voting at a primary or election.’” Judge McCullough reasoned that “this language strongly suggests that the paramount and dispositive trait of a ‘polling place’ is that it is a location where an elector can go and cast his/her vote in person and in a private space, which, undisputedly, is what the Satellite Offices offer, allow, and do.” Judge McCullough further cautioned that “the Pennsylvania Supreme Court has long held that courts should construe the election laws liberally so ‘[t]echnicalities should not be used to make the right of the voter insecure.’”

At the heart of this dispute was a mismatch between the statute’s language and its underlying intent. The statute’s language contemplated observing at polling places on Election Day, a logical restriction since elections in

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38. See id. at 4–5. Some requirements include: (1) each CEO be staffed by appointed elections personnel, (2) CEOs be located in municipal or county-owned or leased property, and (3) CEOs have secure county network connections and secure collection receptacles. Id.


40. Id. at *3.

41. Id. at *2.

42. Id.

43. Id. at *16 (McCullough, J., dissenting) (quoting 25 PA. CONS. STAT. § 2602(q) (2021)).

44. Id.

45. Id. at *12 (quoting Appeal of James, 105 A.2d 64, 66 (Pa. 1954)).
Pennsylvania historically took place at polling places on Election Day. But the statute’s intent—to allow transparency in the voting process—should clearly encompass the new mode of casting early-in-person absentee ballots enabled by Act 77 if the goal is to ensure public confidence in election outcomes.

Even aside from massive increases in mail-in voting due to COVID-19, voting in many states no longer resembles the quaint neighborhood Election Day of yore. For example, many states have moved to the “vote center” model to promote efficiency, among other reasons. Sweeping changes in how Americans cast ballots, predating the 2020 election, means that many observer statutes may do little to achieve their purpose. Instead, the mismatch threatens to feed narratives that something is amiss.

The same is true of statutes enabling postelection observation. Machine counts have long been the target of ire for those concerned about transparent elections. The battle to scrap voting machines that lack a paper trail has largely been won. But, the idea that observers can meaningfully attest that the counting of votes is fair is undermined by out-of-date postelection observer statutes that do not account for how postelection ballot processing and tallying is accomplished.

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48. See CAO ET AL., supra note 34 (noting that mail-in and absentee voting, combined, increased from 2 percent in 2016 to 51 percent in 2020).

49. Certainly, COVID-19-related concerns contributed to the denial of access in this case. As the court noted in a footnote, “Lingering indefinitely in indoor offices where many members of the public come and go is not recommended for health reasons in light of the COVID-19 pandemic that is ongoing at this time.” Trump, 241 A.3d 120, at *11 n.42. Yet as the dissent pointed out, city officials “regularly extended numerous invitations to the public encouraging electors to vote at the Satellite Offices, which has resulted in large numbers of electors visiting these sites daily.” Id. at *14 (McCullough, J., dissenting). Furthermore, the dissent noted that many satellite offices were “set up in large gymnasiums or rooms which provide ample opportunity for spacing and social distancing, including the wearing of masks.” Id.


52. See Voting System Paper Trail Requirements, NAT’L CONF. OF STATE LEGISLATURES (June 27, 2019), https://www.ncsl.org/research/elections-and-campaigns/voting-system-paper-trail-requirements.aspx [https://perma.cc/83VP-5QHC]; see also Appel & Stark, supra note 51, at 526 (noting that “because of the widespread recognition of this fatal flaw, only a handful of states use paperless [direct-recording electronic] voting machines, and many of those states are transitioning to technologies that have a paper trail starting from the individual voter’s ballot”).

Pennsylvania saw this question litigated as well in 2020. The Trump campaign brought suit challenging inadequate positioning of candidate-appointed observers during pre-canvassing and canvassing processes. The Trump campaign argued that the statute’s requirement, allowing designated watchers “to be present when the envelopes containing official absentee ballots and mail-in ballots are opened and when such ballots are counted and recorded,” should be read to “require[] that . . . observers have the opportunity to ‘meaningfully . . . see the process.’” The trial court and, ultimately, the Pennsylvania Supreme Court disagreed, finding that the statute mandated only that observers be present, not that they meaningfully be able to see election processes.

Again, the dispute boiled down to parsing an outdated statute that did not reflect the reality of postelection ballot processing. The statutory mandate that observers be allowed “in the room” reflects voting in an era in which election processes took places in “rooms” as we traditionally understand them not cavernous sports arenas and convention centers where postelection processes often take place—as they did even before 2020. Increasingly, states consolidate postelection processes as election officials around the country embrace, to varying degrees, the vastly improved efficiencies and accuracy that centralized processing affords.

Automated processing and counting of ballots produce more accurate and reliable counts. But mismatched election observation rules have, in many instances, not caught up: many state election observer rules fail to give observers “meaningful access” (to use the Trump campaign’s term) or...
otherwise provide adequate transparency to satisfy observers that postelection ballot processing was fair.\textsuperscript{61} Election observation rules must better account for new tallying environments and include methods to allow observers to understand and verify that election processes are proceeding lawfully—and to then translate that reassurance to the broader public.

Some states are much further along in updating observer rules to reflect consolidated and/or automated election processes than others. Colorado, widely recognized for its modern, thoughtful, and transparent election processes,\textsuperscript{62} provides an excellent example. Colorado, an all-mail voting state, provides clear rules that give observers significant access to election processes without relying on outdated, opaque language referencing conditions no longer in place. For example, Colorado election regulations use broad language, requiring that observers be allowed to watch whenever “electors are voting or when election [officials] are present and performing election activities.”\textsuperscript{63}

\footnotesize{https://apnews.com/article/poll-watchers-ballots-access-monitor-b4e95da6bce28e0e96a190b332d6d5 [https://perma.cc/25GJ-HEM8] (describing how the Trump campaign filed suit seeking to halt the counting of mail ballots in Clark County, Nevada, because its observers “were being kept too far away to be able to see if signatures matched voter registration records”).

\textsuperscript{61} What constitutes “meaningful access” has not been fully fleshed out. Some might argue it requires being close enough to see voters’ IDs or to see both signatures as election officials conduct absentee ballot signature matches. See, e.g., Ga. Republican Party, Inc. v. Sec’y of State for Ga., No. 20-14741, 2020 WL 7488181, at *1 (11th Cir. Dec. 21, 2020) (suit filed in 2020 to, inter alia, require election officials to provide meaningful access to observers watching absentee ballot signature matching process). Note that some state statutes explicitly prohibit such access. See, e.g., supra note 29. Iowa recognizes that access must be balanced against other concerns. See id. Courts, too, have long recognized that access for observers cannot come at the cost of voter intimidation or disruption of election processes. See, e.g., Poniktera v. Seiler, 104 Cal. Rptr. 3d 121, 136–38 (Ct. App. 2010) (upholding a prohibition on recording inside polling places, discussed at infra note 107).


\textsuperscript{63} See Colo. Code Regs. § 1505-1 (2021). The text of Rule 8.7 under § 1505-1 reads, “[the county clerk must submit a watcher accommodation plan to the Secretary of State by email using the approved form no later than 90 days before an election . . . . Watchers may be
In addition, Colorado has recognized that, particularly since its shift to
all-mail voting in 2013, traditional election observation practices needed
rethinking and updating. This is reflected not just in its rules for election
observers being synchronized to how Colorado conducts its elections but also
in Colorado’s adoption of sophisticated processes to ensure the reliability of
election outcomes. This includes sophisticated signature-matching software
for mail ballots, rigorous risk-limiting audit procedures, and an
impressive statistics portal that provides comprehensive and accessible data
from Colorado elections.

present at each stage of the conduct of the election, including when electors are voting or when
election judges are present and performing election activities. The county clerk must
provide, and identify in some manner, at least one primary contact for watchers at each
location where election activities are performed when watchers are present. At voter
service and polling centers, the designated election official must position the voting
equipment, voting booths, and the ballot box so that they are in plain view of the election
officials and watchers. Watchers must remain outside the immediate voting area while an
elector is voting. The six-foot limit in Rule 1.1.31 applies only to voting. Another
important feature of Colorado election administration is Colorado election officials’ plenary
power. The legislature creates the rules that govern elections, but the secretary of state has
secretary of state has the following powers: . . . [t]o promulgate, publish, and distribute . . .
such rules as the secretary of state finds necessary for the proper administration and
enforcement of the election laws."). Judd Choate, the director of the Division of Elections,
described it as akin to the legislature framing the house and elections officials putting in the
drywall and dormers. See Conversation with Judd Choate, supra note 27. The benefit of this
structure is that election officials, who are most familiar with the specifics of running a modern
election, are empowered to make decisions about how best to realize the legislative mandate.

Id. In the 2020 election cycle, the power of secretaries of state to make decisions about
election administration strained under the weight of arguments that the U.S. Constitution
delegates the exclusive power to decide how elections are run to state legislatures. Both
Georgia and Arizona have moved to strip power over the elections process from their states’
secretaries of state. See Aaron Blake, 2 Secretaries of State Undercut Trump’s Fraud Claims
in Key, GOP-Controlled States, Republicans Have Now Voted to Strip Both of Power, WASH.
https://perma.cc/YT2R-BXDH]. Practically, however, to use Choate’s analogy, state statutes
by their nature can only frame the structure. See Conversation with Judd Choate, supra note
27. Myriad decisions can and must be made by those who administer elections, whether
statewide or at the local level. That is the nature of the U.S. election system. See Jocelyn
Friedrichs Benson, Democracy and the Secretary: The Crucial Role of State Election
Administrators in Promoting Accuracy and Access to Democracy, 27 ST. LOUIS U. PUB. L.
REV. 343, 359–60 (2008) (describing the decentralized nature of U.S. elections and the
rulemaking power of secretaries of state and local officials).

64. Colo. Rev. Stat. § 1-7.5-107.3 (2021); Sandra Fish, Colorado Election: How
County Clerks Verify Voter Signatures on Mail-In Ballots, COLORADOAN (Oct. 9, 2020, 3:55
the signature verification process).

65. For a description of Risk-Limiting Audits and their value in promoting public
assurance that election outcomes are correct, see Appel & Stark, supra note 51, at 530–34
(describing efforts to ensure that voting processes are verifiable and describing the
risk-limiting audit process in detail).

Mismatch problems were not the only impediment to effective election observation in 2020. The next part explores how technology-enhanced election transparency mechanisms can undermine, instead of enhance, public confidence in elections.

B. Transparency Misfires

In numerous instances, election officials responded to COVID-19 restrictions by leveraging technology to help the public see that elections were fairly run. For example, Arkansas Governor Asa Hutchison issued an executive order on August 7, 2020, encouraging county election officials to livestream the processing, canvassing, and counting of absentee ballot envelopes online for remote observation.67 In July 2020, Vermont’s secretary of state issued guidance requiring that, if in-person election observation was impossible in November due to COVID-19 restrictions, “the process may be live-streamed . . . to allow for remote viewing, or may be recorded.”68

The use of livestreaming to promote transparency in elections has been a long-standing practice in many jurisdictions around the country.69 An early, widely praised example occurred during the Franken-Coleman recount in Minnesota in 2008. As the canvassing board reviewed contested absentee ballots in that recount, anyone with an internet connection could examine livestreamed ballots from their kitchen table along with election judges.70 Yet, just when livestreaming of election processes might have saved the day, ensuring public oversight of an election fraught with COVID-19 restrictions, today’s dysfunctional information environment knocked the legs out from underneath it.71

In several high-profile instances, livestreaming election processes fed massive conspiracy theories, ultimately undermining public trust. In Delaware County, Pennsylvania, for example, election workers undertook a routine practice of duplicating ballots that scanners

68. STATE OF VERMONT: OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY OF STATE, FIRST STATEWIDE ELECTIONS DIRECTIVE (2020).
69. See, e.g., ARIZONA REV. STAT. ANN. § 16-621(D) (2021) (“For any statewide, county or legislative election, the county recorder or officer in charge of elections shall provide for a live video recording of the custody of all ballots while the ballots are present in a tabulation room in the counting center. The live video recording shall include date and time indicators and shall be linked to the secretary of state’s website. The secretary of state shall post links to the video coverage for viewing by the public.”).
70. See, e.g., Marisa Helms, Political Junkies Flock to Live Streaming of Senate Recount Proceedings, MINNPOST (Dec. 22, 2008), https://www.minnpost.com/politics-policy/200812/political-junkies-flock-live-streaming-senate-recount-proceedings/ [https://perma.cc/RZ9M-2JDM] (describing how thousands tuned in to the canvassing livestream and noting that “a lot of [viewers] are saying they think [the recount] is incredibly honest, fair and transparent” as a result of the livestream (second alteration in original)).
rejected to ensure those otherwise valid votes counted.\textsuperscript{72} Election officials took pains to provide transparency by livestreaming the process to ensure voters that nothing was amiss.\textsuperscript{73} Yet, what the public saw on the livestream feed was election officials appearing to illegally mark ballots. That, of course, fed conspiracy theories, which Delaware County immediately sought to counteract.\textsuperscript{74} But the damage had already been done.

The 2020 election supplied numerous examples of this phenomenon.\textsuperscript{75} Despite best intentions, technology-enhanced measures to improve transparency and public trust very often produced the exact opposite result: whether it was video feed of boxes being unloading off trucks\textsuperscript{76} or supposed suitcases of ballots under cloth-covered tables,\textsuperscript{77} such efforts fed, rather than quelled, the conspiracy machine.

Part of the problem in 2020 was the toxic nature of partisanship this country continues to experience. Multiple factors, including assumed bad faith of one’s political opponents, distrust of government actors, an inability to agree on the existence of facts, and malicious interference by actors foreign and domestic, makes the goal of running a smooth election particularly fraught.\textsuperscript{78} These challenges also undermine traditional mainstays of transparency as a means of ensuring public confidence in election outcomes. In the old days, a picture was worth a thousand words; today, a picture breeds a thousand conspiracies.

\textsuperscript{72} Ballot duplication is the process for replacing damaged or improperly marked ballots—when the voting system cannot read the ballot—with a new ballot that preserves the voter’s intent. \textit{See generally} Michelle Shafer, \textit{Ballot Duplication: What It Is, What It Is Not and Why We Are Talking About It in 2020}, OVERSEAS VOTING INITIATIVE (July 20, 2020), \url{https://ovi.csg.org/ballot.duplication-what-it-is-what-it-is-not-and-why-we-are-talking-about-it-in-2020/} [https://perma.cc/T6AU-RDNF].

\textsuperscript{73} Press Release, Delaware Cnty., Pa., Delaware County’s Response to Video Circulating of Ballots (Nov. 6, 2020), \url{https://www.delcopa.gov/publicrelations/releases/2020/ballotvideoresponse.html} [https://perma.cc/Q22H-UVXD] (describing efforts to livestream vote counting).

\textsuperscript{74} \textit{Id.} (refuting claims that election officials were marking blank ballots when instead they were engaged in the routine process of ballot duplication).


\textsuperscript{77} Ali Swenson, \textit{Surveillance Tape Breeds False Fraud Claims in Georgia}, ASSOCIATED PRESS (Dec. 4, 2020), \url{https://apnews.com/article/election-2020-donald-trump-georgia-media-social-media-e9a73462c239e7aa39683f0f582a6659e} [https://perma.cc/2D4V-ZXVH] (debunking claims of “suitcases filled with ballots” hidden under a cloth-covered table and tallied without supervision in Georgia).

\textsuperscript{78} \textit{See generally} Persily, \textit{supra} note 71 (describing the ills that plague modern democracy).
Counteracting misinformation and disinformation in elections presents a far bigger—and in ways existential—challenge to democratic functioning than election observer reform can hope to address. Yet, it is important to consider how observation mechanisms play a role both in perpetuating misinformation and disinformation and potentially quelling it. We learned in 2020 that livestreaming election processes is not the easy fix that some hoped it would be. Despite this, as discussed further below in Part III, thoughtful use of technology can and should be leveraged to augment oversight.

C. Lack of Uniformity

A final shortcoming of current election observation rules and practices is their lack of uniformity. The existence of different laws in different states, and even different observation rules and practices within the same state, feeds public mistrust. Different jurisdictions with different rules relating to who can observe and what observers may do may create barriers to entry for people to engage in observation. It also serves the narrative of election administrators hiding something: why all these different, complicated, and often confusing rules?

Variation in election observation policies between states is profound. Some states are quite permissive, allowing any member of the public to observe. Other states are restrictive, requiring individuals to be formally appointed to observe well in advance of elections (usually by candidates or political parties). Some states require observers to wear identification badges. Some states require that observers be registered voters in the state;
some states require observers to be registered voters in the precinct in which they wish to observe.83 Other states have no residency restrictions.84

Of course, state variation in election laws is a mainstay of U.S. elections.85 In some instances, decentralized elections have proven to be a feature not a bug. Decentralized election systems were widely touted in 2016, for example, as a main reason why U.S. elections could not be easily hacked.86 Indeed, election observer rules lack uniformity in large part because of the wide divergence in how states run elections. Election observation rules that work in one state may not work in another state since every state’s elections process is different, sometimes even varying from one county to the next.87 Too much standardization might also disrupt long-standing state traditions, leading to greater mistrust among those familiar with past practice. People within a state may have faith in how their elections are run because the same observer practices have been in place for decades. Change, in this way, can be antithetical to securing public trust in election outcomes.

Despite these concerns, we live in a world of instantaneous information dissemination where state borders often seem irrelevant during elections.88 In presidential election years particularly, nationwide attention is routinely transfixed on elections in only a handful of swing states.89 This translates to swing states being flooded with out-of-state onlookers, who may be unfamiliar with local observer law, practices, and norms. Out-of-state

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83. See infra note 124 (listing state statutes that confine election observation residents of either state or jurisdiction in which they seek to observe).
84. For an example of a state that does not require observers to be residents of the state, see, e.g., ME. STAT. tit. 21-A § 1 (2021).
85. See generally Landau et al., supra note 14 (noting the benefits of decentralization of authority over elections).
87. See supra note 79 (contrasting observation in Douglas County with observation in Denver).
88. Dan Balz, Think All Politics Are Local?: The California Recall Says Most Politics Are Now National, WASH. POST (Sept. 18, 2021, 12:28 PM), https://www.washingtonpost.com/politics/take-california-recall-election/2021/09/18/defdfece2-182e-411e-9589-31ac3173c2e5_story.html [https://perma.cc/77FT-5BLZ] (“It may be time to revisit the old axiom from Tip O’Neill, the former Democratic House speaker from Massachusetts, who famously said that all politics are local. These days . . . most politics are national.”).
89. This has been a long-standing phenomenon, particularly since Florida played a pivotal role in the 2000 election. Les Kjose, Analysis: Lawyers Flock to Florida, UNITED PRESS INT’L (Oct. 25, 2004, 3:48 PM), https://www.upi.com/Defense-News/2004/10/25/Analysis-Lawyers-flock-to-Florida/31021098733728/ [https://perma.cc/PZM2-HGV7] (describing the influx of poll watchers from out of state, which prompted the president of the Florida State Association of Supervisors of Elections to send a letter to Governor Jeb Bush during the 2004 presidential election complaining of being “‘bombarded with phone correspondence from the voters because of the harassment they’re enduring’ at polling locations . . . .”).
onlookers may hold expectations about how elections are run and how observers participate based on practices in their home states.

In this environment, wide variance in observer rules breeds unfortunate confusion. It raises barriers of entry to those who would observe elections at a time when citizen engagement could help; it undermines the public trust that these statutes are meant to secure. While standardization may not be possible (or desirable), as discussed in Part III below, it may be that the federal government has a role to play in setting a floor for basic features of election observation.

II. POST-2020 ELECTION OBSERVATION REFORM

Despite wide consensus among election administrators (and judges) that the 2020 election was one of the most well-run, fair, and transparent elections in U.S. history,\textsuperscript{90} an alarming number of Americans lack faith in its outcome even months after President Joe Biden was inaugurated.\textsuperscript{91} Widespread dissatisfaction with the administration of the 2020 election was bipartisan. On the left, many believe barriers to voting prevented eligible voters from casting ballots. On the right are concerns—without evidence—that millions of ineligible voters skewed the outcome. Amidst these stark divisions, legislatures around the country are pursuing election reforms.\textsuperscript{92}

Legislatures in over twenty states have trained at least part of their election reform energies on observer statutes. Some reform proposals address the shortcomings identified herein. Several proposed reforms seek to ensure that

\textsuperscript{90} NAT’L TASK FORCE ON ELECTION CRISSES, STRENGTHENING OUR ELECTIONS AND PREVENTING ELECTION CRISSES: LESSONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FROM THE 2020 GENERAL ELECTION (2021), https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5e70e52c7c72720ed714313f1/600192b45103a7521617d636/1610715829231/ElectionTF-Report_2021.pdf [https://perma.cc/6TFX-V7UF] (assessing the November 2020 election and concluding that despite multiple opportunities for improvement and reform, the “2020 election had the highest turnout in American history, with nearly 160 million votes cast”). The report further found that “multiple independent bodies, including the Cybersecurity and Infrastructure Security Agency (CISA), Organization of Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), the Organization of American States (OAS), the Harvard Electoral Integrity Project (EIP), as well as election officials in dozens of states determined that the election was secure and free of widespread irregularities.” Id.

\textsuperscript{91} See supra note 1 and accompanying text.

election observers are given meaningful access to perform their role—for example, allowing observers to stand physically close enough to election officials and voters to “see and hear” their activities (making exceptions, of course, for ballot secrecy). The Georgia legislature, for example, added language to its election code requiring that poll watchers be allowed to “fairly observe” election procedures at ballot tabulation centers.

Other bills address the mismatch problem. The Montana legislature passed a bill that gives watchers permission to be present at all ballot drop-off locations. The New Hampshire State Senate passed a bill that gives observers the right to observe the processes of opening ballot envelopes and reviewing voter affidavits. New York passed legislation that allows watchers to be present at meetings where absentee ballots are being processed. Bills that address the mismatch problem are needed and should be lauded.

Election observer training is also rightfully on legislators’ radar. Georgia’s new election statute requires that poll watchers be trained to ensure they know their duties and state election laws. The Georgia law delegates to

93. See, e.g., S.B. 210, 105th Leg., Reg. Sess. (Wis. 2021); S.B. 1611, 87th Leg., Reg. Sess. (Tex. 2021) (providing observers permission to stand close enough to “see and hear” voters’ and election officials’ activities—provided that watchers cannot enter the voting booth—and preventing watchers from being denied “free movement” at polling places). Note that several courts have declined to hold that a lack of meaningful access invalidates an election. See, e.g., Benavente v. Taitano, 2006 Guam 16, 20 (holding that poll watchers being improperly denied access to polls as prescribed by law does not automatically provide the basis for a new election to be called); Conroy v. Levine, 100 A.D.2d 918, 919 (N.Y. App. Div. 1984) (finding that losing candidates’ poll watchers being improperly denied access to the polls did not provide basis for new election because the candidate could have sought appropriate judicial relief on election day); Menssen v. Eureka Unit Dist. No. 140, Woodford Cty., 388 N.E.2d 273, 277 (Ill. App. Ct. 1979) (declining to invalidate election challenged on the grounds that the public was not present to observe counting of absentee ballots and holding that the election could only be invalidated if poll watchers were systematically excluded from the polls).

94. S.B. 202, 2021–2022 Gen. Assemb., Reg. Sess. (Ga. 2021). Georgia’s legislation added the following italicized language to its poll watcher statute: “Such designated locations shall include the check-in area, the computer room, the duplication area, and such other areas as the superintendent may deem necessary to the assurance of fair and honest procedures in the tabulating center. The locations designated by the superintendent shall ensure that each poll watcher can fairly observe the procedures set forth in this Code section. The poll watchers provided for in this subsection shall be appointed and serve in the same manner as other poll watchers.” Ga. Code Ann. § 21-2-408(c) (2021) (emphasis added).


97. N.Y. Elec. Law § 9-209 (McKinney 2021) (effective Jan 1, 2023). Oregon considered, but ultimately failed to pass, a bill requiring that observers be present when absentee ballots are printed and placed in envelopes to be mailed to voters. S.B. 824, 81st Leg. Assemb., Reg. Sess. (Or. 2021).

98. S.B. 202, 2021–2022 Gen. Assemb., Reg. Sess. § 32 (Ga. 2021) (“No person shall be eligible to serve as a poll watcher unless he or she has completed training provided by the political party, political body, or candidate designating the poll watcher. Upon request, the Secretary of State shall make available material to each political party, political body, or candidate that can be utilized in such training but it shall be the responsibility of the political party, political body, or candidate designating the poll watcher to instruct poll watchers in their duties and in applicable laws and rules and regulations. Each political party, political
candidates and political parties the job of conducting training, although it does require the secretary of state to make training materials available for this purpose.\footnote{99} Done correctly, careful and detailed observer training can go a long way in contextualizing what observers see and curbing the negative effects of transparency.\footnote{100} If, for example, observers understood the ballot duplication process and its many protections, the unwarranted and misguided accusations levied in 2020 might have been quelled. Training and education, as explored further in Part III, are essential.\footnote{101}

Reforms that seek more meaningful access for observers, that address the mismatch problem, and that seek to educate observers about the election process and their role in it, are healthy legislative reactions to the current environment of widespread mistrust. Other election observation reform proposals are worrisome. Problematic legislative proposals fall into three categories: (1) bills that allow observers to use devices to record election processes, (2) legislation that imposes criminal penalties on election officials for obstructing election observers, and (3) reforms that remove state residency requirements for observers.

Following the 2020 election, legislatures around the country introduced bills to allow election observers to record what they see. So far, none advanced. An Illinois bill would have required all poll watchers in the state to wear body cameras.\footnote{102} A Michigan bill would have allowed watchers to use devices to record vote tabulation and would make it a misdemeanor to impede election observers from recording the tabulation process.\footnote{103} The Texas legislature advanced, but ultimately scuttled, bills that would give watchers authority to take pictures and record video in polling locations, body, or candidate shall, in their written designation of poll watchers, certify under oath that the named poll watchers have completed the training required by this Code section.”).  

99. \textit{Id.}


101. Other states are considering training requirements for challengers. \textit{See, e.g.}, H.B. 4528, 101st Leg., Reg. Sess. (Mich. 2021) (requiring challengers to undertake “comprehensive training” at least twenty days before each primary, general, or special election).


103. S.B. 276, 101st Leg. (Mich. 2021). In a nod to voter privacy, Michigan’s bill would make it a misdemeanor for watchers to photograph or record a voter entering, leaving, or voting at a polling place or a voter’s identification. \textit{Id.; see} Nick Corasaniti, \textit{G.O.P. Seeks to Empower Poll Watchers, Raising Intimidation Worries}, \textit{N.Y. TIMES} (May 1, 2021), https://www.nytimes.com/2021/05/01/us/politics/republican-pollwatchers.html [https://perma.cc/6F7P-WRS3] (describing efforts to allow poll watchers to record).
including of voters. Current Texas law prohibits election observers from carrying devices to record sound and images at the polls.

Many existing state statutes and secretary of state guidance prohibit observers from recording or taking pictures in polling places. Challenges

104. Nick Corasaniti, Texas Senate Passes One of the Nation’s Strictest Voting Bills, N.Y. TIMES (Aug. 31, 2021), https://www.nytimes.com/2021/05/29/us/politics/texas-voting-bill.html [https://perma.cc/NYM8-AYN5] (noting that “lawmakers dropped some of the most stringent [provisions], like . . . a measure that would have permitted partisan poll watchers to record the voting process on video”). Proposals would have allowed watchers to submit photos, video, or audio recordings of activity they believe to be unlawful to the secretary of state. A related Texas bill would have allowed watchers to record video or audio during the vote tabulation process. See Sweren-Becker, supra note 16.

105. TEX. ELEC. CODE ANN. § 3.33.051(c) (West 2021) (“A watcher may not be accepted for service if the watcher has possession of a device capable of recording images or sound unless the watcher agrees to disable or deactivate the device.”). Texas’s secretary of state similarly prohibits watchers from “[u]sing a wireless communication device within 100 feet of polling place . . .” TEX. SEC’Y STATE ELECTIONS DIV., POLL WATCHER’S GUIDE, §§ 33.052(b), 61.014 (2019), https://www.sos.state.tx.us/elections/forms/pollwatchers-guide.pdf [https://perma.cc/U9QJ-3J5U].

106. See, e.g., ARIZ. REV. STAT. ANN. § 16-515(G) (2021) (prohibiting photos or videos within seventy-five feet of a voting location); CAL. ELEC. CODE § 18541 (West 2021) (specifying that, in the voter intimidation context, “no person shall . . . [p]hotograph, video record, or otherwise record a voter . . .”); COLO. CODE REGS. § 1505-1, r. 15.7 (2021) (specifying observers may not “[u]se any electronic device to take or record pictures, video, or audio in any polling location or other place election activities are conducted”); Notice of Emergency and Proposed Rulemaking (D.C. Sept. 22, 2020) (to be codified at D.C. Mun. Regs. tit. 3 § 706.17(f)); Mich. DEP’T OF STATE BUREAU OF ELECS., THE APPOINTMENT, RIGHTS, AND DUTIES OF ELECTION CHALLENGERS AND POLL WATCHERS (2020), https://www.michigan.gov/documents/SOS_ED_2_CHALLENGERS_77017_7.pdf [https://perma.cc/Y9ZQ-8JM7] (stating that challengers and poll watchers may not “use a video camera or recording device, or the camera or recording features of a smart phone or tablet in polling place or clerk’s office”); Minn. Sec’y of State, Polling Place Rules, https://www.sos.state.mn.us/elections-voting/election-day-voting/polling-place-rules/ [https://perma.cc/9MQM-VP2K] (last visited Sept. 17, 2021) (“discourage[ing]” taking photos); MISS. CODE ANN. § 23-15-577(c)–(d) (2021) (noting that poll watchers are prohibited from viewing or photographing pollbooks while at polling place or photographing receipt books while at polling place); MONT. SEC’Y OF STATE, ELECTION JUDGE HANDBOOK (2020), https://sosmt.gov/Portals/142/Elections/Documents/Officials/Election-Judge-Handbook.pdf [https://perma.cc/4QGW-PPMB] (delegating decision to local election officials); OHIO SEC’Y OF STATE, ELECTION DAY VOTING DIRECTIVE 2016–23, at 7–26 (2016), https://elections.ohio.gov/dir2016-23-eom-ch_07.pdf [https://perma.cc/XW5Q-5BUD] (prohibiting observer use of recording devices); S.D. SEC’Y OF STATE, POLL WATCHER AND OBSERVER GUIDELINES (2021), https://sdsos.gov/elections-voting/assets/PollWatcherObserverGuidelines.pdf [https://perma.cc/UR6L-5QWG] (stating that observers may not “[u]se any communication or photographic device in any manner which repeatedly distracts, interrupts or intimidates any voter or election worker . . . or [u]se any communication, photographic or video device to take video or pictures of the pollbook”); TENN. CODE ANN. § 2-7-104(c) (2021) (“Poll watchers observing the duties of the absentee counting board are prohibited from possessing any electronic device, including a cellular telephone or pager, capable of transmitting election results to a location outside the room where the ballots are being tabulated.”); TEX. ELEC. CODE ANN. § 33.051(c) (2021) (“A watcher may not . . . [a]n [s]tore or [a]ccess electronic information on a device capable of recording images or sound unless the watcher agrees to disable or deactivate the device.”); UTAH CODE ANN. § 20A-3a-801(5)(a)(i) (West 2021) (stating that an observer may not “electronically record an activity . . . if the recording would reveal a vote or otherwise violate a voter’s privacy or a voter’s right to cast a secret ballot”); VA. CODE ANN. § 24.2-604.4(D) (West 2021)
to prohibitions of photographing or recording in polling places have been unsuccessful. Perhaps courts recognize the danger of enabling recording in polling places, fearing eligible voters might shy away from the polls if they knew partisan observers would photograph and video record them?

Another concern is whether such recordings would be manipulated or presented out of context in ways that would jeopardize free and fair elections. In the context of policing, police body cameras and bystander cell phone videos are providing an important check on police power, albeit with concerning side effects.

Courts are just starting to come to terms with whether laws prohibiting members of the public from recording what they see and hear in places they are legally allowed to be violate the First Amendment. So far, courts of appeals are united on the right to record police interactions. But elections are fundamentally different from police interactions. Recognizing this, the U.S. Supreme Court has limited First Amendment protections in and

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(“Authorized representatives shall be allowed, whether in a regular polling place or central absentee voter precinct, to use a handheld wireless communications device but shall not be allowed to use such a device to capture a digital image inside the polling place or central absentee voter precinct.”).

107. See, e.g., Ponikera v. Seiler, 104 Cal. Rptr. 3d 121, 136–38 (Ct. App. 2010) (holding that a regulation prohibiting photography and video in polling places represented a reasonable accommodation of voters’ desire to cast a secret ballot and did not infringe on the poll watcher’s constitutional rights).

108. In at least one instance, an allegation of voter intimidation due to a poll watcher’s use of cameras failed to move a court to issue an injunction. See Ariz. Democratic Party v. Ariz. Republican Party, No. CV-16-03752, 2016 WL 8669978, at *13 (D. Ariz. Nov. 4, 2016) (holding that political party poll watcher training that encouraged poll watchers to follow people suspected of fraud outside of the seventy-five foot radius to photograph them did not violate an Arizona statute prohibiting photography by poll watchers within seventy-five feet of polls and did not merit an injunction due to lack of evidence that voters would be intimidated).

109. See Corasaniti, supra note 103.

110. See generally Jeffrey Bellin & Shevarma Pemberton, Policing the Admissibility of Body Camera Evidence, 87 FORDHAM L. REV. 1425 (2019) (describing the manipulation of body camera footage through police narration).


112. See Fields v. City of Philadelphia, 862 F.3d 353, 355–56 (3d Cir. 2017); Turner v. Lieutenant Driver, 848 F.3d 678, 689 (5th Cir. 2017); Am. Civ. Liberties Union of Ill. v. Alvarez, 679 F.3d 583, 595–600, 608 (7th Cir. 2012). See generally Aidan J. Coleman & Katharine M. Janes, Comment, Caught on Tape: Establishing the Right of Third-Party Bystanders to Secretly Record the Police, 107 VA. L. REV. ONLINE 166, 168 (2021) (noting that “[f]ederal appellate courts across the country have consistently recognized the existence of a valid First Amendment right in recording the police in public spaces”).

113. See Rebecca Green, Election Surveillance, 57 WAKE FOREST L. REV. (forthcoming 2022) (describing the dangers of surveillance tactics in elections). The countermovement is that prohibiting election observers from recording what they see forces observers to rely on “second best” evidence when reporting irregularities to those running elections. This evidence might prove crucial to ensuring observer credibility in raising concerns. One might argue that aside from secret ballot concerns, voter privacy in and around polling places should not outweigh transparency and election integrity concerns. As Justice Antonin Scalia argued, democracy takes courage. Doe v. Reed, Wash. Sec’y of State, 561 U.S. 186, 228 (2010) (“Requiring people to stand up in public for their political acts fosters civic courage, without which democracy is doomed.”).
around polling places, citing the “substantial consensus... that some restricted zone around polling places is necessary to” protect the right to vote.\textsuperscript{114}

The fear that overly aggressive election observers will intimidate voters and do damage to the democratic process is hardly unfounded. This country has a long, sad history of racialized voter intimidation that continues to this day, including, and especially exacerbated by, those on a “ballot security” mission to preserve election integrity or (more ominously) the “purity” of elections.\textsuperscript{115}

This history gives the next problematic set of proposals an even more worrisome overlay: post-2020 legislation imposing criminal penalties on election officials who obstruct election observers or refuse to allow them to enter polling places or other venues where election processes are taking place. Iowa has passed such a statute,\textsuperscript{116} as has Texas.\textsuperscript{117} Texas’s new law additionally empowers poll watchers to seek court orders against election officials who “get in their way.”\textsuperscript{118}

\textsuperscript{114} Burson v. Freeman, 504 U.S. 191, 211 (1992).


\textsuperscript{117} Nick Corasaniti, \textit{Abbott Signs Texas Election Law, Ending a Fierce Voting Rights Battle}, \textit{N.Y TIMES} (Sept. 18, 2021), https://www.nytimes.com/2021/09/07/us/politics/greg-abbott-texas-voting-rights-law.html [https://perma.cc/H636-ADA8] (noting that the law greatly empowers poll watchers); H.B. 6, 87th Leg., Reg. Sess. (Tex. 2021) (creating a criminal offense for an election official to distance or obstruct the view of a watcher if it makes the watcher’s observation ineffective or to refuse to accept the required service of a watcher at a polling location or counting location); H.B. 4364, 87th Leg., Reg. Sess. (Tex. 2021) (creating a misdemeanor for an election official to intentionally or knowingly refuse to accept the required service of a watcher in a polling location or counting location); S.B. 7, 87th Leg., Reg. Sess. (Tex. 2021) (creating a criminal offense for an election official to distance or obstruct the view of a watcher if it makes the watcher’s observation ineffective, making it a misdemeanor for an election official to refuse to accept the required service of a watcher in a polling or counting location and allowing watchers to file suit seeking an injunction to obtain access to a polling location or ballot counting or processing location).

\textsuperscript{118} Acacia Coronado & Nicholas Riccardi, \textit{AP Explains: How Texas Law Makes Voting Harder}, \textit{NBC DFW} (Sept. 9, 2021, 4:41 PM), https://www.nbcdfw.com/news/local/texas-news/ap-explainer-how-texas-law-makes-voting-harder/2736064/ [https://perma.cc/RY4G-U95L]. The Texas law also gives poll watchers more latitude since they can only be removed from duty for violating an election law if that violation is witnessed by an election clerk or judge. \textit{Id.}
Criminalizing the actions of election officials, the vast majority of whom are temporary workers engaged in a critical act of public service, is risky. Election officials are charged with maintaining an orderly process during elections and ensuring that all eligible voters can cast their ballots free from intimidation. Subjecting election workers to criminal penalties at the whim of charged partisan actors is a recipe for not only a massive shortage of people willing to serve as poll workers but also disruptive and confrontational election environments.

A mix of allowing observers to record election processes and removing election officials’ ability to rein in bad behavior on the part of observers is concerning. Consider events surrounding a runoff election in Anchorage, Alaska in May 2021:

Citizen observers in Anchorage crowded outside the Election Center, photographing workers and writing down their license plate numbers. Inside, they filed challenge after challenge to routine counting procedures. At times, the observers grew openly hostile. Several officials were “accosted” in the parking lot, according to the Anchorage City Clerk’s Office. Threats poured in via email, with one announcing that election officials “should be publicly executed.”


120. The poll worker shortage in the United States is already pronounced, leading to pandemic-exacerbated fears of poll worker shortages in 2020. See, e.g., Editorial Board, America’s Poll Worker Shortage Is a Brewing Crisis, BLOOMBERG (Sept. 2, 2020, 8:00 AM), https://www.bloomberg.com/opinion/articles/2020-09-02/election-2020-poll-worker-shortage-could-create-a-crisis-for-voters [https://perma.cc/MQS5-XPVY]. Notably, this legislative inclination—reforms aimed at diminishing the power of election officials—ties into a larger post-2020 trend Professor Richard Hasen has dubbed “election subversion.” Richard L. Hasen, Identifying and Minimizing the Risk of Election Subversion and Stolen Elections in the Contemporary United States, 135 HARV. L. REV. F. (forthcoming 2022) (describing the “election subversion” trend). Criminalizing the actions of election officials is not new and is even part of the federal code. See 52 U.S.C. § 20511 (imposing criminal penalties for a variety of election offenses on “[a] person, including an election official, . . . in any election for Federal office”). Likewise, state laws have long featured criminal penalties for election official malfeasance. For example, a 1955 Michigan law still on the books imposes criminal penalties on election officials that “prevent the presence of any such [observer] . . . or shall refuse or fail to provide such [observer] with conveniences for the performance of the duties expected of him.” See Mich. Comp. Laws § 168.734 (1955). Several other states have had such laws on the books for decades. See, e.g., Del. Code Ann. tit. 15, § 5139 (2021); Ky. Rev. Stat. Ann. §§ 119.145, 119.225 (West 2021); N.Y. Elec. Law § 17-106 (McKinney 2021); Ohio Rev. Code Ann. § 3599.19(A)(13)–(14), (B) (West 2021). Prosecution under these provisions appears to be exceedingly rare and none involve prosecution for interfering with observers. See, e.g., People v. Vreeland, 191 N.E. 579 (N.Y. 1934); People v. Spitzer, 266 N.Y.S. 522 (Sup. Ct. 1933) (both involving intentional false statements regarding an election result).

121. Tim Elfrink, As GOP Candidate Used RV for 24/7 Watch, Anchorage Election Staff Say They Faced ‘Unprecedented Harassment,’ WASH. POST (May 28, 2021, 4:09 AM), https://www.washingtonpost.com/nation/2021/05/28/anchorage-election-harassment-bronson-dunbar/ [https://perma.cc/4QH5-HDPR] (citing a clerk’s report after the election that
Citizen election surveillance has a dangerous dark side. A final reform trend seeks to eliminate residency requirements allowing election observers who reside outside of a voting jurisdiction to observe election processes. It is understandable that residency restrictions would be eased. As noted above, because U.S. presidential elections come down to a handful of states, nationwide focus on how elections in those states operate leads to out-of-towners seeking access as observers. Being told “no” fuels mistrust. Yet, as explored below in Part III, there are important and court-sanctioned reasons why residency requirements improve election observation that explain why many states impose them.

highlighted the damaging effect of a lack of observer understanding of election processes: “[i]t was apparent from the behavior and questions . . . that a number of observers had not been trained by their campaign, many had not read the manual, and many did not have any understanding of the processes at the Election Center”).


123. See, e.g., S.B. 656, 123d Leg., Reg. Sess. (Fla. 2021) (failing to advance but allowing watchers to serve outside of their counties of residence if they were registered Florida voters and members of the Florida Bar); H.B. 738, 101st Gen. Assemb., Reg. Sess. (Mo. 2021) (failing to pass but eliminating requirement that observer reside in the designated jurisdiction); S.B. 1535, 87th Leg., Reg. Sess. (Tex. 2021) (eliminating requirement that watchers be residents of the precincts where they will serve, requiring instead that watchers be registered voters of the territories served by a polling place or other site).

124. The 2020 election featured bipartisan challenges to poll watcher residency requirements, none of which were successful. See Donald J. Trump for President, Inc. v. Boockvar, 493 F. Supp. 3d 331, 371 (W.D. Pa. 2020) (holding that Pennsylvania’s poll watcher residency requirements were designed to encourage familiarity of poll watchers with the location they operate in); Pennsylvania Democratic Party v. Boockvar, 238 A.3d 345, 390–91 (Pa. 2020) (finding that poll watcher residency requirements do not violate fundamental constitutional rights); Bolus v. Boockvar, No. 20-CV-01882, 2020 WL 6880960, at *5 (M.D. Pa. Oct. 27, 2020) (holding that restricting poll watchers to their counties of residence is a rational basis for increasing familiarity between voters and poll watchers). Before the 2020 election, an Ohio court used a rational basis review to find that residency requirements were constitutional. See Republican Party of Pa. v. Cortes, 218 F. Supp. 3d 396, 409 (E.D. Pa. 2016) (“The legislature’s decision to allow county election officials to credential only poll watchers from their own county is rationally related to the state’s interest in maintaining its county-run election system.”). In some states, observers must be registered voters from the state but can reside anywhere within the state. See, e.g., Ala. Code § 17-8-7 (2021); Haw. Rev. Stat. § 11-77 (2021); 10 Ill. Comp. Stat. Ann. § 5/17-23 (West 2021); Iowa Code § 49.104 (2021); La. Stat. Ann. § 18:427 (2021); Va. Code Ann. § 24.2-604.4 (2021). Other states are more restrictive, requiring poll watchers to be registered voters in the jurisdiction in which they will observe. See Fla. Stat. § 101.131 (2021) (“Each poll watcher shall be a qualified and registered elector of the county in which he or she serves.”); N.M. Stat. Ann. § 1-2-22 (2021) (“[W]atchers shall be voters of a precinct located in that county to which they are appointed.”); N.Y. Elec. Law § 8-500 (McKinney 2021) (“Each watcher must be a qualified voter of the city or county in which he is to serve.”); N.C. Gen. Stat. § 163-45 (2021) (“Persons appointed as observers . . . must be registered voters of the county for which appointed and must have
As states consider election observation reform in this highly fraught political environment, they must tread carefully. The next part offers a set of recommendations with this aim.

III. ELECTION OBSERVATION: A PATH FORWARD

Given current anxieties many Americans feel about how elections are administered and whether they produce accurate results, one solution is to increase civic engagement in the election process: the more people who are actively involved in elections, the more the public will learn about the many procedural safeguards and protections in place to ensure the count is correct. Election observation practices should tap this energy but should also recognize the potential for election observation to do harm. Bearing this balance in mind, this section suggests five basic principles to guide reform.

A. Address the Mismatch Problem

For those that have not yet done so, states should update their observer statutes to account for how voting takes place. Where applicable, states’ rules should provide meaningful access to observation at early voting sites and ensure that observer statutes account for voting centers and other consolidated election processes during voting and ballot tabulation. Much will depend on how state election administration is structured. Legislators should examine their state’s election processes from end to end and evaluate how to meaningfully incorporate observation at each phase. In addition, states should plan election observation contingencies should disruptions—like pandemic or weather-related disturbances—arise.

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126. In its report on voter confidence in election outcomes, Massachusetts Institute of Technology researchers arrived at the depressing conclusion that the single greatest factor in determining whether voters have confidence in outcomes is whether their party or candidate won. See Voter Confidence, MIT Election Data + Science Lab (Apr. 2, 2021), https://electionlab.mit.edu/research/voter-confidence [https://perma.cc/G2ZR-RQTV]. But, aside from this finding, the researchers cite studies finding that direct experience with the voting process bolsters confidence in the outcome. Id. They cite research suggesting that “voters tend to be more confident when they don’t wait a long time to vote, when they encounter polling place officials who seem competent, and when they vote in person rather than by mail.” Id.

127. See Erin Duffen, Share of Absentee Ballots Requested in Select States for the 2020 Presidential Election in the United States, as a Share of 2016 Absentee Ballots, STATISTA.
As states review where mismatches occur, the wisest states will include state and local election administrators as much as possible in crafting observer reform. As the front line in election administration, election officials are in the best position to understand what observers clamor to see, what is most likely to impinge on an orderly process, and the best ways to make observation rules effective in practice. Involving election officials in crafting rules for observers might also lessen election administrator hostility toward observers who may view observers as interlopers rather than a crucial component of well-run elections. Whether it is involvement in the legislative process or authority in developing and implementing rules and policies, the experiences and knowledge of election administrators at the state and local levels should be at the forefront of reform.

B. Adopt “Contextualized Transparency” Mechanisms

Throwing the floodgates open to government processes and data can be dangerous despite the best intentions. Professor Lawrence Lessig identified this problem in 2009 in an article called Against Transparency. In it, he tells the story of surveillance cameras recording a blonde woman walking into an older man’s hotel room and the two leaving the room several hours later, leading viewers to jump to conclusions. The key piece of contextualized information: the woman is the man’s daughter.

In the election context, as discussed above, transparency mechanisms can similarly backfire. Contextualized transparency—that is, ensuring that those who observe elections are provided context and trained to understand what they are seeing—is one way to combat transparency harms. As one authority on election administration and verification recently put it:

Transparency must illustrate the complexity of running elections and educate observers. It cannot be merely theater or spectacle, especially when there are dangerous incentives for bad actors to engage in “transparency theater” or “election integrity theater.”

Contextualized transparency also involves election officials affirmatively pushing out election information to the public. This should include everything from explainers on ballot casting and vote tabulation processes—


129. Id.

130. Id.

131. See supra Part I.B.

including details about the safeguards in place—to information about absentee ballots (e.g., how many are sent to voters, how many are returned, etc.) and to releasing voting machine data (e.g., serial numbers of voting machines, tallies at the beginning and end of the day). Indeed, many states already require election officials to disclose such information.\textsuperscript{133} The more data and plain-English explanations state officials can provide about election administration, the better the public will (at least in theory) comprehend how secure and reliable elections are.\textsuperscript{134}

\textbf{C. Strengthen Structured Transparency Mechanisms}

Looking to history, our present circumstance is not the first time U.S. elections have confronted a crisis in confidence. As historians like Richard McCormick describe, U.S. elections in the nineteenth century reached an unsustainable level of debauchery.\textsuperscript{135} At the time, states turned to a storied reform measure to restore order to the process: the secret ballot. But, the secret ballot was only one of many paradigm-shifting reforms legislatures pursued at the time. State-printed ballots, moving polling locations to public buildings, and strict chain-of-custody statutes are a few examples of the ways in which reforms sought to professionalize and institutionalize election administration.\textsuperscript{136} As I explain in an earlier article on election transparency:

Although states wrested control of most voting processes from political parties, reformers understood that transparency could not be eliminated. Political parties would be unwilling to cede power without mechanisms to confirm the other party had not committed fraud or otherwise stolen the vote. Those unhappy with election outcomes would allege fraud, corruption, or official collusion in throwing the election if elections were conducted entirely out of view. State legislatures therefore passed statutes giving explicit roles to party representatives in election processes.\textsuperscript{137}

This form of “structured transparency,” in which the state creates structured mechanisms for citizen election observation, is a central component of modern-day election administration, as described above. States adopted and continue to maintain defined processes for appointing


\textsuperscript{134} See supra note 62.

\textsuperscript{135} See Richard P. McCormick, The History of Voting in New Jersey: A Study of the Development of Election Machinery 1664–1911, at 151–52 (1953). (“Scenes of drunkenness at the polls had become traditional. Indeed, in a great many places voting still took place in a ‘hotel,’ which made resort to spirituous refreshment both convenient and tempting.”).

\textsuperscript{136} Green, supra note 24, at 788–90.

\textsuperscript{137} Id. at 788.
observers and detailed rules for how observers engage during the election process.138

As U.S. election processes experience extreme duress today—this time due to an information environment that enables bad actors to actively undermine public faith in outcomes—some proposed solutions could strengthen and update structured transparency efforts. For example, the Council of State Governments (CSG) recommends that when election officials enable remote observation streamed online, those who wish to watch should be required to provide their name, address, and other information, and they should accept conditions and guidelines for remote observation.140 CSG points to one such process used in Orange County, California.141 This is a form of structured transparency configured for the digital age.

A more basic structured transparency regime would: (1) permit only candidate- or party-appointed poll watchers; (2) limit the number of poll watchers; (3) follow the lead of the many states with state residency requirements for observers; (4) require observers to wear ID badges; (5) provide structured mechanisms for reporting and resolving observed irregularities; and (6) prohibit observers from engaging in disruptive behavior and empower election officials to ensure that observers follow the law.142 South Carolina is an example of a state with highly structured observation rules. South Carolina’s statute allows candidates to appoint watchers at polling places. The statute, however, also requires all candidates certified by a single political party to be jointly represented at each polling place by no more than two watchers from the party for each 1000 registered voters at that polling place.143 Further, watchers must be qualified voters in the county in which they are appointed to observe.144 Under its credentialing process, observers must present polling place election officials with a letter signed by the candidate or by an appropriate party official stating that they are certified to act as a watcher in that precinct, and they also must wear a badge specifying the name of the candidate or party they represent.145 South Carolina’s statute prohibits conversations between watchers and voters in the

138. Id.
141. Id.
142. See supra note 124.
144. Id. (“Each candidate . . . may appoint a watcher for any voting place where his name appears on the ballot . . . . [C]andidates who are certified by a political party must be jointly represented at each polling place by not more than two watchers from the party for each one thousand registered voters.”).
145. Id.
polling place, and watchers may not interfere with the orderly conduct of the election or influence voters in the casting of their ballots.\textsuperscript{146}

A tradeoff for rigorous appointment, residency, credentialing, and badge requirements is that these mechanisms create barriers to entry for would-be observers. In the past, trouble rallying enough volunteers to serve in the role of observer, especially during noncontroversial election cycles, may have prompted states to ease onerous requirements. Adding structured transparency requirements back in may make recruiting sufficient numbers of observers more difficult. Clear, uniform and not unnecessarily burdensome rules will help counter this concern—as will easily accessible training opportunities.\textsuperscript{147}

Regardless, the highly charged partisan environment today cautions against lax rules regarding who can observe and suggests that states should double down on structured transparency regimes.\textsuperscript{148}

\textbf{D. Use Transparency Technologies Thoughtfully}

Some surprisingly low-tech solutions have emerged to assist observers in absorbing and understanding what they are watching. For example, some jurisdictions found that requiring election workers to wear color-coded vests helped those watching understand each worker’s role, and in some cases (when workers wore red or blue vests signifying their partisan affiliation), recognize that both Democratic and Republican election workers were present.\textsuperscript{149} Another low-tech solution is adding signage (either physically on

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{146} Id.
\textsuperscript{147} Another problem with more stringent residency requirements is the increased difficulty for partisans to recruit observers in locations where they have fewer supporters—precisely the places where partisan distrust might be highest. This concern can be somewhat assuaged by limiting residency requirements to in-state as opposed to in-county or in-precinct.
\textsuperscript{148} Relatedly, some states have rules explicitly enabling members of the media to observe at elections. \textit{See, e.g.,} \textit{Conn. Gen. Stat.} § 9-236(c) (2021) (describing how members of the news media may enter and leave the polling place at any time throughout the day to observe the election); \textit{Del. Code Ann. tit. 15, § 4933(c) (2021)} (\textit{"M}edia and persons conducting exit polls shall be permitted within the 50-foot exclusion zone, but may not talk to persons who have not voted while in the 50-foot exclusion zone.\textit{"}); \textit{Minn. Stat.} § 204C.06 (2021) (\textit{"A} news media representative may enter a polling place during voting hours only to observe the voting process. A media representative must present photo identification to the head election judge upon arrival at the polling place, along with either a recognized media credential or written statement from a local election official attesting to the media representative’s credentials."); \textit{Okla. Stat. tit. 26, § 7-112 (2021)} (specifying that members of the media may be permitted inside the polling place for a period not exceeding five minutes); \textit{Va. Code Ann.} § 24.2-604.5 (2021) (specifying that members of the media may visit and film or photograph inside the polling place for a reasonable and limited amount of time); \textit{see also Ind. Code § 3-6-10-1 (2021); Iowa Code § 49.104 (2021); Md. Code Regs. 33.07.04.02 (2021); Sarah Matthews et al., Election Legal Guide, Repts, Comm. for the Freedom of the Press, https://www.rcfp.org/resources/election-legal-guide/} [https://perma.cc/YDT5-3TML] \textit{(last visited Sept. 17, 2021)} (providing state-by-state rules that apply to media coverage of election processes).
\textsuperscript{149} Phone Conversation with Jennifer Morrell, Co-founder, The Elections Grp. (Feb. 19, 2021) (notes on file with author).
\end{footnotesize}
location or as banners in the livestream) explaining the processes for in-person observers and/or livestreams.\textsuperscript{150}

Aside from low-tech solutions such as these, an important piece of contextualizing transparency in elections is ensuring thoughtful deployment of transparency technologies. For example, election officials might consider recording election processes from multiple angles. Such a recording need not be simultaneously broadcast but rather can be preserved on file as evidence if allegations of misconduct arise.\textsuperscript{151} A variation of this idea would be to record everything and livestream it but allow only those who have completed a comprehensive training on what they are seeing to view the feed, enabling these knighted remote observers to both report problems in real time and transmit assurances to candidates, parties, and the public.\textsuperscript{152}

Technology can also be used to help observers see better. Rather than relying on a system of observers peering over shoulders (which can get complicated when many observers are present), screens can be mounted above election workers, magnifying their computer screens or workstations to help observers standing farther away see what is taking place.\textsuperscript{153} Coupled with rigorous training to help observers understand the processes election officials are engaged in, mounted screens that are strategically positioned can do a lot of work.

Unfortunately, we have seen that even the most considered technology-augmented transparency measures fall prey when bad actors proceed in bad faith. Even if the stream is narrated or features prominent signage explaining processes underway, bad-faith actors can (and likely will) manipulate these efforts—if not the footage itself—to serve their desired ends.\textsuperscript{154} Election officials designing transparency technology mechanisms must take these realities into account.

\textbf{E. Pursue Uniformity}

Following the 2020 election, the Bipartisan Policy Center (BPC) issued a series of recommendations including that, “*[n]o later than 60 days before an election, counties and states should produce and publicly display detailed observation procedures for the voting process, ballot reconciliation and canvass, recounts, and audits.”\textsuperscript{155} The report’s authors, informed by a

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{150} Id.
\item \textsuperscript{151} This idea draws on the same principles underpinning the impulse behind paper ballots and other means of verifying the voting process. See Appel & Stark, \textit{supra} note 51, at 525.
\item \textsuperscript{152} Katyovi, \textit{supra} note 7.
\item \textsuperscript{153} Conversation with Judd Choate, \textit{supra} note 27 (describing screens mounted above election officials’ workstations to enable and facilitate election observation in Denver).
\end{itemize}
bipartisan task force of election officials,\textsuperscript{156} recognized that clear observation rules, published well in advance of elections, go a long way in ensuring that observation mechanisms serve their desired purpose. The BPC Report further recommended that, even in states where local officials create and implement election observation plans, “states should produce best practices for observation procedures that local jurisdictions can follow or expand upon.”\textsuperscript{157} This is a direct call for standardized election observation approaches statewide. Uniform observation rules in a state will help counter narratives that election officials have something to hide.

Because state elections—especially in presidential election years—do not operate in a bubble, Congress should consider implementing rules to standardize some aspects of election observation nationally.\textsuperscript{158} For example, in the interest of preventing chaos and the spread of misinformation and disinformation, Congress should consider prohibiting the use of devices by people other than election officials to record or photograph voters or voting processes in and around polling places in federal elections.\textsuperscript{159} Congress might also consider prohibiting states from criminalizing election official actions seeking to preserve orderly election observation and to prevent voter intimidation.

Following the BPC’s recommendation, Congress should also consider legislation that, while accommodating variance in election observation rules, requires states to provide adequate notice to the public regarding who can observe and what observers can and cannot do.\textsuperscript{160} Congress might further require that states mandate election observer training so that observers can

\textsuperscript{156} Id. The BPC recommendations stem from input by a task force BPC first convened in 2018 with the goal of putting “the voices of election officials first.” Id. The original task force included “21 state and local election officials from diverse states and political ideologies.” Id. After 2020, BPC expanded its “task force to include 28 state and local election officials from 20 states.” Id.

\textsuperscript{157} Id.


\textsuperscript{159} Congress holds the power to regulate the administration of federal elections in the states. U.S. Const. art I., § 4, cl. 1.

\textsuperscript{160} The Freedom to Vote Act contains a provision constraining observer conduct. See S. 2747, 117th Cong. § 303A(b) (2021) (prohibiting observers from being within eight feet of a voter or ballot).
contextualize what they see and understand the rules in place. Federally mandated training would ensure that observers understand their rights and obligations and increase the likelihood that observers serve their function without impeding the process or disrupting or deterring eligible voters from casting lawful ballots.

CONCLUSION

There are no easy answers when it comes to restoring public trust in American elections. With so many variables and challenges swirling, doing anything to repair public confidence seems Herculean. Still, rethinking and reworking rules for election observation is a critical piece of the puzzle. States put election observation rules into place to engage the public in the election process, provide an important mechanism of oversight, and ultimately help ensure public buy-in of election outcomes. Post-2020, these goals are more important than ever to pursue. Reforming state observer rules should be prioritized to ensure they serve—and do not undermine—their critical purpose.