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8	League of Women Voters of Arizona Protect Democracy Project and		
9	Campaign Legal Center		
10	IN THE SUPERIOR COURT OF THE STATE OF ARIZONA		
11	IN AND FOR THE COUNTY OF MARICOPA		
12	ARIZONA FREE ENTERPRISE CLUB,	No. CV2024-002760	
13	an Arizona non-profit corporation,	AMICUS BRIEF OF THE LEAGUE OF	
14	Plaintiff,	WOMEN VOTERS OF ARIZONA,	
15	v.	THE PROTECT DEMOCRACY PROJECT, AND CAMPAIGN LEGAL	
16		CENTER IN OPPOSITION TO	
17	ADRIAN FONTES, in his official capacity as Arizona Secretary of State,	PLAINTIFF'S MOTION TO SHOW CAUSE AND IN SUPPORT OF	
18		DEFENDANT'S MOTION TO	
	Defendant.	DISMISS	
19		(Assigned to the Honorable	
20		Jennifer Ryan-Touhill)	
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Interest of Amici¹

The League of Women Voters of Arizona is a domestic nonprofit corporation in Arizona. The League is a non-partisan, grassroots organization that encourages informed and active participation in the democratic process. It is an affiliate of the League of Women Voters of the United States. Voter intimidation is a vital issue of concern to League members because it imperils members' fundamental rights of speech, association, as well as "the right to cast a ballot in an election free from the taint of intimidation." *Burson v. Freeman*, 504 U.S. 191, 211 (1992) (plurality). The League has worked to address the threat of voter intimidation in Arizona, including participating in successful litigation to halt unlawful intimidation at ballot dropboxes in 2022.

The Protect Democracy Project and Campaign Legal Center are nonpartisan, nonprofit organizations that believe that it is vital that elected officials represent "the free and uncorrupted choice of those who have the right to take part in that choice." *Ex Parte Yarbrough*, 110 US 651, 662 (1884). Both organizations have engaged in litigation and advocacy to prevent voter intimidation and protect the right to vote; for example, Protect Democracy represented the League of Women Voters of Arizona in its 2022 litigation against dropbox intimidation, and Campaign Legal Center has been counsel of record in multiple voting rights cases in Arizona, including *League of United Latin Am. Citizens v. Reagan*, No. CV-17-04102-PHX-DGC (D. Ariz.) and *Living United for Change in Ariz. v. Fontes*, No. CV-22-00509-PHX-SRB (D. Ariz.).

Introduction and Summary of Argument

In the 2022 midterm elections, groups of vigilantes—inspired by a baseless, discredited, and debunked conspiracy theory from the film 2000 Mules—organized a campaign to surveil drop boxes in Maricopa County. The vigilantes, sometimes armed and sometimes even wearing tactical gear, photographed voters, and threatened to dox any voter they deemed (without evidence) a "mule." The vigilantes also circulated

¹ No party or its counsel authored this brief in whole or in part. No person or entity—other than *amici*—contributed money that was intended to fund preparing this brief.

disinformation about Arizona election law that wrongly suggested that voters who were engaged in *lawful conduct* were criminals. That continued until a federal district court issued a temporary restraining order halting the ongoing violation of federal voter intimidation laws. *See Az. All. for Retired Am. v. Clean Elections USA*, No. CV-22-01823-PHX-MTL, 2022 WL 17088041, at *2 (D. Ariz. 2022) (Ex. 1). That resulting guidance from a federal judge as to how to enforce voter intimidation laws consistent with the First Amendment was incorporated into the latest revision of the Secretary's Election Procedures Manual ("EPM"). *See* EPM at 74 n.40.

Now, however, plaintiff asks this Court to conclude that conduct that a federal court enjoined as unlawful *must* be protected First Amendment activity. This Court should refuse, deny the show cause application, and dismiss for at least three reasons.²

First, the complaint is procedurally defective on ripeness and standing grounds. Claim 1 is not ripe; it asserts challenges against the EPM, Compl. ¶ 54, but does not set out the necessary concrete plan by the plaintiff to engage in conduct discussed by those EPM provisions. Standing is absent too because the supposed "injury" plaintiff claims is neither causally connected to the EPM nor redressable by the remedy sought. Critically, the disputed EPM language does not create new crimes. Instead, the EPM summarizes examples of the types of conduct that can—depending on context—be prohibited by other bodies of law that are not challenged in this case.

Second, plaintiff is wrong that the EPM "sweep[s] far beyond" existing legal protections for voter intimidation. Compl. ¶ 62. The EPM describes conduct that courts have found unlawful. And in some instances federal law requires elections officials to prevent such conduct. See 42 U.S.C. § 1986. So the challenged EPM descriptions help ensure elections are managed with the "maximum degree of correctness, impartiality, uniformity and efficiency" as required by Arizona law. A.R.S. § 16-452(a).

Third, plaintiff's challenge is based on an incorrect understanding of First

² Amici focus on Claim 1, but agree with the Secretary that this lawsuit should be dismissed.

Amendment law. It is not true that "only speech that is directed to inciting or producing imminent lawless action and is likely to incite or produce such action can carry a criminal sanction." Compl. ¶ 42 (cleaned up). Both conduct and words that intimidate voters can fall outside of free speech protections when they are not inherently expressive, fall into one of the well-recognized categorical exceptions to the First Amendment, or otherwise withstand First Amendment scrutiny. As a result, even if plaintiff eventually succeeds in establishing ripeness and standing, there would be still numerous grounds on which such conduct can be regulated consistent with the First Amendment.

Argument

I. This case should be dismissed on prudential grounds.

Arizona courts "apply the doctrines of standing and ripeness as a matter of sound judicial policy." *Brush & Nib Studio, LC v. City of Phoenix*, 247 Ariz. 269, 279 ¶ 35 (2019) (cleaned up). Standing "sharpens the legal issues presented by ensuring that true adversaries are before the court and thereby assures that our courts do not issue mere advisory opinions." *Sears v. Hull*, 192 Ariz. 65, 71 ¶ 24 (1998). Ripeness "prevents a court from rendering a premature judgment or opinion on a situation that may never occur." *Winkle v. City of Tucson*, 190 Ariz. 413, 415 (1997). For both doctrines, Arizona courts consider federal case law "instructive" but not binding. *Arizonans for Second Chances v. Hobbs*, 249 Ariz. 396, 405 ¶ 22 (2020) (cleaned up).

Here, plaintiff fails both inquiries. This dispute is not ripe because plaintiff's complaint does not allege a sufficiently concrete plan of conduct to allow this Court to determine whether that proposed conduct is constitutionally protected. And plaintiff does not have standing because any prohibition on plaintiff's conduct is traceable to federal and state voter intimidation laws and not the EPM, so plaintiff's injury is neither causally connected to the EPM nor redressable by the order plaintiff seeks.

A. Ripeness

Courts "determine ripeness by evaluating both the fitness of the issues for judicial decision and the hardship to the parties of withholding court consideration." *Phelps Dodge*

Corp. v. Az. Elec. Power Co-op., 207 Ariz. 95, 118 ¶ 94 (App. 2004) (cleaned up). The key ripeness issue here is whether this dispute is "fit" for adjudication. See Addington v. U.S. Airline Pilots Ass'n, 606 F.3d 1174, 1179 (9th Cir. 2010).

"A question is fit for decision when it can be decided without considering contingent future events that may or may not occur as anticipated, or indeed may not occur at all." *Id.* (cleaned up). Thus, a claim "is fit for decision if the issues raised are primarily legal, do not require further factual development, and the challenged action is final." *Wolfson v. Brammer*, 616 F.3d 1045, 1060 (9th Cir. 2010) (cleaned up). Cases are *not* fit when "further factual development would significantly advance" a court's "ability to deal with the legal issues presented." *Nat'l Park Hosp. Ass'n v. Dep't of Interior*, 538 U.S. 803, 812 (2003) (cleaned up).

The complaint does not allege sufficient facts to show a ripe dispute. Claim 1 purports to challenge the EPM, Compl. ¶ 54, but plaintiff offers no concrete explanation or plan as to how exactly it plans to engage in conduct that would implicate the various parts of the EPM it challenges. The closest plaintiff comes is suggesting that it wants to "observ[e] activity at drop boxes" and "convey[] a message to others that the drop boxes are being watched and should be watched." Compl. ¶ 38; see also Mussi Decl. ¶ 8. But that falls well short of what the ripeness doctrine requires, which is "more than a hypothetical" stated "intent to violate the law" but rather a "concrete plan." Thomas v. Anchorage Equal Rts. Comm'n, 220 F.3d 1134, 1139 (9th Cir. 2000) (en banc) (cleaned up). That is why, for example, the Arizona Supreme Court limited its review in *Brush* & Nib (a case involving claims that Phoenix's Human Rights Ordinance unlawfully compelled speech in violation of the Arizona Constitution) to only claims involving custom wedding invitations materially similar to those on the record—that was the only claim for which the record was sufficiently developed, containing "detailed examples of Plaintiffs' words, drawings, paintings, and original artwork, and [Plaintiffs had] testified about their . . . custom invitations." 247 Ariz. at 280 ¶ 37.

Unlike Brush & Nib, however, plaintiff here provides no such details. Plaintiff

"cannot specify when, . . . where, or under what circumstances," *Thomas*, 220 F.3d at 1139, it will monitor dropboxes, and there is no way to for the Court to determine whether plaintiff is proposing to engage in dropbox monitoring that runs afoul of the EPM's warnings. And, of course, even if plaintiff were able to establish a sufficiently concrete dispute with respect to dropbox monitoring—and it presently does not—that still would fall short of establishing a ripe dispute as to the *other parts* of the EPM it challenges, such as "disseminating false or misleading information at a voting location," or "questioning" a pollworker in an "intimidating manner," Compl. ¶ 54(e)-(f) (cleaned up), to name just a few. So, as in *Brush & Nib*, dismissal is required of at least those portions of plaintiff's complaint, *see* 247 Ariz. at 281 ¶ 41, at least until plaintiff amends to add sufficient allegations to establish a ripe dispute.

Moreover, the issues presented by plaintiff's complaint "are not purely legal," because in this case, the "First Amendment challenge... requires an adequately developed factual record." *Thomas*, 220 F.3d at 1142. Importantly, even speech protected by the First Amendment may be regulated when it survives "ordinary First Amendment scrutiny," *United States v. Hansen*, 599 U.S. 762, 784 (2023) (cleaned up), an inquiry that can turn on a plaintiff's or a defendant's "utterances." *Nat'l Coal. on Black Civic Participation v. Wohl*, 661 F. Supp. 3d 78, 121 n.29 (S.D.N.Y. 2023). Plaintiff's future observation of dropboxes may constitute voter intimidation, but there is nothing in the Complaint or Application for Order to Show Cause that would allow a court to determine whether such conduct by plaintiff would be protected or proscribable. That provides a second basis for dismissing on ripeness grounds, as plaintiff cannot "force[]" this Court "to decide constitutional questions in a vacuum." *Am.-Arab Anti-Discrimination Comm. v. Thornburgh*, 970 F.2d 501, 511 (9th Cir. 1991) (cleaned up). "[A] pre-enforcement challenge . . . without proper factual development is inappropriate." *Id*.

In short, plaintiff asks this Court to adjudicate a dispute that is "too remote and abstract an inquiry for the proper exercise of the judicial function." *Texas v. United States*, 523 U.S. 296, 301 (1998) (Scalia, J.) (cleaned up). This Court should dismiss.

B. Standing

Standing provides a second basis to dismiss Claim 1. To establish standing, a plaintiff should demonstrate—among other things—(1) "a causal nexus between the defendant's conduct and their injury" and (2) that the "requested relief would alleviate their alleged injury." *Arizonans for Second Chances*, 249 Ariz. at 405 ¶ 23 (cleaned up); *id.* at 406 ¶ 25. Plaintiff can make neither showing. Its injury is traceable to federal and state voter intimidation laws rather than the EPM—and, for much the same reason, its requested relief would not alleviate plaintiff's supposed "injury" in any way.

This unusual situation is due to plaintiff's mischaracterization of the EPM. Plaintiff suggests that the challenged parts of the EPM create crimes. Compl. ¶¶ 32–33; 54–55. That is wrong. The challenged parts merely provide election workers with illustrations of conduct that can—depending on context—violate existing law.

With respect to the ballot dropbox portions of the EPM, the relevant provision is directed at the County Recorders and says that "the County Recorder or officer in charge of elections may restrict activities that interfere with the ability of voters and/or staff to access the ballot drop-off location free from obstruction or harassment." EPM at 73–74. But the language plaintiff challenges, Compl. ¶ 54(h), does not purport to articulate a new rule—rather, it accurately recounts the terms of a Temporary Restraining Order issued to halt ongoing violations of federal voter intimidation law. EPM at 74 n.40; *see Az. All. for Retired Am.*, 2022 WL 17088041, at *2 (Ex. 1). To boot, the EPM does not even say that such conduct *always* constitutes voter intimidation—it merely notes that it *can*.

So the quoted provisions of the EPM do not establish *new* crimes; they merely recount conduct that has been found to violate other laws. For example, photographing potential voters has long been recognized as a subtle, yet effective tactic of voter intimidation. As the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights explained in its study of why electoral participation in Mississippi remained low even after the passage of civil rights laws, the practice of photographing potential voters—conduct similar to what plaintiff may be proposing here (*see* Compl. ¶ 40)—intimidated voters due to fear of retaliation:

[Black voters] in rural counties who attempt to register cannot hope to remain anonymous. Any doubt that applicants will be identified has been removed by the legal requirement that their names will be published in local newspapers and by practices such as the photographing of [Black] applicants by public officials. In this climate a single incident . . . may be sufficient to deter many potential registrants.

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U.S. Comm'n on Civil Rights, *Voting in Mississippi* 39 (1965) (emphasis added) (Ex. 2).

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release/file/1417796/dl?inline (Ex. 6).

⁴ E.g., 18 U.S.C. §§ 241, 594; 42 U.S.C. § 1985(3); 52 U.S.C. §§ 10101(b), 10307(b), 20511(1); A.R.S. §§ 16-1006, 1013, 1017.

Those intimidation tactics worked. See King v. Cook, 298 F. Supp. 584, 587 (N.D. Miss. 1969). Unsurprisingly, then, such conduct was understood to run afoul of federal voter intimidation law long before the Arizona Alliance TRO. E.g., Daschle v. Thune, No. 04-4177, Dkt. 6, at 2 (D.S.D. Nov. 2, 2004) (TRO prohibiting defendants from, among other things, "copy[ing] or "record[ing]" license plates of Native American voters) (Ex. 3). And it has continued to after, as well. E.g., Andrews v. D'Souza, No. CV-22-04259-SDG, 2023 WL 6456517, at *2-5, 9, 14 (N.D. Ga. 2023) (Ex. 4). Indeed, the U.S. Department of Justice has previously raised a near identical caution to the one raised in the EPM, warning individuals that "photographing or videotaping" voters "under the pretext that these are actions to uncover illegal voting[] may violate federal voting rights law."³

That should be fatal to plaintiff's challenge to the EPM's language regarding voter intimidation at ballot dropboxes. Because the challenged EPM language does not create a new prohibition on voter intimidation, but merely restates prohibitions originating from federal and state criminal and civil law, 4 those federal and state laws—and not the EPM—

³ U.S. Attorney's Office, Northern District of Alabama, District Elections Officers

Available Nov. 8 to Receive Complaints of Election Fraud or Voting Rights Abuses,

October 21, 2016, https://www.justice.gov/usao-ndal/pr/district-elections-officersavailable-nov-8-receive-complaints-election-fraud-or-voting (Ex. 5); see also U.S. Dep't

of Justice, Federal Law Constrains on Post-Election "Audits," at 6 (2021) (cautioning,

among other things, against the recording of license plates of individuals voting or attending voter registration meetings), available at https://www.justice.gov/opa/press-

are the cause of any change to plaintiff's conduct. That means plaintiff lacks standing because its injury is not "fairly traceable" to the EPM. *Fernandez v. Takata Seat Belts, Inc.*, 210 Ariz. 138, 140 ¶ 7 (2005) (cleaned up). It also means that the plaintiff's injury would not be "redressed by a favorable decision." *Karbal v. Ariz. Dep't of Rev.*, 215 Ariz. 114, 118 ¶ 19 (App. 2007). Even if plaintiff obtained its requested relief, plaintiff would be "still bound" by the provisions of federal and state law described by the EPM, which have "not been challenged." *In re MS2008-000007*, No. CA-MH 23-0073 SP, 2024 WL 121882, at *2 ¶ 9 (App. 2024) (unpublished) (Ex. 7). Accordingly, "any potential injury... is not redressable" and plaintiff "lacks standing." *Id*.

The same is also true of plaintiff's challenge to the parts of the EPM discussing intimidation at polling places. Here too, the challenged parts of the EPM do not create new crimes. In relevant part, the EPM states: "Any activity by a person with the intent or effect of threatening, harassing, intimidating, or coercing voters (or conspiring with others to do so) inside or outside the 75-foot limit at a voting location is prohibited." EPM at 181. It then notes, the "officer in charge of elections has a responsibility to train poll workers and establish policies to prevent and promptly remedy any instances of voter intimidation," *id.*, provides a set of guidelines to enforce at the polls (such as a prohibition on firearms inside polling places⁵), *id.* at 182, and then goes on to set out potentials examples of conduct that "may also be considered intimidating," *id.* at 183.

That too is an accurate summary of federal and state voter intimidation law. Arizona law prohibits intentional acts of voter intimidation. *See, e.g.*, A.R.S. §§ 16-1006, 1013, 1017. As does federal law. *See, e.g.*, 18 U.S.C. §§ 241, 594; 42 U.S.C. § 1985(3); 52 U.S.C. §§ 10101(b), 20511. Indeed, Section 11(b) of the Voting Rights Act (52 U.S.C. § 10307(b)) prohibits voter intimidation *even when* "no subjective purpose or intent" to

⁵ This prohibition is not challenged in this case, presumably because a prohibition on private parties bringing firearms to polls is consistent with both federal law, *see*, *e.g.*, *Council on Am.-Islamic Relations—Minn. v. Atlas Aegis, LLC*, 497 F. Supp. 3d 371, 378–79 (D. Minn. 2020), and the Second Amendment, *see*, *e.g.*, *N.Y. State Rifle & Pistol Ass'n v. Bruen*, 597 U.S. 1, 30 (2022).

intimidate is "shown." H.R. Rep. No. 89-439, at 30 (1965) (Ex. 8); see also Nat'l Coal, 661 F. Supp. 3d at 116; Colo. Mont. Wy. State Area Conf. of NAACP v. U.S. Elec. Integrity Plan, 653 F. Supp. 3d 861, 870 (D. Colo. 2023); League of United Latin Am. Citizens - Richmond Region Council 4614 v. Pub. Int. Legal Found., No. 18-cv-00423, 2018 WL 3848404, at *4 (E.D. Va. 2018) (Ex. 9). And the EPM correctly warns about the types of conduct that has resulted in past violations of the law. E.g., Nat'l Coal, 661 F. Supp. 3d at 112–21 (false statements about consequences of voting violate voter intimidation law).

Thus, here too plaintiff cannot demonstrate either (1) a causal connection between plaintiff's injury and the challenged portions of the EPM or (2) redressability. The EPM language plaintiff challenges does not create new crimes; it instead explains the boundaries of laws found elsewhere. So, plaintiff does not have standing because the complaint does not challenge the underlying legal provisions restricting plaintiff's conduct, and any court order would not even partially remedy plaintiff's alleged injury.

* * *

Lastly, this Court should not waive the ripeness and standing requirements. Waiver of both doctrines' prudential limitations on judicial power should be the "exception, not the rule." *Bennett v. Brownlow*, 211 Ariz. 193, 196 ¶ 16 (2005). Here there is good reason *not* to. Plaintiff's right of free speech "does not embrace a right to snuff out" the constitutional rights of others, *Red Lion Broad. v. FCC*, 395 U.S. 367, 387 (1969), and prohibitions on voter intimidation serve to protect fundamental rights of speech and association as well as "the right to cast a ballot in an election free from the taint of intimidation." *Burson*, 504 U.S. at 211. Those protections are "essential to the successful working" of American government. *Ex Parte Yarbrough*, 110 U.S. at 666. Thus, a judicial advisory opinion rendered on the basis of an incomplete and potentially inaccurate record could *also* prematurely license conduct that imperils other Arizonans' constitutional rights. The Court should dismiss.

II. The EPM language at issue accurately summarizes the prohibitions of federal and state law and was appropriately included in the EPM.

For the reasons noted above, the portions of the EPM challenged in Claim 1 accurately recount the sort of conduct that either "likely" or "may" constitute a violation of *other* bodies of law. EPM at 74 n.40; 182. So even if plaintiff could show that this case is justiciable, its claim would fail on the merits: because the EPM's description accurately reflects the type of conduct that can—depending on context—give rise to violations of state and federal law, those descriptions are important to ensuring that Arizona elections officials manage elections with the "maximum degree of correctness, impartiality, uniformity and efficiency." A.R.S. § 16-452(a). Prohibiting voter intimidation serves compelling governmental interests. *See Burson*, 504 U.S. at 199, 208–11. Thus, plaintiff cannot show on the merits that the challenged portions of the EPM "sweep far beyond" existing legal protections. Compl. ¶ 62.

Indeed, informing elections officials as to the potential breadth of federal voter intimidation law is important because federal law can impose affirmative duties on elections officials to prevent intimidation in federal elections. In particular, the support-or-advocacy clauses of 42 U.S.C. § 1985 make it unlawful to conspire to intimidate *or* injure eligible voters from participating in support or advocacy in federal elections. *See* 42 U.S.C. § 1985(3). And 42 U.S.C. § 1986—which was passed to address a failure by certain states to adequately address political intimidation and violence, *see* 42 Cong. Globe, 42d Cong., 1st Sess. 805 (1871) (Ex. 10)—imposes an affirmative duty on state officials to act with reasonable care to prevent conspiracies prohibited by 42 U.S.C. § 1985. *See Park v. City of Atlanta*, 120 F.3d 1157, 1160–61 (11th Cir. 1997). Thus, the EPM's warning remains both appropriate and wise, as a failure to adequately respond can lead to monetary liability for both officials and jurisdictions. *See* Carl Smith, *Tools to Combat Voter Intimidation, from the 19th Century and Today*, Governing (Dec. 13, 2023), https://www.governing.com/politics/tools-to-combat-voter-intimidation-from-the-19th-century-and-today (Ex. 11).

III. There is no First Amendment right to engage in voter intimidation.

Defendants are plainly wrong that only "speech that is directed to inciting or producing imminent lawless action and is likely to incite or produce such action can carry a criminal sanction." Compl. ¶ 42 (cleaned up). Speech may be regulated when it (1) fits within one of the recognized categorical exceptions to the First Amendment (which include, but are not limited to, incitement), see United States v. Stevens, 559 U.S. 460, 468–69 (2010), or (2) withstands "ordinary First Amendment scrutiny," Hansen, 599 U.S. at 784 (cleaned up). Further, conduct may be regulated when it is not "inherently expressive." Rumsfeld v. Forum for Acad. and Institutional Rights, Inc., 547 U.S. 47, 66 (2006) ("FAIR"). Therefore, there are multiple ways in which voter intimidation may be regulated consistent with the First Amendment.

Not Expressive Conduct. The U.S. Supreme Court has "rejected the view that conduct can be labeled speech whenever the person . . . intends . . . to express an idea." FAIR, 547 U.S. at 65–66 (cleaned up). First Amendment protection extends "only to conduct that is inherently expressive." Id. at 66. Thus, there are plenty of ways to engage in an "activity" that "intimidate[es]" voters, Compl. ¶ 54(a), without engaging in First Amendment protected activity. Assaults can be unlawful voter intimidation, e.g., Allen v. City of Graham, No. 20-CV-997, 2021 WL 2223772, at *7 (M.D.N.C. 2021) (Ex. 12), and do not constitute "expressive conduct protected by the First Amendment." Wisconsin v. Mitchell, 508 U.S. 476, 484 (1993). Obstructing access to the polls would also be unprotected too. Cf. Singleton v. Darby, 609 F. App'x 190, 193 (5th Cir. 2015) (unpublished) (Ex. 13) ("The First Amendment does not entitle a citizen to obstruct traffic or create hazards for others."). The "constitutionally protected nature of the end" of an intent to communicate a message does not shield the "use of unlawful, unprotected means." Snyder v. Phelps, 562 U.S. 443, 461 (2011) (Breyer, J., concurring); id. at 471 (Alito, J, dissenting) (same).

Categorical Exclusions. "From 1791 to the present . . . the First Amendment has permitted restrictions upon the content of speech in a few . . . historic and traditional

categories." *Stevens*, 559 U.S. at 468 (cleaned up). Those categories include fraud, defamation, true threats, and speech incidental to criminal or tortious conduct. *See id.*; *Counterman v. Colorado*, 600 U.S. 66, 73–74 (2023); *FAIR*, 547 U.S. at 62. And when speech falls into one of the exceptions, its "prevention and punishment" has "never been thought to raise any Constitutional problem." *Stevens*, 559 U.S. at 469 (cleaned up). So while speech can be involved in many variations of voter intimidation, it can nonetheless fit into a categorical exception and fall outside of any constitutional protection. ⁶

Constitutional Scrutiny. Even political speech can be regulated when it withstands "ordinary First Amendment scrutiny." Hansen, 599 U.S. at 784 (cleaned up). And many restrictions on voter intimidation can withstand any applicable level of scrutiny—up to and including strict scrutiny—because preventing voter intimidation is undoubtedly a compelling state interest. E.g., Burson, 504 U.S. at 199–211 (upholding restriction on voter intimidation under strict scrutiny analysis); Nat'l Coal, 661 F. Supp. 3d at 119–21 & n.29 (upholding prohibition on voter intimidation under intermediate scrutiny, but noting the prohibition would also survive under strict scrutiny). Protections against electoral intimidation are "essential to the successful working" of American government, Ex Parte Yarbrough, 110 U.S. at 666, and can survive even under a strict scrutiny analysis because regulations must only be "be narrowly tailored, not... perfectly tailored." Williams-Yulee v. Fla. Bar, 575 US 433, 454 (2015) (cleaned up).

Indeed, there are substantial First Amendment interests furthered by enforcement of voter intimidation laws. After all, the First Amendment includes the right of voters "to associate for the advancement of political beliefs"—a right that ranks "among our most precious freedoms." *Williams v. Rhodes*, 393 U.S. 23, 30 (1968); *e.g.*, Armand Derfner & J. Gerald Herbert, *Voting is Speech*, 34 Yale L. & Pol. Rev. 471, 485-91 (2016). Voters have a fundamental interest in "express[ing] their own political preferences," *Norman v.*

⁶ E.g., Paynes v. Lee, 377 F.2d 61, 63 (5th Cir. 1967) (true threats); Andrews, 2023 WL 6456517, at *9, 14 (defamation) (Ex. 4); Nat'l Coal., 661 F. Supp. 3d at 132-33 (fraud); United States v. Butler, No. 14,700, 25 F. Cas. 213, 217-23 (C.C.D.S.C. 1877) (conduct incidental to criminal conduct) (Ex. 14).

Reed, 502 U.S. 279, 288 (1992) and casting a ballot, *Anderson v. Celebrezze*, 460 U.S. 780, 806 (1983). Thus, voter intimidation and political violence can deny Americans the ability to exercise their constitutional rights.

As recently as the last federal election, Arizona voters and members of the League were intimidated by vigilante ballot dropbox monitoring operations. Compl. ¶¶ 54-63, League of Women Voters of Ariz. v. Lions of Liberty LLC, No. CV-22-08196-PCT-MTL (Oct. 25, 2022) (Ex. 15). It was only through enforcement of voter intimidation laws by the League and others that Arizonans were able to safely cast their ballots without fear of intimidation or harassment, thereby enabling all Arizonans to exercise their constitutional rights free from fear of intimidation, harassment, or worse. The same protections are required for future elections, and the challenged provisions of the EPM are necessary to assist county election officials to effectively enforce those protections.

These assorted First Amendment doctrines have three implications:

First, they again demonstrate why Claim 1 is not ripe. Plaintiff cannot find shelter in the First Amendment simply because it does not intend to engage in incitement under Brandenburg v. Ohio, 395 U.S. 444 (1969). Instead, there are several First Amendment doctrines that could justify regulation of plaintiff's actions, and plaintiff actually needs to express an intent to engage in a defined course of action before either the State or the Court knows which are potentially applicable.

Second, a facial challenge would not be appropriate here. While the plaintiff claims that the EPM has a chilling effect, Compl. ¶ 46–47, the First Amendment's "concern with chilling protected speech attenuates" when a law regulates more than just "pure speech" but "conduct" as well. Virginia v. Hicks, 539 U.S. 113, 124 (2003) (cleaned up). Thus, "[r]arely, if ever" will a concern about chilling invalidate "a law or regulation that is not specifically addressed to speech," id., because "prohibiting all enforcement of that law—particularly a law that reflects legitimate state interests in maintaining comprehensive controls over harmful, constitutionally unprotected conduct" imposes "substantial social costs," Id. at 119 (cleaned up). Thus, complaints about a potential chill have no purchase

here, as voter intimidation can occur via (1) a wide swath of conduct involving no speech at all and (2) speech that may be regulated, either due to the categorical exceptions or passing First Amendment scrutiny. So here, as is elsewhere, courts should handle potentially unconstitutional applications of voter intimidation laws as they "usually do—case-by-case." *Hansen*, 599 U.S. at 770. In other words, "as-applied challenges can take it from here," *id.* at 785, *once* a plaintiff alleges a justiciable dispute.

Finally, plaintiff cannot recast Claim 1 to be about freedom of association. "[A]ny burden on plaintiff['s] freedom of association" would be "justified for the same reasons that" any burdens on speech are justified. Holder v. Humanitarian L. Project, 561 U.S. 1, 40 (2010). "[I]t would be anomalous for a restriction on speech to survive . . . under" freedom of speech principles "only to be invalidated as an impermissible infringement" on association. Christian Legal Soc. v. Martinez, 561 U.S. 661, 681 (2010).

Conclusion

This Court should deny the order to show cause and grant the motion to dismiss.

DATED this 22nd day of March, 2024.

OSBORN MALEDON, P.A.

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