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The Honorable JOHN C. COUGHENOUR

**United States District Court
Western District of Washington
Seattle Division**

Human Life of Washington, Inc., *Plaintiff,*
v.
Chair Bill Brumsickle, et al.,
Defendants.

No. 08-CV-00590-JCC

**Plaintiff’s Summary Judgment
Motion & Memorandum**

ORAL ARGUMENT REQUESTED

Human Life of Washington (“HLW”) moves for summary judgment on its Verified Com-
plaint (Dkt. 1) (“VC”) challenging the definitions of (a) “political committee” (“PAC”),
RCW 42.17.020(39); (b) “independent expenditure,” RCW 42.17.100; (c) “political advertising,”
RCW 42.17.020(37); and (d) “rating, evaluation, endorsement or recommendation,” WAC 390-
16-206. There are no material facts in dispute and HLW is entitled to judgment as a matter of
law. Fed. R. Civ. P. 56.

Facts

The relevant facts are set out in the Verified Complaint and restated in *HLW’s Statement of
Undisputed Material Facts*. Essentially, HLW wants to do “issue advocacy” about the public-
policy issue of physician-assisted suicide. “Issue advocacy conveys information and educates. An
issue ad’s impact on an election, if it exists at all, will come only after the voters hear the infor-
mation and choose—uninvited by the ad—to factor it into their voting decisions.” *FEC v. Wis-
consin Right to Life*, 127 S. Ct. 2652, 2667 (2007) (Roberts, C.J., joined by Alito, J.) (stating
holding, *see Marks v. United States*, 430 U.S. 188, 193 (1977)) (“*WRTL II*”). Such “issue advo-

1 cacy” on public policy issues is “pure political speech,” entitled to the highest First Amendment
2 protection. *Id.* 2673-74. HLW does not plan to do, or solicit funds to do, “express advocacy” of
3 the passage or defeat of Washington Initiative Measure No. 1000 (“I-1000”), i.e., “independent
4 expenditures” as the proper scope of that term is recognized in the ballot-measure context. *See*
5 *California Pro-Life Council v. Getman*, 328 F.3d 1088, 1096-00 (9th Cir. 2003) (“*CPLC I*”) (re-
6 fusing to find “independent expenditure” definition vague and overbroad because it had been
7 given express-advocacy construction). But the Public Disclosure Commission (“PDC”) interprets
8 the communications that HLW proposes as not issue advocacy, but express advocacy. *Compare*
9 *VC with Answer* (Dkt. 1, 35) at ¶¶ 27, 28, 29, 30, 35, 36, 37. HLW considers the challenged pro-
10 visions unconstitutional and will neither assume their burdens nor risk intended activities absent
11 requested relief.

12 **Argument**

13 **I. The “Political Committee” Definition Is Unconstitutional.**

14 “‘Political committee’ means any person . . . having the expectation of receiving contribu-
15 tions or making expenditures in support of, or opposition to, any . . . ballot proposition.
16 RCW 42.17.020(39). HLW challenges this definition and Washington’s two tests implementing
17 it, i.e., Washington’s (a) “a primary purpose” test, *see*, PDC Interpretation 07-02, “*Primary Pur-*
18 *pose Test*” *Guidelines* (May 2, 2007); *State v. Dan Evans Campaign Comm.*, 546 P.2d 75, 79
19 (Wash. 1976) (en banc); and *Evergreen Freedom Found. v. Washington Educ. Ass’n*, 49 P.3d
20 894, 903 (Wash. App. 2002); and (b) “receiver of contributions” test. *See Evergreen, id.* at 904;
21 1973 Wash. Att’y Gen. Op. 114; PDC, “*Primary Purpose Test*” *Guidelines* at 3.

22 **A. PAC Status Imposes Substantial Burdens.**

23 PAC status imposes substantial organizational and conduct burdens, including registering as
24 a PAC, appointing a treasurer, using a designated account, keeping detailed records, reporting
25 contributions and expenditures at prescribed intervals, disclosing information about persons mak-
26 ing contributions over \$100, keeping account books current and available for public inspection,

1 and being subject to random PDC audits. *Compare VC with Answer* (Dkt. 1, 35) at ¶¶ 44. These
2 burdens are substantial. The PDC’s manual entitled “Political Committees” (“*PAC Manual*”)
3 (available at www.pdc.wa.gov) contains 69 pages (after introductory material) explaining the
4 numerous requirements. This *PAC Manual* declares that “[t]reasurers for most political commit-
5 tee campaigns using full reporting will have to devote many hours to keeping exact records and
6 filing accurate, detailed reports of receipts and expenditures.” *Id.* at 1.

7 The Supreme Court has recognized that similar federal PAC requirements impose substantial
8 organizational and conduct burdens. In *FEC v. Massachusetts Citizens for Life*, 479 U.S. 238
9 (1986) (“*MCFL*”), a four-Justice plurality traced similar burdens, *id.* at 253, concluding that:

10 These additional regulations may create a disincentive for such organizations to engage in
11 political speech. Detailed recordkeeping and disclosure obligations, along with the duty to
12 appoint a treasurer and custodian of the records, impose administrative costs that many small
entities may be unable to bear. Furthermore, such duties require a far more complex and formal-
ized organization than many small groups could manage.

13 *Id.* at 254-55 (footnote omitted). The fact that MCFL had a PAC did not change the analysis be-
14 cause it was the ideological corporation itself, not the PAC, seeking relief, and “other organiza-
15 tions comparable to MCFL may not find it feasible to establish such a committee and may there-
16 fore decide to forgo engaging in independent political speech.” *Id.* at 255 n.8. “The fact that the
17 statute’s practical effect may be to discourage protected speech is sufficient to characterize [2
18 U.S.C.] § 441b as an infringement on First Amendment activities.” *Id.* at 255. Justice O’Connor
19 agreed with the four, noting that the problem was not with “disclosure of a group’s independent
20 campaign expenditures” per se, but that “the significant burden . . . [came] from the additional
21 organizational restraints imposed” *Id.* at 264-65 (O’Connor, J., concurring in part and con-
22 curring in the judgment). As a *separate* burden, the five Justices noted the source and amount
23 limits on contributions to federal PACs. *WRTL II* reaffirms that “PACs impose well-documented
24 and onerous burdens, particularly on small nonprofits.” 127 S. Ct. at 2671 n.9.

25 The distinction that the Court made in *MCFL* between (a) one-time reporting of independent
26 expenditures (the “less restrictive” means) and (b) the “full panoply of regulations that accom-

1 pany status as a political committee” is central to the present case. 479 U.S. at 262 (Court opin-
2 ion). Just because Washington may require one-time reporting of true independent expenditures,
3 does not justify the more burdensome, intrusive PAC-style reporting.

4 Another serious burden of compelled disclosure is the fact that it burdens the people’s First
5 Amendment rights to engage in core political speech and to retain their privacy, as well as the
6 First Amendment right (where groups are involved) to associate to amplify speech. These are
7 fundamental rights in our system of constitutional government where the people are sovereign.
8 And where the speech being regulated is about public policy issues, the need and right to speak
9 are most urgent and require bright-line, rigorous protection. These burdens are not unique to
10 PAC-style disclosure, but apply to all forms of compelled disclosure in the campaign-finance
11 area. The privacy burden was expressly recognized in *Buckley v. Valeo*: “compelled disclosure,
12 in itself, can seriously infringe on privacy of association and belief guaranteed by the First
13 Amendment.” 424 U.S. 1, 64 (1976). Compelled disclosure imposes “significant encroachments
14 on First Amendment rights.” *Id.* “[P]ublic disclosure of contributions . . . will deter some . . .
15 who otherwise might contribute. In some instances, disclosure may even expose contributors to
16 harassment or retaliation. These are not insignificant burdens on individual rights . . .” *Id.* at 68.
17 *Buckley* considered these privacy, contribution-deterrence, and potential-harassment burdens as
18 cognizable burdens to be considered *whenever* the constitutionality of disclosure schemes is con-
19 sidered. *Id.* at 68. The Court also recognized that, in severe cases involving disfavored groups,
20 these burdens could become so severe that no disclosure could be required. *Id.* at 68-74. Such a
21 level of potential harm is not asserted here, but these burdens must yet be considered whenever
22 government compels disclosure of information otherwise protected by First Amendment privacy.

23 The Court has recognized the inherent burdens imposed by compelled disclosure in the refer-
24 endum context. In *McIntyre v. Ohio Elections Commission*, 514 U.S. 334 (1995), the Court dealt
25 with a provision requiring on-communication disclosure of the author. The Court recognized that
26 a person may wish to avoid disclosure for “fear of economic or official retaliation, concern about

1 social ostracism, or merely . . . a desire to preserve . . . privacy” *Id.* at 341-42.

2 These inherent constitutional concerns must be considered whenever government seeks to
3 compel disclosure. *Davis v. FEC*, 127 S. Ct. 2759 (2008), affirmed that there is a *per se* First
4 Amendment privacy burden that must be included in the constitutional analysis whenever there is
5 compelled disclosure, even though that case involved a candidate disclosing campaign finances:
6 “[W]e have repeatedly found that compelled disclosure, in itself, can seriously infringe on pri-
7 vacy of association and belief guaranteed by the First Amendment.” *Id.* at 2774-75 (*quoting*
8 *Buckley*, 424 U.S. at 64). Significantly, *Davis* cited *Buckley* as authority for the disclosure burden
9 and degree of scrutiny, *id.*, not *McConnell v. FEC*, 124 S. Ct. 619 (2003), eliminating any possi-
10 bility that *McConnell* changed *Buckley*’s standards.

11 Since the present case involves burdens on what *WRTL II* called “issue advocacy,” proper
12 weight must also be given to *WRTL II*’s reaffirmation of *Buckley*’s special solicitude for “issue
13 advocacy” and the bright-line tests protecting it. *See* 127 S. Ct. at 2659, 2667, 2673-74. The fact
14 that *WRTL II* dealt with a prohibition on “electioneering communications” may not properly be
15 used to distinguish the *Buckley* analysis, which *WRTL II* reaffirmed and which governs this case.

16 **B. Imposed PAC Status and Burdens Require Strict Scrutiny.**

17 Because PAC status seriously burdens core political speech, the Supreme Court has consis-
18 tently required strict scrutiny when PAC status is imposed. *See MCFL*, 479 U.S. at 256 (“When a
19 statutory provision burdens First Amendment rights, it must be justified by a compelling state
20 interest.”); *id.* at 262 (less-restrictive-means test); *Austin v. Mich. State Chamber of Commerce*,
21 494 U.S. 652, 658 (1990) (“The Act imposes requirements similar to those in the federal statute
22 involved in *MCFL* Although these requirements do not stifle corporate speech entirely, they
23 do burden expressive activity. [citations omitted] Thus, they must be justified by a compelling
24 state interest.”). Under *MCFL* and *Austin*, strict scrutiny applies to PAC-status imposition as a
25 matter of law.

26 The words these cases use state the rule more broadly than just being about PAC status,

1 which is relevant to the other counts in this case. *MCFL* required strict scrutiny “[w]hen a statu-
2 tory provision burdens First Amendment rights,” *supra*, and *Austin* did so where “requirements
3 . . . burden expressive activity.” *Supra*. This broader approach was reaffirmed in *WRTL II*: “Be-
4 cause BCRA § 203 burdens political speech, it is subject to strict scrutiny. Under strict scrutiny,
5 the *Government* must prove that applying BCRA to *WRTL*’s ads furthers a compelling interest
6 and is narrowly tailored to achieve that interest.” 127 S. Ct. at 2664 (emphasis in original; cita-
7 tions omitted). *WRTL II* equated the referenced “political speech” with “issue advocacy,” which
8 must be protected from the regulation that may be permissibly imposed on what *WRTL II* called
9 “campaign speech,” i.e., “express advocacy.” *Id.* at 2659. In *Buckley v. American Constitutional*
10 *Law Foundation*, 525 U.S. 182 (1999), Justice Thomas’s concurrence examined the Court’s use
11 of strict scrutiny, noting that “[w]hen [an] election law directly regulates core political speech,
12 we have always subjected the challenged restriction to strict scrutiny.” *Id.* at 206. Where core
13 political speech is involved, the Court has “ordinarily applied strict scrutiny without first deter-
14 mining that the State’s law severely burdens speech,” *id.* at 207, probably, he added, because “it
15 makes little difference whether we determine burden first because restrictions on core political
16 speech so plainly impose a ‘severe burden.’” *Id.* at 208 (citation omitted). *WRTL II* did just what
17 Justice Thomas described by requiring strict scrutiny without asking whether the burden was se-
18 vere because any burden on core political speech is severe. 127 S. Ct. at 2664.

19 *CPLC I* followed these precedents and specifically held that strict scrutiny is required where
20 a provision would impose PAC status on a “multi-purpose organization” engaging in express
21 advocacy of the passage or defeat of a ballot measure:

22 [t]he [*MCFL*] Court recognized that reporting and disclosure requirements are more burdensome
23 for multi-purpose organizations (such as *CPLC*) than for political action committees whose sole
24 purpose is political advocacy. Given that the *MCFL* Court considered FECA’s disclosure
25 requirements to be a severe burden on political speech for multi-purpose organizations, we must
analyze the California statute under strict scrutiny. *Post-Buckley*, the Court has repeatedly held
that any regulation severely burdening political speech must be narrowly tailored to advance a
compelling state interest.” (citations omitted).

26 *CPLC I*, 328 F.3d at 1088. This holding applies *a fortiori* to a group that eschews the *express*

1 advocacy that CPLC did, but wants to do *non-express* advocacy of a public policy issue.

2 Nothing in *McConnell* could have altered the requirement of strict scrutiny where PAC-style
3 burdens are imposed because *McConnell* never addressed the question. It addressed non-PAC
4 disclosure of “electioneering communications,” 540 U.S. at 196, which is like the one-time,
5 independent-expenditures reports that *MCFL* said were the less-restrictive means of meeting the
6 government’s informational interest than imposing the panoply of PAC-style burdens. *See supra*.

7 While *McConnell* did say “disclosure requirements are constitutional because they d[o] not
8 prevent anyone from speaking, *id.* at 201 (quotation marks and citations omitted), that was dic-
9 tum because (a) the Court was not deciding the level of scrutiny to apply to disclosure require-
10 ments and (b) the statement could not be a test since such a test would find *all* disclosure require-
11 ments constitutional and there would have been no need for strict scrutiny of imposed PAC status
12 in *MCFL* and *Austin*. *See supra*. If that were the rule, the holding in *California Pro-Life Council*
13 *v. Randolph*, 507 F.3d 1172 (9th Cir. 2007) (“*CPLC II*”), that PAC status may not be imposed on
14 “multi-purpose organizations” was erroneous because the imposition would have been constitu-
15 tional. *CPLC II* was not wrong. The Ninth Circuit’s decision to employ strict scrutiny to imposed
16 PAC-status was correct as a matter of Supreme Court precedent, not just the law of the case.
17 Moreover, if this Court were to decide not to apply strict scrutiny to Washington’s “political com-
18 mittee” definition and hold that PAC status may be imposed on “multi-purpose organizations,”
19 that holding would be inconsistent with *CPLC II*’s holding. Ultimately, courts are “bound by
20 holdings, not language.” *Alexander v. Sandoval*, 532 U.S. 275, 282 (2001).

21 The strict scrutiny that must be employed here must be truly strict, as in *MCFL*, *Austin*, and
22 *CPLC I & II*, not the apparently lesser variety of *Alaska Right to Life Committee v. Miles*, 441
23 F.3d 773 (9th Cir. 2006) (“*ARTL*”). First, however, it should be noted that *ARTL* does not control
24 this case. *CPLC I* and *CPLC II* control because they involve PAC status in the ballot-initiative
25 context. So whatever may be the law in the *candidate*-election context (*ARTL*), *CPLC II* holds
26 that PAC status may not be imposed on “multi-purpose organizations” in the *ballot-initiative*

1 context. 507 F.3d at 1190. *CPLC II* also supersedes *ARTL* chronologically, so *CPLC II* controls
2 any conflicts of applicable analysis. *ARTL* relied on three governmental interests to justify impos-
3 ing PAC status, 441 F.3d at 791-92, but those interests were set out in *Buckley* in the *candidate-*
4 election context. 424 U.S. at 66-68. *CPLC I* held that the two interests targeted at quid pro quo
5 corruption were inapplicable because such corruption doesn't exist absent candidates, so only a
6 general informational interest applies here. 328 F.3d at 1105 n.23. *ARTL* upheld a broad and
7 vague definition of "electioneering communication" that it said was modeled on the contextual
8 express-advocacy test in *FEC v. Furgatch*, 807 F.2d 857, 863 (9th Cir. 1987). 441 F.3d at 783.
9 But both *McConnell*, 540 U.S. at 193, and *WRTL II*, 127 S. Ct. at 2669 n.7 (also unanimously¹),
10 affirmed that "express advocacy" requires the so-called "magic words," such as "vote for," and
11 *CPLC I* recognized the necessity of the "magic words" and narrowed *Furgatch* accordingly. *See*
12 328 F.3d at 1098 (" But a close reading of *Furgatch* indicates that we presumed express advo-
13 cacy must contain some explicit *words* of advocacy." (emphasis in original)). So the *Furgatch*
14 approach to which *ARTL* pointed is untenable. The vague and overbroad "electioneering commu-
15 nication" definition at issue in *ARTL* was not limited as it now must be by *WRTL II*'s appeal-to-
16 vote test. 127 S. Ct. at 2667. One more key difference between the provisions upheld in *ARTL*
17 and this case is that Alaska's law expressly excluded an "issues communication" from regulation,
18 *see ARTL*, 441 F.3d at 785; Washington does not. So *ARTL* is inapplicable here and is of ques-
19 tionable vitality.

20 As to *ARTL*'s "degree of scrutiny" analysis, 441 F.3d at 787, it first correctly noted that *Aus-*
21 *tin* required strict scrutiny. *Id.* (citing *Austin*, 494 U.S. at 657). But then it said that *McConnell*
22 "appeared to have relaxed the degree of scrutiny," *id.*, pointing to *McConnell*'s "important state
23 interests" statement about non-PAC disclosure. *Id.* at 788. As already discussed, *McConnell* was

24 ¹In *WRTL II* the other justices joined Chief Justice Roberts and Justice Alito in agreeing that express advocacy
25 requires "magic words." *See id.* at 2681 (Scalia, J., joined by Kennedy & Thomas, JJ.) (concurring in part and con-
26 curring in judgment) ("to avoid . . . 'constitutional deficiencies,' [*Buckley*] was compelled to narrow the statutory
language . . . to cover only . . . magic words"); 2692 (Souter, J., joined by Stevens, Ginsburg & Breyer, JJ., dissent-
ing) (*Buckley*'s "prohibition applied 'only to . . . communications that in express terms advocate the election or de-
feat of a clearly identified candidate for federal office,'" i.e., "magic words").

1 not discussing the degree of scrutiny for *PAC* burdens, so it could not have “relaxed” the hold-
2 ings of *MCFL* and *Austin*. However, this view that *McConnell* had somehow weakened First
3 Amendment protections for core political speech seems to have affected the court’s application
4 of “strict scrutiny.” *See infra*. To the extent that *McConnell* may have created this impression,
5 *WRTL II* erased it by reasserting strong protection for “issue advocacy” under a generally-appli-
6 cable analysis faithful to *Buckley* (*see infra*) and by limiting *McConnell*’s facial upholding of the
7 electioneering communication prohibition by restricting regulation to ads “susceptible of no rea-
8 sonable interpretation other than as an appeal to vote for or against a specific candidate.” 127 S.
9 Ct. at 2667. This test relies on the principle that all campaign-finance regulations must employ
10 bright lines to protect issue advocacy by assuring that regulations are unambiguously related to
11 an election campaign. *See Buckley*, 424 U.S. at 80-81. The net result of *WRTL II*’s test, its analy-
12 sis, and the rules it provided for adjudicating issue-advocacy cases, such as the present one, is a
13 strong reaffirmation of the principles of *Buckley* and an elimination of any possible interpretation
14 that *McConnell* permitted states to do what they will with issue advocacy.

15 *ARTL* noted that the Ninth Circuit had employed strict scrutiny in *ACLU of Nevada v.*
16 *Heller*, 378 F.3d 979 (9th Cir. 2004), and said it would “assume without deciding that strict scru-
17 tiny applies to all of the challenged disclosure requirements.” 441 F.3d at 788. However, *ARTL*
18 then held that PAC-style burdens could be imposed on the very sort of nonprofit, nonstock, ideo-
19 logical corporation (an “*MCFL*-corporation”) that *MCFL* held could not be subjected to PAC
20 status. *Id.* at 786-94; *MCFL*, 479 U.S. at 263. *ARTL* treated PAC-style requirements (e.g.,
21 required registration and periodic reporting) as if they were the same as the one-time reports ap-
22 proved in *MCFL*, *id.* at 262, relying on the fact that Alaska law did not restrict PAC fundraising
23 to “members,” as federal PAC law did. 441 F.3d at 788-94. But that ignores *MCFL*’s lengthy
24 discussion of the organizational and conduct burdens of PAC status (in addition to the fundrais-
25 ing limitation) that *MCFL* clearly indicated were unjustified, in and of themselves. *See* 479 U.S.
26 at 253-55 (four-Justice plurality), 264-65 (O’Connor, J., concurring in part and concurring in the

1 judgment). In any event, *CPLC II* moots the point in this ballot-initiative context—where the ab-
2 sence of a corruption interests precludes contribution and source limits—because *CPLC II* held
3 that California could not impose PAC regulations like Washington’s on groups like CPLC. 507
4 F.3d at 1190.

5 **C. Under *CPLC II*, PAC Burdens Are Not Narrowly Tailored in This Context.**

6 *CPLC II* struck down PAC-style requirements “on a group like CPLC, a multi-purpose orga-
7 nization,” in the ballot-initiative context because they were not “narrowly tailored to . . . [an] in-
8 formational interest.” 507 F.3d at 1187. *CPLC II* noted that California’s arguments applied only
9 in the candidate-election context. *Id.* at 1187-89. The Ninth Circuit held that the less-restrictive
10 means for the state to get all the information it was permitted to obtain as to the *express advocacy*
11 involved were the one-time reports approved in *MCFL*, *CPLC II*, 507 F.3d at 1189 (*citing*
12 *MCFL*, 479 U.S. at 262). HLW is a “group like CPLC,” which the Ninth Circuit described “as a
13 group ‘whose *major purpose* is not campaign advocacy, but who occasionally make[s] independ-
14 ent expenditures.’” *Id.* at 1177 (emphasis added; citation omitted). If California could not impose
15 PAC status on CPLC for doing *express* advocacy, then *a fortiori* Washington may not impose
16 PAC status on HLW for doing *non-express* issue advocacy.

17 The “major purpose” to which *CPLC II* referred derives from the major-purpose test for
18 PAC status that was first approved in *Buckley*, 424 U.S. 1: “To fulfill the purposes of the Act
19 [“political committee”] need only encompass organizations that are under the control of a candi-
20 date or *the major purpose* of which is the nomination or election of a candidate.” *Id.* at 79 (em-
21 phasis added). The Court anchored this major-purpose test in the unambiguously-campaign-re-
22 lated requirement: “Expenditures of . . . ‘political committees’ so construed can be assumed to
23 fall within the core area sought to be addressed by Congress. They are, *by definition*, *campaign*
24 *related*.” *Id.* (emphasis added). *MCFL* restated the major-purpose test, as noted by *CPLC I*, 328
25 F.3d at 1101 n.16 (citations omitted). *See also id.* at 1104 n.21. In sum, binding precedents forbid
26 Washington from imposing PAC status on HLW, whose major purpose is issue advocacy.

1 The foregoing precedents suffice to determine that Washington’s imposition of PAC burdens
2 on groups like HLW in the ballot-initiative context is unconstitutionally overbroad because such
3 groups are “multi-purpose organizations” that lack the major purpose of passing or defeating bal-
4 lot initiatives. However, should the Court decide that these precedents are insufficient to rule in
5 HLW’s favor on this point, HLW also challenges Washington’s (a) “a primary purpose” test and
6 (b) “receiver of contributions” test for establishing PAC status, the citations to which in Wash-
7 ington law are set out above. *Supra* at 2. A fuller analysis of Washington’s flawed major-purpose
8 tests is set out in HLW’s preliminary injunction memorandum, Dkt. 8 at 16-18, but space limita-
9 tions preclude repeating that here. For present, the recent analysis of the Fourth Circuit in *North*
10 *Carolina Right to Life v. Leake*, 525 F.3d 274 (2008), provides a sufficient and succinct state-
11 ment of what the U.S. Supreme Court’s major-purpose test (for imposing PAC status) requires,
12 and the Court is respectfully cited to that opinion for the propositions that: (1) PAC status is gov-
13 erned by the unambiguously-campaign-related requirement, *id.* at 287; (2) the U.S. Supreme
14 Court requires that PAC status be determined on “*the* major purpose,” not “*a* major purpose,” *id.*
15 at 288-89; and (3) “*Buckley*’s articulation of the permissible scope of political committee regula-
16 tion is best understood as an empirical judgment as to whether an organization primarily engages
17 in regulable, election-related speech.” *Id.* at 287. Under these constitutionally-mandated criteria,
18 Washington’s methods of determining PAC status are plainly unconstitutional, as is its “political
19 committee” definition.

20 **D. The “Political Committee” Definition Is Unconstitutionally Vague and Overbroad.**

21 Washington’s PAC definition triggers PAC status on “having the expectation of receiving
22 contributions or making expenditures in support of, or opposition to, any candidate or any ballot
23 proposition.” RCW 42.17.020(38). As noted above, this definition fails narrow tailoring because
24 it lacks a proper major-purpose test component. But it also fails for having terms that are uncon-
25 stitutionally vague and overbroad.

26 The seminal *Buckley* decision established the precision required: “Close examination of the

1 specificity of the statutory limitation is required where, as here, the legislation imposes criminal
2 penalties in an area permeated by First Amendment interests.” 424 U.S. at 40-41.² ““Because
3 First Amendment freedoms need breathing space to survive, government may regulate in the area
4 only with narrow specificity.” *Id.* at 41, n.48 (citation omitted). “The test is whether the
5 language . . . affords the ‘(p)recision of regulation (that) must be the touchstone in an area so
6 closely touching our most precious freedoms.’” *Id.* at 41 (citation omitted).

7 *Buckley* recognized that there was an important overbreadth concern that often accompanied
8 vague terms, which it discussed, *id.* at 42-43 (the dissolving-distinction problem, *see infra*), and
9 applied as the unambiguously-campaign-related requirement, 424 U.S. at 79-81, from which the
10 Court derived two tests that govern this case: (1) the major-purpose test, which determines which
11 groups may be treated as “political committees,” *id.* at 79 (“organizations that are under the con-
12 trol of a candidate or the major purpose of which is the nomination or election of a candidate”),
13 and (2) the express-advocacy test, which determines when independent expenditures for commu-
14 nications may be subjected to non-PAC disclosure requirements, *id.* at 80 (“[W]e construe ‘expen-
15 diture’ . . . to reach only funds used for communications that expressly advocate the election or
16 defeat of a clearly identified candidate. This reading is directed precisely to that spending that is
17 *unambiguously related to the campaign of a particular federal candidate.*” (footnote omitted;
18 emphasis added)). *Buckley*’s unambiguously-campaign-related requirement asks whether “the
19 *relation* of the information sought to the purpose of the Act [regulating elections] *may be too re-*
20 *mote,*” and, therefore, “*impermissibly broad.*” *Id.* (emphasis added). The Court required govern-
21 ment to limit campaign laws to reach only activities “*unambiguously related to the campaign of a*
22 *particular federal candidate,*” *id.* (emphasis added), in short, “*unambiguously campaign related.*”
23 *Id.* at 81 (emphasis added). *See Leake*, 525 F.3d at 281, 287 (recognizing that express-advocacy
24 and major-purpose tests derive from unambiguously-campaign-related requirement).

25
26 ²Washington law does not impose criminal penalties, but it has severe civil penalties, *see* RCW 42.17.390, and imposes liability for the State’s costs of investigation and trial and attorney’s fees. RCW 42.17.400. Moreover, any judgment (which includes costs for this purpose) “may be trebled as punitive damages.” RCW 42.17.400(5).

1 *Buckley*'s standard for avoiding vagueness and overbreadth is formidable. *Buckley* consid-
2 ered a provision that limited to \$1,000 per year a person's "expenditure . . . relative to a clearly
3 identified candidate." 424 U.S. at 39. Finding the "relative to" language unconstitutionally vague,
4 *id.* at 41, the Court attempted to save the provision by reading another part of the provision into
5 the "relative to" language so that the construed phrase referenced an expenditure "*advocating the*
6 *election or defeat of a candidate.*" *Id.* at 42 (emphasis added). While this went far to alleviate the
7 vagueness of "relative to," it did not relieve the overarching vagueness and overbreadth inherent
8 in the dissolving-distinction problem that requires bright, speech-protective lines between (1)
9 "discussion of issues and candidates" and (2) "advocacy of election or defeat of candidates":

10 [T]he *distinction between discussion of issues and candidates and advocacy of election or*
11 *defeat of candidates* may often *dissolve* in practical application. Candidates, especially incum-
12 bents, are intimately tied to public issues involving legislative proposals and governmental
actions. Not only do candidates campaign on the basis of their positions on various public
issues, but campaigns themselves generate issues of public interest.

13 *Id.* at 42 (emphasis added). The Court emphasized the need for a bright line between (1) "dis-
14 cussion, laudation, [and] general advocacy" and (2) "solicitation" to protect issue advocacy:

15 (W)hether words intended and designed to fall short of invitation would miss that mark is a
16 question both of intent and of effect. No speaker, in such circumstances, safely could assume
17 that anything he might say upon the general subject would not be understood by some as an
18 invitation. In short, the supposedly clear-cut distinction between *discussion, laudation, general*
19 *advocacy, and solicitation* puts the speaker in these circumstances wholly at the mercy of the
varied understanding of his hearers and consequently of whatever inference may be drawn as
to his intent and meaning. [¶] Such a distinction offers no security for free discussion. In these
conditions it blankets with uncertainty whatever may be said. It compels the speaker to hedge
and trim.

20 *Id.* at 43 (emphasis added). Because of this dissolving-distinction problem, *Buckley* held that
21 even its new construction of "relative to," i.e., "*advocating the election or defeat of a candidate,*"
22 remained unconstitutionally vague and overbroad, *id.* at 44, in part for restricting "discussion of
23 issues." *Id.* at 42. The only way to save this relatively-clear phrase it was to employ the "express
24 words of advocacy" construction. *Id.* at 44 n.52. The Court was employing the express-advocacy
25 test to cure the dissolving-distinction problem, employing a requirement that it returned to in a
26 second express-advocacy construction for another "expenditure" definition where it identified its

1 analysis as assuring that the provision would reach only First Amendment activities that are “un-
2 *ambiguously related* to the campaign of a particular federal candidate.” *Id.* at 80 (emphasis
3 added). As to *Buckley*’s first express-advocacy construction, *id.* at 44, even after construing the
4 italicized phrase, *supra*, to meet the unambiguously-campaign-related requirement, *Buckley*
5 found the provision unconstitutional under strict scrutiny. So the unambiguously-campaign-re-
6 lated requirement is a threshold test to be applied even before strict scrutiny. *See also id.* 80-81
7 (narrowly construing, then applying scrutiny).

8 *Buckley*’s rejected phrase—“*advocating the election or defeat of a candidate*,” *id.* at 44—is
9 the proper benchmark for analyzing Washington’s laws. If that benchmark is vague, then all
10 equivalent or less-specific language is vague. *Buckley* held that the only way to save that bench-
11 mark phrase was with the express-advocacy construction. *Id.* at 44. The express-advocacy con-
12 struction should also be applied to vague and overbroad laws in ballot-initiative cases where a
13 provision is readily susceptible to it. *See CPLC I*, 328 F.3d at 1096-00 (upholding vague and
14 overbroad “expenditure” definition because it had received express-advocacy construction). If
15 possible, the construction must be applied to the vague and overbroad laws at issue here. *See*
16 *Heller*, 378 F.3d at 985. The current state of the law is that, under the unambiguously-campaign-
17 related requirement, government may regulate only (a) true express-advocacy communications
18 and (b) federally-defined “electioneering communications” subject to *WRTL II*’s appeal-to-vote
19 test. *See Leake*, 525 F.3d at 282-83. Attempts to regulate communications under any other defini-
20 tions upset the “balance” that the Supreme Court has struck “between the legislature’s authority
21 to regulate elections and the public’s fundamental First Amendment right to engage in political
22 speech.” *Id.* at 284.

23 Measuring “support” and “oppose” against the benchmark of *Buckley*’s rejected phrase dem-
24 onstrates the vagueness of a support/oppose test.³ *Buckley*’s rejected formulation required advo

25 ³In *Voters Education Committee v. Washington PDC*, 116 P.3d 1174 (“*VEC*”), the Washington Supreme Court
26 said that the “support . . . or oppos[e]” language in Washington’s definition of “political committee” was “signifi-
cantly more precise than the phrase “*relative to a clearly identified candidate*” found to be vague in *Buckley*. *Id.* at
1184 (citation omitted; emphasis added). But that was a straw man because *Buckley* construed “relative to” to mean

1 cacy of *election or defeat* of the candidate, i.e., there had to be an *appeal to vote* for or against the
2 candidate. But *Buckley* said that “advocating the election or defeat of a candidate” was still too
3 vague absent explicit words of express advocacy, lest the definition reach issue advocacy. Wash-
4 ington requires only “support of, or opposition to, any candidate or any ballot proposition.”
5 RCW 42.17.020(38). “Support of, or opposition to,” is much vaguer than “advocate the election
6 or defeat of,” which *Buckley* rejected as vague and overbroad. And Washington’s support/oppose
7 test is not restricted to words appealing for a vote, as existed in the language that *Buckley* re-
8 jected. So Washington’s language is more vague and overbroad than the language that *Buckley*
9 rejected. It is vague and overbroad as a matter of law.

10 *Buckley* discussed in detail the problem with any test short of the express-advocacy test, i.e.,
11 less-protective tests collide with the dissolving-distinction problem, *see supra*, and require as-
12 sessing the intent and effect of speech, which *Buckley* forbade. 424 U.S. at 43. *WRTL II* affirmed
13 that tests attempting to examine intent and effect impermissibly burden speech. 127 S. Ct. at
14 2665 (“[T]his Court in *Buckley* . . . rejected an intent-and-effect test for distinguishing between
15 discussions of issues and candidates.”). The *Buckley-WRTL II* rejection of intent-and-effect tests,
16 on which “support” and “oppose” rely, is clear and controlling.

17 But the Supreme Court has also rejected such language directly. The Court did so in loyalty
18 oath cases involving “supporting” and “opposing.” In *Cole v. Richardson*, 405 U.S. 676 (1972),
19 the Court treated required oaths to support one’s country and “oppose” its enemies as harmless
20 “amenities” merely requiring compliance with other laws, but explained that “oppose” would be
21 vague in other contexts. *Id.* at 678-85. One of those contexts, *id.*, was *Cramp v. Board of Public*
22 *Instruction*, 368 U.S. 278 (1971), which held “support” unconstitutionally vague. *Id.* at 279.
23 Washington’s “support/oppose” test is no “amenity” requiring compliance with other laws but is
24 a law with serious penalties. It is vague and overbroad.

25 Federal circuit courts have implemented the Supreme Court’s rejection of any support/op-

26 “advocating the election or defeat of,” *Buckley*, 424 U.S. at 42, and then held that even the latter required the
express-advocacy construction. *Id.* at 42-44.

1 pose test in the vital political speech area. In 2006, the Fifth Circuit considered a law requiring
2 reporting and disclosure of payments “for the purpose of supporting, opposing, or otherwise in-
3 fluencing the nomination or election of a person.” *CFIF*, 449 F.3d at 662-63. The court imposed
4 the express-advocacy construction: “To cure that vagueness, and receiving no instruction from
5 *McConnell* to do otherwise, we apply *Buckley*’s limiting principle . . . and conclude that the stat-
6 ute reaches only communications that expressly advocate the election or defeat of a clearly iden-
7 tified candidate.” *Id.* at 665. Since the Fifth Circuit construed the whole phrase as requiring ex-
8 press advocacy, it clearly found “supporting,” “opposing,” and “otherwise influencing” vague
9 and overbroad, even though it had the advantage over Washington’s PAC definition of limiting
10 the context to “nomination or election.”

11 The Fourth Circuit struck down as vague North Carolina’s “political committee” definition
12 with the operative phrase “support or oppose any candidate or political party or to influence or
13 attempt to influence the result of any election.” *North Carolina Right to Life v. Bartlett*, 168 F.3d
14 705, 712 (4th Cir. 1999), *cert. denied*, 528 U.S. 1153 (2000) (citation omitted). The court did not
15 impose the express-advocacy construction because the statute was not readily susceptible to such
16 a construction and because doing so was against legislative intent. *Id.* at 712-13. *See also Leake*,
17 525 F.3d at 280-286 (holding regulation of communications that “support[] or oppose[] the nom-
18 ination or election of one or more clearly identified candidates” unconstitutional because it regu-
19 lated issue advocacy).

20 The Sixth Circuit recently employed a saving construction because of the constitutional dif-
21 ficulties of a for/against test, which is similar to support/oppose, in order to protect issue advo-
22 cacy. The test at issue in *Anderson* was in an “electioneering” definition, which targeted “solic-
23 itation of votes for or against any candidate or question on the ballot in any manner.” *Anderson*,
24 356 F.3d at 663. The Sixth Circuit noted that *McConnell* “left intact the ability of courts to make
25 distinctions between express advocacy and issue advocacy, where such distinctions are necessary
26 to cure vagueness and overbreadth in statutes which regulate more speech than that for which the

1 legislature has established a significant governmental interest.” *Id.* at 664-65. The court imposed
2 the express-advocacy construction: “we apply a narrowing construction to the term ‘electioneer-
3 ing,’ and find that it may permissibly apply only to speech which expressly advocates the election
4 or defeat of a clearly identified candidate or ballot measure.” *Id.* at 665.

5 Washington’s PAC support/oppose test is unconstitutional without a saving construction, but
6 Washington’s Supreme Court has already authoritatively construed the PAC definition as not
7 limited to express advocacy. *VEC*, 166 P.3d at 1186. *See also* RCW 42.17.562 (Legislature de-
8 clared authority to regulate issue advocacy); PDC Decl. Rul. No. 1 at 3-4 (Nov. 15, 1977) (“pro-
9 moting or opposing a ballot proposition,” *id.* at 3, is to be determined under broad contextual test
10 not requiring express advocacy, *id.* at 4) (<http://www.pdc.wa.gov/home/laws/guide/declare.aspx>).
11 Therefore, this Court may not impose a saving construction, but must consider the statute as con-
12 strued. *See R.A.V. v. City of St. Paul*, 505 U.S. 377, 411-12 (1992) (White, J., concurring). Be-
13 cause a saving construction is impossible, the support/oppose test in the PAC definition is uncon-
14 stitutionally vague and overbroad, particularly for sweeping in constitutionally-protected issue
15 advocacy. It fails both the express-advocacy test and the unambiguously-campaign-related
16 requirement.

17 Washington’s PAC definition is also unconstitutional because “expectation” is vague and
18 overbroad in providing a PAC-status trigger. Is it a hope?—promise?—understanding?—
19 agreement?—contract? “Expectation” is “[t]he act of looking forward; anticipation.” *Black’s*
20 *Law Dictionary* 598 (9th ed. 1999). In property, an “expectancy” is “[t]hat which is hoped for,”
21 but “[a]t most it is a mere hope or expectation” *Black’s Law Dictionary* 517 (5th ed. 1979).
22 By contrast, the federal “political committee” definition has a \$1,000 trigger of actual “contribu-
23 tions” or “expenditures,” 2 U.S.C. § 431(4), so it is clear when an organization becomes a PAC
24 (if it also meets the major-purpose test). The absence of a clear trigger exacerbates the vagueness
25 and overbreadth. Even *McConnell’s* approval of disclosure of “executory contracts” for election-
26 eering communications required that there be a contract. *See McConnell*, 540 U.S. at 199-02.

1 The term “expenditures” is vague and overbroad, failing to follow the Supreme Court’s
2 express-advocacy construction in *Buckley, id.* at 44, 80, and *MCFL*, 479 U.S. at 249. “Contribu-
3 tions” is also vague and overbroad, and does not follow the U.S. Supreme Court’s construction in
4 *Buckley*. 424 U.S. at 23 n.24. Under federal law, a “contribution” is “anything of value made by
5 any person for the purpose of influencing any election for Federal office” 2 U.S.C. § 431(8).
6 Faced with the ambiguity of “for the purpose of influencing” and applying the unambiguously-
7 campaign-related requirement, *Buckley* approved the following scope for “contributions”: “Funds
8 provided to a candidate or political party or campaign committee either directly or indirectly
9 through an intermediary constitute a contribution. In addition, dollars given to another person or
10 organization that are earmarked for political purposes are contributions under the Act.” 424 U.S.
11 at 23 n.24. Washington’s “contribution” definition has no intent requirement, being just a transfer
12 of “anything of value” RCW 42.17.020(15(a)(i). The donor intent requirement is supplied
13 by the PAC definition, i.e., “contributions . . . in support of, or opposition to, any . . . ballot propo-
14 sition,” which is vague and overbroad as already shown.

15 Washington also unconstitutionally presumes a purpose to influence elections with its un-
16 constitutionally vague “receiver of contributions” test, which examines whether the members of a
17 membership organization might have “actual or constructive knowledge that the organization is
18 setting aside funds to support or oppose a candidate or ballot proposition,” in which member
19 dues or donations are deemed “contributions” and the organization is deemed a “political commit-
20 tee.” *Evergreen Freedom Found. v. Washington Educ. Ass’n*, 49 P.3d 894, 904 (Wash. App.
21 2002) (“*WEA*”) (citing 1973 Wash. Att’y Gen. Op. 114). This is contrary to *Buckley*’s restriction
22 of “contributions” to those donations given to political entities, which would at least require that
23 an entity *be* a “political committee” (based on the major-purpose test) before donations to it are
24 deemed “contributions” or that the donations be expressly earmarked for such political purposes
25 as express advocacy. *Cf. MCFL*, 479 U.S. at 252-53 (plurality opinion) (non-PAC entity need
26 only identify those “who contribute . . . to influence elections” or “make contributions . . . ear-

1 marked for the purpose of furthering independent expenditures.”)

2 **II. The “Independent Expenditure” Definition Is Unconstitutional.**

3 The second of Washington’s two definitions of “independent expenditure,” RCW 42.17.100,
4 is unconstitutional for vagueness and overbreadth. In relevant part, it is as follows (emphasis
5 added): “For the purposes of this section and RCW 42.17.550 the term “independent expendi-
6 ture” means any expenditure that is made *in support of or in opposition to* any candidate or *ballot*
7 *proposition* and is not otherwise required to be reported pursuant to RCW 42.17.060, 42.17.080,
8 or 42.17.090.” The applications and burdens triggered by the definition are in the *Verified Com-*
9 *plaint. Compare VC with Answer* (Dkt. 1, 35) at ¶¶ 53.

10 As to the degree of scrutiny required, this provision does not deal with imposing PAC-style
11 disclosure, so the automatic strict-scrutiny required whenever PAC burdens are imposed is not
12 applicable. *See supra*. The same is true of the following provisions in the following two counts.
13 For non-PAC disclosure of “expenditures,” *Buckley* required “exacting scrutiny.” 424 U.S. at 64.
14 HLW argues that “exacting scrutiny” is strict scrutiny. *See* Dkt. 8 at 11; Dkt. 55 at 7-8. However,
15 that question need not be resolved because, in any event, *Buckley* required that all expenditures
16 subject to regulation must first be narrowly-construed to meet the unambiguously-campaign-re-
17 lated requirement. *See Buckley*, 424 U.S. at 80. This is a threshold requirement to avoid unconsti-
18 tutional vagueness and overbreadth that must be met before “exacting” scrutiny is applied, just as
19 *Buckley* did twice. *Id.* at 44-45, 80-81. The Supreme Court has only recognized two types of
20 communications that meet this requirement: (1) “independent expenditures” limited by *Buckley*’s
21 express-advocacy test and (2) “electioneering communications” limited by *WRTL II*’s appeal-to-
22 vote test. *See Leake*, 525 F.3d at 282-83. The provisions in this case fail this requirement. More-
23 over, the provisions are challenged because they contain language that is itself vague and over-
24 broad, which is readily apparent when they are measured against *Buckley*’s rejected benchmark
25 phrase, “advocating the election or defeat of a candidate.” 424 U.S. at 42. *Buckley*’s strict stan-
26 dards for vague and overbroad language in the First Amendment area, *id.* at 40-41, are applicable

1 here and are entirely apart from whatever “exacting” scrutiny might mean with respect to non-
2 vague, non-overbroad provisions regulating disclosure. For example, requiring a one-time report
3 for an express-advocacy independent expenditure would be subject to whatever “exacting scru-
4 tiny” means in the disclosure context, but requiring a one-time report for a communication that
5 “supports or opposes” runs into the exceptionally strict scrutiny required to eliminate vagueness
6 and overbreadth, *id.* at 40-41, long before it gets to the “exacting scrutiny” of its ends and means.
7 The challenged provisions fail at the strict vagueness-and-overbreadth phase.

8 HLW wants to do constitutionally-protected issue advocacy. *Buckley*, 424 U.S. at 42
9 (express-advocacy test protects “discussion of issues”); *WRTL II*, 127 S. Ct. at 2667 (appeal-to-
10 vote test protects “issue advocacy”). HLW reasonably fears that its Letter, Phone Script, and Ads,
11 *see* VC ¶¶ 22-24, 27-29, 32, and Exs. 2-4, will be deemed by enforcement officials to be “inde-
12 pendent expenditures.” *See* VC ¶¶ 52-55 (statute, burdens, and constitutional flaws). These
13 would never be *federal* “independent expenditures” (if federal law allowed ballot initiatives) be-
14 cause the definition, 2 U.S.C. § 431(17), requires express advocacy. But Washington substitutes
15 its support/oppose test for the express-advocacy test, reaching “any expenditure that is made in
16 support of or in opposition to any . . . ballot proposition.” RCW 42.17.100. There are clear bur-
17 dens here that HLW wishes to avoid and will not assume because it deems them unconstitutional.
18 *See* VC ¶ 53. Absent the requirement that the definition be triggered only by express advocacy of
19 the passage or defeat of I-1000, it is highly likely that HLW’s communications, which oppose
20 physician-assisted suicide but do not expressly call for a vote against I-1000, would be deemed
21 “independent expenditures.” In fact, the PDC’s Answer insists that HLW’s communications are
22 express advocacy, not issue advocacy. *See supra* at 2. In light of the holding in *VEC*, 116 P.3d at
23 1186, that the PAC definition’s support/oppose test does not mean “expressly advocate” and the
24 Legislature’s stated intent to regulate issue advocacy, RCW 42.17.562, it is clear that Washing-
25 ton does not mean “expressly advocate” here. So the support/oppose test is not readily suscepti-
26 ble to a saving construction. *See Virginia v. American Booksellers Ass’n*, 484 U.S. 383, 397

1 (1988).

2 Washington’s use of the support/oppose test to define “independent expenditure” sweeps
3 within that definition a vast amount of speech that is not unambiguously-campaign-related be-
4 cause it does not expressly advocate a vote for or against a clearly identified ballot proposition. A
5 substantial number of expenditures that do not “expressly advocate” may be deemed to “support
6 or oppose.” Thus, although HLW’s communications contain no express advocacy, they nonethe-
7 less likely qualify as “independent expenditures” under Washington’s definition. Washington’s
8 regulation of expenditures that “support . . . or oppos[e]” a ballot proposition is “*too remote*” to
9 its interest in regulating elections and is “*impermissibly broad.*” *Buckley*, 424 U.S. at 80 (empha-
10 sis added). Given *Buckley*’s holding that “advocating the election or defeat of a candidate,”
11 *Buckley*, 424 U.S. at 42, is unconstitutionally vague and overbroad, *id.* at 44, especially for cap-
12 turing “discussion of issues,” *id.* at 42, there is no possibility that “support” and “oppose” are
13 constitutional here. *See supra*.

14 **III. The “Political Advertising” Definition Is Unconstitutional.**

15 Washington’s definition of “political advertising,” RCW 42.17.020(38), is unconstitutionally
16 vague and overbroad. “Political advertising’ includes any advertising displays, newspaper ads,
17 billboards, signs, brochures, articles, tabloids, flyers, letters, radio or television presentations, or
18 other means of mass communication, used *for the purpose of appealing, directly or indirectly,*
19 *for votes or for financial or other support or opposition in any election campaign.* *Id.* (emphasis
20 added). The burdens triggered by this definition are set out in the *Verified Complaint*. Compare
21 VC with Answer (Dkt. 1, 35) at ¶¶ 59. This definition employs the support/oppose test, which is
22 unconstitutionally vague and overbroad (*see supra*), and introduces three subsets of the vague
23 phrase “supporting or opposing,” i.e., (a) direct or indirect appeals “for votes”; (b) direct or indi-
24 rect appeals for “financial . . . support or opposition”; and (c) direct or indirect appeals for “other
25 support or opposition.” “Directly or indirectly” is unconstitutionally vague and overbroad (i.e., it
26 fails the unambiguously-campaign-related and narrow-tailoring requirements), as is “appealing”

1 in this context and “other support or opposition” (which, whatever it means, does not mean ap-
2 peals for votes or contributions). “Mass communication” is undefined, so it is impossible to de-
3 termine, e.g., whether 5, 50, 500, or 5,000 letters meet the definition.

4 Because this definition employs the same support/oppose test that the Washington Supreme
5 Court held not to be restricted to express advocacy and because of the Legislature’s declared in-
6 tent to regulate issue advocacy, *see supra*, it is not readily susceptible to the saving, express-ad-
7 vocacy construction. Measured against the language that *Buckley* rejected, i.e., “advocating the
8 election or defeat of a candidate,” the “political advertising” definition is unconstitutionally
9 vague and overbroad. It is unconstitutional because of its reliance on the support/oppose test in-
10 stead of the express-advocacy test and because it contains other vague and overbroad terms.

11 **IV. “Rating, Evaluation, Endorsement or Recommendation” Is Unconstitutional.**

12 Washington’s reporting requirement, at WAC 390-16-206, for communications containing
13 “a rating, evaluation, endorsement, or recommendation for or against a candidate or ballot mea-
14 sure” is unconstitutionally vague and overbroad. The provision requires that “[a]ny person mak-
15 ing a measurable expenditure of funds to communicate a rating, evaluation, endorsement or rec-
16 ommendation for or against a candidate or ballot proposition (other than news, feature, or edito-
17 rial comment in a regularly scheduled issue of a printed periodical or broadcast media program)
18 shall report such expenditure including all costs of preparation and distribution in accordance
19 with RCW 42.17.030 through 42.17.100.” *Id.*

20 This requirement relies on a vague for/against test, not Washington’s support/oppose test. It
21 cannot be determined whether the PDC intends its for/against test to reach more broadly or more
22 narrowly than Washington’s statutory support/oppose test, but the tests cannot be the same be-
23 cause the PDC consciously chose different, non-statutory terms and because otherwise some
24 communications captured here by the for/against test would be redundant of communications
25 captured by the “political advertising” definition. *See supra*. However, given the absence of any
26 requirement that the communication be a “mass communication” (as “political advertising” re-

quires) and the choice of the exceedingly vague, overbroad, and undefined terms “rating,” “evaluation,” “endorsement,” and “recommendation,” it is apparent that PDC is regulating a vast swath of protected issue advocacy. And such ratings, evaluations, endorsements, and recommendations would be subject to compelled disclosure at the “measurable expenditure” level of a single letter to a friend discussing a public official who happens to be a candidate.

This provision is unconstitutionally vague and overbroad because of its reliance on the for/against test instead of the express-advocacy test and because it contains other vague and overbroad (i.e., they fail the unambiguously-campaign-related and narrow-tailoring requirements) terms, all in violation of the First and Fourteenth Amendments to the U.S. Constitution. The Sixth Circuit imposed a saving express-advocacy construction on the for/against test in *Anderson*. 356 F.3d at 66. But the PDC’s regulation is not readily susceptible to the express-advocacy construction because the PDC clearly knows how to articulate the express-advocacy test when it intends to do so, *see, e.g.*, PDC Int. 00-04 (“Use of ‘Soft Money’ for Issue Advocacy), but chose not to do so here. This interpretive principle was clearly stated by the Ninth Circuit in the controlling *Heller* opinion. 378 F.3d at 986 (use of “advocacy” language elsewhere precludes imposing that meaning where it is lacking). And RCW 42.17.562 authorized the PDC to regulate issue advocacy, which it is doing.

V. The Relief Should Be Both As-Applied to HLW (and Similar Groups) and Facial.

The relief should be facial in addition to being as applied to HLW (and groups like HLW) in the ballot measure context and to HLW’s intended activity. For the reasons set out above, the political committee definition cannot be applied to any group like HLW that lacks the requisite major purpose of advocating the passage or defeat of ballot initiatives. And because all of the challenged provisions contain language that is vague, not narrowly tailored, and overinclusive, they should be struck both facially and as applied. The challenged provisions “reach[] ‘a substantial amount of constitutionally protected conduct,’” so they should also be struck under the First Amendment overbreadth doctrine. *Kolender v. Lawson*, 461 U.S. 352, 358 (1983) (*quoting*

1 *Hoffman Estates v. Flipside, Hoffman Estates*, 455 U.S. 489, 494 (1982)) (“vagueness and
2 overbreadth [are] logically related and similar doctrines”). *Cf. City of Chicago v. Morales*, 527
3 U.S. 41, 60 (1999).

4 **Conclusion**

5 For the foregoing reasons, summary judgment should be granted to HLW on all counts, and
6 the declaratory and injunctive relief prayed for in the *Verified Complaint* should be granted.

8 DATED: August 7, 2008

Respectfully submitted,

9 /s/ John J. White, Jr.

/s/ James Bopp, Jr.

10 John J. White, Jr.
LIVENGOOD, FITZGERALD & ALSKOG, PLLC
11 121 Third Avenue
P.O. Box 908
Kirkland, WA 98083-0908
12 white@lfa-law.com
425/822-9281 telephone
13 425/828-0908 facsimile
Local Counsel for Plaintiff

14 James Bopp, Jr., Lead Counsel*
Richard E. Coleson*
Clayton J. Callen*
BOPP, COLESON & BOSTROM
1 South Sixth Street
Terre Haute, IN 47807-3510
15 jboppjr@aol.com; rcoleson@bopplaw.com;
ccallen@bopplaw.com
812/232-2434 telephone
812/235-3685 facsimile
Lead Counsel for Plaintiff
*Admitted pro hac vice.