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IN THE SUPERIOR COURT OF THE STATE OF WASHINGTON
IN AND FOR THURSTON COUNTY

In the matter of:

Levi Guerra, Esther V. John, and
Peter B. Chiafalo,

Petitioners,

v.

Washington State Office of
Administrative Hearings

Respondent

Cause No. 17-2-02446-34

OFFICE OF ADMINISTRATIVE
HEARINGS, Docket Nos.
010424
010422
010421

PETITIONERS' OPENING BRIEF

I. Introduction

The sole issue presented by this appeal is whether the State of Washington may, constitutionally, compel its Presidential Electors to vote for a particular presidential and vice-presidential candidate.

The parties agree that Washington has “plenary” authority to select the electors it wants. They agree that Washington may require those electors to pledge to a particular candidate. And they agree that Appellants in this case had pledged to support the Democratic nominees for President and Vice-President, but in fact voted for candidates other than those nominees. The only question that the parties disagree about is whether Washington may penalize an elector who votes contrary to her pledge, by imposing a civil fine or other penalty.

1 This is a critically important question that deserves expedited review by this Court.
2 While hundreds of electors throughout history have voted contrary to their pledge, 2016 saw
3 the largest number vote independently in the history of the electoral college. Most of these
4 electors cast their ballots based on the good faith belief that the Constitution entitled them to
5 depart from their pledge. Appellants share that belief. But regardless of whether that belief is
6 correct, the nation needs a clear resolution on the constitutional power of electors, before the
7 action of any elector creates a constitutional crisis.

8 II. FACTS

9 Appellants Peter Bret Chiafalo, Levi Jennet Guerra, and Esther Virginia John were
10 duly selected electors for the Democratic Party in the 2016 Presidential Election. AR000289.
11 In early August, 2016, each signed a pledge that stated “I will vote for the candidate
12 nominated by the Democratic Party for President of United States and Vice President of the
13 United States.” AR000289. The Washington State Democratic Party certified a slate of
14 electors that included Appellants, and submitted that list to the Washington Secretary of State.
15 AR000289. In November, the people of Washington State voted overwhelmingly to elect the
16 Democratic Nominee, Hillary Clinton, as President. AR000289-90. Under Washington law,
17 the slate of Democratic electors was thus selected as the electors to represent Washington.
18 AR000290.

19 At noon on December 19, 2016, and pursuant to 3 U.S.C. §7 and RCW 29A.56.340,
20 Washington’s electors convened at the state capitol in Olympia to cast their ballots for
21 President and Vice President. Appellants did not vote for the Democratic nominee. Instead,
22 each cast their ballot for Colin Powell for President, and a candidate other than Tim Kaine for
23 Vice President. AR000290.

24 Washington law provides that “[a]ny elector who votes for a person or persons not
nominated by the party of which he or she is an elector is subject to a civil penalty of up to
one thousand dollars.” RCW 29A.56.340. Pursuant to this statute, on December 29, 2016, and

1 for what Appellants believe is the first time in American history, a state official, the
2 Washington Secretary of State, imposed a \$1,000 fine on each Appellant for violating their
3 pledge. AR000290.

4 Appellants timely appealed their fines. AR000290. Their appeal was heard by
5 Administrative Law Judge Robert Krabill on March 3, 2017. AR000288. Judge Krabill
6 accepted the stipulation of the parties that the Secretary of State followed the appropriate
7 procedures in finding that Appellants had voted contrary to their pledge, and were therefore
8 liable to penalty under RCW 29A.56.340. The Judge noted that Appellants had raised a
9 constitutional objection to this penalty, but recognized that he had no jurisdiction to review
10 the constitutionality of RCW 29A.56.340. AR000291. Judge Krabill thus upheld the
11 Secretary’s penalty, and Appellants timely appealed his judgment to this Court. AR000291.

11 III. ARGUMENT

12 The federal Constitution creates the role of a presidential “Elector,” charged with the
13 duty to vote for both President and Vice President. States have “plenary” authority to select
14 those electors. *McPherson v. Blacker*, 146 U.S. 1, 35 (1892). Yet once chosen, that elector is
15 free to exercise his or her judgment, subject only to explicit constitutional limitations.

16 The State of Washington purports to interfere with that constitutional freedom, by
17 imposing a civil penalty on any elector who votes contrary to how Washington law prescribes.
18 RCW 29A.56.340. This restriction upon a federal Elector’s protected freedom to exercise
19 choice as an elector, and violates the First Amendment rights of an Elector.

19 A. The Constitution Establishes “Electors” With A Constitutional Freedom to 20 Exercise Judgment

21 The Constitution creates two kinds of “Electors” critical to the representative
22 democracy the Framers created. The reach — and limits — of the states’ role with each is
23 similar.

24 The first type is the “Electors” that select the House, and eventually, the Senate
25 (“Legislative Electors”). Article I, §2, provides that “Members” of the House of

1 Representatives will be selected every two years by “Electors.” The Seventeenth Amendment
2 expanded the power of those “Electors” to include the Senate. In both cases, the states have
3 the power to define the qualifications of those “Electors.” Those “Electors,” the Constitution
4 prescribes, have “the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the
5 State Legislature.” But once established, those “Electors”— that is, eligible voters throughout
6 the country—perform a federal function which the states have no power to direct or control.
7 No state has ever tried by law to specify how its “Electors” for Congress must vote. The very
8 idea is anathema to the liberty of voting.

9 The second type of “Electors” created by the Constitution have the opportunity to
10 select the President and Vice President (“Presidential Electors”). The qualifications of those
11 “Electors” are established by the states as well. Article II, § 1 provides they be “appoint[ed]”
12 by the State, as the legislature “may direct.” Subject only to the exclusion of any “Senator or
13 Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States,” the
14 state has the power to choose its Presidential Electors. But as with Legislative Electors,
15 Presidential Electors exercise a federally protected power. The states can’t control the
16 exercise of that power any more than the states can control the power of Legislative Electors
17 in House and Senate elections.

18 This is the essence of Appellants’ argument before this Court. While the state’s power
19 to select presidential electors is almost unlimited, once appointed, the state’s power over how
20 the electors perform their function is precisely non-existent. Just as the power of a judge is
21 independent of the body that appoints her, or the power of a President is independent of the
22 “Electors” who select him, the power of Presidential Electors, once appointed, is independent
23 of the state that appointed them. And if the state has no power to direct how a Presidential
24 Elector may vote, then the state cannot impose a civil penalty upon an elector who does not
follow the state’s directive.

 This conclusion follows (a) from the nature of an “Elector,” (b) from the interpretive

1 consequence of the constitutional restriction that is imposed upon how Presidential Electors
2 may vote, and (c) from the intent of the Framers with respect to how Presidential Electors
3 would function specifically.

4 **1. “Electors” are vested with a constitutional freedom of choice**

5 The very idea of an “Elector” within our constitutional system—indeed within any
6 system that takes seriously the liberty protected by a right to vote—denotes an individual with
7 a protected liberty to exercise his or her judgment however she chooses. As Samuel Johnson
8 defined the term in 1768, an elector is “he that has a vote in the choice of any officer.” Samuel
9 Johnson, *A Dictionary of the English Language* (3d ed. 1768). That vote is “the right,” as
10 James Madison described in Federalist 57, “of electing” a legislature, or any officer. The
11 Federalist No. 57 (J. Madison); *see also* The Federalist No. 10 (J. Madison) (equating the
12 “qualifications of the electors” for elected representatives with “the definition of the right of
suffrage”).

13 Yet that “right to choose” means nothing if a legislature can coerce an “Elector” to
14 exercise his or her power as the legislature has chosen. As Justice Jackson explained in his
15 opinion in *Ray v. Blair*, 343 U.S. 214 (1952),

16 No one faithful to our history can deny that the plan originally
17 contemplated ... that electors would be free agents, to exercise an
independent and nonpartisan judgment as to the men best qualified for
the Nation’s highest offices. 343 U.S. at 232 (Jackson, J., dissenting).

18 Any “elector” is a free agent, or else he or she is not an “elector.”

19 History confirms this understanding. Appellants believe this is the first time in
20 American history in which a state has tried to fine an elector because of how that elector
21 exercised his or her vote. While our tradition, and the Supreme Court, has recognized the
22 states have substantial power in selecting electors, never has a state punished an elector
23 because of how that elector voted. Hundreds of electors, in 20 of the 55 presidential elections
24 in our history, have voted contrary to how they were pledged before 2016. Never before has
any of them been legally penalized for their decision.

1 This fact alone should suggest how fundamentally misconceived Washington’s
2 understanding of the idea of an “Elector” is. No doubt, a custom has developed in America for
3 “Electors” to follow the will of the people of their state. No doubt, that custom makes sense in
4 a representative democracy. But custom does not convert into legal power merely because of
5 its longevity. It certainly doesn’t amend the Constitutional scheme just because that scheme is
6 not popularly understood. As Justice Jackson noted in *Ray v. Blair*,

7 Usage may sometimes impart changed content to constitutional
8 generalities, such as ‘due process of law,’ ‘equal protection,’ or
9 ‘commerce among the states.’ But I do not think powers or discretions
10 granted to federal officials by the Federal Constitution can be forfeited
11 by the Court for disuse. A political practice which has its origin in
12 custom must rely upon custom for its sanctions. *Id.*, at 233 (Jackson, J.,
13 dissenting).

14 This point is crucial for understanding the nature of any limits on the constitutional
15 freedom of an “Elector.” No doubt, an “Elector” can be asked to make a pledge. Neither is
16 there any Constitutional problem with a political party asking voters to pledge support for that
17 party. But such pledges can only be enforced normatively, not legally. It may well be that
18 most voters vote according to the party to which they are pledged. It may well be that a
19 particular voter is scorned within her community because she defects from the party to which
20 she is pledged. But the custom of voting for your party is not a predicate for a legal
21 requirement of voting for your party. The choice of who to vote for is an essential and
22 protected liberty, core to the very idea of a voter, or, as the Constitution speaks of them,
23 “Electors.”

24 **2. The Constitution’s Specification that Votes Shall Be By “Ballot” Reinforces This Conclusion**

The Constitution and the Twelfth Amendment require that Presidential Electors vote
“by ballot.” In the language of the Framers, “by ballot” meant by secret ballot. The
Constitution speaks of “ballot” only twice — once in reference to Presidential Electors, and
once in reference to contingency election procedures in the House and Senate. Every other

1 time the Constitution speaks of elections, it uses the word “choose” or “elect.” Early
2 Congresses understood the contingency election by ballot to be a secret ballot. CONG. DEB.
3 430, 512, 514 (1825). See William Josephson & Beverly J. Ross, Repairing the Electoral
4 College, 22 J. Legis. 145, 172-73 (1996). The plain intent of the Framers in using this distinct
5 language was to assure that Presidential Electors could exercise their judgment.

6 A civil penalty for voting contrary to a pledge conflicts with a secret ballot. While an
7 Elector is obviously free to report his or her vote, any state procedure that makes the vote
8 transparent conflicts with the Constitution’s design. State law must allow Electors to perform
9 their function consistent with the Constitution.

10 **3. Except for one restriction, the Constitution leaves presidential electors
11 free to exercise their discretion, and neither the States nor Congress has
12 any power to add to the one substantive restriction that the Constitution
13 imposes upon Electors**

14 The Supreme Court has been clear about the power of the states or Congress to modify
15 the qualifications or restrictions upon any federal officer or function. As the Court has
16 indicated in multiple contexts, when the Constitution describes a floor, it is also describing a
17 ceiling.

18 Thus, in *Powell v. McCormack*, 395 U.S. 486 (1969), the Court held that Congress has
19 no power to add to the qualifications necessary to serve in Congress. The Constitution
20 specifies certain qualifications — citizenship, residency in the state, an age limit. Congress,
21 the Court held, had no power to add to those, by refusing to seat an elected representative
22 because of pending corruption charges against that representative. The Constitution had set
23 the floor. That floor was also the constitutional ceiling. However compelling the interest in
24 excluding purportedly corrupt politicians, *Powell* held that Congress could not supplement the
limits the Constitution established.

The Court reinforced the principle in *U.S. Term Limits v. Thornton*, 514 U.S. 779
(1995). In that case, the Court rejected an effort by Arkansas to impose term limits on its

1 federal representatives. The Arkansas Constitution had denied ballot access to any
2 representative who had served three terms in the House, or two terms in the Senate. The
3 Supreme Court invalidated those restrictions because they infringed on the freedom of choice
4 of Legislative Electors—that is, the voters. As the Court held, “the right to choose
5 representatives belongs not to the States, but to the people.” *Id.* at 821. The state had no power
6 to restrict the freedom of “the people” — acting as Legislative Electors — because the
7 Constitution had already specified the only qualifications that might constrain the freedom of
8 “the People.” But beyond the restrictions created by the Constitution, neither the states nor
9 Congress can further restrict the freedom of Legislative Electors. *See also Schaefer v.*
10 *Townsend*, 215 F.3d 1031 (9th Cir. 2000) (invalidating California’s attempt to impose certain
11 residency requirements on candidates for the House because a state “does not possess the
12 power to supplement” the constitutional requirements for office (quotation marks omitted)).

12 This same principle applies to Presidential Electors too. The Constitution specifies the
13 duties of presidential electors. It also specifies one substantive restriction on their freedom to
14 vote. Specifically, Article II and the Twelfth Amendment impose eight separate duties on
15 electors:

- 16 (1) to meet in their respective states;
- 17 (2) to vote by ballot for President and Vice President;
- 18 (3) to name in their ballots the person voted for as President;
- 19 (4) to name in a distinct ballot the person voted for as Vice-President;
- 20 (5) to make distinct lists of all the persons voted for;
- 21 (6) to report the number of votes for each;
- 22 (7) to “sign and certify” both lists; and
- 23 (8) to transmit such lists to the President of the Senate at the seat of government.

24 The Twelfth Amendment adds a single substantive constraint upon the electors’
freedom to vote: Electors must cast at least one of their ballots for a candidate from a state

1 other than their own. The Constitution does not otherwise constrain or direct how the electors
2 may vote. Specifically, the Constitution does not direct electors to vote for the candidate of
3 their party. It does not direct electors to vote for the winner of the popular vote in their state.
4 Beyond the single requirement of voting for at least one candidate not from the elector's own
5 state, the Constitution allows Presidential Electors to vote as they deem appropriate.

6 The principle behind *Powell* and *Thornton* compels the conclusion that the states have
7 no power to supplement these duties or these restrictions. A state could not direct Presidential
8 Electors to provide reasons for their vote. Nor could a state further restrict the freedom an
9 elector has to vote as he or she wishes. Just as the Court instructed in *Thornton*, that "the right
10 to choose representatives belongs not to the States, but to the people," where "the people"
11 meant the Legislative Electors, so too should this Court hold that "the right to choose
12 Presidents and Vice Presidents belongs not to the States, but to the Presidential Electors." In
13 both cases, the state may have enormous power in defining the qualifications of "Electors."
14 But beyond the limits in the Constitution, the state has no power to further restrict the
15 franchise of these "Electors," by controlling how they may vote.

16 **4. Presidential Electors were meant to exercise a discretion that is**
17 **inconsistent with any state's power to direct a particular result**

18 According to the State of Washington, the state legislature has not only the power to
19 select Electors, but also the power to control how Electors vote. The significance of that latter
20 power is muted today, because the state's direction is to follow the vote of the People. But on
21 the theory the state advances, there is no reason that the state is limited to directing its electors
22 to vote as the People have. On the State of Washington's theory, the legislature could direct
23 Presidential Electors to vote however the legislature wanted.

24 This idea makes no sense of the Framers' purpose in establishing the Electoral
College. If the Electors could simply be compelled as the legislature directed, then there was
no reason to add the extra step of citizens serving in an Electoral College.

But it is clear from founding authority that the Framers imagined the Electors acting as

1 more than potted plants. As Alexander Hamilton famously described the College,

2 It was equally desirable, that the immediate election should be made by
3 men most capable of analyzing the qualities adapted to the station [of
4 President], and acting under circumstances favorable to deliberation,
5 and to a judicious combination of all the reasons and inducements
6 which were proper to govern their choice. A small number of persons,
7 selected by their fellow-citizens from the general mass, will be most
8 likely to possess the information and discernment requisite to such
9 complicated investigations. The Federalist No. 68 (A. Hamilton).

10 None of this discretion or “discernment” makes any sense if the states can direct the
11 Electors to vote as the legislature prefers. If the “Electors” are subject to legislative direction,
12 then there would be no need for deliberation or for the College itself. But then if, as Hamilton
13 believed, there was need for deliberation, that means the Electors were not simply to be the
14 agent of the legislature. The legislature selects them; it may well require a pledge from them;
15 but they remain free to deliberate and exercise judgment as they perform their function as
16 electors.

17 **5. Washington’s law purporting to penalize an elector who votes
18 independently conflicts with this constitutional design**

19 Washington law purports to create a legal obligation, enforced through a civil penalty,
20 to compel an elector to reveal his or her vote, and vote according to his or her pledge. RCA
21 29A.56.340 authorizes the Secretary of State to issue a penalty against an elector who votes
22 his or her conscience. That penalty effectively compels an elector to forgo any independent
23 judgment about how to cast his or her ballot, and forgo the right to secret ballot.

24 Whether or not such a system is desirable, it is not the system created by the
25 Constitution. The Constitution gives states the freedom to select electors only. It does not give
26 states the power to dictate Electors’ votes, or to deviate from the Constitution’s requirement
27 of voting by secret ballot. While the Supreme Court has expressly upheld the freedom of a
28 state to condition its selection of an elector upon a pledge to vote in a particular way, *Ray v.*
29 *Blair*, 343 U.S. 214 (1952), no court has ever held that states can compel an Elector to vote

1 for a specific candidate, or penalize them if they do not. Just as a promise by an ordinary voter
2 to vote for one candidate or another cannot be enforced by law, the pledge of an elector to
3 vote one way or another cannot be enforced through civil penalty. The system the Framers
4 established secured to all electors — whether legislative or presidential — a discretion which
5 the state of Washington has no power to compromise.

6 Nothing in either *Ray v. Blair*, 343 U.S. 214 (1952), or *McPherson v. Blacker*, 146
7 U.S. 1 (1892), supports any conclusion to the contrary.

8 *Ray* confirmed the freedom of the states to select whatever electors they want. That
9 freedom included the freedom to select electors who would give a pledge to vote for the
10 nominee of their party. No doubt, that pledge creates a moral obligation within an elector.
11 That moral obligation should not be violated casually. But like a promise to give a gift, that
12 moral obligation cannot be enforceable if the discretion that electors were meant to have is to
be preserved.

13 No justice in *Ray* presumed that the states could control how an elector voted. As
14 Justice Reed wrote for the Court, referring to the requirement of a pledge to support a party’s
candidate:

15 even if such promises of candidates for the electoral college are legally
16 unenforceable because violative of an assumed constitutional freedom
17 of the elector under the Constitution, Art. II, s 1, to vote as he may
choose in the electoral college, it would not follow that the requirement
of a pledge in the primary is unconstitutional. 343 U.S., at 230.

18 That “would not follow,” the Court explained, because the pledge was part of the process for
19 *selecting* electors. Nothing bars the state, in exercising its power to select electors, to choose
20 only electors who the party is confident of, because they are willing to make a pledge to
21 support the party nominee.

22 The same is true of *McPherson v. Blacker*, 146 U.S. 1 (1892). The only issue in
23 *Blacker* was “the manner of the *appointment* of electors.” *Id.* at 27 (emphasis added).
24 Michigan had decided to appoint electors by Congressional district. That decision was

1 challenged by nominees for presidential electors who believed “it was not competent for the
2 legislature to direct this manner of appointment.” *Id.* at 24. The Supreme Court rejected this
3 argument. As the Court held, the “legislature possesses plenary authority to direct the manner
4 of appointment.” *Id.* at 25. Chief Justice Fuller’s opinion is expansive and historical, but in no
5 place does he even *suggest* that the legislature’s power extends beyond the power of
6 “appointment.” *Blacker* thus establishes the legislature’s discretion in appointment. It does not
7 extend the reach of the legislative power to the exercise of that power by the “Electors.”
8 Appellants thus have no objection to the claim that “the appointment and mode of
9 appointment of electors belong exclusively to the states under the constitution of the United
10 States.” *Id.* at 35. But that principle says nothing about any state power to control how
11 electors so appointed must vote.

12 This conclusion is confirmed in a recent decision by the 10th Circuit Court of Appeals.
13 In *Baca v. Hickenlooper*, 10th Cir. No. 16- 1482 (Dec. 16, 2016), the Court was asked to
14 declare that “Electors” were free to vote their conscience, a state statute to the contrary
15 notwithstanding. The Court refused the injunction, because it viewed the state statute as not
16 creating any power in the Secretary of State over electors once they were seated. As the 10th
17 Circuit wrote,

18 Whether that statute also affords the State with authority to remove an
19 elector after voting has begun is not a question that has been posed by
20 plaintiffs to either the district court or this court. ... And we deem such
21 an attempt by the State unlikely in light of the text of the Twelfth
22 Amendment. *Slip op. 12.*

23 In the Court’s view, the “text of the Twelfth Amendment” limited any power by the Secretary
24 of State to the appointment of an elector only; once that was complete, there was no
“authority to remove an elector,” the language of the statute notwithstanding.

This is precisely the distinction Appellants insist upon in this case. Appellants
maintain that the state’s authority over “Electors” is exhausted in the appointment. Once the
appointment has been made, the state has no further power to control. Thus the state has no

1 constitutional authority to punish an elector who votes in a way contrary to how the state
2 directs. Because that vote is, necessarily, after the appointment.

3 An analogy to judicial power will make this point even clearer. Federal judges are
4 appointed by Congress. In the tradition of that appointment, judges are asked by Members of
5 the Senate to express their views. Sometimes a judge might make a pledge with respect to a
6 certain legal issue. Most judges view such a pledge as unethical, but it is certainly within
7 Congress's power to ask for it, and certainly within a nominee's right to comply.

8 But no one could believe that Congress has the power to fine a judge who votes
9 against his or her pledge. Congress has no power over the exercise of judicial power, even if
10 the Senate has absolute power over whether a judge gets appointed.

11 That is the same line here. Whatever is done in the appointment stays with the
12 appointment. It does not provide any legitimate basis for further action by the appointing
13 body, whether through civil penalty or through a power to remove.

14 **B. The Civil Penalty imposed by the Secretary of State is beyond the power
15 of the State of Washington, and violated a federally protected right of
16 Appellants**

17 If the power of the State of Washington over Presidential Electors is exhausted in their
18 appointment, then the state has no power to demand an Elector reveal his or her vote, or to
19 impose a civil penalty upon an Elector who votes contrary to how he or she might have
20 pledged. The Secretary might scorn an elector as "faithless." The party might well choose not
21 to select such an elector again in the future. But the state cannot punish behavior that it has no
22 power to control.

23 This conclusion is especially strong when it interferes with a federally protected right.
24 Appellants were duly appointed Presidential Electors under the Constitution of the United
States. The threat of a penalty interfered with their exercise of a federally protected right.
Appellants no doubt withstood the force of that threat, and voted their conscience nonetheless.
But their willingness to accept the risk of a fine does not negate the impropriety of the fine.

1 Washington has no power to require that ballots are public, or to interfere with Appellants
2 federally protected right, either directly — by removing them as electors — or indirectly —
3 by punishing them with a fine.

4 **1. The Civil Penalty Imposed by the Secretary of State Violates the First
5 Amendment**

6 Voting is an expressive act, *Miller v. Hull*, 878 F.2d 523, 532 (1st Cir. 1989), and the
7 First Amendment protects expressive activity against viewpoint-based restrictive state action,
8 e.g., *R. A. V. v. St. Paul*, 505 U.S. 377 (1992). Thus, a fine based on the viewpoint of a
9 Presidential Elector expressed through voting is plainly state action that triggers heightened
10 judicial scrutiny. The State of Washington has no compelling state interest sufficient to justify
11 its discrimination against Appellants based on the viewpoint they expressed in casting their
12 vote for President — especially when the Constitution itself secure the right to Electors to
13 vote anonymously.

14 The First Circuit reached an identical conclusion in *Miller v. Hull*. In that case, a
15 municipal governing board removed independently elected members of a public agency solely
16 because the agency members did not vote the way the board wanted. *Id.* at 525-29. The First
17 Circuit found this to be a constitutional violation, because “elected members of a public
18 agency may not be removed from office for voting contrary to the wishes of the Board.” *Id.* at
19 523. The Supreme Court has specifically approved of the outcome in *Miller* because the
20 Court, too, found this variety of “retaliation amounting to viewpoint discrimination” to be
21 unconstitutional. *Nev. Comm’n on Ethics v. Carrigan*, 564 U.S. 117, 125 (2011).¹

22 The State has no interest that could overcome the impermissible viewpoint
23 discrimination. For instance, it obviously cannot invoke the protection against corruption.
24

¹ *Carrigan* is not to the contrary. While the Court held in that case that the vote of a legislator was not protected speech, the Court grounded that view upon the recognition that the vote of a representative was not personal to the representative. The vote of a “voter,” the Court noted, was different. “[A] voter’s franchise is a personal right,” the Court observed. *Id.*, at 126. A viewpoint-based restriction of the vote of a citizen would therefore certainly trigger heightened judicial scrutiny. In the same way, the vote of a Presidential Elector should be viewed not as the vote of a representative, but, like a Legislative Elector (aka, a voter), as personal to the Elector. Imposing a fine based on the viewpoint of the vote violates the First Amendment.

1 There is no suggestion that Appellants acted corruptly in casting their ballot contrary to their
2 pledge. The line of authority that justifies restrictions on political speech to avoid corruption,
3 see, e.g., *Buckley v. Valeo*, 424 U.S. 1 (1976), therefore cannot validate this restriction on
4 Appellants' ability to cast their vote according to their constitutional duty and good judgment.

5 Likewise, if the state has no authority to compel electors to vote one way or another, it
6 could have no compelling interest beyond corruption that could justify its civil penalty. The
7 state's penalty is ultra vires; its restriction on protected expressive activity thus violates the
8 First Amendment.

9 **IV. Conclusion**

10 For the foregoing reasons, Appellants ask this Court to declare RCW 29A.56.340
11 unconstitutional, and reverse the fines imposed against Appellants.

12 DATED this 24th day of October 2017.

13 **IMPACT LAW GROUP PLLC**

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CERTIFICATE OF SERVICE

I, Mitchell Polonsky, certify under penalty of perjury under the laws of the state of Washington, that the following is true and correct:

I am employed by the law firm of Impact Law Group PLLC.

At all times hereinafter mentioned, I was and am a citizen of the United States of America, a resident of the state of Washington, over the age of eighteen (18) years, not a party to the above-entitled action, and competent to be a witness herein.

On the date set forth below I served the foregoing document in the manner noted on the following:

PARTY/COUNSEL	DELIVERY INSTRUCTIONS
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DATED this 24th day of October 2017.

IMPACT LAW GROUP, PLLC

/s/ *Mitchell Polonsky*

 Mitchell Polonsky