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27 **IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT**
 28 **FOR THE DISTRICT OF ARIZONA**

American Encore, an Arizona non-profit corporation; Karen Glennon, an Arizona individual; America First Policy Institute, a non-profit corporation,

Plaintiffs,

vs.

Adrian Fontes, in his official capacity as Arizona Secretary of State; Kris Mayes, in her official capacity as Arizona Attorney General; Katie Hobbs, in her official capacity as Governor of Arizona,
 Defendants.

Case No.: CV-24-01673-PHX-MTL

**PLAINTIFFS' CONSOLIDATED
 RESPONSE TO DEFENDANTS'
 MOTIONS TO DISMISS AND
 REPLY IN SUPPORT OF THEIR
 MOTIONS FOR PRELIMINARY
 INJUNCTIONS**

**Oral Argument Scheduled For
 September 12**

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INTRODUCTION

1
2 The Speech Restriction and Vote Nullification Provision are both patently
3 unconstitutional and effectively indefensible. Defendants thus predictably respond largely
4 by attempting to (1) twist the relevant texts into something more defensible and (2) avoid
5 the merits altogether by raising various justiciability arguments, such as a putative lack of
6 Article III standing. Both attempted evasions fail.

7 On interpretations, the text of the Speech Restriction simply cannot bear the
8 contortions that the Attorney General engages in. Its plain text is plainly a general
9 prohibition applicable to anyone that is a “person” (*i.e.*, everyone): it thus “prohibit[s]”
10 “any activity by a person” that falls within its scope. EPM at 181 (emphasis added).

11 Defendants’ effort to transform the Speech Restriction into purely non-binding
12 guidance applicable only to poll workers is squarely contrary with the plain meaning of the
13 words “prohibit” and “person”—particularly as modified by “any.” In Defendants’ view,
14 however: (1) “prohibit” does not prohibit anything, (2) “person” means only “poll workers”
15 and not other persons, and (3) “any” does not mean anything at all. Defendants’ twisting
16 of the meaning of words well past their breaking points calls to mind the infamous
17 California court decision holding that a “bee” qualified as a “fish.” *See Almond All. of Cal.*
18 *v. Fish & Game Com.*, 79 Cal. App. 5th 337, 341 (3d Div. 2022) (holding that “the bumble
19 bee, a terrestrial invertebrate, falls within the definition of fish”). But the meaning of words
20 is not so infinitely malleable under Arizona law.

21 This plain-text reading—*i.e.*, that a “prohibit[ion]” applicable to “any ... person” is
22 a prohibition applicable to any person—is underscored by (1) the Secretary’s *multiple*
23 statements demonstrating his view that the Speech Restriction is a binding and enforceable
24 prohibition applicable to everyone, (2) Defendants’ request for a stay pending appeal in the
25 State Case, implicitly advancing that same position, (3) Defendants’ own brief here, which
26 makes clear their view that the Speech Restriction’s examples are sufficiently binding
27 prohibitions that “law enforcement” could be called out to enforce them, and (4) the ease
28 with which the Arizona superior court dispatched Defendants’ equivalent arguments.

1 The Secretary’s attempted textual evasions as to the Vote Nullification Provision
2 fare no better. He erroneously reads statutory provisions that create a *duty to canvas* as
3 imposing a *duty to disenfranchise* all voters in counties whose Boards of Supervisors have
4 refused or otherwise failed to certify election results. But that clumsy sleight of hand fails
5 because there are a multitude of ways in which canvassing can be accomplished without the
6 need to disenfranchise affected voters *at all*—let alone *en masse*. Indeed, A.R.S. § 16-644
7 makes clear that the duty to canvas requires *counting* votes, not throwing them out.

8 That reading of the duty to canvas is confirmed by Arizona’s 49 sister states. By all
9 indications, *every* other state manages to discharge their respective duties to canvas results
10 without the need—or resort—to disenfranchising voters (and the Secretary has identified
11 no equivalent provisions *anywhere* in the United States). The Secretary’s view that the duty
12 to canvas necessarily includes a duty to disenfranchise is, to put it mildly, a lonely one.

13 Defendants’ standing arguments fare no better than their state-law interpretive
14 arguments, particularly as the former are overwhelmingly premised on the latter. In
15 particular, Defendants do not dispute that Plaintiff America First Policy Institute (“AFPI”)
16 has incurred compliance costs as a result of the Speech Restriction. And their efforts to
17 portray such costs as a “self-inflicted” overreaction fail both because they are premised on
18 Defendants’ untenable interpretive arguments and because they misapprehend standing
19 precedents generally. In addition, the Secretary’s refusal to disavow enforcement of that
20 provision—and Defendants’ multiple statements and actions demonstrating that they view
21 it as a binding prohibition on *everyone*—make plain that Plaintiffs face a credible threat of
22 enforcement.

23 For the Vote Nullification Provision, Plaintiffs have standing both based on (1) the
24 ongoing harm of having their right to vote downgraded from being *unconditional* right (so
25 long as applicable rules are followed) to one *conditional* based on how governmental
26 officials discharge their duties and (2) the credible threat of future disenfranchisement. As
27 to the former, Plaintiffs cited multiple lines of cases that recognize such injury. Defendants
28 respond only with (1) facile contentions that those cases are somehow “different” without

1 engaging in the fundamental similarities in the nature of the injuries and (2) a bizarre and
2 categorical contention that “the law does not recognize the alleged diminution of Plaintiff’s
3 right to vote as an ... injury,” SOS PI Opp. at 7—which conflicts with a legion of federal
4 cases recognizing vote-dilution claims as establishing cognizable injury.

5 As to future injury, Plaintiffs face a credible threat of disenfranchisement based on
6 the Secretary’s refusal to disavow enforcement of the Vote Nullification Provision, the
7 refusal of the Cochise Board of Supervisors to certify results in 2022, the recent flirtation
8 of a Pinal County supervisor with not certifying 2024 primary results, and the growing
9 trend throughout the U.S. of refusing to vote for certification of results.

10 On the constitutional merits, Defendants offer precious little in actual defense of the
11 challenged provisions. For the Speech Restriction, virtually all of Defendants’ limited
12 arguments hinge on their erroneous view that the provision is purely non-binding and only
13 applies to poll workers. Once that a-bee-is-actually-a-fish species of textual interpretation
14 is rejected, there is very little in the way of defense of the provision as actually written. But
15 what could they say? A regulation that purports to prohibit speech in the form of “insulting
16 or offensive language” or even just “raising one’s voice”—all without any proof of *mens*
17 *rea*, and instead based on “effect” alone—is about as clearly unconstitutional as First
18 Amendment violations come. And what little defense that Defendants offer is plainly
19 insufficient.

20 As to the Vote Nullification Provision, it imposes a severe burden under *Anderson-*
21 *Burdick*. Indeed, that burden is severe: *mass* and *complete* disenfranchisement of *all* voters
22 in a county, who are faultless. Defendants tellingly fail to address *even one* of Plaintiffs’
23 cases demonstrating that the burden here is severe. That issue is dispositive: if the burden
24 is a severe one, strict scrutiny applies and Defendants offer no argument that the Vote
25 Nullification Provision can survive it.

26 But even if the burden were not severe, it is at least significant/substantial. And the
27 Secretary never explains why total disenfranchisement is necessary to accomplish the
28 State’s interest in obtaining election results—particularly where several other alternatives

1 such as seeking mandamus or declaratory relief from courts are readily available and do
2 not require mass disenfranchisement.

3 Because the Secretary has failed to establish that complete disenfranchisement of
4 all voters in affected counties is remotely necessary, the Vote Nullification Provision is
5 unconstitutional under *Anderson-Burdick*'s ends-means test even if it did not impose a
6 severe burden (and it does).

7 Finally, binding Ninth Circuit precedent makes plain that when a likely violation of
8 Plaintiffs' First Amendment rights or right to vote are demonstrated, that injunctive relief
9 is typically appropriate. This case presents no basis to depart from that default rule.

10 For all of these reasons, this Court should grant Plaintiffs' motions for preliminary
11 injunctions and deny Defendants' motions to dismiss.

12 ARGUMENT

13 I. DEFENDANTS' THRESHOLD INTERPRETIVE ARGUMENTS LACK MERIT

14 Most of Defendants' jurisdictional arguments turn on their contentions that (1) the
15 Speech Restriction is purely non-binding guidance for poll workers and does not prohibit
16 any speech or conduct by members of the general public, and (2) other unchallenged
17 statutory provisions providing for a duty to *canvas* independently mandate the
18 *disenfranchisement* of votes cast in counties with uncertified election results, which the
19 Vote Disqualification Provision purportedly only duplicates. Before turning to the specific
20 jurisdictional arguments, it is therefore useful to explain why those interpretative
21 arguments about Arizona law are incorrect—indeed, outright specious.

22 This Court owes *no deference* to Defendants' interpretation of EPM provisions. *See*
23 A.R.S. § 12-910(F). And because Defendants' interpretations contort the operative texts
24 beyond recognition, this Court is obliged to reject them under *de novo* review.

25 A. The Speech Restriction Imposes A Binding Prohibition On *Everyone*

26 The centerpiece of Defendants' defense of the Speech Restriction is an attempt to
27 twist it into something it is not: *i.e.*, rather than the binding prohibition that applies to any
28 "person," they contend that it is merely non-binding guidance for election workers and

1 does not prohibit speech and conduct from the public at large. AG MTD at 5–9; AG PI
2 Opp. at 3–9. But the Speech Restriction’s text cannot bear Defendants’ contortions of it.
3 Everything from (1) the plain text of the Speech Restriction, (2) the context of its adoption,
4 (3) Defendants’ repeated statements, (4) Defendants’ litigation conduct, and (5) the state
5 court’s decision all demonstrate that the Speech Restriction is exactly what its text says it
6 is: *i.e.*, a provision that makes “any activity by a person” that falls within its scope is
7 “prohibited.” EPM at 181.

8 **1. Speech Restriction Is A Criminal Prohibition On Speech And** 9 **Conduct**

10 The EPM’s enabling statute criminalizes violations of the EPM’s rules. It provides:
11 “A person who violates any rule adopted pursuant to this section [*i.e.*, any provision of the
12 EPM] is guilty of a class 2 misdemeanor.” A.R.S. § 16-452(C). And the Arizona Supreme
13 Court has explained that, under A.R.S. § 16-452(G), “the EPM has the force of law; *any*
14 violation of an EPM rule is punishable as a class two misdemeanor.” *Arizona Pub. Integrity*
15 *All. v. Fontes*, 250 Ariz. 58, 63 (2020) (emphasis added).

16 The EPM’s Speech Restriction is an EPM rule—which Defendants do not
17 meaningfully contest—and, by its terms, is a prohibition on speech and conduct. It
18 provides: “Any activity by a person with the intent or effect of threatening, harassing,
19 intimidating, or coercing voters (or conspiring with others to do so) inside or outside the
20 75-foot limit at a voting location is prohibited.” EPM at 181.

21 As explained in more detail in Plaintiffs’ opposition to *Pullman* abstention, (ECF
22 No. 41 at 9–12), the EPM’s use of the word “prohibit” means exactly that; it is a
23 prohibition. Indeed, “prohibit” unambiguously means “to forbid” or “officially refuse to
24 allow something.” *Prohibit*, Cambridge Dictionary [https://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/di](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/dictionary/english/prohibit)
25 [ctionary/english/prohibit](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/dictionary/english/prohibit) (last visited Aug. 23, 2024).

26 Moreover, the Speech Restriction’s use of the modifier “any” before “activity”
27 further elucidates the *broad* scope of the prohibition. The word “any” has a well-
28 established “expansive meaning, that is, ‘one or some indiscriminately of whatever kind.’”

1 *Ali v. Fed. Bureau of Prisons*, 552 U.S. 214, 219 (2008) (citation omitted)); accord *Babb*
2 *v. Wilkie*, 140 S. Ct. 1168, 1174 n.3 (2020) (“We have repeatedly explained that ‘the word
3 ‘any’ has an expansive meaning.”). Thus, the use of “any” confirms that “any activity” that
4 falls within the Speech Restriction is “prohibited.” EPM at 181. Defendants’ arguments
5 make *no* effort to account for the Speech Restriction’s use of the word “any,” however—
6 simply treating it as if it is not there. But it is and it precludes their construction.

7 The Speech Restriction is thus, as its text says, a “prohibit[ion].” EPM at 181. And
8 violations of the Speech Restriction are criminally prohibited. *See* A.R.S. § 16-452(C).

9 **2. The Speech Restriction Applies To *Everyone*, Not Just Poll Workers**

10 Defendants continue to labor under the erroneous belief that the Speech Restriction
11 merely “guides election officials,” and “does not regulate Plaintiffs.” AG MTD at 1. To
12 reach this conclusion, Defendants misread “person” to mean *only* elections workers.

13 Defendants’ construction is untenable. By its plain text, the Speech Restriction
14 explicitly applies to anyone that is a “person”—which means ordinary members of the
15 public just as much as election officials. That is particularly true as person is modified by
16 “any,” which indicates that maximal breadth was intended. *Supra* § I.A.1.

17 That result is reinforced by the fact that the Speech Restriction purports to
18 implement A.R.S. § 16-1013, which both (1) also uses the word “person” and
19 (2) undeniably uses “person” as applying to *everyone*, poll workers and members of the
20 general public alike. Defendants’ pretense that “person” means one thing for § 16-1013 but
21 another for the regulatory provision implementing it—even though the regulation, unlike
22 the statutory provision, also includes the intensifier “any”—is contrary to basic principles
23 of statutory interpretation. Indeed, “[t]o give the same words a different meaning for each
24 [related provision] would be to invent a statute rather than interpret one.” *Clark v. Martinez*,
25 543 U.S. 371, 378 (2005).

26 Defendants rely (AG MTD at 5-6, 15) heavily on the premise that because the
27 second sentence of the Speech Restriction refers to “the officer in charge,” then “person”
28 in the first sentence must just mean election workers. But the fact that the first sentence

1 uses “person” and the second refers to election workers *confirms* rather than disproves that
2 the provision applies to members of the general public. Courts “usually ‘presume
3 differences in language like this convey differences in meaning.’” *Wisconsin Cent. Ltd. v.*
4 *United States*, 138 S. Ct. 2067, 2071–72 (2018). Indeed, “[a]textual judicial
5 supplementation is particularly inappropriate when, as here, the [drafter] has shown that it
6 knows how to adopt the omitted language or provision.” *Rotkiske v. Klemm*, 140 S. Ct. 355,
7 361 (2019). Defendants have shown the ability to distinguish between “person” and
8 election officials throughout the EPM. Their use of “person” in the first sentence and
9 “officer in charge” in the second demonstrates that a *different* meaning was intended for
10 each, rather than silently swapping out the meaning of “person” from § 16-1013.

11 **3. The Speech Restriction Contains A Limitless Geographical Scope** 12 **And Provides No Temporal Limitations**

13 In response to Plaintiffs’ explanation that the Speech Restriction contains a limitless
14 geographic and temporal scope, Defendants offer the following detailed analysis: “It does
15 not,” AG PI Opp. at 11, and that such a construction is “absurd[],” AG MTD at 6–7. But
16 that is the only defensible way to read the Speech Restriction’s actual text.

17 Take the geographic scope first. By its terms, the Speech Restriction explicitly
18 applies both “*inside or outside* the 75-foot limit at a voting location.” EPM at 181
19 (emphasis added). The combined universe of locations that are either “inside or outside the
20 75-foot limit” is the entire territory of Arizona’s borders. That is not an absurd construction
21 of the Speech Restriction’s geographic scope; it is the only possible construction. Indeed,
22 the Speech Restriction later uses the same “*inside or outside* the polling place” language *a*
23 *second time* when providing examples of violations. *Id.* at 182 (emphasis added). This
24 repetition of language expressly disavowing geographic limitations demonstrates that no
25 such limitations exist.

26 Take next the temporal scope. The Speech Restriction is stated as a universal
27 prohibition on conduct without any requirement that the “any activity ... [that] is
28 prohibited” be committed on election day itself. *Id.* at 181. And its explicit use of the word

1 “any” indicates the provision applies without temporal limitation. *Supra* at 5–6. “Any”
2 necessarily means anywhere and on any day. Shoehorning in temporal and geographical
3 limitations into the provision’s actual text would de facto transform “any activity” into
4 “only some activities, with implied limitations TBD.”

5 Defendants are thus mistaken that the Speech Restriction contains implicit
6 geographic and temporal restrictions. And their insistence that it does—contrary to its
7 *explicit* text—is emblematic of the weaknesses in their interpretive arguments overall.

8 **4. The Context Of The Speech Restriction’s Adoption Reinforces That** 9 **It Is A Binding Prohibition On Everybody**

10 After the Secretary released the draft EPM, the President of the Senate and Speaker
11 of the House voiced concerns about certain sections of the then-draft EPM. ECF No. 1-1
12 at 2. In particular, the leaders expressed specific concerns about the Speech Restriction,
13 including that it “purport[ed] to criminalize wide swaths of speech and conduct that you
14 speculate might be ‘considered intimidation,’” including “‘offensive language.’” *Id.*

15 The Secretary’s response to these serious constitutional concerns from a coordinate
16 branch of government? Nothing. He promulgated the Speech Restriction without any
17 amendment from the draft EPM. *Compare* Third Declaration of Brennan A.R. Bowen
18 (attached hereto as Ex. B), ¶4, Attachment 1 *with* EPM at 181–83. If the Secretary truly
19 wished to promulgate non-binding guidance for poll workers, the appropriate response to
20 the Legislature’s concern would have been to amend the Speech Restrictions to clarify that
21 it does not apply to any “person” who engages in “[a]ny activity” that the provision
22 prohibits. There are many ways the Secretary could have achieved such an amendment, but
23 he opted for none of them—leaving the language exactly as it was. A binding prohibition
24 was thus *intended*.

25 **5. Maricopa County Superior Court Already Held That The Speech Is** 26 **A Binding, Criminal Prohibition On Everybody**

27 Plaintiffs are not the only party unpersuaded by Defendants’ construction of the
28 Speech Restriction. Indeed, an Arizona court has already rejected it. Decisively. *See* ECF

1 No. 41-1 at 12–23. As the superior court explained, the Speech Restriction “serves ‘as a
2 universal prohibition on conduct.’” *Id.* at 22. And the “EPM’s language has restricted what
3 the Secretary finds acceptable regarding behavior, both speech and acts.” *Id.* at 21. It further
4 explained that it “applies to all Arizonans, not just those professionally involved with
5 elections or volunteering to assist in election operations.” *Id.* at 14.

6 That well-reasoned decision reinforces Plaintiffs’ arguments here. And Defendants’
7 contention (AG MTD at 7-8 n.3) that the superior court “disregarded the clear text” of the
8 Speech Restriction is pure projection.

9 **6. Secretary Fontes’ Multiple Public Statements Confirm That The** 10 **Speech Restriction Is A Binding Prohibition**

11 After the superior court ruling, Secretary Fontes told the press that: “While we
12 respect the court’s decision to halt certain *speech restrictions*, implementing a preliminary
13 injunction for the general election would be too far reaching.” ECF No. 41-1 at 62
14 (emphasis added). Thus, even the Secretary believes that the Speech Restriction contains
15 “speech restrictions”—*i.e.*, actual prohibitions on speech, rather than non-binding
16 guidance.

17 Secretary Fontes also tweeted that one of the Plaintiffs here and in the State Case
18 “*put non-protected harassment/intimidation speech vs 1A right of voters to peaceably*
19 *assemble.*” *Id.* at 41 (emphasis added) (emphasis added). Once again, the Secretary
20 expressed his clear view that the Speech Restriction does—and should—prohibit “speech.”

21 And a few days later, Secretary Fontes gave an interview where he broke his “habit”
22 of not “discuss[ing] any pending lawsuits” because this one was “really, really personal to
23 me.” Ex. B, Attachment 2 at 5. He also made clear his view that the Speech Restriction’s
24 example of “disseminating false or misleading information” was a binding prohibition that
25 was “blocked by the judge too,” which “chipp[ed] away at our ability to ... *regulate the*
26 *behavior* during an election season.” Ex. B, Attachment 9 at 1–2 (emphasis added).

27 Secretary Fontes went on to accuse one of the state-court plaintiffs, Arizona Free
28 Enterprise Club (AZFEC) of “trying to create chaos at polling places,” “want[ing] voters

1 to be taunted um using threatening[,] insulting[,] or offensive language,” and “want[ing]
2 chaos and disorder.” Ex. B, Attachment 2 at 6. He then added that AZFEC (and,
3 presumably, its members) are “wackos” and that people should call AZFEC to pressure
4 them to drop the suit. *See id.* at 7.

5 The Secretary’s declaration that AZFEC wants chaos and disorder, and that this and
6 the state lawsuit challenging the Speech Restriction will achieve that result, makes plain
7 that he believes that the provision is a binding prohibition with actual legal operative effect.
8 One cannot “create chaos” by enjoining a provision that never had any legal effect to begin
9 with. Only an injunction against an operative provision could do that.

10 An additional interview from the Secretary, two days later, bolsters this point. On
11 August 18, 2024, Secretary Fontes opined AZFEC “and their ilk” are attempting to create
12 a scenario where their fellow citizens “can get yelled and screamed at by wackos,” with
13 the purported ultimate objective of “chaos and disorder” rather than “peace and harmony
14 of our election systems.” Ex. B, Attachment 3 at 1.

15 He also added that the EPM provides enforcement power against the public: “the
16 marshals, the judges, and the inspectors, who are assigned polling places, are empowered
17 by these guidelines to basically have some standard way of dealing with these sorts of
18 things across the entire state.” *Id.* at 1. He then went on to heap “shame on [AZFEC] for
19 wanting disorder in our election systems,” and to call for its members to defund it. *Id.*
20 (“And I would say, if you’re donating to the Free Enterprise Club, your money is going
21 into this lawsuit as against the good order of our elections in Arizona.”).

22 The Secretary’s comments demonstrate that he believes the Speech Restriction is a
23 binding prohibition on speech and expressive conduct that applies to everyone.

24 **7. Defendants’ Request For A Stay Pending Appeal Underscores That** 25 **They Believe The Speech Restriction Is A Prohibition On Everyone**

26 Defendants have sought a stay of the Maricopa County Superior Court decision
27 enjoining the Speech Restriction. ECF No. 41-1 at 43–56. If defendant thought the Speech
28 Restriction did nothing besides guide election workers, then there would be no immediate

1 need for a stay of the superior court’s injunction. Put differently, Defendants cannot suffer
2 irreparable injury from an injunction that prevents them from enforcing a provision that
3 was never enforceable at all. Yet Defendants decry that they will be irreparably harmed by
4 the injunction against the Speech Restriction. *See id.* at 49–51 (“The harm to Defendants
5 (and to the public) is clear if the Court declines to stay the declaratory and injunctive relief
6 granted to Plaintiffs”). That position is irreconcilable with their claim that the Speech
7 Restriction prohibits nothing. Their inability to enforce it could only conceivably cause
8 them harm if it actually prohibited something that the underlying statutes did not.

9 Specifically, Defendants contend that “[a]bsent a stay, election workers will be
10 (understandably) confused about their responsibilities for preserving order and security at
11 voting locations, which are outlined in chapter 9, section III.” *Id.* at 49–50. They add that
12 “[t]he probable effects of that confusion” are “increased voter intimidation, voter concern
13 about intimidation, and voter disenfranchisement.” It is evident from Defendants
14 arguments that they believe (1) that the Speech Restriction contains prohibitions on speech
15 and conduct, and (2) that those prohibitions apply to the public. Otherwise, what could poll
16 workers be confused about enforcing? The underlying statutes still exist and can still be
17 enforced. To the extent that there is any “confusion,” it could only be because the Venn
18 Diagram of conduct prohibited by the Speech Restriction encompasses *all* of the existing
19 statutory prohibitions and then adds some *more* prohibitions.

20 Defendants’ actions in seeking a stay thus belie their implicit—but inescapable—
21 view that the Speech Restriction is a binding prohibition on the general public.

22 **8. Defendant’s Conflicting Arguments Here Also Demonstrate That** 23 **They Believe The Speech Restriction Is A Binding Prohibition**

24 Defendants also here add spurious insinuations about Plaintiffs’ intent (AG MTD at
25 9 & n.4), which actually demonstrate that the Speech Restriction is a binding prohibition.
26 Specifically, Defendants provide the following example when arguing how the Speech
27 Restrictions might be constitutionally applied:

28 For example, if a self-appointed poll observer tries to physically block a voter
from voting, or points at a voter and shouts “Vote for Harris or I will bury

1 you!”), or screams in a voter’s face “Vote for Trump you f---ing b--ch!”, an
2 election official may ask the poll observer to cut it out. And if the behavior
3 persists, *the official may ask law enforcement to help handle the situation.*
4 AG PI Opp. at 9 (emphasis added). Defendants then suggest “that [it] is far from clear” that
5 “Plaintiffs would agree” that the above examples are not unconstitutional applications of
6 section III(D). *Id.* at n.4.

7 Defendants’ arguments are notable for three reasons. *First*, Defendants’ example
8 illustrates Plaintiffs’ point: Defendants believe that the Speech Restriction actually
9 prohibits speech and conduct from the general public, not just election officials. The *reason*
10 that Defendants believe that “law enforcement” can be called out to enforce that example
11 from the Speech Restriction is that they believe that it creates *law that can be enforced*.
12 One cannot call the police when someone violates non-binding guidance.

13 Law enforcement exists to enforce actual *laws*. Defendants’ position that the Speech
14 Restriction contains law to enforce thus concedes that it operates as a binding prohibition.
15 And anything prohibited by the EPM is a crime to commit. A.R.S. § 16-452(C).

16 *Second*, Defendants’ feigned ignorance as to Plaintiffs’ position (that it is “far from
17 clear”) is disingenuous. Plaintiffs specifically communicated to Defendants’ counsel—in
18 request to their specific inquiry—that “[t]o the extent that any conduct is prohibited by the
19 plain text of A.R.S. § 16-1013 alone—and not because of any gloss that the Speech
20 Restriction applied to it—that would not be enjoined.” Ex. B, Attachment 4 at 1.
21 Defendants were thus amply aware of Plaintiffs’ position that existing *statutes* could be
22 enforced, and that Plaintiffs do not challenge their constitutionality—just the Speech
23 Restriction’s addition of *new* prohibitions on top of them. What Defendants claim is “far
24 from clear” to them was in fact made amply clear to them.

25 *Third*, the reason that Plaintiffs sought (and obtained) an injunction against the
26 whole Speech Restriction (§ III.D) is obvious: it is *all* premised on the central prohibition
27 contained in its first sentence. Because *all* of the rest of the Speech Restriction applies that
28 central prohibition, it necessarily falls when its foundation is knocked out from under it.
29 To the extent that Defendants wish to promulgate guidance applying § 16-1013 *alone*—

1 and not the Speech Restriction’s unconstitutional gloss on it—they are welcome to do so.

2 That examples applying an unconstitutional prohibition are properly enjoined with
3 that unconstitutional prohibition itself is hardly a “shocking position,” but rather an
4 unexceptional one—and one hardly revealing of the nefarious intent as Defendants
5 insinuate. AG PI Opp. at 9 n.4. Indeed, that “shocking position” is actually the *default rule*
6 that federal courts apply when reviewing federal rules under the APA. *See, e.g., National*
7 *Parks Conservation Ass’n v. Semonite*, 925 F.3d 500, 501 (D.C. Cir. 2019) (“[V]acatur [of
8 the entire rule] is the default remedy to correct defective agency action.”) (citation omitted).

9 **B. The Secretary’s Statutory Duty To *Canvas* Results Includes No Parallel**
10 **Mandate To *Disenfranchise* Voters**

11 The Secretary’s interpretive arguments about the Vote Nullification Provision rely
12 on conflation of two *very* different concepts: in the Secretary’s view, his duty to *canvas*
13 election results includes a duty to *disenfranchise* voters in the process. But the duty to
14 *canvas* is a mandate to *count* votes, not throw them out.

15 Defendants thus take pains to explain the detailed natures of election timelines, a
16 County Board of Supervisors’ duty to *canvas* its county without delay, and the Secretary’s
17 concomitant duty to canvass the state results without delay. *See* SOS MTD at 3–6, 14; SOS
18 PI Opp. at 5, 7. That is a red herring: Regardless of the tight statutory deadlines to canvass,
19 the Secretary has a duty to canvass *the whole state* and not toss out the votes of an entire
20 county because it is administratively convenient for him to do so. Nothing in state law
21 imposes a duty of disenfranchisement.

22 Arizona’s procedures for canvassing are codified at A.R.S. §§ 16-641 to -651.
23 Section 642—on which Defendants extensively rely—merely provides that the “governing
24 board of a county” and the “secretary of state” each “shall meet and canvass” the elections
25 that they respectively oversee by certain deadlines after the general and primary elections.
26 A.R.S. § 16-642(A)(1)–(2). Section 16-648—also cited by Defendants—imposes a similar
27 duty on the Secretary for elections for statewide offices and ballot measures. A.R.S. §
28 16-648(A)–(B). In short, county boards canvass first, and the Secretary canvasses after

1 that, using the official canvasses from the counties. *Id.*

2 Much as Defendants make about deadlines for canvassing and the Legislature's
3 recent amendment to those timelines, Plaintiffs do not challenge those timelines. And
4 nowhere do §§ 16-642 or -648 mandate that the Secretary refuse to canvass the votes for
5 an entire county. *See id.* Indeed, implicit in the Secretary's duty to canvass the state is his
6 duty to canvass the *entire* state—not leave entire counties' votes uncounted. *See* A.R.S.
7 16-648(A)–(B) (mandating that the Secretary “canvass *all* [statewide] offices” and
8 “canvass *all* proposed constitutional amendments and initiated or referred measures”)
9 (emphasis added). The duty to canvas “all” statewide votes means just that: rather than
10 mandating that the Secretary simply throw out uncertified votes, he is obligated to find a
11 way to include them in the final count. But the Vote Nullification Provision changes that,
12 mandating disenfranchisement for all voters whose county results are not certified.

13 The Secretary appears to labor under the misimpression that statute statutory law
14 mandates that without an official, timely canvass from a county board of supervisors, the
15 Secretary cannot canvass that county. This is incorrect. It is true that the county must canvass
16 election results, certify the winners, and send those official returns to the Secretary. A.R.S.
17 §§ 16-645(A); 16-646. But state statutory law leaves multiple methods of resolving the
18 issue of uncertified results that do *not* require disenfranchising all affected voters. For
19 example, A.R.S. § 16-643 only requires that the Secretary “determin[e] the vote of the
20 county.” That does not require throwing out any votes.

21 Similarly, § 16-644 provides that if the canvasser—here, the Secretary—cannot
22 determine the information that should be in the county's returns, he must not reject it for
23 lack of formality. It thus provides “No list, tally, certificates or endorsement returned from
24 any precinct shall be set aside or rejected for want of form, or for not being strictly in
25 accordance with the explicit provisions of this title, if they can be clearly understood” and
26 adds that “nor shall any declaration of result, commission or certificate be withheld or
27 denied by reason of any defect or informality in making the returns of the election in any
28 precinct, if the facts which the returns should disclose can be definitely ascertained.”

1 Thus, if the Secretary can “definitely ascertain[]” the “facts which the returns should
2 disclose,” then he *must not “reject”* the information, but instead must fulfill his duty to
3 canvass. A.R.S. § 16-644 (emphasis added).

4 In sum, Arizona statutory law imposes on the Secretary a duty to *canvass* the *entire*
5 state. That does not include a duty or authorization to disenfranchise voters simply because
6 their Board of Supervisors has refused or failed to certify results. But while statutory law
7 includes no such mandate, the Vote Nullification Provision does. And that mandate
8 imposes an unconstitutional burden on the right to vote, as described previously and below.

9 **II. THIS COURT HAS JURISDICTION TO HEAR PLAINTIFFS’ CLAIMS**

10 **A. Plaintiffs Have Standing To Challenge The Speech Restriction**

11 Plaintiffs have standing to challenge the Speech Restriction based on (1) their
12 ongoing compliance costs and (2) the credible threat of enforcement of the provision
13 against them.

14 **1. Plaintiffs’ Compliance Costs And Being The Object Of 15 Regulation Establishes Standing**

16 Defendants’ arguments (AG MTD at 13–15) that Plaintiffs’ compliance costs as one
17 of the regulated parties fail to establish Article III standing are largely premised on (1) their
18 erroneous interpretive arguments, *see supra* § I.A, and a (2) grave misunderstanding of
19 federal standing precedents.

20 The Supreme Court has long made clear that when a “suit is one challenging the
21 legality of government action or inaction” and “the plaintiff is himself an object of the
22 action (or forgone action) at issue ... there is ordinarily little question that the action or
23 inaction has caused him injury and that a judgment preventing or requiring the action will
24 redress it”—*i.e.*, that the plaintiff has standing. *Lujan v. Defs. of Wildlife*, 504 U.S. 555,
25 561–62 (1992). Indeed, in that circumstance, “standing to seek review of administrative
26 action is *self-evident*” indeed, so much so that they typically need not “supplement the
27 record” with any actual standing declarations or other evidence. *Sierra Club v. EPA*, 292
28 F.3d 895, 900 (D.C. Cir. 2002) (citing *Lujan*, 504 U.S. at 561–62) (emphasis added).

1 Defendants dispute that members of the general public are subject to the Speech
2 Restriction—*i.e.*, that they are “object[s] of the action ... at issue,” *Lujan*, 555 U.S. at 562.
3 But that fails for the reasons explained above. *Supra* § I.A. And Defendants’ declarations
4 make clear that they are engaged in the sort of election-related communications that are
5 within the Speech Restriction’s broad scope. *See* ECF No. 14-2 at 3–6; No. 14-3; No. 14-4.

6 Plaintiffs’ object-of-the-action standing is thus “self-evident” here as without any
7 need to “supplement the record” beyond showing that they are objects of the regulation.
8 *Sierra Club v. EPA*, 292 F.3d at 900. But Plaintiffs have gone well beyond that and
9 submitted specific evidence that they have incurred compliance costs as a direct result of
10 the Speech Restriction’s new mandates. *See* ECF No. 14-2 at 3, 5–6; No. 14-4. That alone
11 establishes standing since “[a]n increased regulatory burden typically satisfies the injury in
12 fact requirement.” *Contender Farms, L.L.P. v. USDA*, 779 F.3d 258, 266 (5th Cir. 2015).
13 The Ninth Circuit has also repeatedly held that compliance costs establish standing to
14 challenge a regulation.¹ Indeed, “complying with a regulation later held invalid
15 almost *always* produces the irreparable harm of nonrecoverable compliance
16 costs.” *Louisiana v. Biden*, 55 F.4th 1017, 1034 (5th Cir. 2022) (cleaned up).

17 Here, the Cypher and Noble declarations provide precisely the sort of supporting
18 evidence that establishes standing. *See* ECF No. 14-2 at 3, 5–6 (detailing compliance costs
19 such as legal fees and training expenses); No. 14-4 (providing at least \$4,800 in compliance
20 costs). Such training costs readily establish standing. Nor are the activities at issue purely
21 lobbying or issue advocacy, but instead include activities like training volunteers and
22 workers that readily establish standing. *See, e.g., Chamber of Commerce v. Edmondson*,
23 594 F.3d 742, 756–57 (10th Cir. 2010) (holding that “economic injuries in the form of
24 implementation and training expenses” established standing).

25 ¹ *See, e.g., Montana Shooting Sports Ass’n v. Holder*, 727 F.3d 975, 980 (9th Cir. 2013)
26 (“The economic costs of complying with a licensing scheme can be sufficient
27 for standing.”); *Airline Serv. Providers Ass’n v. L.A. World Airports*, 873 F.3d 1074, 1078
28 (9th Cir. 2017) (same); *Association of Pub. Agency Customers v. Bonneville Power Admin.*,
733 F.3d 939, 950 (9th Cir. 2013) (same); *Cent. Ariz. Water Conservation Dist. v. EPA*,
990 F.2d 1531, 1538 (9th Cir. 1993) (same).

1 Defendants attempt to evade this well-established rule that objects of regulations
2 have self-evident standing to challenge them by contending (AG MTD at 12-14) that
3 Plaintiffs' compliance costs are "self-inflicted." Not so. Much of that argument is bound
4 up with their position that the Speech Restriction is unenforceable because it prohibits
5 nothing and hence Plaintiffs' compliance costs are the product of a self-inflicted
6 overreaction. That is incorrect. *Supra* § I.A.

7 Defendants also contend (at 13-14) that compliance costs are not cognizable because
8 the Speech Restriction was also contained in the 2019 EPM. But nothing prevents old
9 regulations from causing ongoing compliance costs. Even 50-year-old EPA pollution-
10 control regulations, for example, can easily cause ongoing compliance costs today as long
11 as they are still in force. Similarly, EPA's and DOJ's decades-old regulations imposing
12 disparate-impact liability under Title VI create ongoing compliance costs that established
13 standing to challenge them. *See Louisiana v. EPA*, No. 2:23-CV-00692, 2024 U.S. Dist.
14 LEXIS 12124, at *17-37 (W.D. La. Jan. 23, 2024). Here, Plaintiffs engage in
15 communications in *every* election cycle. *See* ECF No. 14-2 at 3; No. 14-4 at 3. And there
16 is nothing implausible that they would incur compliance costs in this cycle (or future ones).

17 Defendants' arguments are particularly ill-taken given that recent events in *this*
18 *election cycle* have augmented Plaintiffs' well-founded fear of enforcement. The 2019
19 EPM's speech restriction appears to have flown under the radar in past cycles. But here the
20 Arizona House Speaker and Senate President explicitly raised First Amendment concerns
21 about the prohibition in the 2023 draft EPM. *See* ECF No. 14-2 at 15–16. Defendants
22 responded by effectively telling the legislative leaders to pound sand—literally not
23 changing a single word in response to the well-founded First Amendment objections raised
24 to them. *See* ECF No. 16-1 at 2. By abjectly refusing to make any changes *whatsoever* to
25 ameliorate those glaring First Amendment infirmities, Defendants created new reasons to
26 fear that Defendants intended to trample First Amendment rights this election cycle. Such
27 evidence did not exist previously.

28 Similarly, the Secretary was asked to disavow enforcement of the Speech

1 Restriction and *refused to do so*. See ECF No. 1-3. That too is a recent development that
2 underscores that Plaintiffs’ compliance costs are prudently incurred, rather than a self-
3 inflicted overreaction. More recently, (1) the Secretary has made multiple statements
4 indicating that the provision imposes binding prohibitions on the public, (2) Defendants’
5 own stay-pending-appeal request is premised on the same position, and (3) Defendants’
6 own brief here takes the position that an example in the Speech Restriction is a binding
7 prohibition for which law enforcement can be called out to enforce, AG PI Opp. at 9.

8 The confusion caused by Defendants’ own inconsistent positions and actions *alone*
9 creates ample basis for Plaintiffs to take steps to comply with the Speech Restriction, and
10 thus incur non-self-inflicted compliance costs. Defendants’ have-their-cake-and-eat-it-too
11 approach as to the binding nature of the Speech Restriction and whether they will enforce
12 it provides no basis to defeat Plaintiffs’ standing.

13 Defendants’ “self-inflicted” argument is also squarely refuted by *FEC v. Ted Cruz*
14 *for Senate*, 596 U.S. 289 (2022)—another election-law case. There, Senator Cruz’s
15 campaign had, quite obviously, structured his compliance with FEC regulations such that
16 he “purposely incur[red]” injury that would supply standing to challenge that regulation.
17 *Id.* at 296. But the Supreme Court emphatically rejected the federal government’s argument
18 that the campaign’s “injuries were ‘self-inflicted,’” explaining that it “ha[d] never
19 recognized a rule of this kind under Article III” and that instead it “ha[d] made clear that
20 an injury resulting from the application or threatened application of an unlawful enactment
21 remains fairly traceable to such application, *even if the injury could be described in some*
22 *sense as willingly incurred.” Id.* at 296-97 (emphasis added). Senator Cruz’s campaign thus
23 had Article III standing to challenge the regulation at issue under the First Amendment.
24 The same result should obtain here for Plaintiffs.

25 In any event, Defendants’ arguments about the 2019 EPM have little application as
26 to Plaintiff AFPI, which was not even founded until 2021 and has recently expanded its
27 operations substantially for the 2024 election cycle. Ex. B, Attachment 5 at 25:17; 53:9–
28 54:15. AFPI could not have incurred compliance costs in the 2020 election cycle or

1 challenged the 2019 EPM’s speech restriction then because it *did not yet exist*. Defendants’
2 attempted “gotcha” as to what Plaintiff AFPI supposedly should have been doing at a time
3 when it was not yet in existence thus provides no basis for denying standing here.

4 For substantially similar reasons, the Maricopa County Superior Court had little
5 difficulty in rejecting similar standing arguments raised by Defendants as explained above.
6 *See supra* § I.A.5. It was also “unpersuaded” by Defendants’ delay arguments as to
7 standing, which were recycled here. *See* ECF No. 41-1 at 18. The Court explained that
8 although “prior EPMs ... contain[ed] the same or strikingly similar language” that did
9 “not mean that Plaintiffs (1) knew of the language or, pertaining to Plaintiff America First,
10 (2) the organization existed when prior EPMs were issued.” *Id.*

11 **2. Plaintiffs Face A Credible Threat Of Enforcement**

12 Separate from compliance costs, Plaintiffs independently have established standing
13 and ripeness based on the credible threat of enforcement.

14 It is well-established that a defendants’ “refusal to disavow enforcement of [the
15 challenged legal provision] against [plaintiffs] during th[e] litigation is strong evidence that
16 the state intends to enforce the law and that [plaintiff’s] members face a credible threat” of
17 enforcement that establishes standing. *California Trucking Ass’n v. Bonta*, 996 F.3d 644,
18 653 (9th Cir. 2020); *Arizona v. Yellen*, 34 F.4th 841, 850 (9th Cir. 2022) (“That [defendant]
19 has not disavowed enforcement of the [law] is evidence of an intent to enforce it.”). And,
20 as explained previously, ECF No. 14 at 13–14, (1) the Secretary refused to disavow
21 enforcement via criminal referrals and (2) the Attorney General’s disavowal is premised
22 on her erroneous interpretive arguments, which fail as explained above. *Supra* § I.A.

23 The credibility of the threat of enforcement has become even stronger since the
24 preliminary injunction motion was filed. Since then: (1) the Secretary has made *multiple*
25 statements following the superior court’s decision that demonstrate that he believes the
26 Speech Restriction is a binding prohibition applicable to everyone, and (2) Defendants
27 have sought a stay pending appeal premised on the Speech Restriction’s examples being
28 binding prohibitions, which they also argue here. AG PI Opp. at 9; *supra* § I.A.6–7.

1 Courts evaluating whether a credible threat of enforcement exists consider whether
2 Plaintiffs “(1) intend to engage in a course of conduct arguably affected with a
3 constitutional interest (2) but proscribed by a statute and (3) there must be a credible threat
4 of prosecution.” *Yellen*, 34 F.4th at 849 (citing the *Driehaus* factors) (cleaned up). This test
5 comes with at least a thumb—and perhaps more like an anvil—on the scale here: “[W]hen
6 the threatened enforcement effort implicates First Amendment rights, the inquiry *tilts*
7 *dramatically* toward a finding of standing.” *LSO, Ltd. v. Stroh*, 205 F.3d 1146, 1155 (9th
8 Cir. 2000) (emphasis added). But that dramatic tilt is hardly necessary here.

9 *First*, Plaintiffs contentions about the first *Driehaus* factor are belied by the
10 authority they cite: Plaintiffs have clearly alleged “an intent to do an act ‘*arguably affected*’
11 by a constitutional interest.” *Yellen*, 34 F.4th at 849 (emphasis added). As explained,
12 Plaintiffs intent to act—*i.e.*, speak and express themselves through constitutionally
13 protected conduct—are *at least* “arguably affected” by the First Amendment. Moreover,
14 as *Yellen* explains, this Court must accept *Plaintiffs’* interpretation of the Speech
15 Restriction for standing purposes: “the Supreme Court has cautioned that standing ‘in no
16 way depends on the merits’” and thus this Court must “[v]iew[]the [challenged provision]
17 through [plaintiff’s] eyes” in ascertaining standing. *Id.* (citation omitted). When the federal
18 government tried in *Yellen* to argue that standing was lacking because there was no credible
19 threat of enforcement under *its* construction of the challenged provision, the Ninth Circuit
20 had no difficulty rejecting that contention. *Id.* The same result should obtain here.

21 *Second*, Plaintiffs’ conduct is proscribed by the Speech Restriction. This factor
22 requires a court to “first examine what conduct is proscribed by the [challenged provision]
23 to evaluate whether [the plaintiff’s] desired course of conduct falls under the provision’s
24 sweep.” *Id.* In doing so, this Court must accept Plaintiffs’ interpretation of that provision.
25 *Id.* Under that interpretation, the Speech Restriction criminalizes such ubiquitous conduct
26 as raising one’s voice or using offensive language, and it does so with no *mens rea*
27 requirement and no geographic or temporal limitations. Thus, the second *Driehaus* factor
28 is met here too.

1 Seeking to avoid this result, Defendants effectively argue that Plaintiffs must
2 confess to violating the law to establish standing: contending (AG MTD at 9) that Plaintiffs
3 have failed to say “what specifically will Plaintiffs communicate ... [that would] still fall
4 within some interpretation of the EPM and violate the First Amendment.” But “where
5 threatened action by *government* is concerned, [federal courts] do not require a plaintiff to
6 expose himself to liability before bringing suit to challenge the basis for the threat.”
7 *MedImmune, Inc. v. Genentech, Inc.*, 549 U.S. 118, 128–29 (2007). Federal courts do “not
8 require ... the plaintiff bet the farm, so to speak, by taking the violative action.” *Id.* at 129.
9 Plaintiffs thus need not confess that their actions will violate the Speech Restriction to
10 challenge that provision. *See Yellen*, 34 F.4th at 850 (“[P]laintiffs need not . . . [provide] a
11 confession that [they] will, in fact, violate the law.”).

12 *Third*, as discussed above (§ I.A.4–8), Plaintiffs face a credible threat of
13 enforcement based on (1) the Secretary’s refusal to disavow enforcement, (2) the Attorney
14 General’s disavowal being premised on clear legal errors, (3) the Secretary’s repeated view
15 that the Speech Restriction is a binding prohibition on conduct and speech, and (4) the
16 Secretary’s clear and public animus for Plaintiffs here, and in the state EPM case. *See*
17 *Yellen*, 34 F.4th at 850 (“That the federal government has not disavowed enforcement of
18 the Offset Provision is evidence of an intent to enforce it.”).

19 Thus, all three *Driehaus* factors are met, and Plaintiffs have standing to bring a pre-
20 enforcement challenge.

21 **B. Plaintiffs Have Standing To Challenge The Vote Nullification Provision**

22 The Secretary advances a multitude of arguments that Plaintiffs lack Article III
23 standing challenge to the Vote Nullification provision. But what those arguments possess
24 in numerosity they lack in merit.

25 **1. AFPI Can Assert The Rights of Its Members**

26 The Secretary contends (PI Opp. at 3) that “AFPI cannot establish standing via
27 members it does not name.” That is contrary to binding Ninth Circuit precedent, which
28 held—in an election case—that “[w]here it is relatively clear, rather than merely

1 speculative, that one or more members have been or will be adversely affected by a
2 defendant's action, and where the defendant need not know the identity of a particular
3 member to understand and respond to an organization's claim of injury, we see no purpose
4 to be served by requiring an organization to identify by name the member or members
5 injured," and it thus need not be provided. *National Council of La Raza v. Cegavske*, 800
6 F.3d 1032, 1041 (9th Cir. 2015). This Court too has applied *Cegavske* specifically to hold
7 that the plaintiffs "need not identify by name specific injured members" for election-law
8 challenges like this one. *Arizona Democratic Party v. Hobbs*, 485 F. Supp. 3d 1073, 1085
9 (D. Ariz. 2020) *rev'd on other grounds* 18 F.4th 1179, 1193 (9th Cir. 2021).

10 Here identification of particular members also serves no purpose. All Arizona voters
11 are clearly affected by the very same diminution of their right to vote: downgrading it from
12 an unconditioned right to one conditional on how governmental officials exercise the
13 authority. *See* PI at 4-8. And all voters in each county will suffer the *same* complete
14 disenfranchisement if their Board of Supervisors fails or refuses to certify election results.
15 *Cegavske* thus requires rejection of the Secretary's argument. Similarly, *Arizona*
16 *Democratic Party v. Hobbs* was specifically cited to the Secretary in the State's motion, so
17 he could not have been unaware of it. *See* PI at 7. He simply has no answer to it.

18 Moreover, the disclosure of individual members here is not only unnecessary but
19 potentially dangerous. The Secretary has made clear his willingness to invite retaliation
20 against those who sue him. *Supra* § I.A.6.

21 Given the Secretary's demonstrated willingness to call on members of the public to
22 retaliate against plaintiffs for suing him, it would be particularly problematic to compel
23 identification of AFPI members here. Indeed, it may even be unconstitutional under
24 *Americans for Prosperity Found. v. Bonta*, 594 U.S. 595 (2021) and *NAACP v. Alabama*,
25 357 U.S. 449, 462 (1958)

26 Thus, if this Court concludes that identification of particular members is
27 appropriate here, it should permit Plaintiffs to file that membership information under a
28 protective order that does not permit the Secretary to know the identity of those members

1 and requires destruction of that information after the end of this case.

2 **2. The Vote Nullification Provision Is Inflicting Ongoing Injury**

3 In their motion, Plaintiffs cited three lines of cases as establishing that they have
4 ongoing cognizable injury that establishes standing: felony-disenfranchisement cases,
5 signature-mismatch cases, and First Amendment permitting cases. *See* PI at 4-8. Curiously,
6 the Secretary never addresses those cases in his standing arguments, but instead responds
7 to them purely by arguing that Plaintiffs have not established irreparable harm. *See* PI Opp.
8 at 7-8. Those misplaced arguments are unavailing.

9 The central and overriding infirmity in the Secretary’s argument is manifest from
10 his section title alone. He contends that “the law does not recognize the alleged diminution
11 of Plaintiff’s right to vote as an irreparable injury”—and thus presumably not cognizable
12 Article III injury either. SOS PI Opp. at 7 (capitalization omitted). That argument is truly
13 bizarre. Suppose, for example, that the Arizona Legislature were to pass a law that voters
14 who (1) are members of particular racial groups, (2) live in particular neighborhoods, or
15 (3) are below the age of 30, could only cast ballots that counted as one-tenth (10%) of a
16 vote. Under the Secretary’s categorical position, *none* of those affected voters could even
17 bring suit to challenge such a patently unconstitutional law. After all, in the Secretary’s
18 view, “alleged diminution of plaintiff’s right to vote” is somehow not cognizable injury at
19 all, and hence a challenge to any such law effecting a 90% diminution of the affected
20 voters’ right to vote would not even be justiciable. That cannot possibly be the law. Indeed,
21 does the Secretary really even believe that?

22 Moreover, vote dilution—*i.e.*, *diminution* of voting power—is one of two types of
23 claims that can be brought under § 2 of the Voting Rights Act (“VRA”). *See, e.g., Brnovich*
24 *v. DNC*, 594 U.S. 647, 657–60 (2021) (recognizing that vote-denial and vote-dilution
25 claims as two distinct types of VRA § 2 claims). But under the Secretary’s position, vote-
26 dilution claims should be *categorically* barred since “diminution of [the] right to vote” is
27 supposedly not cognizable injury at all. Thus, *every* single federal court decision awarding
28 relief in a § 2 vote-dilution claim would necessarily be wrongly decided. *But see, e.g.,*

1 *Thornburg v. Gingles*, 478 U.S. 30, 34 (1986) (holding that § 2 vote-dilution challenge was
2 meritorious and considering Article III standing too obvious to warrant discussion).

3 That too cannot possibly be—and is not—the law. And it is more than a little ironic
4 that the Secretary—who fancies himself a champion of the right to vote, *see, e.g.*, Ex. B,
5 Attachments 2 & 3—would take the position that state officials could inflict all manner of
6 “diminution[s] of [the] right to vote” with near-absolute impunity, since federal courts
7 would purportedly be powerless to stop any “diminution of [the] right to vote.” SOS PI
8 Opp. at 7 (capitalization omitted).

9 The Secretary’s categorical position that diminution of the right to vote is not
10 cognizable injury is thus meritless. Equally unavailing are the Secretary’s attempts to
11 distinguish the multiple lines of cases cited by Plaintiffs.

12 ***Felony Disenfranchisement Precedents.*** The Secretary never grapples with the
13 fundamental similarity here: the challenged laws at issue downgraded a citizen’s right to
14 vote from being *unconditional*, as long as they followed applicable rules, to one *conditional*
15 on how governmental officials perform their duties. *That* was the injury recognized in
16 *Williams v. Taylor*, 677 F.2d 510 (5th Cir. 1982) and *El-Amin v. McDonnell*, No. 3:12-cv-
17 00538-JAG, 2013 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 40461 (E.D. Va. Mar. 22, 2013). And *that* too is the
18 injury that the Vote Nullification Provision inflicts on all voters in Arizona.

19 Rather than even trying to explain how the logic of *Williams* and *El-Amin* would
20 not establish standing here, the Secretary offers (PI Opp. at 7) only a facile distinction:
21 those cases supposedly “concern voters who were actually barred from voting due to felony
22 convictions.” That is both incorrect and irrelevant.

23 Incorrect because standing in neither case turned on plaintiffs being “actually
24 barred” from voting in any particular election. Plaintiffs in those two cases thus did not
25 challenge any concrete act of being turned away at polling stations on election day, but
26 rather the abstract diminution of their right to vote going forward. Nor were those plaintiffs
27 necessarily barred from voting as factual matter: had they applied for restoration of their
28 voting rights, the applicable Governors could have granted those requests in time for the

1 next election.

2 The Secretary's distinction is also irrelevant because neither court insisted that the
3 plaintiffs apply for restoration of voting rights before challenging the statutes causing the
4 relevant vote diminution: instead, it was enough for purposes of Article III standing that
5 the felony-disenfranchisement statutes rendered their voting rights contingent on how the
6 governors would exercise their authority. Here too the Vote Nullification Provision renders
7 Plaintiffs' and their members right to vote contingent on how their respective Board of
8 Supervisors exercise their authority. Plaintiffs here thus have standing for the same reasons
9 that plaintiffs in *Williams* and *El-Amin* did.

10 ***Signature Mismatch Precedents.*** The Secretary also never grapples with the
11 common nature of the injury here and the signature mismatch cases. When a procedure,
12 such as matching signatures, "subjects ... electors to the risk of disenfranchisement" by the
13 actions of governmental officials, that creates cognizable injury. *Democratic Exec. Comm.*
14 *of Fla. v. Lee*, 915 F.3d 1312, 1319 (11th Cir. 2019). Just as signature matching creates the
15 potential for wrongful disenfranchisement based on how the matching is conducted, the
16 Vote Nullification Provision subjects voters to the risk of wrongful disenfranchisement
17 based on how Boards of Supervisors conduct (or don't conduct) their duties in certifying
18 results.

19 The Secretary responds (PI Opp. at 7) by contending that signature-matching cases
20 are "wholly dissimilar to this action, as those cases address situations in which the laws at
21 issue inherently allow injury to occur." The "wholly dissimilar" contention is wholly
22 conclusory, refusing to engage with Plaintiffs' actual reasoning. And the Secretary's
23 "inherently allow[s] injury to occur" putative distinction applies here too: but for the Vote
24 Nullification Provision, Boards of Supervisors have no assurance that their refusal or
25 failure to certify votes will succeed in having votes thrown out. But that provision
26 effectively guarantees that they will be. The Vote Nullification Provision thus "inherently
27 allows injury to occur."

28 The Secretary further contends (at 8) that the Vote Nullification Provision is

1 distinguishable because Arizona “laws provide safeguards to ensure that all votes are
2 canvassed.” But whether those safeguards are adequate is a *merits* question, which does
3 not defeat standing. *See, e.g., Warth v. Seldin*, 422 U.S. 490, 500 (1975) (“[S]tanding in no
4 way depends on the merits.”); *supra* § II.A.2. It is also incorrect: the effect of the Vote
5 Nullification Provision is that relevant votes are *thrown out*—not “canvassed” *at all*.

6 ***First Amendment Permitting Precedents.*** The Secretary’s response here too
7 conflates standing with the merits. The Secretary thus contends (PI Opp. at 8) the First
8 Amendment permitting cases are distinguishable because the “officials’ discretion to issue
9 or deny permits was standardless.” But whether there were sufficient constraints on
10 governmental discretion was a First Amendment *merits* question. Being subject to the
11 permit requirement *at all* was the *injury* sufficient to confer Article III standing to challenge
12 whether the First Amendment was violated by standardless discretion. Plaintiffs there were
13 not required to prove the constitutional violation in order to establish standing.

14 Here too, making voters’ right to vote contingent on how governmental officials
15 will exercise their discretion *by itself* inflicts cognizable injury, which establishes Article
16 III injury. Whether putative “safeguards” mitigate that risk is a *merits* question under
17 *Anderson-Burdick* doctrine—not a jurisdictional issue that can be resolved by the
18 Secretary’s simple say-so that safeguards are adequate.

19 In any event, the Secretary’s reliance (PI Opp. at 7) on an official’s putative lack of
20 discretion is misplaced. Even though Boards of Supervisors might not have the legal right
21 to refuse to certify election results, they indisputably have the *power* to do so. Indeed, the
22 lack of discretion did not prevent the Cochise Board of Supervisors from refusing to certify
23 results for a time in 2022. And even the Vote Nullification Provision was insufficient to
24 prevent a member of the Pinal County Board of Supervisors from openly flirting with
25 voting against certification of the 2024 primary results. Ex. B, Attachment 6. Moreover,
26 refusals to vote to certify results have become *prolific* in neighboring Colorado, and have
27 also occurred in “Georgia, ... Michigan, Nevada, and Pennsylvania.” Ex. B, Attachments
28 7, 10. That trend could easily (further) spread here. *Id.* at 6–7. Indeed, the DNC has judged

1 the risk of refusal to certify to be sufficiently great that it filed suit in Georgia just two days
2 ago. Ex. B, Attachment 8.

3 Indeed, if other laws were sufficient to ensure that Boards of Supervisors would
4 *never* refuse or fail to certify results, there would be no need—or justification—for the
5 Vote Nullification Provision. Yet the Secretary contends that the provision is *necessary* to
6 discharge his duty to canvas. ECF No. 26-3. In doing so, his merits arguments fatally
7 undermine his standing contentions.

8 * * *

9 The Secretary never meaningfully engages with the similarities in the nature of the
10 injury here and a multitude of cases in *three* other contexts that routinely found standing
11 based on equivalent harms. Instead, he offers only facile distinctions that cannot withstand
12 scrutiny, which also frequently conflate the merits with standing.

13 Plaintiffs thus have cognizable injury based on the ongoing diminution of their and
14 their members' right to vote, which the Vote Nullification Requirement degrades from
15 unconditional to conditioned on how officials choose to discharge their duties. Nor is there
16 anything conjectural or speculative about that injury: it exists *now* with absolute certainty.

17 **3. Plaintiffs Face A Credible Threat Of Disenfranchisement Under**
18 **The Vote Nullification Provision**

19 Plaintiffs also have standing because there is a credible threat that the Vote
20 Nullification Provision will be enforced in a manner that disenfranchises them. Here it is
21 undisputed that Plaintiffs and their members intend to vote—an activity protected by the
22 Constitution—and that by doing so they are subject to the potential injury of
23 disenfranchisement under the Vote Nullification Provision. And there is at least a credible
24 threat of such enforcement here.

25 The Secretary has refused to disavow enforcement of that provision. ECF No. 26-3.
26 That alone provides strong “evidence of an intent to enforce it.” *Bonta*, 996 F.3d at 653.

27 Indeed, the Secretary not only refused to disavow enforcement but also purports to
28 be mystified as to how he could possibly do otherwise. *See* SOS PI Opp. at 9 (contending

1 that Plaintiffs have “no explanation” and “no answer” as to how the Secretary could
2 disavow enforcement). But the answer is simple: he swore an oath to “support the
3 Constitution of the United States ... [and] bear true faith and allegiance to the same.”
4 A.R.S. § 38-321. If the Vote Nullification Provision is unconstitutional, he would be duty-
5 bound not to enforce it. The Secretary’s apparent inability to comprehend this elementary
6 principle of our constitutional system underscores the threat of enforcement here.

7 Indeed, the Secretary did not merely refuse to disavow enforcement but further
8 doubled down by concocting a bizarre (and meritless) argument that his statutory duty to
9 *canvas votes compels* him to disenfranchise voters. *But see supra* § I.B.

10 There is thus no doubt that if a county board refuses or fails to certify the election
11 results, he *will* enforce the provision to disenfranchise voters. And there is a very real risk
12 that will occur again, just as it did in 2022. *See supra* at 26–27. Indeed, the Attorney
13 General’s *criminal prosecution* for that non-certification demonstrates her obvious belief
14 that deterrence of future similar actions is necessary. ECF No 26-1 at 3 ¶¶5–6.

15 That risk is further demonstrated by the flirtation with non-certification—which
16 likely would have been an outright refusal if the supervisor could have drawn another
17 vote—in *this cycle* already in Pinal County. Ex. B, Attachment 6. And the practice of
18 refusing to vote to certify results is already pervasive throughout the United States and on
19 the upswing. *Supra* at 26.

20 Moreover, the *entire point* of the Vote Nullification Provision was to address this
21 risk, and the Secretary’s defense on the merits contends that it is necessary to do so—
22 implicitly conceding that the risk is material. Why else would the Secretary have gone to
23 the trouble of crafting this apparent-first-in-the-nation provision other than because he
24 judged the risk of recurrence in 2024 to be substantial?

25 For all of these reasons, Plaintiffs face a credible threat of disenfranchisement under
26 the Vote Nullification Provision and thus have Article III standing to challenge it.

27
28

1 **4. Plaintiffs’ Injuries Are Fairly Traceable To The Vote**
2 **Nullification Provision**

3 The Secretary further contends (PI Opp. at 8-9) that even if Plaintiffs have
4 cognizable injury, that injury “is not traceable to the Secretary.” Not so: the Secretary’s
5 arguments badly misapprehend the traceability requirement for standing.

6 As an initial matter, “Article III ‘requires no more than *de facto* causality.’”
7 *Department of Commerce v. New York* (“*Census*”), 139 S. Ct. 2551, 2566 (2019) (citation
8 omitted). “Proximate causation is not a requirement of Article III standing.” *Lexmark Int’l,*
9 *Inc. v. Static Control Components, Inc.*, 572 U.S. 118, 134 n.6 (2014). It also “requires *less*
10 *of a causal connection than tort law.*” *Environment Tex. Citizen Lobby, Inc. v. ExxonMobil*
11 *Corp.*, 968 F.3d 357, 368 (5th Cir. 2020) (emphasis added).

12 Here, Plaintiffs’ harms are readily traceable to the Vote Nullification Provision
13 under this standard. The diminution of the right to vote and credible threat of outright
14 disenfranchisement that result by operation of the Vote Nullification Provision are fairly
15 traceable to it. “*De facto* causality” is thus readily satisfied.

16 Even though proximate cause is *not* a traceability requirement, the Secretary’s
17 traceability arguments appear to rely on the wrongful acts of third parties as breaking the
18 causal chain: the Secretary thus contends (at 8-9) that Plaintiffs harms result “from
19 potential illegal actions of the Apache County Board of Supervisors or some unidentified
20 on-governmental bad actors who block the Board from carrying out its statutory duty.”

21 The Secretary’s arguments are directly contrary to the Supreme Court’s *unanimous*
22 standing holding in the *Census* case. There, the federal government argued that New York
23 lacked Article III standing because its harms “depend[ed] on the independent action of
24 third parties choosing to violate their legal duty to respond to the census.” 139 S. Ct. at
25 2565. Notably, it was *illegal* for individuals to fail to complete census forms. *See* 13 U.S.C.
26 § 221. But New York still had standing even though its harms necessarily depended on
27 being traced through third parties committing unlawful acts. 139 S. Ct. at 2567–68. Under
28 the *Census* case, the fact that Plaintiffs’ harms might be traced through the unlawful actions

1 of Boards of Supervisors thus does not defeat traceability.

2 In addition, the Secretary's arguments ignore that the Vote Nullification Provision
3 could disenfranchise voters *without any wrongful conduct* to break the causal chain.
4 Suppose, for example, that three members of the Maricopa Board of Supervisors are
5 driving in a car together in late November 2024 and get into a fatal crash. The resulting
6 lack of a quorum able to certify results would likely mean that *every single voter in*
7 *Maricopa County* would be disenfranchised under the Vote Nullification Provision—
8 roughly 2.75 million voters if the 2024 turnout mirrors the turnout in 2020.

9 In that circumstance, or any other circumstance preventing a quorum, who exactly
10 does the Secretary suggest that Plaintiffs should sue to have their ballots counted if the
11 Secretary/Vote Nullification Provision are purportedly beyond the jurisdiction of federal
12 courts? Should they file suit against the estates of the deceased supervisors? Or the driver
13 of the other car that was another but-for cause of their disenfranchisement? Anyone,
14 apparently, save the Secretary who authored the provision that is the but-for cause of their
15 votes being thrown out completely.

16 **5. Defendants' Redressability Arguments Lack Merit**

17 Not content to let any aspect of Article III standing go unargued, the Secretary
18 contests redressability too. That redressability argument is the worst of the bunch.

19 The Secretary's argument appears to be (at 9) that under other statutes, the Secretary
20 lacks "discretion not to canvass on the date set by Arizona law." But, as explained above,
21 the Secretary's duty to *canvass* is not a duty to *disenfranchise*. *Supra* § I.B. Indeed, A.R.S.
22 §16-644 provides otherwise.

23 In addition, as explained above, there are a myriad of ways in which the Secretary
24 could discharge his duty to *canvass* without resorting to the draconian penalty of
25 disenfranchising all voters in an affected county who are *faultless*. *See* ECF No. 26 at 17–
26 19. The Secretary's arguments thus rely on a sleight of hand: while the Secretary may have
27 a duty to *canvass*, he has no resulting duty—or authority—to *disenfranchise* to accomplish
28 that canvassing. Indeed, the act of canvassing presupposes that all valid votes are *counted*—

1 *not* thrown out because might it be inconvenient/require additional work to count them.

2 In any event, even if the Secretary were correct that other statutes *mandated* that he
3 disqualify all votes in counties where the Board of Supervisors refused or failed to certify
4 results, that still would not defeat redressability. Plaintiffs have challenged the
5 *unconstitutional burden* of disenfranchisement in those circumstances. This Court could
6 thus simply enjoin those other statutes too if the Secretary were correct that they mandate
7 disenfranchisement to accomplish canvassing. Because Plaintiffs' claim asserts a right
8 under the *federal* constitution, even 100 state statutes mandating disenfranchisement to
9 accomplish canvassing would not prevent redressability. This Court could simply enjoin all
10 of them on the same basis of imposing the same unconstitutional burden.

11 **6. Plaintiffs' Claims Are Ripe**

12 Finally, the Secretary's ripeness arguments fail. As explained above, Plaintiffs have
13 ongoing injury *now*, which is an accomplished fact. Plaintiffs cite no precedents where
14 present injury is unripe for adjudication.

15 Similarly, in so far as Plaintiffs' standing turns on the credible threat of future
16 enforcement, the ripeness inquiry largely duplicates the standing inquiry for prospective
17 relief. *Thomas v. Anchorage Equal Rts. Comm'n*, 220 F.3d 1134, 1138 (9th Cir. 2000) (en
18 banc) ("The constitutional component of the ripeness inquiry is often treated under the
19 rubric of standing and, in many cases, ripeness coincides squarely with standing's injury in
20 fact prong."); *Susan B. Anthony List v. Driehaus*, 573 U.S. 149, 157 n.5 (2014) (Article III
21 standing and ripeness issues typically "boil down to the same question"). The Secretary's
22 ripeness arguments thus fail for the same reasons as his standing arguments.

23 Defendants also might be attempting to raise prudential ripeness concerns by
24 making a conclusory contention that Plaintiffs' claim "is not fit for adjudication." SOS
25 MTD at 9 (citation omitted). But here prudential concerns strongly support resolving this
26 issue *now*: in this posture, courts can resolve the issue without either (1) the incredibly-
27 short-trigger deadlines that arise post-election or (2) knowledge of how its ruling will affect
28 electoral outcomes, which would invariably color perceptions of the court decides the

1 issue. This issue is thus far more fit for review now.

2 In any event, the constitutionality of the Vote Nullification Provision is presented
3 here as pure question of law—particularly given Defendants’ forfeitures and failure to
4 address critical issues. *See infra* § IV. And claims are typically ripe/fit for review where
5 the “issue presented ... is purely legal, and will not be clarified by further factual
6 development.” *Thomas v. Union Carbide Agric. Prods. Co.*, 473 U.S. 568, 581 (1985).

7 **C. Defendants Lack Sovereign Immunity Under *Ex parte Young***

8 The Secretary also advances a baseless argument that he enjoys sovereign immunity
9 for his constitutional violations in crafting and enforcing the Vote Nullification Provision.
10 *See* SOS MTD at 10-11. Not so.

11 The Secretary wrongly asserts that Plaintiffs are asserting *state-law* claims
12 masquerading as federal claims. But even a cursory review of the Complaint shows that
13 Plaintiffs are asserting violations of the *U.S. Constitution* under the *Anderson-Burdick*
14 doctrine. *See, e.g.*, Compl. ¶¶ 108–10, 113–14, 126–27, 134, 136–38, 141. The Secretary
15 cannot wishcast Plaintiffs’ Complaint into something he would enjoy immunity from.

16 As to federal claims, under the doctrine of *Ex parte Young*, state officials may be
17 sued in federal court in “actions for prospective declaratory or injunctive relief against state
18 officers in their official capacities for their alleged violations of federal law” so long as the
19 state officer has “*some connection* with enforcement of the act.” *Coalition To Defend*
20 *Affirmative Action v. Brown*, 674 F.3d 1128, 1134 (9th Cir. 2012) (quoting *Ex parte Young*,
21 209 U.S. at 157) (emphasis added). In addition, “the plaintiff must [only] allege—not
22 prove—an ongoing violation of federal law for which she seeks prospective injunctive
23 relief.” *Koala v. Khosla*, 931 F.3d 887, 895 (9th Cir. 2019).

24 Plaintiffs have easily met that standard: Plaintiffs’ complaint alleges that the Vote
25 Nullification Provision violates the U.S. Constitution and that the Secretary is responsible
26 for enforcing it. EPM at 252. *Ex parte Young* requires nothing more.

27 Constitutional violations routinely serve as the basis for a “federal claim” under *Ex*
28 *parte Young*, even if state law considerations are also at play. *E.g.*, *Arizona Students’ Ass’n*

1 *v. Arizona Bd. of Regents*, 824 F.3d 858, 865 (9th Cir. 2016); *Klein v. Arizona State Univ.*,
2 2020 WL 7404564, at *2 (D. Ariz. Dec. 17, 2020) (“[*Ex parte Young*] applies to ongoing
3 violations of a plaintiff’s First Amendment rights.”).

4 Contrary to Secretary’s contention (MTD at 10–11), Plaintiffs have not “cloaked”
5 state claims in federal claims. Notably absent from the Secretary’s “cloak” theory is *which*
6 *state law claims are hidden under Plaintiffs’ federal claims*. The Secretary does not say.
7 To be sure, Plaintiffs cite certain Arizona statutes calling for the EPM’s promulgation and
8 explaining that the EPM exceeds provisions of Title 16. But these brief references give this
9 Court context to the EPM and do not support any state claim.

10 The Secretary rests on inapposite cases to support his argument that Plaintiffs
11 “cloaked” state claims as federal claims. But unlike the cases cited by the Secretary,
12 Plaintiffs are not asserting that the Secretary violated state law in adopting and enforcing
13 the Vote Nullification Provision. Rather, Plaintiffs assert that by *following* state law in the
14 form of that EPM provision, the Secretary is violating the *federal* Constitution. That is
15 precisely the sort of claim that *Ex parte Young* permits Plaintiffs to bring in federal court.

16 **D. The Secretary’s Skeletal, Footnote-Only Request for *Pullman* Abstention is**
17 **Specious**

18 Doubling down on Defendants’ prior meritless request for *Pullman* abstention on
19 Plaintiffs’ First Amendment claims, the Secretary now asks for *Pullman* abstention as to
20 the Vote Nullification Provision as well. *See* SOS MTD at 11 n.8. That argument is
21 undeveloped, advanced purely in a footnote, and does not address even *one* of the three
22 *Pullman* factors. *See id.* That request is outright frivolous and merits decisive rejection.

23 As set forth in Defendants’ own prior request for *Pullman* abstention, any request
24 for *Pullman* abstention *must* satisfy *three* requirements: “(1) the federal constitutional
25 claim ‘touches a sensitive area of social policy,’ (2) ‘constitutional adjudication plainly can
26 be avoided or narrowed by a definitive ruling’ by a state court, and (3) a ‘possibly
27 determinative issue of state law is doubtful.’” ECF No. 27 at 4–5 (quoting *Gearing v. City*
28 *of Half Moon Bay*, 54 F.4th 1144, 1147 (9th Cir. 2022)).

1 Defendants do not even *attempt* to argue that Count I involves any “sensitive area
2 of social policy,” which is a singularly fatal omission. Indeed, because elections for federal
3 offices (including President) are imminent, there are important *federal interests* at play.

4 Defendants also fail to identify what the relevant state-law question that is debatable
5 and could avoid adjudication here is. All they say is that “Plaintiffs’ claims about how the
6 canvass is conducted turns on questions of state law.” SOS MTD at 11 n.8.

7 That does not suffice. The parties *agree* that the Vote Nullification Provision
8 requires throwing out all affected votes when it is triggered. There is nothing “doubtful”
9 about that. Nor does the Secretary’s footnote ever explain how resolution of state-law
10 issues could avoid adjudication here, since the question of whether the Secretary can, under
11 the *Anderson-Burdick* doctrine, disenfranchise all voters in affected counties will remain a
12 live issue in all scenarios. *See supra* § II.B.2–6.

13 The Secretary’s reliance (MTD at 11 n.8) on *Porter v. Jones*, 319 F.3d 483 (9th Cir.
14 2003) is particularly revealing of the weakness of the Secretary’s arguments. That case
15 *rejected Pullman* abstention in an election case mainly because it was “far from clear that
16 the case would be resolved prior to the [upcoming] election if Plaintiffs were sent to state
17 court.” *Porter*, 319 F.3d at 494. Here the Secretary does not even attempt to argue that state
18 courts would not resolve the purportedly dispositive—yet undefined—issues of state law
19 before the 2024 election.

20 **III. THE SPEECH RESTRICTION VIOLATES THE FIRST AMENDMENT AND THE DUE** 21 **PROCESS CLAUSE**

22 In contrast to their *extensive* efforts to duck the constitutional merits, Defendants
23 spend precious little ink attempting to defend the Speech Restriction’s constitutionality:
24 less than 5 pages in total. *See* AG MTD at 15-16; AG PI Opp. at 8-10. And what little they
25 say is overwhelmingly premised on their erroneous interpretation of the Speech Restriction
26 as being purely non-binding guidance that applies only to poll workers.

27 Only a tiny sliver of their arguments thus address the true merits issue here: *i.e.*, if
28 the Speech Restriction operates as a binding prohibition on the public, does it comport with

1 the First Amendment? And what little they offer provides no meaningful defense.

2 **A. The Lack Of A *Mens Rea* Requirement Is Unconstitutional**

3 Defendants never deny that if the Speech Restriction is a binding prohibition that
4 lacks a *mens rea* requirement that it would violate the First Amendment. *See* PI at 10. It
5 plainly is: by permitting liability based on “intent *or effect*,” EPM at 181 (emphasis
6 added)—*i.e.*, it authorizes liability based on *effect alone*, which is expressly an *alternative*
7 to proving *mens rea* (*i.e.*, intent).

8 Defendants’ counter-arguments (AG MTD at 6-7) rely overwhelmingly on the
9 supposed (and unstated) purpose of the restriction, which *never* engages with the *actual*
10 “or effect” *text*. This Court “must enforce plain and unambiguous statutory language
11 according to its terms.” *Hardt v. Reliance Standard Life Ins. Co.*, 560 U.S. 242, 251 (2010).
12 But even if the Speech Restriction actually had a relevant statement revealing its specific
13 purpose—and it doesn’t—that wouldn’t matter: “Statements of purpose by their nature
14 cannot override a statute’s operative language.” *Sturgeon v. Frost*, 139 S. Ct. 1066, 1086
15 (2019) (cleaned up).

16 Because the Speech Restriction permits liability for speech without any proof of
17 *mens rea*, it is unconstitutional. *See Counterman v. Colorado*, 600 U.S. 66, 69 (2023).

18 **B. The Speech Restriction Violates The First Amendment Because It Bans
19 Speech Based On It Being “Offensive” And Is Viewpoint-Based
20 Discrimination**

21 Defendants similarly never deny that attempting to ban speech based on it being
22 “offensive” or “insulting” would violate the First Amendment and constitute impermissible
23 content/viewpoint-based discrimination of speech. *See* ECF No. 14 at 15–16; *FCC v.*
24 *Pacifica Found.*, 438 U.S. 726, 745–46 (1978); *Matal v. Tam*, 582 U.S. 218, 249 (2017).
25 Their only real response (AG MTD at 15) seems to be recycling their contention that the
26 Speech Restriction “does not itself criminalize anything.” That argument fails. *Supra* § I.A.

27 Indeed, the Speech Restriction explicitly includes as an example of a violation using
28 “insulting or offensive language to a voter or poll worker.” EPM at 182 (comma omitted).
And Defendants’ own preliminary injunction response make clear that they believe that

1 violation of a different example in the Speech Restriction would justify calling “law
2 enforcement to help handle the situation” if the “behavior persist[ed].” AG PI Opp. at 9.
3 But law enforcement cannot be called when there is no law to enforce—thus demonstrating
4 that Defendants regard the Speech Restriction’s examples, such as its “insulting or
5 offensive language” example, as *binding* prohibitions.

6 **C. The Speech Restriction Is Unconstitutional For Both Public And Non-**
7 **Public Forums**

8 Defendants make almost no effort to address Plaintiffs’ arguments that the Speech
9 Restriction is unconstitutional for both public and non-public forums. *See* ECF No. 14 at
10 15–17. Indeed, Defendants only address that argument (and use the word “forum”) in a
11 *single bullet point* and only with this *ipse dixit*: “It does not.” AG PI Opp. at 10. That
12 conclusory denial concedes constitutional violation as to both public and non-public forms.

13 Defendants’ forfeitures as to polling locations, which are non-public forums, are
14 particularly noteworthy. No restrictions on speech at polling locations would comport with
15 the First Amendment unless they are “capable of *reasoned application*.” *Minnesota Voters*
16 *All. v. Mansky*, 585 U.S. 1, 23 (2018) (emphasis added). But Defendants do not even
17 *acknowledge* this “capable of reasoned application” standard, *let alone attempt* to argue
18 that the Speech Restriction satisfies it. Nor do Defendants cite *Mansky* even once. These
19 omissions alone concede that *any* regulation of speech by the Speech Restriction at voting
20 locations is unconstitutional under *Mansky*’s ignored legal standard.

21 **D. Defendants Have Conceded That the Speech Restriction Cannot Survive**
22 **Strict Scrutiny**

23 Defendants also do not even attempt to respond to Plaintiffs’ argument that the
24 Speech Restriction fails under strict scrutiny. *See* PI (ECF No. 14) at 13-14. Indeed, none
25 of the phrases “strict scrutiny,” “compelling interest,” or “narrow tailoring” can be found
26 *anywhere* in Defendants’ Speech Restriction briefs. Defendants have thus completely
27 conceded that the Speech Restriction fails under strict scrutiny if that applies. Which it
28 does, because the Speech Restriction regulates speech on the basis of offensiveness and

1 content/viewpoint, and transgresses limitations on public forums.

2 **E. The Speech Restriction Is Facially Unconstitutional Under Overbreadth**
3 **Doctrine**

4 Defendants' reliance (AG MTD at 14-15) on the all-its-applications facial standard
5 is inapposite because Plaintiffs are asserting a First Amendment claim, and thus can rely
6 on overbreadth doctrine to establish facial invalidity—as Defendants begrudgingly
7 acknowledge in a footnote (at 15 n.5). And Defendants' only defense under overbreadth
8 doctrine rehashes their mistaken textual interpretation: *i.e.*, that the Speech Restriction
9 “does not regulate Plaintiffs as members of the public, and therefore has zero applications
10 *to them.*” AG MTD at 15 n.5.

11 Because Defendants offer no other defense on overbreadth doctrine, the Speech
12 Restriction is facially unconstitutional if it operates as a prohibition on “members of the
13 public.” Which it does. *Supra* § I.A.

14 **F. The Speech Restriction Violates The Due Process Clause**

15 With apologies for the broken-record repetition, Defendants' only defense to
16 Plaintiffs' due process claim merely recycles their argument that the Speech Restriction “is
17 not a prohibition on Plaintiffs and it does not restrict any speech.” Not so. *Supra* § I.A.

18 In addition, Defendants' shifting and contradictory positions as to whether the
19 Speech Restriction prohibits speech within its ambit illustrates the lack of fair notice here.
20 Indeed, Defendants simultaneously (1) claim that the Speech Restriction “does not restrict
21 any speech” (AG MTD at 15) and (2) then give two examples of *pure speech* that they
22 believe it would permissibly prohibit as “[c]onstitutional applications of section III(D) [*i.e.*,
23 the Speech Restriction],” AG PI Opp. at 9.

24 The Speech Restriction's demonstrated inability to maintain a consistent,
25 discernable meaning even within in the confines of Defendants' own briefs is powerful
26 evidence that it “fails to provide a person of ordinary intelligence fair notice of what is
27 prohibited.” *United States v. Williams*, 553 U.S. 285, 304 (2008).

28

1 **IV. THE VOTE NULLIFICATION PROVISION IS UNCONSTITUTIONAL UNDER**
2 **ANDERSON-BURDICK DOCTRINE**

3 **A. The Attorney General Is A Proper Defendant For Count I**

4 The Attorney General appears to assume that (1) she was not named as a Defendant
5 to for I and (2) could not be named. Both assumptions are incorrect. *See* AG MTD at 17
6 n.7. Count I does not limit itself to the Secretary. And the July 19 status conference made
7 unambiguously clear Plaintiffs’ position that the Governor was a proper defendant because
8 her approval of the 2023 EPM was a but-for cause of the Vote Nullification Provision being
9 adopted, which was a wrongful and unconstitutional act creating liability under § 1983.
10 7/19 Tr. at 22:12-15. That same logic applies equally to the Attorney General.

11 But despite specific knowledge as to this basis on which she was named as a
12 defendant, the Attorney General makes no effort to explain why her approval of the 2023
13 EPM adding the Vote Nullification Provision does not suffice to make her a proper
14 defendant under § 1983. Her feigned belief that she was not named under Count I is thus
15 misplaced and belied by her inability to answer that issue.

16 The Attorney General is also properly nameable as a defendant because she “has
17 ‘*some connection with enforcement of the act.*’” *Mecinas v. Hobbs*, 30 F.4th 890, 903 (9th
18 Cir. 2022) (citation omitted) (emphasis added). If the Secretary or any other relevant
19 official refused to enforce the Vote Nullification Provision—*i.e.*, refused to disenfranchise
20 votes—they would be “guilty of a class 2 misdemeanor.” A.R.S. § 16-452(C). And she
21 could prosecute that violation, *id.* § 16-1021, thus supplying the requisite nexus to
22 enforcement. Nor does the Attorney General attempt to explain why her authority to
23 enforce A.R.S. § 16-452(C) would not suffice to make her a proper defendant.

24 The Attorney General also tellingly has not disavowed such enforcement. Nor has
25 she expressed any doubts as to the Vote Nullification Provision’s constitutionality that
26 might suggest that she would not enforce that provision if a Board of Supervisors refused
27 or failed to certify results. Indeed, her approval of the 2023 EPM presumably conveys her
28 view that the Vote Nullification Provision is constitutional.

1 **B. The Vote Nullification Provision Imposes a Severe Burden**

2 The burden imposed by the Vote Nullification Provision on the right to vote is
3 “severe” by any measure. Indeed, it is the most severe burden possible: complete
4 disenfranchisement. Indeed, it is hard to understand how the burden could be any more
5 severe than *throwing out all affected votes entirely*.

6 The industrial scale of the disenfranchisement also shows that the burden is severe.
7 The Vote Nullification Provision is likely *peerless* in terms of the scale of
8 disenfranchisement: for example, the non- or malfeasance of as few as three supervisors
9 could disenfranchise *over two million votes*. *Supra* at 30. Plaintiffs cited *four* separate cases
10 recognizing that disenfranchising even *thousands* of votes was a severe or serious burden.
11 *See* PI at 10-11 (citing (1) *Florida Democratic Party v. Deizner*, No. 16-cv-607, 2016 U.S.
12 Dist. LEXIS 143620, at *18 (N.D. Fla. Oct. 16, 2016); (2) *Stewart v. Blackwell*, 444 F.3d
13 843, 869 (6th Cir. 2006); (3) *Northeast Ohio Coal. v. Husted*, 696 F.3d 580, 593 (6th Cir.
14 2012); and (4) *Lee*, 915 F.3d at 1319–22). *See* PI at 10-11.

15 Tellingly, the Secretary does not address or cite even a single one of these cases.
16 That striking refusal to engage with *all* relevant case law evaluating the severity of the
17 burden in the *Anderson-Burdick* context should tell this Court all that it needs to know.

18 The Secretary’s arguments as to the severity of the burden overwhelmingly just
19 recycle his Article III traceability arguments. ECF No. 34 at 3–4. Those arguments fail as
20 set forth above. In addition, the Secretary does not cite *any* precedents providing that the
21 severity of the burden for purposes of *Anderson-Burdick* turns on who is imposing it.

22 Moreover, the Secretary’s traceability arguments are overwhelmingly premised on
23 the burdens at issue being imposed by *wrongful* actions. Unfortunately for the Secretary,
24 *Anderson-Burdick* doctrine is *particularly* concerned with disenfranchising blameless
25 voters by the wrongful actions of governmental officials. After all, “[i]t is one thing to fault
26 a voter if she fails to follow instructions.... But it is quite another to blame a voter when
27 she may have done nothing wrong[.]” *Lee*, 915 F.3d at 1324–25. The Secretary’s position
28 that *complete disenfranchisement* imposed on *blameless* voters that complied with all

1 applicable requirements is not a severe burden is contrary to each of the four precedents
2 that he has ignored entirely.

3 Rather than addressing *any* of the extensive precedents cited by Plaintiffs, the
4 Secretary the Secretary reaches thousands of miles outside of Arizona and decades into the
5 past for *any* supporting precedent on the question of burden. The Secretary thus twice cites
6 *Dodge v. Meyer*, 444 P.3d 159 (Alaska 2019), which in turn relied on the 64-year-old
7 decision in *Gallego v. United States*, 276 F.2d 914 (9th Cir. 1960). Neither is an *Anderson-*
8 *Burdick* case. Instead, *Gallego* addressed the presumption of regularity in a wildly
9 divergent context (there, chain-of-custody for a criminal case). 276 F.2d at 917. And more
10 generally, the presumption of regularity is an *administrative law* concept. *Id.*

11 That presumption of regularity does not apply in the *Anderson-Burdick* context—
12 or, generally speaking, individual rights cases. For example, Defendants’ putative
13 presumption would presume that election workers would properly ascertain whether a
14 signature matched the one on file—and thereby would preclude signature-matching
15 requirements from imposing any material burdens under *Anderson-Burdick* doctrine if it
16 were correct. But a legion of signature-matching cases make clear it is not.

17 Moreover, even accepting the dubious premise that the Alaska Supreme Court’s
18 holding in *Dodge* is relevant authority here, it makes clear that “the presumption of
19 regularity” only applies “[w]here *no evidence* indicating otherwise is produced.” *Dodge*,
20 444 P.3d at 164 n.21 (citation omitted) (emphasis added); *accord Gallego*, 276 F.2d at 917
21 (same). But here Plaintiffs have produced such evidence: including the Cochise Board of
22 Supervisor’s refusal to certify results in 2022 as well as the recent flirtation with refusing
23 to certify primary results by a member of the Pinal County Board as recently as this month.
24 Ex. A, Attachment 6; ECF No. 26–1 at 3 ¶3–4.

25 Moreover, the very premise of the Vote Nullification Provision is that there is a risk
26 of recurrence of that irregular conduct. That provision would *only* apply when officials
27 have *not* discharged their duty. Presuming regularity in a context that would *only arise*
28 where highly irregular conduct by governmental officials has already occurred is a

1 contradiction in terms, and offered by the Secretary without any supporting case law.

2 **C. The Vote Nullification Provision Is Not Narrowly Tailored**

3 The Secretary does not even *attempt* to argue that the Vote Nullification Provision
4 can survive strict scrutiny. His brief does not use the word “tailor” once, let alone attempt
5 to argue that the provision satisfies narrow tailoring. The burden issue is thus dispositive:
6 if the burden is severe, the Secretary offers no defense that could save it from invalidation
7 under *Anderson-Burdick* doctrine. As explained above and previously, it is.

8 **D. The Vote Nullification Provision Is Unconstitutional Even If Less-Strict**
9 **Scrutiny Applies**

10 Even if the Vote Nullification Provision did not impose a severe burden, it is still
11 unconstitutional. Because mandatory and complete disenfranchisement is unnecessary for
12 the State to obtain election results, the burden it imposes on the right to vote is
13 unconstitutional under *Anderson-Burdick* doctrine.

14 Notably, even a small risk of wrongful disenfranchisement imposes a serious burden
15 under *Anderson-Burdick* doctrine. *Lee* is instructive: that case challenged a signature-
16 matching requirement in Florida. 915 F.3d at 1315. The requirement affected “only about
17 4,000 ballots ... less than 5 hundredths of a percent of the more than 9 million total ballots
18 cast in Florida for the 2016 general election.” *Id.* at 1322. So the maximum error rate was
19 well under 1%.² But despite the tiny risk of error, the *Lee* plaintiffs not only had standing
20 but the Eleventh Circuit had no difficulty in concluding that the matching requirement and
21 its limited cure opportunities “impose[d] at least a serious burden on the right to vote.” *Id.*
22 at 1321. Similarly, the Sixth Circuit held that where “poll-worker error causes thousands
23 of qualified voters to cast wrong-precinct” ballot that were disqualified, which were less

24
25 ² Notably, “[o]f those 4,000 ballots, not all were cast by eligible voters.” *Id.* Evidence from
26 the Florida Secretary of State cited by the Eleventh Circuit indicated that the number of
27 voters who cast a ballot by mail, and thus were subject to the signature matching
28 requirement, was 2,758,617. *Id.* (citing Fla. Dep’t of State, Div. of Elections, Voting
Activity by Ballot Type for 2016 General Election (last updated Mar. 24, 2017),
[https://dos.myflorida.com/media/697842/2016-ge-summaries-ballots-by-type-
activity.pdf](https://dos.myflorida.com/media/697842/2016-ge-summaries-ballots-by-type-activity.pdf)).

1 than 1% of the vote, that imposed a “substantial burden.” *Husted*, 696 F.3d at 597.

2 While the Secretary *does* dispute that the burden here is severe, he does not even
3 attempt to argue that the applicable burden is only “minimal”—the lowest tier under
4 *Anderson-Burdick*. Indeed, the word “minimal” does not appear in either of his briefs. He
5 thus provides scant-to-no basis for concluding that the relevant burden is not “at least a
6 serious burden.” *Lee*, 915 F.3d at 1321.

7 Under *Anderson-Burdick*, this Court must weigh “‘the character and magnitude of
8 the asserted injury to the right[] [to vote] ... against ‘the precise interests put forward by
9 the State as justifications for the burden imposed by its rule,’ taking into consideration ‘the
10 extent to which those interests *make it necessary to burden the plaintiff’s rights.*’” *Burdick*
11 *v. Takushi*, 504 U.S. 428, 434 (1992) (citation omitted) (cleaned up).

12 Here, the Vote Nullification Provision fails under any means-ends testing—
13 particularly as the burden is *at least* serious/significant. The provision’s fatal flaw is that
14 the Secretary never adequately explains why the *other* alternatives identified by Plaintiffs
15 (PI at 12-14) would not be sufficient to advance the State’s interest in ascertaining election
16 results and why the EPM instead resorts to total disenfranchisement. Indeed, the
17 Secretary’s brief even makes the errant admission that “the appropriate remedy for a
18 recalcitrant county’s failure to carry out its statutory duties is a mandamus action in state
19 court.” PI Opp. at 2.

20 *Mandamus*—not mass disenfranchisement—is thus the “appropriate remedy” for a
21 county board’s refusal or failure to certify results. The availability of that “appropriate
22 remedy” makes it wholly *unnecessary* “to burden the plaintiff’s rights,” *Burdick*, 504 U.S.
23 at 434 (citation omitted)—particularly as the burden imposed would be *complete*
24 *disenfranchisement*. The Vote Nullification Provision reaches for disenfranchisement as a
25 *mandatory first* resort, rather than last resort—never requiring exhaustion of other
26 alternative means before its mandatory throw-out-all-affect-votes dictate kicks in. In doing
27 so, it violates the First and Fourteenth Amendments.

28 The Secretary’s tailoring arguments are also gravely undermined by his failure to

1 identify a *remotely* equivalent provision in any of the other 49 states. Somehow *all other*
2 *states* appear to be able to discharge their duties to canvas results without resorting to the
3 expedient of automatic and complete disenfranchisement of all votes that are not certified.
4 The Secretary *never* explains why Arizona, apparently alone among all of her sister states,
5 requires the Vote Nullification Provision to ensure certification of election results.

6 That “silence is most eloquent.” *Edmonds v. Compagnie Generale Transatlantique*,
7 443 U.S. 256, 266–67 (1979). It concedes that it is entirely possible to canvas results
8 without disenfranchising votes.

9 Moreover, even if all other means of obtaining officials results (such as from a court)
10 failed, the Secretary never explains why he should not simply use the unofficial results,
11 rather than disenfranchising *all* affected voters.

12 Because the Secretary fails to explain why that *mass* disenfranchisement is anything
13 other than gratuitous, the Vote Nullification Provision imposes an unconstitutional burden
14 under *Anderson-Burdick*.

15 **V. THE REMAINING REQUIREMENTS FOR INJUNCTIVE RELIEF ARE SATISFIED**

16 **A. Plaintiffs Are Likely To Suffer Irreparable Harm Absent An Injunction**

17 **1. Irreparable Harm Of The Speech Restriction**

18 Mirroring much of the rest of their brief, Defendants claim that Plaintiffs are not
19 injured because (1) the Speech Restriction does not harm Plaintiffs as it is supposedly non-
20 binding guidance for election workers, (2) Plaintiffs’ self-censorship is not an injury here,
21 (3) AFPI and American Encore have not demonstrated compliance costs sufficient to
22 constitute injury, (4) there is an existing preliminary injunction against the Speech
23 Restriction, and (5) that federal law independently prohibits activities that the Speech
24 Restriction also prohibits. *See* AG PI Opp. at 10–14. Most of those recycled-as-irreparable-
25 harm arguments fail as explained above. The remainder fair no better.

26 *First*, Defendants’ construction of the Speech Restriction cannot bear the weight
27 that they place on it. *See supra* § I.A. It undoubtedly prohibits speech and applies to
28 Plaintiffs. *Id.* This fact is compounded by the reality that “[i]rreparable harm is *relatively*

1 easy to establish in a First Amendment case” because the plaintiff “*need only demonstrate*
2 *the existence of a colorable First Amendment claim.*” *Cal. Chamber of Com. v. Council for*
3 *Educ. & Rsch. on Toxics*, 29 F.4th 468, 482 (9th Cir. 2022) (quotation marks omitted)
4 (emphasis added). Plaintiffs have easily satisfied that “relatively easy” burden here.

5 *Second*, Plaintiffs speech has been chilled by Defendants’ credible threat of
6 enforcement, which constitutes irreparably injury. *Supra* § II.A.2.

7 *Third*, Plaintiffs have sufficiently proved compliance costs. *Supra* § II.A.1. And
8 “complying with a regulation later held invalid almost *always* produces the irreparable
9 harm of nonrecoverable compliance costs.” *Louisiana v. Biden*, 55 F.4th at 1034.

10 *Fourth*, Defendants are incorrect that the state court’s injunction precludes a parallel
11 injunction here while that action is still pending. Indeed, “courts *routinely grant follow-on*
12 *injunctions against the Government*, even in instances when an earlier nationwide
13 injunction has already provided plaintiffs in the later action with their desired relief.”
14 *Whitman-Walker Clinic, Inc. v. HHS*, 485 F. Supp. 3d 1, 60 (D.D.C. 2020) (collecting
15 cases) (emphasis added). This is because “even a temporary lag between the lifting of that
16 [previous] injunction ... and entry of an injunction by this Court would likely entail some
17 irreparable harm to Plaintiffs.” *Id.* at 59–60. This is especially true here, where Defendants
18 are at this very moment attempting to stay the state-court injunction.

19 *Fifth*, Defendants are doubly mistaken that “Plaintiffs face no irreparable harm from
20 [the Speech Restriction] because federal law already prohibits intimidating conduct in the
21 same way.” AG PI Opp. at 13. To start, this is yet another implicit acknowledgment that
22 the Speech Restriction does, in fact, prohibit speech and conduct.

23 Moreover, Defendants make no attempt to demonstrate that federal law is *anywhere*
24 *near* as broad as the Speech Restriction—such as its lack of a *mens rea* requirement, which
25 would be unconstitutional if a federal law were so lacking. *See Counterman*, 600 U.S. at
26 69. Indeed, the examples provided by Defendants contain a *mens rea* requirement—unlike
27 the Speech Restrictions—because attempt-based crimes, by their nature, require a mental
28 state. *See, e.g., United States v. Bailey*, 444 U.S. 394, 405 (1980) (“Another such example

1 is the law of inchoate offenses such as attempt and conspiracy, where a heightened mental
2 state separates criminality itself from otherwise innocuous behavior.”).

3 **2. The Vote Nullification Provision Inflicts Irreparable Harm**

4 The Secretary’s irreparable harm arguments overwhelmingly recapitulate their
5 standing arguments, which fail as explained above. What’s more, Defendants themselves
6 admitted in the State Case “*any voter disenfranchisement is irreparable harm.*” ECF No.
7 41 1 at 51 (citing *Arizona All. for Retired Americans v. Hobbs*, 630 F. Supp. 3d 1180,
8 1197–98 (D. Ariz. 2022) (“The denial of the opportunity to cast a vote that a person may
9 otherwise be entitled to cast—even once—is an irreparable harm.”)) (citation omitted)
10 (emphasis added). That admission is controlling here.

11 **B. Defendants’ Delay Arguments Lack Merit And Are Belied By Defendants’ 12 Own Actions**

13 Defendants also argue that Plaintiffs cannot show irreparable harm as to the Speech
14 Restriction due to putative delay in bringing this suit. Not so.

15 To begin with, Defendants both simultaneously claim that (1) Plaintiffs’ pre-
16 enforcement claim is *too early* (*i.e.*, is hypothetical and unripe) and (2) that it is also *too*
17 *late*. But that Catch-22 is not one that this Court should indulge.

18 Defendants are also hardly in a position to complain about delay. They are presently
19 seeking to have this Court abstain under *Pullman* doctrine—which would delay this case
20 for *many* years. *See* ECF No. 27. Defendants cannot credibly complain of delays that are
21 supposedly prejudicial and then simultaneously demand that this Court inflict years-more
22 delay upon them. Defendants’ arguments call to mind the “old joke, [Defendants] found
23 the food terrible and the portions small.” *Ecology Ctr., Inc. v. Austin*, 430 F.3d 1057, 1073
24 n.3 (9th Cir. 2005) (McKeown, dissenting). “This delay is intolerable ... and I demand
25 more of it!” is not the convincing argument that Defendants believe it to be.

26 In any event, Plaintiffs did not unreasonably delay this action, particularly as it was
27 only Defendants’ actions in the seven months preceding suit that laid bare the risks of
28 enforcement that violated the First Amendment. The potential risk was first made

1 obvious—though still denied by Defendants to this day—when Defendants refused to
2 change so much as a comma in response to the legislative leaders’ well-founded warnings
3 that the draft Speech Restriction violated the First Amendment multiple times over. *Supra*
4 at 8. That risk became even more manifest when the Secretary refused to disavow
5 enforcement of the Speech Restriction on May 31, ECF No. 1-3—which the Attorney
6 General never denies but unconvincingly attempts to elide, in a footnote. *See* AG MTD at
7 11 n.4.

8 Those critical actions sharpened and clarified the risk of enforcement and harm to
9 free speech here. And they rendered Plaintiffs’ suit, which that was filed within 7 months
10 and 6 weeks of them, respectively, timely.

11 Nor is there any prejudice here. If the Speech Restriction is non-building guidance
12 that does nothing but paraphrase statutes—as Defendants contend it is—then even a late-
13 breaking injunction changes nothing for the State. An injunction against something that
14 purportedly prohibits nothing inflicts no harm.

15 **C. The Balance Of Harms And Public Interest Support Injunctive Relief**

16 Aside reasserting their merits arguments, Defendants do not meaningfully explain
17 why acquiescing in an unconstitutional infringement of core political speech, or
18 disenfranchisement of all voters in an entire county, is in the public interest. Instead, the
19 third and fourth factors weigh heavily in Plaintiffs’ favor here. *Baird*, 81 F.4th at 1042 (“A
20 plaintiff’s likelihood of success on the merits of a constitutional claim also tips the merged
21 third and fourth factors decisively in his favor.”).

22 Indeed, “it is always in the public interest to prevent the violation of a party’s
23 constitutional rights.” *De Jesus Ortega Melendres v. Arpaio*, 695 F.3d 990, 1002 (9th Cir.
24 2012) (cleaned up). And the State “cannot reasonably assert that it is harmed in any legally
25 cognizable sense by being enjoined from constitutional violations.” *Zepeda v. INS*, 753
26 F.2d 719, 727 (9th Cir. 1983). Defendants thus cannot even place any harms upon the scales
27 to balance.

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CONCLUSION

The Court should (1) deny Defendants’ motions to dismiss and (2) grant a preliminary injunction prohibiting Defendants from implementing or enforcing the Speech Restriction and Vote Nullification Provision and directing them to promulgate an updated EPM that eliminates the constitutional infirmities.

Respectfully submitted this 28th day of August, 2024.

HOLTZMAN VOGEL BARAN
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CERTIFICATE OF SERVICE

I hereby certify that on this 28th day of August, 2024, I electronically filed the foregoing with the Clerk of the Court for the United States District Court for the District of Arizona using the CM/ECF filing system. Counsel for parties that are registered CM/ECF users will be served by the CM/ECF system pursuant to the notice of electronic filing.

s/ Andrew Gould
Attorney for Plaintiffs

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