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CV 02 01112 #00000026

UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
WESTERN DISTRICT OF WASHINGTON
AT SEATTLE

WILLIAM SHEEHAN,

Plaintiff,

v

CHRISTINE GREGOIRE, et al ,

Defendants

CASE NO C02-1112C

ORDER

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This matter comes before the Court on plaintiff's motion for summary judgment (Dkt No 14) and defendants' cross-motion for summary judgment (Dkt No 18). The Court has considered the papers submitted by the parties and determined that oral argument is not necessary. For the following reasons, plaintiff's motion for summary judgment is hereby GRANTED and defendants' cross-motion for summary judgment is hereby DENIED.

I. FACTUAL BACKGROUND AND PROCEDURAL HISTORY

On April 3, 2002, Governor Gary Locke signed ESSB 6700, enacting it into law. On June 13, 2002, Wash Rev Code §§ 4 24 680-.700 ("the statute") became effective. Section 4 24 680 dictates

A person or organization shall not, with the intent to harm or intimidate, sell, trade, give, publish, distribute, or otherwise release the residential address, residential telephone number, birthdate, or social security number of any law enforcement-related, corrections officer-related, or court-related employee or volunteer, or someone with a similar name, and

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1 categorize them as such, without the express written permission of the employee or
2 volunteer unless specifically exempted by law or court order

3 In response to the statute,¹ plaintiff, who operates the website <www.justicefiles.org>, removed the
4 residential addresses, residential telephone numbers, birthdates, and social security numbers (“personal
5 identifying information”) of all law enforcement-related, corrections officer-related, or court-related
6 employees or volunteers from his website Plaintiff also filed this action challenging the
7 constitutionality of the statute under the First and Fourteenth Amendments of the United States
8 Constitution Plaintiff asserts that the statute unconstitutionally proscribes his freedom of speech ²

9 ¹ Section 4 24 690 dictates:

10 (1) Whenever it appears that any person or organization is engaged in or about to engage in
11 any act that constitutes or will constitute a violation of RCW 4 24 680, the prosecuting
12 attorney or any person harmed by an alleged violation of RCW 4 24 680 may initiate a civil
13 proceeding in superior court to enjoin such violation, and may petition the court to issue an
14 order for the discontinuance of the dissemination of information in violation of RCW
15 4 24 680

16 (2) An action under this section shall be brought in the county in which the violation is
17 alleged to have taken place, and shall be commenced by the filing of a verified complaint, or
18 shall be accompanied by an affidavit

19 (3) If it is shown to the satisfaction of the court, either by verified complaint or affidavit, that
20 a person or organization is engaged in or about to engage in any act that constitutes a
21 violation of RCW 4 24 680, the court may issue a temporary restraining order to abate and
22 prevent the continuance or recurrence of the act

23 (4) The court may issue a permanent injunction to restrain, abate, or prevent the continuance
24 or recurrence of the violation of RCW 4 24 680 The court may grant declaratory relief,
25 mandatory orders, or any other relief deemed necessary to accomplish the purposes of the
26 injunction The court may retain jurisdiction of the case for the purpose of enforcing its
orders.

Section 4 24 700 dictates

20 A law enforcement-related, corrections officer-related, or court-related employee or
21 volunteer who suffers damages as a result of a person or organization selling, trading,
22 giving, publishing, distributing, or otherwise releasing the residential address, residential
23 telephone number, birthdate, or social security number of the employee or volunteer in
24 violation of RCW 4 24 680 may bring an action against the person or organization in court
25 for actual damages sustained, plus attorneys’ fees and costs

26 ² Although the parties devote little attention to the issue, it is necessary to briefly discuss the
nature of plaintiff’s speech, as expressed via his website Plaintiff’s website is generally directed to the

1 It is undisputed that neither the prosecuting attorney nor any other individual has initiated an
2 action against plaintiff pursuant to the statute. Therefore, because the statute has never actually been
3 applied to plaintiff's speech, he mounts a strictly facial challenge to the statute's constitutionality. The
4 parties now cross-move for summary judgment with respect to the facial constitutionality of Wash. Rev.
5 Code §§ 4.24.680–700. Summary judgment is appropriate if the pleadings, affidavits, depositions, and
6 admissions on file demonstrate there is no genuine issue of material fact and the moving party is entitled
7 to judgment as a matter of law. Fed. R. Civ. P. 56(c) (2003), Anderson v. Liberty Lobby, Inc., 477 U.S.
8 242, 248–50 (1986). For purposes of plaintiff's facial challenge, the parties stipulate to the absence of
9 any genuine issues of material fact. Therefore, the challenge is appropriately resolved as a matter of law.

10 II. PLAINTIFF'S OVERBREADTH CHALLENGE

11 The First Amendment to the United States Constitution, applied to the State of Washington via
12 the Fourteenth Amendment, provides that "Congress shall make no law abridging the freedom of
13 speech." Any statute proscribing a form of pure speech must be interpreted in light of the commands of
14 the First Amendment. Watts v. United States, 394 U.S. 705, 707 (1969). A statute may be facially
15 unconstitutional if it seeks to prohibit such a broad range of protected speech that it is unconstitutionally
16 overbroad. Members of City Council of Los Angeles v. Taxpayers for Vincent, 466 U.S. 789, 796
17 (1984). The Supreme Court has repeatedly held that such statutes are subject to facial challenge because
18 they may inhibit and deter free expression and constitutionally protected speech, regardless of whether

19 _____
20 issue of police accountability. Thus, his speech is political and pertains to a subject of legitimate public
21 interest. Defendants do not challenge this assertion. For example, the website contains news articles
22 questioning the depth and sincerity of an internal police investigation after the death of a bicyclist,
23 addressing the criminal history of individual officers, and discussing the difficulty of serving process or
24 subpoenas on officers. See May 2002 Printed Version of Website, Attached to Plaintiff's Complaint
25 (Dkt. No. 1). Plaintiff believes that the disclosure of lawfully-obtained, publicly-available personal
26 identifying information regarding individual officers is a necessary tool to communicate and achieve his
political message of police accountability. For example, he advocates use of such information to
achieve service of process, research criminal history, and to "organize an informational picket [at
individual officers' homes] or other lawful forms of civic involvement to force accountability."

1 the speech of the party challenging the statute might be constitutionally proscribed by a more narrow
2 statute See, e.g., Id. at 798-99 (quotations and citations omitted), Broadrick v. Oklahoma, 413 U.S.
3 601, 612 (1973), Gooding v. Wilson, 405 U.S. 518, 520-21 (1972)³ An overbreadth challenge of this
4 sort represents an exception to general standing requirements, the litigant's own free speech rights need
5 not be violated Broadrick, 413 U.S. at 612, Foti v. City of Menlo Park, 146 F.3d 629, 635 (9th Cir.
6 1998)

7 However, the overbreadth of a statute must not only be real, but also substantial in relation to the
8 statute's plainly legitimate sweep Taxpayers for Vincent, 466 U.S. at 799-800 (citations omitted),
9 Broadrick, 413 U.S. at 615 That is, there must be a realistic danger that the statute will significantly
10 compromise recognized First Amendment protections Taxpayers for Vincent, 466 U.S. at 800-01
11 (citations omitted) "[W]here the statute unquestionably attaches sanctions to protected conduct, the
12 likelihood that the statute will deter that conduct is ordinarily sufficiently great to justify an overbreadth
13 attack" Id. at 800 n.19 (citing Erznoznik v. City of Jacksonville, 422 U.S. 205, 217 (1975)) Likewise,
14 a statute that purports, by its own language, to proscribe constitutionally protected political speech is
15 unconstitutional Brandenburg v. Ohio, 395 U.S. 444, 449 (1969)⁴ A successful challenge to the facial
16 constitutionality of a statute invalidates the statute itself Foti, 146 F.3d at 635

17 A The Statute Does Not Proscribe True Threats or Any Other Proscribable Mode of Speech

18 Defendants first argue that the statute is not substantially overbroad because it proscribes an
19 unprotected mode of speech true threats The First Amendment does not protect certain *modes of*
20

21 ³ The "transcendent value to all society of constitutionally protected expression is deemed to
22 justify allowing attacks on overly broad statutes because persons whose expression is
23 constitutionally protected may well refrain from exercising their rights for fear of sanctions provided by
24 a statute susceptible to application to protected expression" Taxpayers for Vincent, 466 U.S. at 799
n.17 (citations omitted)

25 ⁴ Yet, a Court should hesitate before facially invalidating a statute when the statute proscribes
26 speech or conduct admittedly within the state's power to proscribe Broadrick, 413 U.S. at 615

1 speech or expression, including true threats, fighting words, incitements to imminent lawless action, and
2 classes of lewd and obscene speech Cohen v California, 403 U S 15, 19-20 (1971), Watts, 394 U S at
3 708, Chaplinsky v New Hampshire, 315 U.S 568, 572 (1942), Planned Parenthood v Am Coalition of
4 Life Activists, 290 F 3d 1058, 1070 (9th Cir. 2002) However, the First Amendment protects speech
5 that advocates violence, so long as that speech is not directed to inciting or producing imminent lawless
6 action and is not likely to incite or produce such action Brandenburg, 395 U S at 447, Planned
7 Parenthood, 290 F 3d at 1072 “A statute which fails to draw this distinction impermissibly intrudes
8 upon the freedoms guaranteed by the First and Fourteenth Amendments ” Brandenburg, 395 U S at
9 448

10 Defendants argument is premised on the following statement “The release of personal
11 identifying information regarding individuals, together with the intent to harm or intimidate, constitutes
12 a threat.” Because this statement, as a matter of law, is fundamentally incorrect, defendants argument
13 must fail. “Whether a particular statement may properly be considered to be a threat [for purposes of the
14 First Amendment] is governed by an objective standard – whether a reasonable person would foresee
15 that the statement would be interpreted by those to whom the maker communicates the statement as a
16 serious expression of intent to harm or assault ” Planned Parenthood, 290 F 3d at 1074 (citations
17 omitted) In determining whether a true threat exists, one may consider the context and circumstances
18 surrounding the statement Id at 1077 However, a true threat does not turn on the subjective intent of
19 the speaker. Virginia v Black, __ U S __, *11, 123 S Ct 1536 (2003); Planned Parenthood, 290 F 3d
20 at 1075-76 (“It is not necessary that the defendant intend to, or be able to carry out his threat, the only
21 intent requirement for a true threat is that the defendant intentionally or knowingly communicate the
22 threat.”)

23 Defendants assert that the instant case is highly analogous to Planned Parenthood This assertion
24 is flawed on several levels There, the statute at issue, the Freedom of Access to Clinics Entrances Act
25 (FACE), regulated “threat[s] of force ” Id at 1062 (citing 18 U S C § 248) In sharp contrast, the word
26 ORDER – 5

1 “threat” appears nowhere in the statute at issue here, rather, the statute regulates the mere release of
2 personal identifying information Compare Wash Rev Code § 9A 46 020 (2003) (criminal harassment
3 statute requires person “knowingly threatens” another), State v. Williams, 144 Wn 2d 197, 207-10, 26
4 P 3d 890 (2001) (criminal harassment statute constitutional to extent it proscribes true threats and
5 fighting words consistent with First Amendment jurisprudence) That is, on its face, the statute *does not*
6 *purport to regulate true threats* or any other proscribable mode of speech,⁵ but pure constitutionally-
7 protected speech Defendants cite no authority for the proposition that truthful lawfully-obtained,
8 publicly-available personal identifying information constitutes a mode of constitutionally proscribable
9 speech. Rather, disclosing and publishing information obtained elsewhere is precisely the kind of
10 speech that the First Amendment protects. Bartnicki v. Vopper, 532 U S 514, 527 (2001)

11 In Planned Parenthood, the issues were whether the Ninth Circuit could define “threat of force”
12 consistent with the First Amendment and whether defendants’ speech constituted a true threat, and thus,
13 could be proscribed by the statute In answering the first question, the Ninth Circuit cited a provision of
14 FACE explicitly precluding its application to “any expressive conduct protected from legal
15 prohibition by the First Amendment to the Constitution ” Planned Parenthood, 290 F 3d at 1071 No
16 such provision exists here In answering the second question, the Ninth Circuit discussed the
17 defendants’ speech and the relevant context⁶ and circumstances before concluding that it constituted a
18 “threat of force” under FACE and a true threat for purposes of the First Amendment Id at 1063-66, see
19 also United States v. Hart, 212 F.3d 1067 (8th Cir 2000) (use of Ryder trucks may constitute true threat
20 and “threat of force” under FACE) Interestingly, in Planned Parenthood, the American Civil Liberties
21

22 ⁵ In addition, defendants cite no Washington case law indicating that Washington courts construe
23 such statutory language (pure speech + intent to harm or intimidate) as reaching only true threats
24 Compare R A V v City of St Paul, 505 U.S 377, 380-81 (1992)

25 ⁶ Some of the posters at issue included the full names and home addresses of physicians who
26 provided abortion services Planned Parenthood, 290 F 3d at 1064-65

1 Union urged the Ninth Circuit to add a subjective component to the objective “true threat” standard

2 [The Court should] require evidence, albeit circumstantial or inferential in many cases, that
3 the speaker actually *intended* to induce fear, intimidation, or terror, namely, that the speaker
4 intended to threaten. If a person did not intend to threaten or intimidate (*i.e.*, did not intend
that his or her statement be understood as a threat), then the speech should not be considered
to be a ‘true threat,’ unprotected by the First Amendment

5 290 F 3d at 1075-76 (emphasis in original) The Ninth Circuit explicitly rejected this proposed standard

6 Id. at 1076 The Ninth Circuit concluded that the purpose behind removing true threats from First
7 Amendment protection “is not served by hinging constitutionality on the speaker’s subjective intent or
8 capacity to do (or not to do) harm ” Id.

9 Nevertheless, defendants now suggest that *subjective intent alone* can transform otherwise
10 constitutionally-protected speech – never before designated as a proscribable mode of speech – into a
11 true threat. This sweeping suggestion brazenly contradicts Planned Parenthood and all other relevant
12 case law, true threats do not hinge on the speaker’s subjective intent. Here, the statute hints at no
13 objective standard whatsoever. Therefore, the statute, on its face, simply does not regulate true threats
14 as defined by First Amendment jurisprudence.⁷ The statute’s flaw is further demonstrated by the fact
15 that even if an individual revealed the personal identifying information of a law enforcement-related
16 employee to issue a true threat, that individual would be immune from the statute so long as he or she
17 could demonstrate that he or she lacked the subjective intent to harm or intimidate.

18 Similarly, Virginia v. Black is fundamentally distinguishable from the instant case. The Virginia
19 statute at issue banned cross burning performed with the intent to intimidate a person or group of
20 persons. ___ U.S. at *4. The Supreme Court devoted several pages to expounding the history of the Ku

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24 ⁷ Although defendants argue that it is “the threat to intimidate, accompanied by publishing”
25 personal identifying information that constitutes a violation of the statute, this argument attempts to
rewrite the plain language of the statute to say something it simply does not say

1 Klux Klan, cross burning, its message of intimidation, and the nature of true threats Id. at *8-*11⁸ The
2 Court noted that “[i]ntimidation in the constitutionally proscribable sense of the word is a type of true
3 threat, where a speaker directs a threat to a person or group of persons with the intent of placing the
4 victim in fear of bodily harm or death ” Id. at *11 The Court concluded that Virginia could
5 constitutionally proscribe cross burning because “of cross burning’s long and pernicious history as a
6 signal of impending violence” and because it is “intended to create a pervasive fear in victims that they
7 are a target of violence ” Id. at *11, *13 The Supreme Court relied upon the following essential
8 premise cross-burning, *in and of itself*, is a subset of a proscribable *mode* of speech true threats

9 Defendants mis-cite Virginia v Black for the proposition that a “statement, combined with the
10 intent to harm or intimidate, constitutes a threat ” As discussed above, Virginia dealt solely with one
11 specific statement – cross burning – which the Supreme Court concluded was proscribable as a true
12 threat In stark contrast, defendants cite no historical or anecdotal evidence for the proposition that the
13 speech at issue here – personal identifying information – *in and of itself*, has a “long and pernicious
14 history as a signal of impending violence,” and thus, may be proscribed as a subset of true threats
15 Rather, the speech at issue here is merely names, addresses, and numbers Although defendants suggest
16 that subjective intent alone transforms such pure speech into a true threat,⁹ this position is unsupported
17 by any authority

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19 ⁸ “From the inception of the second Klan, cross burnings have been used to communicate both
20 threats of violence and messages of shared ideology Often, the Klan used cross burnings as a tool of
21 intimidation and a threat of impending violence These cross burnings embodies threats to people
22 whom the Klan deemed antithetical to its goals The person who burns a cross directed at a
23 particular person often is making a serious threat In sum, while a burning cross does not inevitably
24 convey a message of intimidation, often the cross burner intends that the recipients of the message fear
25 for their lives And when a cross burning is used to intimidate, few if any messages are more powerful ”

26 ⁹ Inexplicably, defendants assert that “the motivation” behind the statement is not prohibited by
the statute at issue here However, “the motivation”, *i.e.*, the intent of the speaker, is the *only* thing
prohibited by the statute

1 B The Statute Punishes Publication of Information and Serves No State Interest of the Highest Order

2 In The Florida Star v B J F, the Supreme Court articulated the following First Amendment
3 principle “If a newspaper lawfully obtains truthful information about a matter of public significance
4 then state officials may not constitutionally punish publication of the information, absent a need to
5 further a state interest of the highest order ” 491 U S 524, 533 (1989) (citations omitted), see also
6 Bartnicki, 532 U S at 527 In The Florida Star, a Florida statute made it unlawful to print, publish, or
7 broadcast in mass communication the name of any victim of a sexual offense 491 U S at 526 A
8 newspaper published the name of such a victim after obtaining the information lawfully from a local
9 government office Id at 527 The Court noted that the “matter of public significance,” for purposes of
10 First Amendment analysis, was not the victim’s name, but rather the commission and investigation of a
11 crime reported to authorities. Id at 536-37 The Court also noted that the principle articulated only
12 protects the publication of information *lawfully*-obtained, thus providing the state ample means to
13 safeguard any significant interests Id at 534

14 The victim, who asserted the claim against the newspaper, proffered three “state interest[s] of the
15 highest order ” protecting the privacy of victims of sex offenses, preventing and protecting victims from
16 retaliation by assailants, and encouraging victims to come forward without fear of exposure Id at 537
17 Nevertheless, the Court concluded that there was no demonstrated need to further a state interest of the
18 highest order The Court’s reasoning merits extended quotation

19 [P]unishing the press for its dissemination of information which is already publicly available
20 is relatively unlikely to advance the interests in the service of which the State seeks to act
21 [W]here the government has made certain information publicly available, it is highly
22 anomalous to sanction persons other than the source of its release [W]here the
23 government itself provides information to the media, it is most appropriate to assume that
24 the government had, but failed to utilize, far more limited means of guarding against
25 dissemination than the extreme step of punishing truthful speech Where, as here, the
26 government has failed to police itself in disseminating information, it is clear that the
imposition of damages against the press for its subsequent publication can hardly be said to
be a narrowly tailored means of safeguarding anonymity [T]he facial underinclusiveness
of [the statute] raises serious doubts about whether Florida is, in fact, serving, with this
statute, the significant interests which appellee invokes [The statute] does not prohibit
the spread by other means of the identifies of victims of sexual offenses When a State

1 attempts the extraordinary measure of punishing truthful publication in the name of privacy,
2 it must demonstrate its commitment to advancing this interest by applying its prohibition
3 evenhandedly . Without more careful and inclusive precautions against alternative forms
of dissemination, we cannot conclude that Florida's selective ban on publication by the mass
media satisfactorily accomplishes its stated purpose

4 Id. at 535-41 The Supreme Court reiterated these concerns recently in Bartnicki v Vopper “[I]t would
5 be quite remarkable to hold that speech by a law-abiding possessor of information can be suppressed in
6 order to deter conduct by a non-law-abiding third party ” 532 U S at 529-30

7 In considering plaintiff's overbreadth challenge, the Court finds The Florida Star particularly
8 relevant Plaintiff argues that the statute impermissibly deters free expression, such as that contained on
9 his website Plaintiff's website, a vehicle of mass communication, is analytically indistinguishable from
10 a newspaper It communicates truthful lawfully-obtained, publicly-available personal identifying
11 information with respect to a matter of public significance police accountability For example, the
12 website contains a news article questioning the depth and sincerity of an internal police investigation
13 after the death of a bicyclist and advocates lawful picketing in front of officers' homes Defendants do
14 not dispute that plaintiff's speech is political in nature or addresses a matter of public significance
15 Moreover, as in The Florida Star, plaintiff lawfully obtains the bulk of the information he communicates
16 from government agencies

17 However, defendants argue that the statute represents a need to further a state interest of the
18 highest order protecting law enforcement-related, corrections officer-related, and court-related
19 employees from harm and intimidation The Court disagrees. As noted in The Florida Star, when the
20 government itself places information in the public domain, it must be presumed that the government
21 concludes the public interest is thereby served 491 U S at 535 Here, the Washington State Court of
22 Appeals made clear that plaintiff has the right to obtain the names of law enforcement-related
23 employees a matter of “legitimate public interest ” King County v Sheehan, 114 Wn App 325, 345-
24
25

1 47, 57 P 3d 307 (2002) ¹⁰ In making this determination, the Court of Appeals specifically considered the
2 fact that plaintiff could use the names to access other personal identifying information from other
3 government sources Id at 332-33 Although defendants seek to distinguish The Florida Star as
4 addressing only the state interest of privacy, harm and intimidation was specifically identified as a state
5 interest at issue “the physical safety of such victims, who may be targeted for retaliation if their names
6 become known to their assailants ” 491 U S at 537 The Supreme Court rejected this argument
7 Further, as the Supreme Court reasoned, “punishing the press for its dissemination of information which
8 is already publicly available is relatively unlikely to advance the interests in the service of which the
9 State seeks to act ” Id at 535 Similarly, the “facial underinclusiveness” of the statute raises additional
10 questions about those interests Id at 540 As plaintiff notes, for-profit commercial entities remain
11 perfectly free to sell, trade, give, or release personal identifying information to third-parties who intend
12 to harm or intimidate individuals purportedly protected by the statute.

13 C The Statute is a Content-Based Restriction on Free Speech

14 A content-based statute is presumptively invalid, the First Amendment precludes the government
15 from proscribing speech because it disapproves of the ideas expressed R A V v City of St Paul, 505
16 U.S 377, 382 (1992). A statute is content-based when it prohibits otherwise permitted speech based
17 solely on the subjects addressed by the speech Id at 381 Determining whether a statute is content-
18 based is not a simple task, it may involve looking at the purpose behind the regulation Bartnicki, 532
19 U S at 526 When an individual enforcing a statute must examine the content of the speech to
20 determine whether the statute governs, the statute is content-based S O C , Inc v. County of Clark, 152
21 F 3d 1136, 1145 (9th Cir. 1998), Foti, 146 F 3d at 635-36

22
23 ¹⁰ The Court of Appeals noted that police officers are public employees paid with public tax
24 dollars who hold a great deal of power, authority, and discretion It also noted that investigative
25 reporting may be based on information obtained from public records containing the names of police
officers Sheehan, 114 Wn App at 345-47 Plaintiff engages in such investigative reporting by seeking
to reveal prior arrests and convictions of those vested with such power, authority, and discretion

1 A statute is content-neutral if it is justified without reference to the content of the regulated
2 speech S O C , Inc ., 152 F 3d at 1145. Similarly, a statute is content-neutral when it regulates
3 constitutionally proscribable *modes of speech directed at certain individuals* R A V ., 505 U S at 388-
4 93 For example, the federal government may proscribe true threats directed at the President only
5 Watts, 394 U S at 708 That is, there is no “underinclusiveness limitation” upon the government’s
6 prohibition of proscribable speech R A V ., 505 U S at 387 However, a statute is content-based when
7 it regulates *mere statements*, not falling within a proscribable mode of speech, *about* certain subjects or
8 individuals

9 Here, on its face, the statute is content-based The statute prohibits constitutionally protected
10 speech – revealing truthful lawfully-obtained, publicly-available personal identifying information –
11 based solely on the subjects addressed by that speech – whether the information identifies law
12 enforcement-related, corrections officer-related, or court-related employees To enforce the statute, the
13 prosecuting attorney must determine whether the personal identifying information revealed is that of law
14 enforcement-related, corrections officer-related, or court-related employees This requires the
15 examination of content because the statute does not proscribe, for example, revealing the personal
16 identifying information of City Hall-related or State Legislature-related employees Further, because the
17 statute regulates pure speech rather than any constitutionally proscribable *mode* of speech, such as true
18 threats, it does not constitute a content-neutral prohibition of proscribable speech directed at certain
19 individuals ¹¹ The statute’s “with the intent to harm or intimidate” provision does nothing to alleviate its
20 content-based nature

21 Defendants also contend that the statute is properly analyzed as a time, place, or manner
22

23 ¹¹ If the statute actually purported to regulate true threats, it would be permissible to proscribe
24 only true threats directed at law enforcement-related, corrections officer-related, or court-related
25 employees so long as the statute did not discriminate based on the content of those threats See R A V .,
505 U S at 384-92

1 regulation aimed at the “secondary effects” of the proscribed speech the potential harm to and
2 intimidation of those whom the statute seeks to protect However, listeners’ reactions to speech or the
3 motive impact of speech on its audience is not a secondary effect R A V, 505 U S at 394 (quotations
4 and citations omitted) As plaintiff notes, defendants’ rationale would allow the secondary effects
5 doctrine to completely swallow the First Amendment It would grant the government a dangerous tool
6 to proscribe any speech based solely on the government’s speculation as to what harms might result
7 from its utterance

8 D The Statute Does Not Serve a Compelling State Interest

9 A content-based restriction on free speech is only constitutional if it is narrowly tailored to serve
10 a compelling state interest S O C , Inc, 152 F 3d at 1145-46 The government can assert no
11 compelling interest in suppressing speech based on the content of that speech “when the speaker intends
12 to communicate[,] but permitting the same speech if incidental to another activity ” Foti, 146 F 3d at
13 639 That is, the government cannot claim any such interest is served by focusing solely on the intent of
14 the speaker Id at 640

15 The Court’s analysis here substantially overlaps with the discussion of The Florida Star in Part
16 II B above Defendants assert a compelling state interest in protecting law enforcement-related,
17 corrections officer-related, and court-related employees from harm and intimidation ¹² However, when
18 the government itself injects personal identifying information into the public domain, it cannot credibly
19 take the contradictory position that one who compiles and communicates that information offends a
20 compelling state interest ¹³ Further, defendants can demonstrate no compelling interest because the

22 ¹² Defendants also suggest that the statute is directed to the compelling state interest of
23 preventing identity theft The Court’s reasoning equally applies to this purported interest The state can
24 assert no compelling interest in identity theft when the statute wholly fails to proscribe the public
25 availability of or ability to transact in personal identifying information

25 ¹³ Although defendants may claim a compelling state interest in preventing threats, the statute
itself does not proscribe threats

1 statute hinges solely on the subjective intent of the speaker. Any third party wishing to actually harm or
2 intimidate these individuals may freely acquire the personal identifying information from myriad public
3 and private sources, including for-profit commercial entities, without entering the scope of the statute.¹⁴
4 Yet, defendants argue. “Even the fact that an individual may gather the same information and use that
5 information to harm someone does not detract from the state’s compelling interest behind prohibiting the
6 publication or distribution of such information with the intent to harm or intimidate.” Thought-policing
7 is *not* a compelling state interest recognized by the First Amendment. The State Court of Appeals noted,
8 “Sheehan’s intended use of the information cannot be a basis for denying disclosure. To conclude
9 otherwise would be to allow agencies to deny access to public records to its most vocal critics, while
10 supplying the same information to its friends.” Sheehan, 114 Wn App at 341. This reasoning also
11 resonates in the First Amendment context. Accordingly, defendants fail to demonstrate any compelling
12 state interest behind the statute.¹⁵

13 E The Statute is Not Readily Susceptible to a Narrowing Construction

14 Although the parties do not raise the issue, the Court should not facially invalidate a statute for
15 overbreadth unless the statute is not “readily subject to a narrowing construction by the state courts and
16 its deterrent effect on legitimate expression is both real and substantial.” Erznoznik, 422 U S at 216
17 (citations omitted), see also Broadrick, 413 U S at 613 (1973).¹⁶ However, the Court may only impose a

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19 ¹⁴ In fact, the legislative history makes clear that the legislature sought to exclude such entities
from the statute’s coverage.

20 ¹⁵ Further, defendants argue that the testimony before the state legislature demonstrates the “real
21 and substantial harm” that officers “could” face if their personal identifying information is released
22 under “improper” circumstances. However, “before imposing such a significant burden on free
expression, the government must do far more than merely speculating about the possibility of serious
23 harms.” Bartnicki, 532 U S at 532.

24 ¹⁶ For example, the Supreme Court shall not entertain a facial overbreadth claim when a state’s
highest court has already construed the statute at issue consistent with the First Amendment. See, e.g.,
25 R.A.V., 505 U S at 380-81 (Minnesota Supreme Court limits statute’s application to “fighting words”),
Chaplinsky, 315 U S at 573-74 (New Hampshire high court construes statute to only prohibit words

1 limiting construction to rescue a statute from facial challenge if the statute is readily susceptible to that
2 construction, the Court may not rewrite a statute or insert missing terms to conform it to constitutional
3 standards Reno v Am Civil Liberties Union, 521 U S 844, 884-85 (1997), Foti, 146 F 3d at 639 The
4 Court may look to the statute’s plain language or other sources of legislative intent to determine if a
5 statute is readily susceptible to a limiting construction Reno, 521 U S at 884 Of course, the Court
6 may not adopt an interpretation of a statute precluded by its plain language S O C., Inc., 152 F 3d at
7 1143-44

8 Defendants’ principle argument implicitly invites the Court to narrowly construe the statute such
9 that it governs only true threats However, as discussed in detail above, the plain language of the statute
10 does not regulate true threats, which turn on an objective standard Rather, the plain language of the
11 statute limits its scope solely to the subjective intent of the speaker Because the Ninth Circuit explicitly
12 rejected this subjective standard as a relevant element of the objective true threats standard in Planned
13 Parenthood, the interpretation urged by defendants is precluded by the plain language of the statute
14 Moreover, defendants wholly fail to cite any Washington case law¹⁷ construing the language “with the
15 intent to harm or intimidate” in such a way as to suggest the language only governs true threats, as
16 outlined by First Amendment jurisprudence Compare Gooding, 405 U S at 524-27 with R A V., 505
17 U.S at 380-81 and Chaplinsky, 315 U.S. at 573-74 Finally, the statute’s legislative history, which
18 focuses on plaintiff’s website, does not lend the statute to a constitutional narrowing construction

19 III PLAINTIFF’S VOID FOR VAGUENESS CHALLENGE

20 Plaintiff also challenges the facial validity of the statute on grounds that it is unconstitutionally

21
22 likely to incite imminent breach of peace)

23 ¹⁷ Although defendants cite numerous other statutes employing an intent to harm or intimidate
24 requirement, these statutes have no bearing on the instant discussion That is, these statutes do not
25 convert *constitutionally protected political speech* into true threats based solely on the intent of the
26 speaker

1 vague A statute is unconstitutionally vague if persons of common intelligence must necessarily guess at
2 the statute's meaning Broadrick, 413 U.S. at 607 The statute should be "set out in terms that the
3 ordinary person exercising ordinary common sense can sufficiently understand and comply with,
4 without sacrifice to the public interest" Id. at 608 (citations omitted) The vagueness of statutory
5 language raises special First Amendment concerns because of the "obvious chilling effect" on free
6 speech Reno, 521 U.S. at 865, 871-72 (finding terms "indecent" and "patently offensive"
7 unconstitutionally vague because not defined with reference to First Amendment standards)¹⁸
8 Specifically, plaintiff argues that the statutory language "with the intent to harm or intimidate" does not
9 satisfy these constitutional standards Defendants argue that the language "intent to harm or intimidate"
10 is ordinary and has a specific, common meaning¹⁹ Further, defendants argue that the language does not
11 invite subjective or discriminatory enforcement

12 Defendants arguments fail for several reasons First, as discussed in detail above, defendants
13 cling to the false notion that "intent to harm or intimidate" means "true threat" when the Ninth Circuit
14 has expressly rejected that definition Thus, the plain language of the statute does not regulate the
15 constitutionally proscribable mode of speech that defendants suggest it regulates Second, it is difficult
16 to comprehend how the statute does not invite subjective enforcement when the prosecuting attorney,
17 and then a jury, must discern the subjective intent of the speaker The statute fundamentally lacks
18 reference to any objective standards When statutory language is so broad that it "effectively licenses
19 the jury to create its own standard in each case," the susceptibility of improper application is
20 constitutionally unacceptable Gooding, 405 U.S. at 528 (internal quotations and citations omitted)

21
22 ¹⁸ The Supreme Court reasoned "Given the vague contours of the coverage of the statute, it
23 unquestionably silences some speakers whose messages would be entitled to constitutional protection
24 That danger provides further reasons for insisting that the statute not be overly broad" Reno, 521 U.S.
25 at 874.

26 ¹⁹ Defendants correctly note that the constitution does not demand mathematical certainty or
precision definitions

1 Third, a statute that demands self-censorship – that one police one’s own thoughts and subjective
2 intent – impermissibly sacrifices the public interest in the free exchange of speech and ideas See The
3 Florida Star, 491 U S at 535 This chills free speech Finally, when statutory language is vague and the
4 statute is obviously adopted to target the political activities of specific persons, such language makes
5 discriminatory enforcement a real possibility Foti, 146 F 3d at 638-39 (citations omitted) Here, it is
6 readily apparent that the legislature adopted the statute to specifically target plaintiff’s political
7 activities ²⁰ Therefore, in addition to the statute’s other fatal flaws, the language “with the intent to harm
8 or intimidate” does not provide the person of ordinary intelligence a reasonable opportunity to know the
9 speech prohibited The language is unconstitutionally vague ²¹

10 IV CONCLUSION

11 As the foregoing makes clear, the First and Fourteenth Amendments preclude the State of
12 Washington from proscribing pure speech based solely on the speaker’s subjective intent Likewise,
13 there is cause for concern when the legislature enacts a statute proscribing a type of political speech in a
14 concerted effort to silence particular speakers Defendants’ position is troubling Defendants’ boldly
15 assert the broad right to outlaw any speech – whether it be anti-Semitic, anti-choice, radical religious, or
16 critical of police – so long as a jury of one’s peers concludes that the speaker subjectively intends to
17 intimidate others with that speech This brash stance strikes at the core of the First Amendment and
18 does not comport with constitutional requirements. “[P]utting [certain individuals] in harm’s way by
19 singling them out for the attention of unrelated but violent third parties is [conduct] protected by the

20
21 ²⁰ As plaintiff demonstrates, the legislative history does little to aid the credibility of defendants’
22 arguments here For example, the May 2002 printed version of plaintiff’s website would not constitute a
23 true threat, yet the legislative history makes clear that the statute specifically intends to proscribe the
24 content of that website

25 ²¹ Because the Court concludes that the statute is patently unconstitutional on its face for the
26 several reasons discussed above, the Court declines to address plaintiff’s argument that the statute is an
unconstitutional prior restraint on protected First Amendment speech

1 First Amendment ” Planned Parenthood, 290 F 3d at 1063. Moreover, once the government places
2 personal identifying information in the public domain, reliance must rest on the judgment of those who
3 decide what to publish or broadcast The Florida Star, 491 U.S. at 538 (citations omitted)

4 The statute is substantially overbroad. Its deterrent effect on constitutionally protected speech is
5 real and substantial. It does not regulate true threats or any other proscribable mode of speech. The
6 statute punishes the communication of truthful lawfully-obtained, publicly-available information. The
7 statute is content-based and it does not serve a compelling state interest or state interest of the highest
8 order. In addition, defendants fail to demonstrate that the statute has *any* plainly legitimate sweep.
9 Because the statute, on its face, does not purport to proscribe true threats, it is unclear what speech,
10 within the statute’s scope, defendants have the power to constitutionally proscribe. Further, the statute is
11 not readily susceptible to any narrowing construction consistent with First Amendment standards.
12 Finally, the statute is void for vagueness. Accordingly, Wash. Rev. Code §§ 4 24 680– 700 is facially
13 unconstitutional under the First and Fourteenth Amendments of the United States Constitution. The
14 statute is invalid and unenforceable.

15 This Court does not intend to minimize the real fear of harm and intimidation that law
16 enforcement-related, corrections officer-related, and court-related employees, and their families, may
17 experience. As the State Court of Appeals noted, and the statute recognizes, judges and court employees
18 are common targets of threats and harassment. However, we live in a democratic society founded on
19 fundamental constitutional principles. In this society, we do not quash fear by increasing government
20 power, proscribing those constitutional principles, and silencing those speakers of whom the majority
21 disapproves. Rather, as Justice Harlan eloquently explained, the First Amendment demands that we
22 confront those speakers with superior ideas:

23 The constitutional right of free expression is powerful medicine in a society as diverse and
24 populous as ours. It is designed and intended to remove governmental restraints from the
25 arena of public discussion, putting the decision as to what views shall be voiced largely into
the hands of each of us, in the hope that use of such freedom will ultimately produce a more
capable citizenry and more perfect polity and in the belief that no other approach would

1 comport with the premise of individual dignity and choice upon which our political system
2 rests. To many, the immediate consequence of this freedom may often appear to be only
3 verbal tumult, discord, and even offensive utterance. These are, however, within established
4 limits, in truth necessary side effects of the broader enduring values which the process of
5 open debate permits us to achieve. That the air may at times seem filled with verbal
6 cacophony is, in this sense not a sign of weakness but of strength. We cannot lose sight of
7 the fact that, in what otherwise might seem a trifling and annoying instance of individual
8 distasteful abuse of a privilege, these fundamental societal values are truly implicated

9 Cohen, 403 U.S. at 24-25 (internal citations omitted). In sum, for the reasons set forth above, the Court
10 GRANTS plaintiff's motion for summary judgment and DENIES defendants' cross motion for summary
11 judgment. The clerk is directed to enter judgment accordingly.

12 SO ORDERED this 22 day of May, 2003

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CHIEF UNITED STATES DISTRICT JUDGE