

1 **KELLY J. VARNES**  
2 **HENDRICKSON, EVERSON,**  
3 **NOENNIG & WOODWARD, P.C.**  
4 208 North Broadway, Suite 324  
5 Billings, MT 59101-1984  
6 (406) 245-6238

7 **ERIK S. JAFFE**  
8 **ERIK S. JAFFE, P.C.**  
9 5101 34th Street, N.W.  
10 Washington, D.C. 20008  
11 (202) 237-8165

12 **RENEE L. GIACHINO**  
13 General Counsel  
14 **CENTER FOR INDIVIDUAL**  
15 **FREEDOM**  
16 901 N. Washington Street, Suite 402  
17 Alexandria, VA 22314  
18 (703) 535-5836

19 Attorneys for Petitioners

20 **IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT**  
21 **FOR THE DISTRICT OF MONTANA**  
22 **BILLINGS DIVISION**

23 JEAN CHARTER and STEVE CHARTER, )  
24 Petitioners, )

25 vs. )

26 THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF )  
27 AGRICULTURE, )  
28 Respondent. )

Cause No. CV 00-198-BLG-RFC

**REPLY MEMORANDUM IN**  
**SUPPORT OF MOTION FOR**  
**PRELIMINARY INJUNCTION**

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

TABLE OF CONTENTS ..... ii

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES ..... iii

ARGUMENT ..... 1

    I.    STANDARDS FOR PRELIMINARY INJUNCTION..... 1

    II.   LIKELIHOOD OF SUCCESS ON THE MERITS..... 2

        A.   *United States v. United Foods* ..... 2

            1. Nature of the “Germaneness” Test ..... 3

            2. Collective Expression Not Germane To Pro-Competitive Regulations ..... 9

        B.   Commercial Speech..... 13

        C.   Government Speech ..... 22

            1. The Checkoff Program Is Not Government Speech. .... 22

            2. Government Speech Is Subject to First Amendment Scrutiny. .... 27

    III.  IRREPARABLE INJURY ..... 36

    IV.  REMEDY ..... 38

CONCLUSION ..... 40

**TABLE OF AUTHORITIES**

**CASES**

1

2

3

4 ***44 Liquormart, Inc. v. Rhode Island***, 517 U.S. 484 (1996) ..... 16, 21, 22

5 ***Abood v. Detroit Bd. of Educ.***, 431 U.S. 209 (1977)..... passim

6 ***Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin System v. Southworth***,

7 529 U.S. 217 (2000)..... passim

8 ***Board of Trustees of the State Univ. of New York v. Fox***, 492 U.S. 469 (1989) ..... 16

9 ***Bolger v. Youngs Drug Products Corp.***, 463 U.S. 60 (1983) ..... 16

10 ***Bose Corp. v. Consumers Union of United States, Inc.***, 466 U.S. 485 (1984) ..... 20

11 ***Buckley v. Valeo***, 424 U.S. 1 (1976)..... 31

12 ***Cal-Almond, Inc. v. Department of Agriculture***, 67 F.3d 874 (9<sup>th</sup> Cir. 1995) ..... 39

13 ***Caribbean Marine Servs. Co. v. Baldrige***, 844 F.2d 668 (9<sup>th</sup> Cir. 1988)..... 1

14 ***Central Hudson Gas & Elec. Corp. v. Public Serv. Comm’n***, 447 U.S. 557 (1980) ..... 13, 16

15 ***Cincinnati v. Discovery Network, Inc.***, 507 U.S. 410 (1993)..... 16

16 ***Edenfield v. Fane***, 507 U.S. 761 (1993) ..... 16, 21

17 ***Ellis v. Railway Clerks***, 466 U.S. 435 (1984) ..... 4

18 ***First Nat’l Bank of Boston v. Bellotti***, 435 U.S. 765 (1978) ..... 31

19 ***Florida Bar v. Went for It, Inc.***, 515 U.S. 618 (1995) ..... 16

20 ***Glickman v. Wileman Brothers & Elliot, Inc.***, 521 U.S. 457 (1997) ..... 2, 14

21 ***Goetz v. Glickman***, 149 F.3d 1131 (10<sup>th</sup> Cir. 1998), *cert. denied*, 525 U.S. 1102 (1999) ..... 17

22 ***Goetz v. Glickman***, 920 F. Supp. 1173 (D. Kan. 1996), *aff’d on other grounds*,

23 149 F.3d 1131 (10<sup>th</sup> Cir. 1998), *cert. denied*, 525 U.S. 1102 (1999)..... 16

24 ***Greater New Orleans Broadcasting Ass’n v. United States***, 527 U.S. 173 (1999) ..... 16, 17, 19

25 ***Hohe v. Casey***, 868 F.2d 69 (3d Cir.), *cert. denied*, 493 U.S. 848 (1989)..... 36

26

1	<i>Ibanez v. Florida Dep’t of Bus. &amp; Prof’l Regulation</i> , 512 U.S. 136 (1994).....	16
2	<i>International Ass’n of Machinists v. Street</i> , 367 U.S. 740 (1961) .....	33
3	<i>Keller v. State Bar of Cal.</i> , 496 U.S. 1 (1990) .....	3, 6, 29
4	<i>Lathrop v. Donohue</i> , 367 U.S. 820 (1961) .....	28, 34
5	<i>Lebron v. National Railroad Passenger Corp.</i> , 513 U.S. 374 (1995).....	26
6	<i>Legal Services Corporation v. Velazquez</i> , 531 U.S. 533, 121 S. Ct. 1043 (2001).....	27, 34
7	<i>Lehnert v. Ferris Faculty Ass’n</i> , 500 U.S. 507 (1991) .....	4, 5, 8
8	<i>Lorillard Tobacco Co. v. Reilly</i> , -- U.S. --, 121 S. Ct. 2404 (2001) .....	15
9	<i>NEA v. Finley</i> , 524 U.S. 569 (1999).....	33, 34
10	<i>R.A.V. v. City of St. Paul</i> , 505 U.S. 377 (1992) .....	15
11	<i>Railway Employees’ Dept. v. Hanson</i> , 351 U.S. 225 (1956) .....	4
12	<i>Regan v. Taxation With Representation of Wash.</i> , 461 U.S. 540 (1983) .....	32
13	<i>Riley v. National Fed’n of the Blind</i> , 487 U.S. 781 (1988) .....	29, 30, 31
14	<i>Roberts v. United States Jaycees</i> , 468 U.S. 609 (1984) .....	8
15	<i>Rosenberger v. Rector &amp; Visitors of the Univ. of Virginia</i> , 515 U.S. 819 (1995) .....	28
16	<i>Rubin v. Coors Brewing Co.</i> , 514 U.S. 476 (1995).....	16, 21, 22
17	<i>Rust v. Sullivan</i> , 500 U.S. 173 (1991) .....	32, 34
18	<i>Thomas v. Collins</i> , 323 U.S. 516 (1945) .....	31
19	<i>Turner Broadcasting Sys., Inc. v. FCC</i> , 512 U.S. 622 (1994).....	30
20	<i>United States v. Edge Broadcasting Co.</i> , 509 U.S. 418 (1993).....	16
21	<i>United States v. Frame</i> , 885 F.2d 1119 (3d Cir. 1989), <i>cert. denied</i> ,	
22	493 U.S. 1094 (1990).....	passim
23	<i>United States v. O’Brien</i> , 391 U.S. 367 (1968) .....	5
24	<i>United States v. United Foods, Inc.</i> , -- U.S. --, 121 S. Ct. 2334 (2001) .....	passim
25	<i>West Virginia State Bd. of Educ. v. Barnette</i> , 319 U.S. 624 (1943).....	30, 36
26		

1	<i>Wileman Bros. &amp; Elliott, Inc. v. Espy</i> , 58 F.3d 1367 (9 <sup>th</sup> Cir.1995).....	39
2	<i>Wooley v. Maynard</i> , 430 U.S. 705 (1977) .....	37
3	<i>Zauderer v. Office of Disciplinary Counsel of the Supreme Court of Ohio</i> ,	
4	471 U.S. 626 (1985).....	12

**STATUTES**

7	21 U.S.C. § 601 .....	11
8	7 U.S.C. § 1621 .....	11
9	7 U.S.C. § 1622 .....	11
10	7 U.S.C. § 1635 .....	11
11	7 U.S.C. § 181 .....	9
12	7 U.S.C. § 192 .....	10
13	7 U.S.C. § 206 .....	10
14	7 U.S.C. § 207 .....	10
15	7 U.S.C. § 208 .....	10
16	7 U.S.C. § 212 .....	10
17	7 U.S.C. § 291 .....	12
18	7 U.S.C. § 601 .....	10
19	7 U.S.C. § 6501 .....	11

**OTHER AUTHORITIES**

22	Brief for the Petitioners, <i>United States v. United Foods, Inc.</i> , No. 00-276 (Jan. 24, 2001) .....	7
23	Dietary Guidelines: Choose Sensibly,	
24	<a href="http://www.health.gov/dietaryguidelines/dga2000/document/choose.htm">www.health.gov/dietaryguidelines/dga2000/document/choose.htm</a> .....	18
25	Facts About Checkoffs, <a href="http://www.beefboard.org/organization/facts.htm">www.beefboard.org/organization/facts.htm</a> .....	25

1	Mayfield, A Consumer’s Guide to Fats, <a href="http://www.pueblo.gsa.gov/press/nfcpubs/fatguide.txt">www.pueblo.gsa.gov/press/nfcpubs/fatguide.txt</a> .....	17
2	National Pork Board News Release, June 7, 2001,	
3	<a href="http://www.porkboard.org/060701IncreasingDemand.html">www.porkboard.org/060701IncreasingDemand.html</a> .....	19
4	Pork Leader, Mar. 16, 2001, <a href="http://www.porkboard.org/Pork%20Leader/PorkLeader031601.html">www.porkboard.org/Pork%20Leader/PorkLeader031601.html</a> ....	19
5	Pork Leader, Mar. 30, 2001, <a href="http://www.porkboard.org/Pork%20Leader/PorkLeader033001.html">www.porkboard.org/Pork%20Leader/PorkLeader033001.html</a> ....	19
6	Pork Rep., Summer 2001,	
7	<a href="http://www.porkboard.org/PorkReport/Summer2001/ReachingConsumersSUM2001.htm">www.porkboard.org/PorkReport/Summer2001/ReachingConsumersSUM2001.htm</a> .....	18
8	Reply Br. for the Petitioners, <i>United States v. United Foods, Inc.</i> ,	
9	No. 00-276 (Apr. 9, 2001) .....	14
10	Surgeon General’s Report on Nutrition and Health (Extracts),	
11	<a href="http://www.mcspotlight.org/media/reports/surgen_rep.html">www.mcspotlight.org/media/reports/surgen_rep.html</a> .....	17
12	USDA, “Choose a diet low in fat, saturated fat, and cholesterol,”	
13	<a href="http://www.nal.usda.gov/fnic/dga/dga95/lowfat.html">www.nal.usda.gov/fnic/dga/dga95/lowfat.html</a> .....	17
14	USDA, Agric. Fact Book 2000, <a href="http://www.usda.gov/news/opubs/fbook00/factbook2000.pdf">www.usda.gov/news/opubs/fbook00/factbook2000.pdf</a> .....	18
15	USDA, The Food Guide Pyramid, <a href="http://www.nal.usda.gov:8001/py/pmap.htm">www.nal.usda.gov:8001/py/pmap.htm</a> .....	18

16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

1 ARGUMENT

2 Shamelessly exhuming arguments laid to rest in *United Foods*, and offering a new  
3 defense of checkoff programs that has never been accepted by any appellate court, the  
4 government pretends that there is no significant First Amendment issue in this case. But quite to  
5 the contrary, the beef checkoff program plainly violates the First Amendment under the analysis  
6 dictated by *United Foods* and under the government’s own representations before the Supreme  
7 Court. Furthermore, the government’s new government-speech defense is incorrect both in its  
8 characterization of the program and in its assumption that government speech is immune from  
9 the First Amendment scrutiny applicable to other forms of compelled support for speech.

10 Once it is recognized that compelled support for the speech at issue in this case is  
11 unconstitutional, the irreparable nature of the injury to petitioners becomes apparent and the need  
12 for a broad prohibitory injunction inexorably follows.

13 **I. STANDARDS FOR PRELIMINARY INJUNCTION.**

14 The government generally agrees with petitioners that where there is a likelihood of  
15 success and irreparable injury, a preliminary injunction is appropriate. USDA Mem. at 5. While  
16 cases in which that combination can be demonstrated may be few, where such is shown, an  
17 injunction is proper without further balancing of interests. That is particularly true in First  
18 Amendment cases where the injury is, by definition, irreparable. The government’s claim that a  
19 court must always balance the public interest is overstated in that the case it cites for that  
20 proposition involved a situation where the chance of success was limited, no irreparable injury  
21 was shown, and hence where balancing of the hardships was appropriate. See *Caribbean*  
22 *Marine Servs. Co. v. Baldrige*, 844 F.2d 668, 674-76 (9<sup>th</sup> Cir. 1988). But where irreparable  
23 injury is coupled with a high likelihood of success, no government interest could trump the  
24 balance. In this case *United Foods* establishes an extremely high likelihood of success, and  
25 petitioners are plainly suffering irreparable injury, as discussed in Part III, *infra*. To the extent  
26

1 the public interest comes into play as an equitable matter, it is addressed in connection with the  
2 specific remedies sought and discussed in Part IV, *infra*.

3 **II. LIKELIHOOD OF SUCCESS ON THE MERITS.**

4 While the government leads with its new and novel government-speech argument,  
5 petitioners instead will begin by addressing the government’s misguided attempt to revise  
6 existing case law on compelled support for speech. An accurate review of that law demonstrates  
7 that the beef checkoff has no chance of surviving the applicable scrutiny. Petitioners then will  
8 turn to the government’s efforts to circumvent existing law through the guise of the so-called  
9 government speech doctrine.

10 **A. UNITED STATES v. UNITED FOODS**

11 In *United States v. United Foods, Inc.*, the Supreme Court addressed the question  
12 “whether the government may underwrite and sponsor speech with a certain viewpoint using  
13 special subsidies exacted from a designated class of persons, some of whom object to the idea  
14 being advanced.” -- U.S. --, 121 S. Ct. 2334, 2338 (2001). It answered that question by applying  
15 its “precedents concerning compelled contributions to speech,” *id.*, referring, *inter alia*, to *Abood*  
16 *v. Detroit Board of Education*, 431 U.S. 209 (1977). The Court further held that the analysis in  
17 its earlier decision in *Glickman v. Wileman Brothers & Elliot, Inc.*, 521 U.S. 457 (1997), was  
18 limited to the (counterfactually) presumed context that the fruit producers in that case “were  
19 bound together and required by the statute to market their products according to cooperative  
20 rules,” and that the forced collective advertising program “was the logical concomitant” of the  
21 regulations forcing such cooperative marketing. *United Foods*, -- U.S. --, 121 S. Ct. at 2339.

22 Because the mushroom producers in *United Foods* were subject to “no marketing orders  
23 that regulate how mushrooms may be produced and sold, no exemption from the antitrust laws,  
24 and nothing preventing individual producers from making their own marketing decisions,” the  
25 mushroom checkoff assessments were “not permitted under the First Amendment.” -- U.S. at --,  
26

1 121 S. Ct. at 2339, 2341. In the present case, the Beef Act is materially indistinguishable from  
2 the Mushroom Act, as the government itself strenuously argued before the Supreme Court. *See*  
3 *Pet. Mem.* at 7-9 (discussing and citing government’s arguments).

4 Notwithstanding its prior representations to the Supreme Court, the government now  
5 argues that the Beef Act is a part of a broader regulatory system to which the forced collective  
6 speech under the Beef Act is “germane.” But nothing cited by the government compels a  
7 cooperative marketing scheme or any other form of collective action that would prevent beef  
8 producers “from making their own marketing decisions.” *United Foods*, -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct.  
9 at 2339. Indeed, the overwhelming thrust of those laws is to *reinforce* competition between  
10 producers and to *suppress* various forms of collective action and monopolistic behavior by other  
11 beef industry players – packers and stockyards. Because the Beef Act’s compelled support for  
12 collective speech is antithetical to the regulatory regime in place for the beef industry, it is not  
13 germane to that regime and is thus unconstitutional.

#### 14 1. Nature of the “Germaneness” Test

15 The “germaneness” test was developed in the context of compelled contributions to labor  
16 unions and integrated bar associations. *See Abood*, 431 U.S. at 236 (contributions may be  
17 compelled for “collective-bargaining activities,” but “such compulsion is prohibited” for  
18 “ideological activities unrelated to collective bargaining”) (footnote omitted); *Keller v. State Bar*  
19 *of Cal.*, 496 U.S. 1, 16 (1990) (“Compulsory dues may not be expended to endorse or advance a  
20 gun control or nuclear weapons freeze initiative” but may be “spent for activities connected with  
21 disciplining members of the bar or proposing ethical codes for the profession.”). In *Lehnert v.*  
22 *Ferris Faculty Association*, the applicable standards for the use of compelled contributions in  
23 the union context were summarized as follows:

24 chargeable activities must (1) be “germane” to collective-bargaining activity; (2)  
25 be justified by the government’s vital policy interest in labor peace and avoiding  
26 “free riders”; and (3) not significantly add to the burdening of free speech that is  
inherent in the allowance of an agency or union shop.

1 500 U.S. 507, 519 (1991). That description identifies the germaneness inquiry as relating to  
2 specific conduct and as separate from the government’s “policy interest” or motive in adopting  
3 the legislative scheme in the first instance. It is some specific compelled conduct that cannot be  
4 accomplished without a certain amount of speech incidental to that conduct – negotiation and  
5 implementation of collective bargaining agreements in the union context – that is both the  
6 permissible purpose of compelled support and the relevant *object* of the germaneness analysis.<sup>1</sup>  
7 And where the relation between particular speech and the “process of establishing a written  
8 collective-bargaining agreement” was uncertain, *Abood* suggested that the relevant inquiry  
9 would be whether the context of the speech “*might be seen as an integral part of the bargaining*  
10 *process.*” *Id.* at 236 (emphasis added); cf. *Ellis v. Railway Clerks*, 466 U.S. 435, 448 (1984)  
11 (“test must be whether the challenged expenditures are necessarily or reasonably incurred for the  
12 purpose of performing the duties of an exclusive representative of the employees in dealing with  
13 the employer on labor-management issues”).<sup>2</sup>

14 Non-germane speech, by contrast, was not integral to the primary conduct being  
15 compelled. While such speech may have been relevant to the overall *goal* of the program – and  
16 hence germane in the colloquial sense – it was not essential to the required conduct and thus was  
17 analyzed distinctly from such conduct. For example, in *Lehnert* the Court held that generic  
18  
19

---

20 <sup>1</sup> See *Railway Employees’ Department v. Hanson*, 351 U.S. 225, 238, 235 (1956) (compelled “financial  
21 support of the collective-bargaining agency” does not violate the First Amendment but “a different  
22 problem would be presented if the assessments were “imposed for purposes not germane to collective  
23 bargaining”); *Abood*, 431 U.S. at 225-26, 234 (following *Hanson* “insofar as the service charge is used to  
finance expenditures by the Union for the purposes of collective bargaining, contract administration, and  
grievance adjustment”; agreeing with appellants that a union could not, over objection, spend fees on  
speech “unrelated to its duties as exclusive bargaining representative”).

24 <sup>2</sup> While the collective bargaining process nominally involves speech, it is actually more a series of  
25 speech-acts – such as offers and acceptances – constituting the commercial transaction of contracting with  
26 the employer. Similarly with communications from the union to the employer and to the employees,  
those constitute the necessary elements of representation without which the union could not bargain,  
resolve grievances, or exchange information with those to whom it owes a duty of representation.

1 promotional advertising by the union was not “germane” to collective bargaining because it was  
2 not a necessary element of such bargaining.

3 [P]ublic speech in support of the teaching profession generally is not sufficiently  
4 related to the union’s collective-bargaining functions to justify compelling  
5 dissenting employees to support it. Expression of this kind extends beyond the  
negotiation and grievance-resolution contexts and imposes a substantially greater  
burden upon First Amendment rights than do the latter activities.

6 500 U.S. at 528-29 (Blackmun, J., for four Justices). That such promotion might have advanced  
7 the general interests of the teaching profession collectively was insufficient to render such  
8 promotional activities “germane.” Rather, any permissibly chargeable speech had to be far more  
9 closely tied to the actual conduct being compelled in the first place.

10 The germaneness test is consistent with, and is in effect the compulsion flip-side of, the  
11 First Amendment test for restrictions on mixed speech and conduct. For example, in *United*  
12 *States v. O’Brien* the law forbade harmful conduct – the destruction of an official document –  
13 that at times was intertwined with expression. 391 U.S. 367, 376 (1968). The law in *O’Brien*  
14 was upheld where the impact on speech was “incidental” to the underlying regulation of conduct,  
15 was “no greater than is essential” to accomplishing the interests of regulating the conduct, and  
16 met additional conditions designed to safeguard First Amendment values. *Id.* at 377. In like  
17 manner, the germaneness test allows some burden on speech arising from compelled support of  
18 conduct where the speech burden is incidental and no greater than essential to achieve the  
19 otherwise properly compelled conduct. And finally, as in *O’Brien*, the purposes and effect of  
20 government-compelled contributions must be imposed for the “noncommunicative impact of [the  
21 supported] conduct, *and for nothing else.*” *Id.* at 382 (emphasis added).

22 The requisite interrelation between compelled speech and compelled conduct was fully  
23 confirmed in *United Foods*. The Supreme Court reiterated that “a threshold inquiry must be  
24 whether there is some state imposed obligation which makes group membership less than  
25 voluntary; for it is only the overriding associational purpose which allows any compelled subsidy

1 for speech in the first place.” -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2340. Reviewing the applicable case  
2 law, the Court characterized the associational purpose narrowly as the specific collective *conduct*  
3 to be achieved – “attain[ing] the desired benefit of collective bargaining” in the union cases – not  
4 as the more abstract and generic policy goals of labor peace or improving the lot of some  
5 segment of the economy. *Id.* Likewise regarding the integrated bar, the ***United Foods*** decision  
6 identified the underlying associational purposes as the narrow activities of “disciplining  
7 members of the Bar or proposing ethical codes for the profession.” *Id.* (quoting ***Keller***, 496  
8 U.S. at 16). The threshold requirement was satisfied because bar members “already were  
9 required to associate *for other purposes*, making the compelled contribution of monies to pay for  
10 expressive activities *a necessary incident of* a larger expenditure for an otherwise proper goal  
11 requiring *the cooperative activity.*” ***United Foods***, -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2340 (emphasis  
12 added). And in the checkoff context the Court explained that in ***Glickman***, the law had already  
13 “deprived producers of their ability to compete and replaced competition with a regime of  
14 cooperation.” *Id.* Because “producers were bound together in the common venture, the  
15 imposition upon their First Amendment rights caused by using compelled contributions for  
16 germane advertising was, as in ***Abood*** and ***Keller***, in furtherance of an otherwise legitimate  
17 program.” *Id.* In every context in which it has addressed compelled support for collective  
18 speech, therefore, the Supreme Court has recognized that such speech must be germane not to  
19 some abstract goal or benefit, but rather to some specific anchor of compelled collective conduct.

20 Applying the threshold germaneness test to the mushroom checkoff, the Supreme Court  
21 readily found that the program failed. It observed that “the statute does not require group action,  
22 save to generate the very speech to which some handlers object.” *Id.* And as for the  
23 government’s claim that the expression under the Mushroom Act was germane to the general  
24 “statutory purposes of ‘strengthen[ing] the mushroom industry’s position in the marketplace,’  
25 ‘maintain[ing] and expand[ing] existing markets and uses for mushroom,’ and ‘develop[ing] new  
26

1 markets and uses for mushrooms,” Brief for the Petitioners, *United States v. United Foods,*  
2 *Inc.*, No. 00-276 (Jan. 24, 2001), at 18, the Court dismissed the notion that germaneness was to  
3 be measured according to the policy goals supposedly furthered by the speech, finding that  
4 “[w]ere it sufficient to say that speech is germane to itself, the limits described in *Abood* and  
5 *Keller* would be empty of meaning and significance.” -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2341. The  
6 Court thus concluded that because the “cooperative marketing structure relied upon by a majority  
7 of the Court in *Glickman* to sustain an ancillary assessment finds no corollary here[,] the  
8 expression respondent is required to support is not germane to a purpose related to an association  
9 independent from the speech itself.” *Id.*

10         In light of controlling precedent, compelled support for collective speech must be  
11 germane to economic regulation compelling similarly collective conduct that can be  
12 accomplished only through the incidental compulsion of speech regarding such conduct.

13         Despite the resounding rejection of its arguments in *United Foods*, the government now  
14 seeks to recoup lost ground by reasserting that the mere existence of other regulations sharing the  
15 same overall goal of enhancing the beef market is a sufficient anchor for the germaneness  
16 inquiry regardless of whether such regulations collectivize producers or otherwise replace  
17 competition with cooperation. In particular, the government claims that “there is nothing in the  
18 reasoning of either *Wileman* or *United Foods* that requires such preliminary collective action or  
19 other compelled association in order to sustain” assessments for collective expression. USDA  
20 Mem. at 26. As the discussion above demonstrates – and as this Court’s own reading of *United*  
21 *Foods* will corroborate – that claim is absurd. While the government quotes the *United Foods*  
22 language that the compelled collective speech must be “in furtherance of an otherwise  
23 legitimate program,” USDA Mem. at 26, it studiously fails to acknowledge that the requisite  
24 “program” is the compelled collectivization of the relevant commodity market, not merely the  
25 abstract “ends of the regulatory system.” *Id.* at 27. In short, compelled support for speech must  
26

1 be germane to the *means* used by other regulations of conduct, not simply the ends. *Cf. Lehnert*,  
2 500 U.S. at 528-29 (Blackmun, J., for four Justices) (rejecting teacher promotional ads as not  
3 germane to union activities, despite obvious overlap in the ends of both).

4         The government’s further effort to separate collective speech from the requisite collective  
5 conduct by reference to cases involving associational rights, USDA Mem. at 27 n. 16, is, in a  
6 word, confused. Though mostly correct in stating that First Amendment associational rights “are  
7 derivative of” speech rights, the government mistakenly assumes that *all* forms of association  
8 are protected by the First Amendment. In actuality, only *expressive* association implicates the  
9 First Amendment, and *economic* association involves merely conduct that may be regulated  
10 subject to the more lenient constraints on most other government activities. *See Roberts v.*  
11 *United States Jaycees*, 468 U.S. 609, 638 (1984) (distinguishing interference with an  
12 organization engaged in “protected expressive activity” and regulation of “economic transactions  
13 by or within a commercial association”). Where the regulation of economic association  
14 nonetheless inadvertently burdens expressive association, the test to be applied is the familiar  
15 *O’Brien* test, discussed *supra* at 6, bringing us full circle to the related germaneness inquiry.

16         It is the government’s misunderstanding of the different forms of association that leads it  
17 to the misguided claim that “[t]o the extent that a government interest would be sufficient to  
18 justify compelled association in the name of economic regulation, and that compelled association  
19 would later be deemed sufficient to justify compelled contribution, there is no analytical reason  
20 to require the compelled association as a precursor to permitting compelled speech.” USDA  
21 Mem. at 27 n. 16. But that logic falsely assumes that such interests as would justify economic  
22 regulation could independently justify direct regulation of speech, which the entire body of First  
23 Amendment, not to mention *United Foods*, squarely refutes. Such interests allow for an  
24 incidental burden on speech only insofar as necessary to accomplish the underlying regulation of  
25 conduct, and even then with substantial additional First Amendment restraints. Once again, the

26

1 government is confusing the goal or ends of a regulation with the substantive means of the  
2 regulation and claiming that common abstract goals are sufficient to support compelled speech.  
3 But that is nothing more than a reiteration of the rejected claim that a program of compelled  
4 speech may be germane to itself so long as its goals are the same as the government’s goals in  
5 enacting separate regulation having no other connection to the speech at issue. In the  
6 government’s view, the requirement of pre-existing regulation serves no function other than to  
7 prove that the interest asserted is indeed important, rather than as the primary permissible  
8 governmental action that incidentally necessitates some burden on speech in order to go into  
9 effect. But that is not the law. If the compelled speech is neither integral nor necessary to  
10 regulations of conduct, the fact that they share the same broad goals is meaningless.<sup>3</sup>

## 11 2. Collective Expression Not Germane To Pro-Competitive Regulations

12 Because the germaneness test requires that compelled support for speech be integrally  
13 related to compelled conduct, and be functionally necessary for the operation of such conduct,  
14 the government must do far more than merely demonstrate the existence of other regulations  
15 covering the affected industry. Rather, it must show that the nature of the compelled speech  
16 matches up with the nature of the compelled conduct and is necessary to effectuate such  
17 compelled conduct. The regulations cited by the government, however, have absolutely nothing  
18 to do with the compelled collective speech at issue in this case and thus the compelled speech is  
19 not “germane” to such regulations. For example, the government, USDA Mem. at 29,  
20 disingenuously cites to several provisions of the Packers and Stockyards Act of 1921 (“PSA”), 7  
21 U.S.C. §§ 181 *et seq.*, for the notion that beef production is highly regulated. But the  
22

---

23 <sup>3</sup> The government’s final claim in its footnote, USDA Mem. at 27 n. 16, that the uniformly contrary  
24 language in *United Foods* is merely *dicta* contrasting the *Glickman* case is utterly disingenuous. The  
25 differences between the program in *Glickman* and the Mushroom Act was the very issue litigated in  
26 *United Foods*, and was essential to disposing of the government’s position that *Glickman* controlled. For  
genuine *dicta*, the government need only look to the language it misrepresents as holdings concerning the  
so-called government speech doctrine. *See infra* at 28-29.

1 government chooses to overlook the fact that none of those provisions apply to the *producers*  
2 who pay the beef checkoff, only to – not surprisingly – packers and stockyards.

3 Furthermore, the PSA provisions cited by the government, unlike those thought to exist  
4 in *Glickman*, are strictly pro-competitive, not cooperative or collectivizing. Sections 192, 206,  
5 207, and 208 forbid discrimination and deception by packers and stockyards, and bars  
6 manipulation, control, or discrimination in prices. Those provisions are designed to suppress  
7 anti-competitive collective action and guard against the monopsony and monopoly tendencies of  
8 these market middlemen. Indeed, the government – seemingly oblivious – cites authority for this  
9 essential difference, noting that the purpose of the PSA, unlike the collectivist Agricultural  
10 Marketing Agreement Act (“AMAA”), 7 U.S.C. § 601, *et seq.*, is intended to “foster, preserve,  
11 [and] insure an efficient, competitive public market” in livestock. 7 U.S.C. § 208(b)

12 As for the supposed price controls under the PSA, Section 212 creates only extremely  
13 limited authority for the Secretary to control certain rates and practice by packers and dealers,  
14 but there again, the situations allowing for such control are designed to prevent, rather than  
15 support, collective action. Such regulatory authority is thus the antithesis of the producer-  
16 collectivizing authority that was presumed to exist in the *Glickman* case. The limited regulatory  
17 authority under the PSA offers no control whatsoever over the prices or other marketing  
18 decisions of producers, and the government does not give a single instance in which such latent  
19 authority has been exercised in any event. Such latent authority is comparable to the *unused*  
20 regulatory authority under the AMAA, which was present in, and irrelevant to, the *United Foods*  
21 case. *See* -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2340 (recognizing that “greater regulation of the mushroom  
22 market might have been implemented under the” AMAA).<sup>4</sup>

---

24 <sup>4</sup> The bonding and trust account requirements placed on packers and stockyards by 9 C.F.R. §§ 201.29  
25 and 201.42 (though cited by the government to CFR Title 7) are merely basic transaction facilitation  
26 requirements meant to prevent abuses by the packer and stockyard middlemen. Such regulations do not  
constrain producers and have utterly nothing to do with the compelled speech at issue in this case.

1 Other legislation cited by the government is similarly pro-competitive and thus further  
2 undermines any case for compelling collectivized speech. The price-reporting requirements  
3 under the Livestock Mandatory Reporting Act of 1999 applies to packers, not producers, and is  
4 designed to “encourage[] competition,” not cooperation or collectivization. 7 U.S.C. § 1635 (3).  
5 And as for the voluntary grading system under the Agricultural Marketing Act, 7 U.S.C.  
6 §§ 1621-27, that statute applies to *all* agricultural products (thus failing to distinguish  
7 mushrooms), is strictly voluntary, not regulatory, and it hardly requires any *collective* action. 7  
8 U.S.C. § 1622 (h).<sup>5</sup> The notion that this voluntary system is somehow comparable to the  
9 mandatory grading system for fruit in *Glickman*, USDA Mem. at 30-31, is preposterous. Not  
10 only were fruit producers in *Glickman* required to grade their produce according to collectively  
11 determined standards, they were also restricted from marketing low-graded produce at all. Beef  
12 grading, by contrast, is a wholly voluntary informational activity subject to individual choice,  
13 and producers remain free to market their goods regardless of the grade received.<sup>6</sup>

14 The Federal Meat Inspection Act, 21 U.S.C. §§ 601 *et seq.*, similarly offers no  
15 justification for the forced collective speech under the Beef Act. Meat inspection is a standard  
16 consumer safety requirement no different from health, safety, and misbranding regulations  
17 applicable to virtually all foods and drugs sold in the United States. Likewise with the Organic  
18 Foods Production Act of 1990, 7 U.S.C. §§ 6501 *et seq.*, which is applicable to all “agricultural

---

19  
20 <sup>5</sup> The nature of the grading system is also at odds with numerous other aspects of the Beef Act given that  
21 any generic advertising of beef would run counter to the product differentiation fostered by grading. The  
22 disconnect between grading and generic advertising – or worse, branded advertising promoting low-grade  
23 beef – goes to the issue of whether the Beef Act is “germane” to the voluntary grading system. And the  
24 government itself notes, USDA Mem. at 30, that the purpose of voluntary grading is to provide for a  
25 “privately operated system for distributing and marketing agricultural products,” 7 U.S.C. § 1621, thus  
26 undermining the government’s claims that beef promotion is government speech. *See infra* Part II.C.

<sup>6</sup> Price reporting provides interesting counterpoint as to the type of compelled speech that might well be  
germane to underlying regulation. Compelled reporting of prices by packers and stockyards seems quite  
germane to the substantive requirement in the PSA that such middlemen do not discriminate in their  
pricing. But the further compulsion of *collective* speech by producers has nothing to do with  
discriminatory pricing and is akin to the non-germane teacher advertising rejected in *Lehnert*.

1 products (thus failing to distinguish mushrooms from beef), merely establishes the preconditions  
2 for branding a product as “organic,” but have nothing to do with collective or cooperative  
3 marketing. Forbidding the sale of unhealthful or misbranded products, and requiring accurate  
4 labeling in furtherance of that end, is akin to the type of disclosure requirements (and the  
5 underlying substantive ethical standards) discussed in *Zauderer v. Office of Disciplinary*  
6 *Counsel of the Supreme Court of Ohio*, 471 U.S. 626 (1985), and distinguished by the Supreme  
7 Court in *United Foods*, -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2341. Indeed, just as in *United Foods*, there  
8 “is no suggestion in the case now before us that the mandatory assessments imposed to require  
9 one group of private persons to pay for speech by others are somehow necessary to make  
10 voluntary advertisements nonmisleading for consumers,” *id.*, or otherwise necessary to  
11 implement meat inspection and labeling requirements.<sup>7</sup>

12 Finally, the government cites to the Capper-Volstead Act, 7 U.S.C. §§ 291 *et seq.*, as  
13 permission, though not compulsion, for collective action in the beef industry by granting an  
14 antitrust exemption for producers or others who voluntarily choose to market their beef through  
15 an agricultural cooperative. USDA Mem. at 31 n. 18. Once again, however, the government  
16 neglects to mention that this applies to *all* agricultural products and thus once again fails to  
17 distinguish beef from mushrooms. Furthermore, aside from offering no evidence that any such  
18 cooperative exists in the beef industry, the government fails to explain how the existence of such  
19 voluntary cooperatives would justify compelling support for speech from those who – like  
20 petitioners – are *not members* of such cooperatives. It is one thing to say that producers who in  
21 fact associate in such cooperative marketing systems could be compelled to subsidize the

---

22  
23 <sup>7</sup> Because beef (and other produce) must be inspected for basic health and safety, the government may  
24 also compel people to label their goods accordingly. Compelled speech – *i.e.*, labeling – regarding the  
25 underlying compelled inspections is plainly germane to the inspection regulations themselves, and fits  
26 hand-in-glove with the operative requirements of the Federal Meat Inspection Act. The speech compelled  
by the Beef Act, however, has nothing to do with such inspection requirements notwithstanding the  
abstract benefits that a safe beef supply may provide for consumer confidence.

1 promotional efforts *of the cooperative entity itself*. Cooperative promotion might well be  
2 germane to cooperative marketing that was exempt from antitrust laws. But it is an entirely  
3 different matter to require independent producers – fully subject to and protected by the antitrust  
4 laws – who have not joined such cooperatives to subsidize collective speech by their  
5 competitors. In the former instance collective speech is germane to collective conduct; in the  
6 latter instance, compelled collective speech is antithetical to the competition-preserving  
7 regulations applicable to the remainder of the market.

8         Once the pro-competitive nature of any beef-specific regulations is recognized, this case  
9 not only falls outside the scope of the earlier *Glickman* case, it is actually an even *more*  
10 compelling case for rejecting the compelled support for speech than was *United Foods*. The  
11 government’s claim that a valid programmatic interest is sufficient to support compelled speech so  
12 long as such a general interest is reflected in other regulations, regardless of whether the  
13 compelled speech is integral or necessary to the operation of those regulations, is nothing more  
14 than a repackaged version of its failed argument in *United Foods* and should be rejected  
15 accordingly.

## 16         **B.         COMMERCIAL SPEECH**

17         Ignoring the nature of the beef checkoff program, the government asserts that the speech  
18 at issue is commercial in nature and that compelled support for such speech is subject to, and  
19 would survive, the *Central Hudson* test for restrictions on commercial speech. USDA Mem. at  
20 18 (citing *Central Hudson Gas & Elec. Corp. v. Public Serv. Comm’n*, 447 U.S. 557 (1980)).  
21 The government’s reasoning, however, is wrong on numerous counts.

22         First, the *Central Hudson* test does not apply to compelled support for speech, even if  
23 such speech might be characterized as commercial. *United Foods* recognized that “the  
24 Government itself does not rely upon *Central Hudson*” in defense of the mushroom checkoff  
25 program. -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2338. As the government acknowledged in *United Foods* –  
26

1 but conveniently ignores now – the Supreme Court has “made clear in *Wileman* that ‘the *Central*  
2 *Hudson* test, which involved a restriction on commercial speech, should [not] govern a case  
3 involving the compelled funding of speech,’” after which the government concluded that the  
4 inapplicability of *Central Hudson* has now “been resolved.” Reply Br. for the Petitioners,  
5 *United Foods*, No. 00-276 (Apr. 9, 2001) at 9-10 n. 7 (quoting *Glickman*, 521 U.S. at 474 n. 18)  
6 (brackets in government brief). Indeed, the Supreme Court in *United Foods* simply assumed that  
7 the speech in question was commercial speech and found that irrelevant, holding that “even  
8 viewing commercial speech as entitled to lesser protection, we find no basis under either  
9 *Glickman* or our other precedents to sustain the compelled assessments sought in this case.” --  
10 U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2337. In light of squarely controlling precedent and the position taken by  
11 the Solicitor General’s office and accepted by the Supreme Court in *United Foods*, it is  
12 disingenuous for the government to urge a contrary position upon this Court.

13         Second, much of the speech in this case is not “commercial speech” at all, but rather is  
14 political speech or opinion about economic subjects. For example, petitioners’ initial  
15 memorandum identified numerous forms of objectionable speech that concerned subjects such as  
16 nutrition, legislation, the supposed value of the beef checkoff itself, and the use of checkoff  
17 funds to support policy initiatives favoring the viewpoints and economic interests of large  
18 processors. Pet. Mem. at 3 n. 1. Viewpoint based restrictions or compulsions of such speech are  
19 subject to full First Amendment scrutiny. In those cases where some lesser scrutiny has been  
20 applied to restrictions on commercial speech, such speech has been very narrowly defined as  
21 “speech that does no more than propose a commercial transaction.” *United Foods*, -- U.S. at --,  
22 121 S. Ct. at 2337. Yet even the generic beef promotion in this case does not quite propose any  
23 commercial transaction, particularly given that the persons paying for the ads – cattle producers  
24 – typically do not sell to the consumer targets of the promotion. Generic beef promotion is no  
25 more commercial speech than are promotions by U.S. labor unions encouraging consumers to  
26

1 favor American-made goods, to look for the union label, or to eschew goods made with child  
2 labor. Such speech is more accurately viewed as speech on broader economic subjects; it may be  
3 *about* commercial transactions, but it does not propose a commercial transaction as does an  
4 advertisement reading “Case of Beer: \$10 at Bob’s convenience store.”<sup>8</sup>

5 Third, even assuming some of the compelled speech at issue is “commercial speech,” it is  
6 petitioners’ view that the *Central Hudson* test is no longer viable and that such speech should be  
7 evaluated according to the heightened scrutiny applicable to all forms of protected speech. As  
8 the Supreme Court has recognized as recently as *United Foods*, the *Central Hudson* test has  
9 been subject to “criticism” in recent years. *United Foods*, -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2337 (*citing*  
10 examples). The Court, however, was understating matters. At least five Justices have suggested  
11 that *Central Hudson* may need to be narrowed or overruled. *See, e.g., Lorillard Tobacco Co. v.*  
12 *Reilly*, -- U.S. --, 121 S. Ct. 2404, 2421 (2001) (acknowledging doubts over commercial speech  
13 standards expressed by Justices Stevens, Scalia, Kennedy, Thomas, and Ginsburg).

14 Furthermore, since the adoption of the *Central Hudson* test over twenty years ago, the  
15 Supreme Court has overwhelmingly found commercial speech restrictions invalid under the  
16 *Central Hudson* analysis. *See, e.g., Lorillard Tobacco*, -- U.S. --, 121 S. Ct. 2404 (striking  
17

---

18  
19 <sup>8</sup> Given that petitioners object to the underlying political, nutritional, and economic viewpoints favored in  
20 checkoff speech – including the promotional advertising – their First Amendment claim triggers  
21 heightened scrutiny regardless of how one characterizes the speech serving as a vehicle for such  
22 viewpoints. For example, while the government may properly proscribe obscenity or “fighting words,” it  
23 may not selectively discriminate in favor of or against a subset of obscene materials based on the  
24 viewpoints contained therein. *See R.A.V. v. City of St. Paul*, 505 U.S. 377, 383-84 (1992) (even  
25 unprotected categories of speech may not “be made the vehicles for content discrimination unrelated to  
26 their distinctly proscribable content”); *id.* at 386 (“[T]he power to proscribe [particular speech] on the  
basis of *one* content element (*e.g.*, obscenity) does not entail the power to proscribe it on the basis of  
*other* content elements. ... The government may not regulate use based on hostility – or favoritism –  
towards the underlying message expressed.”). Just so with commercial speech: Even if the government  
could require all producers to engage in some amount of commercial speech, it could not and cannot  
compel the support of commercial speech having only a particular favored viewpoint. *Cf. id.* at 388-89  
(though a state may “regulate price advertising ... because the risk of fraud ... a State may not prohibit  
only that commercial advertising that depicts men in a demeaning fashion”)

1 down cigarette advertising ban for outdoor and point-of-sale advertising)<sup>9</sup>; *Greater New Orleans*  
2 *Broadcasting Ass’n v. United States*, 527 U.S. 173 (1999) (striking down federal restriction on  
3 speech relating to casino gambling).<sup>10</sup> Remarkably, since 1995, the Supreme Court has only  
4 once upheld a regulation challenged before it under the *Central Hudson* test. *Florida Bar v.*  
5 *Went for It, Inc.*, 515 U.S. 618 (1995) (5-4 Court upheld bar restrictions on attorney  
6 advertising). But in that case, as well as several cases preceding it, the speech restriction was  
7 incidental (and germane) to underlying restrictions on conduct – prohibiting certain contact with  
8 accident victims or their families for a period of time post-accident – and likely would have  
9 survived the more appropriate *O’Brien* test for restrictions on mixed conduct and expression.<sup>11</sup>

10 Fourth, even assuming, *arguendo*, the applicability of the *Central Hudson* test, the beef  
11 checkoff program fails that test. While the government relies primarily on the Third Circuit’s  
12 decision in *United States v. Frame*, 885 F.2d 1119, 1133 (3d Cir. 1989), *cert. denied*, 493 U.S.  
13 1094 (1990), and the district court decision in *Goetz v. Glickman*, 920 F. Supp. 1173, 1182-83  
14 (D. Kan. 1996), *aff’d on other grounds*, 149 F.3d 1131 (10<sup>th</sup> Cir. 1998), *cert. denied*, 525 U.S.  
15 1102 (1999), both of those decisions came down before the Supreme Court substantially  
16 ratcheted up the scrutiny under the *Central Hudson* test in cases like *44 Liquormart*, 517 U.S. at

---

18 <sup>9</sup> *Lorillard* did uphold one restriction on mixed conduct having potential communicative impact, but did  
19 so pursuant to the normal *O’Brien* test, not under *Central Hudson*. -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2429.

20 <sup>10</sup> See also *44 Liquormart, Inc. v. Rhode Island*, 517 U.S. 484 (1996) (striking down restrictions on  
21 price-advertising ban of alcoholic beverages); *Rubin v. Coors Brewing Co.*, 514 U.S. 476 (1995)  
22 (striking down ban on alcohol content disclosures); *Ibanez v. Florida Dep’t of Bus. & Prof’l Regulation*,  
23 512 U.S. 136 (1994) (reversing sanction relating to professional advertising); *Edenfield v. Fane*, 507  
24 U.S. 761 (1993) (striking down ban on personal solicitation of potential clients by accountants);  
25 *Cincinnati v. Discovery Network, Inc.*, 507 U.S. 410 (1993) (striking down city prohibition of news  
26 racks devoted to commercial advertising); *Bolger v. Youngs Drug Products Corp.*, 463 U.S. 60 (1983)  
(striking down prohibition on unrestricted mailings of advertisements for contraceptives); *Central*  
*Hudson*, 447 U.S. 557 (striking down restriction on utility company advertising).

<sup>11</sup> See, e.g., *United States v. Edge Broadcasting Co.*, 509 U.S. 418 (1993) (upholding restrictions on  
broadcast of lottery advertisements by radiostation in state where lotteries were illegal); *Board of*  
*Trustees of the State Univ. of New York v. Fox*, 492 U.S. 469, 471-72 (1989) (upholding university  
prohibition of Tupperware parties in dorms as incidental to ban on such commercial activities in general).

1 531-32, and *Greater New Orleans Broadcasting*, 527 U.S. at 182. The government also  
2 neglects to mention that the district court in *Goetz* did nothing more than rely on *Frame* without  
3 further analysis, and that the Tenth Circuit on appeal not only relied upon alternative grounds  
4 (now rejected in *United Foods*), but also affirmatively repudiated the district court’s reliance on  
5 the *Central Hudson* analysis from *Frame*. 149 F.3d at 1139 (“We find the district court erred in  
6 applying the *Central Hudson* test to Goetz’ First Amendment claim.”) And as for *Frame*, the  
7 Court actually used the *Abood* test to uphold the Beef Act – with analysis that is now squarely  
8 rejected by *United Foods* – and only discussed the *Central Hudson* test as an afterthought. 885  
9 F.2d at 1134 n. 12. Given the subsequent Supreme Court case law on both the *Abood* test and  
10 the *Central Hudson* test, *Frame* not only lacks authority on those issues, it must be considered a  
11 marker for precisely what is *not* the law.

12         If the *Central Hudson* analysis were conducted today, the Beef Act would fail  
13 spectacularly. Regarding whether the alleged government interest is substantial, not only does  
14 the government misidentify the true nature of the interest at stake, it ignores contradictions in  
15 government policy that demonstrate its alleged interest to be non-substantial for First  
16 Amendment purposes. For example, though claiming a desire to increase beef consumption in  
17 the United States, the government simultaneously warns the public of the hazards of overeating  
18 in general and encourages reduced consumption of meat as a way to reduce fat and cholesterol.<sup>12</sup>

---

19  
20 <sup>12</sup> See, e.g., USDA, “Choose a diet low in fat, saturated fat, and cholesterol,” [www.nal.usda.gov/fnic/dga/dga95/lowfat.html](http://www.nal.usda.gov/fnic/dga/dga95/lowfat.html) (noting that the “fats from meat, milk, and milk products are the main source of  
21 saturated fats in most diets”; that saturated fats should be reduced to less than 10% of calories; that the  
22 “fats in most fish are low in saturated fatty acids” and contain a preferable form of polyunsaturated fatty  
23 acids; and recommending that “[m]ono- and polyunsaturated fat sources should replace saturated fats”  
24 within the overall dietary limit on fat consumption); Mayfield, A Consumer’s Guide to Fats,  
25 [www.pueblo.gsa.gov/press/-nfcpubs/fatguide.txt](http://www.pueblo.gsa.gov/press/-nfcpubs/fatguide.txt) (“The ‘bottom line’,” according to an FDA official is  
26 that we should be “removing as much of the saturated fat from our diet as we can. ... In a nutshell, that  
means eating fewer foods of animal origin, such as meat and whole-milk dairy products, and more plant  
foods such as vegetables and grains.”); Surgeon General’s Report on Nutrition and Health (Extracts),  
[www.mcspotlight.org/media/reports/surgen\\_rep.html](http://www.mcspotlight.org/media/reports/surgen_rep.html) (“[O]verconsumption of certain dietary components  
is now a major concern for Americans. ... [C]hief among them is the disproportionate consumption of  
foods high in fats, often at the expense of foods high in complex carbohydrates and fiber”); see also

1 Speech funded by the beef checkoff program simply furthers this confusion, selectively  
2 reproducing the government’s food pyramid while supposedly trying to increase the number of  
3 servings of beef consumed per household. And, ironically, the voluntary grading standards cited  
4 as underlying regulation, USDA Mem. at 30, encourage a message favoring high-fat beef that is  
5 at odds with the government’s message about nutrition. *Compare* USDA, Agric. Fact Book  
6 2000, [www.usda.gov/news/opubs/fbook00/factbook2000.pdf](http://www.usda.gov/news/opubs/fbook00/factbook2000.pdf), at 227 (beef graded “on attributes  
7 such as marbling (the amount of fat interspersed with lean meat), color, firmness, texture, and  
8 age” which are “a good indication of tenderness, juiciness, and flavor”), *with* Dietary Guidelines:  
9 Choose Sensibly, [www.health.gov/dietaryguidelines/dga2000/document/choose.htm](http://www.health.gov/dietaryguidelines/dga2000/document/choose.htm) (suggesting  
10 that restaurant-goers “[l]imit ground meat and fatty processed meats, marbled steaks, and  
11 cheese”). Far from showing an important government interest, the incoherence of overall  
12 government policy regarding meat consumption suggests the lack of a substantial interest in  
13 promoting such consumption as opposed to the consumption of other agricultural products.<sup>13</sup>

14 Even other checkoff programs directly contradict the claimed interest in increasing beef  
15 consumption. The pork checkoff’s promotion for “Pork – The Other White Meat” can be seen as  
16 nothing less than an attack on the consumption of “red” meat and an attempt to persuade  
17 consumers to shift their protein consumption from beef to pork.<sup>14</sup> That checkoff programs are

---

19 Surgeon Gen. Rep. on Nutrition and Health (Extracts), [www.mcspotlight.org/media/reports/-  
20 surgen\\_rep.html](http://www.mcspotlight.org/media/reports/-surgen_rep.html) (“the more likely problem [than undernutrition] has become one of overeating”; *id.*  
21 (“Average levels of protein consumption in the United States ... are well above the National Research  
22 Council’s recommendations”); USDA, The Food Guide Pyramid, [www.nal.usda.gov:8001/py/pmap.htm](http://www.nal.usda.gov:8001/py/pmap.htm)  
23 (grouping meat with poultry, fish, dry beans, eggs, and nuts; suggesting 2-3 servings of only 2-3 oz. each;  
24 and advising consumers to “try to pick the lowest fat choices from the food groups”); Dietary Guidelines:  
25 Choose Sensibly, [www.health.gov/dietaryguidelines/dga2000/document/choose.htm](http://www.health.gov/dietaryguidelines/dga2000/document/choose.htm) (in protein category  
26 (which includes meat) recommending people “[c]hoose dry beans, peas, or lentils often”).

<sup>13</sup> Lest there be any confusion, petitioners do not agree with the Food Pyramid and guidelines concerning meat and fat consumption. And they do not wish to support speech that touts those guidelines yet at the same time favors unwholesome pre-processed “convenience” beef.

<sup>14</sup> *See, e.g.*, Pork Rep., Summer 2001, [www.porkboard.org/PorkReport/Summer2001/-  
ReachingConsumersSUM2001.htm](http://www.porkboard.org/PorkReport/Summer2001/-ReachingConsumersSUM2001.htm) (“The Other White Meat campaign, launched in 1987, has helped consumers associate pork as a white meat. This is critical because 54% of consumers believe white meat

1 working at cross purposes undermines any claim that the government has a “substantial interest”  
2 in enhancing beef consumption specifically. See *Greater New Orleans Broadcasting*, 527 U.S.  
3 at 187 (“But we cannot ignore Congress' unwillingness to adopt a single national policy that  
4 consistently endorses either interest asserted by the Solicitor General.”).<sup>15</sup>

5 To the extent that there is any substantial government interest in this case at all, it is at  
6 best an interest in promoting U.S. agriculture *in toto*, not in promoting beef specifically. That  
7 beef is currently a large segment of U.S. agriculture is irrelevant insofar as variable patterns of  
8 beef consumption reflect only a shifting of market share within U.S. agriculture, and not a  
9 reduction of total U.S. agricultural consumption. And even as to a total agricultural interest, it is  
10 still not clear whether the government interest is in increasing the *volume* of food consumed and  
11 produced or in increasing the *profitability* of some or all agricultural producers. If the latter, then  
12 the government must seek far more than increased demand *per se*, but must seek increased prices  
13 and an increased profit margin as well. While demand increases may sometimes lead to such  
14 result, that is far from a necessary or predictable consequence, particularly in a market such as  
15 beef where there are no supply side controls, an open import market for beef, and where the

16  
17 is healthier, tastes good, has less fat, is leaner and their families like it.”); Pork Leader, Mar. 30, 2001,  
18 [www.porkboard.org/-Pork%20Leader/PorkLeader033001.html](http://www.porkboard.org/-Pork%20Leader/PorkLeader033001.html) (pork checkoff promotions have enabled  
19 some restaurants “to offer and price pork entrees to compete with beef offerings”); Pork Leader, Mar. 16,  
20 2001, [www.porkboard.org/Pork%20Leader/PorkLeader031601.html](http://www.porkboard.org/Pork%20Leader/PorkLeader031601.html) (pork checkoff has “started a new  
21 consumer communications strategy built on pork’s position as the alternative to chicken and beef”);  
22 National Pork Board News Release, June 7, 2001, [www.porkboard.org/-060701IncreasingDemand.html](http://www.porkboard.org/-060701IncreasingDemand.html)  
23 (“At the consumer level, pork competes with beef.”).

24  
25  
26  
<sup>15</sup> The government’s repeated references to the importance of beef to U.S. agriculture, USDA Mem. at 19-  
21, do not demonstrate a unique government interest in beef promotion. Virtually identical statements  
can be found regarding numerous commodities, including both mushrooms and pork. The purported beef  
interest is really just a subset of what is presumably an overall interest in the health of American  
agriculture in general, not a preference for beef over pork or vegetables. Given that all checkoff programs  
are (theoretically) subject to the vote of the relevant industry, the government itself does not even take a  
formal position on whether any particular checkoff program ought to exist, and hence cannot assert a  
substantial interest in any such checkoff program *per se*. Having abdicated the choice whether to have  
any given checkoff, the government’s interest might best be described as an interest in letting different  
commodities make their own choice whether to compel collective advertising and any incidental benefits

1 government's simultaneous efforts to create an efficient and competitive market for the benefit  
2 of consumers is likely to undermine any boost to profits from increased demand.

3         The government likewise fails to provide any evidence to suggest that the beef checkoff  
4 directly advances the supposed ends of the program, relying instead on bare assertions that must  
5 be subject to independent factual review by a court considering First Amendment claims. *See*  
6 *Bose Corp. v. Consumers Union of United States, Inc.*, 466 U.S. 485, 499 (1984) (in First  
7 Amendment cases “an appellate court has an obligation to ‘make an independent examination of  
8 the whole record’”) (citation omitted). But even assuming that the beef checkoff program  
9 increases consumer demand for beef, there is absolutely no evidence that it improves the lot of  
10 beef producers – rather than packers and stockyards or retailers – or has a net positive effect on  
11 U.S. agriculture overall. Regarding beef producers, the government offers no evidence that any  
12 increase in consumption leads to an increase in *profits* for producers, and even the USDA itself  
13 admits that it lacks such evidence when it explains how it objected to an advertising claim that  
14 the checkoff program increased profits. USDA Br. Exh. B ¶ 9 (rejecting proposed  
15 communication claiming increased sales “means increasing profits”).<sup>16</sup> Furthermore, if the real  
16 interest is in consumption of U.S. beef as opposed to foreign beef, the beef checkoff arguably  
17 undermines that goal by encouraging the consumption of beef imported by larger processors to  
18 the detriment of domestic beef. And lastly, if the interest is in promoting U.S. agriculture as a  
19 whole, which it seems to be, then beef promotion does nothing but attempt to shift market share

20  
21 perceived therefrom. But by not making that choice itself, the government offers distinctly tepid evidence  
22 regarding the strength of its own interest in such programs. Here inaction speaks louder than words.

23 <sup>16</sup> And as for the Ward study claiming that the beef checkoff increases demand, USDA Br. Exh. A2, the  
24 absence of any explanation of the underlying model and its numerous assumptions makes that dubious  
25 evidence at best and it will be subject to ample challenge in the event that it is even relevant on summary  
26 judgment. But even assuming the dollar multiplier suggested by Ward, the government neglects to note  
that such dollars represent *revenues*, not profits, and with a conservative assumption of a 10% profit  
margin in a competitive, high supply market, it would take a ten-to-one revenue impact just to break even.  
On the current record, therefore, the Ward study could just as easily show that the checkoff leads to a *net*  
*loss* of profits for beef producers, even if it increases demand and revenue.

1 away from competing agricultural products – such as chicken or pork – without any indication of  
2 an increase in total consumption of food. At most, therefore, the government is left to speculate  
3 whether the Beef Act directly advances whatever variation of government interest one might  
4 adopt. Such speculation is insufficient to satisfy the *Central Hudson* test. See *44 Liquormart*,  
5 517 U.S. at 507 (“any conclusion that elimination of the ban would significantly increase alcohol  
6 consumption would require us to engage in the sort of ‘speculation or conjecture’ that is an  
7 unacceptable means of demonstrating that a restriction on commercial speech directly advances  
8 the State’s asserted interest. *Edenfield*, 507 U.S. at 770.” (footnote omitted)); *Rubin*, 514 U.S.  
9 at 490 (Noting government’s “anecdotal evidence and educated guesses” regarding existence of  
10 problem and beneficial effect of law and concluding that those “various tidbits” “cannot  
11 overcome the irrationality of the regulatory scheme and the weight of the record”).

12 Finally, the centralized the message-generating function of the beef checkoff infringes on  
13 producers’ First Amendment rights far more than necessary to achieve any supposed government  
14 interest in beef promotion. The existing program is far more repressive than one that allowed all  
15 producers to choose the content of the promotions supported by their checkoff dollars – either by  
16 direct advertising themselves or through voluntary association with other producers having  
17 shared viewpoints on what to say and how to promote their products. Indeed, the current  
18 program goes beyond mere generic advertising and the viewpoint contained therein, and actually  
19 supports *branded* advertising, albeit with only a select group of beef processors. Forcing  
20 independent ranchers to not only subsidize their competitors through generic ads, but also  
21 through branded ads expressly touting those competitors, is a stunning burden on free speech.  
22 And any type of compelled promotion is far more restrictive of First Amendment rights than  
23 would be a program of direct economic regulations – *constitutionally* less intrusive and subject  
24 only to the rational basis test – that either restricted supply or compelled demand as a means of  
25 propping up the beef industry. Where there are obvious means of achieving the government’s

26

1 goals that involve either lesser or no restrictions on speech, the government fails the last element  
2 of the *Central Hudson* test. See *44 Liquormart*, 517 U.S. at 507 (“The State also cannot satisfy  
3 the requirement that its restriction on speech be no more extensive than necessary. It is perfectly  
4 obvious that alternative forms of regulation that would not involve any restriction on speech  
5 would be more likely to achieve the State’s goal of promoting temperance.”); *Rubin*, 514 U.S. at  
6 491 (“The FAAA’s defects are further highlighted by the availability of alternatives that would  
7 prove less intrusive to the First Amendment’s protections for commercial speech.”)

### 8 C. GOVERNMENT SPEECH

9 Perhaps recognizing that their other arguments are specious in light of *United Foods*, the  
10 government now places primary reliance – for the first time in the proceedings in this case – on  
11 the claim that the beef checkoff program, rather than being an industry *self*-help device, is  
12 instead *government* speech. USDA Mem. at 10-18. Such a claim has never been accepted in any  
13 appellate court, contradicts numerous other assertions by the government, and would not save the  
14 program under the First Amendment in any event.

#### 15 1. The Checkoff Program Is Not Government Speech.

16 The novel defense of government speech immunity rests on the dubious initial contention  
17 that the expression subsidized by the Beef Act is government speech because the Beef Board is a  
18 government agency supervised by the USDA. The only appellate court to consider this contention,  
19 however, has held to the contrary. In *Frame*, the Third Circuit accepted the government’s  
20 arguments regarding the close supervisory relationship between the Beef Board and the USDA, but  
21 nonetheless held that “the underlying rationale of the right to be free from compelled speech or  
22 association leads us to conclude that the compelled expressive activities mandated by the Beef  
23 Promotion Act are not properly characterized as ‘government speech.’” 885 F.2d at 1132. It  
24 reached that conclusion based upon several related factors distinguishing government speech from  
25 government-compelled support for speech. Those factors include: (1) the nexus between the  
26

1 expression and the person objecting thereto; (2) the attribution, or lack thereof, of the expression to  
2 the government; (3) the source of funding for such expression; and (4) the persons generating the  
3 content and viewpoint of the expression. As in *Frame*, each of those factors demonstrates that the  
4 expression subsidized by the Beef Act is not government speech.

5 Nexus to Objecting Party. In *Frame* the court held that there was a close nexus between  
6 expression under the Beef Act and objecting producers because “where the government requires a  
7 publicly identified group to contribute to a fund earmarked for the dissemination of a particular  
8 message associated with that group, the government has directly focused its coercive power for  
9 expressive purposes.” 885 F.2d at 1132.<sup>17</sup> The court also found that the “advertisements actually  
10 shown to the public reinforce the connection between the individual producer, the Cattlemen's  
11 Board, and the message itself.” *Id.* at 1133 n. 11. The nexus between producers and speech under  
12 the Beef Act also is confirmed by the legislative history of the Act, identifying it as a “self-help”  
13 program for the beef industry to spread its own message. *See id.* at 1122 (“This legislation was  
14 structured as a ‘self-help’ measure that would enable the beef industry to employ its own  
15 resources and *devise its own strategies* to increase beef sales, while simultaneously avoiding the  
16 intrusiveness of government regulation and the cost of government ‘handouts.’ *See* Report of  
17 Committee on Agriculture, Beef Research and Information Act, H.R.Rep. No. 452, 94th Cong.,  
18 1st Sess. 3 (1975).”) (emphasis added).<sup>18</sup> The same is true today. Indeed, current advertisements

---

21 <sup>17</sup> The court cited an earlier Third Circuit case discussing various student activity fees and their greater or  
22 lesser nexus to objecting students. 885 F.2d at 1132. Recently the Supreme Court decided *Board of*  
23 *Regents of the University of Wisconsin System v. Southworth* and found that *all* student activity fees  
used to fund speech had a sufficient nexus to trigger First Amendment scrutiny and imposed a viewpoint  
neutrality requirement on the use of such funds to support speech. 529 U.S. 217, 230 (2000). *Frame*'s  
nexus determination would thus be even stronger today than it was when the case was decided.

24 <sup>18</sup> *See also, Frame*, 885 F.2d at 1135 (“Congress intentionally structured this legislation as a ‘self-help’  
measure so as to ensure the support, and respect the integrity, of the independent American cattlemen.  
25 *See, e.g.,* 121 Cong. Rec. 38,116 (only ‘self-help’ legislation proper for industry not traditionally recipient  
of government subsidies) (statement of Sen. Hansen); 121 Cong. Rec. 31,439 (‘In keeping with their true  
26 free enterprise nature, cattlemen are asking only for enabling legislation’) (statement of Rep. Santini);

1 reflect a much more direct attribution – and hence nexus – to cattle producers and are designed in a  
2 way that plainly leads listeners to believe that they represent the views of the Nation’s cattlemen.  
3 *See, e.g.*, USDA Mem. Exh. B-2, at [3-4] (“Brought to you by the Nebraska beef producers through  
4 their beef checkoff”; “our beef checkoff”; “When you see promotions ... you’ll know that beef  
5 producers have teamed up with other segments of the food industry”; “You and I as cattle producers  
6 control the beef checkoff”; “half that money is directly controlled by Nebraska producers”).<sup>19</sup>

7 Non-Attribution to Government. As *Frame* recognized, the beef checkoff materials contain  
8 no “mention of the Secretary or the Department of Agriculture, thus failing to communicate that  
9 the advertisements are funded through a government program.” 885 F.2d at 1133 n. 11. Indeed,  
10 nowhere does the checkoff program *ever* attribute the views it expresses to the government, instead  
11 attributing them to beef producers. Unlike the views on nutrition and health expressed by the  
12 Surgeon General, the FDA, or the USDA, listeners have no basis for recognizing that they are  
13 (purportedly) being subjected to government propaganda rather than the claimed private views of  
14 beef producers. The lack of government attribution alone is sufficient to reject the claim that the  
15 expression in this case is government speech. Indeed, if it were government speech, it would be a  
16 most insidious form of covert domestic propaganda masquerading as private speech and would  
17 grossly offend the First Amendment. *See infra* part II.C.2.

18 Exclusive Funding by Discrete Group. The *Frame* court also found particularly significant  
19 the fact that the checkoff program was funded only by producers, and not by general tax revenues.

---

21 121 Cong.Rec. 31,448 (1975) (statement of Sen. Baucus) (Montana ranchers historically unwilling to  
22 accept government handouts or interference).”).

23 <sup>19</sup> *See also* USDA Mem. Exh. A-1, at [7] (copyright attribution to NCBA and Beef Board); *id.* at 9 (“Funded  
24 by Beef Producers”; “Produced for the Cattlemen’s Beef Board and State Beef Councils”); Certified Record  
25 (“R.”) at 748 (describing NCBA reorganization as establishing a “new, unified industry-organization  
26 structure, focusing industry resources – both checkoff and dues resources – around a single long range plan”);  
*id.* at 749 (“The new structure means that, for the first time, we will speak with one voice on beef issues; ...  
we will be able to focus all available resources around a single long range plan, with a single set of objectives  
and priorities”); *id.* at 753, 754, 756, 757, 761 (NCBA “is the marketing organization and trade association  
for America’s one million cattle farmers and ranchers”).

1 This sort of funding scheme, with its close nexus between the individual and the  
2 message funded, more closely resembles the *Abood* situation, where the unions, as  
3 exclusive bargaining agents, served as the locutors for a distinguishable segment  
4 of the population, *i.e.*, the employees, or the *Wooley* case, where the state  
5 “require[d] an individual to participate in the dissemination of an ideological  
6 message by displaying it on his property in a manner and for the express purpose  
7 that it be observed and read by the public,” 430 U.S. at 713, regardless of whether  
8 the state-issued license plates constituted “government speech.”  
9 885 F.2d at 1132-33. This selective funding illustrates that the views do not belong to the  
10 government where the speakers are accountable to those funding the program rather than to the  
11 taxpayers. *Cf.* Facts About Checkoffs, [www.beefboard.org/organization/facts.htm](http://www.beefboard.org/organization/facts.htm) (“Each  
12 checkoff program is supported entirely by its funders. NO TAXPAYER OR GOVERNMENT  
13 FUNDS ARE INVOLVED.”); *id.* (“Checkoffs are funded entirely by their respective industries,  
14 NOT by taxpayers or government agencies. Checkoff programs operate much like corporate  
15 businesses, with oversight by the federal government to ensure program accountability.”)

16 Content and Viewpoint Generation. As the *Frame* court correctly recognized, speech  
17 generated under the beef checkoff program does not express the views of the government as  
18 representative of its citizens, but rather the views of

19 an entity “representative of one segment of the population, with certain common  
20 interests.” Members of the Cattlemen’s Board and the Operating Committee,  
21 though appointed by the Secretary, are not government officials, but rather,  
22 individuals from the private sector. The pool of nominees from which the  
23 Secretary selects Board members, moreover, are determined by private beef  
24 industry organizations from the various states. Furthermore, the State  
25 organizations eligible to participate in Board nominations are those ... whose  
26 “primary or overriding purpose is to promote the economic welfare of cattle  
27 producers.” 7 U.S.C. § 2905(b)(3) & (4).

28 885 F.2d at 1133. The checkoff program itself confirms that content generation remains a  
29 function of private, not government, decisions. *See* Facts About Checkoffs, [www.beefboard.org/-  
30 organization/facts.htm](http://www.beefboard.org/-organization/facts.htm) (“A checkoff is directed by its funders and managed by a professional staff.  
31 Funders are responsible for allocating funds and approving business plans and programs.”); *id.*  
32 (“These programs are similar to businesses funded by shareholders (producers, processors, handlers,  
33 importers, etc.) with a board of directors that is accountable to the shareholders.”).

1 As for the supposed editorial oversight by the USDA, such review does not convert private  
2 speech into government speech. Rather, it casts the government into the unconstitutional role of  
3 censor. The USDA does not claim to create the content of views expressed, but rather it claims to  
4 exercise a wholly negative role, restricting selective content here or there within the very broad  
5 parameters of the Beef Act. But censorial control does not make the government the speaker. If it  
6 did, the government would then become the speaker every time it imposed viewpoint restrictions on  
7 communications in a government-created forum and vast swaths of First Amendment jurisprudence  
8 would be meaningless. Speech emerging from government review does not become the  
9 government's simply because it gets to say whether or not a particular message is appropriate.  
10 Rather, as *Frame* concluded, "the Secretary's extensive supervision ... does not transform this  
11 self-help program for the beef industry into 'government speech.'" 885 F.2d at 1133.

12 Other Considerations. In addition to failing the *Frame* factors, the government's reliance on  
13 *Lebron v. National Railroad Passenger Corp.*, 513 U.S. 374 (1995), for the claim that the Beef  
14 Board is a government speaker is strikingly misplaced. In *Lebron*, the question was not whether  
15 Amtrak was a government entity for purposes of spreading a government message or enjoying  
16 government immunities, but rather whether Amtrak was sufficiently governmental to trigger the  
17 state-action doctrine and expose it to the *constraints* of the Constitution. Indeed, the government  
18 had denied that Amtrak was a government agent, and the Court recognized that such disavowal  
19 "deprives Amtrak of sovereign immunity" and the power to "pledge the credit of the United States"  
20 513 U.S. at 392. But the state-action question, and the constitutional limits arising therefrom, are  
21 analytically distinct. "The Constitution constrains governmental action 'by whatever instrumentss  
22 or in whatever modes that action may be taken.'" *Id.* (citation omitted). Thus, while the coerced  
23 support for speech in *Abood* was government action for the purposes of First Amendment  
24 constraints, it most certainly was not, therefor, entitled to any supposed privilege for government  
25 speech. So too here. As in *Lebron*, the USDA's involvement is plainly sufficient to trigger state-

26

1 action and hence constitutional scrutiny; but it does not confer any supposed government-speech  
2 immunity on the expression supported by the checkoff program.

3 Finally, cases from the Supreme Court dealing with government-created fora demonstrate  
4 why government supervision is not a hallmark of government speech. In *Board of Regents of*  
5 *the University of Wisconsin System v. Southworth*, the distribution of student activity fees  
6 contained numerous substantive restrictions on the type of expressive activity to be funded, a  
7 restriction on lobbying, and was subject to “consultation with” and “final confirmation of”  
8 school officials. 529 U.S. 217, 222, 225-26 (2000). But the University’s “justification for  
9 fostering the challenged expression” – like the justification for the beef checkoff – was that “it  
10 springs from the initiative of the students, who alone give it purpose and content,” subject to the  
11 overall limitations imposed by the University. *Id.* at 229. Despite the University’s control of the  
12 parameters of program, therefore, the Supreme Court held that the “standard of viewpoint  
13 neutrality found in the public forum cases” was “controlling.” *Id.* at 230. Likewise in *Legal*  
14 *Services Corporation v. Velazquez*, the Legal Services program involved a government-created  
15 and funded entity, substantial restrictions on the subject matter of the speech to be funded, and  
16 plenty of oversight. 531 U.S. 533, --, 121 S. Ct. 1043, 1046-47 (2001). But again, like the  
17 checkoff program, it was designed to fund speech and speakers “to represent the interests” of a  
18 particular group the government sought to help. *Id.* at --, 121 S. Ct. at 1049. The Legal Services  
19 program “was designed to facilitate private speech, not promote a governmental message,” *id.*,  
20 and in that sense is materially indistinguishable from the beef checkoff program.

21 The speech that petitioners are forced to subsidize in this case is not government speech  
22 at all, but rather government-facilitated private speech subject to the test set out in *United Foods*.

## 23 **2. Government Speech Is Subject to First Amendment Scrutiny.**

24 Even assuming that the beef checkoff communications were to be characterized as  
25 government speech, they would still run afoul of the First Amendment. Where individuals are  
26

1 compelled to subsidize the expression of viewpoints with which they disagree, the First  
2 Amendment test is the same regardless of whether the speaker being subsidized is a third party  
3 favored by the government or the government itself.

4 The government falsely claims that it is “long settled that the First Amendment does not  
5 constrain the government’s ability to engage in speech of its own,” regardless of funding source.  
6 USDA Mem. at 10. In fact, however, the Supreme Court has *never* so held, and the government  
7 relies exclusively on *dicta* for its novel assault on the First Amendment. For example, in  
8 ***Southworth*** the University expressly disavowed any government-speech defense, leading the  
9 Supreme Court to state that the “University having disclaimed that the speech is its own, *we do*  
10 *not reach the question* whether traditional political controls to ensure responsible government  
11 action would be sufficient to overcome First Amendment objections and to allow the challenged  
12 program under the principle that the government can speak for itself.” 529 U.S. at 229  
13 (emphasis added).<sup>20</sup> Any commentary on the government’s purported right to advocate its  
14 policies was admittedly unnecessary to the decision and thus classic *dicta*.

15 In ***Rosenberger v. Rector & Visitors of the University of Virginia***, the Supreme Court  
16 squarely rejected the notion that the University itself was speaking or subsidizing its own  
17 preferred message and instead held that the University was “e xpend[ing] funds to encourage a  
18 diversity of views from private speakers.” 515 U.S. 819, 834 (1995). Again, commentary on  
19 what rules might apply to government speech was unnecessary to the decision and advisory.<sup>21</sup>

---

21  
22 <sup>20</sup> This passage does not claim that government speech is immune from First Amendment scrutiny, as the  
23 government now claims, but rather notes that it is an unresolved “question” whether political checks alone  
24 are “sufficient to overcome First Amendment objections” to viewpoint-discriminatory university speech.  
If anything, the passage seems to recognize that the First Amendment at a minimum *applies* to such  
government speech and leaves open how the First Amendment might be satisfied.

25 <sup>21</sup> The government’s citation, USDA Mem. at 11, to a concurring opinion in ***Lathrop v. Donohue***, 367  
26 U.S. 820, 857 (1961) (Harlan, J., concurring in the judgment), is self-evidently non-authoritative, as are  
its citation, USDA Mem. at 18, to the concurring commentary in ***Abood***, 431 U.S. at 259 n.13 (Powell, J.,  
concurring in the judgment). And the repetition of the ***Southworth dicta*** in ***Velazquez***, discussed *supra* in

1           And in *Keller v. State Bar of California*, the Supreme Court referred to the respondent’s  
2 argument as the “so-called ‘government speech’ doctrine” and then, after describing many  
3 characteristics of the bar that are equally applicable to the Beef Board – funding from members  
4 rather than government, membership limited to those in a single profession, not created to  
5 participate in the general government of the state -- squarely held that the speech at issue was not  
6 government speech and thus “subject to the same constitutional rule with respect to the use of  
7 compulsory dues as are labor unions representing public and private employees.” 496 U.S. 1, 10.  
8 12-13 (1990). Thus, not only was any discussion in *Keller* about possible immunities for  
9 government speech simply *dicta*, the case also strongly contradicts the government’s claim in  
10 this case that the Beef Board engages in government speech in the first place.

11           The essential point here is that, far from there being a “long established” government-  
12 speech exception to the First Amendment, the Supreme Court has *never held* that government  
13 speech is immune from First Amendment scrutiny. While there is admittedly *dicta* opining on  
14 the topic, petitioners respectfully suggest that such *dicta* issued without benefit of a genuine  
15 adversarial clash on the issue must be viewed with skepticism, particularly where the reasoning  
16 of such *dicta* self-evidently conflicts with core First Amendment principles established in  
17 numerous Supreme Court holdings.

18           In considering the novel proposition that compelled support for government speech – as  
19 opposed to government conduct – is subject to lesser or no First Amendment scrutiny, it is useful  
20 to begin by reviewing some bedrock First Amendment principles relevant to the inquiry.

21           It is a central First Amendment principle that the “freedom of speech” includes the  
22 complementary freedoms from both the restriction and compulsion of expression. As the  
23 Supreme Court recognized in *Riley v. National Federation of the Blind*, while “[t]here is  
24

25 connection with the narrow scope of government speech, is likewise only *dicta* following the recognition  
26 that none of the parties ever asserted a government speech defense in that case.

1 certainly some difference between compelled speech and compelled silence, \* \* \* in the context  
2 of protected speech, *the difference is without constitutional significance*, for the First  
3 Amendment guarantees ‘freedom of speech,’ a term necessarily comprising the decision of both  
4 what to say and what *not* to say.” 487 U.S. 781, 796-97 (1988) (emphasis added). In *Abood*,  
5 this Court likewise recognized such First Amendment equivalence as to monetary contributions  
6 in support of e xpression, holding that the “fact that the appellants are compelled to make, rather  
7 than prohibited from making, contributions for political purposes works no less an infringement  
8 of their constitutional rights.” 431 U.S. at 234.

9       The fundamental objection to government regulation of speech – whether by prohibition  
10 or by compulsion – is that it coercively manipulates public opinion:

11           Government action that stifles speech on account of its message, or that requires  
12 the utterance of a particular message favored by the Government ... pose[s] the  
13 inherent risk that the Government seeks not to advance a legitimate regulatory  
14 goal, but to suppress unpopular ideas or information *or manipulate the public  
debate through coercion rather than persuasion.*

14 *Turner Broadcasting Sys., Inc. v. FCC*, 512 U.S. 622, 641 (1994) (emphasis added). Such  
15 government manipulation is constitutionally objectionable because at “the heart of the First  
16 Amendment lies the principle that each person should decide for him or herself the ideas and  
17 beliefs deserving of expression, consideration, and adherence. Our political system and cultural  
18 life rest upon this ideal.” *Id.* While the government certainly has the authority to take numerous  
19 *actions* based upon prevailing points of view, such authority does not extend to manipulating  
20 public opinion. Rather, “[a]uthority here is to be controlled by public opinion, not public opinion  
21 by authority.” *West Virginia State Bd. of Educ. v. Barnette*, 319 U.S. 624, 641 (1943).

22       The concern that public opinion – the “public mind” – remain free from manipulation by  
23 the government retains force regardless of whether such manipulation is attempted by restriction  
24 or compulsion of speech:

25           The First Amendment mandates that we presume that speakers, not the  
26 government, know best both what they want to say and how to say it. \* \* \* “The  
very purpose of the First Amendment is to foreclose public authority from

1 assuming a guardianship of the public mind through regulating the press, speech,  
2 and religion.” *Thomas v. Collins*, 323 U.S. 516, 545 (1945) (Jackson, J.,  
3 concurring). To this end, the government, even with the purest of motives, may  
not substitute its judgment as to how best to speak for that of speakers and  
listeners; free and robust debate cannot thrive if directed by the government.

4 *Riley*, 487 U.S. at 790-91. Tilting the playing field of ideas, whether through compelled  
5 subtraction or compelled addition of particular viewpoints, necessarily clashes with the First  
6 Amendment. There is little constitutional difference between the government placing its thumb  
7 on the scale via a viewpoint-discriminatory, though moderate, burden on disfavored speech or  
8 via a viewpoint-discriminatory benefit amplifying the voice of the favored side of a debate. In  
9 both instances the debate continues, but it does so under the government’s terms and direction.<sup>22</sup>

10 With these basic First Amendment principles in mind, we can examine the government’s  
11 thin reliance on *dicta* for the erroneous proposition that government speech is immune from First  
12 Amendment scrutiny. The government places primary reliance upon a passage from *Southworth*  
13 purportedly stating that the government is entitled to engage in “ ‘speech and other expression to  
14 advocate and defend its own policies.’ ” USDA Mem. at 10 (*quoting* 529 U.S. at 229). The  
15 government’s redacted passage from *Southworth* is, of course, *dicta* and the unredacted version  
16 is decidedly less conclusive regarding any supposed government speech rights:

17 It is inevitable that government will adopt and pursue programs and policies  
18 within its constitutional powers but which nevertheless are contrary to the  
19 profound beliefs and sincere convictions of some of its citizens. The government,  
20 as a general rule, may support valid programs and policies by taxes or other  
21 exactions binding on protesting parties. Within this broader principle it seems  
inevitable that funds raised by the government will be spent for speech and other  
expression to advocate and defend its own policies. *See, e.g., Rust v. Sullivan*,  
500 U.S. 173 (1991); *Regan v. Taxation With Representation of Wash.*, 461  
U.S. 540, 548-549 (1983).

---

22  
23 <sup>22</sup> Even absent complete suppression of particular views, the First Amendment is offended by efforts to  
24 skew public debate. *See, e.g., First Nat’l Bank of Boston v. Bellotti*, 435 U.S. 765, 785-86 (1978)  
25 (where speech restriction “suggests an attempt to give one side of a debatable public question an  
26 advantage in expressing its views to the people, the First Amendment is plainly offended”) (footnote  
omitted); *Buckley v. Valeo*, 424 U.S. 1, 48-49 (1976) (“the concept that government may restrict the  
speech of some elements of our society in order to enhance the relative voice of others is wholly foreign  
to the First Amendment”).

1 529 U.S. at 229. But noting that it “seems” inevitable for the government to speak in support of  
2 its substantive programs does not mean that every instance of government speech is inevitable or  
3 acceptable even then. Furthermore, even *Southworth’s* more restrained suggestion of a potential  
4 government-speech doctrine turns on a mistaken parallel between government conduct and  
5 government advocacy. The error in that *dicta* is that it overlooks the constitutional fact that  
6 *speech is different* from conduct, and the government may not act in the speech arena as freely as  
7 it may with regards to conduct. That is the essential lesson of the First Amendment. Indeed, the  
8 very existence of this difference is both the substantive assumption and the legal consequence of  
9 the First Amendment. While the government may certainly adopt controversial policies opposed  
10 by a current minority, it may not properly tilt the marketplace of ideas to ensure continued public  
11 support for its programs or to counter a current minority’s efforts to change public opinion.  
12 Government’s role is to obey the changing popular will, not to play rearguard to give  
13 permanence to a temporal majority viewpoint.<sup>23</sup>

14 In the end, the relevant constitutional equivalence is not between government conduct  
15 and government speech, but rather between government speech and government-coerced support  
16 for third-party speech. The latter two raise the same concerns of government manipulation of the  
17 marketplace of ideas, viewpoint discrimination, and compelled support for objectionable  
18 advocacy. As Justice Scalia has observed regarding viewpoint discrimination in government  
19 *support* for third-party speech, to instead have speech “directly involving the government itself  
20 in viewpoint discrimination (if it is unconstitutional) would make the situation even worse.”  
21 *NEA v. Finley*, 524 U.S. 569, 598 (1998) (concurring in the judgment). While Justice Scalia

---

22  
23 <sup>23</sup> The notion that it is “the very business of government to favor and disfavor points of view,” *NEA v.*  
24 *Finley*, 524 U.S. 569, 598 (1998) (Scalia, J., concurring in the judgment), is correct insofar as favored  
25 views are implemented through regulation of *conduct* rather than speech. But it is surely *not* the business  
26 of government to attempt to shape the public’s views (or worse yet, entrench a currently fashionable  
view) rather than respond to such views while leaving them to evolve without governmental  
manipulation.

1 would allow viewpoint discrimination in *both* circumstances, the Supreme Court has imposed  
2 significant First Amendment limits on such discrimination in the subsidies and compelled-  
3 support contexts and such limits likewise must apply in the government speech context.<sup>24</sup>

4 One of the most telling arguments in favor of First Amendment limits on government  
5 speech comes indirectly from Justice Scalia himself, who allows that “it would be  
6 unconstitutional for the government to give money to an organization devoted to the promotion  
7 of candidates nominated by the Republican Party” and that “it would be just as unconstitutional  
8 for the government itself to promote candidates nominated by the Republican Party,” though he  
9 denies that such “unconstitutionality has anything to do with the First Amendment.” *Finley*, 524  
10 U.S. at 598 n. 3 (concurring in the judgment). But no other source of unconstitutionality is  
11 readily apparent. And other Justices who have recognized constitutional difficulties with such  
12 openly partisan government speech have expressly identified the First Amendment as the source  
13 of those difficulties. *See International Ass’n of Machinists v. Street*, 367 U.S. 740, 788 (1961)  
14 (Black, J., dissenting) (quoting the First Amendment and then stating: “Probably no one would  
15 suggest that Congress could, without violating this Amendment, pass a law taxing workers, or  
16 any persons for that matter (even lawyers), to create a fund to be used in helping certain political  
17 parties or groups favored by the Government to elect their candidates or promote their  
18 controversial causes. Compelling a man by law to pay his money to elect candidates or advocate

---

19  
20 <sup>24</sup> Justice Powell’s unsupported observation in his separate opinion in *Abood* that “[c]ompelled support of  
21 a private association is fundamentally different from compelled support of government,” 431 U.S. at 259  
22 n.13 (Powell, J., concurring in the judgment), seems plainly incorrect in the context of *non*-expressive  
23 activities. While there perhaps ought to be some difference, petitioners are unaware of cases imposing a  
24 greater burden on government accomplishing a particular action directly or through the use of and  
25 payment to third parties. While third parties receiving funding for controversial conduct may be  
26 “representative of only one segment of the population,” *id.*, the decision to fund the non-speech activities  
of such parties is still made by the government just as much as if the government used its own agents to  
conduct the same activities. Furthermore, even if support for compelled *activity* by private organizations  
were more suspect than compelled support for direct government activity, the First Amendment inverts  
such suspicions in the context of expressive activity and association and government involvement in  
expressive choices makes matters worse, not better.

1 laws or doctrines he is against differs only in degree, if at all, from compelling him by law to  
2 speak for a candidate, a party, or a cause he is against. The very reason for the First Amendment  
3 is to make the people of this country free to think, speak, write and worship as they wish, not as  
4 the Government commands.”); *Lathrop*, 367 U.S. at 853 (Harlan, J., concurring in the judgment)  
5 (agreeing that neither a state nor the federal government could “ ‘create a fund to be used in  
6 helping certain political parties or groups favored’ by it ‘to elect their candidates or promote their  
7 controversial causes’ ” (quoting *Street* dissent)).<sup>25</sup>

8 One staple of the purported government-speech doctrine is the citation to *Rust v.*  
9 *Sullivan*. See, e.g., *Southworth*, 529 U.S. at 229; *Finley*, 524 U.S. at 597 (Scalia, J., concurring  
10 in the judgment). In *Rust*, however, the issue of government speech was not necessary to the  
11 decision. Indeed, the Supreme Court recently recognized that *Rust* did not rely upon a claim that  
12 the government-financed medical activities at issue constituted government speech. *Velazquez*,  
13 531 U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 1048-49; see also *id.* at --, 121 S. Ct. at 1055-56 (Scalia, J.,  
14 dissenting) (noting that the speaker in *Rust* was not the government). *Rust*’s observation about  
15 the government’s ability “to fund one activity to the exclusion of” another, 500 U.S. at 193,  
16 views the activity in question as conduct, and does not address the different issues raised by the  
17 viewpoint-discriminatory funding of speech. As noted previously, however, *speech is different*.<sup>26</sup>

---

18  
19 <sup>25</sup> That the example involves political speech rather than commercial speech carries no dispositive weight  
20 given that the First Amendment protects both, albeit to a potentially greater or lesser degree. Petitioners’  
21 point is merely that compelled support for speech – whether such speech is made by the government or by  
22 third parties selected by the government – should be subject to the same scrutiny as restrictions on like  
speech. The degree of scrutiny may vary with the type of speech at issue, but the initial applicability of  
the First Amendment remains constant throughout.

23 <sup>26</sup> And even if the medical services funding addressed in *Rust* were viewed as support for mixed speech  
24 and conduct, it would fit neatly into the analytic paradigm established in the *Abood* line of cases. The  
25 program in *Rust* thus might well survive the germaneness analysis insofar as the only speech authorized  
26 was that necessary to provide the medical *services* being funded. In that context, the restriction on using  
government funded activities for abortion-related speech was not only permissible under the First  
Amendment, it was likely *required* by the First Amendment. Because Title X funds could not be used to  
provide abortion services, any speech promoting such services would not have been germane to the  
*conduct* properly funded by the government, and hence would have been an impermissible use of public

1           Some activities supposedly involving government speech, such as course selection at  
2 public universities, may pose a unique situation requiring somewhat different analysis than  
3 government advocacy to the public at large. Both *Southworth* and *Rosenberger* appear to have  
4 been moved to comment on government speech in order to dispel any implication that public  
5 universities might somehow be constrained in selecting their offerings or that academics might  
6 somehow be forced to offer viewpoint-neutral courses. That concern is legitimate, but does not  
7 support a government speech doctrine untethered to the unique concerns of the university  
8 environment, and may not be sufficient in any event to overcome First Amendment objections.  
9 But a public university’s potential claims to being a market participant in the educational  
10 context, its traditions of academic freedom and independence, and the ready choice among a  
11 variety of schools within the public system offer no support for the type of government advocacy  
12 at issue in this case, which shares none of those potentially distinguishing features.

13           This case also does not raise the same practical issues as when government acts in a  
14 proprietary manner as a consumer of, for example, art to put up in its own buildings, where it  
15 might have greater leeway than if it were purchasing art to inculcate a particular viewpoint  
16 among the public. Likewise, when the government is selling some product – surplus cheese,  
17 perhaps – the First Amendment would pose little obstacle to its advertising just as any other  
18 seller would. Such speech would be germane in that it is incidental to the accomplishment of  
19 permissible government conduct and is necessary to such conduct.<sup>27</sup>

---

22 funds to support speech. The case ultimately was about what speech government chose *not* to fund, and  
23 upheld the government’s properly chosen restraint. *Rust* thus easily fits within a framework subjecting  
24 government speech to the same First Amendment standards as viewpoint-based government-compelled  
support for third-party speech.

25 <sup>27</sup> Indeed, if the government actually did collectivize the beef industry and itself purchased all cattle and  
26 beef for resale then promotional advertising incidental to the government’s sale of such beef would likely  
be acceptable if the underlying collectivization were valid.

1           Finally, regardless of whether there are sufficient political checks on other forms of  
2 conduct by the government, First Amendment protection of the freedom of speech is not  
3 subservient to such political processes:

4           The very purpose of a Bill of Rights was to withdraw certain subjects from the  
5 vicissitudes of political controversy, to place them beyond the reach of majorities  
6 and officials and to establish them as legal principles to be applied by the courts.  
7 One’s right to life, liberty, and property, to free speech, a free press, freedom of  
8 worship and assembly, and other fundamental rights may not be submitted to  
9 vote; they depend on the outcome of no elections.

8       *Barnette*, 319 U.S. at 638. If political checks are inadequate to replace the First Amendment  
9 where the government chooses to compel a dissenting minority to support third-party speech,  
10 there is no reason why such checks suffice when the government avoids the middleman and  
11 coerces support for the same speech out of the government’s own mouth. In both instances the  
12 First Amendment should provide the same protection and the same heightened scrutiny.

### 13       **III.    IRREPARABLE INJURY**

14           The government claims that there is no irreparable injury because there is no “chilling  
15 effect” from the First Amendment violations raised in this case, because petitioners must only  
16 pay money and are not forced to nor prohibited from speaking, and because there is no evidence  
17 that they will sell any cattle before trial. USDA Mem. at 6-7. Those objections are frivolous.  
18 Each of the cases cited by the government regarding a chilling effect involve situations where a  
19 “chill” was being alleged. And in *Hohe v. Casey*, 868 F.2d 69, 72 (3d Cir.), *cert. denied*, 493  
20 U.S. 848 (1989), cited by the government, the reason there was no injury was that the union had  
21 voluntarily established an escrow much like the one sought here. This case, of course, does not  
22 involve a restriction of that sort, but raises a direct and immediate infringement on petitioners’  
23 First Amendment rights. As the Supreme Court held in *United Foods*, “First Amendment  
24 concerns apply here because of the requirement that producers subsidize speech with which they  
25  
26

1 disagree.” -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2338.<sup>28</sup> Furthermore, a direct burden on First Amendment  
2 rights exists also in that petitioners are already being forced to support speech through a “loan”  
3 in the form of past unconstitutional assessments. Pet. Mem. at 12-13. And even aside from the  
4 financial-support component, the continuing creation of objectionable speech that is attributed to  
5 petitioners via the checkoff program’s claim to speak for all beef producers constitutes an  
6 ongoing injury of false attribution, not unlike that at issue in *Wooley v. Maynard*, 430 U.S. 705,  
7 717 (1977) (First Amendment violated where individuals prevented from taping over State motto  
8 on license plate, even though presence of motto was costless). That the government has not  
9 imposed further impositions on petitioners’ rights through prohibitions or compulsions of  
10 personal speech does not alter or excuse the constitutional violations that *are* being committed.  
11 *United Foods*, -- U.S. at --, 121 S. Ct. at 2339 (lack of personal compulsion to “utter speech”  
12 does not eliminate violation).

13 As for the disingenuous claim of ignorance over whether petitioners will even sell cattle  
14 and pay checkoff fees prior to trial, the government is fully aware that petitioners are, and have  
15 long been, full-time ranchers, they bring their cattle to market every year (generally in March),  
16 and have paid their checkoff fees both before and after the two instances of withholding that  
17 triggered the administrative proceeding in this case.<sup>29</sup> It is fully within the government’s  
18 knowledge and records that the Charters have continued to sell cattle and pay the checkoff, albeit  
19 under protest up to the present time. While petitioners believe it unnecessary to demonstrate  
20 more, if the government chooses to continue its charade of ignorance, and the Court deems it

---

22 <sup>28</sup> And if a “chill” were necessary, certainly the heavy fines the government seeks to impose in this case,  
23 plus the threat of even more draconian future fines against any further exercise of petitioners’ right to  
withhold support for objectionable speech, would provide such a “chill.”

24 <sup>29</sup> See R. at 619-20 (Testimony of Steve Charter: “Q. You had paid the checkoff before these two  
25 incidents, correct? A. Yes. Q. Okay. Have you paid if after those two incidents? A. That’s right. ... A.  
26 Well, basically, is, you know, we want to pursue this and this is really important to us, but I don’t want to  
-- I am not -- I don’t want to just completely go broke over the deal. I mean, I guess I want to live to fight  
another day, if I can.”).

1 necessary, petitioners will happily provide an affidavit. But even aside from future sales, there is  
2 still present and continuing injury from unrefunded past assessments and from continuing  
3 producer-attribution of checkoff speech.

#### 4 **IV. REMEDY**

5 The government effectively concedes that an escrow order for assessments from  
6 petitioners themselves would be an appropriate remedy if the other elements for a preliminary  
7 injunction were met. USDA Br. at 32, 35-36. It makes a faint attempt to argue that such portion  
8 of any assessments that go for research and health matters should not be escrowed, but ignores  
9 that petitioners object to the viewpoints being promoted by those expressive activities as well,  
10 particularly where the research is being conducted for the purposes of generating advertisements  
11 and other producer or consumer information. This effort is part and parcel of the objectionable  
12 expressive activities no less than is research by a public relations or advertising firm in  
13 preparation for a media blitz or an ad campaign. In any event, the government's own figures,  
14 USDA Br. at 9 nn. 3-4, suggest that the \$32 million spent over the past 14 years on things such  
15 as health and nutrition, even if exempted, account for less than 3% of the \$87 million per year  
16 checkoff collections.

17 As for previous amounts paid by petitioners, the government wrongly asserts that  
18 petitioners may only seek amounts covered by the administrative collection proceeding. That is  
19 incorrect. The amended complaint – to which the government did not object – goes beyond a  
20 mere challenge to the collection action and includes affirmative claims for declaratory and  
21 injunctive relief and reimbursement of past payments. There is no basis for restricting such relief  
22 to an offset of the underlying collection. The government's claim of waiver is equally  
23 unavailing. Their objection to the checkoff assessment has been unmistakable since at least  
24 1997, when they risked heavy penalties by refusing to pay some of the assessment. And there is  
25 no basis for finding waiver of constitutional rights simply because it took time to mount a  
26

1 challenge. If the Beef Board had established a procedure whereby objection would lead to  
2 escrow and remittance – as required in the union context – perhaps silence could be construed as  
3 waiver. But where objection to the assessments has led to nothing but harrassment and punitive  
4 sanctions, earlier silence does not amount to waiver or entitle the Beef Board to keep  
5 unconstitutional gains. The government’s final passing suggestion of sovereign immunity is  
6 disingenuous given that petitioners are not asking for government money, but rather for  
7 reimbursement from checkoff funds. The USDA would pay nothing itself, but rather would, in  
8 its oversight role, direct the Beef Board to escrow the funds. The government cites nothing to  
9 show that Congress has conferred sovereign immunity on the Beef Board. Indeed, the Ninth  
10 Circuit has already rejected such claimed immunity regarding refunds of assessments paid to a  
11 checkoff board. *See Cal-Almond, Inc. v. Department of Agriculture*, 67 F.3d 874, 878 n. 1 (9<sup>th</sup>  
12 Cir. 1995) (“The USDA does not, and indeed could not, contend that refund of assessments paid  
13 to the Board would be damages and therefore barred by sovereign immunity.”) ( *citing Wileman*  
14 *Bros. & Elliott, Inc. v. Espy*, 58 F.3d 1367, 1386 (9<sup>th</sup> Cir.1995). Escrowing the amounts  
15 previously paid by petitioners is thus an appropriate way of ensuring that the funds are available  
16 and not subject to obstruction by the Beef Board at the close of the suit.

17       Turning to petitioners’ request for broader relief restricting expenditures and escrowing  
18 other funds in the Board’s possession or control, the government denies petitioners’ standing to  
19 seek such relief and invokes a parade of doubtful horrors as to the consequences for the public  
20 interest. Regarding standing, petitioners have already noted the injury to them from false  
21 attribution of checkoff speech to all cattle producers. That First Amendment injury is  
22 independent of petitioners’ financial contribution and gives them standing to challenge the entire  
23 program. Furthermore, in the First Amendment context, litigants do have standing to assert the  
24 rights of parties not before the court – that is the very essence of an overbreadth challenge and  
25 the same reasoning applies here. Finally, given the large numbers of individuals and

26

1 membership organizations seeking to intervene, the Court has ample reason to fashion a broader  
2 remedy and to allow further intervention if necessary to let additional parties take advantage of  
3 that remedy.

4 As to the parade of horrors regarding shutting down the program, the Court can easily  
5 craft an injunction that would mitigate such problems and at the same time offer ample relief.  
6 For example, the Court could require the escrow of funds (both prospectively and with a  
7 multiplier for potential reimbursement) only for those producers who so request on their  
8 checkoff forms. Insofar as the government's claims of wide support are true, that should leave  
9 ample voluntary funds coming in to sustain the program in its essentials and avoid contractual  
10 problems. As for all operations with the remaining funds, the injunction could simply prohibit  
11 them from being spent on speech attributed to all cattle producers. A simple statement on all  
12 future checkoff communications stating that they are brought to you by some of the nation's  
13 cattlemen who have voluntarily associated for that purpose would not only mitigate the  
14 attribution problem, it would make the speech truthful. There is no palpable public interest in  
15 allowing the Beef Board to continue to run false advertisements and make communications  
16 misrepresenting on whose behalf it is speaking,

17 Finally, the requirement of a bond is both ludicrous and overly burdensome. In even the  
18 broadest escrow arrangement described above, the government should have ample numbers of  
19 producers willing to have their assessments used by the Board – assuming the government's  
20 claims of support are true. In any event, there is no need for a bond where the Court itself will  
21 remain in possession of the money at stake until the matter is resolved.

## 22 CONCLUSION

23 For the above stated reasons, this Court should grant petitioners' motion for a preliminary  
24 injunction.

25  
26

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

Dated this 12th day of October, 2001

Respectfully submitted,

By: \_\_\_\_\_  
**KELLY J. VARNES**  
**HENDRICKSON, EVERSON,**  
**NOENNIG & WOODWARD, P.C.**  
208 North Broadway, Suite 324  
Billings, MT 59101-1984  
(406) 245-6238

**ERIK S. JAFFE**  
**ERIK S. JAFFE, P.C.**  
5101 34th Street, N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20008  
(202) 237-8165

**RENEE L. GIACHINO**  
General Counsel  
**CENTER FOR INDIVIDUAL**  
**FREEDOM**  
901 N. Washington Street, Suite 402  
Alexandria, VA 22314  
(703) 535-5836

Attorneys for Petitioners