

THE HONORABLE BARBARA J. ROTHSTEIN

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**UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
WESTERN DISTRICT OF WASHINGTON
AT SEATTLE**

ZACHARY PILZ, et al.,

Plaintiffs,

v.

JAY INSLEE, et al.,

Defendants.

No. 3:21-cv-05735-BJR

DEFENDANTS' RESPONSE TO
PLAINTIFFS' MOTION FOR
DECLARATORY AND INJUNCTIVE
RELIEF

NOTED FOR HEARING:
OCTOBER 15, 2021, 9:00 AM PST

I. INTRODUCTION

Proclamation 21-14, issued by Governor Inslee on August 9, 2021, prohibits health care, education, and Washington State agency workers from “engaging in work” after October 18 if not “fully vaccinated against COVID-19.”¹ The Proclamation seeks to increase vaccination rates in critical, public-facing workforces amidst a dangerous rise in COVID-19 cases, hospitalizations, and deaths driven by the Delta variant. This has been a resounding success: between September 6 and October 4, 2021, the state workforce’s vaccination rate rose from under 50% to over 91%.

Nearly two months after the Governor issued the Proclamation, Plaintiffs filed this lawsuit challenging it as facially invalid under an array of poorly developed constitutional and statutory theories. Seeking a temporary restraining order (TRO) and a preliminary injunction, Plaintiffs’ “Motion for Declaratory and Injunctive Relief” (the Motion) asks the Court to “declare the Mandate unconstitutional and void,” Dkt. #2 at 24, and to “enjoin[.]” Defendants “from enforcing, threatening to enforce, attempting to enforce, or otherwise requiring compliance with” it, Dkt. #2-1 at 3. The Motion should be denied for at least four reasons.

First, Plaintiffs are highly unlikely to prevail under any of their various legal theories—none of which is supported even with persuasive authority and some of which are barred by binding Supreme Court precedent. As Judge Easterbrook recently explained, “Given *Jacobson v. Massachusetts*, 197 U.S. 11 . . . (1905), which holds that a state may require all members of the public to be vaccinated against smallpox, *there can’t be a constitutional problem with vaccination against SARS-CoV-2.*” *Klaassen v. Trs. of Ind. Univ.*, 7 F.4th 592, 593 (7th Cir. 2021) (emphasis added). Second, Plaintiffs have failed to establish a likelihood that any of them will suffer irreparable harm absent an injunction, for any temporary loss of employment is readily compensable in damages. Third, the equities and public interest strongly weigh against injunctive relief: epidemiological modeling projects that, without the Proclamation, Washington would have up to 113,000 more COVID-19 cases, 5,880 more hospitalizations, and 765 more deaths.

¹Gov. Jay Inslee, Proclamation 21-14, Wash. State Office of Gov. (Aug. 9, 2021), <https://bit.ly/3DI82F7>. For a complete repository of the Governor’s Proclamations, see <https://bit.ly/3mQHzyb> (last visited Oct. 13, 2021).

1 Murray Decl., Ex. B at 5. Finally, abstention doctrines counsel in favor of denying the Motion and
2 dismissing this lawsuit in deference to parallel state judicial and administrative proceedings.

3 II. FACTUAL BACKGROUND

4 A. Background on the COVID-19 Pandemic and FDA-Approved Vaccines

5 The COVID-19 pandemic is a global public health disaster that has upended life as we
6 know it for more than a year and a half. On February 29, 2020, the Governor declared a state of
7 emergency due to COVID-19. *Slidewaters LLC v. Wash. State Dep't of Lab. & Indus.*, 4 F.4th 747,
8 753 (9th Cir. 2021) (citing Procl. 20-05). That state of emergency remains in effect today.

9 The U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has approved three COVID-19 vaccines.
10 Pfizer and BioNTech's vaccine received full FDA approval for people 16 and older on August 23,
11 2021. Lindquist Decl. ¶ 52. Before that, FDA had issued Emergency Use Authorizations (EUAs)
12 for the Pfizer, Moderna TX, Inc., and Johnson & Johnson and Janssen (J&J) vaccines. *Id.* ¶¶ 41–
13 43. Pfizer and Moderna require two doses for maximum immunity, to be received 21 days apart
14 (Pfizer) or 28 days apart (Moderna), while the J&J vaccine requires only one dose. *Id.*

15 To receive EUAs, all three COVID-19 vaccines proved highly effective at preventing
16 infection. Based on clinical trials involving more than one million volunteers, the Pfizer vaccine's
17 efficacy was 95%; the Moderna vaccine, 94%; and the J&J vaccine, 67%—each well exceeding
18 the 50% efficacy baseline for emergency use authorization set by FDA. *Id.* ¶¶ 47–49. Those
19 clinical results held true in the real world: an April 2021 study showed the Pfizer vaccine had
20 91.3% efficacy against infection, based on measuring how well it prevented symptomatic infection
21 seven days through up to six months after the second dose. *Id.* ¶ 50. In preventing “severe” disease,
22 as defined by the CDC, the Pfizer vaccine was 100% effective. *Id.*

23 The COVID-19 vaccines are also extremely safe. Their mild side effects are comparable
24 to those for a seasonal flu shot: most commonly soreness in the injection site, muscle aches,
25 fatigue, chills, and fever—which subside within a few days. *See id.* ¶¶ 47–48. Although the J&J
26 vaccine can very rarely cause a serious type of blood clots, this has occurred in fewer than one in
27

1 a million cases, and neither the Pfizer nor the Moderna vaccine is associated with serious or long-
 2 term side-effects. *Id.* ¶¶ 47–50. FDA has found that all three vaccines are safe for pregnant adults
 3 and moderately or severely immunocompromised adults, and the Pfizer vaccine for children age
 4 12 and older. *Id.* ¶ 51. The only group for whom the vaccines are contraindicated are those acutely
 5 allergic to their ingredients—*i.e.*, polyethylene glycol or polysorbate—which represents about 2.5
 6 to 11.1 cases per 1 million doses, or between 0.00025% and 0.001% of the population. *Id.*

7 **B. Washington’s Vaccination Campaign**

8 In December 2020, the Washington Department of Health (DOH) introduced a phased
 9 eligibility system for administering the COVID-19 vaccines that initially prioritized health care
 10 workers and higher-risk individuals, and eventually made everyone 12 and older eligible.
 11 Lindquist Decl. ¶ 54. State government invested considerable resources into its vaccination
 12 campaign to ensure availability and access across the state. *Id.* ¶¶ 55–57. DOH’s repository of
 13 COVID-19 data and informational materials² shows that the campaign succeeded at stemming the
 14 spread of COVID-19 in the spring of this year. By April 26, 2021, after everyone age 16 or older
 15 became eligible, the state was averaging more than 61,000 vaccine doses per day, and 29% of all
 16 Washingtonians had been fully vaccinated. *Id.* ¶ 60. Just over two weeks later, on May 19, more
 17 than 47% of people 16 or older were fully vaccinated and 59% had received at least one dose. *Id.*

18 As the number of people who had been vaccinated against COVID-19 went up, COVID-19
 19 cases predictably went down. On May 19, the average daily new case rate was just 901—down
 20 from its peak of 3,112 on December 4, 2020. *Id.* ¶ 61. On June 30, Washington—buoyed by a
 21 continuing increase in vaccination rates—enjoyed a full economic “reopening” and return to
 22 semi-normal life. *See id.* ¶ 62. On July 12, Washington reached the milestone of having vaccinated
 23 70% of the population 16 and older—often pegged as the minimum threshold for achieving herd
 24 immunity. *Id.* ¶ 63. At that time, the State was averaging 567 new cases per day. *Id.*

25
 26
 27 ²COVID-19 Data Dashboard (updated Oct. 13, 2021, 3:38 PM), <https://bit.ly/3mWBvEC>.

1 **C. The Delta Variant and the Vaccines’ Continuing Efficacy**

2 The B.1.617.2 SARS-CoV-2 (or Delta) variant is more than twice as infectious as earlier
 3 strains. Lindquist Decl. ¶ 72. Spreading like wildfire, Delta caused Washington’s daily new case
 4 rate to jump from a low of 349 on June 29 to 3,221 on August 27. *Id.* ¶ 77. Although Delta’s
 5 dominance is due in part to its transmissibility among vaccinated people, such “breakthrough”
 6 infections are rare and almost never result in severe illness. The Pfizer and Moderna vaccines are
 7 over 90% effective in preventing severe disease; in Washington, breakthrough cases account for
 8 less than 10% of hospitalizations. *Id.* ¶¶ 93–94. But the unvaccinated remain vulnerable, and Delta
 9 has shown a greater propensity than earlier variants to infect young people. *Id.* ¶ 75.

10 Unfortunately, Delta’s rise coincided with a steady decline in vaccinations. In Washington,
 11 doses administered daily declined from a high of 91,708 on April 16, 2021, to just 15,522 on
 12 September 1, 2021. *Id.* ¶ 103. Though COVID-19 vaccines for months have been widely available
 13 for anyone age 12 or older, as of October 8, nearly 1.5 million eligible residents had not received
 14 even a single dose. *Id.* ¶ 103. Despite the State’s introduction of various incentives, vaccination
 15 rates continued to decline, as vaccine hesitancy persisted. *See id.* ¶¶ 58–59.

16 Although the reasons for such hesitancy (and downright refusal) are varied, one driving
 17 factor has been misinformation about the safety and development of vaccines propagated by
 18 conspiracy theorists, political groups, and foreign adversaries. For example, although the only
 19 current contraindication for the vaccines is a highly rare acute allergy to their ingredients, more
 20 than half of unvaccinated adults currently believe that “getting vaccinated posed a bigger risk to
 21 their health than getting infected with the coronavirus.” *Id.* ¶ 66. Others may be hesitant based on
 22 certain vaccines’ use of cells originally isolated from fetal tissues during research and
 23 development, even though the vaccines themselves contain no fetal tissue. *Id.* ¶ 69. Historically-
 24 derived fetal cell lines have been used to create and test vaccines for hepatitis A, rubella, and
 25 chickenpox, as well as many common medicines such as Tylenol, Tums, Lipitor, and Zoloft. *Id.*

26 Another driving factor has been the belief that people who have been infected with
 27 COVID-19 need not get vaccinated. But both the CDC and DOH recommend vaccination for

1 several reasons. First, research has not yet shown how long a person who had COVID-19 will be
 2 protected after recovery. *Id.* ¶ 98. Second, studies show that being fully vaccinated provides better
 3 protection than having recovered from a COVID-19 infection. *Id.* ¶ 99. Third, there is emerging
 4 evidence that vaccination may provide a broader spectrum of protection to viral variants. *Id.* ¶ 100.

5 At the same time that vaccination rates declined, Washington experienced a sharp rise in
 6 COVID-19 case rates and related hospitalizations. In August and September, our health care
 7 system experienced extreme stress as hospitals across the State were near or at capacity. Statewide,
 8 ICU occupancy rates exceeded 90%, with COVID-19 patients making up over 29%. *Id.* ¶ 84. As
 9 of October 7, 2021, there were 1,207 COVID-19 patients in Washington hospitals; 185 are on
 10 ventilators. *Id.* More than 89% of the hospitalized COVID-19 patients in the State are not fully
 11 vaccinated. *Id.* As a result of the surge, hospitals expanded their intensive care units into
 12 nontraditional settings to accommodate the new patients requiring hospitalization. *Id.* ¶ 88.

13 **D. Vaccination Requirements and Proclamation 21-14**

14 In July and August 2021, federal, state, and local governments began to adopt vaccination
 15 requirements for certain population segments. The federal government announced vaccination
 16 requirements for all military personnel, Department of Health and Human Services health care
 17 workers, and Veterans' Administration personnel.³ On July 29, President Biden announced a
 18 similar requirement for all federal employees and on-site contractors.⁴ Other states have also
 19 instituted vaccination requirements for executive department employees or health care workers.⁵

20 On August 9, Governor Inslee issued Proclamation 21-14, prohibiting certain state agency
 21 workers and healthcare workers from performing work after October 18, 2021, without being fully

22 ³*Memorandum for Senior Pentagon Leadership Commanders of the Combatant Commands Defense Agency*
 23 *and DOD Field Activity Directors* (Aug. 24, 2021), <https://bit.ly/2ZWxw2K>; *VA mandates COVID-19 vaccines among*
 24 *its medical employees including VHA facilities staff*, <https://bit.ly/3oDh2Hf> (July 26, 2021); *Secretary Becerra to*
 25 *Require COVID-19 Vaccinations for HHS Health Care Workforce* (Aug. 12, 2021), <https://bit.ly/3oPlsL0>.

26 ⁴*Fact Sheet: President Biden to Announce New Actions to Get More Americans Vaccinated and Slow the*
 27 *Spread of the Delta Variant*, The White House (July 29, 2021), <https://bit.ly/3BIHjaH>.

⁵*E.g., California Implements First-in-the-Nation Measures to Encourage State Employees and Health Care*
 28 *Workers to Get Vaccinated* (July 26, 2021), <https://bit.ly/2WPRE5u>; *Baker-Polito Administration Announces COVID-*
 29 *19 Vaccine Requirement for Executive Department Employees* (Aug. 19, 2021), <https://bit.ly/3BtvAgk>; *Governor*
 30 *Lamont Clarifies Order Requiring State Employees, Childcare, and School Staff To Get Vaccinated or Tested for*
 31 *COVID-19* (Sept. 10, 2021), <https://bit.ly/3AoGAtT>; *Mayor's Order 2021-099* (Aug. 10, 2021), <https://bit.ly/3ajQEtR>.

1 vaccinated against COVID-19, *i.e.*, at least two weeks post-final dose. Hughes Decl., Ex. G at 4;
 2 Lindquist Decl. ¶ 104. On August 20, Proclamation 21-14.1 extended the vaccination requirement
 3 to workers in educational settings. *See* Procl. 21-14.1 (Hughes Decl., Ex. H). On September 27,
 4 Proclamation 21-14.2 further extended the vaccination requirement to on-site contractors
 5 contracting with certain entities. *See* Procl. 21-14.2 (Hughes Decl., Ex. I).

6 The Proclamation applies to at least 681,000 workers across the three covered sectors—
 7 state government, health care, and education. Hughes Decl. ¶ 12. As the Proclamation notes,
 8 “healthcare workers face COVID-19 exposures in a variety of healthcare settings, with those
 9 involving direct patient care likely at higher risk.” Hughes Decl., Ex. I at 2. Educators in K-12
 10 schools work daily amidst mass gatherings of unvaccinated individuals—in classrooms, gymnasias,
 11 and cafeterias with kids under age 12. Likewise, any number of state employees—ranging from
 12 Department of Corrections and Washington State Patrol officers to Child Protective Service social
 13 workers to Liquor and Cannabis Board investigators—may “interact with the public on a regular
 14 basis,” including in congregate environments. *Id.* at 3. Vaccination protects those most vulnerable
 15 to COVID-19 (like immunocompromised patients), those ineligible for vaccines (like children),
 16 those forced to interact with the workers (like prisoners or detainees), and the workers themselves.

17 The Proclamation does not create a freestanding medical or religious exemption separate
 18 from existing law, but it provides that covered workers need not get vaccinated if they are entitled
 19 under antidiscrimination statutes to “disability-related reasonable accommodations” or “sincerely
 20 held religious belief accommodations.” *Id.* at 5 (referencing the Americans With Disabilities Act,
 21 42 U.S.C. § 12122(b)(5)(A) (ADA), Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, 42 U.S.C. § 2000e *et*
 22 *seq.* (Title VII), and the Washington Law Against Discrimination, RCW 49.60 (WLAD)).

23 **E. Evaluations of Requests for Exemption and Accommodation**

24 Pursuant to the Proclamation’s provision for medical and religious exemptions, state
 25 agencies and other employers must evaluate requests for such exemptions. Many agencies use
 26 policies already in place for addressing requests for religious or medical job exemptions and
 27

1 accommodations. *See* Dowler Decl. ¶ 10. Some agencies created accommodation forms to help
 2 process requests from employees, but the forms are not required to request an accommodation.
 3 *See, e.g.,* Ashley Decl. ¶ 5; McGarvie Decl. ¶ 4; Normoyle Decl. ¶ 4; Pelton Decl. ¶ 4.

4 After reviewing a religious exemption request, agencies may engage with the employee in
 5 an interactive process to determine whether an employee has a sincerely held religious belief. *See,*
 6 *e.g.,* Mance Decl. ¶ 8. Once a religious exemption is granted, agencies then determine whether a
 7 reasonable accommodation can be made without imposing an undue burden on the agency. Factors
 8 considered include an employee’s position, essential job functions, and work environment, and the
 9 agency’s needs. *See* Dowler Decl. ¶ 9; McGarvie Decl. ¶ 8; Normoyle Decl. ¶ 7; Ashley Decl. ¶ 9;
 10 Pelton Decl. ¶ 8; Gilbert Decl. ¶ 7.

11 Since the Proclamation, state employee vaccination rates have increased from just 49.1%
 12 on September 6, 2021, to 91.9% on October 4. Sullivan-Colglazier Decl. ¶ 5, Ex. A. Agencies have
 13 received 4,849 requests for religious exemptions, approving 4,219 and providing accommodations
 14 to 1,310 requesters. *Id.* ¶¶ 6–7. Agencies have received 1,220 requests for medical exemptions,
 15 approving 864 and providing accommodations to 253 requesters. *Id.* ¶¶ 8–9.

16 **F. Plaintiffs’ Lawsuit and Related State Court Litigation**

17 Plaintiffs are 100 individuals who, though apparently united in their reluctance to get
 18 vaccinated against COVID-19 and their opposition to the Proclamation, otherwise face highly
 19 varied circumstances and seem to share little else in common as a group. According to their
 20 Complaint, Plaintiffs live in at least 21 different counties and work for at least 40 different
 21 employers, including 15 different state agencies, 12 different local government entities, and 12
 22 different private health care providers. *See* Dkt. #1 ¶¶ 6–105. They filed their lawsuit on October
 23 5, 2021—nearly two months after the Proclamation was issued, and the day *after* all covered
 24 workers must have received their final vaccine dose to be fully vaccinated by the October 18
 25 deadline. Plaintiffs allege that the Proclamation is “[u]nconstitutional on its face and as applied,”
 26 though they do not specify as applied to whom. *Id.* at 29, ¶ A. Plaintiffs’ Motion requests that

1 Defendants be “ENJOINED from enforcing, threatening to enforce, attempting to enforce, or
2 otherwise requiring compliance with the [Proclamation].” Dkt. #2-1 at 3.

3 Some Plaintiffs are also plaintiffs in a related pending state court lawsuit, *Cleary, et al. v.*
4 *Inslee, et al.*, No. 21-2-01674-34 (Thurston Cnty. Super. Ct.), which also facially challenges and
5 seeks to enjoin the Proclamation. *See, e.g.*, Dkt. #1 ¶¶ 19, 100, 101; Hughes Decl., Ex. K ¶¶ 4,
6 194, 596. A hearing on the *Cleary* plaintiffs’ motion for preliminary injunction is set for October
7 18, 2021. Plaintiffs here and the *Cleary* plaintiffs are represented by the same counsel.⁶

8 III. ARGUMENT

9 A. TRO and Preliminary Injunction Standard

10 A TRO, like a preliminary injunction, is “an extraordinary remedy that may only be
11 awarded upon a clear showing that the plaintiff is entitled to such relief.” *Winter v. Nat. Res. Def.*
12 *Council, Inc.*, 555 U.S. 7, 22 (2008). The standard for issuing a TRO is the same as the standard for
13 issuing a preliminary injunction. *See* Fed. R. Civ. P. 65; *Stuhlbarg Int’l Sales Co. v. John D. Brush*
14 *& Co.*, 240 F.3d 832, 839 n.7 (9th Cir. 2001). A party seeking either form of relief must establish:
15 “[1] that he is likely to succeed on the merits, [2] that he is likely to suffer irreparable harm in the
16 absence of preliminary relief, [3] that the balance of equities tips in his favor, and [4] that an
17 injunction is in the public interest.” *Winter*, 555 U.S. at 20. The last two factors merge when the
18 government is a party. *Drakes Bay Oyster Co. v. Jewell*, 747 F.3d 1073, 1092 (9th Cir. 2014).

19 B. Plaintiffs Are Unlikely to Prevail on Any Claim in This Facial Challenge

20 Two features of Plaintiffs’ claims are important to note at the outset. First, their Motion
21 presents only a facial challenge to the Proclamation. A “facial challenge” asserts that a law
22 “violate[s] the Constitution, while an as-applied challenge is a claim directed at the execution of
23 the law.” *Young v. Hawaii*, 992 F.3d 765, 779 (9th Cir. 2021) (en banc). To prevail in a facial
24 challenge, “the plaintiff must show that no set of circumstances exists under which the [statute]

25 _____
26 ⁶Plaintiffs’ counsel also represents the plaintiff in a third lawsuit challenging the Proclamation on state and
27 federal constitutional grounds. Hughes Decl., Ex. O. After the Franklin County Superior Court denied the defendants’
motion to change venue to Thurston County, the Washington Supreme Court summarily reversed the trial court’s
decision and remanded for transfer to Thurston County. *Id.*, Ex. P.

1 would be valid,” and the Court’s “review of the [state law] would be limited to the text.” *Id.*
 2 (cleaned up). Plaintiffs ask that “Defendants” be “enjoined from enforcing” or “threatening to
 3 enforce” the Proclamation against *anyone*. Dkt. #2-1 at 3. This is plainly a facial challenge because
 4 it “seeks to secure a declaration that a statute is utterly inoperative.” *United States v. Frost*,
 5 125 F.3d 346, 370 (6th Cir. 1997). Although Plaintiffs’ declarations include a litany of
 6 individualized factual allegations, their Motion seeks to enjoin the Proclamation as a whole, not as
 7 applied to Plaintiffs alone or some similarly situated subset of them.

8 Second, although the Complaint lists eight causes of action, Plaintiffs’ Motion argues only
 9 six: (1) due process (“The Governor Lacks Authority”), Dkt. #2 at 15; (2) free exercise; (3) privacy;
 10 (4) procedural due process (*Loudermill*); (5) Title VII; and (6) the ADA. Plaintiffs fail to present
 11 any “intelligible argument” on their claims under the Equal Protection and Contracts Clauses and
 12 for breach of contract, which are thus waived for the purposes of the Motion. *Nw. Acceptance*
 13 *Corp. v. Lynnwood Equip., Inc.*, 841 F.2d 918, 923 (9th Cir. 1988). As for their unwaived claims,
 14 Plaintiffs’ scattershot briefing ignores the applicable standards, offers sweeping conclusions with
 15 little or no analysis or citation of relevant authority, and overlooks case law directly on point—
 16 and totally at odds with their off-the-wall theories. Plaintiffs are unlikely to prevail on any claim.

17 **1. The Proclamation is a valid exercise of the Governor’s emergency powers**
 18 **and does not violate Plaintiffs’ due process rights**

19 **a. Plaintiffs fail to make out a cognizable due process claim**

20 Plaintiffs argue as “a threshold issue” that the Governor “lacks the legal authority to issue”
 21 the Proclamation under RCW 43.06.220, including the “authority to impose the penalties and
 22 enforcement mechanisms therein.” Dkt. #2 at 15. Plaintiffs style this apparent state-law argument
 23 as a federal “Due Process claim[,]” *id.*, without providing any authority for the notion that a
 24 gubernatorial executive order would violate the Fourteenth Amendment’s Due Process Clause if
 25 inconsistent with *state* law. The Supreme Court and the Ninth Circuit have squarely rejected that
 26 proposition. *See, e.g., Lone Star Sec. & Video, Inc. v. City of Los Angeles*, 584 F.3d 1232, 1236–
 27 37 (9th Cir. 2009) (rejecting plaintiff’s claim that its “due process rights were violated *solely* by

1 virtue of the City’s acting under an ordinance that is invalid under state law” and noting that “[i]t
 2 is a tenet of our federal system that state constitutions are ‘not taken up into the 14th Amendment’
 3 such that federal courts may strike down a statute as invalid under state law”) (quoting *Pullman*
 4 *Co. v. Knott*, 235 U.S. 23, 25 (1914)). In short, Plaintiffs’ “threshold” due process claim, Dkt. #2
 5 at 15, “is premised on an untenable notion of due process.” *Lone Star*, 584 F.3d at 1237.⁷

6 **b. RCW 43.06.220 authorizes the Proclamation, including its penalty**

7 Plaintiffs’ “due process” claim also fails because it rests on their assumption that the
 8 Proclamation is inconsistent with Washington law. They are mistaken. The Proclamation is well
 9 within the Governor’s statutory emergency powers. Washington law authorizes the Governor to
 10 “proclaim a state of emergency” if he “find[s] that a public disorder” or “disaster . . . exists within
 11 this state . . . which affects life, health, property, or the public peace[.]” RCW 43.06.010(12). The
 12 Governor did so with respect to COVID-19—justifiably, as Plaintiffs concede. Dkt. #2 at 16 n.17.

13 During a declared emergency, the Governor’s “powers are broad.” *Colvin v. Inslee*, 195
 14 Wn.2d 879, 895 (2020); Laws of 2019, ch. 472, § 1 (“The legislature finds that the governor has
 15 broad authority . . . to exercise emergency powers during the emergency.”). One such power is the
 16 authority to “issue an order prohibiting . . . [s]uch other activities as he or she reasonably believes
 17 should be prohibited to help preserve and maintain life, health, property or the public peace.”
 18 RCW 43.06.220(1)(h). That is precisely what the Proclamation does, prohibiting unvaccinated
 19 individuals from engaging in certain types of work. The issuance of such an order is “by statute
 20 committed to the sole discretion of the Governor.” *Colvin*, 195 Wn.2d at 895 (quotation marks and

21
 22 ⁷It would be equally untenable for Plaintiffs to claim that the Governor’s Proclamation violated their
 23 substantive due process rights—an argument the Motion does not articulate. *See* Dkt. #2 at 20–21. Under a long and
 24 unbroken line of cases, public health measures like the Proclamation satisfy substantive due process. *E.g.*, *Zucht v.*
 25 *King*, 260 U.S. 174, 176 (1922) (holding that it is “settled that it is within the police power of a state to provide for
 26 compulsory vaccination”); *Jacobson*, 197 U.S. at 21 (rejecting due process challenge to requirement that all persons
 27 be vaccinated); *Slidewaters LLC*, 4 F.4th at 759 (rejecting substantive due process challenge to Governor’s COVID-19
 business closure orders); *Klaassen*, 7 F.4th at 593 (rejecting substantive due process claim because
 “vaccination requirements, like other public-health measures, have been common in this nation”); *accord Kheriaty v.*
Regents of the Univ. of Cal., No. SACV 21-01367 JVS (KESx), 2021 WL 4714664, at *9 (C.D. Cal. Sept. 29, 2021);
Maniscalco v. New York City Dep’t of Educ., No. 21-cv-5055 (BMC), 2021 WL 4344267, at *3 (E.D.N.Y. Sept. 23,
 2021); *Harris v. Univ. of Mass., Lowell*, No. 21-cv-11244-DJC, 2021 WL 3848012, at *6 (D. Mass. Aug. 27, 2021).
 Claims like this are reviewed under the rational basis standard—a test the Governor’s Proclamation easily meets.

1 citation omitted). Even if that exclusive discretion were judicially reviewable (and it is not), the
 2 Proclamation is well-supported by extensive medical evidence, recommendations by professional
 3 bodies, and similar measures in place in other government settings. Lindquist Decl. ¶¶ 93–94, 98.⁸

4 None of Plaintiffs’ four arguments against the Proclamation’s validity has merit. First, they
 5 argue that the Proclamation is not a “prohibition” because “it requires an affirmative act; an
 6 injection.” Dkt. #2 at 16. That characterization is doubly inaccurate. First, the Proclamation does
 7 not even arguably “require” vaccination because it gives covered workers a choice: get vaccinated
 8 or (absent an exemption) find other work. Second, practically any prohibition can alternatively be
 9 characterized as a “mandate.” The Governor’s prohibition on congregating in indoor public spaces
 10 without a face-covering could be written as a mask *requirement*. His prohibitions on the
 11 resumption of various business operations during the “reopening” process could be written as
 12 requirements that businesses remain closed. And his prohibition on most residential evictions
 13 could be written to require landlords to allow tenants to remain in their homes. Yet courts have
 14 upheld all those proclamations as valid exercises of the Governor’s prohibitory powers under
 15 RCW 43.06.220(1)(h). *See, e.g., Slidewaters LLC*, 4 F.4th at 755–56; *Gonzales v. Inslee*, No. 20-
 16 2-02525 (Thurston Cnty. Super. Ct.); *Didier v. Inslee*, No. 20-2-01662-34 (Thurston Cnty. Super.
 17 Ct.). The Proclamation’s prohibition on certain work by unvaccinated individuals is equally valid.

18 Second, Plaintiffs note that other Washington statutes governing matters such as influenza
 19 preparedness planning and school immunization do not “give the Governor the power to order
 20 anybody to take a vaccine.” Dkt. #2 at 16. True enough, but the Governor does not rely on any of
 21 those statutes as the source of the Proclamation’s authority. He relies on the emergency powers
 22 statute, RCW 43.06.220(1)(h), which the Legislature deliberately crafted to be broad and flexible
 23 enough to permit any prohibitions “reasonably believe[d]” to “help preserve and maintain life,
 24 health, property or the public peace.” Plaintiffs do not contend that those other statutes somehow
 25

26 ⁸See also *AMA in support of COVID-19 vaccine mandates for health care workers*, Am. Med. Ass’n (July
 27 26, 2021), <https://bit.ly/3mR5ehZ>; Celeste Busser, *NEA announces support for educator vaccine and testing
 requirement*, Nat’l Educ. Ass’n (Aug. 12, 2021), <https://bit.ly/2Xa6Qup>.

1 *prohibit* the Proclamation, or that it conflicts with Washington statutory law.

2 Third, Plaintiffs suggest that the Proclamation conflicts with the Governor’s own executive
 3 orders issued as many as seven years ago. *See* Dkt. #2 at 7–8, 18. Those executive orders require
 4 state agencies to maintain and implement written policies on telework and flexible work hours.
 5 Dkt. #3-1 at 731; Gov. Jay Inslee, *Exec. Order 16-07*, at 2 (June 3, 2016), <https://bit.ly/2YQKyy8>.
 6 Plaintiffs’ theory that these executive orders conflict with the Proclamation is difficult to
 7 understand. But even assuming some conflict, Proclamation 21-14 was issued more recently, is
 8 more specific, and has the force of law. *See, e.g., Fischer-McReynolds v. Quasim*, 101 Wn. App.
 9 801, 813 (2000) (contrasting executive orders with “the force and effect of law, and then only if a
 10 statute or constitutional provision grants the Governor the authority to issue such orders,” with
 11 executive order “[d]irectives, which serve to communicate to state agencies what the Governor
 12 would like them to accomplish”). The Governor’s executive orders encouraging telework policies
 13 in state government do not remotely call the Proclamation’s validity into doubt.

14 Finally, Plaintiffs’ claim that “the mandate’s enforcement mechanism is not authorized”
 15 because RCW 43.06.220(5) establishes criminal punishments for violation of an emergency order.
 16 Dkt. #2 at 18–19 (emphasis omitted). This argument, too, is undeveloped and ill-conceived. The
 17 only “enforcement mechanism” the Proclamation mentions is the one authorized by statute:
 18 “Violators of this order may be subject to criminal penalties pursuant to RCW 43.06.220(5).”
 19 Procl. 21-14.2 at 12. So long as it is in effect, the Proclamation prohibits covered employees from
 20 working unless they are fully vaccinated or granted an accommodation, but it does not require that
 21 any unvaccinated worker be discharged, nor otherwise “guarantee[] loss of much more than can
 22 ever be sentenced under a gross misdemeanor.” Dkt. #2 at 19. Plaintiffs’ gripe with the
 23 Proclamation’s “enforcement mechanism” ignores its plain text.

24 **c. *Pennhurst* bars an injunction based on Washington law**

25 The Court lacks jurisdiction over Plaintiffs’ claim that the Proclamation violates RCW
 26 43.06.220. *See* Dkt. # 2 at 15–18. Based on the doctrine of state sovereign immunity and principles

1 of federalism embodied in the Eleventh Amendment, a federal court lacks jurisdiction to enjoin a
 2 state official’s actions on the basis that the official has violated state law. *Pennhurst State Sch. &*
 3 *Hosp. v. Halderman*, 465 U.S. 89, 106 (1984). A federal court may intervene only when a state
 4 official is acting *ultra vires*, meaning that he or she “acts without any authority whatever.” *Id.* at
 5 101 n.11 (cleaned up). But Plaintiffs cannot—and do not—credibly argue that the Governor acted
 6 *ultra vires*, given the breadth of the Governor’s emergency powers under RCW 43.06.220, which
 7 provides far more than a “colorable basis for the exercise of authority.” *Id.* Other federal courts
 8 have rejected challenges by plaintiffs seeking redress from federal courts for grievances against
 9 COVID-19 executive orders that were grounded in state law. *See, e.g., Heights Apts., LLC v. Walz*,
 10 510 F. Supp. 3d 789, 804 (D. Minn. 2020) (applying *Pennhurst* to plaintiffs’ *ultra vires* claim to
 11 eviction moratorium where governor had a colorable basis on which to issue the executive order).
 12 This Court should likewise conclude that the Eleventh Amendment bars Plaintiffs from seeking to
 13 enjoin the Proclamation based on Washington law.

14 **2. The Proclamation complies with the Free Exercise Clause**

15 More than 75 years ago, the Supreme Court explained that a parent “cannot claim freedom
 16 from compulsory vaccination for the child more than for himself on religious grounds,” for “[t]he
 17 right to practice religion freely does not include liberty to expose the community or the child to
 18 communicable disease or the latter to ill health or death.” *Prince v. Massachusetts*, 321 U.S. 158,
 19 166–67 (1944). In the decades since, federal courts have consistently adhered to that principle in
 20 rejecting free exercise challenges to state and local vaccination requirements—including those that
 21 allowed *no religious exemptions*. *See, e.g., Phillips v. City of New York*, 775 F.3d 538, 543 (2d
 22 Cir. 2015) (per curiam) (“mandatory vaccination as a condition for admission to school does not
 23 violate the Free Exercise Clause”; “New York law goes beyond what the Constitution requires by
 24 allowing an exemption for parents with genuine and sincere religious beliefs”); *Whitlow v.*
 25 *California*, 203 F. Supp. 3d 1079, 1084–85 (S.D. Cal. 2016) (“it is clear that the Constitution does
 26 not require the provision of a religious exemption to vaccination requirements”) (collecting cases).

1 Failing to address this precedent, Plaintiffs’ free exercise challenge is especially groundless
 2 because the Proclamation *does* contain a religious exemption. Without so much as mentioning the
 3 applicable constitutional standard, Plaintiffs’ argument consists of little more than inflammatory
 4 hyperbole, *e.g.*, Dkt. #2 at 22 (“Governor Inslee’s executive fiat has effectively sought to ban all
 5 sincerely held religious beliefs from civil service”), unhelpful truisms, *e.g.*, *id.* (“the Free Exercise
 6 Clause protects against governmental hostility which is masked”), and appeals to inapt authority.
 7 Indeed, Plaintiffs even look for support to the Religious Freedom Restoration Act (RFRA),
 8 42 U.S.C. § 2000bb–2, *see* Dkt. #2 at 12–13—a statute the Supreme Court long ago struck down
 9 as applied to the states. *City of Boerne v. Flores*, 521 U.S. 507, 534–36 (1997).⁹

10 Because RFRA does not apply, the governing standard is the “*Smith* rule”: “a law that is
 11 neutral and of general applicability need not be justified by a compelling governmental interest
 12 even if the law has the incidental effect of burdening a particular religious practice.” *Church of the*
 13 *Lukumi Babalu Aye, Inc. v. City of Hialeah*, 508 U.S. 520, 531 (1993) (citing *Emp. Div., Dep’t of*
 14 *Hum. Res. of Or. v. Smith*, 494 U.S. 872 (1990)). While a law that “single[s] out houses of worship
 15 for especially harsh treatment” must meet strict scrutiny, a “law [that] is neutral and of general
 16 applicability . . . need only survive rational basis review.” *S. Bay United Pentecostal Church v.*
 17 *Newsom*, 985 F.3d 1128, 1140 (9th Cir. 2021) (quoting *Roman Cath. Diocese of Brooklyn v.*
 18 *Cuomo*, 141 S. Ct. 63, 66 (2020) (per curiam)). Plaintiffs offer no analysis whatsoever of the
 19 “neutrality” criterion in free exercise jurisprudence and do not even mention the phrase “generally
 20 applicable.” It is easy to see why: the Proclamation satisfies both criteria.

21 **a. The Proclamation is neutral and generally applicable**

22 The Proclamation is neutral because its “object” is to stop the spread of COVID-19, not to
 23 “infringe upon or restrict practices because of their religious motivation.” *Lukumi*, 508 U.S. at 533.
 24 In assessing neutrality, courts consider (1) whether the law is “facial[ly]” neutral and (2) whether
 25

26 ⁹Congress’s response to *Boerne*, the Religious Land Use and Institutionalized Persons Act, 42 U.S.C.
 27 § 2000cc *et seq.* (RLUIPA), applies to state land use regulations and prisoners only. *See, e.g., Holt v. Hobbs*, 574 U.S.
 352, 357 (2015); *Pentecostal Church of God v. Douglas Cnty.*, 798 F. App’x 995, 997 (9th Cir. 2020).

1 it is neutral in “real operation.” *Id.* at 533, 535. A law is operationally non-neutral if “[t]he
2 record . . . compels the conclusion that suppression of [religion] was the object.” *Id.* at 534. The
3 Proclamation passes both tests. First, it is facially neutral because it applies to all covered workers,
4 unless they are granted an accommodation—the opposite of “restrict[ing] practices because of
5 their religious motivation.” *Id.* at 533. It would make little sense to say that a government policy
6 designed to *accommodate* religious practice is somehow facially discriminatory because it
7 specifically grants religious objectors more favorable treatment than secular ones. *See, e.g.,*
8 *Freeman v. Texas Dep’t of Crim. Just.*, 369 F.3d 854, 860–61 (5th Cir. 2004) (religious
9 accommodations policy was “neutral” because it “operate[d] without regard to the content of the
10 [religious] expression”).

11 Second, the Proclamation is neutral in “real operation” because the record does not
12 “compel[] the conclusion that suppression of [religion] was the object[.]” *Lukumi* at 508 U.S. at
13 534. Plaintiffs attempt to compare this case to *Roman Catholic Diocese*, in which New York
14 allegedly “gerrymandered” neighborhoods with the most restrictive capacity limits for in-person
15 gatherings to include “heavily Orthodox [Jewish] areas” and made statements that could be
16 “viewed as targeting the ultra-Orthodox [Jewish] community.” 141 S. Ct. at 66 (cleaned up).

17 No such evidence of animus exists here. To the contrary, the Governor decided to include
18 a religious exemption to accommodate workers with genuine religious scruples. Because there is
19 no equivalent exemption for political, personal, or any other objections, if anything the
20 Proclamation affords preferential treatment to religious motivations as against secular ones. *See,*
21 *e.g.,>Listecki v. Off. Comm. of Unsecured Creditors*, 780 F.3d 731, 744 (7th Cir. 2015) (“A benefit
22 to religion does not disfavor religion in violation of the Free Exercise Clause.”).

23 For similar reasons, the Proclamation is also generally applicable. General applicability
24 “addresses whether a law treats religious observers unequally,” such as “when a legislature decides
25 that the governmental interests it seeks to advance are worthy of being pursued only against
26 conduct with a religious motivation.” *Parents for Priv. v. Barr*, 949 F.3d 1210, 1235 (9th Cir. Feb.

12, 2020) (quoting *Lukumi*, 508 U.S. at 542–53). The Proclamation is generally applicable because it applies equally to all covered workers, regardless of their religious faith (or lack thereof), unless they receive an accommodation pursuant to antidiscrimination statutes. Federal courts, when confronted with COVID-19 vaccination requirements by government employers, schools, or universities, have all but unanimously concluded that such policies are neutral and generally applicable—and upheld them under rational basis review. *See, e.g., Harris*, 2021 WL 3848012, at *7; *Am. ’s Frontline Drs. v. Wilcox*, No. EDCV 21-1243 JGB (KKx), 2021 WL 4546923, at *4 (C.D. Cal. July 30, 2021); *Klaassen v. Trs. of Ind. Univ.*, No. 1:21-CV-238 DRL, 2021 WL 3073926, at *39 (N.D. Ind. July 18, 2021), *den ’g injunction pending appeal*, 7 F.4th 592 (7th Cir.).

The single case that went the other way misapplies Supreme Court precedent in a fairly obvious respect. In *Dahl v. Board of Trustees of Western Michigan University*, --- F.4th ----, 2021 WL 4618519, at *4 (6th Cir. Oct. 7, 2021), the court held that a university’s vaccination policy was not generally applicable because it *allowed* administrators to grant exemptions for medical *or religious* reasons. The court reasoned that, because the “University retains discretion to extend [such] exemptions in whole or in part,” its vaccination “policy is not generally applicable.” *Id.* (citing *Fulton v. City of Philadelphia, Pa.*, 141 S. Ct. 1868, 1881 (2021)). This conclusion misreads the law on “individualized exemptions,” which undermine a policy’s general applicability only when they allow for *secular* individualized exemptions, not *religious* exemptions. *See, e.g., Fulton*, 141 S. Ct. at 1878 (city contract prohibiting foster care providers from rejecting prospective parents based on sexual orientation was not generally applicable where it gave Commissioner “sole discretion” to grant an “exception”); *id.* at 1921 (Alito, J., concurring in judgment) (noting “confusion” over the “special rule” on when a law is not “generally applicable” due to “*secular* exemptions”) (emphasis added); *303 Creative LLC v. Elenis*, 6 F.4th 1160, 1206–07 (10th Cir. 2021) (“[T]he individualized exemption exception inquiry can be summarized as follows: as long as a law remains exemptionless, it is considered generally applicable and religious groups cannot claim a right to exemption; however, when a law has *secular* exemptions, a challenge by a

1 religious group becomes possible.”) (cleaned up; emphasis added). As the Sixth Circuit itself has
 2 observed, “[w]hat poses a problem” for a policy that is “[o]n its face . . . generally applicable,” is
 3 “the implementation of the policy, permitting *secular* exemptions but not religious ones.” *Ward v.*
 4 *Polite*, 667 F.3d 727, 738–39 (6th Cir. 2012) (Sutton, J.) (emphasis added).

5 The *Dahl* court misapplied the “individualized exemption exception” by concluding that
 6 the availability of a *religious* exemption rendered the university’s vaccination policy not generally
 7 applicable. This counterintuitive conclusion would mean that the Western Michigan University
 8 need only *eliminate* its religious exemption to make its policy generally applicable—an
 9 undoubtedly constitutional change, but one that would leave religious objectors far worse off. *See,*
 10 *e.g., Nikolao v. Lyon*, 875 F.3d 310, 316 (6th Cir. 2017) (mother who successfully sought religious
 11 waiver from state-mandated vaccinations for her children “has not been denied any legal right on
 12 the basis of her religion”; “[c]onstitutionally, [she] has no right to an exemption”). It makes no
 13 sense to subject a vaccination policy with a religious exemption to stricter scrutiny than a policy
 14 without one. Because both are neutral and generally applicable under the Supreme Court’s free
 15 exercise jurisprudence, *Dahl* is a wrongly decided outlier that should not be followed.¹⁰

16 **b. The Proclamation is rationally related to a legitimate state interest**

17 Because the Proclamation is neutral and generally applicable, it “must be upheld if . . .
 18 rationally related to a legitimate governmental purpose.” *Parents for Privacy*, 949 F.3d at 1238.
 19 The Proclamation easily meets this test, as Plaintiffs appear to concede. It is undisputed that
 20 protecting the public from COVID-19 is a compelling state interest. *Roman Cath. Diocese*, 141
 21 S. Ct. at 67. Because vaccines are highly safe and effective, ensuring those who work in health

22
 23 ¹⁰In any event, *Dahl* is distinguishable because the relief sought and received there was much narrower. The
 24 injunction in *Dahl* “applies only to plaintiffs—sixteen people,” each of whom sought a religious exemption from the
 25 university’s vaccination policy. In contrast, the 100 Plaintiffs here, some of whom seek religious exemptions while
 26 others do not, seek a sweeping injunction against the Proclamation as a whole. This requested relief does not map onto
 27 any claim any Plaintiff may have for an “individual exemption,” which obviously must turn on an *individualized*
 analysis. *See Fulton*, 141 S. Ct. at 1881 (“The question, then, is not whether the City has a compelling interest in
 enforcing its non-discrimination policies generally, but whether it has such an interest in denying an exception to [the
 plaintiff].”). Plaintiffs do not say which of them seek individual religious accommodations or what accommodations
 they request—nor do they provide sufficient facts to determine whether their employer agencies may justifiably deny
 them. In other words, Plaintiffs’ facial challenge is the wrong posture for any claims for individualized exemptions.

1 care, schools, and state government to be vaccinated is rationally related to stemming the spread
2 of the virus. Lindquist Decl. ¶ 94. The Proclamation complies with the Free Exercise Clause.¹¹

3 **3. The Proclamation respects workers' privacy rights**

4 Plaintiffs' one-paragraph argument that the Proclamation violates their "right to body
5 autonomy" appears to be based on an asserted right "to refuse treatment." Dkt. #2 at 23. This
6 argument is easily refuted. The Proclamation does not compel *anyone* to be vaccinated without
7 their consent or knowledge of the material risks; it merely makes vaccination a condition of
8 employment in certain fields. This does not violate any federal privacy right to refuse treatment.
9 *See, e.g., Bridges v. Houston Methodist Hosp.*, No. H-21-1774, 2021 WL 2399994, at *2 (S.D.
10 Tex. June 12, 2021) (rejecting plaintiff's argument that she was being "coerced" by "being forced
11 to be injected with a vaccine or be fired"; she "can freely choose to accept or refuse a COVID-19
12 vaccine; however, if she refuses, she will simply need to work somewhere else"); *Klaassen*, 7 F.4th
13 at 593 ("Vaccination is . . . a condition of attending Indiana University. People who do not want
14 to be vaccinated may go elsewhere."); *Norris v. Stanley*, No. 1:21-cv-756, 2021 WL 3891615, at
15 *3 (W.D. Mich. Aug. 31, 2021) (rejecting student's privacy challenge to university vaccination
16 policy under "directly contradictory Supreme Court precedent") (citing *Jacobson*, 197 U.S. at 38).
17 Covered workers have meaningful choices: become vaccinated, seek an accommodation, or obtain
18 other employment during the pandemic. No one is being "battered" or vaccinated against their
19 will, and Plaintiffs have not adduced evidence to the contrary.¹²

20 ¹¹Even if strict scrutiny applied—and it does not—the Proclamation would still be valid. Plaintiffs fail to
21 demonstrate that the Proclamation is not the least restrictive means of stemming COVID-19's spread. Proclamation
22 21-14 follows previous, less restrictive proclamations that were insufficient to prevent the current alarming rates of
23 COVID-19 infection, hospitalization, and death. Lindquist Decl. ¶¶ 82–88, 113. Data from state facilities that had
24 previously adopted routine testing requirements established that this option did not sufficiently prevent COVID-19
25 outbreaks. Ashley Decl. ¶ 12. The Proclamation is a modest additional step, narrowly targeting specific sectors that
26 are particularly essential to combatting the spread of COVID-19, stabilizing our health care system, and preventing
27 needless deaths of Washingtonians. Plaintiffs' suggestion that antibody tests or remote work are equally effective
alternatives lacks merit, especially in this facial challenge. For example, there is no plausible argument that
correctional officers, responsible for safeguarding the public and incarcerated persons, can perform their essential
functions remotely. Likewise, most of the essential functions of Washington State Patrol officers require close
interpersonal contact with the public. Ashley Decl. ¶ 10. Thus, even if strict scrutiny applied, Plaintiffs' facial
challenge under the Free Exercise Clause would still be unlikely to prevail on the merits.

¹²To the extent Plaintiffs' argument is based on "common law," Dkt. #2 at 23, it is undeveloped and defies a
clear line of Washington cases upholding public health measures requiring individuals to submit to medical testing

1 The only two cases Plaintiffs cite in support of their privacy claim are far afield. *See* Mot.
 2 at 23 (citing *Cruzan ex rel. Cruzan v. Dir., Mo. Dep't of Health*, 497 U.S. 261, 270 (1990), and
 3 *Union Pac. Ry. Co. v. Botsford*, 141 U.S. 250, 251 (1891)). In *Cruzan*, the Court considered
 4 whether an individual in a vegetative state “has a right under the United States Constitution which
 5 would require [a] hospital to withdraw life-sustaining treatment” as requested by her parents. 497
 6 U.S. at 267–69. Similarly, *Union Pacific* held that a defendant cannot force a plaintiff in a personal
 7 injury action to undergo a surgical examination. *Union Pac. Ry. Co.*, 141 U.S. at 251. Neither case
 8 lends any support to Plaintiffs’ claims here, which do not involve coerced medical care.

9 Plaintiffs have failed to show a likelihood of success on their right-to-privacy claim.

10 **4. Plaintiffs’ procedural due process claims are unripe and lack merit**

11 Plaintiffs’ due process claim is premised solely on their belief that some—but not all—
 12 Plaintiffs are entitled to a pre-disciplinary hearings under *Cleveland Board of Education v.*
 13 *Loudermill*, 470 U.S. 532 (1985). Dkt. #2 at 20. Even were Plaintiffs correct—and as shown below,
 14 they are not—this claim of a procedural right as to how *some* Plaintiffs’ employers implement the
 15 Proclamation is insufficient to carry their facial challenge to the validity of Proclamation itself.

16 There is no inherent constitutional property interest in continued employment. *Bd. of*
 17 *Regents of State Colls. v. Roth*, 408 U.S. 564, 577 (1972). A property interest requires a “legitimate
 18 claim of entitlement” to continued employment. *Id.* at 577–78. Plaintiffs do not allege—nor could
 19 they credibly do so—that each of the more than 680,000 persons subject to the Proclamation has
 20 a legitimate claim of entitlement to continued employment. Indeed, they appear to concede the
 21 opposite, namely, that only “[p]ublic employees have due process rights in connection with
 22 adverse employment actions.” Dkt. #2 at 20. This is fatal to their facial challenge. *Wash. State*

23 _____
 24 and vaccination. *See, e.g., State ex rel. McFadden v. Shorrock*, 104 P. 214 (1909) (upholding vaccination as condition
 25 precedent to attending schools); *State ex rel. Holcomb v. Armstrong*, 239 P.2d 545 (1952) (chest x-ray as condition of
 26 attending university); *see also State ex rel. McBride v. Super. Ct. for King Cnty.*, 174 P. 973 (1918) (approving
 27 examination and months-long quarantine of person with infectious disease); *see also In re Juveniles A, B, C, D, E*,
 847 P.2d 455 (1993) (upholding HIV testing requirement against privacy claims). Those requirements were upheld in
 far lesser emergencies than the present one. The x-ray screen in *Holcomb* addressed a sufficiently “present, grave and
 immediate” danger based on between 9 and 23 cases of tuberculosis per year at the university. 239 P.2d at 548. By
 contrast, over the past 16 months, there have been over 680,000 confirmed cases of COVID-19 in Washington State.

1 *Grange v. Wash. State Republican Party*, 552 U.S. 442, 449 (2008) (“[A] plaintiff can only succeed
2 in a facial challenge by establishing that no set of circumstances exists under which the Act would
3 be valid, *i.e.*, that the law is unconstitutional in all of its applications.”) (cleaned up).¹³

4 Plaintiffs’ due process claims are also not ripe. Assuming *arguendo* that some are entitled
5 to pre-termination hearings, they “cannot allege that [they have] been denied such process, as [they
6 have] not yet been terminated.” *Echtenkamp v. Loudon Cnty. Pub. Schs.*, 263 F. Supp. 2d 1043,
7 1056 (E.D. Va. 2003). If Plaintiffs are discharged and believe they were denied due process, they
8 may then sue to vindicate their rights. But they identify no basis in law to enjoin the Governor’s
9 Proclamation *in toto* because some believe they may suffer a due process violation in the future.

10 Even ignoring these threshold defects, Plaintiffs’ claim fails on the merits because
11 individualized *Loudermill* hearings are not required for generally applicable conditions of
12 employment imposed by law. Rather, employees are entitled to the notice provided by enactment
13 and publication, and nothing more. *See Valdez v. Grisham, Valdez v. Grisham*, --- F.Supp.3d ----,
14 2021 WL 4145746 (Sept. 13, 2021), *appeal docketed*, No. 21-2105 (10th Cir. Sep. 15, 2021)
15 (rejecting procedural due process claim against governor’s public health order requiring
16 congregate care facility workers, hospital workers, and employees of the office of the governor be
17 fully vaccinated); *Harris*, 2021 WL 3848012, at *5 (procedural due process claim against
18 university vaccination policy unlikely to succeed because students were not entitled to process
19 above and beyond notice provided by enactment and publication).

20 Additionally, *Loudermill* hearings only apply in the case of terminations *for cause*. 470
21 U.S. at 535. Here, any terminations are not “for cause,” but rather because the employee no longer
22 fulfills an essential job requirement—vaccination. Ashley Decl. ¶ 21. Thus, *Loudermill* does not
23 apply. *See Hannon v. Turnage*, 892 F.2d 653, 658–59 (7th Cir. 1990) (*Loudermill* did not apply
24

25 ¹³Plaintiffs’ assertions that “City firefighters are afforded special protection under Washington Law” and that
26 “[d]iscipline of the healthcare worker Plaintiffs is covered by RCW 18.130” are irrelevant. Dkt. #2 at 20. The State
27 does not employ “city firefighters,” nor are there *any* State-employee Plaintiffs identified as credentialed healthcare
workers subject to RCW 18.130. Thus, any hypothetical claims city firefighter or healthcare worker Plaintiffs may
have for alleged violation of procedural due process do not lie against the State.

1 where employee was terminated “for failing to possess the necessary qualifications”).

2 Furthermore, even if Plaintiffs were entitled to due process protections in connection with
3 administrative discharges, they have already received “[t]he essential requirements of due
4 process,” namely “notice and an opportunity to respond.” *Loudermill*, 470 U.S. at 545–46. As the
5 *Loudermill* Court explained, “[i]n general, ‘something less’ than a full evidentiary hearing is
6 sufficient prior to adverse administrative action.” *Id.* (quoting *Mathews v. Eldridge*, 424 U.S. 319,
7 343 (1976)). To comply with due process, an employer need provide only “oral or written notice
8 of the charges against [the employee], an explanation of the employer’s evidence, and an
9 opportunity to present [the employee’s] side of the story.” *Id.* at 546. “To require more than this
10 prior to termination would intrude to an unwarranted extent on the government’s interest in quickly
11 removing an unsatisfactory employee.” *Id.*

12 Plaintiffs undisputedly received ample notice of the Proclamation and the steps required to
13 maintain their employment. Nor is there any doubt that those who have elected not to comply have
14 received notice of the termination process and the reason therefor. There is likewise no dispute
15 that state employees who believe they should be exempt from the Proclamation—either on medical
16 or religious grounds—have been given an opportunity to present their case. *See, e.g.*, Arnold Ex.
17 57, Gilbert Decl. ¶¶ 19–22; Coalman Decl. ¶ 5; Schiess Decl. ¶ 3; George Decl. ¶ 7. Some
18 employees soon subject to termination are receiving yet a further opportunity to present their side
19 of the case. For example, State Patrol has offered pre-separation hearings to each employee subject
20 to separation, at which employees (along with a union representative) have an opportunity to tell
21 their side of the story and present any mitigating evidence. Ashley Decl. ¶¶ 17–20. State Patrol is
22 also making efforts to ensure that any employee who complies with the Proclamation, however
23 belatedly, will not be separated from service, including by offering leave without pay to employees
24 still in the process of becoming fully vaccinated. *Id.* ¶ 22. This is more than sufficient to meet the
25 requirements of due process, particularly given the State’s compelling interest in ensuring workers
26 in key sectors have received lifesaving vaccines. *Loudermill*, 470 U.S. at 542–43.

1 **5. Plaintiffs are unlikely to prevail on their Title VII and ADA claims**

2 Once again, Plaintiffs provide scant argument on their statutory antidiscrimination claims,
3 each of which is unlikely to succeed. Plaintiffs have failed to (a) meet the prima facie requirements
4 of a disparate impact claim; (b) exhaust their administrative remedies; and (c) explain how their
5 highly fact-specific, individual failure-to-accommodate claims under the ADA could possibly
6 justify an injunction against the Proclamation itself as to all 680,000 workers it covers.

7 **a. Plaintiffs have no viable disparate impact claim under Title VII**

8 The only Title VII liability theory Plaintiffs assert is for “disparate impact.” Dkt. #2 at 21.
9 To establish a “prima facie case of disparate impact under Title VII,” Plaintiffs “must show that a
10 facially neutral employment practice has a significantly discriminatory impact upon a group
11 protected by Title VII.” *Freyd v. Univ. of Or.*, 990 F.3d 1211, 1224 (9th Cir. 2021) (cleaned up).
12 This prima facie showing requires “statistical evidence of a kind and degree sufficient to show that
13 the practice in question has caused the exclusion of applicants for jobs or promotions because of
14 their membership in a protected group.” *Lyons v. Wash. State Dep’t of Soc. & Health Servs.*, No.
15 3:18-cv-05874-RBL, 2020 WL 816017, at *3 (W.D. Wash. Feb. 19, 2020) (quoting *Watson v. Fort*
16 *Worth Bank & Tr.*, 487 U.S. 977, 994 (1988)). “The plaintiff must also establish that the challenged
17 practice is either (a) not job related or (b) ‘inconsistent with business necessity.’” *Freyd*, 990 F.3d
18 at 1224 (quoting 42 U.S.C. § 2000e-2(k)(1)(A)(i)). Finally, “[e]ven if the practice is job related
19 and consistent with business necessity,” a “plaintiff may still prevail ‘by showing that the employer
20 refuses to adopt an available alternative practice that has less disparate impact and serves the
21 employer’s legitimate needs.’” *Id.* (quoting *Ricci v. DeStefano*, 557 U.S. 557, 578 (2009)).

22 Under that standard, Plaintiffs’ Title VII disparate impact claim fails on multiple levels—
23 most obviously because they have not “demonstrate[d] 1) a specific employment practice that 2)
24 causes a significant discriminatory impact.” *Id.* Even assuming *arguendo* that an emergency public
25 health directive with the force of law qualifies as a specific “employment practice” under Title
26 VII, Plaintiffs have provided no evidence of a “significantly discriminatory impact.” Plaintiffs
27 point to DOH data from April 2021 or earlier indicating that while Hispanic and Black

1 Washingtonians comprised approximately 13% and 4% of the state population, respectively, they
 2 represented only 8% and 3% of those who had received COVID-19 vaccinations, respectively.
 3 Dkt. #2 at 11 (citing Dkt. #3-1 at 692). This six-month-old statewide snapshot does not remotely
 4 demonstrate that the Proclamation has a significant disparate impact, for two reasons. First, it says
 5 nothing about vaccination rates among the specific subset of workers actually covered by the
 6 Proclamation. *See Lyons*, 2020 WL 816017, at *4 (“[G]eneralized statistics . . . at the . . . state
 7 level” are “not sufficient to present evidence raising an inference of discrimination on a disparate
 8 impact claim.”) (quoting *Stout v. Potter*, 276 F.3d 1118, 1122 (9th Cir. 2002)). Second, Plaintiffs’
 9 evidence is outdated. *Current* publicly available data show that Hispanic and Black
 10 Washingtonians make up 11% and 4%, respectively, of those who have initiated vaccination—the
 11 same percentages as each group’s share of the eligible state population.¹⁴ Lindquist Decl. ¶ 68.

12 To the extent Plaintiffs advance a *religious* discrimination claim under Title VII, their
 13 disparate impact evidence is equally inadequate. Plaintiffs claim that “[r]eligious exemptions are
 14 being granted at vastly lower rates than medical exemptions.” Dkt. #2 at 21. In fact, the opposite
 15 is true. As of October 4, 2021, state agencies had approved 4,219 out of 4,849 religious exemption
 16 requests submitted (an 87% approval rate), compared with 864 out of 1,220 medical exemption
 17 requests (a 72.1% approval rate). Sullivan-Colglazier Decl. ¶¶ 6–8, Ex. A at 4–5.¹⁵ Unable to
 18 establish even the *prima facie* requirements of a disparate impact claim, Plaintiffs are unlikely to
 19 prevail under the only Title VII theory they have even mentioned.¹⁶

20 ¹⁴*COVID-19 Data Dashboard, Vaccinations, Who is getting vaccinated? Race/Ethnicity*,
 21 <https://bit.ly/3BFHBPI> (updated Oct. 11, 2021). CDC data show that Hispanic Washingtonians have been vaccinated
 22 at a rate comparable to Whites (56% of the total white population versus 49% of the total Hispanic population) and
 23 Black Washingtonians have been vaccinated at a *higher* rate (58%). Nambi Ndugga, et al., *Latest Data on COVID-19*
 24 *Vaccinations by Race/Ethnicity*, KFF (Oct. 6, 2021), <https://bit.ly/2X9bLf8>. Under the “four-fifths rule” courts apply
 25 as a “rule of thumb,” this difference would be insufficient to establish a disparate impact, even if this data *did* cover
 26 the relevant population. *Stout*, 276 F.3d at 1124 (quoting 29 C.F.R. § 1607.4(D) (2001)). But even this modest gap
 27 appears to overstate matters: the same report shows that the limited disparity appears to be driven primarily, if not
 28 entirely, by the fact that the Hispanic population tends to skew younger than the White population. Among those 12
 29 and older, 64% of Hispanic Americans and 61% of white Americans had received at least one dose. Ndugga, *supra*.

¹⁵On October 5, 2021, the State filed an earlier version of Ms. Sullivan-Colglazier’s declaration in *Cleary*,
 containing similar numbers, so Plaintiffs were aware that their claim lacked a factual basis before they made it here.

¹⁶Plaintiffs are also unlikely to succeed on the merits of their claim because the “business necessity” of the
 Proclamation “constitutes a defense to disparate-impact claims.” *Texas Dep’t of Hous. & Cmty. Affairs v. Inclusive*
Cmties. Project, Inc., 576 U.S. 519, 531 (2015). For the reasons above, the Proclamation bears “a ‘manifest
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1 **b. Plaintiffs have failed to exhaust administrative remedies**

2 Finally, Plaintiffs cannot prevail on their Title VII and ADA claims because Plaintiffs have
 3 not exhausted their administrative remedies. “To assert a Title VII claim of discrimination in
 4 federal court, a plaintiff must first have timely filed a complaint of discrimination with his or her
 5 employing agency.” *Norris v. Foxx*, No. C13-5928 BHS, 2014 WL 935304, at *3 (W.D. Wash.
 6 Mar. 10, 2014) (citing *Sommatino v. United States*, 255 F.3d 704, 708 (9th Cir. 2001)). “The
 7 same exhaustion requirement applies to ADA claims.” *Gobin v. Microsoft Corp.*, No. C20-1044
 8 MJP, 2021 WL 148395, at *4 (W.D. Wash. Jan. 15, 2021) (citing 42 U.S.C. § 12117(a) and *Santa*
 9 *Maria v. Pac. Bell*, 202 F.3d 1170, 1176 (9th Cir. 2000)). Notably, “discrete acts must be separately
 10 timely exhausted even if plaintiff alleges that the acts stem from ‘a company-wide, or systemic,
 11 discriminatory practice[.]’” *Foxx*, 2014 WL 935304, at *5 (quoting *Cherosky v. Henderson*, 330
 12 F.3d 1243, 1246–47 (9th Cir. 2003)). Plaintiffs’ “failure to exhaust these claims justifies
 13 dismissal.” *Gobin*, 2021 WL 148395, at *4.

14 **c. Plaintiffs’ ADA failure-to-accommodate claims do not support their**
 15 **facial challenge to the Proclamation**

16 Plaintiffs’ ADA claim turns entirely on their allegation that the State has “denied . . .
 17 accommodation[s]” to some unspecified subset of Plaintiffs with disabilities. Dkt. #2 at 24. But
 18 this allegation cannot possibly suffice to carry their burden of proving a facial challenge because
 19 any failure to accommodate a given Plaintiff necessarily flows not from the Proclamation itself,
 20 but from its implementation by his or her employer—whether it be a state agency, a local
 21 governmental entity, or a private health care provider. An employer is not liable under the ADA if
 22 no reasonable accommodation is possible. *See Snapp v. United Transp. Union*, 889 F.3d 1088,
 23 1095 (9th Cir. 2018). And “[w]hether an accommodation is reasonable depends on the individual
 24 circumstances of each case, . . .requir[ing] a fact-specific, individualized analysis of the disabled

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 26 relationship’ to job performance” for the public-facing sectors it covers. *Id.*; *see also Contreras v. City of L.A.*, 656
 27 F.2d 1267, 1276 (9th Cir. 1981) (“[A]n employer must demonstrate a significant relation between the challenged
 selection device or criteria and the important elements of the job or training program, . . . [h]owever, the employer
 need not establish a perfect positive correlation between the selection criteria and the important elements of work.”).

1 individual’s circumstances and the [potential] accommodations.” *Dunlap v. Liberty Nat’l Prods.,*
 2 *Inc.*, 878 F.3d 794, 799 (9th Cir. 2017) (cleaned up). Even if Plaintiffs had established at this early
 3 stage of the case that any of them were denied a reasonable accommodation to which they were
 4 legally entitled (and they have not¹⁷), it would not remotely warrant entering a TRO or preliminary
 5 injunction against the Proclamation itself. *See Pac. Radiation Oncology, LLC v. Queen’s Med.*
 6 *Ctr.*, 810 F.3d 631, 636 (9th Cir. 2015) (“A preliminary injunction is appropriate when it grants
 7 relief of the same nature as that to be finally granted.”) (citing *De Beers Consol. Mines v. United*
 8 *States*, 325 U.S. 212, 220 (1945)); *Acevedo v. City of Philadelphia*, 680 F. Supp. 2d 716, 740 (E.D.
 9 Pa. 2010) (prevailing on a failure-to-accommodate claim alone, “without a showing that
 10 [challenged regulation] routinely prohibits consideration of reasonable accommodations,
 11 would not render the Regulation facially invalid”).

12 C. Plaintiffs Have Failed to Establish a Likelihood of Irreparable Harm

13 Plaintiffs’ Motion must also be denied because they are not “likely to suffer irreparable
 14 harm” absent “preliminary relief.” *Winter*, 555 U.S. at 20. Plaintiffs have not shown a likelihood
 15 of success on their constitutional claims; loss of employment is a quintessential compensable harm;
 16 and Plaintiffs’ delay in seeking relief undermines any assertion of irreparability.

17 Plaintiffs argue that alleged violations of their constitutional rights establish irreparable
 18 harm. Dkt. #2 at 11–12. They are wrong. Although deprivation of a constitutional right *can*
 19 constitute irreparable injury, no such presumption is appropriate where Plaintiffs fail to show a
 20 likelihood of success on their claims. *See supra* at 9–21; *see, e.g., Valdez*, 2021 WL 4145746, at

21 ¹⁷ Even as to the three plaintiffs specifically identified in their motion, Plaintiffs utterly fail to carry their
 22 burden of proving the State’s alleged failure to accommodate. Plaintiff Hollingsworth is not even a state employee,
 23 and thus has no claim against the State. Hollingsworth Decl. ¶ 2. Plaintiff Pilz has not “suffered an[y] adverse
 24 employment action because of his disability,” *Allen v. Pac. Bell*, 348 F.3d 1113, 1114 (9th Cir. 2003), but is, to the
 25 contrary, *currently engaging* in an interactive process with his employer to identify a reasonable accommodation,
 26 Gilbert Decl. ¶¶ 19–23. Lastly, Plaintiff LeBlanc’s own declaration confirms that no reasonable accommodation in
 27 his current position is possible. *See Snapp*, 889 at 1095. As he explains, State Patrol (WSP) engaged with him to
 accommodate his medical needs, but due to the “forward facing” nature of his “position (meaning [he] work[s] directly
 with our fire service and the public),... there was no way the WSP could accommodate [him]” in his current role or
 any other available position within the agency. LeBlanc Decl. ¶ 18; *see also Ashley Decl.* ¶ 10 (explaining that the
 “vast majority” of positions within WSP are public-facing). Because interacting with the public and co-workers is an
 “essential functions of [his] job,” LeBlanc’s inability to do so safely precludes a prima facie showing of failure to
 accommodate. *Allen*, 348 F.3d at 1114.

1 *12; *Klaassen*, 2021 WL 3073926, at *44 (similar); *Rushia v. Town of Ashburnham*, 701 F.2d 7,
 2 10 (1st Cir. 1983) (Breyer, J.) (“[T]he fact that [plaintiff] is asserting First Amendment rights does
 3 not automatically require a finding of irreparable injury.”); *Sierra Club v. Trump*, 379 F. Supp. 3d
 4 883, 925 (N.D. Cal. 2019), *aff’d*, 963 F.3d 874 (9th Cir. 2020) (plaintiff “must demonstrate some
 5 likely irreparable harm . . . and not simply a constitutional violation”), *vacated on other grounds*
 6 *in light of changed circumstances*, --- S. Ct. ----, No. 20-138, 2021 WL 2742775 (July 2, 2021).

7 Plaintiffs’ potential loss of employment also does not constitute irreparable harm. Dkt. #2
 8 at 12–13. By definition, injuries capable of compensation by damages are not irreparable,
 9 including job termination. *Sampson v. Murray*, 415 U.S. 61, 92 n.68 (1974) (absent “genuinely
 10 extraordinary situation,” employment loss is not irreparable harm). Applying *Sampson* and its
 11 progeny, courts across the country have held that employees challenging COVID-19 vaccination
 12 policies do not face irreparable harm. *See, e.g., Beckerich v. St. Elizabeth Med. Ctr.*, No. 21-105-
 13 DLB-EBA, 2021 WL 4398027, at *6 (E.D. Ky. Sept. 24, 2021); *Harsman v. Cincinnati Children’s*
 14 *Hosp. Med. Ctr.*, No. 1:21-cv-597, 2021 WL 4504245, at *4 (S.D. Ohio Sept. 30, 2021).

15 Likewise, purported privacy or health violations do not cause irreparable harm because any
 16 alleged injury can be “avoid[ed]” by refusing a vaccine and “accepting the resulting employment
 17 action.” *Harsman*, 2021 WL 4504245, at *4; *see also Norris*, 2021 WL 3891615, at *2 (choice of
 18 receiving vaccine and giving up alleged privacy right or refusing vaccine and risking loss did not
 19 constitute irreparable harm because “Plaintiff can be properly compensated by monetary
 20 damages”). As in these cases, the Proclamation does not force employees to get vaccinated—it
 21 merely makes vaccination a condition of continued employment absent an exemption. Plaintiffs
 22 therefore have a choice: get vaccinated, seek an exemption and accommodation (if qualified), or
 23 seek employment elsewhere. If Plaintiffs decline vaccination and are terminated, damages would
 24 be an adequate remedy, assuming any viable claims. This forecloses injunctive relief.¹⁸

25
 26 ¹⁸Plaintiffs’ limited case law is inapposite. *EEOC v. BNSF Ry. Co.*, 902 F.3d 916, 928–29 (9th Cir. 2018)
 27 concerned denial of a job on the basis of a disability. Similarly, *Nelson v. NASA*, 530 F.3d 865, 882 (9th Cir. 2008),
rev’d sub nom. NASA v. Nelson, 562 U.S. 134 (2011), concluded that plaintiffs showed irreparable harm because they
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1 Finally, Plaintiffs’ decision to wait two months after the Proclamation issued and less than
 2 two weeks before the October 18 deadline precludes any showing of irreparable harm. *See, e.g.,*
 3 *Miller ex rel. NLRB v. Cal. Pac. Med. Ctr.*, 991 F.2d 536, 544 (9th Cir. 1993) (five-month “delay
 4 before seeking [injunctive relief] implies lack of urgency and irreparable harm.”); *Wreal, LLC v.*
 5 *Amazon.com, Inc.*, 840 F.3d 1244, 1248 (11th Cir. 2016) (delay of “even only a few months . . .
 6 militates against a finding of irreparable harm.”); *Utah Gospel Mission v. Salt Lake City Corp.*,
 7 316 F. Supp. 2d 1201 (D. Utah 2004), *aff’d*, 425 F.3d 1249 (10th Cir. 2005) (two-month delay).

8 **D. The Balance of Equities and Public Interest Weigh Against Injunctive Relief**

9 Given the public health dangers that would result from enjoining the Proclamation, the
 10 balance of equities and the public interest weigh strongly against “employing the extraordinary
 11 remedy of injunction,” *Winter*, 555 U.S. at 24, even if Plaintiffs’ claims had merit. *Benisek v.*
 12 *Lamone*, 138 S. Ct. 1942, 1943–44 (2018) (per curiam) (“[A] preliminary injunction does not
 13 follow as a matter of course from a plaintiff’s showing of a likelihood of success on the merits.”).

14 As courts have consistently recognized, preventing further spread of a virus that has taken
 15 the lives of so many Americans is undoubtedly in the public interest. *See, e.g., Valdez*, 2021 WL
 16 4145746, at *13 (“the balance of equities tips in Defendants’ favor given the strong public interest
 17 here they are promoting—preventing further spread of COVID-19”). Given the Proclamation’s
 18 public-health purpose—saving lives through increased vaccination—enjoining it is not in the
 19 public interest. Were this Court to grant Plaintiffs’ Motion and allow unvaccinated state
 20 employees, health care workers, and teachers to continue working in their positions, more
 21 Washingtonians will contract the virus, fall ill, and die. The University of Washington’s Institute
 22 for Health Metrics and Evaluation estimates that Washington would suffer up to 113,000 more
 23 COVID-19 cases, 5,880 more hospitalizations, and 765 more deaths. Murray Decl., Ex. B at 5.

24 Most of those avoidable losses would be among unvaccinated people, including those like
 25 children, infants, and people with legitimate medical or religious exemptions who cannot get the

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 27 were required to provide constitutionally protected private information as a condition of employment. *See also*
Velasquez v. Croteau, No. C 08-02520 JSW, 2009 WL 10676750, at *2 (N.D. Cal. Oct. 16, 2009).

1 vaccine. Plaintiffs thus “are not asking to be allowed to make a self-contained choice to risk only
 2 their own health” *Klaassen*, 2021 WL 3073926, at *43 (quoting *Cassell v. Snyders*, 990 F.3d
 3 539, 550 (7th Cir. 2021)). Rather, “their decision necessarily bears on the health of other[s].” *Id.*
 4 These impacts on others undoubtedly weigh against enjoining the Proclamation.

5 Plaintiffs’ contrary assertion—that the Proclamation will result in “the loss of emergency
 6 and non-emergency services personnel and . . . more COVID infections,” Dkt. #2 at 13 (emphasis
 7 omitted)—is wholly speculative and contrary to evidence. In the last six weeks, there has been a
 8 nearly 40% increase in vaccination rates among state workers that is still trending upward.
 9 Sullivan-Colglazier Decl. ¶ 5, Ex. A. For example, as of October 4, 2021, 92.8% of DOC
 10 employees and 89.9% of WSP employees have verified they are vaccinated against COVID-19,¹⁹
 11 belying Plaintiffs’ speculation that the Proclamation will leave corrections facilities and law
 12 enforcement offices understaffed. Dkt. #2 at 8, 10. But even if some workers do choose to leave
 13 state employment rather than get vaccinated, the avoidable deaths of hundreds of Washingtonians
 14 far outweigh the temporary loss of some workers who refuse to protect themselves, their
 15 colleagues, and those in their care with the first and best defense against the virus.

16 **E. Abstention Doctrines Favor Denial of the Motion and Dismissal of the Suit**

17 When, as here, a suit “clearly involves basic problems of [state] policy,” federal courts
 18 should exercise “equitable discretion . . . to give the [state] courts the first opportunity to consider
 19 them.” *Burford v. Sun Oil Co.*, 319 U.S. 315, 332 (1943). The state policy issues at stake here—
 20 the scope of the Governor’s authority, the State’s requirements of its employees, and its efforts to
 21 prevent hundreds of deaths in a pandemic—should be left to state courts. The Ninth Circuit weighs
 22 *Burford* abstention using three factors: “1) the state must have concentrated suits involving the
 23 local issue in a particular court; 2) the federal issues must not be easily separable from complicated
 24 state law issues with which the state courts may have special competence; and 3) federal review
 25 might disrupt state efforts to establish a coherent policy.” *Fireman’s Fund Ins. Co. v.*
 26

27 ¹⁹These figures do not include employees who have accommodations.

1 *Quackenbush*, 87 F.3d 290, 296 (9th Cir. 1996) (citation omitted). All three warrant abstention.

2 First, the State has concentrated suits involving the Proclamation in Thurston County
 3 Superior Court. *See* RCW 4.12.020(2). As the Washington Supreme Court recently confirmed,
 4 that court is the mandatory venue for State actions challenging the Proclamation. Hughes Decl.,
 5 Ex. P. Second, the issues here are primarily related to state law for which the Thurston County
 6 Superior Court is especially competent as the mandatory venue. Three challenges to the
 7 Proclamation—including two by Plaintiffs’ own counsel—have already been filed in that court.
 8 The federal issues here—parallel constitutional claims and ancillary statutory claims—hinge on
 9 the same analysis of state law and are thus not “easily separable.” Third, it is critical that the State’s
 10 emergency public health directives be reviewed in the court most familiar with those efforts,
 11 helping avoid inconsistent results that could risk confusing the public as to which laws apply
 12 during an ongoing pandemic. The Court should abstain to allow the Thurston County Superior
 13 Court to speak with a singular voice on important state health policy questions.

14 This Court should also abstain under *Colorado River Water Conservation District v. United*
 15 *States*, 424 U.S. 800, 818 (1976), “due to the presence of [two] concurrent state proceeding[s]”
 16 seeking identical relief. The *Colorado River* factors are:

17 (1) which court first assumed jurisdiction over any property at stake; (2) the
 18 inconvenience of the federal forum; (3) the desire to avoid piecemeal litigation;
 19 (4) the order in which the forums obtained jurisdiction; (5) whether federal law or
 20 state law provides the rule of decision on the merits; (6) whether the state court
 proceedings can adequately protect the rights of the federal litigants; (7) the desire
 to avoid forum shopping; and (8) whether the state court proceedings will resolve
 all issues before the federal court.

21 *R.R. St. & Co. v. Transp. Ins. Co.*, 656 F.3d 966, 978–79 (9th Cir. 2011). While no single factor is
 22 determinative, all favor abstention here, except factors (1) and (2) (which are neutral):

23 Factor 3. Abstention will avoid piecemeal litigation of Plaintiffs’ challenge in multiple
 24 forums. Particularly as Plaintiffs seek to invalidate Proclamation 21-14 statewide, not just to
 25 exempt themselves, the risk of “reaching different results” is acute. *R.R. St.* at 979.

26 Factor 4. Plaintiffs’ counsel filed the *Cleary* case on September 10, and it was transferred

1 to Thurston County Superior Court on September 29, 2021, a week before Plaintiffs filed here.

2 Factor 5. Plaintiffs’ claims inevitably hinge on state law. They challenge the Governor’s
3 authority under the “Washington Constitution statute [sic],” Dkt. #1 at 2, argue that the Governor
4 “lacks legal authority,” *id.* ¶ 174, and argue they have been deprived of process under state statutes,
5 *id.* ¶ 210. Though Plaintiffs include federal constitutional and statutory claims, they make largely
6 the same arguments as the *Cleary* and *Johnson* plaintiffs in state court, identify no relevant
7 difference in state constitutional standards, and they aim for the same relief.

8 Factor 6. Because Plaintiffs’ claims mirror the state-court litigation—challenging the
9 Governor’s authority to issue Proclamation 21-14 and seeking statewide invalidation—Plaintiffs’
10 rights are just as well protected in the Thurston County Superior Court.

11 Factor 7. Plaintiffs’ forum shopping warrants abstention. They filed their complaint just a
12 week after their counsel lost their second effort to keep the parallel *Cleary* case in an improperly
13 chosen venue. *See supra* at 8. Their counsel’s third attempt to maintain this litigation outside of
14 the Thurston County Superior Court should be countenanced no more than the first two. *See*
15 *Fireman’s Fund*, 87 F.3d at 297; *Baseline Sports, Inc. v. Third Base Sports*, 341 F.Supp.2d 605,
16 611–612 (E.D. Va. 2004) (finding vexatious purpose where federal suit mirrored state court suit).

17 Factor 8. The Thurston County proceedings will resolve all essential issues present here:
18 whether Proclamation 21-14 is within the Governor’s authority, whether it is constitutional, and
19 whether it will be enjoined or invalidated. Any minor differences do not weigh against abstention,
20 as *Colorado River* requires only substantial similarity, not “exact parallelism.” *R.R. St.* at 982.

21 IV. CONCLUSION

22 For the reasons above, Defendants respectfully ask the Court to deny Plaintiffs’ Motion.

23 DATED this 14th day of October 2021.

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DECLARATION OF SERVICE

I hereby declare that on this day I caused the foregoing document to be electronically filed with the Clerk of the Court using the Court’s CM/ECF System which will serve a copy of this document upon all counsel of record.

DATED this 14th day of October 2021, at Seattle, Washington.

Andrew R.W. Hughes
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Assistant Attorney General

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