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UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
FOR THE NORTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA
SAN JOSE DIVISION

<p>ELENA DEL CAMPO on behalf of herself and all others similarly situated,</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Plaintiffs,</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">v.</p> <p>GEORGE KENNEDY, AMERICAN CORRECTIVE COUNSELING SERVICES, INC., BRUCE RAYE, DONALD R. MEALING, LYNN R. HASNEY and DOES 1 through 20.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Defendants.</i></p>	<p>Civ. No. 01-21151 JW</p> <p>CLASS ACTION</p> <p>PLAINTIFFS' OPPOSITION TO DEFENDANTS' MOTION TO DISMISS</p> <p>Date: July 10, 2006 Time: 9:00 a.m. Courtroom 8</p>
<p>AND CONSOLIDATED ACTION</p>	<p>Civ. No. 03-02691 JM</p>

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1 **INTRODUCTION**

2 This lawsuit challenges the constitutionality of a debt collection operation run by American
3 Corrective Counseling Services, Inc., and its affiliates (collectively “ACCS”) under contract with
4 local district attorneys. Under ACCS’s business model, a district attorney’s office rents its name
5 and authority to ACCS, which then holds itself out as the district attorney and uses false threats of
6 prosecution to coerce consumers who have written dishonored checks into paying not only the
7 check amount, but also unlawful collection fees. ACCS then splits the profits with the district
8 attorney.

9 The case raises four constitutional challenges to the ACCS program: (1) that the program
10 violates due process because the defendants have a substantial financial interest in maintaining a
11 high rate of collections; (2) that the program violates both equal protection and due process
12 because it extracts fees from people, under the threat of criminal prosecution, without regard for
13 their ability to pay; (3) that the program violates the most basic command of the due process
14 clause: the state or entities cloaked in its authority may not take plaintiffs’ property without
15 providing some meaningful opportunity to contest the deprivation; and (4) that the defendants
16 violate due process by making baseless threats of prosecution solely to extract the payment of fees,
17 knowing that the fees are unlawful and that no probable cause determination has been made by a
18 prosecutor.

19
20 In their motion to dismiss, the defendants do not address the merits of each of these
21 constitutional challenges. Instead, with virtually no supporting legal authority, they ask the Court
22 to dismiss *all* of the claims on the theory that plaintiffs’ payments in response to ACCS’s
23 collection demands do not implicate a property interest and were purely voluntary. Neither
24 contention has merit. It is well-settled that a deprivation of money, even money that is allegedly
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1 owed to someone else, implicates a protected interest in property and that misrepresentation and
2 coercion render an ostensibly voluntary deprivation involuntary. Plaintiffs allegations are more
3 than sufficient to withstand defendants' motion to dismiss.

4 STATEMENT

5 **A. Criminal Prohibitions on Fraudulent Check Writing Present Serious Dangers of** 6 **Abuse.**

7 In California, writing a check that is returned for insufficient funds, without more, is not a
8 crime. Under Section 476a of the California Penal Code, it is a crime only if the check writer
9 *intends to defraud* the recipient. The California courts have long described "intent to defraud the
10 person to whom the check was delivered" as "the gist of the offense," *People v. North*, 182 Cal.
11 Rptr. 126, 128 (Cal. Ct. App. 1982), for which "no presumption of law will suffice." *People v.*
12 *Becker*, 30 P.2d 562, 563 (Cal. Ct. App. 1934). "The rationale is that the statute punishes the
13 crime of intent to defraud rather than the inability to pay the debt." *Harris v. State*, 378 So.2d 257,
14 260-61 (Ala. Crim. App. Ct. 1979).

15 A statute that prohibits the writing of dishonored checks without an element of fraudulent
16 intent becomes "no more than a device to force payment of debt." *People v. Vinnola*, 494 P.2d
17 826, 831 (Colo. 1972). "Such a result strikes at the very foundation of our system of criminal
18 justice" and has repeatedly been held to violate due process, equal protection, and constitutional
19 prohibitions on punishment for debt. *Vinnola*, 494 P.2d at 831 (striking down bad check statute on
20 due process and equal protection grounds). Judicial scrutiny of these statutes is not new. *See, e.g.,*
21 *Burnham v. Commonwealth*, 15 S.W.2d 256, 258 (Ky. 1929) (striking down bad check statute that
22 was "palpably designed merely to enforce the collection of debts" and lacked a constitutionally-
23 required indigency defense); *see generally Comment, Imprisonment for Debt and the Constitution*,
24 1970 L. & Soc. Order 659 (1970).

1 Given these dangers, courts have long warned that the use of bad check laws “should be
2 closely scrutinized,” *Vinnola*, 494 P.2d at 828, and that even facially constitutional statutes, like
3 California’s, “lend themselves to use by the unscrupulous who seek only payment of debts and
4 have no interest in criminal prosecution other than as a means of collecting money allegedly due
5 them,” which is “an unconstitutional application of such statutes.” *Tolbert v. State*, 321 So.2d 227,
6 232 (Ala. 1975) (“This court has repeatedly condemned the use of threat of prosecution as a means
7 of collection of worthless checks.”).

8 Some courts have also taken note of the abuses that can occur when financially interested
9 parties are permitted to have a hand in enforcement and when the normally salutary practice of
10 “pretrial diversion”—which ordinarily occurs only after the filing of criminal charges—is twisted
11 into a tool for debt collection. “Allowing the District Attorney, the county’s chief law enforcement
12 officer, to process civil debt as a criminal proceeding, flies in the face of our constitution
13 [W]hen the District Attorney’s bread and butter depends upon, or is enriched by, the fees collected
14 in bad check cases, the special interests arising therefrom cannot be ignored.” *Moody v.*
15 *Mississippi*, 716 So.2d 562, 567 (Miss. 1998). In *Moody*, the Mississippi Supreme Court held that
16 “a standard practice of extracting a set fine from persons accused of writing bad checks on the pain
17 of suffering full criminal prosecution for failure do so,” in the context of a pretrial diversion
18 program, violates the Equal Protection Clause. *Id.* at 563. In another bad check case, the West
19 Virginia Supreme Court declared that “[t]he prosecutorial services of the state are not for private
20 use in civil debt collection” and held that prosecutors “are not authorized to divert cases prior to
21 bringing formal charges where there is probable cause to believe the accused is guilty.” *State v.*
22 *Orth*, 359 S.E.2d 136, 141 (W.Va. 1987) (observing that the “threat of prosecution for the failure
23 to make the required payments smacks of the generally discredited practice of imprisonment for
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1 debts”); *see generally* Josephine R. Potuto, *A Review of the Bad Check Offense and the Law*
2 *Enforcement Debt Collector*, 65 Neb. L. Rev. 242 (1986).

3 The types of abuses raised in this lawsuit, therefore, are not new and have not escaped the
4 attention of courts. What makes the ACCS operation unique is that it has standardized these
5 abuses and transformed them into a profitable business model that it can sell to local prosecutors.
6 The Constitution does not permit such abuses to go unchecked. As the Ninth Circuit recently
7 observed in a bad check case, while a creditor may always “try to collect its money . . . using the
8 debt collection procedures it would employ for any other” debt, the mere failure to pay an
9 obligation “is not a crime; the days of imprisoning insolvent debtors are long gone.” *Goldyn v.*
10 *Hayes*, 444 F.3d 1062, 1069 (9th Cir. 2006). “Perhaps some would say that [the check writer’s]
11 innocence is a mere technicality, but that would miss the point. In a society devoted to the rule of
12 law, the difference between violating or not violating a criminal statute cannot be shrugged aside
13 as a minor detail.” *Id.* at 1070.

14
15 **B. California Law Permits Counties to Establish “Check Diversion” Programs,
16 But Only Within Strict Limits.**

17 In 1985, California’s Legislature enacted legislation to permit county district attorneys,
18 with the approval of their county board of supervisors, to create pretrial “bad check diversion
19 programs.” Cal. Penal Code § 1001.60, *et seq.*¹

20 ***District Attorney Must Find Probable Cause.*** The statute limited these programs to cases
21 in which “there is *probable cause* to believe that there has been a violation of Section 476a.” *Id.* §
22 1001.60. Although a county may choose a private contractor to administer the program, only

23
24 ¹ Ordinarily, “[p]retrial diversion refers to the procedure of postponing prosecution of an
25 offense filed as a misdemeanor either temporarily or permanently at any point in the judicial
26 process from the point at which the accused is charged until adjudication.” Cal. Penal Code §
1001; *see generally* Note, *Pretrial Diversion from the Criminal Process*, 83 Yale L.J. 827 (1981).

1 “[t]he *district attorney* may refer a bad check case to the diversion program.” *Id.* § 1001.61; *id.* §
2 1001.62. (“[T]he *district attorney* shall determine if the case is one which is appropriate to be
3 referred to the bad check diversion program.”). Under the ACCS business model, however, the
4 *district attorney* makes no probable cause determination before collection begins.

5 ***Limits on Fees.*** The statute also places strict limits on the fees that may be charged. The
6 statute provides that “[a] *district attorney* may collect a fee if his or her office collects and
7 processes a bad check,” but that “[t]he amount of the fee shall not exceed thirty-five dollars (\$35)
8 for each bad check in addition to the actual amount of any bank charges incurred by the victim as a
9 result of the offense.” *Id.* § 1001.65. “If the *district attorney* elects to collect any fee for bank
10 charges . . . that fee shall be paid to the victim,” but “[i]n no event shall” that charge “exceed ten
11 dollars (\$10) per check.” *Id.* ACCS routinely demands fees of \$170 or more per check.

12 ***Only A Court, After Determining Ability to Pay, May Assess Class Fees.*** The statute
13 permits a charge for a diversion class *only* after a criminal complaint is filed following a check
14 writer’s failure to comply with the terms of the diversion program. In that event, “the court, after
15 conviction . . . shall make inquiry into the financial condition of the defendant and, upon a finding
16 that the defendant is able in whole or part to pay the expense of the education class, the court may
17 order him or her to pay for all or part of that expense.” *Id.* § 1001.65. Nevertheless, ACCS
18 routinely charges a “class fee” of up to \$150, without regard for an individual’s ability to pay.

20 **C. Allegations In The Complaint**

21 **1. ACCS and Its Affiliates Threaten Prosecution Without Probable Cause.**

22 Merchants that participate in the ACCS program refer dishonored checks directly to ACCS
23 for collection. Complaint ¶ 71. They do not provide ACCS with any information not on the face
24 of the check, *id.*, and they do not allege that the check writers intended to defraud or knew of
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1 insufficiency of funds—the requirements for a violation of Cal. Penal Code § 476a. *Id.* ¶ 81(d).
2 Upon receiving only the check information—and without any review by a prosecutor—ACCS
3 sends official-looking notices on district attorney letterhead threatening check writers with
4 criminal prosecution if they do not immediately enroll in its “Bad Check Restitution Program.” *Id.*
5 ¶¶ 41, 45, 50, 56, 66, 81(e).

6 The notices inform check writers that the District Attorney has received an “INCIDENT
7 REPORT alleging you violated Penal Code 476a.” *Id.* Ex. 1, 6, 9, 11. The notice states: “YOU
8 MAY AVOID A COURT APPEARANCE if you agree to enroll in the Santa Clara District
9 Attorney’s Bad Check Restitution Program.” *Id.* If plaintiffs do not respond to the initial notice,
10 ACCS sends a second demand. *Id.* ¶¶ 41, 46, 51, 57, 59, 67, with more forceful and threatening
11 language:

12
13 “Your failure to respond NOW may result in the referral of this
crime report for CRIMINAL PROSECUTION!”

14 “IF YOU WISH TO AVOID POTENTIAL ARREST AND
15 PROSECUTION, YOU NEED TO CALL THIS OFFICE
IMMEDIATELY!”

16 *Id.* Ex. 5, 10, 13. If plaintiffs do not respond to the second letter, ACCS sends a third letter, *id.* ¶¶
17 42, 54, 68:

18 “PLEASE CONTACT THIS OFFICE TO AVOID CRIMINAL
19 PROSECUTION”

20 “Criminal charges . . . are being prepared for review by a deputy
21 prosecutor.”

22 *Id.* Ex. 8, 14. ACCS thus commences its collection procedures and repeatedly threatens criminal
23 prosecution without any indicia of probable cause to conclude that plaintiffs have the requisite
24 criminal intent. *Id.* ¶¶ 74, 110(a). Even plaintiffs who inform ACCS that their dishonored check
25 was the result of a bona fide mistake are told that they are nonetheless liable and must enroll in the
26

1 program to avoid criminal prosecution—despite ACCS’s actual knowledge that the requirements
2 of § 476a cannot be satisfied. *Id.* ¶ 75.

3 **2. ACCS and Its Affiliates Use Misrepresentation And Coercion To Extract Fees.**

4 ACCS extracts fees from plaintiffs through numerous coercive and misleading techniques.
5 ACCS informs plaintiffs that the district attorney has received an “Incident Report” alleging that
6 plaintiffs violated Cal. Penal Code § 476a. *Id.* ¶ 80(d). The truth is that merchants do not
7 generally allege that dishonored check writers have violated Cal. Penal Code § 476a. *Id.* ¶ 81(d).
8 ACCS informs plaintiffs that they have committed a crime by writing a dishonored check. *Id.* ¶
9 80(e). The truth is that no evidence has crossed a prosecutor’s desk; the district attorney has not
10 determined that there is probable cause to believe that the plaintiff committed a crime. *Id.* ¶ 80(e).
11 ACCS threatens plaintiffs with criminal prosecution unless they participate in the diversion
12 program. *Id.* ¶¶ 80(e), (g). The truth is that the district attorney rarely, if ever, initiates criminal
13 prosecution against dishonored check writers who do not enroll in the diversion program. *Id.* ¶¶
14 81(f)-(g). ACCS informs plaintiffs that the district attorney operates the Bad Check Restitution
15 Program and that all communications regarding the diversion program are sent and received by the
16 district attorney’s office. *Id.* ¶¶ 80(a)-(c). The truth is that ACCS operates all facets of the
17 diversion program, with little or no supervision by the district attorney. *Id.* ¶¶ 81(a)-(c).
18

19 **3. The Named Plaintiffs Were Deprived Of Protected Interests In Property Based**
20 **on Misrepresentation and Coercion.**

21 *Elena del Campo.* In July 2002, in connection with returned checks of \$81.99 and
22 \$240.00, ACCS demanded that Ms. del Campo pay \$536.99 (the amount of the checks + \$35
23 administrative fee per check + \$10 bank charges per check + a class fee of \$125). *Id.* ¶¶ 43-45.
24 Ms. Del Campo paid \$411.99, in payment of the check amounts, the bank charges, and the
25 administrative fees. *Id.* ¶ 47. ACCS, rather than paying the merchant the check amounts and
26

1 keeping only the \$90.00 in fees, kept half of del Campo's payment, without notifying her or the
2 merchant of its actions, thus leaving the merchant and Ms. del Campo with an outstanding debt
3 between them. *Id.* ¶ 48. In October 2001, in connection with a returned check of \$95.02, ACCS
4 demanded that Ms. del Campo pay the amount of the check plus \$170.00 in various illegal fees
5 (totaling \$265.02). *Id.* ¶ 36. She mailed ACCS only the check amount of \$95.02. *Id.* ¶ 37.
6 Because this payment covered only the check amount and not any of the \$170.00 in fees, ACCS—
7 without the merchant or plaintiff's knowledge or consent—converted 50% of this amount (\$47.51)
8 for its own use, and sent the remaining \$47.51 to the merchant along with a notice that plaintiff
9 had only paid half her balance to the merchant. *Id.* ¶¶ 38-40.

10 ***Ashorina Medina.*** Ms. Medina sent ACCS \$210.00 as payment for a returned check in the
11 amount of \$250.00. *Id.* ¶¶ 49, 52. ACCS, which had demanded payment of \$250 plus \$170.00 in
12 fees, converted 50% of Medina's payment (\$105.00) to its own use, and reported to the merchant
13 that she had paid only \$105.00 of her \$250.00 debt, thus leaving the merchant and Ms. Medina
14 with a \$145 outstanding debt between them. *Id.* ¶ 53.

15 ***Lisa Johnston.*** Ms. Johnston, after receiving demands from ACCS, made a series of
16 payments totaling \$110.58. *Id.* ¶¶ 60, 62-63. ACCS, without Ms. Johnston's knowledge or
17 consent, deducted its own fees from the amounts paid to cover only the amount of the returned
18 check, leaving the merchant and Ms. Johnston with an outstanding debt between them. *Id.* ¶¶ 64,
19 66.

20
21 **4. The ACCS Program Injects An Impermissible Profit Motive Into The**
22 **Enforcement Process.**

23 As with any run-of-the-mill collection agency, ACCS—and its commission-earning
24 employees—receives a share of what it collects. *Id.* ¶ 29. Defendant George Kennedy also
25 receives a portion of the fees that ACCS collects *Id.* ¶ 30. All of the defendants receive some
26

1 share of the money ACCS collects in operating its Bad Check Restitution Programs in California.
2 *Id.* ¶ 33. The defendants thus operate the Bad Check Restitution Program for profit, *id.* ¶ 81(a),
3 and have a direct and substantial financial interest in assessing and collecting the maximum
4 possible fees. *Id.* ¶ 111.

5 **5. ACCS Provides Consumers No Opportunity To Contest the Fees Assessed Or**
6 **The Accusations Against Them.**

7 ACCS does not offer plaintiffs the opportunity to contest the accusations against them or
8 the fees assessed before a neutral decision-maker and does not determine individuals' ability to
9 pay before making demands for payment. *Id.* ¶ 110. ACCS provides a telephone number for
10 plaintiffs to contact if plaintiffs received the notice in error, were not properly notified, or already
11 paid the merchant, *id.* Ex. 1, 6, 9, 11, but that telephone line is staffed by ACCS employees, *id.* ¶
12 81(c), who have a personal financial interest in collections and are not neutral decision-makers. *Id.*
13 ¶ 29.

14 **ARGUMENT**

15 **I. PLAINTIFFS HAVE STATED CLAIMS UNDER THE UNITED STATES AND**
16 **CALIFORNIA CONSTITUTION UPON WHICH RELIEF MAY BE GRANTED.**

17 **A. The Plaintiffs Were Deprived of Property Interests Protected by the Due**
18 **Process Clause.**

19 Although they concede that the plaintiffs have “paid various amounts of money” to them as
20 part of the challenged program, the defendants nevertheless contend that “one thing is clear from
21 the Consolidated Complaint: plaintiffs have not been deprived of any liberty or property interest
22 that is more than de minimus [sic] by virtue of defendants’ conduct.” Def’s Br. at 13. This
23 argument is meritless.

24 To begin with, “[t]he plaintiffs clearly have a property interest in the money they own.”
25 *Marshall County Bd. of Educ. v. Marshall County Gas Dist.*, 992 F.2d 1171, 1176 (11th Cir.
26

1 1993); *see Allen v. Leis*, 213 F.Supp.2d 819 (S.D. Ohio 2002) (holding that a county jail’s policy
2 of charging a “booking fee,” which averaged \$9.35 and did not exceed \$30 per person, violated the
3 Due Process Clause). Ms. Campo paid the defendants a total of at least \$507.01 (Complaint ¶ 34-
4 48); Ms. Medina paid a total of at least \$210.00 (*id.* ¶¶ 49-54); and Ms. Johnston paid a total of at
5 least \$110.58 (*id.* ¶¶ 60-68).² Those allegations are all that is necessary to show that a cognizable
6 property interest is at stake.

7 Defendants cannot seriously contend that the deprivation of plaintiffs’ money is a *de*
8 *minimis* deprivation. “[T]he Court has never held that only . . . extreme deprivations trigger due
9 process concern.” *Connecticut v. Doehr*, 501 U.S. 1, 12 (1991). On the contrary, in *Parratt v.*
10 *Taylor*, 451 U.S. 527, 536 (1981), for example, the Court held that even a \$23.50 hobby kit that
11 had been mail-ordered, but not received, by a prisoner was “property” within the meaning of the
12 Due Process Clause. And in *Fuentes v. Shevin*, 407 U.S. 67, 89-90 (1972), the Court explained
13 that the deprivation of even ordinary household items triggers due process protections. “No doubt,
14 there may be many gradations in the ‘importance’ or ‘necessity’ of various consumer goods . . .
15 But if the root principle of procedural due process is to be applied with objectivity, it cannot rest
16 on such distinctions. The Fourteenth Amendment speaks of ‘property’ generally” and “[i]t is not
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23 ² Plaintiff Miriam Campos has been deprived of neither property nor liberty. *See*
24 Complaint ¶¶ 55-59. She therefore does not assert claims under the first or second counts of the
25 complaint and will not be named as a representative for the relevant subclass, *id.* ¶ 101 (“All
26 members of the umbrella class from whom ACCS collected money in the name of the Santa Clara
District Attorney on, or after, December 12, 1999”).

1 the business of a court adjudicating due process rights to make its own critical evaluation of
2 [consumers’] choices and protect only the ones that, by its own lights, are ‘necessary.’”³

3 Far from being insignificant, the case for due process protections with respect to plaintiffs’
4 deprivations is particularly compelling—not necessarily because of the size of the amounts (which
5 are not insignificant for people of limited means), but because of the manner in which they are
6 extracted. The Supreme Court has recognized that where, as here, payment on a debt is sought
7 upon pain of some coercive action, such as the garnishment of wages, there is a special need for
8 constitutional safeguards. *See Sniadach v. Family Fin. Corp. of Bay View*, 395 U.S. 337, 341
9 (1969). In such situations, the “leverage of the creditor . . . is enormous,” particularly where the
10 demand includes “not only the original debt but ‘collection fees.’” *Id.* The debtor often “is in no
11 position to resist demands for collection fees. If the debt is small, the debtor will be under
12 considerable pressure to pay the debt and collection charges” to become free of the garnishment
13 *Id.* When demands for payment are accompanied by an apparently real threat of criminal
14 prosecution from a prosecutor’s office, there can be little doubt that the pressure exerted is
15 similarly “enormous.”

17 Without any supporting authority, defendants’ brief argues that the plaintiffs have not
18 suffered a deprivation unless they have paid the full “case balance” demanded by ACCS—*i.e.* the
19 amount of the check and *all* of the various collection fees demanded—and that “[t]o the extent
20 plaintiffs mailed in payments up to the total amount of their respective bad check(s), they have not
21 been deprived of anything that was rightfully theirs to keep in the first place.” Defs.’ Br. 13.

23 ³ Those few property interests that the Court has deemed *de minimis* have generally been
24 truly insignificant—the sort of thing that nobody at all would value. *See, e.g., United States v.*
25 *Jacobsen*, 466 U.S. 109 (1984) (holding that a “trace amount” of cocaine used for testing, “the loss
26 of which appears to have gone unnoticed” by the owner and which “had already been lawfully
detained,” was a *de minimis* property interest); *Cardwell v. Lewis*, 417 U.S. 583, 591-92 (1974)
(owner had a *de minimis* interest in paint scrapings from an automobile).

1 Nothing in due process jurisprudence supports these distinctions. Under *Sniadach* and its progeny,
2 it is well-settled that even the deprivation of *property that one allegedly owes to someone else* is a
3 deprivation of property cognizable under the Due Process Clause. *See, e.g., Doehr*, 501 U.S. 1;
4 *North Georgia Finishing, Inc. v. Di-Chem, Inc.*, 419 U.S. 601 (1975). As the Supreme Court
5 stated when it rejected a similar argument in *Fuentes*, “[t]he Fourteenth Amendment’s protection
6 of ‘property’ . . . has never been interpreted to safeguard only the rights of undisputed ownership.”
7 *Id.* at 86. The Court further explained that, “even assuming that the [plaintiffs] had fallen behind
8 in their installment payments, and that they had no other valid defenses, that is immaterial here. . . .
9 To one who protests against the taking of his property without due process of law, it is no answer
10 to say that in his particular case due process of law would have led to the same result because he
11 had no adequate defense upon the merits. It is enough to invoke the procedural safeguards of the
12 Fourteenth Amendment that a significant property interest is at stake.” *Id.* at 87.

14 **B. The Plaintiffs’ Property Was Extracted Through Misrepresentation, Duress, and**
15 **Coercion.**

16 Defendants next contend that the plaintiffs have failed to state a due process claim because
17 the challenged program is “voluntary and optional,” and therefore does not implicate due process.
18 Defs’ Br. 13. They ask the Court to turn a blind eye to their use of misrepresentations and
19 coercion to extract fees from consumers and instead focus on only one fact—that the defendants
20 have included a line in their collection demands describing their program as “optional.” The
21 Constitution is not so easily fooled.

22 **1.** It is an elementary principle of American constitutional law—across a broad range of
23 contexts, including procedural due process—that even an ostensibly voluntary act is rendered
24 involuntary when misrepresentation or coercion prevent a person’s choice from being truly “free
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26

1 and informed.” *Stone v. University of Md. Med. Sys. Corp.*, 855 F.2d 167, 174 (4th Cir. 1988); *see*
2 *also United States v. Griffin*, 530 F.2d 739, 742-43 (7th Cir. 1976) (“A consent obtained through
3 the use of coercion, whether actual or implicit, is inherently involuntary,” and “[t]rickery, fraud, or
4 misrepresentation . . . naturally undermine the voluntariness of any consent.”). “Subtle coercion,
5 in the form of an assertion of authority or color of office by the law enforcement officers may
6 make what appears to be a voluntary act an involuntary one.” *Id.*; *cf. Norton v. City of Chicago*,
7 690 N.E.2d 119, 125 (Ill. Ct. App. 1997) (concluding that notices of parking violations sent by a
8 private contractor on behalf of local government, which “urged recipients to pay the fines in lieu of
9 steeper penalties or court action,” were “coercive enough to render plaintiffs’ payment
10 involuntary”).

11
12 The facts alleged in the complaint are more than enough to show that the defendants extract
13 their unlawful fees in a manner that renders plaintiffs’ decisions to “enroll” in the collection
14 program involuntary. Despite a lack of good cause to threaten people with criminal prosecution
15 for fraudulent check-writing, ACCS’s threats send an unmistakable signal:

16 IF YOU WISH TO AVOID POTENTIAL ARREST AND PROSECUTION,
17 YOU NEED TO CALL THIS OFFICE IMMEDIATELY!

18 PLEASE CONTACT THIS OFFICE TO AVOID CRIMINAL PROSECUTION.

19 Due to your failure to complete the requirements of the District Attorneys’ Bad
20 Check Restitution Program . . . we are now initiating formal prosecution
21 proceedings against you. Criminal charges of PC 476(a) . . . are being prepared[.]

22 Complaint ¶¶ 38, 39, 48, 43, 51, 64, 65. At the time these threats are made, no prosecutor has
23 made a determination of probable cause and no evidence of fraudulent intent has been gathered.

24 Complaint ¶ 74. This problem is compounded by the fact that when consumers call ACCS—
25 believing they are speaking with neutral employees of the District Attorney’s Office rather than
26 collection agency employees who work on commission—and “explain that the check was returned

1 because of a mistake made by the check writer or by the bank,” they are told they are “nonetheless
2 liable, and must pay the money being demanded to avoid the possibility of prosecution.”
3 Consolidated Compl. ¶ 75. At the appropriate stage in the litigation, the plaintiffs will present
4 evidence obtained in discovery—including an ACCS employee handbook and telephone scripts—
5 indicating that ACCS operators, who receive commissions on the amounts they collect, may be
6 engaging in even more coercive and deceitful conduct over the telephone.⁴

7 This court can also draw upon the experience of a handful of courts that have examined the
8 collection notices sent by District Attorney Bad Check Diversion programs, including ACCS, and
9 have found that the notices are coercive and render the programs involuntary. *See In re Byrd*, 256
10 B.R. 246 (Bankr. E.D.N.C. 2000); *In re Simonini*, 282 B.R. 604 (Bankr. W.D.N.C. 2002), *vacated*
11 *on other grounds*, 2003 WL 21500197 (4th Cir. 2003); *In re Reisen*, 2004 WL 764628 (Bankr.
12 N.D. Iowa 2004). As these courts have recognized, defendants’ characterization of their scheme
13 strains credulity.

14
15 In *In re Byrd*, for example, the court reviewed the Clark County, Nevada District
16 Attorney’s Bad Check Diversion Unit’s eligibility criteria, procedures, and notices and, based on
17 this review, gave “no credence to Clark County’s argument that ‘Byrd *voluntarily* chose to enter
18 the deferred prosecution program.” 256 B.R. at 253 (emphasis in original). Instead, the court
19 found that “Byrd was prompted *under pressure* to pay an amount equivalent to the debt . . . plus
20 fines, without having the benefit of judicial overview or discretion.” *Id.* at 254 (emphasis added).
21 The court observed that the County’s “characterization of the program [was] wholly untenable”
22

23 ⁴ In addition, plaintiffs’ counsel have recently learned that ACCS may be making
24 recordings of its telephone calls with consumers. These recordings would provide a more complete
25 picture of the nature and scope of ACCS’s deceptive practices. On June 16, 2006, Magistrate
26 Judge Trumbull issued an order requiring ACCS to refrain from destroying these recordings
pending a hearing on the matter on August 16, 2006.

1 and that “the County's actions are troubling, and its lack of candor regarding the purposes” of the
2 program warranted special mention. *Id.* at 253.

3 Similarly, in *In re Simonini*, the court concluded that the bad check diversion program’s
4 “prosecution” was merely “debt collection in sheep’s clothing.” 282 B.R. at 614. Even though
5 check writers were theoretically given a “choice” between paying and facing criminal prosecution,
6 the program was nothing more than a “mandatory restitution program” that was “a blatant attempt
7 to collect debt for private persons.” *Id.* (emphasis added). These conclusions were based on a
8 thorough examination of the collection notices, which were admitted into evidence along with an
9 affidavit submitted by the program’s counsel. The court observed that “[s]ome passages suggest,
10 with little ambiguity,” that imminent prosecution would be “dropped” upon payment by the check
11 writer. *Id.* at 617. The court made clear that participation in the program could not be considered
12 voluntary:
13

The message is transparent: pay . . . or go to jail. Taken in sum,
14 the documents place the Debtor in a virtual debtor’s gaol by
15 holding the threat of prosecution over his head until he pays in full,
16 at which time the prosecution threat subsides.

17 *Id.* The court went so far as to describe the predicament in which the bad check diversion program
18 placed consumers as “a legal box—if not a literal jail—they can place debtors in until payment.
19 Although this might otherwise be said to have the general benefit of protecting the people of [the
20 state] from bad checks, the fact that the threat of prosecution disappears upon payment raises
21 serious questions about who exactly this scheme helps.” *Id.*

22 Finally, in *In re Reisen*, the court concluded that an ACCS-run check diversion program
23 was “not an instrumentality of the Dubuque County Attorney” but a “collection agency” that
24 “exists to facilitate the payment of bad checks” and “operates under typical debt collection rules.”
25 2004 WL 764628, at *3. The court heard testimony from the County Attorney concerning the
26

1 program's operations, considered an affidavit filed by ACCS's Regional Manager, and carefully
2 reviewed the demand letters (virtually identical to those at issue here), cataloguing their
3 increasingly ominous references to criminal prosecution. It noted that the first notice "warns [the
4 recipient] that failure to contact the Restitution Program could result in criminal prosecution," that
5 the second notice "threatened [the recipient] with 'potential arrest and prosecution' if she did not
6 contact the Restitution Program immediately," and that the third notice suggested that criminal
7 prosecution was imminent if she did not pay. *Id.* at *3 (quoting notice language, including the
8 statement: "we are now initiating steps toward formal prosecution proceedings against you"). The
9 court concluded that ACCS's notices "were strongly worded and promise the imposition of
10 substantial sanctions including criminal charges unless certain conduct occurs." *Id.* at *7.

11
12 In short, ACCS's program is designed to create a situation in which a check writer "is in no
13 position to resist demands for collection fees." *Sniadach*, 395 U.S. at 341. The defendants cannot
14 evade the requirements of due process merely by labeling such deprivations "voluntary and
15 optional."

16 2. The only authority the defendants cite in support of their voluntariness argument is a
17 case concerning a public employee, a mail carrier named Malone, who sought to challenge his
18 discharge for insubordination. *See Malone v. United States Postal Serv.*, 526 F.2d 1099, 1105 (6th
19 Cir. 1975). Although he was offered an evidentiary hearing, Malone "nevertheless chose to file a
20 grievance" under an alternative administrative procedure. *Id.* He then sued and complained that
21 the grievance procedure violated due process. The court rejected the claim because Malone was
22 offered a *choice* between the two schemes. "A difficult question would be presented if Malone
23 had been given no opportunity to have an evidentiary hearing," but because he was offered and
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1 waived the right to a hearing, there was no due process violation. *Id.* Nobody disputed that
2 Malone’s choice was in fact voluntary.

3 To the extent it is relevant here, then, *Malone* stands for the unremarkable proposition that
4 a person may voluntarily waive his or her constitutional rights. As the court put it, “[a] litigant
5 may voluntarily forego his right to a jury trial, or to present witnesses, or even to be present at his
6 trial, without offending due process.” *Id.*

7 But the question here is *whether* the plaintiffs knowingly, intelligently, and voluntarily
8 waived their due process rights by submitting to ACCS’s demands. That is not a question to which
9 *Malone* provides an answer. However, in the very same context to which defendants point—due
10 process protections for public employment—the federal courts, borrowing from non-constitutional
11 federal public employment law, have created an analytical framework that does help to answer
12 these kinds of question. *See Stone*, 855 F.2d at 173-74 (noting that the employment cases “are
13 perfectly apposite analytical sources” because “the dispositive factual inquiry—whether an
14 apparent ‘resignation’ was in fact involuntary—is essentially the same in both situations”). Every
15 circuit to have addressed the issue has concluded that an employee’s “resignation,” and thus his or
16 her deprivation of a protected property interest in employment, may be shown to be involuntary by
17 reason of misrepresentation, coercion, or duress. *See, e.g., Spreen v. Brey*, 961 F.2d 109 (7th Cir.
18 1992); *Angarita v. St. Louis County*, 981 F.2d 1537 (8th Cir. 1992); *Hargray v. City of Hallandale*,
19 57 F.2d 1560 (11th Cir. 1995); *Stone*, 855 F.2d 167; *Leheny v. City of Pittsburgh*, 183 F.3d 220,
20 227-28 (3d Cir. 1999); *Parker v. Bd. of Regents of Tulsa Jr. Coll.*, 981 F.2d 1159, 1162 (10th Cir.
21 1992); *Keyes v. District of Columbia*, 372 F.3d 434 (D.C. Cir. 2004).

22 These cases permit a showing of involuntary deprivation under a “misrepresentation
23 theory” or a “duress/coercion theory.” In *Spreen*, 961 F.2d at 111, for example, the Seventh
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1 Circuit affirmed the denial of the defendant’s summary judgment motion because there was a
2 genuine issue of material fact concerning whether the defendant told the plaintiff she would lose
3 her retirement benefits if she did not resign, a fact that would obviously have been material to her
4 decision. The court also explained that “the misleading information can be negligently or even
5 innocently provided”; a showing of intentional misrepresentation is not required. *Id.* at 113. And
6 in *Hargray*, 57 F.3d at 1565, the court confronted a situation in which an employee resigned in
7 response to his employer’s threats of criminal prosecution. Although the court ultimately
8 determined that the employee’s resignation was voluntary because the employer had gathered
9 ample evidence of probable cause, *id.* at 1569-71, the court made clear that baseless threats of
10 prosecution are sufficient to show involuntariness. Under the misrepresentation theory, a
11 deprivation would be involuntary where the defendant “knew, or reasonably should have known,
12 that the threatened criminal prosecution could not be substantiated.” *Id.* at 1571-72. Under the
13 coercion/duress theory, a resignation would be involuntary where the defendant “lacked good
14 cause for the threatened criminal proceedings at the time the alternatives were offered.” *Id.* at
15 1568.
16

17 These cases, moreover, hold that deception or coercion can be shown to render a
18 resignation involuntary despite the fact that resignations, based on the rules of ordinary
19 employment law, are *presumed to be voluntary*—a presumption that does not operate here. Here,
20 the presumption runs in the opposite direction because “[w]aivers of constitutional rights are
21 disfavored, and the courts indulge in every reasonable presumption against them. In cases where
22 the validity of a waiver of a constitutional right is at issue, the government has the burden to prove
23 ‘an intentional relinquishment or abandonment of a known right or privilege.’” *United States v.*
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1 *Farhad*, 190 F.3d 1097, 1108 (9th Cir. 1999) (internal citation omitted). Defendants have not
2 satisfied that burden.

3 Finally, the question of whether the loss of a property interest is the product of
4 misrepresentation, coercion, or duress such that it is an involuntary deprivation for due process
5 purposes is one that can rarely be resolved on the basis of the pleadings alone. Instead, the court
6 must conduct a “factual inquiry into voluntariness” based on an examination of the totality of the
7 circumstances surrounding the deprivation, *Stone*, 855 F.2d at 172-73—an inquiry that often
8 cannot be resolved even on summary judgment. *See, e.g., Spreen*, 961 F.2d at 111 (holding
9 defendants had “not come forth with evidence showing the *absence* of a genuine issue of material
10 fact as to whether Defendants misled Plaintiff into resigning her employment”) (emphasis in
11 original); *Wolford v. Angelone*, 38 F.Supp.2d 452, 459 (W.D.Va. 1999) (finding “genuine issue of
12 material fact as to whether the plaintiff’s resignation was involuntary and obtained by coercion or
13 duress”). “The answer to that factual inquiry is dispositive of the constitutional ‘deprivation’
14 issue.” *Stone*, 855 F.2d at 73.
15

16 **II. THE RES JUDICATA DOCTRINE DOES NOT BAR THE PLAINTIFFS’** 17 **CONSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES.**

18 In another attempt to prevent the Court from considering the constitutional claims on the
19 merits, the defendants argue that the Court’s May 2002 dismissal of Elena del Campo’s due
20 process claim bars all of the plaintiffs’ due process and equal protection claims under the doctrine
21 of res judicata. Defendants’ position is meritless. In their March 2, 2006 motion for leave to file
22 the consolidated complaint (Docket #170)—which defendants did not oppose—plaintiffs explained
23 in detail why the 2002 order does not bar even Ms. del Campo from going forward with her
24 constitutional claims, let alone the other named plaintiffs who were not a party to the order.
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1 Plaintiffs incorporate by reference the arguments in that motion and offer the following response to
2 the specific points raised by defendants.

3 1. Defendants’ argument fails to satisfy the first element of res judicata or claim
4 preclusion: that there be a final judgment in the prior case. In a nutshell, the problem with
5 defendants’ position is that there was never a final judgment in the *del Campo* action. The order is
6 interlocutory and, under Federal Rule of Civil Procedure 54(b), remains subject to revision by this
7 Court at any time.

8 “[O]nly a final judgment is res judicata.” *Donovan v. Mazzola*, 761 F.2d 1411, 1416 (9th
9 Cir. 1985). “To determine the finality of the order,” courts “consider the criteria used to determine
10 finality for the purposes of 28 U.S.C. § 1291, on finality as a prerequisite for appealability.” *Id.* at
11 1416. “The fact that a judgment is unappealed ordinarily does not deprive it of preclusive effect.
12 However, the fact that a party was *unable to appeal* from the prior decision militates against giving
13 the decision preclusive effect.” *In re Jenson*, 980 F.2d 1254, 1257 n.2 (9th Cir. 1992).

14 As defendants correctly point out, “[o]rdinarily a dismissal for failure to state a claim is
15 treated as a dismissal on the merits, and there is abundant case law to this effect.” *AVX Corp. v.*
16 *Cabot Corp.*, 424 F.3d 28 (1st Cir. 2005); *see* Def’s Br. at 9 (*citing Federated Dep’t Stores, Inc. v.*
17 *Moitie*, 452 U.S. 394 (1981)). What they fail to appreciate, however, is that “Rule 12(b)(6)
18 dismissals have claim-preclusive effect” only where “the dismissal disposed of an entire
19 complaint, not just some subset of the plaintiff’s claims.” *AVX*, 424 F.3d at 31. The dismissal in
20 *Moitie*, for example, was a dismissal of “all of the actions ‘in their entirety.’” *Id.* at 396; *see also*
21 *Stewart v. U.S. Bancorp*, 297 F.3d 953, 956 (9th Cir. 2002) (“[T]he district court’s judgment . . .
22 stated that *the action* was dismissed.”) (emphasis added); *In re Marino*, 181 F.3d 1142, 1144 (9th
23 Cir. 1999) (“The bankruptcy court . . . dismissed *the complaint*.”) (emphasis added).
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1 Here, however, the order at issue was a ruling that “adjudicates fewer than all the claims or
2 the rights and liabilities of fewer than all the parties” and was therefore (unless certified for
3 interlocutory appeal) “subject to revision at any time before the entry of judgment adjudicating all
4 the claims and the rights and liabilities of all the parties.” Fed. R. Civ. P. 54(b). The order,
5 therefore, was both unappealable under Rule 54(b) and non-final for res judicata purposes. This
6 rule has long been settled law in the Ninth Circuit. See *Homer v. Ferron*, 362 F.2d 224, 230 (9th
7 Cir. 1966) (denial of a motion in an action “which is still pending, was not a final and appealable
8 order. Since the denial of that motion might yet be overturned in a future appeal in [the first
9 action,] that unreviewed order of denial could hardly serve as res judicata or work a collateral
10 estoppel in this case.”); accord *Clausen Co. v. Dynatron/Bondo Corp.*, 889 F.2d 459, 466 (2d Cir.
11 1989); *Senza-Gel Cor. v. Seiffhart*, 803 F.2d 661, 667 (Fed. Cir. 1986). Under these
12 circumstances, the order at issue “patently did not constitute a final judgment.” *AVX*, 424 F.3d at
13 31, and “[r]es judicata is simply inapplicable.” *Senza-Gel Corp. v. Seiffhart*, 803 F.2d 661, 667
14 (Fed. Cir. 1986).
15

16 2. Because finality is lacking, the Court need go no further in assessing defendants’ res
17 judicata argument. That argument, however, also fails the second res judicata requirement: privity
18 between the parties. The privity rule must be applied with great care in class actions: “[W]hen a
19 motion is maintained against an uncertified class, only the named plaintiffs are affected by the
20 ruling. There is no res judicata effect as to unnamed members of the purported class.” *Aguilera v.*
21 *Pirelli Armstrong Tire Corp.*, 223 F.3d 1010, 1013 n.1 (9th Cir. 2000); accord *Wright v. Schock*,
22 742 F.2d 541, 544 (9th Cir. 1984).

23 The defendants acknowledge this rule, but state that there are “exceptions” to it. That is
24 not so. Defendants cite *Jackson v. Hayakawa*, 605 F.2d 1121 (9th Cir. 1979), which held that a
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1 decision in an earlier case that, although not formally certified as a class action under Rule 23,
2 “was brought as a class action and *treated by the court as a class action*” was therefore entitled to
3 preclusive effect. *Id.* at 1126 (emphasis added). But just last year, in *Headwaters, Inc. v. U.S.*
4 *Forest Services, Inc.*, 399 F.3d 1047, 1056 n.8 (9th Cir. 2005), the Ninth Circuit held that *Jackson*
5 does not apply where, as here, the first action was not “treated as a class action” and thus did not
6 create a “de facto class.”⁵ *Headwaters* also explicitly questioned whether *Jackson* was still good
7 law in light of intervening Supreme Court authority and instead cited the Seventh Circuit’s
8 contrary holding that “[u]nless there is a *properly certified* class action . . . normal privity analysis
9 must govern whether nonparties to an earlier case can be bound to the result.” *Id.* (citing *Tice v.*
10 *American Airlines*, 162 F.3d 966, 972-73 (7th Cir. 1999) (emphasis in *Headwaters*). *Headwaters*
11 thus doubly dooms defendants’ argument.⁶

12
13 Defendants’ “virtual representation” argument—which conspicuously relies only on cases
14 from the 1970’s—cannot be reconciled with the Supreme Court’s more recent decisions in

15
16 ⁵ *Jackson* thus falls into a small, historical category of decisions according preclusive effect
17 to judgments in “de facto” class actions litigated during the infancy of Rule 23, when courts often
18 did not employ formal class certification procedures. *See, e.g., Los Angeles Branch NAACP v. Los*
19 *Angeles Unified Sch. Dist.*, 750 F.2d 731, 741 (1985) (although a prior action “was never formally
20 certified,” “[n]o procedure for such certification existed in California prior to 1973” and the
“California courts treated [the suit] as a class action throughout”); *Johnson v. General Motors*
Corp., 598 F.2d 432, 434-45 (5th Cir. 1979); *see also* Geoffrey C. Hazard, Jr. et al., *An Historical*
Analysis of the Binding Effect of Class Suits, 146 U. Pa. L. Rev. 1849 (1998) (analyzing the
evolving and often inconsistent treatment of preclusion in early class action litigation).

21
22 ⁶ The only other cases defendants cite are plainly inapposite. *Montana v. United States*,
23 440 U.S. 147 (1979), extended the traditional scope of privity only modestly, to nonparties who
24 “assume control over litigation in which they have a direct financial or proprietary interest. *Id.* at
25 154-55. Defendants’ reliance on *Aerojet-General Corp. v. Askew*, 511 F.2d 710 (5th Cir. 1975), is
26 similarly misplaced. To be sure, *Aerojet* offers “[p]erhaps the broadest statement of the doctrine”
of virtual representation, *Ethnic Employees of the Library of Congress v. Boorstin*, 751 F.2d 1405,
1411 n.8 (D.C. Cir. 1985), but that statement was qualified by the Fifth Circuit just three years
later in *Pollard v. Cockrell*, 578 F.2d 1002, 1008 (5th Cir. 1978), which held that “[v]irtual
representation demands the existence of an express or implied legal relationship in which parties to
the first suit are accountable to non-parties who file a subsequent suit raising identical issues.”

1 *Richards v. Jefferson County, Alabama*, 517 U.S. 793 (1996), and *South Cent. Bell Tel. Co. v.*
2 *Alabama*, 526 U.S. 160 (1999); and the Ninth Circuit’s decisions in *Headwaters*, 399 F.3d 1047,
3 and *Favish v. Office of Indep. Counsel*, 217 F.3d 1168 (9th Cir. 2000). In *Richards*, and again in
4 *South Central Bell*, the Supreme Court rejected the notion that preclusion could operate against
5 persons who were not parties to the earlier litigation simply because they advanced the same legal
6 claims. And in *Favish* and *Headwaters*, the Ninth Circuit held that parties that shared the same
7 lawyers as litigants in previous suits, raised the same issues, and shared the same abstract interests,
8 were nevertheless not in privity. *See Favish*, 217 F.3d at 1171 (plaintiff, who was lawyer for
9 plaintiff in previous action raising issue, was not barred from bringing subsequent suit);
10 *Headwaters*, 399 F.3d 1047 (environmental groups, which shared same lawyer and raised same
11 issue as previous suit, were not barred from bringing subsequent suit).

12
13 Finally, defendants fail even to mention, let alone attempt to meet, the rigorous five-factor
14 test for “virtual representation” analysis in the Ninth Circuit. *See Irwin v. Mascott*, 370 F.3d 924
15 (9th Cir. 2004) (factors include close relationship between party and non-party, substantial
16 participation or control by non-party, tactical maneuvering, identity of relevant interests, and
17 adequate representation). In any event, the Ninth Circuit has made clear that “the pertinent ‘virtual
18 representation’ privity factors, outlined in *Irwin*, require factual development beyond the bare
19 record.” *Headwaters*, 399 F.3d at 1055; *id.* at 1054 (“the requisites for finding nontraditional forms
20 of privity, outlined in *Irwin*, are not readily determined from the pleadings.”).

1 **CONCLUSION**

2 Defendants’ motion to dismiss should be denied.

3 Respectfully submitted,

4 /s/

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