

No. 22-434

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**In the Supreme Court of the United States**

SLADE ALAN MOORE,  
PETITIONER,

*v.*

STATE OF TEXAS.

*ON PETITION FOR A WRIT OF CERTIORARI  
TO THE COURT OF CRIMINAL APPEALS OF TEXAS*

**BRIEF IN OPPOSITION**

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## QUESTIONS PRESENTED

Suicide is one of the two most common causes of death among young Americans—an epidemic exacerbated by the growing prevalence of cyberbullying and other forms of electronic harassment.<sup>1</sup> Like many States, Texas has tried to protect its citizens from such disgraceful and potentially dangerous conduct by making it a crime to repeatedly send electronic communications to an individual in a manner intended to “harass, annoy, alarm, abuse, torment, or embarrass” him and that is reasonably likely to do so. Tex. Penal Code § 42.07(a)(7). And like the courts of many States, Texas’s highest criminal court has upheld that statute against a First Amendment challenge because it penalizes the conduct of repeatedly sending electronic signals—not the content or message of those signals. The questions presented are:

1. Whether this Court has jurisdiction to consider the denial of a pre-trial writ of habeas corpus by a state court—particularly when the defendant can be convicted on at least one theory that does not turn on the constitutional question presented.
2. Whether a law prohibiting the intentional sending of repeated, unwanted electronic signals with the specific intent to cause one of a list of enumerated harms to another person facially violates the Constitution.

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<sup>1</sup>See, e.g., Sharon Reynolds, *Cyberbullying linked with suicidal thoughts and attempts in young adults*, NAT’L INSTS. OF HEALTH (July 12), 2022, <https://tinyurl.com/2a4bhu6x>.

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## INTRODUCTION

Courts and commentators have long recognized that balancing the interests of a speaker to communicate and of a listener to be free from harassment presents unique First Amendment challenges.<sup>2</sup> The federal government and the States have adopted laws to prevent various types of harassment, which can often be read to encompass verbal activity. Nevertheless, courts regularly uphold those laws against First Amendment challenges as permissible restrictions on conduct so long as they do not target particular ideologies or create classes of speakers. Although Texas has had to adapt its anti-harassment statute to the nebulous ways in which harassment is now often perpetrated online, it fits within this tradition.<sup>3</sup>

The Court likely cannot—and certainly need not—reach challenges to Texas’s law in the posture of a state court’s denial of a pre-trial writ of habeas corpus. Moore has been accused not convicted of harassing his ex-partner through repeated electronic messages. Although the Court has permitted certain pre-enforcement challenges to laws allegedly implicating the First Amendment, it has done so to mitigate a potential chill of vital constitutional rights through self-censorship. That concern is not implicated here: whether Moore’s messages were protected communications or criminal harassment, they are in the past. Under these circumstances, the Court likely

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<sup>2</sup> Cf., e.g., *Am. for Prosperity Found. v. Bonta*, 141 S. Ct. 2373, 2389 (2021); Andrea Meryl Kirshenbaum, *Hostile Environment Sexual Harassment Law and the First Amendment: Can the Two Coexist Peacefully?*, 12 TEX. J. WOMEN & L. 67, 82 & nn.90-91 (2002).

<sup>3</sup> For a discussion of difficulties in defining, let alone combatting electronic harassment, see Megan Moreno, *Electronic Harassment: Concept Map and Definition*, NAT’L INST. OF JUST. (May 2016).

must and certainly should wait until there is a factual record to review and a conviction to overturn.

Review is also unwarranted because Texas’s law falls within constitutional bounds—as numerous lower courts have held in reviewing similar laws. It targets specific forms of anti-social and potentially dangerous conduct by prohibiting the repeated transmission of electronic signals—some of which can communicate First-Amendment protected ideas, some of which indisputably do not. To avoid sweeping into its ambit innocent or protected conduct, the law also imposes a specific-intent requirement. This law and others like it thus balance the interests of those legitimately trying to communicate with the privacy interests of individuals just trying to do their jobs and live their lives.

#### JURISDICTION

The Court lacks jurisdiction. *Infra* Part I.A.

#### STATEMENT

##### I. Legal Background

A. Like most (if not all) States,<sup>4</sup> Texas has a criminal harassment statute: section 42.07 of the Texas Penal Code prohibits conduct ranging from making obscene proposals, Tex. Penal Code § 42.07(a)(1), to threatening an individual with bodily injury, *id.* § 42.07(a)(2), to conveying a false report that someone has died, *id.* § 42.07(a)(3). The first violation of section 42.07 is a Class B misdemeanor, *id.* § 42.07(c), punishable by fine of up to

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<sup>4</sup> For just a few representative samples, *see* Ala. Code § 13A-11-8(b)(1); Ariz. Rev. Stat. § 13-2921(A)(1); Cal. Penal Code § 653m(b); Idaho Code § 18-6710(1); Md. Code, Crim. Law § 3-804(a)(2); N.M. Stat. § 30-20-12(A); N.C. Gen. Stat. § 14-196(a)(3); Ohio Rev. Code § 2917.21.

\$2000, and confinement in jail for up to 180 days, *id.* § 12.22.

Subsection (a)(7) prohibits individuals with the requisite specific intent from “send[ing] repeated electronic communications in a manner reasonably likely to harass, annoy, alarm, abuse, torment, embarrass, or offend another.” *Id.* § 42.07(a)(7). Although use of the term “communication” appears to imply that it covers speech, it is narrowly defined to consist of a “transfer of signs, signals, writing, images, sounds, data, or intelligence of any nature transmitted in whole or in part by a wire, radio, electromagnetic, photoelectronic, or photo-optical system.” *Id.* § 42.07(b)(1). This includes:

(A) a communication initiated through the use of electronic mail, instant message, network call, a cellular or other type of telephone, a computer, a camera, text message, a social media platform or application, an Internet website, any other Internet-based communication tool, or facsimile machine; and

(B) a communication made to a pager.

*Id.*

For criminal liability to attach under any part of section 42.07, including subsection (a)(7), an individual must have specifically intended to “harass, annoy, alarm, abuse, torment, or embarrass another.” Tex. Penal Code § 42.07(a). Under Texas law, “[a] person acts intentionally, or with intent, with respect to the nature of his conduct or to a result of his conduct when it is his conscious objective or desire to engage in the conduct or cause the result.” *Id.* § 6.03(a).

**B.** In 2017, the Texas Legislature expanded section 42.07(a)(7) in new anti-bullying legislation, known as David’s Law. Named after a 16-year-old boy who took his

own life after an unending barrage of threatening and humiliating texts and social media posts, David's law passed with overwhelming bipartisan support. Act of May 27, 2017, 85th Leg., R.S., ch. 522, 2017 Tex. Gen. Laws 1400, 1400-08; *see also* Legislation, David's Legacy Foundation, <https://www.davidslegacy.org/programs/legislation/>.

David's Law expanded the definition of "electronic communication" to include such things as social media messages. Tex. Penal Code § 42.07(b)(1)(A). The Legislature also made violating section 42.07(a)(7) a Class A misdemeanor when the offense is committed against a child under 18 with the intent that the child commit suicide or engage in conduct causing serious bodily injury to the child; or if the individual has previously violated a temporary restraining order or injunction issued to stop that individual from cyberbullying a child. *Id.* § 42.07(c)(2); Tex. Civ. Prac. & Rem. Code ch. 129A.

David's Law became effective on September 1, 2017. Act of May 27, 2017, *supra*, § 18, 2017 Tex. Gen. Laws at 1407. And initial indications are that it worked: electronic bullying and suicide attempts resulting therefrom dropped more than 20% in Texas schools during the first two years after the law's enactment. *Legislation, supra* (citing data collected by the CDC).

C. Texas courts have seen several challenges to section 42.07 in recent years. The first one relevant to the current case addresses not section 42.07(a)(7), but section 42.07(a)(4), which prohibits "caus[ing] the telephone of another to ring repeatedly or mak[ing] repeated telephone communications anonymously or in a manner reasonably likely to harass, annoy, alarm, abuse, torment, embarrass, or offend another." That provision was challenged as overbroad and an infringement upon speech in

*Scott v. State*, 322 S.W.3d 662 (Tex. Crim. App. 2010), *cert. denied*, 563 U.S. 936 (2011).

In *Scott*, the Texas Court of Criminal Appeals (CCA)—the State’s highest court for criminal matters—looked to this Court’s statement in *Cohen v. California* that “government may properly act in many situations to prohibit intrusion into the privacy of the home of unwelcome views and ideas which cannot be totally banned from the public dialogue.” 403 U.S. 15, 21 (1971) (citing *Rowan v. U.S. Post Off. Dep’t*, 397 U.S. 728 (1970)); see *Scott*, 322 S.W.3d at 668-69. From this premise, the CCA first examined whether section 42.07(a)(4) was aimed at protected “communicative conduct.” *Scott*, 322 S.W.3d at 669-70. The court concluded that it was not and based their conclusion on four factors:

- the actor must have the specific intent to harass, annoy, alarm, abuse, torment, or embarrass the recipient,
- there must be repeated communicative conduct,<sup>5</sup>
- the actor must partake in the communicative conduct in a manner reasonably likely to harass, annoy, alarm, abuse, torment, embarrass, or offend an average person, and
- the actor is not required to use spoken words.

*Id.*

Given that statutory text, the court concluded that “the conduct to which the statutory subsection is susceptible of application will be, in the usual case, essentially noncommunicative, even if the conduct includes spoken words.” *Id.* at 670. After all, due to the specific-intent requirement about which Moore complains (*e.g.*, at 16-19),

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<sup>5</sup>To be “repeated,” the statute requires more than one call. *Wilson v. State*, 448 S.W.3d 418, 424 (Tex. Crim. App. 2014).

violators “will not have an intent to engage in the legitimate communication of ideas, opinions, or information,” but “only the intent to inflict emotional distress for its own sake.” *Scott*, 322 S.W.3d at 670.

Since *Scott*, a number of cases have presented the question of how *Scott*—and more importantly *Cohen* and *Rowan*—apply to David’s Law. In the two lead cases, the CCA held that, like the telephone-harassment law before it, David’s Law did not “implicate the freedom of speech protections of the First Amendment of the United States Constitution because it prohibits non-speech conduct.” *Ex Parte Barton*, PD 1123-19, 2022 WL 1021061 at \*1 (Tex. Crim. App. Apr. 6, 2022); *see also Ex Parte Sanders*, No. PD 0469-19, 2022 WL 1021055, at \*1 (Tex. Crim. App. Apr. 6, 2022). Because of this holding, the CCA evaluated the rule under the rational-basis test and determined that because the statute protects individuals’ “substantial privacy interests” from the invasion of those interests “in an essentially intolerable manner” by others, the statute was rationally related to the legitimate end of protecting “the peace, health, happiness, and general welfare” of society and people in the State. *Barton*, 2022 WL 1021061 at \*7. This case is a follow-on from *Barton* and *Sanders*.

## II. Factual Background

Because this case remains in its infancy, little is in the record about what Moore said to his ex-partner. According to the charging documents, on or about April 19, 2019, Moore sent repeated electronic communications and telephone calls to his ex-partner, Kimberly McCurdy, “in a manner reasonabl[y] likely to harass,

annoy, alarm, abuse, torment, embarrass, or offend . . . .” CR.4-5.<sup>6</sup>

In May, the State charged Moore under Texas Penal Code section 42.07(c) in Andrews County, Texas, for harassment, using both the manner and means prohibited under section 42.07(a)(4) *and* (a)(7). CR.5. Specifically, Moore was charged with repeatedly causing McCurdy’s telephone to ring and sending electronic communications to McCurdy in a manner intending and reasonably likely to harass, alarm, annoy, abuse, torment, embarrass, or offend her. App. 12-13a. In June 2019, charges were added that Moore threatened McCurdy in violation of section 42.07(a)(2). App. 8a-11a.

Moore has not placed into the record the content of the alleged “repeated electronic communications.” And the time for the State to do so has not yet come.

### III. Procedural Background

This petition comes before the Court based on the denial of a pretrial writ of habeas corpus. App. 3a.<sup>7</sup> Moore argues that section 42.07(a)(7) is facially overbroad under the First Amendment.<sup>8</sup> CR.15. He asserts that the First Amendment applies because “[a] court cannot determine whether or not a defendant intended to harass, without looking at the content of the electronic communications.” CR.18. He further contends that the statute

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<sup>6</sup> “CR. XX” refers to the Clerk’s Record filed in *Texas v. Moore*, No. 19-0135, County Court of Andrews County, Texas.

<sup>7</sup> Moore also moved to quash the information, CR.14, which is an alternative means to challenge an information pre-trial. *Ex parte Smith*, 178 S.W.3d 797, 801 (Tex. Crim. App. 2005) (per curiam). But it is not appealable. *Id.*

<sup>8</sup> Moore also argued that it was unconstitutionally vague, but he has abandoned that argument in his petition.

is subject to and cannot withstand strict scrutiny because “[p]reventing hurt feelings is not a compelling government interest.” CR.22.

Andrews County Court summarily denied Moore the extraordinary relief he sought. App. 3a. The Eighth Court of Appeals affirmed in an unpublished opinion. App. 4a (citing *Ex parte Hinojos*, No. 08-17-00077-CR, 2018 WL 6629678 (Tex. App.—El Paso Dec. 19, 2018, pet. ref’d) (not designated for publication)). The CCA denied discretionary review in the light of its decisions in *Barton* and *Sanders*. App. 1a.

#### ARGUMENT

#### **I. The Court Cannot—or at Least Should Not—Delve into This Interlocutory Decision Arising from a State Court.**

The Court lacks jurisdiction over the petition because this case arises from a Texas state court and there is no “[f]inal judgment[] or decree[] rendered by the highest court of a State.” 28 U.S.C. § 1257(a). Moore bears the burden to show that this Court has jurisdiction. *Johnson v. California*, 541 U.S. 428, 431 (2004) (per curiam). Moore cannot demonstrate that “essential prerequisite” to this Court’s review based on the denial of a pre-trial writ of habeas corpus. *Id.* Even if he could, the preliminary posture of this case makes it a poor vehicle to resolve either whether section 42.07(a)(7) is facially unconstitutional or whether it can be constitutionally applied to Moore.

#### **A. This Court lacks jurisdiction to resolve the question presented.**

This petition falls outside the Court’s jurisdiction over appeals from state-court judgments, which is limited to final judgments. 28 U.S.C. § 1257(a). As this case

presents none of the narrow circumstances this Court has identified under which an interlocutory order may be deemed final, *Cox Broad. Corp. v. Cohn*, 420 U.S. 469, 476-85 (1975), the Court lacks jurisdiction.

1. This Court’s “certiorari jurisdiction over cases in the federal courts of appeals” has been described as “both discretionary and unlimited in scope.” Stephen M. Shapiro, et al., SUPREME COURT PRACTICE ch. 2-2 (11th ed. 2019). By contrast, as it applies to *state* courts, section 1257(a) “establishes a firm final judgment rule,” which is “not one of those technicalities to be easily scorned,” but “an important factor in the smooth working of our federal system.” *Jefferson v. City of Tarrant*, 522 U.S. 75, 81 (1997). “To be reviewable by this Court, a state-court judgment must be . . . ‘final as an effective determination of the litigation and not merely interlocutory or intermediate steps therein.’” *Id.* (quoting *Market Street R. Co. v. Railroad Comm'n of Cal.*, 324 U.S. 548, 551 (1945)); *see also N.D. State Bd. of Pharm. v. Snyder’s Drug Stores, Inc.*, 414 U.S. 156, 159 (1973).

The denial of pre-trial habeas corpus is, if anything, the prototypical interlocutory order. In the context of a criminal prosecution, “[t]he general rule is that finality . . . is defined by a judgment of conviction and the imposition of a sentence.” *Fort Wayne Books, Inc. v. Indiana*, 489 U.S. 46, 54 (1989); *see also Arceneaux v. Louisiana*, 376 U.S. 336, 338 (1964) (per curiam). Moore has not yet been tried, and he may never be convicted or sentenced. Due to the “sensitivity to the legitimate interests” of a State in enforcing its criminal law, the Court has developed an entire doctrine to prevent federal courts from interfering in ongoing criminal prosecutions. *Younger v. Harris*, 401 U.S. 37, 44 (1971). Although that doctrine does not directly apply here, it is founded on “ideals and

dreams of ‘Our Federalism’” that do, *id.*, and that prevent the Court from stepping into an ongoing criminal prosecution before there is a “final word of a final court,” *Jefferson*, 522 U.S. at 81.

2. This Court deems an interlocutory state-court order to be final for purposes of section 1257 under only limited circumstances. *Shapiro*, *supra*, at ch. 3.5. And Moore has made no attempt to explain why the CCA’s “avowedly interlocutory” ruling satisfies the final judgment rule. *Jefferson*, 522 U.S. at 81. Moore should thus be deemed to forfeit any such argument, and this Court should dismiss the petition on that ground alone as such a showing is required in a petition for certiorari. Sup. Ct. R. 14.1(g)(i).

In any event, none of the *Cox* exceptions apply to this case. Indeed, only the fourth category identified in *Cox* seems even potentially relevant. 420 U.S. at 476-85. Specifically, under that category, a judgment may be considered “final” if “the federal issue has been finally decided,” leaving only state-law issues to be resolved. *Id.* at 482. To fit within that category, this Court’s review must be “preclusive of any further litigation on the relevant cause of action rather than merely controlling the nature and character of, or determining the admissibility of evidence in, the state-proceedings still to come.” *Id.* at 482-83. If such circumstances are present, and a refusal to immediately review the state-court decision would “seriously erode federal policy,” the Court may deem an order final as to the federal issue. *Id.* at 483.

It unclear whether this category of *Cox* can apply in a criminal case as there is no “relevant cause of action,” *id.*—a term typically used in civil contexts. But assuming it can, it would not apply here because—unlike in *Cox* and subsequent applications of this rule, *id.* at 485-86—a

ruling here would not even end the current litigation, let alone preclude future litigation.<sup>9</sup> Moore was charged with harassment under section 42.07(c), by means of conduct prohibited by both section 42.07(a)(4) and (a)(7). App. 8a. This means Moore is in jeopardy of one conviction—and one punishment—for one count of harassment under section 42.07(c), whether either or both of “manner” and “means” is proven at trial. *Compare* App. 8a, with, e.g., *Lehman v. State*, 792 S.W.2d 82, 84 (Tex. Crim. App. 1990) (en banc). But Moore challenges the validity of only section 42.07(a)(7). *See* Pet. i.

Because Moore has challenged only one of the two means by which he could be convicted, any remedy would “merely control[] the nature and character of . . . the state proceedings still to come”—not be “preclusive of any further litigation on the relevant cause of action.” *See Cox*, 420 U.S. at 482-83. It is an “elementary principle that the same statute may be in part constitutional and in part unconstitutional, and that if the parts are wholly independent of each other, that which is constitutional may stand while that which is unconstitutional will be rejected.” *Brockett v. Spokane Arcades, Inc.*, 472 U.S. 491, 502 (1985). Texas law presumes that statutory provisions are severable. Tex. Gov’t Code § 311.032(c). This principle applies even when a statute is determined to be overbroad under the First Amendment. *Broadrick v. Oklahoma*, 413 U.S. 601, 613 (1973).

Although Moore is not entitled to any relief, *see infra* Part II, he could *at most* obtain a partial invalidation of

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<sup>9</sup> *See, e.g., Goodyear Atomic Corp. v. Miller*, 486 U.S. 174, 179-80 (1988); *Southland Corp. v. Keating*, 465 U.S. 1, 6-8 (1984); *Mercantile Nat’l Bank v. Langdeau*, 371 U.S. 555, 558 (1963); *Local No. 438 Constr. & Gen. Laborers’ Union v. Curry*, 371 U.S. 542, 550 (1963).

the statute and a remand for further proceedings under the remaining unchallenged portion of the statute. *See Reno v. ACLU*, 521 U.S. 844, 882-83 (1997) (severing “or indecent” from the prohibition on “obscene or indecent”). Therefore the state-court decision is not final, *Nike, Inc. v. Kasky*, 539 U.S. 654, 658-60 (2003) (Stevens, J., concurring), and the petition must be dismissed.

**B. This case is a poor vehicle to adjudicate the facial validity of an electronic communications harassment law.**

Even if this Court *could* consider the question presented, the case’s posture makes it a poor vehicle to address section 42.07(a)(7)’s constitutionality. Assuming that Moore is correct (at 17) that section 42.07(a)(7) is subject to strict scrutiny—and he is not, *infra* pp. 23—the procedural history of this case means that the State has never had the opportunity to build the type of record necessary to determine the statute’s validity. *Bd. of Trs. of State Univ. of N.Y. v. Fox*, 492 U.S. 469, 484-85 (1989). As this Court previously noted, it is “not the usual judicial practice” nor is it “generally desirable” to “proceed to an overbreadth issue unnecessarily” in such a posture. *Id.* It should be particularly leery of doing so based on nothing more than a charging instrument when Moore may yet be acquitted without ever reaching the constitutional question presented.

1. “It is important to remember that the overbreadth doctrine operates as an exception to the normal rules of standing,” not a substantive expansion of the coverage of the First Amendment. *Regan v. Time, Inc.*, 468 U.S. 641, 651 n.8 (1984). An overbreadth challenge is “ordinarily more difficult to resolve” than an as-applied challenge because it requires the “consideration of many more applications than those immediately before the

court.” *Fox*, 492 U.S. at 485 (citing *Broadrick*, 413 U.S. at 615). That problem is only exacerbated in the context of electronic harassment because courts “cannot appreciate yet [the internet’s] full dimensions and vast potential” and “must be conscious that what they say today might be obsolete tomorrow.” *Packingham v. North Carolina*, 137 S. Ct. 1730, 1736 (2017); *see also id.* at 1744 (Alito, J., concurring) (agreeing that the Court should be “cautious in applying [its] free speech precedents to the internet”).

This case exemplifies the concerns inherent in a facial challenge of this sort. It has arrived at the Court with no record about what was in Moore’s messages, little information about the use of the electronic communications, and no opportunity for any factual development. There is no factual record regarding the extent of the problem of electronic harassment and whether there are feasible options to more narrowly tailor David’s Law in a world of constant communication. *See Moreno, supra* (highlighting difficulties in regulating in this area).

2. Perhaps even more fundamentally, Moore could be found not guilty of harassment altogether, or only guilty of harassment under the manner and means laid out in section 42.07(a)(4). The Texas Rules of Appellate Procedure placed on Moore the burden to provide any evidence needed to show their entitlement to a writ of habeas corpus with their applications. *Ex parte Thomas*, 906 S.W.2d 22, 24 (Tex. Crim. App. 1995) (en banc). Yet the record is silent on the context or circumstances surrounding Moore’s electronic communications—leaving a presumption of innocence and no data from which to assess whether the State will be able to convince a jury of Moore’s guilt.

By contrast, we do know that Moore was accused of threatening his ex-partner. App. 9a. It is black-letter law that the First Amendment does not protect true threats. *R.A.V. v. City of St. Paul*, 505 U.S. 377, 387-88 (1992). It is thus impossible for the CCA or this Court to determine whether Moore’s conduct was or was not protected by the First Amendment. That does not change because Moore raised an overbreadth challenge. *Regan*, 468 U.S. at 651. And “for reasons relating both to the proper functioning of courts and to their efficiency,” the constitutionality of section 42.07(a)(7), as applied to Moore, should be decided prior to any overbreadth challenge. *Fox*, 492 U.S. at 485.

For these reasons, the Court should refrain from making new law regarding the intersection of the First Amendment and the internet and cell phones even if the Court were to determine it had jurisdiction (which it should not).

## **II. Section 42.07(a)(7) is Constitutional.**

Review is also unwarranted regardless of whether section 42.07(a)(7) constitutionally applies to Moore (which is not at issue here), as it does not facially violate the First Amendment. Petitioners always face a heavy burden to establish a facial challenge—even on an overbreadth theory. Moore cannot meet that burden because section 42.07(a)(7) on its face regulates the repeated transmission of electronic data—even if that data may include (at times) verbal content. Therefore, it is subject to rational-basis review. *See Romer v. Evans*, 517 U.S. 620 (1996). And even if section 42.07(a)(7) is construed to regulate some forms of speech, it would meet the relevant test because the State may protect the privacy and safety of its citizens against electronic harassment.

**A. Moore faces a steep burden because he has challenged section 42.07(a)(7) on its face.**

As the Court has recognized, the overbreadth doctrine is “less rigid” when dealing with “conduct in the shadow of the First Amendment.” *Broadrick*, 413 U.S. at 614-15. The use of a facial overbreadth claim thus “attenuates as the otherwise unprotected behavior that it forbids the State to sanction moves from ‘pure speech’ toward conduct and that conduct—even if expressive—falls within the scope of otherwise valid criminal laws that reflect legitimate state interests in maintaining comprehensive controls over harmful, constitutionally unprotected conduct.” *Id.* at 615.

Texas’s statute and others like it apply to harassing conduct, not speech. *See supra* pp. 3-4; App. 11a-17a. Consequently, any overbreadth must be “real” and “substantial” when judged in relation to the statute’s “plainly legitimate sweep.” *Broadrick*, 413 U.S. at 615. Moore’s speculation about what could happen under Texas’s law is insufficient to meet that burden. *See Members of City Council v. Taxpayers for Vincent*, 466 U.S. 789, 800 (1984). Thus, even if Texas’s law regulates constitutionally protected speech on the margins, Moore cannot meet his burden unless he is able to show that it does so on its face.

**B. On its face, section 42.07(a)(7) regulates conduct, not speech.**

In hopes of meeting this burden, Moore asks this Court to skip the essential question: does the statute criminalize speech or conduct? That is wrong. As this Court has recently reaffirmed, “[s]pecific criminal acts are not protected speech *even if* speech is the means for their commission.” *Packingham*, 137 S. Ct. at 1737 (emphasis added). And, as this Court indicated in *Cantwell*

*v. Connecticut*, harassing conduct may permissibly be criminalized: “[r]esort to epithets or personal abuse is not in any proper sense communication of information or opinion safeguarded by the Constitution, and its punishment as a criminal act would raise no question under that instrument.” 310 U.S. 296, 309-10 (1940).

1. Section 42.07(a)(7) constitutionally criminalizes conduct, not speech, as evidenced by (1) the specific-intent requirement, (2) the requirement of repeated acts, and (3) the reasonable-person standard. Tex. Penal Code § 42.07(a)(7). Typically, a law regulates speech and its content “if a law applies to particular speech because of the topic discussed or the idea or message expressed.” *Reed v. Town of Gilbert*, 576 U.S. 155, 163 (2015). On its face, section 42.07(a)(7) regulates the manner in which one sends a signal via an electronic device—not the composition of the signal. The law applies to repeated transmissions regardless of whether they are emails, texts, messages, etc., or whether they express affection, attempt to persuade someone to commit suicide, contain nude pictures, or are entirely empty.

To the extent any communicative conduct might be included, such limitations are justified to prevent intolerable intrusions into significant privacy interests. As long recognized by this Court, “[t]he ability of government, consonant with the Constitution, to shut off discourse solely to protect others from hearing it is, in other words, dependent upon a showing that substantial privacy interests are being invaded in an essentially intolerable manner.” *Cohen*, 403 U.S. at 21. Put another way, section 42.07(a)(7) does not criminalize electronic communications based on any particular content or content in general, but instead criminalizes the repeated dispatch of communications that is conducted with a certain

intent and likely to have a certain effect on a reasonable recipient.

Though Moore repeatedly disparages it (*e.g.*, at 16-19) the specific-intent requirement serves to limit the impact of section 42.07(a)(7) on protected activity. Under Texas law, “intent” requires proof that it is the individual’s “conscious objective or desire to engage in the conduct or cause the result.” Tex. Penal Code § 6.03(a). And the CCA has determined that this intent requirement means that the individual must have the goal of “inflict[ing] emotional distress for its own sake.” *Ex parte Barton*, 2022 WL 1021061, at \*4 (quoting *Scott*, 322 S.W.3d at 670). Although “speech” in a colloquial sense, verbal utterances made with such an intent—and that are reasonably likely to achieve that intent, as is also required by Texas law, Tex. Penal Code § 42.07(a)(7)—fall outside the protections afforded by the First Amendment. *See, e.g., Barr v. Am. Ass’n of Pol. Consultants, Inc.*, 140 S. Ct. 2335 (2020); *Cox*, 420 U.S. at 488; *Miller v. California*, 413 U.S. 15 (1973); *Time, Inc. v. Hill*, 385 U.S. 374, 383 n.7 (1967); *Giboney v. Empire Storage & Ice Co.*, 336 U.S. 490 (1949); *Chaplinsky v. New Hampshire*, 315 U.S. 568 (1942).

2. Because section 42.07(a)(7) falls outside the First Amendment, and neither implicates any other fundamental right nor targets a suspect class, the appropriate standard of review is whether it bears “a rational relation to some legitimate end.” *Romer*, 517 U.S. at 631; *see also Glickman v. Wileman Bros. & Elliott, Inc.*, 521 U.S. 457, 469-70, 477 (1997). And because Moore has not even addressed the law under this standard, he has forfeited any such arguments, *cf. Zinermon v. Burch*, 494 U.S. 113, 126 (1990), and has further reinforced that this case is a

poor vehicle to review these sorts of laws. Any argument Moore may have raised, however, would fail.

This Court has recognized that States have a legitimate interest in protecting the psychological well-being of minors, *Sable Commc'ns of Cal., Inc. v. F.C.C.*, 492 U.S. 115, 126 (1989), as well as protecting adults from harassment in places where they have an expectation of privacy, *see, e.g., Rowan*, 397 U.S. at 729-30. Section 42.07(a)(7) rationally relates to these legitimate state purposes by prohibiting conduct that has been shown to lead minors to suicide or serious self-harm, and by preserving the considerable privacy interests of adults from being inundated with unwanted electronic mailings to their private inboxes.

Moore tries to avoid this conclusion by distorting section 42.07(a)(7) in two ways. Neither has merit.

*First*, he suggests (at 34) that because religious organizations using the internet to spread their messages may use speech some find “insulting and even outrageous,” the statute prohibits protected speech. To the extent Moore implies (at 34) that David’s Law prohibits posting such religious content on the internet, it ignores that section 42.07(a)(7) prohibits “send[ing] repeated electronic communications in a manner reasonably likely to” have a detrimental impact on “another.” Texas law routinely distinguishes between sending direct communications and posting things on the internet. *Cf. State v. Hollins*, 620 S.W.3d 400, 407 (Tex. 2020) (per curiam). To the extent that Moore suggests that religious groups will directly (and repeatedly) send harassing communications via electronic means, he notably does not point to any actual case in which Texas or any State with a similar law has attempted to apply it in such a manner. In the unlikely

event that were to occur, it would be better addressed in an as-applied challenge—not a facial one. *Supra* p. 14.

*Second*, Moore’s conflates (at 34-35) the possible effect of the communication with the *intent* behind the communication. For example, Moore suggests (at 34) that someone who expresses an opinion about one of this Court’s decisions that annoys the recipient might be liable under the statute, thus allegedly showing that section 42.07(a)(7) runs afoul of the First Amendment and deserves heightened scrutiny. But in the mine run of cases, the intent of such messages is to express opinion—not to annoy the ideological interlocutor for the sake of annoying him. Moore’s other hypotheticals (*e.g.*, at 9, 21) are similar: all seek to communicate an idea or persuade the listener—albeit in a potentially annoying way—not to cause annoyance or emotional distress for its own sake.

These efforts to misconstrue the statute do not transform a permissible regulation of conduct into a facial violation of the First Amendment that requires heightened scrutiny. Therefore, rational-basis review applies and is easily satisfied by section 42.07(a)(7), which is reasonably related to guarding children against suicide and adults against harassing conduct.

**C. Even if section 42.07(a)(7) regulates some amount of speech, it is constitutional.**

**1. Section 42.07(a)(7) is content neutral.**

Even if the Court were to conclude that Texas’s statute limits speech rather than conduct, it is still constitutional because it is content-neutral and reasonable. Moore asserts *sans* authority that section 42.07(a)(7) criminalizes speech based on whether its content is “alarming, embarrassing, or offensive.” Pet. 32. But the face of section 42.07(a)(7) makes no such distinctions. *See Reed*, 576 U.S. at 165-66.

The content of the communication may be relevant to the intent and effect, but it does not determine whether the electronic communication is prohibited. As the Second Circuit has explained regarding a similar statute, “[a] recital on the telephone of the most sublime prayer with the intention and effect of harassing the listener would fall within its ban as readily as the most scurrilous epithet.” *Gormley v. Dir., Conn. State Dep’t of Prob.*, 632 F.2d 938, 942 (2d Cir. 1980), *cert. denied*, 449 U.S. 1023 (1980).

But David’s Law does not regulate based on content. For example, “I love watching you sleep” is an expression of affection between newlyweds, but alarming (and potentially criminally harassing) if sent from an abusive ex-partner—even if both are repeatedly transmitted via text. Or take the facts of *Wilson*, where a defendant argued that he could not be guilty because the content of his telephone calls was benign. 448 S.W.3d at 425. The CCA rejected that argument because “[b]enign content does not always prove benign intent.” *Id.* Instead, the content of the communication is simply evidence to support whether it was sent with unlawful intent and whether it would be reasonably likely to cause emotional distress. *See id.* at 422 & n.12.

Where, as here, an anti-harassment statute’s “narrow intent requirement precludes the proscription of mere communication,” the lower courts agree that “the nature of the conversation can have no bearing on the constitutionality of the section.” *United States v. Lampley*, 573 F.2d 783, 787 (3d Cir. 1978); *accord Thorne v. Bailey*, 846 F.2d 241, 244 (4th Cir. 1988), *cert. denied*, 488 U.S. 984 (1988); *infra* Part II.A.

**2. Privacy interests allow States to pass content-neutral restrictions such as section 42.07.**

Because (to the extent it regulates speech) section 42.07(a)(7) is content-neutral, it is subject to the same requirements as other time, place, and manner restrictions—namely, that it be narrowly tailored to serve a legitimate government interest. *Ward v. Rock Against Racism*, 491 U.S. 781, 798 (1989). Section 42.07(a)(7) easily satisfies that test under this Court’s existing precedent, which balances the speaker’s right to communicate with the recipient’s right to be left alone and the State’s ability to protect essential privacy interests. This principle originates in two of this Court’s cases.

*First*, in *Rowan*, this Court rejected a First Amendment challenge to a federal law allowing individuals to bar mail from senders they found objectionable. 397 U.S. at 729-30. Balancing the right of an individual “to be let alone” with the right of others to communicate, the Court held that “a sufficient measure of individual autonomy must survive to permit every householder to exercise control over unwanted mail,” and that “a mailer’s right to communicate must stop at the mailbox of an unreceptive addressee.” *Id.* at 736-37. The Court concluded that “no one has a right to press even ‘good’ ideas on an unwilling recipient.” *Id.* at 738.

*Second*, this Court reaffirmed the importance of those privacy concerns in *Cohen*, which observed that “[t]he ability of government, consonant with the Constitution, to shut off discourse solely to protect others from hearing it is, in other words, dependent upon a showing that substantial privacy interests are being invaded in an essentially intolerable manner.” 403 U.S. at 21.

Because those privacy interests remain unchanged no matter the form of communication, many lower courts have applied *Rowan* and *Cohen* to electronic harassment statutes. For example, citing *Cohen*, courts in States from South Carolina to California, and West Virginia to New Mexico have concluded that the use of the telephone involves “substantial privacy interests” and that the State has a “legitimate interest in prohibiting obscene, threatening or harassing telephone calls.” *State v. Brown*, 266 S.E.2d 64, 65 (S.C. 1980); *People v. Astalis*, 172 Cal. Rptr. 3d 568, 573-74 (Cal. App. Dep’t Super. Ct. 2014); *see also State v. Thorne*, 333 S.E.2d 817, 819 (W. Va. 1985); *State v. Gattis*, 730 P.2d 497, 501-02 & n.1 (N.M. Ct. App. 1986).

Similarly, quoting *Rowan* as well as *Cohen*, courts in Kentucky and Nebraska have upheld harassment statutes similar to section 42.07(a)(7) that prohibited telephonic and written communications made with the “intent to harass, annoy or alarm,” holding that “[t]his form of communication intrudes upon a justifiable privacy interest of the recipient and therefore, this right to communicate must be considered in light of a person’s right ‘to be left alone.’” *Yates v. Commonwealth*, 753 S.W.2d 874, 875 (Ky. Ct. App. 1988); *see also State v. Kipf*, 450 N.W.2d 397, 407-09 (Neb. 1990).

Moore never cites *Rowan*, let alone explains why these courts were wrong to conclude that the same rule that applies to physical mailboxes should not apply to electronic mailboxes. For good reason: from the sender’s perspective, there is no constitutionally significant difference in the ability to communicate one’s message. From the recipient’s perspective, there are far greater privacy concerns about access to one’s phone or watch, which serves as a portable computer to be taken

anywhere and everywhere. As the State’s interest in protecting that right is at least as great, the CCA was correct to extend *Rowan* to uphold Texas’s content-neutral anti-harassment rules first in the telephone context (in *Scott*) and then the email context (in *Barton* and *Saunders*).

**3. Section 42.07(a)(7) would pass strict scrutiny.**

Even if the Court concludes that the law is content-based, and thus subject to strict scrutiny, David’s Law would still pass muster because it is narrowly tailored to serve a compelling government interest. *Reed*, , 576 U.S. at 163. In analyzing how *Rowan* should apply to modern, intrusive means of communication, courts have recognized that the government has not just a legitimate but a “compelling interest in the protection of innocent individuals from fear, abuse or annoyance at the hands of persons who employ the telephone, not to communicate, but for other unjustifiable motives.” *Lampley*, 573 F.2d at 787; *cf. Cohen*, 403 U.S. at 21. As discussed above, David’s Law—which expanded section 42.07(a)(7) to what it includes today—the nation saw a growing epidemic of childhood suicide caused (at least in part) by electronic harassment. *See supra* 3-4. It is hard to imagine a more compelling state interest. And the law’s specific-intent requirement ensures that it serves that interest without sweeping into its ambit innocent, or otherwise protected speech. *Supra* 3-5.

### **III. Petitioner’s Contrary Arguments Do Not Merit Review at the Present Time.**

#### **A. Any split of authority does not merit this Court’s attention.**

Seeking to fashion a reason this Court should grant review, Moore insists (at 23, 35) that the CCA’s decision is either an outlier or representative of mass confusion regarding the constitutionality of electronic harassment laws. It is neither. Most States have some form of criminal harassment statute. *See supra* n. 2. And, for decades, numerous state and federal courts have upheld harassment laws like Texas’s—and typically for the same reasons explained by the CCA. *See Gattis*, 730 P.2d at 501 & n.1. The few contrary cases to which Moore cites either (1) reach a different conclusion based on the unique features of the law at issue, or (2) ignore the conduct/speech analysis entirely. Consequently, there is no split on “the same important matter,” and no need for this Court’s review. Sup. Ct. R. 10(a).

#### **1. Most courts have held that statutes criminalizing harassing communications target conduct, not speech.**

Contrary to petitioner’s repeated suggestion (*e.g.*, at 26, 32), multiple state courts have rejected First Amendment challenges to harassment laws, typically for the same reasons outlined by the CCA. Examining just a few examples—some of which were already referenced above—demonstrates both why the CCA’s ruling was correct and why any split of authority the petitioner manages to find is unworthy of this Court’s attention.

**a.** Start with state high courts. In *Thorne*, the West Virginia Supreme Court of Appeals examined a ban on repeated telephone calls made “with intent to harass or

abuse another.” 333 S.E.2d at 819 n.4. Quoting (among other things) *Cox v. Louisiana*, 379 U.S. 559, 563 (1965), the court concluded that “[p]rohibiting harassment is not prohibiting speech, because harassment is not protected speech.” *Thorne*, 333 S.E.2d at 819. The court in *Thorne* reasoned that it had “never been deemed an abridgment of freedom of speech or press to make a course of conduct illegal merely because the conduct was in part initiated, evidenced, or carried out by means of language, either spoken, written, or printed.” *Id.* And, like the CCA, the West Virginia court noted that the challenged law’s specific-intent requirement narrows the applicability of such statutes to acts intended to cause emotional distress, and “[p]hone calls made with the intent to communicate are not prohibited.” *Id.*

In *Commonwealth v. Johnson*, the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts came to a similar conclusion. 21 N.E.3d 937, 946 (Mass. 2014). That court examined a statute that penalized “willfully and maliciously” engaging in a “knowing pattern of conduct or series of acts” that “seriously alarms” a person and “would cause a reasonable person to suffer substantial emotional distress.” 21 N.E.3d 937, 944-45 (Mass. 2014); *see* Mass. Gen. Laws ch. 265, § 43A(a). The unlawful conduct was defined to include the use of a telecommunication device or electronic communication device. *Id.* Citing *Giboney*, 336 U.S. at 498, *Johnson* explained that this Court has said “that speech or writing used as an integral part of conduct in violation of a valid criminal statute is not protected by the First Amendment.” 21 N.E.3d at 946. Harassment laws were valid, the court explained, because they limit conduct not communication. *Id.* at 946-47. And, again, the court noted the significance of the “scienter requirement,” which undermined any argument that an

individual could be liable “if his actions were accidental.” *Johnson, Id.* at 945. The court concluded that “[a]s the statute requires both malicious intent on behalf of the perpetrator and substantial harm to the victim, “it is difficult to imagine what constitutionally-protected speech would fall under these statutory prohibitions.” *Id.*

Other high courts agree. The Florida Supreme Court has upheld Florida’s ban on telephone calls made with the intent to “annoy, abuse, threaten or harass” against an overbreadth challenge, holding that it was “not directed at the communication of opinions or ideas, but at conduct.” *State v. Elder*, 382 So.2d 687, 690 (Fla. 1980); *see also Gilbreath v. State*, 650 So.2d 10, 12 (Fla. 1995). The Supreme Court of Montana stated that the specific-intent requirement “removes the danger of criminalizing protected speech.” *State v. Dugan*, 303 P.3d 755, 769 (Mont. 2013). And the Supreme Court of New Hampshire upheld a law prohibiting “repeated communications at extremely inconvenient hours or in offensively coarse language with a purpose to annoy or alarm another,” in part because of the specific-intent requirement. *State v. Gubitosi*, 958 A.2d 962, 967-68 (N.H. 2008).<sup>10</sup> *Gubitosi*—like *Barton* and *Sanders*—also noted that the requirement of repeated communications limits any potential infringement upon a legitimate effort to communicate. *Id.*

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<sup>10</sup> For other state courts upholding harassment laws (albeit not always specifically targeted at electronic harassment), see *Lehi City v. Rickabaugh*, 487 P.3d 453 (Utah Ct. App. 2021), *cert. denied*, 496 P.3d 714 (Utah 2021); *State v. Moyle*, 705 P.2d 740 (Or. 1985) (en banc); *State v. Crelly*, 313 N.W.2d 455 (S.D. 1981); *People v. Weeks*, 591 P.2d 91 (Colo. 1979) (en banc); *Constantino v. State*, 255 S.E.2d 710 (Ga. 1979); *State v. Jaeger*, 249 N.W.2d 688 (Iowa 1977); *State v. Thompson*, 701 P.2d 694 (Kan. 1985); *State v. Meunier*, 354 So. 2d 535 (La. 1978).

b. Intermediate state appellate courts have also concluded that harassment statutes aimed at telephone or electronic communications—many of which use language similar to Texas’s law—do not implicate the First Amendment because they prohibit conduct, not speech. These courts’ reasoning also often highlights how the specific-intent requirement answers many of Moore’s concerns about the hypothetical breadth of Texas’s law. Pet. 31. For example, an intermediate court in Idaho explained that:

[b]y requiring that the sole intent of the call be to annoy, terrify, threaten, intimidate, harass or offend, the statute places outside of its ambit calls which, though they may insult or offend the recipient, carry a legitimate purpose such as conveying a complaint about a business practice or government policy or attempting to persuade the hearer to a particular social, religious or political point of view.

*Richards*, 896 P.2d at 362.

An appellate court in California likewise concluded that a specific-intent requirement narrows the law and excludes those who act under mistake of fact or accident. *Astalis*, 172 Cal. Rptr. 3d at 573. And, like both the CCA and *Gubitosi*, the California court noted the significance of the requirement of repetition, stating that “[p]rudence may justify a hands-off policy for single calls made with the intent to harass, but as harassing calls are repeated the state interest in intervening to protect the recipient becomes more compelling.” *Id.*<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>11</sup> For other examples of intermediate state courts upholding harassment statutes, see *State v. Kronenberg*, No. 101403, 2015 WL

c. Finally, several federal circuit courts have also ruled—in decisions this Court has declined to review—that harassment statutes regulate conduct, not speech. The Second Circuit upheld Connecticut’s harassment statute prohibiting telephone calls made “with intent to harass, annoy or alarm” and “in a manner likely to cause annoyance or alarm” on the ground that it “[c]learly . . . regulates conduct, not mere speech.” *Gormley*, 632 F.2d at 941-42. The Fourth Circuit, likewise, upheld the West Virginia statute discussed above, reasoning that “[b]ecause the telephone is normally used for communication does not preclude its use in a harassing course of conduct.” *Thorne*, 846 F.2d at 243. Others have followed suit.<sup>12</sup>

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1255845, at \*2-3 (Ohio Ct. App. Mar. 19, 2015); *City of Montgomery v. Zgouvas*, 953 So. 2d 434, 443 (Ala. Crim. App. 2006); *State v. Brown*, 85 P.3d 109, 113 (Ariz. Ct. App. 2004); *State v. Alexander*, 888 P.2d 175, 182-83 (Wash. Ct. App. 1995); *State v. Richards*, 896 P.2d 357, 362 (Idaho Ct. App. 1995); *McKillop v. State*, 857 P.2d 358, 364 (Alaska Ct. App. 1993); *People v. Taravella*, 350 N.W.2d 780, 784 (Mich. Ct. App. 1984); *Donley v. City of Mountain Brook*, 429 So.2d 603, 610 (Ala. Crim. App. 1982); *State v. Mollenkopf*, 456 N.E.2d 1269, 1270 (Ohio Ct. App. 1982); *State v. Camp*, 295 S.E.2d 766, 768 (N.C. Ct. App. 1982); *State v. Fin. Am. Corp.*, 440 A.2d 28, 31 (N.J. Super. Ct. App. Div. 1981); *Kinney v. State*, 404 N.E.2d 49, 50-51 (Ind. Ct. App. 1980); *von Lusch v. State*, 387 A.2d 306, 310 (Md. Ct. Spec. App. 1978); *Baker v. State*, 494 P.2d 68, 69-70 (Ariz. Ct. App. 1972); *State v. Anonymous (1978-4)*, 389 A.2d 1270, 1273 (Conn. Super. Ct. 1978); *People v. Smith*, 392 N.Y.S.2d 968, 970 (N.Y. App. Div. 1977) (per curiam).

<sup>12</sup> *United States v. Waggy*, 936 F.3d 1014, 1017-20 (9th Cir. 2019) (collecting cases), *cert. denied*, 141 S. Ct. 138 (2020); *see also United States v. Sayer*, 748 F.3d 425, 435 (1st Cir. 2014); *United States v. Conlan*, 786 F.3d 380, 386 (5th Cir. 2015); *United States v. Petrovic*, 701 F.3d 849, 860 (8th Cir. 2012); *Lampley*, 573 F.2d at 787.

**2. Moore’s contrary authorities either fail to conduct the relevant analysis or are distinguishable.**

In contrast to the weight of authority cited above, Moore has identified only a small handful of state cases over the past 50 years that even suggest a constitutional problem with electronic harassment laws. Those cases, however, do not create an issue requiring the Court’s attention here because they either involve statutes that are materially distinct from David’s Law or they entirely fail to address this Court’s distinction between speech and conduct.

a. To the extent that Moore’s putatively contrary authority even addresses the conduct-speech distinction at the heart of this case, they do so regarding statutes that are materially distinguishable from David’s Law.

The Illinois Supreme Court in *People v. Klick*, for example, addressed a statute criminalizing a single phone call made with an intent to annoy. 362 N.E.2d 329, 330 (Ill. 1977). Even under the rule stated above, such a law would likely be deemed aimed at speech that is merely unpleasant: it had a minimal intent requirement and no requirement of repeated calls. It also fails to employ a reasonable-person standard, such that an individual cannot be found guilty unless his communications would have caused emotional distress to the average person. Courts in both Texas and elsewhere have found the presence of such an element relevant to limit any potential infringement of anti-harassment laws on free speech. *See, e.g., Brown*, 85 P.3d at 113; *Scott*, 322 S.W.3d at 669; App. 5a.

At least two of the courts upon which Moore relies have actually *upheld* laws that resemble David’s Law, holding unconstitutional only those laws that lack the

limiting factors discussed above. Specifically, in *In re Welfare of A.J.B.*, the Minnesota Supreme Court severed language that it thought made Minnesota’s mail-harassment statute overbroad and vague. 929 N.W. 2d 840, 863 (Minn. 2019). But the court left in place the rest of the statute, which largely aligns with Texas’s, and which “proscribes repeatedly mailing, delivering, or causing the delivery”, “by any means, including electronically, of letters, telegrams, or packages,” with “the intent to abuse.” *Id.* In *State v. Vaughn*, 366 S.W.3d 513, 521-22 (Mo. 2012) (en banc), the Missouri Supreme Court held a harassment statute that had no intent element to cabin its scope to be overbroad, but the same court has since upheld an updated version of the law, which more closely aligns with Texas’s, see *State v. Collins*, 648 S.W.3d 711, 714 (Mo. 2022) (en banc), *as modified on denial of reh’g* (Aug. 30, 2022).

Much of Moore’s remaining authority is even more off point. *State v. Brobst* invalidated the relevant law under the State Constitution, not the U.S. Constitution. 857 A.2d 1253, 1257 (N.H. 2004). And, like *A.J.B.*, all but one of the federal cases relied on by Moore (at 30) *rejected* an overbreadth challenge to the federal government’s analogous law. See *United States v. Yung*, 37 F.4th 70 (3d Cir. 2022); *United States v. Fleury*, 20 F.4th 1353, 1362-63 (11th Cir. 2021); *United States v. Ackell*, 907 F.3d 67, 73 (1st Cir. 2018). The last one did not even involve an overbreadth challenge, it reversed a conviction based on an *as applied* challenge. *United States v. Sryniawski*, 48 F.4th 583, 587-89 (8th Cir. 2022). As discussed above (at Part I), such a challenge is not before the Court and is entirely premature.

**b.** Finally, many of Moore’s supposedly contrary authorities do not directly confront the speech-conduct

distinction that is the basis of the CCA’s ruling. Indeed, an Alabama appellate court expressly refused to follow the Colorado Supreme Court in *Bolles v. People*, 541 P.2d 80, 82-83 (Colo. 1975) (en banc), *because* it did not account for this question—or for the Colorado statute’s specific-intent requirement. *Zgouvas*, 953 So.2d at 443 n.2. Because the Colorado court did not consider whether the statute was aimed at conduct—only speech—it unsurprisingly held that a blanket restriction on speech is not justifiable by privacy interests alone. *Bolles*, 541 P.2d at 83-84.

The New York Court of Appeals’ decision in *People v. Golb* contained almost no legal analysis whatsoever, simply relying on prior cases that did not evaluate whether the law, which prohibited communications made with the “intent to harass, annoy, threaten or alarm,” proscribed conduct or speech. 15 N.E.3d 805, 813-14 (N.Y. 2014). The court did not consider whether the law could be justified as a regulation of conduct or as prohibiting an invasion of privacy. *Id.*

In short, these cases do not reflect a nationwide split among state courts or federal circuits. Many of the cases *upheld* the relevant law. And to the extent they found a constitutional problem, the statutes differ from Texas’s in significant ways, or the cases failed to undertake the analysis required by this Court’s case law. There is no irresolvable split that requires the Court’s intervention.

**B. This case does not present an issue of exceptional importance just because the First Amendment is involved.**

Stripped of his strained assertions of a circuit split, Moore’s professed belief that this case is one of exceptional importance rests entirely on his insistence (at 32-35) that failing to disturb this decades old law will have a

“wide and real” chilling effect on all electronic communications, because speakers “will choose simply to abstain from protected speech,” *Id.* Texas is no stranger to the dangers of electronic censorship; indeed, it is in active litigation before this Court to defend a statute designed to ensure equal access for all Texans to the digital public square regardless of their viewpoint. *See generally* Respondent’s Response to Petition for Certiorari, *Netchoice, LLC v. Paxton*, No. 22-555 (U.S. Dec. 20, 2022). But it is entirely speculative that the narrow provision challenged here *might* cause individuals to refrain from First Amendment protected conduct.

Moreover, David’s Law did not chill Moore himself. After all, this case did not arise through a request for a declaratory judgment from a party fearing to engage in political—or other core—speech due to David’s Law (or any other provision of Texas’s Penal Code). *See, e.g.,* *Doran v. Salem Inn, Inc.*, 422 U.S. 922, 930-31 (1975); *Steffel v. Thompson*, 415 U.S. 452, 458-60 (1974). It arose from a pre-trial writ of habeas corpus by a man charged with threatening his ex-girlfriend. *Supra* pp. 7. Moore will have the opportunity to explain why he is either factually or legally innocent. If he fails to do so, and if the Texas courts interpret David’s Law in a way that undermines the First Amendment, he can seek relief then. Those contingencies have not materialized, and there is no need for the Court to step in now.

**CONCLUSION**

The petition for a writ of certiorari should be dismissed or denied.

Respectfully submitted.

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