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8	SUPERIOR COURT OF THE STATE	OF CALIFORNIA
9	IN AND FOR THE COUNTY OF SACRAMENTO	
10	IN MAD FOR THE COUNTY OF	
11	ENVIRONMENTAL LAW FOUNDATION;)	No. 34-2010-80000583
12	PACIFIC COAST FEDERATION OF FISHERMEN'S) ASSOCIATIONS; INSTITUTE FOR FISHERIES)	BRIEF AMICUS CURIAE
13	RESOURCES; and DOES 1-100,	OF CALIFORNIA FARM BUREAU FEDERATION IN
14	Petitioners,	SUPPORT OF RESPONDENT COUNTY OF SISKIYOU'S
15	v.	MOTION FOR JUDGMENT ON THE PLEADINGS
16	STATE WATER RESOURCES CONTROL BOARD; OCUNTY OF SISKIYOU; and DOES 1-100, inclusive,	Date: April 11, 2014
17	Respondents.	Time: 10:30 a.m. Dept. 42
18		Judge: Hon. Allen H. Sumner
19		Original Complaint Filed: June 23, 2010
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INTRODUCTION

Amicus California Farm Bureau Federation respectfully submits this brief amicus curiae in support of Respondent County of Siskiyou's Motion for Judgment on the Pleadings. The Farm Bureau agrees with the County that the public trust doctrine does not apply to the extraction of unadjudicated groundwater within the Scott River Basin. In this brief, the Farm Bureau provides a further reason why, as a matter of law, the public trust doctrine should not be extended to cover such groundwater extraction. Under the canon of avoidance, courts should avoid interpreting the law in such a way as to raise a serious constitutional issue. Here, the canon requires that the Court not extend the public trust doctrine to groundwater extraction. Such an expansion would raise serious constitutional issues under the Due Process and Takings Clauses of the United States Constitution. The Court can and should avoid addressing these serious issues by retaining the current reach of the public trust doctrine to activities—unlike groundwater extraction—that have a direct and immediate impact on surface waters.

I

THE AVOIDANCE CANON ENCOURAGES COURTS TO AVOID DECIDING UNNECESSARY AND DIFFICULT CONSTITUTIONAL ISSUES

A basic canon of interpretation directs courts reasonably to construe statutes so as not to raise difficult constitutional questions. *In re Smith*, 42 Cal. 4th 1251, 1269 (2008). The purpose behind the canon is prudential: to avoid deciding unnecessary issues, and to indulge the presumption that the Legislature does not casually seek to raise such difficult issues. *People v. Superior Court (Romero)*, 13 Cal. 4th 497, 509 (1996). The California Supreme Court has observed that it "'will not decide constitutional questions where other grounds are available and dispositive of the issues of the case.'" *Santa Clara County Local Transp. Auth. v. Guardino*, 11 Cal. 4th 220, 230 (1995) (quoting *Palermo v. Stockton Theatres, Inc.*, 32 Cal. 2d 53, 66 (1948)). That reluctance derives from "the larger concept of judicial self-restraint, succinctly stated in the rule that 'we do not reach constitutional questions unless absolutely required to do so to dispose of the matter before us.'" *Id.* (quoting *People v. Williams*, 16 Cal. 3d 663, 667 (1976)).

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The rationale that supports the canon as applied to statutory construction also supports the canon's application to judicial decisions construing common law principles. In other words, just as a court should not raise constitutional issues needlessly with respect to legislative action, so too with respect to judicial action. Accordingly, to the extent that a court may reasonably interpret a common law doctrine, like the public trust doctrine, in a way that avoids serious constitutional questions, the court should do so.

II

APPLICATION OF THE PUBLIC TRUST DOCTRINE TO GROUNDWATER EXTRACTION WOULD RAISE SERIOUS CONSTITUTIONAL ISSUES

A. A Court Acts Unconstitutionally When It Radically and Unpredictably Changes the Law, or Otherwise Eliminates a Well-Established Property Right

State courts, as much as state legislatures and executive officials, are subject to the constraints of the Federal Constitution. See Shelley v. Kraemer, 334 U.S. 1, 14 (1948); New York Times v. Sullivan, 376 U.S. 254, 265 (1964). In particular, the Due Process and Takings Clauses of the Fifth Amendment, as applied to the states through the Fourteenth Amendment, limit the power of state courts. See Chicago, B. & O.R. Co. v. City of Chicago, 166 U.S. 226, 235 (1897); Stop the Beach Renourishment, Inc. v. Fla. Dep't of Envtl. Prot., 560 U.S. 702, 130 S. Ct. 2592, 2602 (2010) (plurality opinion); id. at 2614 (Kennedy, J., concurring in part and concurring in the judgment).

The Due Process Clause as Applied to State Courts

The Fourteenth Amendment, as applied to the state judiciary, forbids a court from depriving a person of property without due process of law. See Stop the Beach Renourishment, 130 S. Ct. at 2614 (Kennedy, J., concurring in part and in the judgment) (discussing various authorities); Hughes v. Washington, 389 U.S. 290, 296-97 (1967) (Stewart, J., concurring). And due process of law, for a court, means that its decision-making must follow accepted norms of common law and statutory interpretation. See Stop the Beach Renourishment, 130 S. Ct. at 2615 (citing Roderick E. Walston, The Constitution and Property: Due Process, Regulatory Takings, and Judicial Takings, 2001 Utah L. Rev. 379, 435)). Thus, if a court's decision radically and unexpectedly changes the

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law, and thereby deprives a person of property, then the decision violates the Due Process Clause. Walston, supra, at 435; Michael R. Salvas, A Structural Approach to Judicial Takings, 16 Lewis & Clark L. Rev. 1381, 1434 (2012); David Wagner, Note, A Proposed Approach to Judicial Takings, 73 Ohio St. L.J. 177, 211 (2012).

2. The Takings Clause as Applied to State Courts

The Takings Clause forbids the taking of private property for public use without just compensation. This protection, as applied to the judiciary, means that a state court cannot through its decision-making eliminate what had previously been a well-established property right, unless the state compensates the property owner for the loss. See Webb's Fabulous Pharmacies, Inc. v. Beckwith, 449 U.S. 155, 164 (1980); Stop the Beach Renourishment, 130 S. Ct. at 2602 (plurality opinion). See also County of Los Angeles v. Berk, 26 Cal. 3d 201, 213 (1980) (considering whether retroactive application of a judicial decision can "be deemed to so betray the legitimate and reasonable reliance interests of property owners that its application to them and their property amounts to an unconstitutional taking of vested rights"); Robinson v. Ariyoshi, 753 F.2d 1468, 1474 (9th Cir. 1985) (holding that a state court decision adopting the riparian ownership doctrine cannot divest property owners of pre-existing rights to divert water).

Application of the Public Trust Doctrine to Groundwater Extraction Raises Serious Questions under the Due Process Clause

A judicial decision that radically and unpredictably changes the law may violate principles of due process. See Stop the Beach Renourishment, 130 S. Ct. at 2614 (Kennedy, J., concurring in part and concurring in the judgment). The public trust doctrine is a creature of the common law. See Nat'l Audubon Soc'y v. Superior Court, 33 Cal. 3d 419, 433-34 (1983). Thus, a court's radical and unpredictable reworking of the doctrine—such as its expansion to groundwater extraction—would be unconstitutional.¹

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A court could not ameliorate the unconstitutional effects of such a decision by limiting it to prospective application. Water rights in California are subject to the doctrine of "continuing jurisdiction." See United States v. State Water Res. Control Bd., 182 Cal. App. 3d 82, 133 (1986). That jurisdiction gives the State Water Resources Control Board the power to limit existing water (continued...)

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Traditionally, the public trust doctrine in this country applied only to tidelands and navigable waters. See Ill. Cent. R.R. Co. v. Illinois, 146 U.S. 387, 436-37 (1892). And when it applied, the trust protected only navigation, commerce, and fishing uses. City of Berkeley v. Superior Court, 26 Cal. 3d 515, 521 (1980). During the latter half of the twentieth century, however, California courts expanded the trust to include tributaries of navigable waters, Nat'l Audubon Soc'v, 33 Cal. 3d at 437, and to cover recreational and ecological uses as well, Marks v. Whitney, 6 Cal. 3d 251, 259-60 (1971). As radical as these expansions of the doctrine may be, see generally Janice Lawrence, Lyon and Fogerty: Unprecedented Extensions of the Public Trust, 70 Cal. L. Rev. 1138 (1982), the decisions at least implicitly recognized some limitation to the doctrine's scope. Indeed, the California courts have never applied the doctrine to just any activity that may have a measurable effect on trust waters. Cf. Nat'l Audubon Soc'y, 33 Cal. 3d at 440 ("Most decisions and commentators assume that 'trust uses' relate to uses and activities in the vicinity of the lake, stream, or tidal reach at issue "); Santa Teresa Citizen Action Group v. City of San Jose, 114 Cal. App. 4th 689, 709 (2003) (observing that the doctrine "has no direct application to groundwater resources"). Rather, the courts have consistently maintained that a necessary (although not sufficient) condition for application of the public trust is an immediate and direct connection to surface water. See California v. Superior Court (Lyon), 29 Cal. 3d 210, 227 (1981) ("[T]he applicability of the public trust doctrine does not turn upon whether a body of water is subject to the ebb and flow of the tide, but upon whether it is navigable in fact."); Personal Watercraft Coal. v. Bd. of Supervisors, 100 Cal. App. 4th 129, 144 (2002) ("The public trust doctrine is no longer confined to coastal areas lapped by the waves of the Pacific, but extends to nontidal bodies such as inland waterways and lakes, the lands beneath them, as well as any streams and tributaries that affect any navigable waters."). Cf. Golden Feather Cmty. Ass'n v. Thermalito Irrig. Dist., 209 Cal. App. 3d 1276, 1284-87 (1989) (declining to extend the public trust doctrine

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^{(...}continued)

rights based on changing factual circumstances, such as emerging impacts to public trust resources. See id. at 149-50. Hence, a court could not avoid the due process implications of a radical change in the public trust doctrine by limiting its decision to prospective application.

One very good reason why the California courts have not extended the doctrine beyond surface water is that the doctrine would then have no stopping point. It is true, as Petitioners Environmental Law Foundation, *et al.*, contend, that groundwater extraction can affect surface waters. Pet'r Mem. P&As at 8-10. But it is also true that many things, such as vehicle emissions, pesticides, and impervious pavement can affect surface waters even though they have only a remote connection to such waters. *See, e.g.*, Keith D. Stolzenbach, UCLA Inst. of the Env't & Sustainability, *Atmospheric Deposition*³ (observing that roads and wild fires are a significant source of dust that ultimately pollutes water bodies through atmospheric deposition); State Water Res. Control Bd., *Storm Water Pollution*⁴ (observing that storm water pollution from trash, cigarette butts, motor oil, and the like leads to "unhealthy surface waters, such as lakes, creeks and rivers, [as well as] unhealthy ocean and beach conditions."). By extending the doctrine to groundwater extraction, the judiciary would assign Respondent State Water Resources Control

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the proposition that "[t]he State holds the navigable waters in 'trust' for the public.").

Petitioners contend that the North Dakota Supreme Court also has extended the doctrine to groundwater. Pet'r Mem. P&As at 14 (citing *United Plainsmen Ass'n v. N.D. State Water*

Conservation Comm'n, 247 N.W.2d 457, 461 (N.D. 1976)). But in *United Plainsmen* the question of whether the doctrine applies specifically to groundwater was not at issue. Rather, the case concerned whether the doctrine—whatever its relationship to groundwater—applies only "to conveyances of real property," or instead to water permitting generally. See id. at 460-61. Moreover, it does not appear that the North Dakota Supreme Court has ever cited *United Plainsmen* for the proposition that the public trust doctrine applies to groundwater. Cf. N.D. State Water Comm'n v. Bd. of Mgrs., 332 N.W.2d 254, 258 (N.D. 1983) (citing United Plainsmen for

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³ Available at http://www.environment.ucla.edu/reportcard/article.asp?parentid=1497 (last visited Feb. 5, 2014).

⁴ Available at http://www.waterboards.ca.gov/water_issues/programs/outreach/erase_waste/swpollution.shtml (last visited Feb. 5, 2014).

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Board the power to regulate all sorts of productive activity far removed from navigable waters and the original purposes of the doctrine. Such an interpretation would itself raise a serious question of an unconstitutional delegation of law-making power to an administrative agency. See, e.g., Samples v. Brown, 146 Cal. App. 4th 787, 804 (2007) (the Legislature cannot pass off "fundamental policy decisions" to an administrative agency). Moreover, such an extension would conflate the traditional public trust doctrine with the existing "statutory" trust doctrine that the Legislature has created to govern wildlife. See Envtl. Prot. Info. Ctr. v. Cal. Dep't of Forestry & Fire Prot., 44 Cal. 4th 459, 515 (2008). Hence, the public trust doctrine would become an unprecedented open-ended grant of environmental regulatory power to the judiciary and the administrative state.

Further, expansion of the doctrine would conflict with the intent of the California Legislature, which has often considered but never enacted a comprehensive groundwater regulatory See Dep't of Water Res., Groundwater Management, available at scheme. http://www.water.ca.gov/groundwater/gwmanagement/dwr_role.cfm (last visited Feb. 5, 2014) ("Though the regulation of groundwater has been considered on several occasions, the California Legislature has repeatedly held that groundwater management should remain a local responsibility."); Zachary A. Smith, Rewriting California Groundwater Law: Past Attempts and Prerequisites to Reform, 20 Cal. W. L. Rev. 223, 241-42 (1983) (observing that numerous bills were submitted to implement recommendations concerning groundwater regulation from the Governor's Commission to Review California Water Rights Law but they were defeated). Rather, the Legislature has left groundwater extraction largely unregulated at the state level. See Baldwin v. County of Tehama, 31 Cal. App. 4th 166, 174 (1994); Wright v. Goleta Water Dist., 174 Cal. App. 3d 74, 87 (1985). Extending the doctrine to groundwater would make a state agency an immediate, and the judiciary the ultimate, regulator of groundwater, a result in conflict with this statutory history.

Although the California courts have expanded the public trust doctrine beyond its historic scope, the courts have never countenanced a doctrine far removed from surface water and so broad as to include groundwater extraction. Not only would such an extension have no precedential

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warrant, it would mark a radical change in groundwater regulation in this state, directly at odds with the Legislature's repeated refusal to enact such a comprehensive regulatory regime. Consequently, for the judiciary to expand the doctrine to groundwater extraction would be so radical and unexpected as to raise serious due process concerns.

C. Application of the Public Trust Doctrine to Groundwater Extraction Raises Serious Questions Under the Takings Clause

The use of groundwater is a legally protected property right. See Peabody v. City of Vallejo. 2 Cal. 2d 351, 370-71 (1935); Katz v. Walkinshaw, 141 Cal. 116, 150 (1903). Application of the public trust doctrine to groundwater extraction could only serve to reduce, rather than expand, a pre-existing right to use groundwater. Such an uncompensated reduction in the right of use could violate the Takings Clause.

The Tests for Judicial Takings

Although the law of judicial takings is emerging, commentators generally agree that to determine whether a judicial taking has occurred (i.e., whether a court decision has eliminated a property right) requires recourse to the existing legislative/executive takings tests. D. Benjamin Barros, The Complexities of Judicial Takings, 45 U. Rich. L. Rev. 903, 917 (2011); Ilya Somin, Stop the Beach Renourishment and the Problem of Judicial Takings, 6 Duke J. Const. L. & Pub. Pol'y 91, 104-06 (2011). But see Wagner, supra, at 213 (arguing that a judicial takings test should be less demanding than existing legislative/executive takings tests). The analysis for legislative/executive takings comprises two questions. First, is there a property right that has been negatively affected by legislative/executive action? See M&J Coal Co. v. United States, 47 F.3d 1148, 1154 (Fed. Cir. 1995). If so, then is the quality or quantity of that impact significant in such a way as to require compensation? See id. To help answer these questions, the case law divides legislative/executive takings law into two broad categories of regulatory and physical takings. See Tahoe-Sierra Pres. Council, Inc. v. Tahoe Reg'l Planning Agency, 535 U.S. 302, 322-24 (2002).

The paradigmatic taking requiring compensation occurs when the government physically invades and occupies one's land, see id. at 322, such as when, for example, military jets repeatedly 28 fly low over one's property and disturb one's use and enjoyment. See United States v. Causby, 328) 419-7111 FAX (916) 419-7747

U.S. 256, 266-67 (1946). This is a categorical rule: regardless of the economic impact of the expropriation, or the reasons behind it, compensation is required. In turn, the umbrella of regulatory takings covers a number of tests, including two categorical rules. When the government forces a property owner to submit to a permanent physical occupation by a third party, compensation is required. See Loretto v. Teleprompter Manhattan CATV Corp., 458 U.S. 419, 421 (1982). Compensation is also required when the government regulates a property in such a way as to deny all economically viable use. See Lucas v. S.C. Coastal Council, 505 U.S. 1003, 1030 (1992). But, when government regulation does not produce a physical invasion, and does not completely deprive the property owner of economically viable use, the courts employ a balancing factor test. These factors are the economic impact of the regulation, the investment-backed expectations of the property owner at the time he acquired the property, and the nature of the government action. See Penn Cent. Transp. Co. v. New York City, 438 U.S. 104, 124 (1978).

2. Application of the Judicial Takings Tests to the Expansion of the Public Trust Doctrine

Application of the public trust doctrine to groundwater that results in a diminution of use would raise serious takings issues under the aforementioned tests. Because water rights are usufructury, *Orange County Water Dist. v. Arnold Eng'g Co.*, 196 Cal. App. 4th 1110, 1125 n.5 (2011), eliminating the right of use is akin to the drastic impact of physical invasion on real property; therefore, such an impact categorically warrants compensation. *See* Josh Patashnik, *Physical Takings, Regulatory Takings, and Water Rights*, 51 Santa Clara L. Rev. 365, 367 (2011) (advocating for a categorical rule of compensation for water rights); Jesse W. Barton, Tulare Lake Basin Water Storage District v. United States: *Why It Was Correctly Decided and What This Means for Water Rights*, 25 Environs Envtl. L. & Pol'y J. 109, 143-44 (2002) (same). *Cf. Casitas Mun. Water Dist. v. United States*, 543 F.3d 1276, 1296 (Fed. Cir. 2008) (applying the categorical

The usufructury nature of water rights distinguishes them from other property rights that may be subject to the trust, in which substantial rights of use may survive the trust's application. *Cf. Lyon*, 29 Cal. 3d at 232 (explaining that, notwithstanding application of the trust to Lyon's shore property, Lyon "may utilize [his property] in any manner not incompatible with the public's interest in the property.").

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physical takings test to a water right takings claim). Alternatively, under a regulatory takings framework, application of the public trust could so diminish a groundwater right that the water right, as well as the overlying land, lose all economically viable use. Cf. Lucas, 505 U.S. at 1030. And a taking may also occur under the Penn Central test. Not only would imposition of the public trust have a significant negative economic impact, it would also dramatically frustrate existing investment-backed expectations that have been based on the historic limitation of the public trust to activities having a direct and immediate impact on surface waters. See James L. Huffman, Speaking of Inconvenient Truths—A History of the Public Trust Doctrine, 18 Duke Envtl. L. & Pol'y F. 1, 103 (2007) ("[A] careful review of the history—the precedent—does not make the case for expanded application of the public trust doctrine.). See also Lawrence, supra, at 1142 (until the early 1980s, "California public trust law dealt almost entirely with tidelands.").

The "Background Principles" Defense

If a government limitation is consistent with background principles of property law, then there is no taking. See Lucas, 505 U.S. at 1029. See generally David L. Callies & J. David Breemer, Background Principles, Custom and Public Trust "Exceptions" and the (Mis)Use of Investment-Backed Expectations, 36 Val. U. L. Rev. 339 (2002). But a court cannot avoid the unconstitutional outcomes discussed above by characterizing an expanded public trust as a background principle of California water law. Although the public trust, broadly speaking, is such a principle, see Nat'l Audubon Soc'y, 33 Cal. 3d at 437; Esplanade Props., LLC v. City of Seattle, 307 F.3d 978, 985-86 (9th Cir. 2002), the Takings Clause cannot be evaded through a creative and unjustified expansion of a background principle. Background principles "cannot be newly legislated or decreed." Lucas, 505 U.S. at 1029. Otherwise, "the Takings Clause . . . would . . . afford no protection against state power," Bush v. Gore, 531 U.S. 98, 115 n.1 (2000) (Rehnquist, C.J., concurring), and the Supreme Court's decision in Lucas requiring compensation for a regulatory wipe-out in value "would be a nullity," Stevens v. City of Cannon Beach, 510 U.S. 1207, 114 S. Ct. 1332, 1334 (1994) (Scalia, J., dissenting from denial of cert.). Therefore, the public trust ceases to be a background principle to the extent that it "shifts from its historical moorings." Callies & Breemer, supra, at 373.

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The public trust doctrine traditionally was limited to tidelands and navigable waters and to activities that have direct impacts on navigation, commerce, and fishing. See, e.g., Nat'l Audubon Soc'y, 33 Cal. 3d at 434; Lawrence, supra, at 1148. What Petitioners demand, however, is an expansion vastly beyond these original limitations. See generally, Joseph L. Sax, Liberating the Public Trust Doctrine from Its Historical Shackles, 14 U.C. Davis L. Rev. 185 (1980). Cf. Lucas, 505 U.S. at 1032 n.18 (background principles must be based on "objectively reasonable application of relevant precedents"). That demand is all the more significant given the serious constitutional questions that already exist with the California Supreme Court's expansion of the public trust doctrine in the early 1980s. See Lawrence, supra, at 1158 (concluding that the California Supreme Court's expansion of the public trust doctrine in the early 1980s "is just as vulnerable to constitutional attack as other regulatory takings"). Accordingly, reliance on purported "background principles" cannot avoid the serious takings implications of expanding the public trust doctrine to groundwater extraction.

CONCLUSION

Sound judicial practice requires that courts avoid decisions that raise serious constitutional issues when reasonable interpretations of law are available that do not raise such issues Here, Petitioners' request that the Court expand the public trust doctrine to groundwater extraction would raise serious constitutional issues of due process of law and uncompensated takings. Yet, limiting the public trust doctrine to activities—unlike groundwater extraction—that have a direct and immediate effect on surface waters would be fully consistent with the case law. Therefore, the Court should avoid raising the aforementioned constitutional issues by holding, as a matter of law, that the public trust doctrine does not extend to groundwater extraction.

DATED: February 26, 2014.

Respectfully submitted,

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