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11 **UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT**
12 **CENTRAL DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA**
13 **EASTERN DIVISION**

14 AGUA CALIENTE BAND OF
15 CAHUILLA INDIANS,

16 Plaintiff,

17 vs.

18 RIVERSIDE COUNTY, LARRY W.
WARD, in his official capacity as
19 Riverside County Assessor, PAUL
ANGULO, in his official capacity as
20 Riverside County Auditor-Controller,
and DON KENT, in his official capacity
21 as Treasurer Tax Collector,

22 Defendants;
and

23 DESERT WATER AGENCY,

24 Defendant-
Intervenor.
25

Case No. 5:14-CV-00007-DMG-DTB
Judge: Hon. Dolly M. Gee

**NATIONAL INTERTRIBAL TAX
ALLIANCE’S REQUEST FOR
LEAVE TO FILE BRIEF AS
AMICUS CURIAE**

Trial Date: June 16, 2015
Action filed: January 2, 2014

26
27 The National Intertribal Tax Alliance (“NITA”) hereby requests leave of
28 Court to file the brief attached hereto as Exhibit A as *amicus curiae*. NITA was

1 formed in 2001 for the purpose of enhancing and strengthening tribal governments
2 through education on federal, state, and tribal tax issues affecting Indian tribal
3 governments, tribal enterprises, and tribal members. NITA is a non-profit
4 organization governed by a six-member volunteer Board of Directors with
5 representation from Indian tribes and tax and legal professionals serving Indian
6 tribes from various regions within the United States, including Oklahoma, Oregon,
7 New York, and Washington. NITA is the foremost Native organization focusing
8 on taxation issues affecting Indian country. Since the formal organization of NITA
9 in 2001, NITA has organized and presented an important annual conference
10 addressing these tax issues.

11 The Court has broad discretion regarding the appointment of *amici*.
12 *Hoptowit v. Ray*, 682 F.2d 1237, 1260 (9th Cir.1982), *abrogated in part on other*
13 *grounds by Sandin v. Conner*, 515 U.S. 472 (1995); *In re Roxford Foods Litig.*,
14 790 F.Supp. 987, 997 (E.D.Cal.1991). “An amicus brief should normally be
15 allowed” when, among other considerations, “the amicus has unique information
16 or perspective that can help the court beyond the help that the lawyers for the
17 parties are able to provide.” *Cnty. Ass'n for Restoration of Env't (CARE) v.*
18 *DeRuyter Bros. Dairy*, 54 F.Supp.2d 974, 975 (E.D.Wash.1999) (*citing Miller-*
19 *Wahl Co. v. Comm'r of Labor & Indus.*, 694 F.2d 203, 204 (9th Cir. 1982)). While
20 “[h]istorically, amicus curiae is an impartial individual who suggests the
21 interpretation and status of the law, gives information concerning it, and advises
22 the Court in order that justice may be done, rather than to advocate a point of view
23 so that a cause may be won by one party or another,” *Id.* at 975, the Ninth Circuit
24 has said “there is no rule that amici must be totally disinterested.” *Funbus Sys., Inc.*
25 *v. State of Cal. Pub. Utils. Comm'n*, 801 F.2d 1120, 1125 (9th Cir.1986) (citation
26 omitted); *Hoptowit*, 682 F.2d at 1260 (upholding district court's appointment of
27 amicus curiae, even though amicus entirely supported only one party's arguments).

28

1 NITA has unique information and a unique perspective to offer the Court in
2 this matter, a tax dispute between an Indian tribe and a California county in which
3 it is located. NITA's very purpose is to provide education on tribal taxation issues
4 across the United States. Therefore, NITA is uniquely positioned to inform the
5 Court of the important developments in federal law since the Ninth Circuit issued
6 its decisions in *Agua Caliente Band of Mission Indians v. Riverside County*, 442
7 F.2d 1184 (9th Cir. 1971) and *Fort Mojave Tribe v. San Bernardino County*, 543
8 F.2d 1253 (9th Cir. 1976), calling into doubt the continuing vitality of those
9 decisions, as well as to inform the Court of the broad, nationwide policy concerns
10 implicated by this case – developments and concerns that the parties may overlook
11 as they are likely to be focused on their own interests related to this dispute.

12 NITA has conferred with the parties regarding its request. Plaintiff and the
13 Defendant-Intervenor do not oppose, and Defendants take no position at this time.
14 NITA respectfully requests that the Court grant it *amicus* status and leave to file
15 Exhibit A.

16
17 DATED: October 8, 2014

DORSEY & WHITNEY LLP

18
19 By: /s/ Kent J. Schmidt

KENT J. SCHMIDT
Attorneys for *amicus curiae* National
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EXHIBIT A

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ARGUMENT

Defendants devote a great deal of attention to arguing that the Tribe’s claims are barred by res judicata and collateral estoppel, neither of which applies in this case as a matter of black letter law.¹ Because these doctrines do not apply, the Tribe’s claims that California’s possessory interest tax is preempted by federal law must proceed to a decision on their merits. The Tribe’s claims are based on two principal grounds: (1) federal common law principles, specifically the balancing test established by *White Mountain Apache Tribe v. Bracker*, 448 U.S. 136 (1980), and (2) 25 U.S.C. § 465. In this brief, *amicus curiae* National Intertribal Tax Alliance (“NITA”) will focus on the first principal ground for the Tribe’s claims – federal common law principles – to argue that (1) *Bracker* represents a sea change in federal law in requiring that courts balance federal, tribal, and state interests in determining the validity of state taxation of non-Indians in Indian country, (2) the Ninth Circuit’s decisions in *Agua Caliente Band of Mission Indians v. Riverside Cnty*, 442 F.2d 1184 (9th Cir. 1971), and *Fort Mojave Tribe v. San Bernardino Cnty*, 543 F.2d 1253 (9th Cir. 1976), are fundamentally at odds with *Bracker* and must be reexamined, and (3) *Bracker* balancing requires a developed factual record and cannot be conducted on the pleadings.

I. BRACKER ABROGATED THE NINTH CIRCUIT’S EARLIER AGUA CALIENTE AND FORT MOJAVE DECISIONS.

A. The Bracker Balancing Test

Bracker and its progeny govern the “validity of state laws taxing transactions between Indians and non-Indians, on reservation land.” *Confederated*

¹ Res judicata does not apply because in tax cases; each separate tax year presents a separate – and new – cause of action. *E.g.*, *Comm’r of Internal Revenue v. Sunnen*, 333 U.S. 591, 598 (1948). Collateral estoppel does not apply, if for no other reason than that there have been substantial intervening changes in federal law since the Ninth Circuit’s decision in *Agua Caliente* in 1971. *E.g.*, *Sunnen*, 333 U.S. at 595, 606.

1 *Tribes of the Chehalis Reservation v. Thurston Cnty. Bd. of Equalization*, 724 F.3d
2 1153, 1158 (9th Cir. 2013). Where it applies, *Bracker* requires “a particularized
3 inquiry into the nature of the state, federal, and tribal interests at stake, an inquiry
4 designed to determine whether, in the specific context, the exercise of state
5 authority would violate federal law.” *Bracker*, 448 U.S. at 145. Under *Bracker*, a
6 state tax “is preempted . . . if it interferes or is incompatible with federal and tribal
7 interests reflected in federal law, unless the State interests at stake are sufficient to
8 justify the assertion of State authority.” *New Mexico v. Mescalero Apache Tribe*,
9 462 U.S. 324, 334 (1983).

10 *Bracker* marked a significant alteration of the legal framework governing
11 state taxation of non-Indians doing business with Indians in Indian country. Earlier
12 cases were generally analyzed first under the doctrine of intergovernmental tax
13 immunity and later under the express preemption doctrine. *See Cotton Petroleum*
14 *Corp. v. New Mexico*, 490 U.S. 163, 173 (1989) (explaining that analysis of state
15 taxation of on-reservation activity by non-Indians “has varied over the course of
16 the past century” as a result of “the evolution of the doctrine of intergovernmental
17 tax immunity”); *Cohen’s Handbook of Federal Indian Law* § 8.03[1][d], at 707-08
18 (2012 ed.) (“[I]n the early part of the twentieth century, Indian taxation cases were
19 analyzed under the now largely discredited intergovernmental immunities doctrine,
20 which invalidated state taxes that imposed an indirect burden on the federal
21 government.”).

22 In the first several decades of the twentieth century, the “intergovernmental
23 immunity doctrine . . . was consistently held to bar a state tax on the lessees of, or
24 the product or income from, restricted lands of tribes or individual Indians.”
25 *Mescalero Apache Tribe v. Jones*, 411 U.S. 145, 150 (1973). “The theory was that
26 a federal instrumentality was involved [*i.e.*, tribal property] and that the tax would
27 interfere with the Government’s realizing the maximum return for its wards.” *Id.*
28 State taxation of non-Indian lessees of tribal property was thus barred as a matter

1 of constitutional implication. But this “approach did not survive,” *id.*, and was
2 overturned by *Oklahoma Tax Commission v. Texas Co.*, 336 U.S. 342 (1949)
3 (holding that Congress must expressly create an immunity from state taxation for
4 federal instrumentalities). The Supreme Court succinctly summarized the doctrinal
5 evolution in its 1989 *Cotton Petroleum* decision: “At one time,” a state tax on
6 non-Indian lessees “was held invalid unless expressly authorized by Congress;
7 more recently, such taxes have been upheld unless expressly or impliedly
8 prohibited by Congress.” 490 U.S. at 173.

9 The analysis in *Oklahoma Tax Commission* rested squarely on recent
10 Supreme Court decisions rejecting application of the intergovernmental immunity
11 doctrine to federal contractors constructing dams, army facilities, and the like for
12 the United States. 336 U.S. at 359 (citing, among others, *Alabama v. King &*
13 *Boozer*, 314 U.S. 1 (1941); *Curry v. United States*, 314 U.S. 14 (1941); *James v.*
14 *Dravo Contracting Co.*, 302 U.S. 134 (1937)). In these cases, the Supreme Court
15 held that, for preemption purposes, it is *irrelevant* that the economic burden of a
16 state tax on federal contractors fell entirely on the United States. *Curry*, 314 U.S.
17 18; *Boozer*, 314 U.S. at 8-9; *Davo*, 302 U.S. at 160. By rejecting the
18 intergovernmental immunity doctrine, this line of decisions held that only an
19 express statutory prohibition would prevent the imposition of non-discriminatory
20 state taxes on federal contractors or, it was later held, federal lessees. *See, e.g.*,
21 *Boozer*, 314 U.S. at 8 (noting that no federal legislation expressly prohibits the
22 application of state taxes to federal contractors using cost-plus contracts); *United*
23 *States v. City of Detroit*, 355 U.S. 466 (1958) (rejecting application of
24 intergovernmental immunity doctrine to federal lessees).

25 The *Bracker* decision in 1980 unequivocally rejected, with respect to Indian
26 tribes, the application of the express preemption test used in *Oklahoma Tax*
27 *Commission* and the federal contractor/lessee cases. *Bracker*, 448 U.S. at 144
28 (repudiating for federal Indian law purposes “the proposition that in order to find a

1 particular state law to have been preempted . . . , an express congressional
2 statement to that effect is required”). In view of the unique nature of Indian tribes,
3 Indian lands and federal oversight of Indian affairs, *Bracker* and its progeny
4 recognized implied preemption.² Further, the nature of this implied preemption is
5 unique, for the *Bracker* analysis is “not controlled by standards of pre-emption
6 developed in other areas.” *Ramah Navajo Sch. Bd., Inc. v. Bureau of Revenue of*
7 *N.M.*, 458 U.S. 832, 838 (1982). “Instead, the traditional notions of tribal
8 sovereignty, and the recognition and encouragement of this sovereignty in
9 congressional Acts promoting tribal independence and economic development,
10 inform the pre-emption analysis.” *Id.* When applying the *Bracker* test,
11 “ambiguities in federal law should be construed generously, and federal pre-
12 emption is not limited to those situations where Congress has explicitly announced
13 an intention to pre-empt state activity.” *Id.*; see also *Cabazon Band of Mission*
14 *Indians v. Wilson*, 37 F.3d 430, 433 (9th Cir. 1994) (“In balancing the [] federal,
15 tribal, and state interests, no specific congressional intent to preempt state activity
16 is required; it is enough that state law conflicts with the purpose or operation of a
17 federal statute, regulation, or policy.”) (quotation marks and citation omitted), *cert.*
18 *denied*, 524 U.S. 926 (1998); *Gila River Indian Community v. Waddell*, 967 F.2d
19 1404, 1408 (9th Cir. 1992) (“In a number of cases we have held that state authority
20 over non-Indians acting on tribal reservations is preempted even though Congress
21 has offered no explicit statement on the subject.”).

22 The Supreme Court in 1999 emphasized the sharp distinction between the
23 express preemption standard applicable to federal contractors/lessees and
24 *Bracker*’s implied preemption standard applicable to Indian tribal
25

26 ² In other words, *Bracker* added the “or impliedly” to the doctrine as summarized
27 in *Cotton Petroleum: i.e.*, state taxes on non-Indian lessees are “upheld unless
28 expressly or impliedly prohibited by Congress.” 490 U.S. at 173.

1 contractors/lessees. *See Arizona Dep't. of Revenue v. Blaze Constr. Co.*, 526 U.S.
2 32 (1999). In *Blaze*, the petitioner sought exemption under *Bracker* from state
3 taxes imposed on proceeds from a federal contract to improve roads on Indian
4 reservations. *See id.* at 34. The Court explained that *Bracker*'s "particularized
5 examination" of competing state, federal, and tribal interests applied "where the
6 legal incidence of the tax fell on a nontribal entity engaged in a transaction with
7 tribes or tribal members." *Id.* at 37. But Blaze Construction's contract was with
8 the federal government – not a tribe or tribal member – and as a result it was
9 subject only to the "narrow approach" of the modern intergovernmental immunity
10 doctrine. *Id.* at 35. That doctrine, unlike *Bracker*, only establishes immunity
11 where Congress has "expressly exempted the contractors' activities from taxation."
12 *Id.* at 36.

13 *Bracker* did not establish bright-line rules governing the weighing of
14 competing federal, tribal, and state interests. *Bracker* and cases following it have
15 generally held, however, that a state tax on non-Indian activity in Indian country is
16 preempted where, as in the present case, (1) the activity in question is subject to
17 comprehensive and pervasive federal regulation; and (2) the tax imposes an
18 economic burden on an Indian tribe or tribal member. *See Bracker*, 448 U.S. at
19 148-51; *Ramah*, 458 U.S. at 839-42; *Cabazon*, 37 F.3d at 433-34; *Hoopa Valley*
20 *Tribe v. Nevins*, 881 F.2d 657, 659-60 (9th Cir. 1989), *cert. denied*, 494 U.S. 1055
21 (1990).

22 **B. The Pre-*Bracker* Decisions in *Agua Caliente* and *Fort Mojave* Are**
23 **Inconsistent with *Bracker* and Do Not Control.**

24 Defendants rely on the Ninth Circuit's 1971 decision in *Agua Caliente* and
25 its 1976 decision in *Fort Mojave* to support their argument that the dispute now
26 before the Court must be decided in favor of the state's taxation authority.
27 Defendants are mistaken. *Bracker*, decided after those two cases, fundamentally
28 changed the legal landscape, and it controls here. Contrary to Defendants' claims

1 (Def. Supp. Br.³ at 9) – and as Defendants later admit (Def. Supp. Br. at 14) –
2 *Agua Caliente* and *Fort Mojave* did not attempt to balance the federal, state, and
3 tribal interests at all, but rather rested on the absence of “clear statutory guidance”
4 indicating an exemption. The approach of the older cases is incompatible with
5 *Bracker*, thus the Court should apply the *Bracker* test without reference to these
6 cases.

7 In *Agua Caliente*, the Tribe sought to enjoin assessment of California’s
8 possessory interest tax on lessees of its land. See 442 F.2d at 1184. A panel of the
9 Ninth Circuit held (over a dissent) that the tax was not preempted. *Id.* at 1186. In
10 doing so, the panel majority heavily relied on *City of Detroit*, in which the
11 Supreme Court applied to federal lessees the express preemption doctrine
12 previously applied to federal contractors. *Id.* at 1186-87. The majority reasoned
13 that, in light of *City of Detroit*, “[i]f the Indian as a beneficial owner of the land,
14 the legal title to which is in the United States, is entitled to no more protection than
15 the United States itself would enjoy, absent a congressional action forbidding the
16 tax, then it is clear the tax here imposed is valid.” *Id.* at 1186. Because there was
17 “no statute which expressly forbids the imposition of a state use tax,” the panel
18 majority held the tax was permissible. *Id.* (emphasis added). It went on to cite
19 *Oklahoma Tax Commission* in holding that the economic burden of the state tax on
20 the tribe is legally irrelevant. See *id.* at 1187.

21 The *Agua Caliente* court thus relied squarely on the express preemption
22 doctrine for federal contractors/lessees which the Supreme Court since *Bracker* has
23 held to be inapplicable to parties dealing with Indians in Indian country. *Blaze*,
24 526 U.S. at 36-37. Indeed, the conflict between *Agua Caliente* and *Bracker* is
25 fundamental, direct, and unavoidable: *Agua Caliente* found the tax at issue was

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27 ³ Citations to “Def. Supp. Br” are to Defendants’ Supplemental Brief Pursuant to
28 Court Order of August 27, 2014.

1 not preempted because no federal statute “*expressly*” forbade it. *Agua Caliente*,
2 442 F.2d at 1186 (emphasis added). But *Bracker* and subsequent cases reject that
3 rule in no uncertain terms, holding that “no express congressional statement of
4 preemptive intent is required; it is enough that the state law conflicts with the
5 *purpose or operation* of a federal statute, regulation, or policy.” *Crow Tribe of*
6 *Indians v. Montana*, 819 F.2d 895, 898 (9th Cir. 1987) (quotation marks and
7 citation omitted), *aff’d*, 484 U.S. 997 (1988).

8 Looking for express preemption and finding none, the *Agua Caliente*
9 majority naturally did not undertake the “particularized examination of the relevant
10 state, federal, and tribal interests” that *Bracker* would command nearly a decade
11 later. *Ramah*, 458 U.S. at 838. It did not consider whether the state tax would
12 frustrate federal regulations or policy. *Cf. id.* at 839 (finding state tax preempted in
13 light of “pervasive” federal regulation of the relevant activity).⁴ Nor did the panel
14 majority ascribe significance to the fact that the tax in question had “an adverse
15 economic effect upon” the Indians, *Agua Caliente*, 442 F.2d at 1186 – an analytic
16 omission in deep tension with *Bracker* and subsequent cases. *Cf. Ramah*, 458 U.S.
17 at 842; *Cabazon*, 37 F.3d at 434.

18 In short, if presented with the same case today, the Ninth Circuit would be
19 bound by controlling Supreme Court precedent to apply a fundamentally different
20

21
22 ⁴ Tellingly, the dissenting judge in *Agua Caliente* did emphasize the significance
23 of federal interests, foreshadowing the approach the Supreme Court would later
24 embrace. *See Agua Caliente*, 442 F.2d at 1188 (Ely, J., dissenting) (“If . . . an
25 important federal policy conflicts with the goal of effective implementation of
26 the state taxing power, I should think the Supremacy Clause demands that the
27 extent to which a state tax burdens the federal policy be an important factor in
28 determining the validity of the tax. There was no such conflict in [*City of*
Detroit]. Here, I submit, the conflict is unmistakable, and the burden
onerous.”). This only highlights that the analysis of the panel majority in *Agua*
Caliente was inconsistent with now-governing law.

1 analysis than the *Agua Caliente* majority applied in 1971, and it would reach a
2 different outcome.

3 *Fort Mojave*, decided in 1976, has been similarly vitiated by *Bracker* and its
4 progeny. Like *Agua Caliente*, *Fort Mojave* upheld the imposition of a state
5 possessory interest tax on non-Indian lessees of tribal property. *Fort Mojave*
6 *Tribe*, 543 F.2d at 1259. Indeed, the district court in *Fort Mojave* “found *Agua*
7 *Caliente* to be controlling,” and on appeal the Ninth Circuit “continue[d] to support
8 the holding of that case.” *Id.* at 1255. It reached that conclusion through a
9 somewhat different analysis than that applied in *Agua Caliente*, because the
10 Supreme Court’s intervening decision in *McClanahan v. Arizona State Tax*
11 *Comm’n*, 411 U.S. 164 (1973), had introduced certain new principles. Ultimately,
12 however, the reasoning in *Fort Mojave* is incompatible with *Bracker*.

13 In *McClanahan*, the Supreme Court held that a state income tax imposed on
14 “reservation Indians with income derived wholly from reservation sources”
15 impermissibly “interfered with matters which the relevant treaty and statutes leave
16 to the exclusive province of the Federal Government and the Indians themselves,”
17 and was accordingly preempted. *Id.* at 165. *McClanahan* thus furthered the
18 doctrinal shift “toward reliance on federal preemption” (and away from notions of
19 inviolable sovereignty) in analysis of state taxing authority in Indian country. *Id.*
20 at 172. It did not, however, employ the fact-intensive balancing approach *Bracker*
21 would later mandate in cases involving state taxation of non-Indians dealing with
22 Indians.

23 The Ninth Circuit in *Fort Mojave* recognized that *McClanahan* required it to
24 “carefully analyze the applicable federal statutes to determine whether state action
25 has been pre-empted.” *Fort Mojave*, 543 F.2d at 1256. The *Fort Mojave* court’s
26 preemption analysis of the “applicable statutes,” however, did not even address,
27 much less analyze, the Long Term Leasing Act, 25 U.S.C. § 415, or the detailed
28

1 federal regulations issued thereunder, which directly applied to the leases at issue.⁵
2 In contrast, the Supreme Court in *Bracker* and later balancing cases has attached
3 heavy weight to the federal interest where this type of comprehensive federal
4 regulatory scheme existed and frequently struck down a state tax affecting such
5 scheme. *See Bracker*, 448 U.S. at 148-51; *Central Machinery v. Arizona State Tax*
6 *Comm’n*, 448 U.S. 160, 165-66 (1980); *Ramah*, 458 U.S. at 839-42. Moreover,
7 with respect to the two federal statutes analyzed in *Fort Mojave* for preemption
8 purposes, the Indian Reorganization Act and Public Law 280, the court obviously
9 went looking only for *express* preemption; it did not acknowledge the possibility of
10 the implied preemption *Bracker* would later embrace. Synthesizing the case law to
11 date, the court concluded that “specific authorization” is required to preempt “state
12 legislation primarily directed at non-Indian lessees of Indian land” 543 F.2d
13 at 1257. The court found no such “specific authorization” in the two statutes it
14 examined, and concluded that “[t]o permit [the tax immunity the Fort Mojave
15 Tribe advocated] requires, we believe, *a stronger Congressional signal than a*
16 *statute which neither precludes nor authorizes the taxation in question.*” *Id.*
17 (emphasis added) (referring to Pub. L. No. 280).

18 Finally, the *Fort Mojave* court effectively treated the economic burden of the
19 state taxes on the tribe as legally irrelevant. Though the *Fort Mojave* court
20 mentioned this economic burden several times, it effectively ignored it by
21 repeatedly emphasizing that the burden was “uncertain,” *id.* at 1255 n.2, 1257 n.4,
22 1258 (twice), and in any case “indirect,” *id.* at 1256, 1257, 1258 (twice), without
23 offering any concrete evidence that it was either of these things. In short, the *Fort*
24 *Mojave* court failed entirely to assess an aspect of the tribal interest (economic
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26 ⁵ The *Fort Mojave* court mentioned 25 U.S.C. § 415 only for the purpose of
27 showing that enforcement of the possessory interest tax at issue would be
28 unlikely to harm the tribe’s reversionary interest. 543 F.2d at 1259.

1 burden) that must be addressed under the *Bracker* test. *Fort Mojave*'s analysis and
2 its holding, like *Agua Caliente*, were inconsistent with the *Bracker* test.

3 Because *Agua Caliente* and *Fort Mojave* are inconsistent with the principles
4 established by *Bracker* – and, indeed, for the simpler reason that they simply did
5 not apply the test it requires – they cannot guide the Court here. The Court should
6 therefore take a fresh look at the possessory interest tax at issue, applying *Bracker*
7 in accordance with the many Ninth Circuit cases that have since articulated and
8 developed its principles.

9 Contrary to Defendants' contention, the above conclusions are in no way
10 undermined by *Chehalis*. *Chehalis* concerned “whether the exemption of [tribal]
11 trust lands from state and local taxation under [25 U.S.C.] § 465 extends to
12 permanent improvements on such lands,” 724 F.3d at 1155, not whether state
13 taxation was preempted as a matter of federal common law. Applying the statute
14 and the controlling decision in *Mescalero Apache Tribe v. Jones*, the Ninth Circuit
15 concluded that state taxation of such permanent improvements is preempted. *See*
16 *id.* at 1159. It expressly declined to “consider *Bracker* or any other theory of
17 preemption.” *Id.* In the course of explaining why *Bracker* did not apply, the court
18 referred in dicta to *Fort Mojave* and *Agua Caliente*, noting that they involved a
19 “similar mode of analysis” to *Bracker*. *Id.* at 1158. It did not examine those cases
20 more deeply, however, nor did it reach any conclusion about their continued
21 vitality. It simply noted that “[n]one of these cases involved property taxes, . . . so
22 they do not implicate § 465.” *Id.* *Agua Caliente* and *Fort Mojave* were simply not
23 relevant to the issue before the court in *Chehalis*; *Chehalis* thus does not confirm
24 their continued validity and certainly does not require their application here.

1 **II. UNDER THE *BRACKER* TEST, STRONG FEDERAL INTERESTS**
2 **ARE EMBODIED IN THE COMPREHENSIVE FEDERAL**
3 **REGULATION OF LEASING OF TRIBAL AND TRIBAL MEMBER**
4 **LANDS AND SUPPORT PREEMPTION.**

5 A vital component of the *Bracker* analysis is whether the state tax targets an
6 on-reservation activity of substantial federal interest as reflected in a
7 comprehensive regulatory scheme. In *Bracker*, for example, federal regulations
8 governing the harvesting of Indian timber preempted the state tax. 448 U.S. at
9 148-49. In *Ramah*, “pervasive” regulation of “construction and financing of Indian
10 educational institutions” left no room for state taxation. 458 U.S. at 839. The
11 Ninth Circuit has followed suit. In *Cabazon*, the Ninth Circuit held that the
12 comprehensive scheme of the Indian Gaming Regulatory Act, 25 U.S.C. § 2701 *et*
13 *seq.*, when combined with the tribe’s interests, preempted state licensing fees
14 imposed on a non-Indian organization that broadcasted live horse races and
15 handled wagering at tribal off-track facilities. 37 F.3d at 433-34; *see also Hoopa*
16 *Valley*, 881 F.2d at 659-61 (strong federal interests embodied in comprehensive
17 federal regulatory scheme over timber harvesting; state tax preempted).

18 In this case, likewise, strong federal interests are present, including the long-
19 term leasing regulations generally and 25 C.F.R. § 162.017(c) specifically. Section
20 162.017(c) is part of a larger scheme of federal regulation of leases on Indian
21 lands. The federal government regulates leasing of leases for agricultural
22 purposes, 25 C.F.R. Part 162, Subpart B, residential purposes, 25 C.F.R. Part 162,
23 Subpart C, business purposes, 25 C.F.R. Part 162, Subpart D, and mining purposes,
24 25 C.F.R. Parts 211, 212, among other things. *See generally* 25 U.S.C. § 415.
25 Section 162.017(c) provides that “[s]ubject only to applicable Federal law, the
26 leasehold or possessory interest is not subject to any fee, tax, assessment, levy, or
27 other charge imposed by any State or political subdivision of a State.” 25 C.F.R. §
28 162.017(c).

1 In promulgating this regulation, the BIA specifically weighed several policy
2 considerations. The BIA found that “[a]ssessment of State and local taxes would
3 obstruct Federal policies supporting tribal economic development, self-
4 determination, and strong tribal governments. State and local taxation also
5 threatens substantial tribal interests in effective tribal government, economic self-
6 sufficiency, and territorial autonomy.” 77 Fed. Reg. at 72,447. The BIA went on
7 to say “[t]ribal sovereignty and self-government are substantially promoted by
8 leasing under these regulations” *Id.* The BIA specifically noted effects that
9 state and local taxation have on stunting economic development in Indian country:

10 State and local taxation of the . . . leasehold interest [] has the
11 potential to increase project costs for the lessee and decrease the funds
12 available to the lessee to make rental payments to the Indian
13 landowner. Increased project costs can impede a tribe’s ability to
14 attract non-Indian investment to Indian lands where such investment
15 and participation are critical to the vitality of tribal economies. An
16 increase in project costs is especially damaging to economic
17 development on Indian lands given the difficulty Indian tribes and
18 individuals face in securing access to capital.

17 *Id.* at 72,448. The BIA further noted that such a lack of access to capital was
18 a “key barrier to economic advancement” and that the “very possibility of an
19 additional State or local taxation has a chilling effect on potential lessees as well as
20 the tribe that as a result might refrain from exercising its own sovereign right to
21 impose a tribal tax to support its infrastructure needs.” *Id.*

22 The BIA concluded that “[c]ompelling Federal interests in self-
23 determination, economic self-sufficiency, and self-government, as well as strong
24 tribal interests in sovereignty and economic self-sufficiency, are undermined by
25 State and local taxation of the leasehold interest.” *Id.* In short, the comprehensive
26 regulatory scheme and policy considerations of the BIA support a finding of a
27 strong federal interest in the preemption of state taxation under the *Bracker* test.
28

1 Defendants make much of the clause “Subject only to applicable Federal
2 law,” arguing that “Federal law” should include the *Agua Caliente* and *Fort*
3 *Mojave* decisions. However, as discussed above, those decisions were effectively
4 overruled by the Supreme Court’s decision in *Bracker*. In fact, in promulgating
5 Section 162.017, the BIA specifically referred to *Bracker* as the controlling
6 preemption test. 77 Fed. Reg. at 72,447 (citing *Bracker*). The BIA then analyzed
7 its own interests and tribal interests in the leasing of Indian land to conclude that
8 state and local taxation is preempted. In light of this history, the phrase “Subject
9 only to applicable Federal law,” is not an affirmation of outdated Ninth Circuit
10 precedent, but instead is an acknowledgement of the Supreme Court’s controlling
11 decision in *Bracker*.

12 **III. THE BIA HAD AUTHORITY TO ISSUE THE LEASING** 13 **REGULATIONS.**

14 The Court specifically invited the parties to brief the issue of the authority of
15 the BIA to issue the leasing regulations, and NITA wishes to comment on that
16 issue as well. NITA believes that the BIA, indeed, had such authority.

17 Congress specifically empowered the BIA to promulgate leasing regulations
18 in the Long Term Leasing Act. 25 U.S.C. § 415 (“all leases and renewals shall be
19 made under such terms and regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of
20 the Interior.”). Therefore, if the BIA lacked authority to promulgate the leasing
21 regulations it is not because it lacked Congressional delegation to do so.

22 Defendants argue that the BIA lacked authority to promulgate Section
23 162.017(c) because, in its view, an agency does not have authority “to adopt a
24 regulation that is contrary to federal law as interpreted by federal appellate
25 authority” Def. Supp. Br. at 5. However, that appellate level authority –
26 *Agua Caliente* and *Fort Mojave* – is no longer good law. *Bracker* balancing
27 displaced the intergovernmental immunity and express preemption analysis used
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1 by the Ninth Circuit in the 1970s. The BIA’s regulations are consistent with, and
2 in fact expressly reference, the controlling federal appellate authority – *Bracker*.

3 Furthermore, Defendants are incorrect in their assertion that federal agencies
4 have no authority to promulgate regulations contrary to existing appellate authority
5 – in fact, the opposite is true. In 2005, the U.S. Supreme Court considered the
6 interplay between agency action and *stare decisis* in *National Cable &*
7 *Telecommunications Ass’n v. Brand X Internet Services* (“*Brand X*”), 545 U.S.
8 967 (2005). In *Brand X*, the Federal Communications Commission (“FCC”) issued
9 a declaratory ruling that was directly at odds with existing Ninth Circuit precedent.
10 *Id.* at 977-79. The Ninth Circuit applied *stare decisis* and overrode the FCC’s
11 ruling but the Supreme Court reversed, holding that normal administrative law
12 principles should apply unless prior precedent has held that a statute is
13 unambiguous (and therefore no room exists for agency action). *Id.* at 979-86. The
14 Court reasoned that “precluding agencies from revising unwise judicial
15 construction of ambiguous statutes” would lead to the “ossification” of statutory
16 law. *Id.* at 983. With respect to the leasing regulations, *stare decisis* cannot trump
17 the BIA’s regulations because the 1970s cases did not hold that the statutes at issue
18 unambiguously allowed local taxation. *See Fort Mojave*, 543 F.2d at 1257-59;
19 *Agua Caliente*, 442 F.2d at 1186-87. In fact, *Fort Mojave* held exactly the
20 opposite – ruling that one of the statutes considered (Public Law 280) could not be
21 said to “directly authorize[] such taxation.” 543 F.2d at 1257. Therefore, the
22 holdings in both *Agua Caliente* and *Fort Mojave*, in addition to being abrogated by
23 *Bracker*, should be revisited in light of the BIA’s new regulations. Under *Brand X*,
24 the Court should apply normal administrative law principles in revisiting them.

25 Under normal administrative law principles, the BIA regulations are subject
26 to significant weight. The BIA has unique expertise in the area of Indian law – it
27 was first established nearly two hundred years ago in 1824, *Cohen’s Handbook of*
28 *Federal Indian Law* § 5.03[1], at 396 (2012 ed.) (citing H.R. Doc. No. 19-146

1 (1824)), and has “management of all Indian Affairs and all matters arising out of
2 Indian relations,” 25 U.S.C. § 2. Moreover, the BIA’s preemption analysis,
3 including its assessment of its own interests, was thorough and supported by
4 national policies in favor of Indian self-determination and economic development.⁶
5 77 Fed. Reg. at 72,447-48. In fact, precisely because the preemption analysis here
6 turns on policy objectives, rather than interpretation of an unambiguous statute, the
7 BIA’s preemption conclusion is entitled to weight as agencies are better positioned
8 than courts to make policy determinations. *Cf. Chevron, U.S.A., Inc. v. Natural*
9 *Resources Defense Council, Inc.*, 467 U.S. 837, 865 (1984) (“Judges . . . are not
10 part of either political branch In contrast, . . . the Chief Executive is
11 [accountable directly to the people], and it is entirely appropriate for this political
12 branch . . . to make . . . policy choices”)

13 In light of the BIA’s thorough analysis, *Wyeth v. Levine*, 555 U.S. 555
14 (2009), relied on by Defendants, is distinguishable. Notably, *Wyeth* did *not*
15 suggest, in derogation of the holding of *Brand X*, that an agency cannot override
16 federal appellate-level authority. *Wyeth* merely applied normal administrative law
17 principles to hold that the Food and Drug Administration’s (“FDA”) bare
18 conclusion that its regulations preempted state law was not entitled to deference.
19 555 U.S. at 577-78. The Court held in *Wyeth* that the FDA’s conclusion was not
20 entitled to deference because it was adopted with procedural irregularity, was at
21 odds with Congressional purpose, and reversed the FDA’s own longstanding
22 position without providing a reasoned explanation. *Id.* No such problems exist
23 with the BIA’s regulations. The BIA’s regulations were passed following formal

24 ⁶ *Agua Caliente* and *Fort Mojave* briefly discussed the economic development
25 implications of double taxation. However, neither weighed the tribal interests
26 in economic development against state interests in taxation and, most
27 significantly, neither even considered the *federal* interest in economic
28 development in Indian country (much less the federal interest in leasing of
Indian land).

1 notice and comment procedures. The BIA’s regulations are fully consistent with
2 Congress’ purpose in the Long-Term Leasing Act to promote the greatest
3 economic return possible for Indian landowners. 77 Fed. Reg. at 72,447 (“The
4 legislative history of section 415 demonstrates that Congress intended to maximize
5 income to Indian landowners and encourage all types of economic development on
6 Indian lands.”) (citing Sen. Rprt. No. 84-375 at 2 (May 24, 1955)); *see also*
7 *Segundo v. City of Rancho Mirage*, 813 F.2d 1387, 1393 (9th Cir. 1987) (“The
8 overriding federal interest is to obtain the “highest economic return to the owner
9 consistent with prudent management and conservation practices.”) (citation
10 omitted). Finally, the BIA’s regulations do not reverse any longstanding policy –
11 instead the regulations were intended as “clarification” – and the BIA provided a
12 thorough explanation for its clarification. 77 Fed. Reg. at 72,477.

13 Indeed, another federal district court recently remarked in holding a rental
14 tax on Indian property leased to non-Indians preempted, “The Court must give
15 some weight and deference to the new regulations.” *Seminole Tribe of Fla. v. State*
16 *of Florida*, ___ F. Supp. 2d ___, 2014 WL 4388143, at *4 (S.D. Fla. Sept. 5, 2014).
17 “In the area of Indian affairs, the [President] has long been empowered to
18 promulgate rules and policies, and the power has been given explicitly to the
19 Secretary [of the Interior] and his delegates at the [Bureau of Indian Affairs].” *Id.*
20 at *3 (citing *Morton v. Ruiz*, 415 U.S. 199, 231 & nn.25 & 26 (1974)). In fact, the
21 *Seminole* court cited *Wyeth* in support of its deference to the BIA’s regulations on
22 account of *Wyeth*’s statement that agencies “have a unique understanding of the
23 statutes they administer and an attendant ability to make informed determination
24 about how state requirements may pose an obstacle to the accomplishment and
25 execution of the full purposes of objectives of Congress.” *Id.* at *4 (citing *Wyeth*,
26 555 U.S. at 576-77). The court eventually concluded that the “Secretary of the
27 Interior’s new regulations have changed the landscape of this area of the law,
28

1 specifically regarding the issue of preemption. To ignore these regulations would
2 be contrary to well-established precedent.” *Id.* at *7.

3 **IV. BRACKER BALANCING REQUIRES A DEVELOPED FACTUAL**
4 **RECORD AND CANNOT BE CONDUCTED ON THE PLEADINGS.**

5 *Bracker* commands an analysis that is “sensitive to the particular facts and
6 legislation involved,” *Cotton Petroleum*, 490 U.S. at 176 – a “*particularized*
7 inquiry into the nature of the state, federal, and tribal interests at stake, an inquiry
8 designed to determine whether, in the *specific context*, the exercise of state
9 authority would violate federal law.” *Bracker*, 448 U.S. at 145 (emphasis added).
10 Because the *Bracker* “test calls for careful attention to the factual setting,” *Barona*
11 *Band of Mission Indians v. Yee*, 528 F.3d 1184, 1190 (9th Cir. 2008), it is generally
12 impossible to apply in the absence of a complete factual record. Consequently, in
13 a case subject to *Bracker*, judgment on the pleadings is rarely, if ever, appropriate.

14 Fact questions arise at each step of the tripartite *Bracker* analysis. First, to
15 properly weigh the federal interests at issue, “[r]elevant federal statutes and treaties
16 must be examined in light of the ‘broad policies that underlie them and the notions
17 of sovereignty that have developed from historical traditions of tribal
18 independence.’” *Ramah*, 458 U.S. at 838 (quoting *Bracker*, 448 U.S. at 144-45).
19 In a case such as this involving comprehensive agency regulations, the court must
20 accordingly look beyond the face of the regulations to understand the functional
21 aspects of the federal regulatory scheme, its objectives, and its particular
22 challenges. *See Hoopa Valley*, 881 F.2d at 659 (“If the state law interferes with the
23 *purpose or operation* of a federal policy regarding tribal interests, it is
24 preempted.”) (emphasis added).

25 Second, analysis of the tribal interests at stake requires assessment, among
26 other things, of both the economic burden of the state tax and the “nature of the
27 taxed activity.” *Cabazon*, 37 F.3d at 434. Weighing these factors requires the
28 court to understand the economics of on-reservation activities at issue, the relevant

1 investments of the tribe, and the effect of the state tax on both. For example,
2 “[t]hat a tribe plays an active role in generative activities of value on its reservation
3 gives it a strong interest in maintaining those activities free from state interference
4” *Gila River*, 967 F.2d at 1410. These are questions of fact.

5 Finally, the weight of the state’s interests similarly turns on factual issues,
6 particularly the relationship between the state tax and the “provision of tribal or
7 state services to the party the state seeks to tax.” *Barona Band*, 528 F.3d at 1190.
8 A state’s mere “general desire to raise revenue” is insufficient to justify taxation.
9 *Bracker*, 448 U.S. at 150. Instead, the state must show a more direct connection
10 between the tax and the on-reservation activity at issue. *See Hoopa Valley*, 881
11 F.2d at 661 (holding state timber tax preempted where it did “not fund services that
12 directly relate to the harvesting of tribal timber and [was] otherwise unconnected
13 with tribal timber activities”). This too requires a factual record illuminating how
14 the state spends the revenue generated by the tax.

15 In sum, “[f]actual questions . . . pervade every step of the analysis required
16 by . . . *Bracker* [E]ven if a court knows enough to trigger a weighing of
17 competing interests, a court must still know what the nature of those interests are.”
18 *Otoe-Missouria Tribe of Indians v. New York State Dep’t of Fin. Servs.*, ___ F.3d
19 ___, 2014 WL 4900363, at *7 (2d Cir. Oct. 1, 2014). As a result, cases subject to
20 *Bracker* can rarely, if ever, be resolved before summary judgment. The Ninth
21 Circuit has recognized this. In *Gila River*, the district court dismissed under Rule
22 12 a tribe’s complaint challenging a state tax on on-reservation sporting and
23 cultural events. *See Gila River*, 967 F.2d at 1406. The Ninth Circuit reversed,
24 holding the district court erred in lending “dispositive weight” to the state’s mere
25 assertions about its relevant interests. “Although the State may at a later stage of
26 the litigation seek to prove a direct connection between its tax and the . . . services
27 it provides [in connection with the taxed activity], the record currently is devoid of
28 any such proof.” *Id.*

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