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Appendix A

**UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS
FOR THE ELEVENTH CIRCUIT**

No. 23-12958

THE STATE OF GEORGIA,

Plaintiff-Appellee,

v.

MARK RANDALL MEADOWS,

Defendant-Appellant.

Filed: Dec. 18, 2023

Before: WILLIAM PRYOR, Chief Judge, and
ROSENBAUM and ABUDU, Circuit Judges.

OPINION

WILLIAM PRYOR, Chief Judge:

This appeal requires us to decide whether Mark Meadows, former chief of staff at the White House, may remove his state criminal prosecution to federal court under the federal-officer removal statute, 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1). After a Fulton County grand jury indicted Meadows for conspiring to interfere in the 2020 presidential election, Meadows filed a notice to remove the action to the Northern District of Georgia. The district court held an evidentiary hearing and

then remanded because Meadows's charged conduct was not performed under color of his federal office. Because federal-officer removal under section 1442(a)(1) does not apply to *former* federal officers, and even if it did, the events giving rise to this criminal action were not related to Meadows's official duties, we affirm.

I. BACKGROUND

Mark Meadows served as chief of staff at the White House and assistant to former President Donald Trump when the November 2020 presidential election occurred. Trump lost his bid for reelection by a margin of 306 to 232 in the Electoral College. In 2023, a Fulton County grand jury indicted Meadows, Trump, and 17 other defendants with crimes related to election interference in Georgia. The indictment charged Meadows with two state law crimes: conspiracy in violation of the Georgia Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organizations Act, *see* GA. CODE ANN. § 16-14-4(b), (c), and soliciting the violation of oath by a public officer, *see id.* §§ 16-4-7, 16-10-1.

The indictment alleged that Meadows joined and committed eight overt acts in furtherance of an illegal conspiracy to “change the outcome of the election in favor of Trump.” These eight acts were as follows:

Act 5: Attending a meeting with Michigan state legislators in which Trump “made false statements concerning [election] fraud.”

Act 6: Sending a text message to United States Representative Scott Perry of Pennsylvania that asked, “Can you send me the number for the speaker and the leader of

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PA Legislature. POTUS wants to chat with them.”

Act 9: Meeting with Pennsylvania state legislators to discuss holding a special session of the Pennsylvania General Assembly.

Act 19: Requesting that Trump political aide John McEntee prepare a memorandum “outlining a strategy for disrupting and delaying the joint session of Congress on January 6” by having former Vice President Mike Pence “count only half of the electoral votes from certain states.”

Act 92: Traveling to Cobb County, Georgia, to attempt to observe a nonpublic signature match audit, at which point state election officials had to “prevent[] [Meadows] from entering into the space where the audit was being conducted.”

Act 93: Arranging a telephone call between Trump and Georgia Secretary of State Chief Investigator Frances Watson, in which Trump “falsely stated” that he had won the presidential election “by hundreds of thousands of votes” and told Watson that “when the right answer comes out you’ll be praised.”

Act 96: Sending a text message to an employee of the Office of the Georgia Secretary of State that asked, “Is there a way to speed up Fulton county signature verification in order to have results before Jan 6 if the trump campaign assist financially.”

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Act 112: Soliciting Georgia Secretary of State Brad Raffensperger to violate his oath of public office by “unlawfully altering” “the certified returns for presidential electors,” in violation of Georgia Code sections 16-4-7 and 16-10-1.

Meadows filed a notice of removal in the district court, *see* 28 U.S.C. § 1455, based on federal-officer jurisdiction, *see id.* § 1442(a)(1). Meadows argued that the overt acts charged in the indictment related to his official responsibilities as chief of staff and that he had colorable federal defenses. The district court denied summary remand and ordered an evidentiary hearing. *See id.* § 1455(b)(5).

At the hearing, Meadows testified about his role as chief of staff. He explained that his job was a “24/7” responsibility and that his function “was to oversee all the federal operations” and to “be aware of everything that was going on.” He stated that his responsibilities included meeting with cabinet officials, members of Congress, business leaders, and state officials, including governors. Meadows was invited to “almost every meeting” involving the President, as either a principal or an observer. He advised the President on a range of federal issues, from national security to the agricultural supply chain to prescription drug policy. He also gave political advice and explained that “everything that [the President] do[es] from a policy standpoint has a political implication.” Declarations from White House staffers corroborated that Meadows was “on duty” at all hours even when away from the White House and that he was responsible for “managing the President’s calendar” and “arranging

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meetings, calls, and other discussions with federal, state, and local officials.”

Meadows testified that he understood that, as chief of staff, he was bound by the Hatch Act. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 7323(a)(1) (providing that a government employee may not “use his official authority or influence for the purpose of interfering with or affecting the result of an election”). Meadows understood the Act to prevent him from “advocat[ing] for a particular candidate” in his official capacity and from “campaign[ing] actively . . . in [his] official title.”

Finally, Meadows testified about his responsibilities as specifically related to the overt acts charged in the indictment:

Act 5 (Michigan legislators meeting):

Meadows testified that he was present and that “most of that [meeting] had to do with allegations of potential fraud in Michigan.” He stated that his presence was relevant to his responsibility to broadly “give advice to the President” and to “be aware of what is consuming the President’s time.”

Act 6 (Scott Perry text):

Meadows acknowledged sending a text message asking for the phone number of the Pennsylvania House Speaker and testified that he “regularly” retrieved the phone numbers of state officials for the President.

Act 9 (Pennsylvania legislators meeting):

Meadows testified that “to the best of [his] recollection,” he was not at the portion of the meeting discussing the election.

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Act 19 (McEntee memorandum): Meadows testified that he did not ask McEntee for any memorandum on a strategy to disrupt Congress.

Act 92 (Cobb County visit): Meadows testified that his observation of the nonpublic signature match audit in Cobb County was relevant to the “transfer of power” to the Biden administration, because the “open question . . . in the President’s mind” about Georgia voter fraud posed a roadblock to the transition plan. According to Meadows, the visit “relate[d] completely” to his official responsibilities because he needed to “look at the [signature audit] process that they were going through” to ensure “everything [was] being done right” to smooth the transition. Meadows also testified that he went to Cobb County under his own discretion and that “[n]o one directed [him] to go.”

Act 93 (Watson call): Meadows admitted to arranging a call between Watson and Trump. He testified that the call was related to his chief of staff duties because “the President was interested in all of the election outcomes [being] . . . accurate as they affected him.”

Act 96 (financial assistance text): Meadows admitted to sending a text message asking whether it was possible to speed up Fulton County’s signature verification if the Trump campaign “assist[ed] financially.” But he denied that the message was a “financial offer” and asserted that he “wasn’t speaking

on behalf of the [Trump] campaign.” Instead, Meadows explained that he had recently learned that a Wisconsin vote recount was possible if the Trump campaign paid for it, so he wanted to understand if a Georgia recount was also impeded by “financial constraints.” Meadows testified that he wanted to understand whether the impediment was “a financial resource issue . . . [or] manpower issue.”

Act 112 (Secretary Raffensperger solicitation): Meadows admitted to being on the call with Trump, Secretary Raffensperger, and several attorneys who represented either Trump personally or the Trump campaign. Meadows testified that the purpose of the call was to obtain “signature verification in Fulton County” and that the President wanted to find “a less litigious way” of doing so. Meadows asserted that verification was the President’s goal in his official capacity, but he apparently “d[id] not know” whether verification was also a goal of the Trump campaign.

Georgia presented rebuttal evidence, including evidence that Meadows was acting on behalf of the Trump campaign during the call with Secretary Raffensperger. Secretary Raffensperger testified that he understood Meadows to be asking for a resolution to *Trump v. Kemp*, 511 F. Supp. 3d 1325 (N.D. Ga. 2021), and other Georgia election-challenge lawsuits. He stated, “Those were Trump campaign lawyers [on the call], so I felt that it was a campaign call.” Georgia

also submitted a recording of the call, in which Meadows requested to sidestep the legal roadblocks to a Georgia vote recount:

[T]here are allegations where we believe that not every vote or fair vote and legal vote was . . . counted What I'm hopeful for is there some way that we can find some kind of agreement to look at this a little bit more fully. You know the president mentioned Fulton County. . . . [S]o Mr. Secretary, I was hopeful that, you know, in the spirit of cooperation and compromise is there something that we can at least have a discussion to look at some of these allegations to find a path forward that's less litigious?

The district court remanded. It explained that section 1442(a)(1) requires Meadows to prove that he is a federal officer, that his charged conduct was performed under color of federal office, and that he has a “colorable” federal defense. *See Caver v. Cent. Ala. Elec. Coop.*, 845 F.3d 1135, 1142 (11th Cir. 2017). The district court found that Georgia had conceded that Meadows was an “officer” because he had served as chief of staff “at the time of the events alleged.” But it found that Meadows had failed to prove any causal connection between his charged conduct and his office, because the “gravamen” of Georgia’s case and the “heavy majority” of the overt acts were not connected with the performance of Meadows’s official duties. The district court did not address whether Meadows had a colorable federal defense.

After Meadows filed this appeal, *see* 28 U.S.C. § 1447(d), we ordered supplemental briefing on

whether section 1442(a)(1) applies to former federal officers, in the light of our decision in *United States v. Pate*, 84 F.4th 1196 (11th Cir. 2023) (en banc). Georgia argued that section 1442(a)(1) applies only to current officers, and Meadows argued that the statute covers former officers.

II. STANDARD OF REVIEW

We review *de novo* issues of removal jurisdiction. See *Castleberry v. Goldome Credit Corp.*, 408 F.3d 773, 780-81 (11th Cir. 2005).

III. DISCUSSION

The federal-officer removal statute protects an officer of the United States from having to answer for his official conduct in a state court. See 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1). Section 1442(a)(1) provides a right of removal to federal court if a defendant proves that he is a federal officer, his conduct underlying the suit was performed under color of federal office, and he has a “colorable” federal defense. *Caver*, 845 F.3d at 1142; see also *Jefferson County v. Acker*, 527 U.S. 423, 431 (1999). The defendant bears the burden of proof, *Leonard v. Enter. Rent a Car*, 279 F.3d 967, 972 (11th Cir. 2002), but that bar is “quite low,” *Caver*, 845 F.3d at 1144 (citation and internal quotation marks omitted).

We divide our discussion in two parts. First, we explain that section 1442(a)(1) does not apply to *former* officers—so Meadows, as a former chief of staff, is not a federal “officer” within the meaning of the removal statute. Second, we explain that even if Meadows were an “officer,” his participation in an alleged conspiracy to overturn a presidential election was not related to his official duties.

A. Section 1442(a)(1) Does Not Apply to Former Federal Officers.

Section 1442(a)(1) provides that “any officer . . . of the United States” may remove to federal court a criminal prosecution “for or relating to any act under color of such office.” We have long understood the statute to afford a *current* federal officer a federal forum for the adjudication of his liability or guilt. *See Florida v. Cohen*, 887 F.2d 1451, 1453 (11th Cir. 1989) (first citing *Willingham v. Morgan*, 395 U.S. 402, 405 (1969); and then citing *Loftin v. Rush*, 767 F.2d 800, 804 (11th Cir. 1985)). But the statute does not apply to *former* federal officers.

Our interpretation of a statute must begin “with the language of the statute itself.” *United States v. Ron Pair Enters.*, 489 U.S. 235, 241 (1989). The text of section 1442(a)(1) applies to only current officers. It is silent on the removal of a prosecution commenced against a *former* officer of the United States. The ordinary meaning of “officer” does not include “former officer.” *See Pate*, 84 F.4th at 1201-02 (determining the meaning of “officer” using dictionary definitions, common understanding, and the Dictionary Act, 1 U.S.C. § 1). And the ordinary meaning usually controls. *See Bostock v. Clayton County*, 140 S. Ct. 1731, 1749 (2020) (“[W]hen the meaning of the statute’s terms is plain, our job is at an end.”); *Niz-Chavez v. Garland*, 141 S. Ct. 1474, 1480 (2021) (“When called on to resolve a dispute over a statute’s meaning, [a] [c]ourt normally seeks to afford the law’s terms their ordinary meaning at the time Congress adopted them.”).

The whole text of section 1442 reinforces the ordinary meaning of subsection (a)(1). Indeed, in contrast to the silence in subsection (a)(1), subsection (b) expressly provides for the removal of actions commenced against a former officer. Section 1442(b) grants a right of removal to a person “who is, or at *the time the alleged action accrued was*, a civil officer of the United States.” 28 U.S.C. § 1442(b) (emphasis added). This variation in language connotes a difference in meaning: when Congress includes “particular language in one section of a statute but omits it in another section of the same Act, it is generally presumed that Congress acts intentionally.” *Russello v. United States*, 464 U.S. 16, 23 (1983) (quoting *United States v. Wong Kim Bo*, 472 F.2d 720, 722 (5th Cir. 1972)); accord *Freemanville Water Sys., Inc. v. Poarch Band of Creek Indians*, 563 F.3d 1205, 1209 (11th Cir. 2009); Antonin Scalia & Bryan A. Garner, *Reading Law: The Interpretation of Legal Texts* § 25, at 170 (2012) (“[A] material variation in terms suggests a variation in meaning.”).

The presumption that Congress intentionally omitted any reference to former officers applies “with particular force” to this statute. See *Dep’t of Homeland Sec. v. MacLean*, 574 U.S. 383, 392 (2015). The provisions containing disparate language are “in close proximity” to each other, *id.*, and address the same subject matter, see *DIRECTV, Inc. v. Brown*, 371 F.3d 814, 817 (11th Cir. 2004); see also Scalia & Garner, *Reading Law* § 39, at 252 (“Statutes *in pari materia* are to be interpreted together, as though they were one law.”). “[W]hen Congress uses different language in *similar sections*, it intends different meanings.” *Iraola & CIA, S.A. v. Kimberly-Clark Corp.*, 232 F.3d

854, 859 (11th Cir. 2000) (emphasis added) (citing *United States v. Gonzales*, 520 U.S. 1, 5 (1997)). The explicit reference to former officers, in an adjacent section that also addresses removal jurisdiction, suggests that section 1442(a)(1) does not apply to former officers.

To be sure, the term “officer” may sometimes include former officers. But that interpretation must be supported by “compelling textual evidence,” and the “statutory context [must] make[] clear” that Congress intended the broader meaning. *Pate*, 84 F.4th at 1208-10.

In *Pate*, we discussed two instances where textual indicia supported an interpretation of the term “employee” or “officer” as including formers. *Id.* First, in *Robinson v. Shell Oil Co.*, the Supreme Court held that “employee” as used in section 704(a) of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 included former employees because section 704(a) provided “reinstatement” as a remedy, which could be awarded only to former employees. 519 U.S. 337, 342-43 (1997). Second, in *Davis v. Michigan Department of Treasury*, the Supreme Court held that a statutory reference to “compensation,” 4 U.S.C. § 111(a), which necessarily included retirement benefits, implied coverage of retired employees. 489 U.S. 803, 808-09 (1989).

But in *Pate*, we held that another statute, 18 U.S.C. § 1114, lacked any textual indicia to support a “strained” interpretation including former officers. 84 F.4th at 1210. The same is true here: no indicia from text or structure suggest that section 1442(a)(1) covers former officers.

Meadows argues that the discrepancy between subsections (a) and (b) can be explained by the provisions' different "focuses." Section 1442(a)(1) focuses on "conduct" and requires an act relating to the defendant's federal office, argues Meadows, but section 1442(b) requires no such act and removal instead turns on the defendant's "status" as an officer when the action accrues. Meadows contends that the explicit reference to former officers in subsection (b) reflects the different showings required from a current and from a former officer—the first must prove that he *is* an officer, while the second must prove that he was an officer *when the action accrued*. Meadows argues that section 1442(a)(1), in contrast, demands only proof that a person held federal office *at the time of the official act* alleged in the suit.

We rejected a similar interpretive approach applied to a similar statute in *Pate*. In *Pate*, we explained that the secondary condition in the statute—requiring an officer to be targeted "on account of the performance of official duties"—could not alter the primary condition—that the officer be a current federal employee. *Id.* at 1204 (internal quotation marks omitted) (quoting 18 U.S.C. § 1114). So too here.

The syntax of section 1442(a) does not suggest that removal depends on the *singular* condition that the defendant held office at the time of his charged conduct. Instead, the statute prescribes *multiple* independent conditions for removal: first, the defendant must be "any officer . . . of the United States," and second, the suit he seeks to remove must be "for or relating to any act under color of such office."

28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1); *cf. Pate*, 84 F.4th at 1203-05 (statutory provision, covering “any officer or employee of the United States . . . while such officer or employee is engaged in or on account of the performance of official duties,” imposed two independent conditions). Although the secondary condition of section 1442(a)(1)—that the officer’s act relate to his federal office—limits the class of officers eligible for removal, that condition does not “expand the scope” of the first condition “beyond its ordinary meaning.” *Id.* The requirement that a defendant be a current “officer . . . of the United States” stands as an independent prerequisite for removal. *See* 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1).

Meadows also contends that subsections 1442(a)(1) and (b) cannot be read in conjunction because they were drafted separately and not combined until 1948 as part of a broader codification. *See* 62 Stat. 869, 938 (June 25, 1948). The predecessor to section 1442(a)(1) was enacted in 1833, *see* 4 Stat. 632, 633 § 3 (Mar. 2, 1833), decades before the predecessor to section 1442(b), *see* 17 Stat. 44 (Mar. 30, 1872); *see also Watson v. Philip Morris Cos.*, 551 U.S. 142, 148-49 (2007) (recounting statutory history). We disagree.

The disparate origins of these subsections do not rebut the presumption that the variance in their language is meaningful. We have explained that “dissimilar language need not always have been enacted at the same time or found in the same statute” to warrant the presumption that dissimilarities are meaningful when the statutes “exist within the same field of legislation.” *Pate*, 84 F.4th at 1202 (internal

quotation marks omitted) (citing *United States v. Papagno*, 639 F.3d 1093, 1099 n.3 (D.C. Cir. 2011) (Kavanaugh, J.) (cataloging examples)). Moreover, the statutory history reveals that Congress *in fact* contemplated the relationship between the two removal provisions. Congress expressly cross-referenced the predecessor to subsection (a) in the enacted text of the predecessor to subsection (b). See 17 Stat. 44 (Mar. 30, 1872) (predecessor to subsection (b), providing that removal shall occur “in the same manner as now provided for . . . by the provisions of section three of the act of March second, eighteen hundred and thirty-three [predecessor to subsection (a)]”). This cross-reference reinforces the presumption that the variance in language between the two provisions reflects a deliberate choice. *MacLean*, 574 U.S. at 391; *Delgado v. U.S. Att’y Gen.*, 487 F.3d 855, 862 (11th Cir. 2007) (“[W]here Congress knows how to say something but chooses not to, its silence is controlling.” (citation and internal quotation marks omitted)).

Congress has had ample opportunity to modify the discrepancy between subsections (a) and (b), but it has not done so. The two provisions have been codified in adjacent subsections of the United States Code since 1948. Congress did not modify the relevant variance during codification or during revisions in 1996, 2011, or 2013. See Pub. L. No. 104-317, § 206, 110 Stat. 3847, 3850 (Oct. 19, 1996); Pub. L. No. 112-51, § 2, 125 Stat. 545, 545-46 (Nov. 9, 2011); Pub. L. No. 112-239, § 1086, 126 Stat. 1632, 1969-70 (Jan. 2, 2013). Our precedents establish that the decision to preserve grandfathered language, despite a “clear ability” to modify it, is significant. *CBS Inc. v.*

PrimeTime 24 Joint Venture, 245 F.3d 1217, 1226 (11th Cir. 2001) (citation and internal quotation marks omitted).

Earlier versions of section 1442(a)(1) also evidence that when Congress intended to permit removal by former officers, it expressed that intent with clear language. The 1911 codification of the removal provision used nearly identical language and was also silent as to former officers. *See* 36 Stat. 1087, 1097, § 33 (Mar. 3, 1911) (providing for removal of any suit “commenced in any court of a State *against any officer* . . . on account of any act done under color his office.” (emphasis added)). But the same section of the 1911 statute permitted removal by former officers of another class: Congress used temporal language to allow the removal of “any suit . . . commenced against any person for [or] on account of anything done by him *while an officer of either House of Congress* in the discharge of his official duty.” *Id.* (emphasis added). The temporal language in the congressional-officer provision supports the view that the contrasting silence in the federal-officer provision, within the same section of the same statute, controls its interpretation.

Meadows identifies no precedent from either the Supreme Court or this Court permitting removal under section 1442(a)(1) by a former officer. True, in *Mesa v. California*, the Supreme Court used past-tense language to explain that the defendants “were federal employees at the time of the incidents,” 489 U.S. 121, 123 (1989), but the underlying circuit decision made clear that the defendants *remained* employees during the state prosecution, *see California*

v. Mesa, 813 F.2d 960, 961 (9th Cir. 1987) (“[Defendants] *are* United States mail carriers charged with violations of state law.” (emphasis added)); *see also* Petition for Writ of Certiorari, *Mesa*, 489 U.S. 121 (No. 87-1206), 1988 WL 1094058, at *2 (“[Defendants] *are* employees of the United States Postal Service.” (emphasis added)). Likewise, in *Maryland v. Soper*, the defendants “averred that they were Federal prohibition agents” at the time of removal. 270 U.S. 9, 22 (1926) (adjudicating removal under the predecessor statute to section 1442(a)). Nor can Meadows identify a precedent from our Circuit clearly involving a former officer. *See Cohen*, 887 F.2d at 1454 (apparently current deputy marshal and federal agents sought removal); *Magnin v. Teledyne Cont’l Motors*, 91 F.3d 1424, 1427 (11th Cir. 1996) (unclear whether a federal manufacturing inspection representative was still employed when he sought removal).

We acknowledge that, in the 190-year history of the federal-officer removal statute, no court has ruled that former officers are excluded from removal. And we acknowledge that former officers have removed actions in other circuits. But in most of these decisions—many of which were summary removals and some of which were nonprecedential—the courts did not discuss the text of section 1442 at all. *See, e.g., Eagar v. Drake*, 829 F. App’x 878, 881 (10th Cir. 2020); *Arizona v. Elmer*, 21 F.3d 331, 334 (9th Cir. 1994); *Meros v. Dimon*, No. 2:18-cv-510, 2019 WL 1384390, at *1 (S.D. Ohio Mar. 27, 2019). And in others, the courts did not address the former-officer question. *See, e.g., Guancione v. Guevara*, No. 23-cv-01924-JSW, 2023 WL 3819368, at *1 (N.D. Cal. June 5, 2023);

Brunson v. Adams, No. 1:21-CV-00111-JNP-JCB, 2021 WL 5403892, at *3 (D. Utah Oct. 19, 2021). So the decisions permitting former officers to remove have tended to involve cursory jurisdictional rulings, which we do not credit. *See Steel Co. v. Citizens for a Better Env't*, 523 U.S. 83, 91 (1998) (“We have often said that drive-by jurisdictional rulings of this sort . . . have no precedential effect.”).

Indeed, we are aware of only one court that has squarely addressed the former-officer question, in dictum, and it fails to persuade us. *See New York v. Trump*, No. 23 Civ. 3773 (AKH), 2023 WL 4614689, at *5 (S.D.N.Y. July 19, 2023) (stating that former officers may remove under section 1442(a)(1)). Without considering the ordinary meaning of the statutory text, that district court reasoned that section 1442(a)(1) should apply to former officers because it “would make little sense if this were not the rule, for the very *purpose* of the Removal Statute is to allow federal courts to adjudicate challenges to acts done under color of federal authority.” *Id.* (emphasis added). But the “best evidence of that purpose is the statutory text adopted by both Houses of Congress and submitted to the President.” *W. Va. Univ. Hosps., Inc. v. Casey*, 499 U.S. 83, 98 (1991); Scalia & Garner, *Reading Law* § 2, at 56 (“[T]he purpose must be derived from the text.”). Purpose “must be defined precisely, and not in a fashion that smuggles in the answer to the question before the decision-maker.” Scalia & Garner, *Reading Law* § 2, at 56.

The Supreme Court has explained that the purpose of federal-officer removal is to protect the federal government from the “interference with its

operations that would ensue were a State able, for example, to arrest and bring to trial in a State court . . . officers . . . of the Federal Government acting within the scope of their authority.” *Watson*, 551 U.S. at 150 (alterations adopted) (internal quotation marks omitted) (quoting *Willingham*, 395 U.S. at 406)). Because the federal government “can act only through its officers and agents,” if states could unconditionally try federal officers, “the operations of the general government may at any time be arrested at the will of one of [the states].” *Tennessee v. Davis*, 100 U.S. 257, 263 (1879). Shielding officers performing current duties effects the statute’s purpose of protecting the operations of federal government. But limiting protections to current officers also respects the balance between state and federal interests, by enforcing a “policy against federal interference with state criminal proceedings.” *Mesa*, 489 U.S. at 138 (quoting *Arizona v. Manypenny*, 451 U.S. 232, 243 (1981)).

The Supreme Court has instructed that federal courts must “retain[] the highest regard for a State’s right to make and enforce its own criminal laws.” *Manypenny*, 451 U.S. at 243. The jurisdiction 20 Opinion of the Court 23-12958 to try state offenses should not “be wrested from [state] courts” lightly. *Colorado v. Symes*, 286 U.S. 510, 518 (1932). Interpreting section 1442(a)(1) as limited to its ordinary meaning counters “true state hostility” against the enforcement of unpopular national laws and limits federal jurisdiction to cases in which the hostility is actually “directed against federal officers’ efforts to carry out their federally mandated duties.” *Mesa*, 489 U.S. at 139; *see also Soper*, 270 U.S. at 32

(“The constitutional validity of [federal-officer removal] rests on the right and power of the United States to secure the efficient execution of its laws and to prevent interference . . . by state prosecutions instituted against federal officers in enforcing such laws.”). In contrast, a state prosecution of a *former* officer does not interfere with ongoing federal functions—case-in-point, no one suggests that Georgia’s prosecution of Meadows has hindered the current administration.

Meadows argues that section 1442(a) is intended to provide a federal forum that is coextensive with federal immunity defenses, which may be available to former officers. *See Willingham*, 395 U.S. at 407 (“[O]ne of the most important reasons for removal is to have the validity of the defense of official immunity tried in a federal court.”); *cf. Nixon v. Fitzgerald*, 457 U.S. 731, 749 (1982) (absolute immunity is available to former presidents). Meadows asserts that section 1442(a) is “meant to avoid” all state adjudications of federal immunities. We disagree.

Meadows cites no authority suggesting that state courts are unequipped to evaluate federal immunities. State courts have long adjudicated, for example, whether federal officers are entitled to Supremacy Clause immunity under *In re Neagle*, 135 U.S. 1 (1890). *See, e.g., People v. Denman*, 177 P. 461, 465 (Cal. 1918); *State v. Adler*, 55 S.W. 851, 853 (Ark. 1900); *State v. Waite*, 70 N.W. 596, 597-98 (Iowa 1897). And they have continued to do so after the codification of the modern federal-officer removal statute in 1948. *See, e.g., Battle v. State*, 258 A.3d 1009, 1021-25 (Md. Ct. Spec. App. 2021); *State v. Deedy*, 407 P.3d 164, 188-

89 (Haw. 2017); *State v. Velky*, 821 A.2d 752, 759-60 (Conn. 2003). Likewise, state courts regularly adjudicate whether state officers sued for violating federal rights are entitled to official or qualified immunity. *See, e.g., Rustici v. Weidemeyer*, 673 S.W.2d 762, 772 (Mo. 1984); *Johnson v. Morris*, 453 N.W.2d 31, 37-40 (Minn. 1990); *Moody v. Ungerer*, 885 P.2d 200, 202-03 (Colo. 1994); *Gentile v. Bauder*, 718 So. 2d 781, 784-75 (Fla. 1998); *Clancy v. McCabe*, 805 N.E.2d 484, 493-94 (Mass. 2004); *King v. Betts*, 354 S.W.3d 691, 703 (Tenn. 2011).

B. Meadows’s Charged Conduct Was Not Performed Under Color of Federal Office.

Even if section 1442(a)(1) applied to former officers, we would still affirm because Meadows fails to prove that the conduct underlying the criminal indictment relates to his official duties. Section 1442(a)(1) permits a federal officer to remove a state prosecution that is “for or relating to any act under color of [his] office.” The officer must establish a “causal connection between the charged conduct and asserted official authority.” *Acker*, 527 U.S. at 431 (citation and internal quotation marks omitted). So we must identify the “act” or charged conduct underlying Georgia’s prosecution, the scope of Meadows’s federal office, and the existence of a causal nexus between Meadows’s conduct and his office.

We proceed in three parts. First, we explain that Meadows’s culpable “act” was his alleged *association with* the conspiracy to overturn the presidential election, as charged in the indictment. Second, we explain that Meadows’s “color” of office did not include

superintending state election procedures or electioneering on behalf of the Trump campaign. Third, we conclude that Meadows’s association with the alleged conspiracy was not related to his office of chief of staff. Simply put, whatever the precise contours of Meadows’s official authority, that authority did not extend to an alleged conspiracy to overturn valid election results.

1. The “Act”

We must first define Meadows’s section 1442(a)(1) “act” underlying the RICO charge, for the inchoate crime of conspiracy. Georgia argues—and the district court ruled—that Meadows’s culpable “act” was his *association with* the alleged conspiracy. The district court determined that evaluating that “act” required looking to the “heart” of Meadows’s conspiracy-related activity, instead of individually evaluating each overt act alleged in the indictment. *See Mayor & City Council of Baltimore v. BP P.L.C.*, 31 F.4th 178, 234 (4th Cir. 2022). The district court looked to the “gravamen,” *Acker*, 527 U.S. at 447 (Scalia, J., concurring in part and dissenting in part), and “heavy majority of overt acts,” instead of evaluating whether any particular act related to Meadows’s office. The district court treated the overt acts in the indictment as “relevant evidence” of, but not identical to, the “act” required by section 1442(a)(1).

Meadows, on the other hand, argues that each overt act in the indictment is an “act” for purposes of federal-officer removal. He argues that so long as any *one* of his actions—sending any message or participating in any meeting—related to his official duties, he is entitled to remove. Meadows further

argues that the district court applied an incorrect legal test by looking to the “heart” or “gravamen” of Georgia’s indictment because it could not do any weighing at all—it was required to accept Meadows’s interpretation of “act” at face value.

We agree with Georgia. Looking to the heart of the indictment is consistent with our precedents defining a defendant’s culpable “act” for purposes of federal-officer removal. Our precedents provide that the “act” anchoring removal must be defined by the “claim” brought against the defendant, and that federal courts have jurisdiction only when “one *claim* cognizable under Section 1442 is present.” *Nadler v. Mann*, 951 F.2d 301, 306 n.9 (11th Cir. 1992) (emphasis added); *see also Sawyer v. Foster Wheeler LLC*, 860 F.3d 249, 257 (4th Cir. 2017) (holding that removal is justified if a federal defense applies to any claim); *Convent Corp. v. City of North Little Rock*, 784 F.3d 479, 483 (8th Cir. 2015) (holding that removal is justified if one federal claim is present). So an accused’s removal theory must accord with a claim—a *criminal charge*—brought against him.

Meadows is charged with the inchoate crime of conspiracy, that is, “participat[ing] in, directly or indirectly, [an] enterprise” to illegally overturn the results of the presidential election. Ga. Code Ann. § 16-14-4(b). A criminal conspirator is not defined by any single *actus reus* in furtherance, but by his *agreement to join* the conspiracy. Indeed, the state need not prove that Meadows committed any of the overt acts charged in the indictment, *see Nordahl v. State*, 829 S.E.2d 99, 109 (Ga. 2019), or that he engaged in any overt act at all so long as one of his

coconspirators did, *see Thomas v. State*, 451 S.E.2d 516, 517 (Ga. Ct. App. 1994). Not only that, but an overt act need not, in and of itself, be criminal in nature to support a conspiracy charge. *See McCright v. State*, 336 S.E.2d 361, 363 (Ga. Ct. App. 1985). In other words, Georgia does not prosecute Meadows because attending any individual meeting or sending any specific message was itself illegal; Georgia prosecutes Meadows because his alleged agreement to join and his alleged conduct undertaken to further the conspiracy are illegal. So we must look to the core of the factual allegations to identify whether Meadows's conduct in aggregate furthered the alleged enterprise to overturn the election.

To allow Meadows to remove the action if any *single* allegation in the indictment related to his official duties would run contrary to both the removal statute and precedent. *See Mesa*, 489 U.S. at 131-32 (“It must appear that the prosecution of him, for whatever offense, has arisen out of the *acts* done by him.” (emphasis added) (citation and internal quotation marks omitted)). Meadows relies on *Baucom v. Martin* to argue that *each* overt act is dispositive for removal. 677 F.2d 1346, 1347-48 (11th Cir. 1982) (affirming Supremacy Clause immunity for a Federal Bureau of Investigations agent facing prosecution under Georgia's RICO statute for allegedly administering one bribe). But *Baucom* was a Supremacy Clause immunity case and did not concern the propriety of federal-officer removal. *See id.* Even if it had, the charge against Baucom alleged only one overt act, so that act represented the “heart” of the state prosecution. But because Meadows's culpability does not depend on any discrete act, he cannot remove

by proving that one act was undertaken in his official capacity. The district court correctly determined that we must look to the “heart” of Meadows’s conduct to determine whether his section 1442(a)(1) “act”—of conspiring to “unlawfully change the outcome of the election in favor of Trump”—supports removal.

2. The “Color” of Meadows’s Office

Section 1442(a) permits the removal of a criminal prosecution commenced against any officer “for or relating to any act *under color of such office*.” 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1) (emphasis added). Acts taken under color of office are those “vested with, or appear to be vested with, the authority entrusted to that office.” *Color of Office*, Black’s Law Dictionary (11th ed. 2019). The “color of office” element requires acts to be done “in enforcement of federal law.” *Mesa*, 489 U.S. at 131-32 (citation and internal quotation marks omitted). Meadows must identify a source of positive law for his assertions of official authority for us to determine whether his alleged acts were attributable to exercises of that authority. *See In re Neagle*, 135 U.S. at 75 (an official act is an “act which [the officer] was *authorized to do by the law* of the United States” (emphasis added)); *Spalding v. Vilas*, 161 U.S. 483, 498 (1896) (official actions are those “*committed by law* to [the officer’s] control or supervision” (emphasis added)).

Meadows asserts that he proved his authority by testifying to his official duties, and he describes the “color” of his office as nearly limitless. He argues that anything that could be described as “manag[ing] the President’s time and attention to ensure the effective operation of government” fell within his duties. He asserts that his duties were “at least coextensive with

those of the President” and that “he is federal operations.” Meadows does not contest the finding that he “was unable to explain the limits of his authority.” Instead, he argues that his failure is not fatal to removal because we must accept his assertions at face value under *Acker*. Meadows would have us abdicate any analysis of the limits of his authority and accept his “theory of the case” that virtually *any* function of federal operations falls within the color of office of the chief of staff. *Acker*, 527 U.S. at 432.

We cannot rubber stamp Meadows’s legal opinion that the President’s chief of staff has unfettered authority, and *Acker* does not instruct us to eschew our duty of independent review. *Acker* credited two judicial officers’ “adequate threshold showing” on a question of statutory interpretation. 527 U.S. at 432. The Supreme Court credited the judges’ “theory of the case” when it declined to “choose between [disputed] readings” of a municipal ordinance, but that deference involved crediting a *plausible* reading of a *specific* legal authority. *Id.* But Meadows’s theory of the case is not plausible. *Acker* does not instruct us blindly to accept an expansive proclamation of executive power relying on no source of positive law. Instead, our judicial duty demands an independent assessment of the limits of Meadows’s office.

Meadows asserts that the White House chief of staff has duties related to the supervision of state elections and campaign-related “political” activity. In particular, he maintains that broad authority and few limitations can be found in the Elections Clause, the Take Care Clause, various election statutes, and the Hatch Act. But the district court concluded, and we

agree, that the federal executive has limited authority to superintend the states' administration of elections—neither the Constitution, nor statutory law, nor precedent prescribe any role for the White House chief of staff. And even if some authority supported a role for the chief of staff in supervising states' administration of elections, that role does not include influencing which candidate prevails. After all, “[t]he Office of the President has no preference for who occupies it.” *Thompson v. Trump*, 590 F. Supp. 3d 46, 82 (D.D.C. 2022).

a. The White House Chief of Staff Has No Role in Supervising State Elections.

Meadows concedes that the “Constitution does not spell out a role for the President in the operation of state voting procedures in federal elections.” The Constitution empowers only the states and Congress to “regulate the conduct of [federal] elections.” *Roudebush v. Hartke*, 405 U.S. 15, 24 (1972); *see* U.S. Const. art. I, § 4, art. II, § 1. As the Supreme Court has explained, the “Framers of the Constitution intended the States to keep for themselves, as provided in the Tenth Amendment, the power to regulate elections.” *Shelby County v. Holder*, 570 U.S. 529, 543 (2013) (internal quotation marks omitted) (quoting *Gregory v. Ashcroft*, 501 U.S. 452, 461-62 (1991)). The states are responsible for enacting “a complete code for . . . elections,” including “regulations relati[ng] to . . . prevention of fraud and corrupt practices [and] counting of votes.” *Moore v. Harper*, 143 S. Ct. 2065, 2085 (2023) (first alteration in original) (internal

quotation marks omitted) (quoting *Smiley v. Holm*, 285 U.S. 355, 366 (1932)).

Nor does federal statutory law provide the White House chief of staff any role in the supervision of state elections. For example, the Electoral Count Act, Pub. L. No. 45-90, 24 Stat. 373 (Feb. 3, 1887), assigns duties to congressional officials—the Vice President in his role as presiding officer of the Senate, the Speaker of the House, senators, and representatives—but not to the President or his chief of staff. *Cf. United States v. Sandlin*, 575 F. Supp. 3d 16, 23 (D.D.C. 2021). Although Meadows offers a list of statutes related to congressional oversight, he identifies only two sources of election-related authority within the executive branch: the Department of Justice Civil Rights Division and its Election Crimes Branch. But he fails to explain how the duties of his office or his charged conduct implicated either division of the Department.

Meadows argues that the Take Care Clause, U.S. Const. art. II, § 3, empowers the President with broad authority to “ensure that federal voting laws are enforced.” But he concedes that the President has no “direct control” over the individuals—members of Congress and state officials—who conduct federal elections. And tellingly, he cites no legal authority for the proposition that the President’s power extends to “assess[ing] the conduct of state officials.” We are aware of no authority suggesting that the Take Care Clause empowers federal executive interference with state election procedures based solely on the federal executive’s own initiative, and not in relation to another branch’s constitutionally-authorized act.

**b. The White House Chief of Staff
May Not Engage in
Electioneering on Behalf of a
Political Campaign.**

Meadows argues that the district court incorrectly determined that the Hatch Act imposed limitations on his authority because the Act “does not operate to define the role of a President or his senior aides.” But the Act applies to the President’s staff and Meadows testified that he was bound by it. It admits no exceptions to its prohibition on a federal official using his “official authority or influence for the purpose of interfering with or affecting the result of an election.” 5 U.S.C. § 7323(a)(1). And the prohibition extends to any participation in “activity directed toward the success or failure of a political party, candidate for partisan political office, or partisan political group.” 5 C.F.R. §§ 734.101, 734.302(b)(2).

We take Meadows’s point that the President is an inherently “political leader[],” *United States v. Nixon*, 418 U.S. 683, 715 (1974), who occupies a unique role by personally embodying one of “the two political branches,” *Zivotofsky ex rel. Zivotofsky v. Kerry*, 576 U.S. 1, 14 (2015). And the President’s subordinates, in their official duties, may “exercis[e] not their own but [the President’s] discretion.” *Myers v. United States*, 272 U.S. 52, 132 (1926). But although defining the limits of impermissible “political” activity is challenging, we reject Meadows’s assertion that there is “literally no way in the real world” to separate governance from prohibited political or campaign-related activity.

Electioneering *on behalf of* a political campaign is incontrovertibly political activity prohibited by the Hatch Act. Campaigning for a specific candidate is not official conduct because the office of the President is disinterested in who holds it. *See Thompson*, 590 F. Supp. 3d at 82. Indeed, the political branches themselves recognize that electioneering is not an official federal function. The Hatch Act provides congressional limitations on campaign-related activity by federal employees. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 7323(a)(1). And the executive branch applies internal restrictions on electioneering: for example, the Office of Legal Counsel does not allow campaign travel to be considered an official expense. *See Payment of Expenses Associated with Travel by the President & Vice President*, 6 Op. O.L.C. 214, 216-217 (1982).

The district court did not err in ruling, based on the Hatch Act and Meadows’s own testimony, that activity on behalf of the Trump reelection campaign was unrelated to Meadows’s federal duties. Meadows testified that he understood the Hatch Act to prohibit him from “advocat[ing] for a particular candidate” and from “campaign[ing] actively . . . in [his] official title.” And he concedes that, for example, “[g]iving a speech in support of the President at a campaign rally” would fall outside the scope of his office.

Meadows cannot have it both ways. He cannot shelter behind his testimony about the breadth of his official responsibilities, while disclaiming his admissions that he understood electioneering activity to be out of bounds. That he repeatedly denied having any role in, or speaking on behalf of, the Trump

campaign, reflects his recognition that such activities were forbidden to him as chief of staff.

3. The Causal Nexus

Section 1442(a)(1) provides that prosecutions are removable only when brought against officers “for or relating to” any act under color of federal office. Meadows must establish some “causal connection” or “association” between his alleged conspiracy-related activity and his federal office, and the bar for proof is “quite low.” *Caver*, 845 F.3d at 1144 (citation and internal quotation marks omitted). Still, Meadows must be “specific and positive” in showing that his charged conduct “was confined to his acts as an officer.” *Symes*, 286 U.S. at 520. And the Supreme Court has explained that, in “a criminal case, a more detailed showing might be necessary because of the more compelling state interest in conducting criminal trials in the state courts.” *Willingham*, 395 U.S. at 409 n.4; *cf. Schwab v. Crosby*, 451 F.3d 1308, 1325 (11th Cir. 2006) (“[D]icta from the Supreme Court is not something to be lightly cast aside.” (citation and internal quotation marks omitted)).

As the removing party, Meadows bears the burden of proof. *See Leonard*, 279 F.3d at 972. Meadows was obligated to support the factual averments linking his conduct and his office “by competent proof.” *United Food & Com. Workers Union, Loc. 919, AFL-CIO v. CenterMark Props. Meriden Square, Inc.*, 30 F.3d 298, 301 (2d Cir. 1994) (quoting *McNutt v. Gen. Motors Acceptance Corp.*, 298 U.S. 178, 189 (1936)); *Leite v. Crane Co.*, 749 F.3d 1117, 1121-22 (9th Cir. 2014) (applying the “competent proof” standard to federal-officer removal).

In determining whether Meadows's proof was competent, the district court was entitled to evaluate the demeanor and presentation of witnesses, assess the credibility of testimony including Meadows's, and weigh competing evidence.

The district court carefully weighed all evidence relevant to Meadows's charged conduct before finding that he failed to "provide sufficient evidence" that his association with the alleged conspiracy was "related to any legitimate purpose of the executive branch." The district court credited Meadows's denials of certain overt acts and weighed only those he admitted committing. It found only the text to Representative Perry, requesting the phone number of the "leader of PA Legislature," to be related to Meadows's official duties. The district court determined that the remainder of Meadows's conduct involved either unauthorized interference with state election procedures or prohibited campaigning. We agree.

As we have explained, the Hatch Act limits a federal officer's electioneering. Meadows had no official authority to operate on behalf of the Trump campaign. But he offers no other plausible justification for calling and soliciting Secretary Raffensperger to alter the certified returns for Georgia electors. Meadows testified to "setting . . . up [the telephone call] with the attorneys where they could find some kind of compromise" on the signature verification, but he admits that the attorneys involved were employed by either Trump personally or by the Trump campaign—no attorneys from the Office of White House Counsel or the Department of Justice were present. Meadows's participation in the call

reflected a clear attempt to further Trump's *private* litigation interests: he urged the participants to "find[] a path forward that's less litigious." And Secretary Raffensperger testified that he "felt that it was a campaign call" because "[t]hose were Trump campaign lawyers."

Meadows's text to Watson was also self-evidently campaign-related. He inquired, "Is there a way to speed up Fulton county signature verification in order to have results before Jan 6 *if the trump campaign assist financially.*" (Emphasis added). That electioneering activity is not part of the executive power. Meadows later testified that his text was not a "financial offer" and that he was not actually speaking on behalf of the campaign, but the district court was entitled to find otherwise.

Nor did Meadows's official duties include interference with state election procedures. Neither the Constitution, *see Roudebush*, 405 U.S. at 24, nor any federal statute, nor any precedent permits the President's chief of staff to oversee, disrupt, or change the state results of presidential elections. Authority over electoral proceedings is expressly delegated to the states. *See Moore*, 143 S. Ct. at 2085. Meadows offers no official rationale for traveling to Cobb County and attempting to infiltrate the nonpublic signature-match audit being performed by law enforcement officers. Although Meadows testified that he was trying to ensure that "everything [was] being done right," he stated that he traveled to Georgia under his own discretion and that "no one directed [him] to go."

Meadows also cannot point to any authority for influencing state officials with allegations of election

fraud. Meadows testified that his meeting with the Michigan state officials mostly discussed the purported fraud in the 2020 election and was related to “President Trump[s] . . . personal interest in the outcome of the election in Michigan.” He testified to arranging a call between Trump and Watson, in which Trump reiterated allegations of fraud, asserted he had won Georgia “by hundreds of thousands of votes,” and suggested to Watson that “when the right answer comes out you’ll be praised.” But the White House chief of staff has no role in overseeing signature verifications or recount processes, or in superintending states’ administration of election procedures. Meadows cannot establish that any of these acts related to his federal office.

At bottom, whatever the chief of staff’s role with respect to state election administration, that role does not include altering valid election results in favor of a particular candidate. So there is no “causal connection” between Meadows’s “official authority” and his alleged participation in the conspiracy. *See Willingham*, 395 23-12958 Opinion of the Court 35 U.S. at 409 (citation and internal quotation marks omitted). Meadows is not entitled to invoke the federal-officer removal statute.

IV. CONCLUSION

We **AFFIRM** the order remanding this criminal action.

ROSENBAUM, Circuit Judge, joined by ABUDU, Circuit Judge, concurring:

Imagine that the day the President of the United States leaves office, sixteen states where his policies were unpopular indict him and all his Cabinet members, simply for carrying out their constitutionally authorized duties.¹ Is it possible that state courts in those sixteen jurisdictions would fairly, correctly, and promptly resolve any federal defenses the former President and Cabinet members might have? Of course, it is. It may well even be likely. But given the local sentiment that led to the indictments in this hypothetical scenario, it's also possible they would not.

Yet under 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1), the federal-officer removal statute, the former President and Cabinet members would have no guarantee that a federal court (the Supreme Court, in that context) would ever consider their federal defenses on direct appeal.² And even if the Supreme Court eventually considered their cases, that wouldn't happen until after they had spent significant time and money

¹ This hypothetical scenario does not describe Mark Meadows's situation. Meadows has not established that the State has charged him for or relating to an act under color of his office as White House chief of staff. For that reason, he could not remove his case to federal court under 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1), even if that statute extended to former federal officers who undertook their challenged acts while in office.

² A person convicted in state court can file a habeas action in federal court under 28 U.S.C. § 2254, but not until after he's exhausted all remedies available in state court. So that person may serve a substantial part of his sentence of incarceration before federal habeas is granted.

defending themselves. So even though a federal court might have found their federal defenses meritorious as a matter of law and dismissed their cases, these former officials may not see a federal forum until much of the damage has been done. In short, foreclosing removal when states prosecute former federal officers simply for performing their official duties can allow a rogue state's weaponization of the prosecution power to go unchecked and fester.

The consequences of that are profound. For starters, prosecutions of former federal employees for undertaking locally unpopular actions—but actions that are still within the bounds of their official duties³—can cause a crisis of faith in our government and our courts. Not only that, but these types of actions can cripple government operations, discourage federal officers from faithfully performing their duties,

³ I emphasize that this concurrence addresses only those state prosecutions of former federal officers whose charged acts fell within the scope of their official duties. It does not pertain to state prosecutions of former federal officers for acting outside the scope of their official duties and violating state law. That's so because, "[u]nder our federal system, it goes without saying that preventing and dealing with crime is much more the business of the States than it is of the Federal Government." *Arizona v. Manypenny*, 451 U.S. 232, 243 (1981) (cleaned up). And states have a "compelling . . . interest in conducting criminal trials in the state courts," *Willingham v. Morgan*, 395 U.S. 402, 409 n.4 (1981), when anyone—including a former federal officer—has allegedly violated state criminal law and has not done so to carry out federal law. As the Supreme Court has explained, "Absent any indication that the removal statute was intended to derogate from the State's interest in evenhanded enforcement of its laws, we see no justification for providing an unintended benefit to a defendant who happens to be a federal officer." *Manypenny*, 451 U.S. at 243.

and dissuade talented people from entering public service. After all, who needs the aggravation and financial burden from being criminally prosecuted (even in one state) just for carrying out official responsibilities? And federal officers who are reluctant to do their duty, or a dearth of talented and enthusiastic people willing to serve in public office, could paralyze our democratic-republic system of government.

This nightmare scenario keeps me up at night. In my view, not extending the federal-officer removal statute to former officers for prosecutions based on their official actions during their tenure is bad policy, and it represents a potential threat to our republic's stability. Of course, my role as a judge does not allow me to rewrite laws to fit my view of what's wise. Rather, I must faithfully interpret the laws as they are written. So today I join the Majority Opinion because it does that.

But *Congress* enjoys the prerogative to revise Section 1442(a)(1) to include former federal officers. And I respectfully urge Congress to consider prompt action to do just that. A simple amendment to Section 1442(a)(1) to cover former federal officers—that is, to allow former federal officers prosecuted for actions for or relating to their official duties to remove their cases to federal court—would fix this grave problem.

My analysis proceeds in two parts. First, I show that Congress has long recognized removal as an invaluable tool in protecting current federal officers from state prosecutions brought against them only for carrying out their official responsibilities. Second, I explain how extending this protection to former

federal officers for their acts in the line of duty also furthers the purposes of federal-officer removal.

I.

Unfortunately, my nightmare scenario has some precedent in our nation's history—at least with respect to current federal officers. This section recounts just some of that history and shows how Congress has used federal-officer removal statutes to address the problem of state prosecution of (then-current) federal officers for carrying out their official (though locally unpopular) responsibilities in the past.

I begin with the first time this problem seems to have arisen, more than 200 years ago. During the War of 1812, the United States imposed an embargo on trade with England. *See Willingham*, 395 U.S. at 405. New Englanders detested that policy. *See id.* So out of a concern for “protect[ing] federal officers [who enforced the embargo] from interference [with their official duties] by hostile state courts,” Congress enacted a federal-officer removal provision in an 1815 customs statute. *Id.* Among other things, that provision authorized customs officers to remove to federal court state prosecutions against them for conducting their official duties. *See Tennessee v. Davis*, 100 U.S. 257, 267-68 (1879).

Not twenty years later, the problem of state hostility to federal policies and the officers who executed them as part of their official duties arose again—this time in the South. In 1828 and 1832, Congress imposed tariffs that Southerners deeply

disliked.⁴ A South Carolina convention responded by purporting to nullify those federal tariffs. *See id.* It also professed to criminalize United States officers' local collection of duties under the tariff laws. *Id.*

Congress reacted by passing the Force Act of 1833. *Id.* As relevant here, that law authorized removal of any state criminal prosecution of a federal officer for performing his official duties under the revenue laws. *Id.* At the time, Senator Daniel Webster reasoned that removal would “give a chance to the [federal] officer to defend himself where the authority of the law was recognised [sic],” 9 Cong. Deb. 461 (1833), rather than a state forum that might resist federal policy. And the Supreme Court has characterized “[t]he purpose of” the Force Act’s federal-officer removal provision as “prevent[ing] paralysis of operations of the federal government.” *Gay v. Ruff*, 292 U.S. 25, 32 (1934).

Congress enacted federal-officer removal provisions during other periods of our history as well—for instance, during the Civil War and Reconstruction, when protracted state resistance against the federal government existed. *See* Act of March 3, 1863, ch. 81, § 5, 12 Stat. 755, 756-57 (1863); Act of July 13, 1866, ch. 184, § 67, 14 Stat. 171 (1866).⁵

⁴ *Nullification Proclamation: Primary Documents in American History*, Library of Congress Research Guides, (last visited Dec. 17, 2023) <https://perma.cc/7GWT-GJWK>.

⁵ Also in 1866, Congress enacted the statutory predecessor to 28 U.S.C. § 1443(2), which authorized removal of all criminal prosecutions “commenced in any State court against any officer, civil or military, or other person, for any arrest or imprisonment, trespasses, or wrongs done or committed by virtue or under color of authority derived from this act or the act establishing a Bureau

In support of these provisions, legislators rose to describe the conditions federal officers were facing in states hostile to their execution of official federal duties.

Senator Daniel Clark recounted, “A great many vexatious suits have been brought . . . where Federal officers have been pushed very hard and put to great hardships and expense, and sometimes *convicted of crime, for doing things which were right in the line of duty*, and which they were ordered to do and which they could not refuse to do.” Cong. Globe, 39th Cong., 1st Sess. 1880 (1866) (emphasis added). And Representative Samuel McKee pointed out some consequences of these legal actions: in his words, these actions were “harassing, annoying, and even driving out of the State the men who stood true to the flag There no protection is guarantied [sic] to a Federal soldier.” Cong. Globe, 39th Cong., 1st Sess. 1526 (1866).

So it’s no surprise that federal officers later relied on the 1863 and 1866 federal-officer removal provisions when they faced indictment for acting within the scope of their official federal duties. For instance, in 1879, a federal officer was executing his official responsibilities as a revenue collector to seize illegal distilleries, when a group of armed men fired on him. *Davis*, 100 U.S. at 260-61. In self-defense, the officer returned fire, striking and killing one of the

for the relief of Freedmen and Refugees, and all acts amendatory thereof.” Civil Rights Act of 1866, 14 Stat. 27 (1866); *see also City of Greenwood, Miss. v. Peacock*, 384 U.S. 808, 821-22 (1966). Congress was concerned with state interference with federal Reconstruction and legislated accordingly.

aggressors. *Id.* Tennessee charged the federal officer with murder. *Id.* But the 1866 federal-officer removal provision allowed the officer to remove the matter to federal court. *Id.* at 271.

As the Supreme Court explained, if a federal officer acting within his official duties “can be arrested and brought to trial in a State court, for an alleged offence [sic] against the law of the State, yet warranted by the Federal authority they possess, and if the [federal] government is powerless to interfere at once for their protection,—if their protection must be left to the action of the State court,—the operations of the [federal] government may at any time be arrested at the will of one of the States.” *Id.* at 263. Even more to the point, the Supreme Court warned that “[t]he State court may administer not only the laws of the State, but equally Federal law, in such a manner as to paralyze the operations of the government.” *Id.*

In later years, the Supreme Court offered more observations about these federal-officer removal provisions. In *Mitchell v. Clark*, the Court noted, for example, that the purpose of the Civil War and Reconstruction federal-officer removal provisions was to protect federal officers “engaged in the discharge of very delicate duties among a class of people who . . . were intensely hostile to the government”—those rebelling against the Union. 110 U.S. 633, 639 (1884).

Prohibition presented another period in which federal law won no popularity contests in some locales. So through the National Prohibition Act, Congress extended federal-officer removal to prohibition officers. National Prohibition Act, ch. 85, § 28, 41 Stat.

305, 316 (1919). That provision traced its origins to the 1863 and 1866 federal-officer removal provisions. *State of Maryland v. Soper*, 270 U.S. 9, 31-32 (1926). As the Supreme Court explained, “Congress not without reason assumed that the enforcement of the National Prohibition Act was likely to encounter in some quarters a lack of sympathy and even obstruction, and sought . . . to defeat the use of local courts to embarrass those who must execute it.” *Id.* at 32. So it authorized federal-officer removal to combat that problem.

Local opposition to federal policy—and use of the federal-officer removal statute to mitigate prejudice from that opposition—is by no means a vestige of the past. In 2006, the Tenth Circuit upheld federal-officer removal (and immunity) for an employee of the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service who was prosecuted for misdemeanor trespass in Wyoming state court. *Wyoming v. Livingston*, 443 F.3d 1211, 1225, 1230 (10th Cir. 2006). The defendant had entered private property while capturing and collaring wolves as part of a federal operation to reintroduce grey wolves to the region. *Id.* at 1213-15. But because Wyoming is “heavily dependent on livestock for its economic well-being,” the wolf reintroduction program was “met with vehement local opposition.” *Id.* at 1213-14. Indeed, the court noted record evidence that the prosecution was “not a bona fide effort to punish a violation of Wyoming trespass law . . . but rather an attempt to hinder a locally unpopular federal program.” *Id.* at 1231. So it concluded that federal-officer removal was proper to prevent that local “hind[rance].” *See id.* at 1225, 1231.

This brief walk through some of our history shows that states have in fact indicted federal officers for carrying out their official duties when those duties have been locally unpopular. And that local opposition is not limited to a particular policy, era, or region of the country. But recognizing the potential harms from state indictments of federal officers for acting within the scope of their jobs, Congress has enacted (and reenacted) federal-officer removal protection to “protect federal officers from interference by hostile state courts.” *Willingham*, 395 U.S. at 405.

II.

With this historical backdrop in mind, I return to my present concern: the lack of removal protection for former federal officers prosecuted by states for performing their official (but perhaps locally unpopular) federal duties.

To be sure, there’s a certain logic behind the limitation of Section 1442(a)(1)’s removal protection to current federal officers. Prosecuting current (not former) federal officers for performing their sworn federal duties makes the most sense if a state seeks to interfere with ongoing federal functions. Prosecuting someone who is no longer a federal officer, generally, will not directly paralyze ongoing federal operations. And as the Majority Opinion points out, we must “retain[] the highest regard for a State’s right to make and enforce its own criminal laws.” Maj. Op. at 19 (quoting *Manypenny*, 451 U.S. at 243).

It’s also true that state courts are certainly capable of evaluating federal defenses. *See id.* at 20-21. And in most cases, we can count on them to do so correctly and fairly. Plus, state officials may try to be

respectful of ongoing government operations by waiting to charge federal officers until they leave office.

But Congress created federal-officer removal statutes because it recognized that the risks to our federal government are just too great if a state court isn't capable—for whatever reason—of quickly, correctly, and fairly adjudicating federal defenses when a federal officer has been indicted for carrying out his official federal responsibilities. And a state trying to interrupt a federal policy or (misguidedly) vindicate a local interest it feels a federal law has threatened could view prosecuting former federal officers for performing their official federal duties as a way to effect those objectives. That's especially so because, as things currently stand, a state could not hope to accomplish these goals by indicting current federal officers without risking the possibility that they would remove the actions to federal court.

Yet state prosecutions of former federal officers for doing their official duties can also cripple the federal government, just like prosecutions of current federal officers can. Consider an ongoing federal policy or operation. If a state prosecutes a former federal officer for his official role in that, current federal officers who are responsible for continuing to carry out that policy or operation may well be chilled from doing so out of concern that they, too, will be prosecuted by the state when they leave their positions.

Or if states start indicting high-profile former federal officers, upon stepping down, for their official actions while in office, our national leaders may cease taking any significant action for the country in an

effort to avoid later state prosecution. After all, it's hard to think of any federal policy that's not unpopular somewhere in the country. If undertaking meaningful action within the scope of official authority becomes too risky for a federal officer because she will have to pay the state piper later, why bother even entering public service in the first place? But without talented and enthusiastic people willing to serve our country, the future would be bleak.

And I haven't even started to discuss the undermining effect that constant and repeated state prosecutions of former federal officers for doing their official duties would have on the perceived legitimacy of our system of government. The longer a state prosecution drags on when the former federal officers are entitled to dismissal, the more those who disfavor the officers' official duties may wrongly come to believe that the federal government has acted illegally. And the more this happens, the more it chips away at (and over time, takes a sledgehammer to) our government's perceived legitimacy.

These harms are serious. Fortunately, though, they can also be easily addressed if Congress amends the federal-officer removal statute to expressly include former federal officers.

The government's interests in protecting against rogue state prosecutions of federal officers for carrying out their official duties do not evaporate as soon as a particular officer leaves her post. Nor do they evaporate upon a change in presidential administration. So the protections for federal officers likewise should not evaporate when they leave their government employment.

Our decision today has consequences both for former federal officers and the federal government itself. To mitigate those consequences, and to reinforce the purposes of federal-officer removal, I respectfully urge Congress to amend Section 1442(a)(1) to cover former officers.

III.

In sum, the text and structure of the federal-officer removal statute—especially given our recent precedent *United States v. Pate*, 84 F.4th 1196 (11th Cir. 2023) (en banc)—compel our conclusion that former federal officers cannot invoke the statute. But not covering former federal officers comes with a great potential cost to our government and those who serve in it. So I respectfully urge Congress to amend Section 1442(a)(1) to protect former federal officers.

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Appendix B

**UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS
FOR THE ELEVENTH CIRCUIT**

No. 23-12958

THE STATE OF GEORGIA,

Plaintiff-Appellee,

v.

MARK RANDALL MEADOWS,

Defendant-Appellant.

Filed: Feb. 28, 2024

Before: WILLIAM PRYOR, Chief Judge, and
ROSENBAUM and ABUDU, Circuit Judges.

ORDER

PER CURIAM:

The Petition for Rehearing En Banc is DENIED, no judge in regular active service on the Court having requested that the Court be polled on rehearing en banc. FRAP 35. The Petition for Rehearing En Banc is also treated as a Petition for Rehearing before the panel and is DENIED. FRAP 35, IOP 2.

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Appendix C

**UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT FOR THE
NORTHERN DISTRICT OF GEORGIA**

No. 23-cv-03621

THE STATE OF GEORGIA,

Plaintiff,

v.

MARK RANDALL MEADOWS,

Defendant.

Filed: Sept. 8, 2023

ORDER

This matter appears before the Court following Defendant Mark R. Meadows's filing of a Notice of Removal. Doc. No. [1].¹ This Order addresses a relatively narrow question: Has Meadows carried his burden of demonstrating that removal of the State of Georgia's criminal prosecution against him is proper under the federal officer removal statute, 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)? Having considered the arguments and evidence, the Court concludes that Meadows has not met his burden. Therefore, the Court **DECLINES** to

¹ All citations are to the electronic docket unless otherwise noted, and all page numbers are those imprinted by the Court's docketing software.

assume jurisdiction over the State's criminal prosecution of Meadows under 28 U.S.C. § 1455 and **REMANDS** the case to Fulton County Superior Court.²

Because the Court lacks jurisdiction over this matter, the Court **DIRECTS** the Clerk to **TERMINATE** all pending motions and **CLOSE** this case.

I. BACKGROUND

Meadows served as the White House Chief of Staff.³ Defendant's Exhibit ("DX") 1. His tenure began on March 31, 2020 and ended on January 20, 2021, when President Biden assumed the Office of President of the United States. *Id.*; Doc. No. [65] ("Hearing Tr.") Tr. 9:22-10:3.

On August 14, 2023, a Fulton County, Georgia Grand Jury returned an indictment charging 19 Defendants with various crimes related to alleged postelection interference with the 2020 presidential election in Georgia ("the Indictment"). Doc. No. [1-1].

² Despite using the term "remand" the Court has not actually assumed jurisdiction over this case under Section 1455, and the State proceedings are ongoing. Nevertheless, Section 1455 itself conceives of some form of remand, 28 U.S.C. § 1455(b)(4), and other federal courts who have failed to find that federal jurisdiction exists over a criminal prosecution have "remanded" the prosecution to the state court. *See, e.g., New York v. Trump*, ---F. Supp. 3d---, No. 23 CIV. 3773 (AKH), 2023 WL 4614689, at *1 (S.D.N.Y. July 19, 2023).

³ Meadows's commission lists his official title as Assistant to the President and Chief of Staff. See DX 1. For consistency in this Order, the Court will use the term "White House Chief of Staff" to encompass Meadows's full title of "Assistant to the President and Chief of Staff."

The Indictment charged all Defendants with conspiracy under the Georgia Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organizations (“RICO”) Act, O.C.G.A. § 16-14-4(c). Doc. No. [1-1], 13 (Count 1). It also charged different co-Defendants with other various criminal violations. *See generally* Doc. No. [1-1], 72-97 (Counts 2-41).

The Indictment charges Meadows specifically with the RICO conspiracy, O.C.G.A. § 16-14-4(c), and solicitation of violation of oath by a public officer, O.C.G.A. §§ 16-14-7 & 16-10-1. Doc. No. [1-1], 13 (Count 1), 87 (Count 28). Meadows argues that the charges against him relate to the scope of his official duties and that he has colorable federal defenses. *See, generally* Doc. No. [1]. Based on those arguments, on August 15, 2023, Meadows filed his Notice of Removal of the criminal prosecution in this Court. *Id.*

Relying on 28 U.S.C. § 1455, Meadows asserts federal officer jurisdiction under 28 U.S.C. § 1442. *See, generally id.* The Court declined to summarily remand Meadows’s removal action and ordered an evidentiary hearing be held on the Notice of Removal on August 28, 2023, pursuant to Section 1455(b)(5). Doc. No. [6]. The Court also ordered the State to respond to Meadows’s Notice of Removal (*id.*), which it did on August 23, 2023 (Doc. No. [271]). Meadows replied on August 25, 2023. Doc. No. [45]. The same day, the Court permitted amicus curiae to file a brief in support of declining jurisdiction. Doc. Nos. [54]; [55].

Before the hearing, Meadows filed a Motion to Dismiss (Doc. No. [15]) and an Emergency Motion to enjoin his arrest in Fulton County, Georgia (Doc. No. [17]). The Motion to Dismiss remains outstanding on

the Court's Docket. The Court denied Meadows's Emergency Motion under 28 U.S.C. § 1455(b)(3), which expressly mandates that the state court criminal proceeding continues until the federal court notifies the state court that it has assumed federal jurisdiction over the prosecution. Doc. No. [25].

On August 28, 2023, the Court held a hearing on Meadows's Notice of Removal. Doc. No. [62]. Meadows personally testified⁴ and, through counsel, admitted a number of exhibits, including two declarations of persons who worked in the White House at the time he was the White House Chief of Staff and were familiar with his role in the administration as Chief of Staff. The State called Kurt Hilbert, an attorney who represented President Trump and the Trump campaign in 2020, and Georgia Secretary of State, Brad Raffensperger. The State also admitted a number of exhibits, including an audio recording of the January 2, 2021 phone call between President Trump, Secretary Raffensperger, and others, in which Meadows participated. State's Exhibit ("SX") 3.

At the conclusion of the hearing, the Court took the matter of its jurisdiction over the criminal

⁴ At a criminal trial, the State has the burden of proof. Thus, at a criminal defendant's trial on the merits, he never has the obligation of presenting a defense or testifying, and those choices can never be held against him. U.S. Const. amend. V. For a notice of removal, however, the Defendant has the burden of establishing subject matter jurisdiction. 28 U.S.C. § 1455(b)(5); *See Leonard v. Enter. Rent a Car*, 279 F.3d 967, 972 (11th Cir. 2002) ("A removing defendant bears the burden of proving proper federal jurisdiction."); *cf. also Maryland v. Soper*, 270 U.S. 9, 34 (1926) (discussing defendant's testifying in support of their notice of removal of a criminal indictment) (collecting cases).

prosecution under advisement. The Court subsequently ordered post-hearing briefing regarding the role of the Indictment's alleged overt acts for purposes of determining applicability of the federal officer removal statute. Doc. No. [63]. The Parties timely submitted the requested briefing. Doc. Nos. [66]; [67]. Having considered the arguments put forth by the Parties, the evidence submitted at the evidentiary hearing, and the briefing on this matter, the Court now enters this Order concluding that the Court lacks federal jurisdiction over Meadows's criminal prosecution.

II. LEGAL STANDARD

“[A] federal district court should be slow to act ‘where its powers are invoked to interfere by injunction with threatened criminal prosecutions in a state court.’” *Cameron v. Johnson*, 390 U.S. 611, 618 (1968) (quoting *Douglas v. City of Jeannette*, 319 U.S. 157, 162 (1943)). There is a “strong judicial policy against federal interference with state criminal proceedings.” *Arizona v. Manypenny*, 451 U.S. 232, 243 (1981) (quoting *Huffman v. Pursue, Ltd.*, 420 U.S. 592, 600 (1975)).

An exception to those general concepts of federalism is the federal officer removal statute, 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1). That statute, allows for federal jurisdiction over “a criminal prosecution . . . against . . . any officer (or any person acting under that officer) of the United States . . . for or relating to any act under color of such office.” Federal officer removal “is an incident of federal supremacy and is designed to provide federal officials with a federal forum in which to raise defenses arising from their

official duties.” *Florida v. Cohen*, 887 F.2d 1451, 1453 (11th Cir.1989) (citing *Willingham v. Morgan*, 395 U.S. 402,405 (1969)). However, because of a preference for state courts conducting their state prosecutions, removal of a state criminal prosecution requires a “more detailed showing” of the relation between the acts charged and the federal role at issue. *Willingham v. Morgan*, 395 U.S. 402, 409 n.4 (1969). Furthermore, federal courts must maintain a balance between what Section 1442 allows and respect for a State’s right to deal with matters properly within its domain.

Meadows removed this criminal prosecution under 28 U.S.C. § 1455, which provides the procedure for removing a state criminal prosecution to a federal district court. “28 U.S.C. § 1455 ‘merely provides procedures that must be followed in order to remove a criminal case from state court when a defendant has the right to do so under another provision.’” *Maine v. Counts*, No. 22-1841, 2023 WL 3167442, at *1 (1st Cir. Feb. 16, 2023) (quoting *Kruebbe v. Beevers*, 692 F. App’x 173, 176 (5th Cir. 2017) (per curiam)). Upon filing a notice of removal, the Court must promptly determine whether the notice and its attachments clearly fail to establish the Court’s subject matter jurisdiction, and if they do, the case is summarily remanded to state court. 28 U.S.C. § 1455(b)(4). If summary remand is not granted, then the district court must “promptly” hold an evidentiary hearing to determine the “disposition of the prosecution as justice shall require.” *Id.* § 1455(b)(5). Based on the facts adduced at the hearing and the arguments put forth by the Parties, the Court must determine whether the Defendant has met his burden in establishing that the Court has subject matter jurisdiction over his criminal

prosecution. *Trump*, 2023 WL 4614689, at *5 (citing *United Food & Comm. Workers Union v. CenterMark Props. Meriden Square, Inc.*, 30 F.3d 298, 301 (2d Cir. 1994)).

Under 28 U.S.C. § 1442, the question of the scope of a federal officer’s authority contains issues of law and fact. *See Nadler v. Mann*, 951 F.2d 301, 305 (11th Cir. 1992) (“[D]etermination[s] of whether an employee’s actions are within the scope of his employment involve[] a question of law and fact.”).

Ultimately, for removal under Section 1455 to be proper, the removing party must show that there is a basis for the federal court to exercise jurisdiction over the criminal prosecution. *See Leonard*, 972 F.3d at 972 (“A removing defendant bears the burden of proving proper federal jurisdiction.”). If the Court lacks federal jurisdiction, then the case cannot proceed in this forum.

The Supreme Court has cautioned that “an airtight case on the merits in order to show the required causal connection” is not required and that courts are to “credit” the movant’s “theory of the case” for the elements of the jurisdictional inquiry.⁵ *Jefferson Cnty. v. Acker*, 527 U.S. 423,432 (1999). “The point is only that the officer should have to identify as

⁵ The Court notes that this language in *Acker* refers to the colorable defense prong of the analysis. 527 U.S. at 432. It is unclear whether the theory of the case language applies to the second prong of the analysis. Nevertheless, the Court will evaluate the theory of the case as it relates to the color of office because at least one district court recently has applied it in this manner. *See Georgia v. Heinze*, 637 F. Supp. 3d 1316, 1322 (N.D. Ga. 2022).

the gravamen of the suit an act that was, if not required by, at least closely connected with, the performance of his official duties.” *Id.* at 447 (Scalia, J., dissenting).

III. ANALYSIS

To determine whether Meadows is able to remove based on federal officer jurisdiction pursuant to 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1), the Court must answer the following questions: (1) whether Meadows was a federal officer during the time of the allegations in the Indictment, (2) whether the charged conduct in the criminal prosecution were undertaken for or related to Meadows color of office,⁶ and (3) whether Meadows has put forth a colorable federal defense for the criminal prosecution. *Caver v. Cent. Ala. Elec. Coop.*, 845 F.3d 1138, 1142 (11th Cir. 2017).

The State concedes that at the time of the events alleged in the Indictment, Meadows was a federal officer and his role was the White House Chief of Staff. Hearing Tr. 251:12-17. Thus, the Court must next evaluate the second question of whether the acts in the Indictment relate to his role as White House Chief of Staff.

To determine whether the charged conduct was undertaken for, or related to Meadows’s color of office, the Court must: (A) define the act(s) allegedly undertaken by Meadows in the Indictment, (B) ascertain the scope of the federal officer role of the White House Chief of Staff, and (C) analyze whether

⁶ Acts taken under color of office, must be either “vested with, or appear to be vested with, the authority entrusted to that office.” *Color of Office*, *Black’s Law Dictionary* (11th ed. 2019).

Meadows showed that the act(s) in the Indictment were for or related to the role of the White House Chief of Staff.

A. The Federal Officer Removal Statute

The Court must define what constitutes an “act” under 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1). Then, the Court must assess how the “act” functions under the RICO statute. Finally, the Court will establish the contours of the act as they relate to Meadows in the Indictment.⁷

1. Section 1442: The Text and Precedent

The pertinent portion of § 1442(a)(1) provides: “[a] . . . criminal prosecution that is commenced in a State court and that is against or directed to . . . any officer . . . of the United States . . . in an official or individual capacity, for or relating to any act under color of such office” “may be removed by them to the district court of the United States.” The phrase “for or relating to any act under color of such office” modifies the earlier clause, “[a] criminal prosecution . . . that is directed against or directed to an officer” of the United States. 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1). This structure indicates that the criminal prosecution must arise from an act that is for or relating to the color of a federal office. Even if a criminal defendant can characterize individual instances of behavior as part of his official

⁷ This Court primarily focuses on the Indictment’s RICO charge because the other charge against Meadows, soliciting a violation of an oath by a public official, is also alleged as an overt act (with evidence submitted) in support of the RICO charge. *Compare* Doc. No. [1-1], 50 (Overt Act 112), *with id.* at 87 (Count 28).

duties within the broader charged conduct, this is not enough to convey subject matter jurisdiction on this Court. Put differently, facts indicating that a criminal defendant at times operated under the scope of his federal office will not provide this Court with subject matter jurisdiction under Section 1442 unless the State is criminally prosecuting the officer for those specific acts.

This interpretation is consistent with other courts' analyses. Specifically, courts have looked at whether the "claims" or the "charges" related to acts taken within the scope of the federal office.⁸ In *Nadler*, the Eleventh Circuit suggested that the district court had subject matter jurisdiction where "one *claim* is cognizable under Section 1442" 951 F.2d at 306 n.9 (emphasis added) (quoting *National Audubon Soc. v. Dep't of Water & Power*, 496 F. Supp. 499, 509 (E.D. Cal. 1980)). Therefore, the Court looks at (1) what the charges are against the federal officer, and (2) whether the charged conduct is for or relates to the color of the federal office.

The cases cited by Meadows support the proposition that courts look to the whole "claim" alleged, not just isolated facts supporting the claim, to determine whether Section 1442 has been satisfied. Doc. No. [67], 2 nn.1-3; *see also Heinze*, 637 F. Supp. 3d at 1323 ("[A] federal officer can remove a criminal proceeding commenced in a State court where the

⁸ "Claims" in civil actions correspond to "charges" in criminal prosecutions. *Cf. Kellogg Brown & Root Srvs. v. United States*, 575 U.S. 650, 653 (2015) ("[W]e must decide . . . whether the Wartime Suspension of Limitations Act applies only to criminal *charges* or also to civil *claims*." (emphasis added)).

criminal *charges* involve actions taken ‘in an official or individual capacity’” (quoting 28 U.S.C. § 1442(a)(1) (emphasis added)); *Ladies Mem’l Ass’n Inc. v. City of Pensacola*, No. 3:20CV5681/MCR/ZCB, 2023 WL 2561785, at *3 (N.D. Fla. Mar. 17, 2023) (“If the complaint contains ‘even one federal *claim*[,]’ then the defendant has ‘the right to remove the entire case.’” (alteration in original) (emphasis added) (quoting *Convent Corp. v. City of N. Little Rock*, 784 F.3d 479,483 (8th Cir. 2015))); *Sawyer v. Foster Wheeler LLC*, 860 F.3d 249, 257 (4th Cir. 2017) (finding removal where an officer asserts a federal defense to even one *claim*). Thus, the Court looks at the criminal charge to determine whether the charge relates to the scope of Meadows’s federal office.

“To satisfy the [scope of federal office] requirement, the officer must show a nexus, ‘a causal connection, between the charged conduct and asserted official authority.’ *Acker*, 527 U.S. at 431 (quoting *Willingham*, 395 U.S. at 409). The Supreme Court has articulated the following test for the “under color of office” requirement:

There must be a causal connection between what the officer has done under asserted official authority and the state prosecution. It must appear that the prosecution of him, for whatever offense, has arisen out of the acts done by him under color of federal authority and in enforcement of federal law, and he must by direct averment exclude the possibility that it was based on acts or conduct of his not justified by his federal duty.

Mesa v. California, 489 U.S. 121, 131-32 (1989) (quoting *Soper*, 270 U.S. at 32). Under Eleventh Circuit jurisprudence, a key factor in determining applicability of the federal officer removal statute “is whether there is a causal connection between [the State’s charges] and an act of Defendant [] that forms the basis of those claims.” *Caver*, 845 F.3d at 1144.

The Court notes that the RICO charge against Meadows presents a novel question in this case. Most cases invoking federal officer removal involve claims based on discrete actions taken by a defendant. For example, in *Heinze*, the defendants were charged with the discrete acts of felony murder, aggravated assault with a deadly weapon, burglary, false statements, and violation of oath by a public officer.” 637 F. Supp. 3d at 1318, nn.1-2. A RICO conspiracy, alternatively, involves wide-ranging allegations of licit and illicit activities, undertaken by an association of individuals, and in furtherance of a criminal enterprise. See Section (III)(A)(1) *infra*. The State’s prosecution in this case is illustrative: the conspiracy charged here is alleged to have occurred over many months, included at least 19 individuals, and encompassed 161 overt acts. Doc. No. [1-1].

Although RICO conspiracies are rarely removed under Section 1442, the Court is not without some precedent to guide the analysis. In 1982, the Eleventh Circuit evaluated whether an FBI agent, as a federal officer, had a federal immunity defense under the Supremacy Clause against a Georgia RICO charge. *Baucom v. Martin*, 677 F.2d 1346, 1347-48 (11th Cir.

1982).⁹ The Eleventh Circuit affirmed the district court, who found that the sole overt act alleged against the FBI agent related to bribing a state court judge. *Id.* at 1348-51. The district court found, and the Eleventh Circuit affirmed, the conduct charged against the FBI agent was taken within the scope of the agent's federal office because the bribery occurred during the execution of a state and federal criminal investigation into judicial corruption. *Id.*

On the other hand, the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals held that the district court did not err in declining to exercise jurisdiction under Section 1442 where “the heart of [the plaintiff]’s claims” did not relate to the scope of federal duty. *Mayor & City Council of Balt. v. BP P.L.C.*, 31 F.4th 178,234 (4th Cir. 2022). In that case, the civil complaint alleged that the defendants, as agents of the United States, contributed “to climate change by producing, promoting, selling, and concealing the dangers of fossil[-]fuel products.” *Id.* at 233 (alteration in original). The Fourth Circuit affirmed the district court’s finding that defendants did not show a basis for federal officer removal by looking at the complaint as a whole. The Fourth Circuit determined that while some activities were arguably within the scope the federal office (i.e., the production and concealment of hazardous fossil fuels was controlled or directed by a federal officer), the “lack of federal control over the production and sale of *all* fossil-fuel products is relevant to the nexus analysis.” *Id.* at 234. Moreover,

⁹ *Baucom* was not a removal case. Rather, it was a federal suit filed by the officer to preemptively prevent the commencement of a state criminal prosecution. *Baucom*, 677 F.2d 1346.

even if production and sales were controlled or directed by a federal officer, the “heart” of the claims asserted was concealment and misrepresentation—which did not remove to the defendant’s official duties. *Id.* Ultimately, the Fourth Circuit concluded that the activities relating to the official duties (i.e., production and sales) were “too tenuous” to the allegations of concealment and misrepresentation “to support removal under § 1442.” *Id.* at 234.

Thus, under the text of the statute, binding authority, and persuasive authority, the Court finds that “act” in the federal officer removal statute is best defined as the “heart” of the criminal charge. *BP PLC*, 31 F.4th at 234. With this in mind, the Court now turns to the charges at issue in this case.

2. The Georgia RICO Charge

The Indictment charges Meadows and his 18 Co-Defendants with engaging in a RICO conspiracy to violate RICO statute. RICO statute provides that it is unlawful “to conspire or endeavor to [‘conduct or participate in, directly or indirectly, such enterprise through a pattern of racketeering activity.’]” O.C.G.A. § 16-14-4(c) (quoting *id.* § 16-14-4(b)). An “enterprise” is defined as “any person . . . or association, or group of individuals associated in fact although not a legal entity[.]” *Id.* § 16-14-3(3). The enterprise itself need not be illicit. *Id.* For purposes of this case, a “[p]attern of racketeering activity” requires at least two acts of racketeering activity with “same or similar intents, results, accomplices, victims, or methods of commission or otherwise are interrelated by distinguishing characteristics and are not isolated incidents[.]” *Id.* § 16-14-3(4). “Racketeering activity”

includes the commission (or attempted commission or solicitation, coercion, or intimidation of another to commit) of a variety of Georgia criminal statutes. *See id.* § 16-14-3(5)(A). It also can include violations of certain types of state or federal laws outside the State of Georgia. *Id.* § 16-14- 3(5)(B)-(C).

The RICO *conspiracy* charge only requires, at the least, that one coconspirator commit an “overt act to effect the object of the conspiracy[.]” *Id.* § 16- 14-4(c)(1). While not specifically defined in the RICO statute, the Georgia Supreme Court has indicated that an overt act under the general conspiracy provision, O.C.G.A. § 16-14-8, means “a specific type of open or manifest act made in furtherance of a conspiracy to commit a crime.” *Bradford v. State*, 285 Ga. 1, 4, 673 S.E.2d 201, 204 (2009). Critically, for conspiracy crimes, “the indictment [need not] set forth the particulars of the overt act.” *State v. Pittman*, 302 Ga. App. 531, 535, 690 S.E.2d 661, 664 (2010) (quoting *Bradford v. State*, 283 Ga. App. 75, 78, 640 S.E.2d 630, 633 (2006), *rev’ d on other grounds Bradford*, 285 Ga. at 1, 673 S.E. at 203). Indeed, “the government is not required to prove the overt act specified in the indictment.” *Nordahl v. State*, 306 Ga. 15, 26, 829 S.E. 2d 99, 109 (2019). Nor, must the State ultimately prove that each co-conspirator defendant committed an overt act, so long as one co-conspirator committed overt acts in furtherance of the conspiracy. *Cf. Thomas v. State*, 215 Ga. App. 522, 523, 451 S.E.2d 516, 517 (1994).

In sum, to establish a RICO conspiracy the State only need prove that any co-conspirator committed one overt act in furtherance of the conspiracy, whether the

overt act was specifically charged in the Indictment or not. In other words, the State can prove its RICO charge against Meadows by showing any one of his co-Defendants committed *any* overt act in furtherance of the conspiracy—whether that overt act is in the Indictment or not.

The overt acts alleged against Meadows specifically “includ[e] but are not limited to” (Doc. No. [1-1], 20): attending a meeting with President Trump and Michigan officials about election fraud in Michigan (*id.* at 21 (Overt Act 5)), messaging a United States Representative from Pennsylvania (*id.* at 21 (Overt Act 6)), meeting with Pennsylvania legislators about an election-related special session (*id.* at 22 (Overt Act 9)), requesting a memo regarding “disrupting and delaying the joint session of Congress on January 6, 2021” when electors’ votes were to be counted (*id.* at 24 (Overt Act 19)), physically attending and observing a nonpublic Georgia election audit and recount (*id.* at 44 (Overt Act 92)), arranging a phone call between President Trump and the Georgia Secretary of State’s Chief Investigator regarding the Georgia presidential election results (*id.* (Overt Act 93)), messaging the Chief Investigator about the potential for a quicker signature verification of the Fulton County election results if “the [T]rump campaign assist[ed] financially” (*id.* at 45 (Overt Act 96)), and soliciting Georgia Secretary of State Brad Raffensperger to violate his oath of office by altering the certified returns for presidential electors (*id.* at 50 (Overt Act 112)); *see also id.* at 87 (Count 28 against Meadows under O.C.G.A. §§ 16-14-7 & 16-10-1)).

While the Indictment’s named overt acts are not elements of the RICO conspiracy charged, the Court still finds that they are relevant evidence of whether Meadows’s association with the enterprise related to his role as White House Chief of Staff. *See* Section (III)(C)(2) *infra*.

To clarify, under Georgia RICO, the overt acts are not elements of the RICO charge. They are used to illustrate the existence of the conspiracy and the various alleged co-conspirators’ association with the conspiracy. Georgia law makes clear that the State need not prove the existence of any particular overt act to prove its RICO claim, nor must the State prove any of the overt acts that are currently alleged in the Indictment. Because the “act” as defined by Section 1442(a)(1) means the charge against Meadows—under Georgia’s RICO statute—his criminal prosecution is removable when his association with the conspiracy relates to the color of his federal office.

3. The Alleged Act Taken for Purposes of Federal Officer Removal

Federal officer removal is appropriate when the gravamen, or “heart” of the charge relates to the federal office. *BP P.L.C.*, 31 F.4th at 234. As stated above, the Court determines that the actual “act” alleged against Meadows is the RICO charge, not the overt acts. Section 1442 requires the Court to determine if Meadows was acting within the scope of his federal office in the alleged act of associating with a conspiracy to violate various Georgia criminal statutes. Put differently, the act at issue for purposes of the Indictment’s RICO charge is Meadows’s alleged *association* with the conspiracy. The overt acts,

however, “by and large . . . only serve to tell a broader story about” the conspiracy to “unlawfully change the outcome of [the 2020 presidential] election in favor of [President] Trump” but they are “not the source of [criminal] liability.” *Id.* at 233; Doc. No. [1-1], 14.

The Court acknowledges that, even though it was not required, the State chose to include these overt acts in the Indictment. Unsurprisingly, Meadows structured his evidentiary presentation to the Court and his briefing around the eight overt acts in which he is mentioned. Following the hearing, the Court itself ordered supplemental briefing on the issue of whether a finding that some, but not all overt act(s) involving Meadows acting under color of federal office was enough to trigger the removal statute. Doc. No. [63]. And to be sure, defining Meadows’s “act” as associating with the alleged RICO conspiracy does not preclude assessing the overt acts alleged. *See Baucom*, 677 F.2d at 1346 (evaluating the overt acts alleged against the FBI agent to determine whether his involvement in the conspiracy was for his federal duties). Accordingly, the Court’s subsequent discussion of the “relating to” requirement for federal officer removal includes an analysis of the overt acts in order to determine whether Meadows’s association with the alleged conspiracy (the conduct for which he was charged) related to the scope of his federal duties.

Because the inquiry hinges on whether Meadows’s association with the conspiracy related to the color of his office, however, jurisdiction is not conferred simply because a single overt act relates to Meadows’s federal office. After all, the Indictment alleges a series of associative acts spanning over a

year, and the overt acts attributed to Meadows span three months. Doc. No. [1-1], 15-71. Undoubtedly, during that time Meadows performed actions for or that related to the color of his office. But the relevant inquiry is what activities go the *heart* of Meadows's participation in the enterprise and whether those activities relate to the scope of his federal office. If they do not, then Meadows cannot satisfy his burden of establishing subject matter jurisdiction under the federal officer removal statute.

B. Meadows's Role as a Federal Officer

Having defined the "act" at issue for federal officer removal, the Court now turns to Meadows's federal office and its scope. This inquiry is necessary because the authority of Meadows's office will dictate the scope of the duties associated with that role. At the evidentiary hearing, Meadows testified broadly to the scope of his role as White House Chief of Staff; he also offered two declarations to further describe the Chief of Staff's role. Hearing Tr. 9:8 (commencing Meadows's testimony), 156:19-158:24 (admitting the two declarations as DX 3 and 4).¹⁰ Meadows also testified about his role specifically in reference to the Indictment's overt acts.

1. The White House Chief of Staff Role

Meadows was the White House Chief of Staff and Assistant to President Trump from March 30, 2020

¹⁰ The Court admitted these declarations over the State's objection and indicated that it would assess the weight to be given the declarations given they are unsworn and unnotarized. Hearing Tr. 158:23-24. In this Order, the Court considers these declarations but affords their contents most weight when corroborated by other testimony or evidence.

until January 20, 2021. DX 1; Hearing Tr. 9:25-10:3. His official title was “[A]ssistant to the President and Chief of Staff.” *Id.* at 13:8-10; DX 1. He described himself as “the senior official in charge of the Executive Office of the President.” Hearing Tr. 14:3-5; *see also* DX 3 ¶ 3 (indicating Meadows had “broad responsibilities” including “advising and assisting the President and managing the staff of the White House Office within the Executive Office of the President”); DX 4 ¶ 4 (asserting that Meadows “[was] responsible for keeping the trains running on time for the White House [and] the Executive Branch of the federal government”). Meadows described his position to require “oversee[ing] all the federal operations,” which extended to actions taken inside of and outside of the West Wing. Hearing Tr. 13:10-12.

Specifically, Meadows testified that he was part of “almost every meeting” with the President, either as a “principal” or as an “observer.” *Id.* at 16:8-10; DX 4 ¶ 6 (“Meadows’s general practice was to attend many but not all the meetings between the President and other parties, regardless of subject matter.”). In meetings, “principals” may “have a particular position” regarding a “particular issue” and would “try to show the pros and cons of [the] arguments so that some resolution could be made.” Hearing Tr. 19:1-8. Even as an “observer,” he attended the President’s meetings because his job required him to “try to be aware of everything [in the meeting] . . . even if [he] was not a principal[.]” Hearing Tr. 16:10-15; DX 4 ¶ 5 (“Meadows was responsible for administering the planning and scheduling of the President’s meetings, telephone conferences, and other engagements, regardless of subject matter.”). These meetings might

include “members of Congress, other executive branch officials[, and] state or local government officials.” Hearing Tr. 21:12-20; *see also* DX 3 ¶ 5 (indicating the Chief of Staff was “responsible for managing the President’s calendar, arranging meetings, calls, and other discussions with federal, state, and local officials, as well as private citizens”).

Meadows testified that as Chief of Staff he had to “be aware of the President’s schedule.” Hearing Tr. 19:16. This meant he would “move meetings along . . . do the wrap-up . . . and bring things to a close where there was an action item[.]” *Id.* at 19:16-22. If other executive branch staff were in the meeting to ensure it efficiently ended, then Meadows’s involvement might be limited to a “quick pop in” on the meeting. *Id.* at 20:19-25.

Meadows asserts that another function of Meadows’s role as White House Chief of Staff was “to be generally aware of what’s going on” because he often was called upon to give the President advice. *Id.* at 19:23-20:7, 45:8-11. It also helped Meadows “prioritize [the President’s] time” and “skate to where the p[uck] is” on certain issues. *Id.* at 33:20-24.

Meadows also testified that as White House Chief of Staff he was bound by the Hatch Act¹¹ and he could not engage in political activity. Hearing Tr. 39:7-25; 135:21-136:5. As discussed more fully below, the Hatch Act prohibits “an employee” from “us[ing] his official authority or influence for the purpose of

¹¹ To be clear, no Hatch Act violation has been charged against Meadows. And the Court is not determining if Meadows violated the Act, or if there is any merit to a potential Hatch Act claim.

affecting the result of an election.” 5 U.S.C. § 2732(a)(1). This includes, “[u]sing his or her official title while participating in political activity.” 5 C.F.R. § 734.302(b)(2). And political activity is defined as, “activity directed toward the success or failure of a political party, candidate for partisan political office, or partisan political group.” *Id.* § 734.101.

The Court finds that the color of the Office of the White House Chief of Staff did not include working with or working for the Trump campaign, except for simply coordinating the President’s schedule, traveling with the President to his campaign events, and redirecting communications to the campaign. Thus, consistent with his testimony and the federal statutes and regulations, engaging in political activities is exceeds the outer limits of the Office of the White House Chief of Staff.

2. Meadows’s Testimony and Theory of the Case

Meadows’s theory of the case is that he is entitled to immunity because the Indictment relates to his role as White House Chief of Staff. Doc. No. [1]. As part of his direct and cross examination testimony, Meadows addressed how the overt acts related to his specific federal role as the White Chief of Staff. Ultimately, Meadows concluded that, based on the topics and circumstances discussed in his testimony, he had not done anything outside the scope of his role as the White House Chief of Staff. Hearing Tr. 111:18-19. However, he did admit that there could be activities the President requested which would be outside of the scope of the role a. *Id.* at 112:15-113:11.

While the Court credits Meadows's testimony about his role as White House Chief of Staff, it will give greater weight to the testimony of specific tasks that he outlined as within the scope of his office (i.e., time management, attending meetings, briefing the President, etc.). Meadows testified consistently about these duties on both direct and cross-examinations. Additionally, these duties are corroborated by the Declarations filed in support of Meadows's Notice of Removal (DXs 3, 4). However, the Court gives less weight to his assertions that all actions he took were within the scope of his office. When questioned about the scope of his authority, Meadows was unable to explain the limits of his authority, other than his inability to stump for the President or work on behalf of the campaign. Hearing Tr. 111:12-113:6. The Court finds that Meadows did not adequately convey the outer limits of his authority, and thus, the Court gives that testimony less weight.¹²

C. RICO: Meadows Was Not Acting Under Color of Office

The Court now turns to whether the acts alleged against and taken by Meadows are related to the color

¹² In this case, Meadows was the main witness presenting testimony for his case. Thus, the Court must determine the appropriate amount of weight to assign to his testimony when evaluating it, the same as it does any other witness in an evidentiary hearing. However, given the nature of the motion, and the pending criminal proceedings the Court makes these decisions with great caution. The determinations here do not go to Meadows's propensity to be truthful as a general matter. However, the Court cannot undertake the task assigned by 28 U.S.C. § 1455(b)(5) without assigning the appropriate weight to the testimony.

of his office as White House Chief of Staff. It ultimately concludes that the relevant acts are outside the scope of Meadows's federal office.

1. Federal and Statutory Limitations Regarding the Scope of the Office of White House Chief of Staff

a) Constitutional requirements

The Constitution does not provide any basis for executive branch involvement with State election and post-election procedures. The Elections Clause expressly reserves the “Times, Places, and Manner” of elections to state legislatures. U.S. Const. art. I, § 4, cl. 1; *see also Shelby Cnty. v. Holder*, 570 U.S. 529, 543 (2013) (“[T]he Framers of the Constitution intended the States to keep for themselves, as provided in the Tenth Amendment, the power to regulate elections.” (quoting *Gregory v. Ashcroft*, 501 U.S. 452, 461-62 (1991)); *U.S. Term Limits, Inc. v. Thornton*, 514 U.S. 779, 833-34 (1995) (“[T]he Framers understood the Elections Clause as a grant of authority [to state legislatures] to issue procedural regulations, and not as a source of power to dictate electoral outcomes, to favor or disfavor a class of candidates, or to evade important constitutional restraints.”). States have been tasked under the Elections Clause to “provide a complete code” for elections which ought to include “regulations ‘relat[ing] to . . . prevention of fraud and corrupt practices [and] counting of votes” *Moore v. Harper*, 600 U.S. ----, 143 S. Ct. 2065, 2085 (2023) (quoting *Smiley v. Holm*, 285 U.S. 355, 366 (1932)). This is not a power incident to a State’s police powers but “derives from an express grant in the

Constitution.” *Fish v. Kobach*, 840 F.3d 710, 727 (10th Cir. 2016).

Courts have previously faced tough questions in cases involving Congress’s power to use its lawmaking authority to oversee or empower the States in their duties under the Elections Clause. *Cf. e.g., id.* at 725-26 (“The Supreme Court has recently and repeatedly reaffirmed that ‘the power the Elections Clause confers is none other than the power to preempt[]’ . . .” The Clause is a default provision; it invests the States with responsibility for the mechanics of congressional elections, but only so far as Congress declines to preempt state legislative choices.” (quoting *Arizona v. Inter Tribal Council of Ariz., Inc.*, 571 U.S. 1, 14-15 (2013) (first quotation); *Foster v. Love*, 522 U.S. 67, 69 (1997) (second quotation))). Indeed, when the Supreme Court has discussed federal power limiting States’ authority over elections, it has cited to *congressional* power, not executive power. *See, e.g., Shelby Cnty.*, 570 U.S. at 543.

Conversely, there are no similar close calls presented when executive authority is at issue. As a constitutional matter, executive power does not extend to overseeing states’ elections.¹³ Apart from

¹³ The only potential constitutional authority, the Take Care Clause, does not enable the type of election oversight to which the State’s Indictment pertains. *See* U.S. Const. art. II, § 3 (“[The President] shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed[.]”). Yet, executive authority under the Take Care Clause “does not extend to government officials over whom [the Executive] has no power or control.” *Thompson v. Trump*, 590 F. Supp. 3d 46, 78 (D.D.C. 2022). The Court accordingly rejects Meadows’s suggestion that the Take Care Clause provides a basis

spheres where federal supremacy supersedes, “States function as political entities in their own right.” *Bond v. United States*, 564 U.S. 211, 221 (2011). Here, there is *clear constitutional authority* delegating the procedures of elections to the States. *See* Const. art. I, § 4, cl. 1. Thus, the executive branch cannot claim power to involve itself in States’ election procedures when the Constitution clearly grants the States the power to manage elections under the Elections Clause.

b) Statutory requirements

Statutorily, the Hatch Act is helpful in defining the outer limits of the scope the White House Chief of Staff’s authority. The State argues, and Meadows agrees, that he is bound by the Hatch Act, a law that prohibits federal employees from engaging in political activity. Doc. No. [27]; Hearing Tr. 136:3-5. While the Court does not rely on the merits of a Hatch Act

for finding executive authority over state election procedures. Doc. No. [45], 9-10.

The Court is also unpersuaded by Meadows’s contention that his acts involving state election procedures are within executive power to advise Congress. Doc. No. [45], 10. It would be inconsistent with federalism and the separation of powers, to find that activities which are delegated to the states are also within the scope of executive power because the executive branch may advise Congress. *Cf. Fish*, 840 F.3d at 725-26 (“The [Elections] Clause is a default provision; it invests the States with responsibility for the mechanics of congressional elections, but *only so far as Congress* declines to preempt state legislative choices.” (quoting *Foster*, 522 U.S. at 69)). The Court will not find that the executive branch has some advisory authority in this space in light of the *express* constitutional grant over elections to the States.

violation, it does recognize that the Hatch Act provides that political activity is not included in the outer limits of the role of the White House Chief of Staff. The Hatch Act prohibits executive branch employees from “us[ing] [their] official authority or influence for the purpose of interfering with or affecting the result of an election[.]” 5 U.S.C. § 7323(a)(1). The federal regulation governing political activities of federal employees prohibits the same. 5 C.F.R. § 734.302(a). The regulation, moreover, broadly defines “political activity” to be “activity directed toward the success or failure of a political party, candidate for partisan political office, or partisan political group.” *Id.* § 734.101. The types of behaviors that Meadows is alleged to be involved in included post-election activities and election outcomes in various States pertaining to a particular candidate for office. If these potentially political activities indeed come against the Hatch Act, its regulations limit such efforts. These prohibitions on executive branch employees (including the White House Chief of Staff) reinforce the Court’s conclusion that Meadows has not shown how his actions relate to the scope of his federal executive branch office. Federal officer removal is thereby inapposite.

2. Meadows’s Has Not Met His Burden in Establishing the Acts Are Related to His Federal Office

Even under the “quite low” bar for federal officer removal, the Court concludes that Meadows has not met his burden to show that his criminal prosecution can be removed under the federal officer removal statute. “Although the words ‘acting under’ are ‘broad,’

the Supreme Court has emphasized that they are not ‘limitless.’” *BP PLC*, 31 F.4th at 228-29 (quoting *Watson v. Philip Morris Cos., Inc.*, 551 U.S. 142, 150 (2007)); *Acker*, 527 U.S. at 447 (Scalia, J., dissenting) (opining that the act that forms the basis of “the gravamen of the suit . . . [is] at least closely connected with, the performance of his official functions.”).

The Court concludes that Meadows has not met even the “quite low” threshold for removal. Again, what the Court must decide for purposes of federal officer removal is whether the actions Meadows took as a participant in the alleged enterprise (the charged conduct) were related to his federal role as White House Chief of Staff. The evidence adduced at the hearing establishes that the actions at the heart of the State’s charges against Meadows were taken on behalf of the Trump campaign with an ultimate goal of affecting state election activities and procedures. Meadows himself testified that working for the Trump campaign would be outside the scope of a White House Chief of Staff. Hearing Tr. 113:2-6.

As the Court has also explained, the overt acts are merely illustrative in nature and not elements of the crimes charged against Meadows. Nevertheless, the overt acts are set out in the Indictment and Meadows shaped his entire evidentiary presentation around them. Therefore, the Court will assess each of Meadows’s overt acts to factually determine if they fall within the scope of Meadows role as a federal officer.

The Court finds Meadows only carried his burden in showing that one of the eight overt acts attributed to Meadows could have occurred within the scope of Meadows’s federal office. Overt Act 6 provides that

Meadows “sent a text message to United States Representative Scott Perry from Pennsylvania and stated, ‘Can you send me the number for the speaker and the leader of PA Legislature[?] POTUS wants to chat with them.’” Doc. No. [1-1], 21. Because Overt Act 6 is phrased so broadly, it is conceivable that it encompasses an activity that is within the scope of Meadows’s federal duties. Meadows testified that as part of his role as Chief of Staff, he would retrieve phone numbers of various state officials. Hearing Tr. 47:8-10 (“I was asked on a pretty regular occasion for numbers . . .”). The omission in the Indictment of the context Meadows sought this phone number, when coupled with the testimony that retrieving phone numbers for state officials was a routine part of his role as Chief of Staff, leaves the Court to conclude Overt Act 6 arguably occurred within the scope of Meadows’s duties as White House Chief of Staff.

The Court finds that the evidence presented does not show that most of the remaining overt acts were related to the scope of Meadows’s role as Chief of Staff.¹⁴ The procedures States utilize to conduct

¹⁴ At the hearing, Meadows disputed the merits of Overt Acts 9 and 19. Hearing Tr. 43:10-49:9, 73:18-22, 50:4-9. With respect to Overt Act 9, he disputed that he participated in the November 25, 2020 meeting with the Pennsylvania Legislatures. Hearing Tr. 43:10-49:9, 73:18-22. Similarly, Meadows disputed that he asked McEntee for the memorandum as alleged in the Indictment. Hearing Tr. 50:4-9; Doc. No. [1-1], 24 (Overt Act 19). Meadows is not required to show that he is innocent of the charges against him to successfully remove his case. *Soper*, 270 U.S. at 32-33. Neither is the State required to prove the overt acts as part of its burden of proof at trial. *See* Section (III)(A)(2) *supra*. Accordingly, to the extent necessary, the Court treats the evidence propounded in support of Overt Acts 9 and 19 as neutral

elections and ensure results are not part of the executive branch's role or powers. *See* Section (III)(C)(1)(a) *supra*. As a senior official in the executive branch, therefore, Meadows cannot have acted in his role as a federal officer with respect to any efforts to influence, interfere with, disrupt, oversee, or change state elections: those activities are expressly delegated to the States.

Overt Act 96 alleges that Meadows sent a text message to the Office of the Georgia Secretary of State's Chief Investigator Frances Watson¹⁵ asking, "[i]s there a way to speed up Fulton County signature verification in order to have results before Jan 6 if the [T]rump campaign assists financially." Doc. No. [1-1], 45. At the hearing, Meadows testified that no federal funds would be available to the Trump campaign to support this request. Hearing Tr. 93:10-12. Nevertheless, Meadows testified that he was not speaking for the campaign in this message, but that it was "in keeping of me trying to ask a person who should know whether it's a financial resource issue, you know, manpower issue or whatever. So I wasn't speaking on behalf of the campaign." *Id.* at 93:3-6.

Meadows failed to provide sufficient evidence that these actions related to any legitimate purpose of the executive branch. The Court determines as a matter of fact, making a request to the Georgia Secretary of State's Office regarding a possibility that the Trump

to the determination of whether particular Overt Acts were within the scope of Meadows's federal office.

¹⁵ At the hearing, Meadows testified that he believed the message was to Ms. Jordan Fuchs, not Ms. Watson. Hearing Tr. 90:1-6.

campaign could provide financial resources to fund the recount effort, even if not directly on behalf of the campaign, is still campaign-related political activity. Thus, Meadows has not met his burden in establishing that Overt Act 96 related to the scope of his official duties.

Similarly, Overt Act 92 alleges that Meadows traveled to Cobb County, Georgia where he “attempted to observe the signature match audit being performed there by law enforcement officers from the Georgia Bureau of Investigations and the Office of the Georgia Secretary of State.” Doc. No. [1-1], 44. Meadows testified that his actions with respect to this allegation were:

in line with [his duties], because what I did was go to the Cobb County convention center to look at the process that they were going through. And in doing so was trying to, again, check that box to say, all right, everything is being done right here, and so if there’s allegations of fraud, we need to move on to something else.

Hearing Tr. 152:4-17. The Court factually finds that Meadows overseeing State election recount processes related to President Trump’s reelection campaign. Meadows failed to provide sufficient evidence that these actions related to any legitimate purpose of the executive branch. Accordingly, the Court finds Meadows has not met his burden in establishing that Overt Act 92 is related to scope of the Office of White House Chief of Staff.

Overt Act 112 alleges that Meadows participated in the January 2, 2021 phone call with Donald Trump

and Secretary Raffensperger to unlawfully solicit the Secretary of State to alter the certified returns for the presidential electors for the November 3, 2022 presidential election. Doc. No. [1-1], 51. At the hearing Meadows rationalized his involvement in this call as seeking a compromise and settlement of the Trump campaign's suit against the State of Georgia. He testified "this phone call, setting it up with the attorneys where they could find some kind of compromise" Hearing Tr. 108:14-17. He acknowledged that the lawyers on the phone call were lawyers for either the President Trump personally or the Trump campaign and that no lawyers from the Office of White House Counsel or the Department of Justice were on the call. *Id.* at 107:11-108:1; 210:3. The Supreme Court has instructed that involvement in private litigation is not part of the executive branch's role or powers. *See Clinton v. Jones*, 520 U.S. 681, 702 n.36 (1997). Therefore, based on the evidence presented, the Court finds that the January 2, 2021 phone call was made regarding private litigation brought by President and his campaign against the State of Georgia. It was therefore outside Meadows's federal role as an executive branch officer.

Furthermore, another participant on the call, Raffensperger testified that "[t]hose were Trump campaign lawyers [on the call], so I felt that it was a campaign call." *Id.* 210:2-3. In the same vein, Meadows's participation in the phone call clearly reflects campaign-related interests. He said:

Mr. Secretary, obviously there is, there are allegations where we believe that not every vote or fair vote and legal vote was -- was --

counted and that's at odds with the representation from the secretary of state's office. What I'm hopeful for is there some way that we can find some kind of agreement to look at this a little bit more fully. You know the president mentioned Fulton County. But in some of these areas where there seems to be a difference of where the facts seem to lead, and so Mr. Secretary, I was hopeful that, you know, in the spirit of cooperation and compromise is there something that we can at least have a discussion to look at some of these allegations to find a path forward that's less litigious?

SX 3, 12:49-14:00. The record is clear that Meadows substantively discussed investigating alleged fraud in the November 3, 2022 presidential election. Therefore, the Court finds that these contributions to the phone call with Secretary Raffensperger went beyond those activities that are within the official role of White House Chief of Staff, such as scheduling the President's phone calls, observing meetings, and attempting to wrap up meetings in order to keep the President on schedule. Rather, Meadows's participation on the January 2, 2021 call was political in nature and involved the President's private litigation, neither of which are related to the scope of the Office of White House Chief of Staff. By failing to adduce evidence that these actions related to any legitimate purpose of the executive branch, Meadows did not satisfy the burden of showing that these actions related to the color of his office.

Finally, the Court finds that activities by Meadows—even if characterized as scheduling meetings or phone calls or taken for the purpose of advising the President—are “political activities” under the pertinent regulations if they were for the purpose of furthering the common objective of success of a particular presidential candidate. *See* 5 C.F.R. § 734.101. Overt Acts 5 and 93 relate to attending and scheduling meetings and placing phone calls. Doc. No. [1-1], 21-22, 44. The Court finds that the underlying substance of those meetings and calls were related to political activities and not to the scope of Meadows’s federal office.

For the meeting with Michigan state officials, Meadows testified that he recalled “most of that [meeting] had to do with allegations of potential [election] fraud in Michigan”¹⁶ Hearing Tr. at 44:20-22; *see also id.* at 64:2-7. He also acknowledged that “President Trump had a personal interest in the outcome of the election in Michigan.” *Id.* at 63:12-15; *see also id.* at 64:8-13. Accordingly the meeting in Overt Act 5 was outside the scope of his federal executive branch office as they related to State election procedures following the presidential election.

¹⁶ Meadows later testified that he did not know of any specific election challenge in Michigan by the Trump campaign or the federal government. Hearing Tr. 57:21-58:4. He further clarified however that “[Trump] was concerned about the election results, but in terms of a lawsuit, [Meadows was] not aware of it.” *Id.* at 63:22-24. The Court finds Meadows’s knowledge of President Trump’s concern about the election sufficient to find that, at the time of this meeting, Meadows had a general awareness of the postelection activities in Michigan regarding the state’s election procedures.

The Court also finds that Overt Act 93 was outside the scope of Meadows's federal executive role. Overt Act 93 alleges that Meadows arranged a phone call between President Trump and the Georgia Secretary of State's Chief Investigator. Meadows admits to arranging this phone call. Hearing Tr. 53:17-20. Meadows later testified that he received this phone number either through his attendance of the Cobb County election recount or by his primary contact at the Georgia Secretary of State's Office. Hearing Tr. 89:15-24. Meadows failed to provide sufficient evidence that these actions related to any legitimate purpose of the executive branch. Accordingly, the Court finds that Meadows failed to carry his burden in showing that Overt Act 93 was in the scope of Meadow's official role as Chief of Staff.

As set forth above, the Court finds insufficient evidence to establish that the gravamen, or a heavy majority of overt acts alleged against Meadows relate to his role as White House Chief of Staff. The State has put forth evidence that at various points during the time of the alleged conspiracy Meadows worked with the Trump campaign, which he admitted was outside of the role of the White House Chief of Staff. See SX 3 12:49-14:00. Tr. 91:11-20; 95:19-96:23. In light of the State's evidence that Meadows undertook actions on behalf of the campaign during the time period of the alleged conspiracy, Meadows was required to come forward with competent proof of his factual contention that his actions involving challenges to the outcome of the Georgia's Presidential election results were within his role as Chief of Staff. His efforts fall short. See *Mesa*, 489 U.S. at 131-32 ("There must be a causal connection between what the

officer has done under asserted official authority and the state prosecution. It must appear that the prosecution of him, for whatever offense, has arisen out of the acts done by him under color of federal authority and in enforcement of federal law, and he must by direct averment exclude the possibility that it was based on acts or conduct of his not justified by his federal duty.”).

Instead, the evidence before the Court overwhelmingly suggests that Meadows was not acting in his scope of executive branch duties during most of the Overt Acts alleged. Even if Meadows took on tasks that mirror the duties that he carried out when acting in his official role as White House Chief of Staff (such as attending meetings, scheduling phone calls, and managing the President’s time) he has failed to demonstrate how the election-related activities that serve as the basis for the charges in the Indictment are related to any of his official acts. As the substance of the overt acts constituted a significant part of Meadows’s testimony and proof of his acting within the scope of his federal office, the Court concludes that based on the factual evidence, Meadows was not acting in the scope of his office for purposes of federal officer removal.

D. Count 28

Count 28 of the Indictment is substantively the same as Overt Act 112 in the RICO charge. *Compare* Doc. No. [1-1], 50, *with id.* at 87. The Court has already determined that the January 2nd phone call was not related to Meadows’s role as White House Chief of Staff. *See* Section III(C)(2) *supra*. For the same reasons, the Court determines that Meadows’s

participation on this phone call was not related to the color of the Office of the White House Chief of Staff. Thus, Meadows has not met his burden in establishing that Count 28 related to the color of his office and the Court lacks subject matter jurisdiction over that claim.

E. Federal Defenses

The third prong of Section 1442 removal requires the defendant to allege colorable federal defenses. Caver, 845 F.3d at 1145. Meadows asserts that he has immunity from the charges, under the Supremacy Clause, because he was acting pursuant to the scope of his office. In his Motion to Dismiss, he also asserts a First Amendment political speech defense and a Due Process defense. Doc. No. [15-1], 29-31. Because Meadows has failed to carry his burden with respect to the charged conduct's relationship to the scope of his federal office, the Court declines to address Meadows's defenses.¹⁷

F. Federalism

Finally, the Court finds support for its conclusion that Meadows was not acting in the scope of his federal officer role for the purpose of Section 1442. Federal officer removal's "'basic' purpose is to protect

¹⁷ The Superior Court may have to decide these issues at a later time, and evaluating them here should be avoided unless absolutely necessary. The "principle of federalism" shows "that federal courts must not interfere in state judicial processes because state courts of general jurisdiction are authorized and competent, as front-line fora, to adjudicate all relevant questions of both state and federal law." *Penthouse Intern., Ltd. v. Webb*, 594 F. Supp. 1186, 1192 (N.D. Ga. 1984) (citing *Younger v. Harris*, 401 U.S. 37, 43-44 (1971)).

the Federal Government from the interference with its ‘operations[.]’” *Watson*, 551 U.S. at 150 (2007). It “is an incident of federal supremacy and is designed to provide federal officials with a federal forum in which to raise defenses arising from their official duties.” *Caver*, 845 F.3d at 1142 (quoting *Cohen*, 887 F.2d at 1453). At least in the civil context, “[t]he removal statute itself merely serves to overcome the ‘well-pleaded complaint’ rule which would otherwise preclude removal even if a federal defense were alleged.” *Mesa*, 489 U.S. at 136.

Here, Section 1442’s purposes would not be fulfilled by removal. Meadows raises a federal officer immunity defense that the Indictment’s charged acts were made under his federal authority and directed at state actions. The Indictment’s associations and acts, as well as Meadows’s presented evidence, however, all indicate that federal officials (or those purporting to act on behalf of federal officials) engaged in post-election activities that clearly fall outside executive authority and expressly within the constitutional gamut of the States.

Assuming jurisdiction over this criminal prosecution would frustrate the purpose of federal officer removal when the state charges allege—not *state interference* with constitutionally protected federal activities, *but-federal interference* with constitutionally protected state actions. This result cannot stand in the face of federalism, “a concept which retains vitality and importance in our modern constitutional scheme,” and the Constitution’s express delegation of election activities to States. *United States v. Ballinger*, 395 F.3d 1218, 1248 (11th Cir.

2005) (Birch, J., dissenting). Thus, the purposes of federal officer removal are served, rather than thwarted, by the Court's conclusion that it has no jurisdiction over the removal of Meadows's criminal prosecution.

* * * *

As the foregoing analysis illustrates, the Court concludes that Meadows has not shown that the actions that triggered the State's prosecution related to his federal office. The Constitution, federal statute and regulation of executive branch employees, and the purpose of Section 1442 support this conclusion. Meadows's alleged association with post-election activities was not related to his role as White House Chief of Staff or his executive branch authority.

The Court acknowledges that federal officer's "relating to" requirement is "broad." *Caver*, 845 F.3d at 1144. The Court also acknowledges that "[f]ederal courts credit the removing party's theory of the case for purposes of determining if a federal officer both acted 'under color of office' and raised 'a colorable federal defense.'" *Heinze*, 637 F. Supp. 3d at 1322 (quoting *Acker*, 527 U.S. at 432). The Court does not take lightly these standards in rendering its conclusion that federal officer removal is not supported here. Rather, the Court concludes that if it were to agree with Meadows's arguments regarding removal, the Court would have to turn a blind eye to express constitutional power granted to the States to determine their election procedures, as well as federal statutory and regulatory limitations on political activities of executive branch officials. The Court would be ignoring the evidence Meadows himself

submitted of his post-election related activities and the purpose of the federal officer removal statute. It would be legally and factually erroneous for the Court to do so.

The Court makes clear this Order determines only that, as a federal court with limited jurisdiction, it lacks any basis for jurisdiction over Meadows's criminal prosecution. The Court's conclusion is not to suggest any opinion about the State's case against Meadows. The Court makes no ruling on the merits of the charges against Meadows or any defense that he may offer. Meadows maintains the presumption of innocence and bears no burden of proving that he did not commit the crimes charged against him. The burden of proof beyond a reasonable doubt remains with the State. This Order's sole determination is that there is no federal jurisdiction over the criminal case. The outcome of this case will be for a Fulton County judge and trier of fact to ultimately decide.

The Court also makes clear that its determination on Meadows's notice of removal and its jurisdiction over his criminal prosecution does not, at this time, have any effect on the outcome of the other co-Defendants who have filed notices of removal of the criminal prosecution against them.¹⁸ The Court will assess these Defendants' arguments and evidence following the forthcoming hearings on the notices of removal, independent of its conclusion in this Order.

IV. CONCLUSION

For the foregoing reasons, the Court **DECLINES** to assume jurisdiction over the State's criminal prosecution of Meadows under Section 1455 and **REMANDS** the case to Fulton County Superior

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Court. The Court also **DIRECTS** the Clerk of Court to **TERMINATE** all pending motions and **CLOSE** this case.

IT IS SO ORDERED this 8th day of September, 2023.

[handwritten: signature]
HONORABLE STEVE C. JONES
UNITED STATES DISTRICT
JUDGE

Appendix D

**RELEVANT CONSTITUTIONAL AND
STATUTORY PROVISIONS**

U.S. Const. art. VI, cl. 2

This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

28 U.S.C. §1442

(a) A civil action or criminal prosecution that is commenced in a State court and that is against or directed to any of the following may be removed by them to the district court of the United States for the district and division embracing the place wherein it is pending:

(1) The United States or any agency thereof or any officer (or any person acting under that officer) of the United States or of any agency thereof, in an official or individual capacity, for or relating to any act under color of such office or on account of any right, title or authority claimed under any Act of Congress for the apprehension or punishment of criminals or the collection of the revenue.

(2) A property holder whose title is derived from any such officer, where such action or prosecution affects the validity of any law of the United States.

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(3) Any officer of the courts of the United States, for or relating to any act under color of office or in the performance of his duties;

(4) Any officer of either House of Congress, for or relating to any act in the discharge of his official duty under an order of such House.

(b) A personal action commenced in any State court by an alien against any citizen of a State who is, or at the time the alleged action accrued was, a civil officer of the United States and is a nonresident of such State, wherein jurisdiction is obtained by the State court by personal service of process, may be removed by the defendant to the district court of the United States for the district and division in which the defendant was served with process.

(c) Solely for purposes of determining the propriety of removal under subsection (a), a law enforcement officer, who is the defendant in a criminal prosecution, shall be deemed to have been acting under the color of his office if the officer--

(1) protected an individual in the presence of the officer from a crime of violence;

(2) provided immediate assistance to an individual who suffered, or who was threatened with, bodily harm; or

(3) prevented the escape of any individual who the officer reasonably believed to have committed, or was about to commit, in the presence of the officer, a crime of violence that

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resulted in, or was likely to result in, death or serious bodily injury.

(d) In this section, the following definitions apply:

(1) The terms “civil action” and “criminal prosecution” include any proceeding (whether or not ancillary to another proceeding) to the extent that in such proceeding a judicial order, including a subpoena for testimony or documents, is sought or issued. If removal is sought for a proceeding described in the previous sentence, and there is no other basis for removal, only that proceeding may be removed to the district court.

(2) The term “crime of violence” has the meaning given that term in section 16 of title 18.

(3) The term “law enforcement officer” means any employee described in subparagraph (A), (B), or (C) of section 8401(17) of title 5 and any special agent in the Diplomatic Security Service of the Department of State.

(4) The term “serious bodily injury” has the meaning given that term in section 1365 of title 18.

(5) The term “State” includes the District of Columbia, United States territories and insular possessions, and Indian country (as defined in section 1151 of title 18).

(6) The term “State court” includes the Superior Court of the District of Columbia, a court of a United States territory or insular possession, and a tribal court.