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10 UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT  
11 EASTERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

12  
13 ITALIAN COLORS RESTAURANT,  
ALAN CARLSON, STONECREST GAS &  
14 WASH, SALAM RAZUKI,  
LAURELWOOD CLEANERS, LLC,  
15 JONATHAN EBRAHIMIAN, LEON'S  
TRANSMISSION SERVICE, INC.,  
16 VINCENT ARCHER, FAMILY LIFE  
CORPORATION d/b/a FAMILY  
17 GRAPHICS, TOSHIO CHINO,

18 Plaintiffs,

19 v.

20 KAMALA D. HARRIS, in her official  
capacity as Attorney General of the State of  
21 California,

22 Defendant.

Case No.: 14-cv-00604

**FIRST AMENDED COMPLAINT**

23  
24 **Introduction**

25 Every time a consumer uses a credit card to make a purchase, the merchant incurs a fee—  
26 known colloquially as a “swipe fee.” These fees are typically passed on to all consumers in the form  
27 of higher prices for goods and services. Both state and federal law, however, permit merchants to  
28

1 pass swipe fees on to only those consumers who pay with credit cards. Merchants may do so by  
2 charging two different prices depending on how the consumer pays: a higher price for using a credit  
3 card, and a lower price for using other payment methods (cash, a personal check, or a debit card).  
4 But, in California, merchants may engage in dual pricing only if they communicate the difference  
5 between the cash price and the credit price using the right *language*: A California law allows  
6 merchants to offer “discounts” for using cash or a debit card, yet makes it illegal to impose  
7 “surcharges” for using a credit card—even though the conduct in both cases (the use of dual pricing)  
8 is the same.

9 That “virtually incomprehensible distinction between what a vendor can and cannot tell its  
10 customers” has already caused one federal court to strike down New York’s indistinguishable  
11 statute as an impermissible restriction on free speech and as unconstitutionally vague. *Expressions*  
12 *Hair Design v. Schneiderman*, -- F. Supp. 2d --, 2013 WL 5477607, \*1 (S.D.N.Y. Oct. 3, 2013).  
13 And the only other federal court to consider state no-surcharge laws has signaled its agreement,  
14 calling the statutes “anti-consumer” and “irrational,” and finding “good reason to believe” that the  
15 remaining no-surcharge laws will be overturned. *In re Payment Card Interchange Fee & Merchant*  
16 *Discount Antitrust Litig.*, -- F. Supp. 2d --, 2013 WL 6510737, \*19- \*20 (E.D.N.Y. Dec. 13, 2013).

17 California’s no-surcharge law, CAL. CIV. CODE § 1748.1, is no different. Like New York’s, it  
18 violates the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution and is unconstitutionally vague. The  
19 plaintiffs are merchants who seek a declaration that the law is unconstitutional and an injunction  
20 preventing the State of California from enforcing the law against them.

### 21 Jurisdiction

- 22 1. This Court has jurisdiction under 28 U.S.C. §§ 1331 and 1343(a)(3).

### 23 Parties

24 2. Plaintiff Italian Colors Restaurant is an Italian restaurant in Oakland, California. For  
25 a small family business like Italian Colors, credit-card swipe fees make a huge difference. Italian  
26 Colors has found that, until they are educated on the issue, most consumers are not aware of the  
27 high cost of swipe fees or the ways in which they burden all sorts of small businesses. But when they  
28 learn of the fees, Italian Colors patrons are generally sympathetic. Italian Colors has therefore

1 sought to do what it can to ensure that consumers learn about the cost of using credit cards and take  
2 that information into account when they buy goods and services—not just at Italian Colors, but at  
3 businesses nationwide.

4 3. This concern over the sky-high cost of credit-card swipe fees led Italian Colors to  
5 serve as the lead plaintiff in a nationwide antitrust class action against American Express, a case that  
6 went to the U.S. Supreme Court and that ultimately resulted in a national settlement this past  
7 December under which American Express has finally agreed to drop its contractual no-surcharge  
8 rules. Under the terms of the injunctive relief in that case, merchants may charge different prices  
9 depending on whether customers pay with credit or with cash or debit, and may label that price  
10 difference as a “surcharge” or an “extra charge” for credit rather than a “discount” for cash or debit.

11 4. But despite this hard-won relief—and parallel relief that merchants have won forcing  
12 Visa and MasterCard to rescind their own no-surcharge rules—Italian Colors still may not charge  
13 different prices for cash and credit and label the difference a “surcharge” because California’s no-  
14 surcharge law bars Italian Colors from using that word. Italian Colors is aware that California’s law  
15 would allow it to engage in the same conduct and frame the price difference as a “discount” for  
16 cash. But that would make prices look higher than they are and would not, in Italian Colors’ view,  
17 most effectively convey the costs of credit to its customers. And the law’s discount/surcharge  
18 distinction is so vague that Italian Colors is afraid to have any dual pricing at all, lest it run afoul of  
19 the law. The restaurant would have to instruct its employees on the difference between a  
20 “surcharge” and a “discount,” which even its owners do not fully understand, and then constantly  
21 monitor the employees to make sure that each one is sticking to the script. Rather than risk the  
22 law’s wrath to say something that it believes is only marginally effective at communicating its  
23 message, Italian Colors stays away from dual pricing altogether.

24 5. Plaintiff Alan Carlson is the owner of Italian Colors Restaurant and is responsible  
25 for its day-to-day management.

26 6. Plaintiff Stonecrest Gas and Wash is a gas station, auto repair, car wash, and  
27 convenience store in San Diego, California. Stonecrest opened in 2004 and has been accepting  
28 credit cards since that time. A large portion of Stonecrest’s sales are on credit cards. In 2013 alone,

1 Stonecrest had nearly 16 million dollars of sales on credit cards. On average, the company pays  
2 between 2% and 3% of each transaction on credit-card swipe fees. These fees are a large operating  
3 expense for Stonecrest. When the company's owners first went into business, they were shocked at  
4 the high swipe fees that the credit-card companies were charging. They were further frustrated when  
5 they realized that small merchants were powerless to negotiate these fees, which are set on a take-it-  
6 or-leave-it basis.

7 7. Initially, Stonecrest included the expense of swipe fees in the prices paid by all of its  
8 customers—regardless of whether those customers paid in cash or credit. But charging a single price  
9 regardless of payment had the effect of hiding the true cost of credit and giving credit-card  
10 customers little incentive to switch to cash. In an effort to communicate the high cost of swipe fees  
11 to its customers and encourage them to pay with cash or debit, Stonecrest began offering a discount  
12 to customers who pay with cash or debit. When customers ask why they give a discount,  
13 Stonecrest's employees explain that it is because of the high fees that the credit-card companies  
14 charge the company when customers pay with a credit card. For the most part, Stonecrest's  
15 customers have been supportive and are often surprised to learn how much the company pays in  
16 merchant fees.

17 8. Stonecrest understands that, in light of the recent changes in the credit-card  
18 company's contractual rules, merchants are now permitted to label the difference between the cash  
19 price and the credit price as a "surcharge" rather than a "discount." Describing the price difference  
20 as a surcharge would, in Stonecrest's view, allow the company to effectively inform our customers  
21 about merchant fees in a manner that will cause them to pay attention. This is an important political  
22 and economic issue to Stonecrest and its owners and employees, and they want to be able to use  
23 the strongest messaging possible. Stonecrest believes that framing the price difference as a  
24 "surcharge" would be more effective, and would like to frame its prices in this way, but does not do  
25 so for fear of violating California's no-surcharge law.

26 9. Salam Razuki is the co-owner of Stonecrest Gas & Wash.

27 10. Laurelwood Cleaners, LLC is a family-owned business that operates Laurelwood  
28 Cleaners and Laundry in Studio City, California, and Milo's Cleaners and Laundry in North

1 Hollywood, California. Both locations accept all credit cards, and have done so since 1985. When  
2 a customer uses a credit card for payment, the company typically pays between 2% and 3% of the  
3 transaction total in swipe fees, and sometimes more. Even though it imposes a \$10 minimum for all  
4 credit-card transactions, most customers choose to pay using credit cards. The company therefore  
5 pays thousands of dollars each year in credit-card transaction fees. As a small dry cleaning business  
6 in Los Angeles, where rent is extraordinarily high and where the profit per item is usually no more  
7 than one dollar, these fees make a huge difference.

8 11. In the 1990s, Milo's charged a higher price to customers who used credit cards,  
9 which it expressed as an additional fee for credit-card use. However, it stopped the practice after  
10 several months because it learned that it was illegal in California to tell customers that credit  
11 transactions are more expensive than cash. If not for the law, Milo's would again charge different  
12 prices and explain the difference as a "surcharge" so that customers would be made aware of the  
13 high costs of credit that merchants pay in this country.

14 12. Jonathan Ebrahimian is owner of Laurelwood Cleaners LLC.

15 13. Leon's Transmission Service, Inc. provides transmission repair services at seven  
16 locations throughout Southern California. A substantial portion of the company's sales are paid  
17 with credit cards, and credit-card fees are one of its largest non-payroll-related operating expenses.  
18 Since 2004, Leon's has paid more than \$300,000 in interchange fees to Visa alone. The high cost  
19 led Leon's to consider requiring customers to pay in cash, but it determined that accepting credit  
20 cards was necessary to avoid losing customers to other transmission repair companies.

21 14. Leon's customers are generally unaware that it is very expensive for Leon's to accept  
22 credit cards, and are consistently surprised when told that there is a fee associated with credit-card  
23 purchases. Leon's would like to communicate to its customers the costs of accepting credit cards in  
24 the most effective way: by telling them that prices are higher if they use a credit card. It believes that  
25 communicating the cost of credit in this way would inform customers of the costs of credit and help  
26 guide them to other, cheaper payment forms. Leon's does not want to communicate this  
27 information by saying it provides a "discount" for using cash. Calling it a "discount" would make the  
28

1 company's advertised prices look higher than they are, without communicating the information it  
2 wants to communicate to customers: that the higher price is due solely to credit-card fees.

3 15. But Leon's cannot communicate the cost of credit in this way because of California's  
4 no-surcharge law. So it has instead decided to charge just one price for every good or service,  
5 regardless of whether the customer uses cash or credit. As a result, the costs of credit are built into  
6 the costs of all goods and services. If it were legal to communicate the cost of credit as a  
7 "surcharge," Leon's could instead offer a lower base price (with an additional surcharge for using a  
8 credit). Leon's believes that doing so would cause more customers to use a cheaper payment  
9 method than credit, saving both the company and its customers more money over time.

10 16. Leon's has been passionate about the issue of credit-card reform for more than 15  
11 years, focusing on ways it can reduce its credit-card-acceptance costs. In pursuit of that goal, Leon's  
12 has:

13 (a) beginning in 2002, successfully sued its then payment-card processor, Wells Fargo Bank,  
14 N.A., for the recovery of unauthorized fees in the California Superior Court, Los Angeles County;  
15 and

16 (b) beginning in 2005, served as a named plaintiff and class representative in *In re Payment*  
17 *Card Interchange Fee and Merchant Discount Litigation*, brought in the Eastern District of New  
18 York. A final settlement in that case was approved in December 2013. As a result of the settlement  
19 in that case, Visa and MasterCard have now changed their rules to allow merchants to communicate  
20 the difference between paying with a credit card and paying with cash as a "surcharge" for using  
21 credit—which is the most effective way of expressing the high cost of credit to customers. But Leon's  
22 and other merchants located in California are unable to take advantage of this settlement benefit  
23 because of California's no-surcharge law.

24 17. Vincent Archer is administrator and controller of Leon's. In that capacity, he is  
25 generally in charge of finances and is responsible for all matters related to credit-card acceptance for  
26 all of Leon's locations.  
27  
28

1           18.     Family Life Corporation, doing business as Family Graphics, is a California website-  
2 design company. The business also provides graphic-design and custom-print-work services, such as  
3 brochures, pamphlets, and business cards. Family Graphics began accepting credit cards in 1997.  
4 When a customer uses a credit card to pay for services, the company typically pays 3% to 4% of the  
5 transaction total to the credit-card company. Family Life would like to pass on these costs directly to  
6 customers by charging different prices depending on the method of payment used. The company  
7 does not do so, however, because California law makes it illegal to describe the pricing system as a  
8 “surcharge.” So it instead increases its prices for everyone, in order to account for the fact that a  
9 customer may use a credit card for payment, making its prices less competitive compared with large  
10 corporations.  
11

12           19.     Although Family Life could describe the differential pricing as a “discount,” that  
13 would not communicate the fees that the company pays for accepting credit cards and is not the  
14 way the company wants to characterize its prices to customers. Describing the differential pricing as  
15 a “surcharge” would inform customers that they are paying more solely because of those fees,  
16 allowing them to decide for themselves whether to incur them. In addition, Family Life’s customers  
17 are predominantly Japanese expatriates, and therefore it is difficult for the company to explain this  
18 subtle—but legally significant—difference in a manner that they are able to understand. Family Life is  
19 not willing to take the risk of violating California law because of how it truthfully describes its prices  
20 to our customers. If it became legal for Family Life to tell customers that it charges more for credit-  
21 card use, that is exactly what it would do.  
22

23           20.     Toshio Chino is one of the owners of Family Life Corporation.

24           21.     Defendant Kamala D. Harris is the Attorney General of California and is  
25 responsible for enforcing the laws of the State of California, including the state’s no-surcharge law.  
26 She is named in her official capacity only.  
27  
28

## Factual Background

1  
2 22. Americans pay some of the highest swipe fees in the world—seven or eight times  
3 those paid by Europeans, according to estimates by the Merchants Payments Coalition. The main  
4 reason swipe fees are so high is that they are kept hidden from consumers, who decide which  
5 payment method to use and thus determine whether a fee will be incurred in the first place.  
6 According to one survey, about 41% of American credit-card users are completely unaware that  
7 merchants are charged fees to process credit-card transactions. Although merchants are allowed to  
8 charge consumers more for using credit than for using cash, merchants cannot effectively  
9 communicate that added cost because California and other states force them to call it a “discount”  
10 for cash rather than a “surcharge” for credit.

11 23. California’s no-surcharge law makes it unlawful for any “retailer in any sales, service,  
12 or lease transaction with a consumer [to] impose a surcharge on a cardholder who elects to use a  
13 credit card in lieu of payment by cash, check, or similar means.” CAL. CIV. CODE § 1748.1(a).  
14 California’s no-surcharge law does *not*, however, outlaw dual pricing. The law expressly states that a  
15 retailer may “offer discounts for the purpose of inducing payment by cash, check, or other means  
16 not involving the use of a credit card, provided that the discount is offered to all prospective  
17 buyers.” *Id.*

18 24. Until 2013, California’s no-surcharge law was effectively redundant because credit-  
19 card companies imposed similar speech prohibitions in their contracts with merchants. But after  
20 federal antitrust litigation caused the three dominant credit-card companies (Visa, MasterCard, and  
21 American Express) to agree to change their contracts to remove their no-surcharge rules,  
22 California’s law took on added importance. It is now the only thing keeping the plaintiffs from  
23 saying what they would like: that they impose a “surcharge” for using credit because credit costs  
24 more.

### 25 I. Why labels matter: the communicative difference between “surcharges” and 26 “discounts”

27 25. A “surcharge” on credit and a “discount” for cash “are different frames for  
28 presenting the same price information—a price difference between two things.” Adam J. Levitin,



1 *Priceless?* *The Economic Costs of Credit Card Merchant Restraints*, 55 UCLA L. Rev. 1321, 1351-  
2 52 (2008). They are identical in every way except one: the *label* that the merchant uses to  
3 communicate that price difference.

4 26. But labels can matter. “[T]he frame within which information is presented can  
5 significantly alter one’s perception of that information, especially when one can perceive the  
6 information as a gain or a loss,” as with the price difference between using cash and using credit.  
7 Jon D. Hanson & Douglas A. Kysar, *Taking Behavioralism Seriously: Some Evidence Of Market*  
8 *Manipulation*, 112 Harv. L. Rev. 1420, 1441 (1999). This is largely because of a well-known  
9 cognitive phenomenon called “loss aversion,” which refers to people’s tendency to let “changes that  
10 make things worse (losses) loom larger than improvements or gains” of an equivalent amount.  
11 Daniel Kahneman, Jack L. Knetsch, & Richard H. Thaler, *Anomalies: The Endowment Effect,*  
12 *Loss Aversion, and Status Quo Bias*, 5 J. Econ. Persp. 193, 199 (1991). Put more simply: “people  
13 have stronger reactions to losses and penalties than to gains.” Adam J. Levitin, *The Antitrust Super*  
14 *Bowl: America’s Payment Systems, No-Surcharge Rules, and the Hidden Costs of Credit*, 3  
15 Berkeley Bus. L.J. 265, 280 (2006).

16 27. Because of this, “[c]onsumers react very differently to surcharges and discounts,”  
17 even though they present the exact same pricing information. *Id.* Consumers are more likely to  
18 respond to surcharges (which are perceived as *losses* for using credit) than to discounts (which are  
19 perceived as *gains* for not using credit). *Id.* Research shows just how wide this gap is. In one study,  
20 74% of consumers had a negative or strongly negative reaction to credit surcharges, while fewer than  
21 half had a negative or strongly negative reaction to cash discounts. That difference—the difference in  
22 how the same pricing information is understood by consumers—influences their behavior, making  
23 “surcharges” a much more effective way to communicate the costs of credit to consumers.

24 28. The effectiveness of surcharges is why the plaintiffs in this case seek to impose them:  
25 surcharges inform consumers of the costs of credit, letting consumers decide for themselves  
26 whether credit’s benefits outweigh its costs. That exchange of information creates meaningful  
27 competition, which in turn drives down costs—as demonstrated by price-transparency reforms in  
28 Europe and Australia. If consumers are made aware of swipe fees and determine that they are too

1 high, consumers will use a different payment method, and banks and credit-card companies will  
2 have to lower their fees to attract more business. Indeed, in Australia, where regulators in 2003  
3 allowed complete transparency of price information and merchants have responded with  
4 surcharges, swipe fees have greatly declined.

5 29. But when the government prohibits framing the added cost of credit as a  
6 “surcharge,” as California has done, merchants lose their most effective means of informing  
7 consumers of the high costs of credit. Moreover, because the dividing line between what constitutes  
8 a “surcharge” and what constitutes a “discount” is so blurry, many merchants (including many of the  
9 plaintiffs in this case) do not even attempt to offer dual pricing, even though the law allows it, to  
10 avoid accidentally subjecting themselves to liability. And many other merchants falsely believe that  
11 they may not offer any dual pricing at all. The upshot, then, is that merchants end up passing on  
12 swipe fees to *all* consumers by raising the prices of goods and services across the board. This means  
13 that consumers are unaware of how much they pay for credit and have no incentive to reduce their  
14 credit-card use because they will pay the same price regardless. As a result, swipe fees have soared.

15 30. Swipe fees thus function as an invisible tax, channeling vast amounts of money from  
16 consumers to some of the nation’s largest banks and credit-card companies. Because cash and  
17 credit purchasers both pay this tax, swipe fees are also highly regressive: low-income cash  
18 purchasers subsidize the cost of credit cards, while enjoying none of their benefits or convenience.  
19 According to Federal Reserve economists, “[b]y far, the bulk of [this subsidy] is enjoyed by high-  
20 income credit card buyers,” who receive an average of \$2,188 every year, paid disproportionately by  
21 poor and minority households. The result is a regime in which food-stamp recipients are  
22 subsidizing frequent-flier miles.

23 31. For these reasons, numerous prominent economists and consumer advocates—from  
24 Joseph Stiglitz to Elizabeth Warren—have opined that no-surcharge policies are bad for consumers  
25 and hurt competition.

26 **II. The credit-card industry’s concerted efforts to prevent merchants from**  
27 **communicating the costs of credit as “surcharges”**  
28

1           32.     The invisibility of swipe fees is no accident. It is the product of concerted efforts by  
2 the credit-card industry over many decades to ensure that merchants cannot communicate to  
3 consumers the added price they pay for using credit. Over the years, the industry has succeeded,  
4 both through contractual provisions and legislative measures, to silence merchants' attempts to call  
5 consumers' attention to the true costs of credit.

6                           **The industry's early ban on differential pricing ends**

7           33.     In the early days of credit cards, any attempt at differential pricing between credit  
8 and non-credit transactions was strictly forbidden by rules imposed on merchants in their contracts  
9 with credit-card companies. That changed in 1974 after two important developments. *First*,  
10 Consumers Union sued American Express on the ground that its contractual ban on differential  
11 pricing was an illegal restraint on trade. Rather than face the prospect that federal courts would  
12 mandate full price transparency, American Express almost immediately settled the suit by agreeing  
13 to allow merchants to provide consumers with differential price information.

14           34.     *Second*, Congress then enacted legislation protecting the right of merchants to have  
15 dual-pricing systems. Congress amended the Truth in Lending Act to provide that "a card issuer  
16 may not, by contract, or otherwise, prohibit any such seller from offering a discount to a cardholder  
17 to induce the cardholder to pay by cash, check, or similar means rather than use a credit card."  
18 Pub. L. No. 93, § 495, 88 Stat. 1500 (1974).

19                           **The credit-card industry shifts its strategy to labeling**

20           35.     The 1974 amendments were initially considered a victory for consumers. But the  
21 credit-card industry, seizing on Congress's use of the word "discount," soon shifted its focus to the  
22 way merchants could *label* and *describe* such pricing to consumers. Aware that how information is  
23 presented to consumers can have a huge impact on their behavior—and that many merchants would  
24 avoid dual pricing altogether if "surcharges" were outlawed—the credit-card lobby "insist[ed] that  
25 any price difference between cash and credit purchases should be labeled a cash discount rather  
26 than a credit card surcharge." Amos Tversky & Daniel Kahneman, *Rational Choice and the*  
27 *Framing of Decisions*, 59 J. Bus. S251, S261 (1986).

28                           **The credit-card industry's labeling strategy achieves short-**

**lived success at the national level**

1  
2           36.     In 1976, after two years of lobbying Congress to impose the credit-card industry's  
3 preferred speech code, the industry succeeded in getting Congress to enact a temporary ban on  
4 "surcharges," despite the authorization for "discounts." See Pub. L. No. 94-222, 90 Stat. 197 ("No  
5 seller in any sales transaction may impose a surcharge on a cardholder who elects to use a credit  
6 card in lieu of payment by cash, check, or similar means."). This controversial measure set the stage  
7 for a series of battles over renewal of the ban, culminating in an intense political debate in the mid-  
8 1980s that pitted both the Reagan Administration and consumer groups against the credit-card  
9 industry.

10           37.     With the "surcharge" ban set to expire in 1981, the federal government and  
11 consumer advocates registered the impact that it had on consumers' and merchants' behavior. The  
12 Chairman of the Federal Trade Commission, writing in opposition to extending the law, recognized  
13 that the "surcharge" label drives home the true marginal cost of a credit transaction to the  
14 consumer. S. Rep. 97-23, at 11-12. Although "a discount and a surcharge are equivalent concepts,"  
15 he remarked, "one is hidden in the cash price and the other is not," meaning that a ban on  
16 "surcharges" prohibited merchants from disclosing to their customers the true cost of credit. *Id.* at  
17 10.

18           38.     The Federal Reserve Board held a similar view. One member—presenting the  
19 Board's unanimous opposition to the surcharge ban's extension—pointed out "the obvious difficulty  
20 in drawing a clear economic distinction between a permitted discount and a prohibited surcharge."  
21 *Cash Discount Act, 1981: Hearings on S. 414 Before the Subcomm. On Consumer Affairs of the*  
22 *Senate Comm. On Banking, Housing, & Urban Affairs, 97th Cong., 1st Sess. 9 (Feb. 18, 1981)*  
23 (Nancy Teeters, Federal Reserve Board). "If you just change the wording a little bit, one becomes  
24 the other." *Id.* at 22. The Board thus proposed "a very simple rule": that both surcharges and  
25 discounts be allowed, and "that the availability of the discount or surcharge be disclosed to  
26 consumers." *Id.* at 10.

27           39.     Every major consumer advocacy organization agreed, and urged Congress to let the  
28 ban lapse and allow surcharges. One consumer advocate testified that the difference between

1 surcharges and discounts “is merely one of semantics, and not of substance.” *Id.* at 98 (Ellen  
2 Broadman, Consumers Union). But “the semantic differences are significant,” she explained,  
3 because “the term ‘surcharge’ makes credit card customers particularly aware that they are paying  
4 an extra charge,” whereas “the discount system suggests that consumers are getting a bargain, and  
5 downplays the truth.” *Id.* Another advocate put it more pithily: “one person’s cash discount may be  
6 another person’s surcharge.” *Id.* at 90 (Jim Boyle, Consumer Federal of America). “Removing the  
7 ban on surcharges,” he explained, “is an important first step” to “disclos[ing] to consumers the full”  
8 cost of credit so that they can “make informed judgments.” *Id.* at 92.

9 40. On the other side of the debate, American Express and MasterCard  
10 “wholeheartedly” and “strongly” supported the ban, even though, from a “mathematical viewpoint,”  
11 “there is really no difference between a discount for cash and a surcharge for credit card use.” *Id.* at  
12 43 (Hugh H. Smith, American Express); *id.* at 55 (Amy Topiel, MasterCard). And the big banks,  
13 like the credit-card giants, supported treating “surcharges” and “discounts” differently because a  
14 surcharge “makes a negative statement about the card to the consumer.” *Id.* at 32 (Peter Hood,  
15 American Bankers Association). Surcharges, a banking lobbyist openly explained, “talk against the  
16 credit industry.” *Id.* at 60. Congress ultimately gave in to industry lobbying and renewed the ban for  
17 an additional three years. Pub. L. No. 97-25, 95 Stat. 144 (1981).

18 41. In 1984, the no-surcharge law was again set to expire. Senator William Proxmire of  
19 Wisconsin, one of the ban’s chief opponents, cut to the chase: “Not one single consumer group  
20 supports the proposal to continue the ban on surcharges,” he observed. “The nation’s giant credit  
21 card companies want to perpetuate the myth that credit is free.” Irvin Molotsky, *Extension of Credit*  
22 *Surcharge Ban*, N.Y. Times, Feb. 29, 1984, at D12. The credit-card industry, acutely conscious of  
23 the threat that merchants’ disclosure of credit’s true cost posed to its business model, responded by  
24 unleashing a massive lobbying campaign to oppose ending the ban. Stephen Engelberg, *Credit Card*  
25 *Surcharge Ban Ends*, N.Y. Times, Feb. 27, 1984, at D1. One senior vice president of  
26 Shearson/American Express remarked in 1984 that his company had been opposing ending the  
27 ban for eight years. He observed that consumers do not write angry letters to credit-card companies  
28 about cash discounts, but do complain about surcharges. *Id.* He concluded that ending the ban

1 “could potentially hurt the image of” credit cards, revealing that the industry viewed its legislative  
2 efforts as playing a key role in dictating the perception of credit cards among consumers. *Id.* This  
3 time, the industry’s efforts failed, and the ban lapsed in 1984. Levitin, *Priceless?*, 55 UCLA L. Rev.  
4 at 1381.

5 42. A 1981 report of the Senate Banking Committee, prepared as part of the law’s initial  
6 renewal, stressed the law’s role in regulating how a merchant could frame a dual-pricing system.  
7 The Committee observed that “while discounts for cash and surcharges on credit cards may be  
8 mathematically the same, their practical effect and the impact they may have on consumers is very  
9 different.” S. Rep. 97-23, at 3. The no-surcharge law thus effectively set forth a speech code,  
10 requiring that merchants label their prices in the way that best hid the costs of credit and most  
11 enabled the credit-card companies to take advantage of the framing effect: by advertising the credit  
12 price as the “regular” price, and the cash price as a “discount” from that price.

13 43. Furthermore, the vague distinction between “discounts” and “surcharges,” and the  
14 risk of inadvertently describing a dual-pricing system in an unlawful way, led merchants to steer  
15 clear of such systems. In an editorial in *The New York Times*, Senator Christopher Dodd of  
16 Connecticut, a proponent of allowing surcharges, noted that “many merchants are not sure what the  
17 difference between a discount and a surcharge is and thus do not offer different cash and credit  
18 prices for fear they will violate the ban on surcharges.” Sen. Christopher J. Dodd, *Credit Card*  
19 *Surcharges: Let the Gouger Beware*, N.Y. Times, Mar. 12, 1984, at A16. *See also* Carol Krucoff,  
20 *When Cash Pays Off*, Wash. Post, Sept. 22, 1981 (describing consumer activist who argued that  
21 merchants have not offered cash discounts because “the regulations have been so complicated.  
22 Smaller business people, who are most likely to offer them, may have been intimidated by the fear  
23 it could be viewed as an illegal surcharge.”); Engelberg, *Credit Card Surcharge Ban Ends*, at D1 (“A  
24 House aide said that one explanation for the relative unpopularity of cash discounts is that retailers,  
25 aware that surcharges on credit purchases are illegal, have erroneously assumed that discounts are  
26 not permitted.”).

27 **The credit-card industry lobbies the states to enact**  
28 **no-surcharge laws and adopts contractual no-surcharge rules**

1           44.     After the controversial federal ban expired, the credit-card industry briefly turned to  
2 the states, convincing fewer than a dozen (including California) to enact no-surcharge laws of their  
3 own. In an early instance of the phenomenon now known as “astroturfing,” American Express and  
4 Visa went to great lengths to create the illusion of grassroots support for such laws, even going so far  
5 as to create and bankroll a fake consumer group called “Consumers Against Penalty Surcharges.”  
6 But real consumer groups—including Consumers Union and Consumer Federation of America—  
7 opposed state no-surcharge laws because they discouraged merchants from making the costs of  
8 credit transparent, which resulted in an enormous hidden tax paid by all consumers whenever they  
9 made a purchase.

10           45.     California’s law was enacted in 1985, one year after expiration of the temporary  
11 federal ban. Shortly thereafter, a New York court concluded that, under that state’s no-surcharge  
12 law, “precisely the same conduct by an individual may be treated either as a criminal offense or as  
13 lawfully permissible behavior depending only upon the *label* the individual affixes to his economic  
14 behavior, without substantive difference.” *People v. Fulvio*, 517 N.Y.S.2d 1008, 1011 (Crim. Ct.  
15 N.Y. 1987) (emphasis in original). The court explained: “[W]hat [the law] *permits* is a price  
16 differential, in that so long as that differential is characterized as a discount for payment by cash, it is  
17 legally permissible; what [the law] *prohibits* is a price differential, in that so long as that differential  
18 is characterized as an additional charge for payment by use of a credit card, it is legally  
19 impermissible. . . . [The law] creates a distinction without a difference; it is not the *act* which is  
20 outlawed, but the *word* given that act.” *Id.* at 1015 (emphasis in original).

21           46.     Around the same time that California’s no-surcharge law was enacted, the major  
22 credit-card companies changed their contracts with merchants to include no-surcharge rules. No-  
23 surcharge laws in California and other states thus function as a legislative extension of the  
24 restrictions that credit-card issuers previously imposed more overtly by contract. For instance,  
25 American Express’s contracts with merchants included an elaborate speech code. The contracts  
26 provided that merchants may not “indicate or imply that they prefer, directly or indirectly, any  
27 Other Payment Products over our Card”; “try to dissuade Cardmembers from using the Card”;  
28 “criticize ... the Card or any of our services or programs”; or “try to persuade or prompt

1 Cardmembers to use any Other Payment Products or any other method of payment (e.g., payment  
2 by check).”

3 **The Durbin Amendment and the**  
4 **recent political controversy over swipe fees**

5 47. From the mid-1980s until the 2000s the issue of swipe fees remained largely in the  
6 shadows. Even in the majority of states without anti-surcharge laws, the contractual no-surcharge  
7 rules ensured that consumers were rarely informed of the true costs of credit. Developments in the  
8 late 2000s, however, caused swipe fees to reemerge as a volatile political issue.

9 48. The global financial crisis of 2007-2008 and the ensuing push for financial-regulation  
10 reform resulted in renewed focus on swipe fees. Senator Dick Durbin of Illinois proposed an  
11 amendment to the Senate version of the Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer  
12 Protection Act that aimed to reduce the fees associated with transactions by both debit and credit  
13 cards. Although proposed legislation to regulate *credit-card* swipe fees was defeated, the Durbin  
14 Amendment was enacted into law. As enacted, it establishes a procedure by which the Federal  
15 Reserve Board now sets the maximum swipe fees for *debit-card* transactions. 15 U.S.C. § 1693o-  
16 2(a). It also includes a provision protecting merchants’ rights to offer consumers incentives for using  
17 different payment methods: “A payment card network shall not ... by contract, requirement,  
18 condition, penalty, or otherwise, inhibit the ability of any person to provide a discount or in-kind  
19 incentive for payment by the use of cash, checks, debit cards, or credit cards.” *Id.* § 1693o-2(b)(2).

20 49. The fight over the Durbin Amendment shone a spotlight on the amount of revenue  
21 that banks generate from swipe fees, initiated a frenzy of lobbying by the credit-card industry, and  
22 touched off a contentious national political debate. Many merchants sought to convey their  
23 opposition to swipe fees directly to their customers—and voters—at the checkout counter. The  
24 national convenience store chain 7-Eleven, for example, put up signs asking customers to “STOP  
25 UNFAIR CREDIT CARD FEES” and gathered a total of 1.6 million signatures on a petition to  
26 support legislation on credit-card fees. 7-Eleven claimed that its petition represented the largest  
27 quantity of signatures ever presented to Congress—trumping even the 1.3 million signatures  
28 presented to Congress regarding national healthcare reform.



**Visa, MasterCard, & American Express  
drop their no-surcharge rules**

1  
2  
3 50. In May 2005, Animal Land Inc., a pet-relocation company based in Atlanta,  
4 Georgia, sued Visa for a declaration that its no-surcharge rule violated antitrust laws by preventing  
5 Animal Land and other merchants from assessing a discrete, denominated charge upon customers  
6 using credit cards, as opposed to cash, checks, or debit cards. *Animal Land, Inc. v. Visa USA, Inc.*,  
7 No. 05-CV-1210 (N.D. Ga.). In the ensuing months, numerous U.S. merchants and trade  
8 associations brought claims against the dominant credit-card networks, alleging that they engaged in  
9 illegal price-fixing and impermissibly banned merchants from encouraging customers to use less  
10 expensive payment methods.

11 51. Under the terms of a national class-action settlement, Visa and MasterCard in  
12 January 2013 dropped their prohibitions against merchants imposing surcharges on credit-card  
13 transactions. And in December 2013—in response to a separate lawsuit—American Express agreed  
14 to drop its surcharge ban as well.

15 52. As a result, state no-surcharge laws—previously redundant because of contractual no-  
16 surcharge rules—have now gained added importance. And as they did in the 1980s, credit-card  
17 companies are once again seeking to discourage dual pricing by pushing state legislation that  
18 dictates the labels that merchants can use for such systems.

**New York’s no-surcharge law is declared unconstitutional**

19  
20 53. In June 2013, five merchants—supported by several national consumer groups and  
21 retailers as amici curiae—brought a constitutional challenge to New York’s no-surcharge law in  
22 federal district court, claiming that it violated the First Amendment and was unconstitutionally  
23 vague. By making liability “turn[] on the language used to describe identical conduct,” they argued,  
24 the law is a content-based speech restriction that is subject to heightened scrutiny, which it cannot  
25 withstand. They further argued that the law is unconstitutionally vague because it does not define  
26 the line between a “surcharge” and a “discount,” and “[y]et that line marks the difference between  
27 what is [illegal] and what is not.”  
28

1           54.     The court agreed. In October 2013, it declared the law unconstitutional and granted  
2 a preliminary injunction against its enforcement. *See Expressions*, -- F. Supp. 2d --, 2013 WL  
3 5477607. One month later, final judgment, including a permanent injunction, was entered in favor  
4 of the plaintiffs.

5                                 **Claims for Relief**

6                                 **Claim One: Violation of the First Amendment (under 42 U.S.C. § 1983)**

7           55.     California’s no-surcharge law regulates how the plaintiffs may characterize the price  
8 differences they may lawfully charge for credit and cash purchases. The law allows them to tell their  
9 customers that they are paying *less* for using cash or other means of payment (a “discount”), but not  
10 that they are paying *more* for using credit (a “surcharge”). This state-imposed speech code prevents  
11 the plaintiffs from effectively conveying to their customers—who absorb the costs of credit through  
12 higher prices for goods and services—that credit cards are a more expensive means of payment.

13           56.     By prohibiting certain disfavored speech by merchants, California’s no-surcharge law  
14 violates the plaintiffs’ First Amendment rights, as applied to the states through the Fourteenth  
15 Amendment. Because the no-surcharge law is a content- and speaker-based restriction on speech, it  
16 is subject to heightened scrutiny under the First Amendment. *See Sorrell v. IMS Health Inc.*, 131  
17 S. Ct. 2653 (2011). Regardless of whether the law is analyzed under a special commercial-speech  
18 inquiry, it cannot survive. The prohibited speech concerns lawful activity (engaging in dual pricing)  
19 and is not misleading; California has no substantial interest in prohibiting the speech; and  
20 California’s no-surcharge law does not directly advance—and is far more extensive than necessary to  
21 serve—any interest the state might have. *Central Hudson Gas & Elec. Corp. v. Pub. Serv. Comm’n*  
22 *of New York*, 447 U.S. 557 (1980).

23                                 **Claim Two: Void for vagueness (under 42 U.S.C. § 1983)**

24           57.     California’s no-surcharge law does not provide guidance about what speech is  
25 permitted and invites arbitrary and discriminatory enforcement. Because the law makes liability  
26 turn on the blurry difference between two ways of describing the same conduct, the law does not  
27 provide a person of ordinary intelligence reasonable opportunity to know what is prohibited.

1 Additionally, the law lacks explicit standards for those charged with its enforcement. It is therefore  
2 unconstitutionally vague under the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

3 **Request for Relief**

4 The plaintiffs request that the Court:

5 A. Declare that California's no-surcharge law is unconstitutional and enjoin its  
6 enforcement;

7 B. Award the plaintiffs their reasonable costs, expenses, and attorney's fees under  
8 42 U.S.C. § 1988; and

9 C. Grant the plaintiffs all other appropriate relief.

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18 Respectfully submitted,

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