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CASE #: 25-2-15986-8 SEA

IN THE SUPERIOR COURT OF THE STATE OF WASHINGTON  
FOR KING COUNTY

MISTI LEON, as personal representative of the  
ESTATE OF JULIANA LEON, a deceased  
individual,

Plaintiff,

v.

EXXON MOBIL CORPORATION,  
EXXONMOBIL OIL CORPORATION, BP  
P.L.C., BP AMERICA INC., OLYMPIC PIPE  
LINE COMPANY LLC; CHEVRON  
CORPORATION, CHEVRON USA, INC.,  
SHELL PLC, SHELL USA, INC.,  
CONOCOPHILLIPS, CONOCOPHILLIPS  
COMPANY, PHILLIPS 66, PHILLIPS 66  
COMPANY, and TRANSMONTAIGNE  
PARTNERS LLC,

Defendants.

Case No. 25-2-15986-8-SEA

**REPLY IN SUPPORT OF  
DEFENDANTS' JOINT MOTION TO  
DISMISS PLAINTIFF'S FIRST  
AMENDED COMPLAINT FOR  
FAILURE TO STATE A CLAIM**

Honorable Judge Matt Lapin

Noted for May 6, 2026

**ORAL ARGUMENT: JUNE 4, 2026**

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## I. INTRODUCTION

1  
2 Plaintiff insists that her suit is *only* about “deceptive conduct” and has nothing to do with  
3 “emissions.” Opp. 1. This assertion—which has been rejected by numerous federal and state  
4 courts across the United States in similar climate-change cases—is not only wrong, but contradicts  
5 Plaintiff’s own First Amended Complaint (the “Complaint” or “FAC”) and her Opposition.  
6 Indeed, Plaintiff’s Complaint seeks relief for a particular injury—the death of Juliana Leon—  
7 allegedly caused by the “increase[]” in “anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions,” FAC ¶ 4.20, and the  
8 “atmospheric changes,” “accelerated alteration of our climate,” and “extreme weather events,” that  
9 allegedly resulted from those emissions, *id.* ¶¶ 1.2, 1.13. Plaintiff alleges that “elevated  
10 greenhouse gas emissions and, in turn, the Heat Dome” are responsible for the “extreme and  
11 unprecedented temperatures that killed Juliana Leon.” *Id.* ¶ 5.22. And elsewhere in her  
12 Opposition, Plaintiff confirms that, under her theory of the case, Defendants’ alleged conduct  
13 increased “the atmospheric build-up of greenhouse gases and resulting climate impacts, including  
14 the extreme conditions experienced during the 2021 Heat Dome,” which “tragically cut short Ms.  
15 Leon’s life.” Opp. 5. Plaintiff *admits* that “emissions” are the alleged “agent of injury” and “relate  
16 to the element of causation,” *id.* 2, 7, which is a necessary part of each of Plaintiff’s claims.  
17 Plaintiff thus concedes that every one of her claims is premised on the cumulative impact of  
18 increased greenhouse-gas emissions that were released in every state in the country and every  
19 nation in the world.

20 Numerous courts have rejected what Plaintiff attempts here. In a recent decision, the  
21 Maryland Supreme Court held that climate claims similar to Plaintiff’s are precluded and  
22 preempted by federal law, notwithstanding the plaintiffs’ “myopic view” of their claims as  
23 supposedly involving only alleged deception. *Mayor & City Council of Baltimore v. B.P. P.L.C.*,  
24 --- A.3d ---, 2026 WL 809501, at \*21 (Md. Mar. 24, 2026) (“*Baltimore II*”). As that court  
25 explained, “[n]o amount of creative pleading can masquerade the fact that the [plaintiffs] are  
26 attempting to utilize state law to regulate global conduct that is purportedly causing global harm.  
27 . . . The [plaintiffs] cannot, in one breath, disavow any intent to address interstate and global

1 emissions, and in another, identify such emissions as the single source of their harms.” *Id.* at \*20–  
2 21. Or, as the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit put it, “[i]t is precisely *because* fossil  
3 fuels emit greenhouse gases—which collectively ‘exacerbate global warming’—that the [plaintiff]  
4 is seeking damages.” *City of New York v. Chevron Corp.*, 993 F.3d 81, 91 (2d Cir. 2021). Other  
5 courts have also squarely rejected the exact same gambit Plaintiff attempts here. *See, e.g., Platkin*  
6 *v. Exxon Mobil Corp.*, 2025 WL 604846, at \*4 (N.J. Super. Ct. Feb. 5, 2025) (“*New Jersey*”)  
7 (“[E]ven under the most indulgent reading,” Plaintiff’s Complaint “is entirely about addressing the  
8 injuries of global climate change and seeking damages for such alleged injuries.”); *Mayor & City*  
9 *Council of Baltimore v. BP P.L.C.*, 2024 WL 3678699, at \*5 (Md. Cir. Ct. July 10, 2024)  
10 (“*Baltimore I*”) (Plaintiff’s strategy is “simply a way to get in the back door what [she] cannot get  
11 in the front door”).

12 Plaintiff’s claims seek relief for an alleged injury that occurred as a result of the cumulative  
13 impact of emissions released in every State in this country and every Nation in the world. This  
14 means—under clear U.S. Supreme Court precedent and precedent from a large number of courts  
15 across the country in materially identical climate lawsuits—that Plaintiff’s claims are precluded  
16 and preempted by federal law. That is the end of the story, and the Court need not go further. For  
17 the sake of preserving a complete record, however, Defendants set forth below the litany of reasons  
18 why Plaintiff’s claims should be dismissed with prejudice on the merits. Indeed, there are at least  
19 five independent reasons that merit dismissal of Plaintiff’s Complaint.

20 ***First***, the federal structure of the U.S. Constitution precludes and preempts the application  
21 of state law to Plaintiff’s claims. State law cannot operate in areas of “uniquely federal interests.”  
22 *Tex. Indus., Inc. v. Radcliffe Materials, Inc.*, 451 U.S. 630, 640–42 (1981). And the Supreme  
23 Court has repeatedly held that interstate pollution is such an area. *E.g., Am. Elec. Power Co. v.*  
24 *Connecticut* (“*AEP*”), 564 U.S. 410, 421 (2011). In affirming dismissal of nearly identical claims  
25 on the merits, the Second Circuit held that a “suit seeking to recover damages for the harms caused  
26 by global greenhouse gas emissions may [not] proceed under [state] law,” because federal law  
27 must apply “to disputes involving interstate air or water pollution.” *City of New York*, 993 F.3d at

1 91. As the Maryland Supreme Court recently explained, “for more than a century, the Supreme  
2 Court and lower federal courts have held that interstate pollution is an inherently federal area  
3 necessarily governed by federal law,” and because Plaintiff seeks to “impose damages on the  
4 Defendants for injuries allegedly caused by the effect of interstate and international greenhouse  
5 gas emissions on global climate change,” her claims fall “squarely within the inherently federal  
6 areas of interstate pollution and foreign affairs.” *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*18, \*21.

7 Plaintiff insists that the federal constitutional structure cannot preempt her claims, and that  
8 Defendants are actually making an argument under “federal *common* law.” Opp. 23 (emphasis  
9 added). But a long line of Supreme Court cases confirms that the “structure” of the federal  
10 Constitution has preclusive effect. *Franchise Tax Bd. of Cal. v. Hyatt*, 587 U.S. 230, 246–48  
11 (2019) (collecting cases). The critical question is not whether a displaced body of federal common  
12 law preempts Plaintiff’s claims, but whether the Constitution’s allocation of authority between  
13 federal and state governments has *ever* permitted state law to apply to claims seeking damages for  
14 *global* emissions. The “answer is simple: no.” *City of New York*, 993 F.3d at 91; *see also*  
15 *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*23.

16 Numerous courts, relying on *City of New York*, have dismissed claims that are materially  
17 identical to those Plaintiff asserts here, forming a “growing chorus of state and federal courts across  
18 the United States.” *City of Charleston v. Brabham Oil Co., Inc.*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*2 (S.C.  
19 Ct. Com. Pl. Aug. 6, 2025); *see Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*1; *State ex rel. Jennings v. BP*  
20 *Am., Inc.*, 2024 WL 98888, at \*9 (Del. Super. Ct. Jan. 9, 2024) (“*Delaware*”); *Baltimore I*, 2024  
21 WL 3678699, at \*5–6, *aff’d*, *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501; *City of Annapolis v. BP PLC*, 2025  
22 WL 588595, at \*6 (Md. Cir. Ct. Jan. 23, 2025), *aff’d*, *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501; *New Jersey*,  
23 2025 WL 604846, at \*5; *Bucks Cnty. v. BP P.L.C.*, 2025 WL 1484203, at \*6–8 (Pa. Ct. Com. Pl.  
24 May 16, 2025). This Court should join that chorus.

25 **Second**, the Clean Air Act (“CAA”) preempts Plaintiff’s claims. In *International Paper*  
26 *Co. v. Ouellette*, 479 U.S. 481, 494 (1987), the Supreme Court held that the analogous Clean Water  
27 Act (“CWA”) prohibits States from regulating out-of-state sources of water pollution. Numerous  
28

1 courts, including the Maryland Supreme Court, have applied *Ouellette* to hold that “the Clean Air  
2 Act does not authorize” state-law climate claims like Plaintiff’s and to “conclude that such claims  
3 concerning domestic emissions are barred by federal law.” *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*25.  
4 Plaintiff contends (again) that her claims fall outside the CAA because they turn on purported  
5 misrepresentations and deception, not on regulating interstate emissions. Opp. 14. But Plaintiff  
6 undeniably seeks to impose liability on Defendants under Washington law for the effects of  
7 emissions generated outside Washington. Such claims fall squarely within the holding of  
8 *Ouellette*, which held that common-law damages claims based on out-of-state pollution were  
9 preempted. 479 U.S. at 494. And it is well settled that compensatory damages—sought here for  
10 the purported climate impacts of interstate and global emissions—are a form of regulation. *See*  
11 *Kurns v. R.R. Friction Prods. Corp.*, 565 U.S. 625, 637 (2012). Plaintiff’s claims arising from  
12 interstate “pollution” are therefore preempted by the CAA’s comprehensive federal regime.

13 ***Third***, Plaintiff’s lawsuit is barred by the separation-of-powers doctrine because there are  
14 no judicially manageable standards for regulating greenhouse gas emissions. Plaintiff *concedes*  
15 that the Court would need to “balanc[e] . . . the social utility” of Defendants’ alleged conduct.  
16 Opp. 29. But Plaintiff does not offer any judicially manageable standards for doing so. Plaintiff  
17 seeks compensation for alleged harms from worldwide emissions resulting from fossil-fuel use by  
18 countless actors, including Plaintiff herself, that was lawful and economically useful. The “issues”  
19 raised by Plaintiff’s Complaint “are political questions that have been considered and addressed  
20 by the executive and legislative branches for decades.” *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*12.  
21 “Such tasks are beyond the judicial function.” *Id.* As a North Carolina court found recently in  
22 dismissing similar climate claims, climate change “is the result of the collective impact of acts by  
23 literally billions of unrelated emitters dispersed throughout the globe,” and would “require a  
24 factfinder to make decisions based on *pure conjecture* divorced from any clearly articulable or  
25 objective standards, necessarily requiring *rank speculation* as to the internal motivations of  
26 hundreds of millions of individuals in the United States and the cumulative effect of their actions  
27 on a global phenomenon.” *Town of Carrboro v. Duke Energy Corp.*, 2026 WL 411466, at \*9

1 (N.C. Super. Ct. Feb. 12, 2026) (emphases added).

2 **Fourth**, Plaintiff’s claims are time-barred. Plaintiff’s own allegations in her Complaint, as  
3 well as material in the public record that the Court may consider, make clear that Plaintiff was on  
4 notice of the facts essential to her claims prior to the limitations period. Plaintiff’s cursory  
5 allegations as to diligence, and her various other arguments, are not sufficient to overcome the  
6 basic principle that the discovery rule “is not invoked when the plaintiff had ready access to  
7 information that a wrong occurred,” *Batten v. Providence St. Joseph’s Health*, 2025 WL 1819236,  
8 at \*3 (E.D. Wash. June 30, 2025) (cleaned up), as Plaintiff assuredly did here. Multiple other  
9 courts have found similar climate claims to be time-barred on the same grounds. *See Delaware*,  
10 2024 WL 98888, at \*19; *Baltimore I*, 2024 WL 3678699, at \*15; *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770,  
11 at \*13–14; *Municipality of Bayamón v. Exxon Mobil Corp.*, 2025 WL 2630671, at \*23–34 (D.P.R.  
12 Sept. 11, 2025); *Municipality of San Juan v. Exxon Mobil Corp.*, 2025 WL 2848565, at \*3–5  
13 (D.P.R. Sept. 30, 2025).

14 **Fifth**, even if Washington law could apply to Plaintiff’s claims, each of those claims fails  
15 on its own terms—as the *Baltimore II* and *Charleston* courts held in rejecting similar state-law  
16 claims. Plaintiff’s public nuisance claim is barred by the Washington Product Liability Act  
17 (“WPLA”) and does not allege the required interference with Plaintiff’s use and enjoyment of real  
18 property, while Plaintiff’s failure-to-warn claim rests upon a non-existent duty to warn the world  
19 of widely publicized risks relating to climate change. And since her public nuisance and WPLA  
20 claims fail, her derivative wrongful death claim must also because of the lack of precipitating  
21 wrongful conduct.

## 22 II. ARGUMENT

### 23 A. The Federal Constitution’s Structure Precludes and Preempts Plaintiff’s 24 Purported Washington Law Claims.

25 The U.S. Supreme Court and federal and state courts across the country in similar climate-  
26 change-related actions have repeatedly held that the structure of the federal Constitution precludes  
27 and preempts state-law claims, like Plaintiff’s, from seeking redress for injuries allegedly caused  
28 by the effects of interstate and international emissions. Rather than confront this argument,

1 Plaintiff attempts to avoid it with a series of tangential objections. All miss the mark. And all  
2 have been rejected—repeatedly—by other courts dismissing virtually identical suits. This Court  
3 should do so too.

4 Plaintiff’s claims seek remedies for harms allegedly caused by interstate and international  
5 emissions and are therefore preempted by the Constitution’s federal structure. Under our  
6 constitutional system, state law cannot be used to resolve claims based on interstate and  
7 international emissions. *See* Mot. 13–21. This constitutional rule derives from the federal  
8 structure of our government. As the Supreme Court has explained, “[t]he States would have had  
9 the raw power to apply their own law to such matters before they entered the Union, but the  
10 Constitution *implicitly forbids* that exercise of power because the ‘interstate . . . nature of the  
11 controversy makes it inappropriate for state law to control.’” *Hyatt*, 587 U.S. at 246 (quoting *Tex.*  
12 *Indus.*, 451 U.S. at 641) (emphasis added). Numerous state and federal courts have applied these  
13 fundamental principles to dismiss climate change cases like this one. *See City of New York*, 993  
14 F.3d at 91–92; *Delaware*, 2024 WL 98888, at \*9; *Baltimore I*, 2024 WL 3678699, at \*6; *Annapolis*,  
15 2025 WL 588595, at \*6; *New Jersey*, 2025 WL 604846, at \*5; *Bucks County*, 2025 WL 1484203,  
16 at \*8; *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*2; *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*1. This Court  
17 should join them in concluding that “our federal structure does not allow any State’s law to address  
18 these types of climate-change claims.” *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*2 (cleaned up).

19 **1.** Like the plaintiffs in every other similar suit, Plaintiff here insists that her claims are  
20 not precluded and preempted because she purportedly challenges only Defendants’ “deceptive  
21 promotion and failure to warn,” not interstate and international greenhouse gas emissions. *Opp.*  
22 1–3, 7–8; *see Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*7 (“Plaintiff’s principal argument—just as  
23 plaintiffs in the other cases have argued—is that its claims focus solely on supposed deception and  
24 misrepresentation, not on emissions.”). Courts have consistently rejected that framing, and it fares  
25 no better here. Every theory of liability presented by Plaintiff depends on increased global  
26 greenhouse gas emissions and climate change. *See, e.g.*, FAC ¶¶ 5.22 (“Defendants’ intentional  
27 failures to warn, negligent failures to warn, misrepresentations, and/or intentional concealments

1 are a proximate cause of heightened fossil fuel consumption, which has directly caused elevated  
2 greenhouse gas emissions and, in turn, the Heat Dome and the extreme and unprecedented  
3 temperatures that killed Juliana Leon.”), 5.29 (“Deception-induced increased demand for fossil  
4 fuels and decreased demand for clean energy directly led to increased greenhouse gas emissions,  
5 rendering deception a cause of Julie’s death and the resulting injuries to the Estate.”). Indeed,  
6 Plaintiff alleges that Defendants’ conduct “created and exacerbated hazardous climate conditions,”  
7 which allegedly caused Plaintiff’s injuries. Opp. 40; *see also* Mot. 9–11; FAC ¶¶ 1.3, 1.8, 1.11–  
8 1.13, 4.16, 4.24–4.28, 4.110–4.113, 5.22, 5.28. It is unmistakably clear that Plaintiff’s theory of  
9 injury is that Defendants’ conduct caused an increase in *interstate and international* greenhouse  
10 gas emissions, thereby contributing to *global* climate change and attendant impacts everywhere on  
11 Earth, including in Washington state. *See, e.g., id.* ¶¶ 1.2, 4.16–4.28 & fig. 2, 5.28.

12 As the Second Circuit explained, the plaintiffs in these climate change cases identify no  
13 harms “other than those caused by emissions.” *City of New York*, 993 F.3d at 97 n.8. Plaintiff  
14 concedes that each of her claims depends—as an essential element—on the allegation that  
15 Defendants’ conduct increased *interstate and international* emissions of greenhouse gases, which  
16 contributed to *global* climate change. Opp. 7–8; *see also id.* 32 (listing “causation and damages”  
17 as “essential elements of [a] cause of action” (quotation marks omitted)). Plaintiff does not allege  
18 that the so-called “deception campaign” injured, or could have injured, Plaintiff in any other way.  
19 *See* FAC ¶¶ 1.2, 1.8 (alleging that Plaintiff’s mother “died from hyperthermia” during the Heat  
20 Dome caused by “fossil fuel-driven alteration[s] of the climate”). Plaintiff suggests that she  
21 “seek[s] to impose liability only to the extent that Ms. Leon’s death was caused by Defendants’  
22 *deceptive conduct and failure to warn.*” Opp. 6. But Plaintiff’s attempts to characterize her claims  
23 as limited to an allegedly deceptive marketing campaign cannot alter the reality that she seeks  
24 damages for harms caused by emissions from across the country and around the globe.

25 As explained above, this is not the first case in which a plaintiff has sought to avoid federal  
26 preclusion and preemption by characterizing its claims as run-of-the mill consumer-deception  
27 claims. And in response, “[m]ost state courts that have addressed the question have come to the  
28

1 same conclusion, holding that these cases seek damages for interstate and international emissions.”  
2 *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*5; *see also Baltimore I*, 2024 WL 3678699, at \*6 (the  
3 “characterization of the complaint does not matter . . . because [Plaintiff] admits that its alleged  
4 injuries all stem from interstate and international emissions”). Plaintiff’s strategy of purporting to  
5 rely solely on a supposed campaign of deception is “artful but not sustainable” because it is “simply  
6 a way to get in the back door what [she] cannot get in the front door.” *Baltimore I*, 2024 WL  
7 3678699, at \*5.

8 Most recently, the Maryland Supreme Court affirmed two trial-court dismissals, echoing  
9 the Second Circuit in noting that, “for more than a century, the Supreme Court and lower federal  
10 courts have held that interstate pollution is an inherently federal area necessarily governed by  
11 federal law.” *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*18. Although the Maryland plaintiffs—as here—  
12 adopted a “myopic view of their claims” in an “attempt to ignore or minimize the effect that a  
13 significant damages award would have on both domestic and international attempts to regulate  
14 pollution,” the Court observed that they could not avoid the “inescapable conclusion” that they  
15 were “seeking to apply Maryland law to regulate conduct that occurs outside their jurisdictional  
16 borders.” *Id.* at \*20–21. The court concluded that, because the Maryland plaintiffs sought to  
17 “impose damages on the Defendants for injuries allegedly caused by the effect of interstate and  
18 international greenhouse gas emissions on global climate change,” their state-law claims fell  
19 “squarely within the inherently federal areas of interstate pollution and foreign affairs” and were  
20 therefore barred. *Id.* at \*21.

21 The New Jersey Superior Court similarly concluded that, “[d]espite the artful pleading by  
22 the Plaintiffs in this case, this court finds that Plaintiffs’ complaint, *even under the most indulgent*  
23 *reading*, is entirely about addressing the injuries of global climate change and seeking damages  
24 for such alleged injuries.” *New Jersey*, 2025 WL 604846, at \*4 (emphasis added). And the Court  
25 of Common Pleas for Bucks County, Pennsylvania, held that “[a] simple reading of the Complaint  
26 proves that Bucks County is truly seeking redress for harm caused by climate change, a global  
27 phenomenon caused by the emission of greenhouse gases in every nation in the world.” *Bucks*

1 *Cnty.*, 2025 WL 1484203, at \*7. Noting that the plaintiff did “everything it can to avoid the issue  
2 of emissions,” the *Bucks County* court nevertheless concluded that “it cannot avoid the fact that if  
3 there were no emissions there would be no damages.” *Id.* Likewise, although the City of  
4 Charleston insisted that “its claims focus[ed] solely on supposed deception and misrepresentation,”  
5 it did not “and could not dispute that it s[ought] damages for the alleged consequences of global  
6 greenhouse gas emissions and global climate change.” *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*7.

7 “That fact precludes and preempts Plaintiff’s state-law claims.” *Charleston*, 2025 WL  
8 2269770, at \*7. Put simply, state law cannot be used in cases “*involving* interstate air or water  
9 pollution,” *City of New York*, 993 F.3d at 91 (emphasis added), or that “*deal with* air and water in  
10 their ambient or interstate aspects,” *AEP*, 564 U.S. at 421 (emphasis added) (cleaned up).  
11 Plaintiff’s claims should be dismissed on this basis alone.

12 2. Plaintiff attempts to avoid this straightforward conclusion by contending that her  
13 lawsuit will not directly regulate emissions any “more than a claim for property damage against a  
14 negligent driver seeks to set motor vehicle safety standards.” *Opp.* 9–10. But vehicle safety  
15 standards—apparently the hypothetical analogue to global greenhouse-gas emissions in this  
16 case—are not the cause of that plaintiff’s hypothetical injury, which is attributable entirely to the  
17 driver’s negligence. Thus, imposing liability on the *driver* for his or her own negligence would  
18 not require car manufacturers to change their out-of-state design and manufacturing. The legal  
19 theory offered by Plaintiff here is plainly distinct. Plaintiff does not and could not allege that her  
20 injuries stem exclusively from deception and resulting emissions in Washington. Instead, the harm  
21 alleged necessarily involves interstate and international emissions. *See, e.g.*, FAC ¶¶ 1.3, 1.8,  
22 1.11–1.13, 4.16, 4.110–4.113, 4.24–4.28, 5.22, 5.28. Allowing state law to impose liability for  
23 such emissions clashes with the Constitution because it would permit one State to “impose its own  
24 legislation on . . . the others,” violating the “cardinal” principle that “[e]ach state stands on the  
25 same level with all the rest.” *Kansas v. Colorado*, 206 U.S. 46, 97 (1907). And it would allow  
26 the potentially conflicting liability regimes in 50 states—and countless localities—to govern the  
27 same out-of-state emissions, “lead[ing] to ‘chaotic confrontation between sovereign states’” and

1 intruding on matters of interstate and foreign relations that the Constitution commits to uniform  
2 federal governance. *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*22 (quotation marks omitted). Thus, the  
3 Supreme Court has held repeatedly that lawsuits involving “air and water in their ambient or  
4 interstate aspects” are subject to national—not state—legislative power because “the basic scheme  
5 of the Constitution so demands.” *AEP*, 564 U.S. at 421 (cleaned up).

6 Again, *City of New York* considered and rejected Plaintiff’s arguments. There, the City  
7 argued that because the City sought only “damages,” and “not abatement or the imposition of  
8 pollution standards,” its claims did not “threaten to regulate emissions at all.” *City of New York*,  
9 993 F.3d at 92. The Second Circuit disagreed, concluding that ““regulation can be effectively  
10 exerted through an award of damages, and the obligation to pay compensation can be, indeed is  
11 designed to be, a potent method of governing conduct and policy.”” *Id.* (quoting *Kurns*, 565 U.S.  
12 at 637 (quotation marks omitted)); *see also BMW of N. Am., Inc. v. Gore*, 517 U.S. 559, 572 n.17  
13 (1996) (“State power may be exercised as much by a jury’s application of a state rule of law in a  
14 civil lawsuit as by a statute.”). The same is true here.

15 Unable to counter *City of New York*’s clear holding, Plaintiff tries to distinguish the case  
16 as involving distinct theories of liability compared to those Plaintiff alleges here. Opp. 11. But as  
17 numerous courts have recognized, any purported distinction is illusory. New York City alleged  
18 that the defendants “downplayed the risks” of their products contributing to climate change and  
19 described the case as involving, *inter alia*, the “promotion” of fossil fuels. *City of New York*, 993  
20 F.3d at 86–87, 91. Moreover, New York City argued that the defendants were liable for “nuisance  
21 and trespass” damages because, “for decades, Defendants promoted their fossil-fuel products by  
22 concealing and downplaying the harms of climate change [and] profited from the misconceptions  
23 they promoted.” Appellant Br., *City of New York v. BP P.L.C.*, 2018 WL 5905772, at \*27 (2d Cir.  
24 Nov. 8, 2018); *compare id. with* Opp. 4 (alleging Defendants “promote and sell vast quantities of  
25 fossil fuels while ignoring and downplaying the severity of climate change”). New York City  
26 likewise advanced “extensive allegations regarding Defendants’ past attempts to deny or downplay  
27 the effects of fossil fuel use on climate change.” *City of New York v. BP P.L.C.*, 325 F. Supp. 3d

1 466, 469 (S.D.N.Y. 2018); *compare id. with* Opp. 4 (alleging Defendants “concealed,”  
2 “misrepresented,” and “downplay[ed]” the risk of climate change harms). Hence, there is no  
3 material difference between the theory of liability underlying New York City’s claims and  
4 Plaintiff’s claims here.

5 **3.** Plaintiff also suggests that the U.S. Constitution cannot preclude state law absent a  
6 specific constitutional provision on point. *See* Opp. 21–23. But the Supreme Court has “long  
7 consulted original and historical understandings of the *Constitution’s structure* and the principles  
8 of ‘sovereignty and comity’ it embraces” “[t]o resolve disputes about the reach of one State’s  
9 power.” *Nat’l Pork Producers Council v. Ross*, 598 U.S. 356, 376 (2023) (citation omitted)  
10 (emphasis added).

11 Plaintiff’s argument thus ignores a long line of Supreme Court cases explaining that the  
12 “Constitution . . . reflects implicit alterations to the States’ relationships with each other,  
13 confirming that they are no longer fully independent nations” and thus “may not supply rules of  
14 decision governing ‘disputes implicating their conflicting rights.’” *Hyatt*, 587 U.S. at 246 (cleaned  
15 up). Indeed, *Hyatt* expressly rejected the contention that the structure of the Constitution cannot  
16 preempt state law, explaining that “[t]here are many . . . constitutional doctrines that are not spelled  
17 out in the Constitution but are nevertheless implicit in its structure and supported by historical  
18 practice.” *Id.* at 247–48 (collecting examples). The Court reaffirmed that the Constitution’s  
19 federal structure “implicitly” forbids States from applying their own law to certain matters when  
20 “the interstate nature of the controversy makes it inappropriate for state law to control.” *Id.* at 246  
21 (cleaned up). Accordingly, even where “[t]here is no express provision in the constitution”  
22 preventing state law from applying, the Constitution may “by implication” preclude the application  
23 of state law. *McCulloch v. Maryland*, 17 U.S. (4 Wheat.) 316, 390–91 (1819).

24 **4.** Plaintiff next contends that Defendants’ constitutional structure argument amounts to  
25 no more than an argument for federal common law preemption, which, Plaintiff argues, is  
26 unavailable because such common law never concerned misrepresentations and, in any event, has  
27 been displaced by the CAA. *See* Opp. 23–25. But this response reflects a misunderstanding of  
28

1 Defendants’ argument. Defendants contend that “[i]t is *the U.S. Constitution and its federal*  
2 *structure*”—not federal common law—that precludes and preempts state-law claims seeking  
3 redress for injuries allegedly caused by the effects of interstate and international pollution—and  
4 whether Congress has displaced federal common law does ““nothing to undermine that result.””  
5 *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*8 (quoting *Illinois v. City of Milwaukee*, 731 F.2d 403, 410  
6 (7th Cir. 1984) (“*Milwaukee III*”).

7 The Supreme Court has made clear that state law cannot govern cases “in which a federal  
8 rule of decision is necessary to protect uniquely federal interests.” *Tex. Indus.*, 451 U.S. at 640  
9 (cleaned up). Certain “matters [are] exclusively federal, because [they are] made so by  
10 constitutional or valid congressional command, or . . . so vitally affect[] interests, powers and  
11 relations of the Federal Government as to require uniform national disposition rather than  
12 diversified state rulings.” *United States v. Standard Oil Co.*, 332 U.S. 301, 307 (1947). “Whether  
13 a remedy is available under federal common law—and, if so, whether such a remedy has been  
14 displaced by federal statute (here, the CAA)—are completely separate issues from the question  
15 presented here: whether state law can apply in the first place. It cannot.” *Charleston*, 2025 WL  
16 2269770, at \*8. The CAA’s displacement of certain federal common law is beside the point—it  
17 does not (and cannot) authorize Plaintiff’s claims.

18 Again, *City of New York* is squarely on point. Like Plaintiff here, the City argued that the  
19 federal CAA’s displacement of federal common law could “give birth to new state-law claims.”  
20 *City of New York*, 993 F.3d at 98. The court rejected “[s]uch an outcome” as “too strange to  
21 seriously contemplate.” *Id.* at 98–99. As the court explained, “where a federal statute displaces  
22 federal common law, it does so not in a field in which the states have traditionally occupied, but  
23 one in which the states have traditionally not occupied.” *Id.* at 98 (cleaned up). “Consequently,  
24 state law does not suddenly become presumptively competent to address issues that demand a  
25 unified federal standard simply because Congress saw fit to displace a federal court-made standard  
26 with a legislative one.” *Id.*

1 Finally, federal common law *does* preempt Plaintiff’s claims insofar as they rest on *foreign*  
2 emissions. The Second Circuit held federal common law is “still require[d]” to govern the  
3 international aspects of claims challenging global emissions because the CAA “does not regulate  
4 foreign emissions.” *City of New York*, 993 F.3d at 95 n.7. Viewed through that lens, “federal  
5 common law preempts [the] state law” claims Plaintiff attempts to plead. *Id.* at 95, 101. That  
6 makes sense: “[p]ower over external affairs is not shared by the States; it is vested in the national  
7 government exclusively.” *United States v. Pink*, 315 U.S. 203, 233 (1942). States lack the power  
8 to regulate international activities or foreign policy; such matters “must be treated exclusively as  
9 an aspect of federal law.” *Banco Nacional de Cuba v. Sabbatino*, 376 U.S. 398, 425 (1964).  
10 Accordingly, state “regulations must give way if they impair the effective exercise of the Nation’s  
11 foreign policy,” *Zschernig v. Miller*, 389 U.S. 429, 440 (1968), which calls for a unified federal  
12 law rather than a set of “divergent and perhaps parochial state interpretations,” *Sabbatino*, 376  
13 U.S. at 425.

14 5. The few climate-change decisions that have allowed a plaintiff’s claims to proceed past  
15 the pleadings all suffer from the same error Plaintiff invites here: They “rely on the notion that  
16 the CAA has displaced federal common law, while failing to account for the fact that the plaintiffs’  
17 theory of causation and damages hinges on transboundary emissions, to which only federal law  
18 can apply.” *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*8. As the *New Jersey* court explained, “federal  
19 common law applied in the first place only because state law was not fit to govern,” and  
20 “Congress’s decision to displace and replace federal common law with a statutory scheme (the  
21 [CAA]) did not somehow render state law competent to apply to this exclusively federal subject  
22 matter.” *New Jersey*, 2025 WL 604846, at \*4. In other words, with the passage of the CAA, state  
23 law did not “suddenly become . . . competent to address issues that demand a unified federal  
24 standard.” *City of New York*, 993 F.3d at 98. The only reason federal common law *ever* arose is  
25 “because state law cannot be used.” *Id.* (citation omitted). Similarly, cases like *Boulder* and  
26 *Honolulu*—upon which Plaintiff heavily relies—are “not persuasive . . . because [they] d[o] not  
27 address this critical point.” *New Jersey*, 2025 WL 604846, at \*4; *see Cnty. Comm’rs of Boulder*

1 *Cnty. v. Suncor Energy USA, Inc.*, 2025 CO 21, ¶¶ 29–32 (Colo. 2025); *City & Cnty. of Honolulu*  
2 *v. Sunoco LP*, 537 P.3d 1173, 1196–98 (Haw. 2023); *see also* Order Denying Defendants’ Joint  
3 Motion to Dismiss for Failure to State a Claim at 1, *Shoalwater Bay Indian Tribe v. Exxon Mobil*  
4 *Corp.*, No. 23-2-25215-2 SEA (Wash. Super. Ct. Apr. 29, 2026).<sup>1</sup> Moreover, these cases—like  
5 this one—are in serious question now that the *Boulder* decision is under review by the U.S.  
6 Supreme Court. *See* 2026 WL 490537, at \*1 (U.S. Feb. 23, 2026) (granting certiorari).

7 **B. Plaintiff’s Washington Law Claims Are Preempted by the Clean Air Act.**

8 Plaintiff’s claims are also preempted by the CAA, which “preempts state law to the extent  
9 a state attempts to regulate air pollution originating in other states.” *Delaware*, 2024 WL 98888,  
10 at \*10. As *Baltimore I* explained, “[t]he CAA speaks directly to the domestic emissions issues in  
11 this case” and bars state-law claims “regardless of whether [the plaintiff] seeks injunctive relief or  
12 damages.” 2024 WL 3678699, at \*8; *see also Bucks County*, 2025 WL 1484203, at \*7 (“the Clean  
13 Air Act and the EPA actions it authorizes preempt[] Pennsylvania State law in this case”).

14 Through the CAA, Congress empowered the EPA to set national policy regarding interstate  
15 emissions. Because “[t]he appropriate amount of regulation in any particular greenhouse gas-  
16 producing sector cannot be prescribed in a vacuum” and an “informed assessment of competing  
17 interests is required,” Congress in the CAA tasked the EPA with the “complex balancing” of  
18 (1) the “environmental benefit potentially achievable” from emissions standards and (2) “our  
19 Nation’s energy needs and the possibility of economic disruption.” *AEP*, 564 U.S. at 427. Because  
20 Plaintiff’s claims seek remedies for harms allegedly caused by Defendants’ conduct in purportedly  
21 increasing global greenhouse gas emissions, those remedies would necessarily address out-of-state  
22 emissions. *See* Mot. 26. Multiple courts across the country have recognized, however, that  
23 “granting such remedies would upset the careful balance Congress struck through the  
24 comprehensive CAA regime overseen by EPA.” *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*10; *accord*  
25 *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*25; *Delaware*, 2024 WL 98888, at \*10; *Bucks Cnty.*, 2025 WL

26 \_\_\_\_\_  
27 <sup>1</sup> The *Connecticut* decision does not support Plaintiff for an even more fundamental reason: the  
28 State there did not seek “damages for the negative impacts of climate change.” *State v. Exxon*  
*Mobil Corp.*, 2025 WL 3459468, at \*11 (Conn. Super. Ct. Nov. 26, 2025).

1 1484203, at \*7.

2 Plaintiff cannot avoid the CAA’s preemptive force by characterizing her claims as mere  
3 challenges to allegedly deceptive marketing practices. Opp. 14. The essence of Plaintiff’s  
4 causation theory is that these statements induced greater consumption of Defendants’ products,  
5 which increased emissions, and that the resultant *increased emissions, combined with similar*  
6 *emissions in all other States* (and Nations), exacerbated climate change, thereby allegedly  
7 “creating and exacerbating the Heat Dome that caused Ms. Leon’s death.” *Id.* at 33. Indeed,  
8 Plaintiff intentionally and explicitly targets global emissions. *See, e.g.,* FAC ¶¶ 4.20–4.28 & fig.  
9 2 (alleging that “[t]he modern spike in atmospheric CO2 levels is directly correlated to the  
10 increased use of fossil fuels” and “CO2 emissions”). It is thus beyond dispute that the necessary  
11 and “*singular* source of [Plaintiff’s] harm” is worldwide greenhouse gas emissions. *City of New*  
12 *York*, 993 F.3d at 91 (emphasis added). Yet Plaintiff seeks remedies for such alleged harm under  
13 Washington law, which federal law prohibits. *Ouellette*, 479 U.S. at 494–95; *City of New York*,  
14 993 F.3d at 92. Allowing a single State’s tort law to provide remedies for the effects of allegedly  
15 excessive out-of-state emissions is incompatible with the CAA’s “delegation of authority and its  
16 comprehensive regulation” of emissions and would pose an “‘obstacle’ to the full implementation”  
17 of the CAA. *Ouellette*, 479 U.S. at 494, 500.

18 Although the CAA allows states to regulate *in-state* sources of pollution, suits under state  
19 law that seek to regulate, and to recover alleged damages from, *out-of-state* emissions—as here—  
20 are incompatible with the framework set out by Congress. *See, e.g., EPA v. EME Homer City*  
21 *Generation, L.P.*, 572 U.S. 489, 495 (2014) (explaining that states “lack authority to control” “out-  
22 of-state pollution” under state law). As the United States recently explained, “Plaintiffs’ theories  
23 will necessarily bring state law into conflict with the CAA” because they “would necessarily entail  
24 a judgment that [fossil-fuel] products were the source of too much out-of-state air pollution” as  
25 well as a determination of “how much greenhouse gases from their consumption would make them  
26 ‘not reasonably safe’”—judgments that the CAA “vests . . . with EPA.” U.S. Amicus Br. at 15–  
27 16, *Mayor & City Council of Baltimore v. B.P. P.L.C.*, No. 11 (Md. July 15, 2025).

1 Plaintiff tries to distinguish *Ouellette* on the ground that the *Ouellette* defendants’ effluents  
2 were regulated under the Clean Water Act’s permitting system, but that Defendants here point to  
3 no “Title V permits that govern the emissions they claim are at issue in this case.” Opp. 20. This  
4 argument misses the point. *Ouellette* turned on the limited nature of the CWA’s savings clause  
5 within the statute’s overall “regulatory structure,” 479 U.S. at 497—not the intricacies of the  
6 permitting process within that regulatory scheme. The Court observed that a broad interpretation  
7 of the savings clause, under which “an affected State’s law” could be applied “to an out-of-state  
8 source,” would “undermine this carefully drawn statute” by subjecting regulated entities “to a  
9 variety of common-law rules established by the different States,” rather than the CWA’s  
10 comprehensive framework. *Id.* at 494, 496. The same reasoning applies with greater force to the  
11 CAA’s savings clause. As the Maryland Supreme Court recently explained, a broad interpretation  
12 of the CAA’s savings clause would subject “any one emitter . . . [to] an ill-defined patchwork of  
13 liability across all 50 states” because “any alleged greenhouse gas effects are not traceable to any  
14 particular domestic or global source.” *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*25. Because this  
15 patchwork of regulations would undermine the CAA’s “detailed source- and pollution-specific  
16 control programs for nationwide air regulation,” such state-law claims are generally preempted,  
17 with the limited exception of source-state regulation recognized in *Ouellette*. *Baltimore II*, 2026  
18 WL 809501, at \*24.

19 Plaintiff also erroneously relies on the presumption against preemption, which arises when  
20 a court considers whether the traditional police powers of the States have been preempted by a  
21 federal statute. Opp. 12. But despite Plaintiff’s “[a]rtful pleading,” her suit unambiguously  
22 concerns “global greenhouse gas emissions,” *City of New York*, 993 F.3d at 91, an “area[] of special  
23 federal interest,” *AEP*, 564 U.S. at 424, that “the states have traditionally not occupied,” *City of*  
24 *New York*, 993 F.3d at 98 (emphasis omitted). Put differently, the regulation of interstate and  
25 international air and water pollution is not within the traditional police powers of the States.  
26 Consequently, “there is no beginning assumption that concurrent regulation by the State [in this  
27 area] is a valid exercise of its police powers.” *United States v. Locke*, 529 U.S. 89, 108 (2000).

1 Finally, Plaintiff suggests that EPA’s recent decision to repeal its 2009 endangerment  
2 finding concerning greenhouse gas emissions proves that there is no overriding federal interest.  
3 Opp. 24; *see also Rescission of the Greenhouse Gas Endangerment Finding and Motor Vehicle*  
4 *Greenhouse Gas Emission Standards Under the Clean Air Act*, 91 Fed. Reg. 7686, 7739 (Feb. 18,  
5 2026). Not so. When it repealed the finding, EPA expressly confirmed that the CAA “continues  
6 to preempt state common-law claims and statutes that seek to regulate out-of-state emissions.” 91  
7 Fed. Reg. at 7739. EPA did not and could not disturb the U.S. Supreme Court’s holding in  
8 *Massachusetts v. EPA* that “[b]ecause greenhouse gases fit well within the [Clean Air] Act’s  
9 capacious definition of ‘air pollutant,’” “EPA has the statutory authority to regulate the emission  
10 of such gases.” 549 U.S. 497, 532 (2007). The “critical point is that Congress delegated to EPA  
11 the decision *whether and how* to regulate carbon-dioxide emissions,” so even if EPA “decline[s]  
12 to regulate carbon-dioxide emissions altogether,” courts “would have no warrant” to “upset the  
13 Agency’s expert determination.” *AEP*, 564 U.S. at 426 (emphasis added). “The Clean Air Act is  
14 no less an exercise of the Legislature’s ‘considered judgment’ concerning the regulation of air  
15 pollution because it permits emissions *until* EPA acts.” *Id.*

16 **C. Plaintiff’s Claims Raise Non-Justiciable Political Questions Under the**  
17 **Separation-Of-Powers Doctrine.**

18 Plaintiff’s claims also fail because they would require the Court to interfere with the  
19 political branches’ power to set energy and climate policy, in violation of the separation-of-powers  
20 doctrine. Plaintiff does not dispute that the separation-of-powers doctrine precludes judicial  
21 resolution of cases where the factors identified in *Baker v. Carr*, 369 U.S. 186, 217 (1962), apply.  
22 *See* Opp. 26–27. These factors include (1) “a lack of judicially discoverable and manageable  
23 standards for resolving [the dispute],” and (2) “the impossibility of deciding without an initial  
24 policy determination of a kind clearly for nonjudicial discretion[.]” *Baker*, 369 U.S. at 217.

25 Both factors are present here, as the *Charleston* court explained in dismissing similar  
26 claims as “barred by the political-question doctrine[.]” 2025 WL 2269770, at \*12. There, as here,  
27 the plaintiff alleged that the defendants “failed to warn the public about the climate impacts of oil-  
28 and-gas products and engaged in a disinformation campaign to cast doubt on the science of climate

1 change.” *Id.* at \*1. There, as here, the plaintiff claimed that the defendants’ conduct “inflated and  
2 sustained consumers’ demand for fossil fuels,” which allegedly led to “increased greenhouse gas  
3 emissions” and “accelerat[ed] climate change,” causing harm. *Id.* at \*1. And there, as here, the  
4 plaintiff sought relief under state tort law. *Id.* The court refused to permit the plaintiff to do so.  
5 It explained that “[t]he appropriate amount of regulation in any particular greenhouse gas-  
6 producing sector’ raises ‘questions of national or international policy’ that require an ‘informed  
7 assessment of competing interests,’” which “[c]ourts lack ‘the scientific, economic, and technical  
8 resources’ to address[.]” *Id.* at \*12 (quoting *AEP*, 564 U.S. at 427–28). Moreover, “the balancing  
9 of various public interests required by [p]laintiff’s claims would require this Court to make  
10 sensitive policy determinations meant for nonjudicial discretion.” *Id.* at \*12.

11 Plaintiff tries to distinguish *Charleston* as an outlier, where the court thought that awarding  
12 abatement for climate change-related harm would require it to engage in tasks beyond the judicial  
13 function. Opp. 30. But Plaintiff cannot seriously dispute that the core theory of liability here and  
14 in *Charleston* is the same—that Defendants’ purportedly deceptive conduct led to greater use of  
15 fossil fuels, greater greenhouse gas emissions, and in turn to more severe weather due to global  
16 climate change. See 2025 WL 2269770, at \*1, \*4. Nor can she deny that the same concerns that  
17 motivated the *Charleston* court are at play here.<sup>2</sup>

18 Relatedly, Plaintiff also does not dispute that, just as the *Charleston* court identified, here  
19 too Plaintiff’s theory of liability “appears almost limitless” and would allow “virtually anyone” to  
20 be a plaintiff or a defendant in “what would effectively amount to a perpetual series of lawsuits”  
21 arising after every weather event. 2025 WL 2269770, at \*2; Mot. 2. Indeed, as the U.S.  
22 government explained under the Obama Administration, “[t]he numbers of persons who contribute

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23 <sup>2</sup> Plaintiff also attempts to downplay the justiciability concerns raised by her requested relief,  
24 arguing that the relief “seek[s] merely to remedy the disinformation and consumer confusion now  
25 rampant in Washington,” and describing it as “adequate warnings and cessation and correction of  
26 the deceptive conduct.” Opp. 27, 30. But the Complaint seeks equitable relief that is classically  
27 regulatory, namely a “public education campaign” and a mandate for “adequate” product warnings  
28 “at all links in the chain of distribution.” FAC ¶ 7.4. Determining whether and how to grant this  
relief would “inevitably involve resolution of questions reserved for the legislative and executive  
branches of government.” *Aji P. ex rel. Piper v. State*, 16 Wn. App. 2d 177, 183, 187, 480 P.3d  
438 (2021).

1 to and are affected by global warming are virtually limitless, and the effects of any one party’s  
2 conduct on another are far from direct.” Reply Br. of the Tennessee Valley Authority, *American*  
3 *Electric Power Company Inc. v. State of Connecticut*, 2011 WL 1393805, at \*13–14 (U.S. Apr.  
4 11, 2011). Accordingly, Plaintiff’s theory of liability would permit “almost unimaginably broad  
5 categories of both potential plaintiffs and potential defendants” to “litigate about widespread  
6 effects felt by individuals, corporations and governmental entities throughout the Nation and  
7 around the world, without even any need to establish that any individual defendant directly affected  
8 any individual plaintiff.” *Id.*

9         Despite her best efforts, Plaintiff also cannot distinguish a North Carolina court’s recent  
10 dismissal of a similar lawsuit brought against a utility company as barred by the political question  
11 doctrine. *See Duke*, 2026 WL 411466. Like Plaintiff here, the municipality alleged that the  
12 company knew about the “dangers of greenhouse gases” “emitted” by “burning of fossil fuels,”  
13 and that “rather than informing the public,” the company launched “public relations campaigns”  
14 that “misled the public” about “the causes and consequences of climate change.” *Id.* at \*2. The  
15 court dismissed the case under the political question doctrine because it “lack[ed] the capacity to  
16 resolve these issues” through “judicial adjudication.” *Id.* at \*9.

17         The *Duke* court recognized that climate change “is the result of the collective impact of  
18 acts by literally billions of unrelated emitters dispersed throughout the globe” and that the  
19 plaintiff’s claims thus required “decisions based on pure conjecture” and “rank speculation as to  
20 the internal motivations of hundreds of millions of individuals in the United States and the  
21 cumulative effect of their actions on a global phenomenon.” 2026 WL 411466, at \*9. It reasoned  
22 that “issues regarding climate change” “implicate political, economic, and moral choices made by  
23 governments and members of the public literally across the globe.” *Id.* And it was “impossible to  
24 quantify” the information from “global actors concerning the potential dangers or benefits of fossil  
25 fuels.” *Id.* Put another way, the plaintiff’s “claims and theory of recovery” raised a “multitude of  
26 unanswerable questions” that “no one—including twelve persons sitting in a[] jury box in 2026—  
27 could even begin to answer.” *Id.* at \*10, \*11. As such, the “common law doctrines” the  
28

1 municipality sued under “fail[ed] to provide the [c]ourt with a manageable framework within  
2 which to decide” the case. *Id.* at \*9.

3 Plaintiff suggests that *Duke* is distinguishable because it involved a public utilities  
4 company whose “conduct” was “rooted in decisions approved by the state’s utilities  
5 commission[.]” *See* Opp. 31; *see also Duke*, 2026 WL 411466, at \*1. But the *Duke* court  
6 specifically concluded that the “common law doctrines” the municipality sued under “fail[ed] to  
7 provide the [c]ourt with a manageable framework within which to decide” the case. *Duke*, 2026  
8 WL 411466, at \*9. Based in part on that conclusion, the court dismissed the municipality’s claim  
9 under the political question doctrine. *Id.* at \*9, \*15. No part of that analysis turned on the notion  
10 that the defendant’s alleged conduct—there, as here, purportedly misleading the public “about the  
11 effects of fossil fuel consumption on the environment” and thereby increasing greenhouse gas  
12 emissions, *id.* at \*1—was rooted in decisions approved by the state’s utility regulator.

13 Plaintiff insists that “emissions” must be “decoupled” from the tortious conduct alleged in  
14 her Complaint. *See* Opp. 26. But Plaintiff’s alleged injuries flow entirely from Defendants’  
15 alleged “deceptive promotion and sale of fossil fuels” that supposedly led to “increased use of  
16 fossil fuels that would be harmful,” *id.* 1, 5—*i.e.*, higher than “acceptable.” Plaintiff asserts that  
17 her damages are ultimately a by-product of “increased frequency and intensity of heat waves”  
18 caused by “[t]he modern spike in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels” and “the resulting disruption of the  
19 Earth’s energy balance.” FAC ¶¶ 4.20–4.21. And assessing whether Defendants’ conduct was  
20 “wrongful” or “unreasonable” in marketing fossil fuel products, *e.g.*, *id.*, ¶¶ 5.4–5.5, 5.17, 5.28,  
21 5.32–5.33, would necessarily turn on what level of emissions or emissions-generating activity is  
22 reasonable or acceptable. Plaintiff’s invocation of emissions as the mechanism of her alleged harm  
23 triggers the application of the political question doctrine regardless of how liability is styled. That  
24 doctrine bars this lawsuit.<sup>3</sup>

25 \_\_\_\_\_  
26 <sup>3</sup> It is for this reason that Plaintiff’s efforts to distinguish *California v. General Motors*, 2007 WL  
27 2726871(N.D. Cal. Sept. 17, 2007), *Native Vill. of Kivalina v. ExxonMobil*, 663 F. Supp. 2d 863  
28 (N.D. Cal. 2009), and *Comer v. Murphy Oil USA, Inc.*, 839 F. Supp. 2d 849 (S.D. Miss. 2012) also  
fail. *See* Opp. 29–30. Plaintiff argues that the complaints in those cases did not allege failure to  
warn or deception-related conduct, but rather sought to impose liability on defendants for engaging

1           **D. Plaintiff’s Claims Are Barred by the Statute of Limitations.**

2           As multiple other courts in similar climate suits have found, Plaintiff’s claims are barred  
3 by the statute of limitations, and Plaintiff’s arguments to the contrary are unpersuasive. The parties  
4 agree that the statute of limitations for Plaintiff’s claims is, at most, three years from accrual of the  
5 cause of action. The parties also agree that Plaintiff’s suit was filed *more* than three years from  
6 Ms. Leon’s death. And the parties further agree that the appropriate standard to assess the  
7 timeliness of Plaintiff’s suit is “when the plaintiff knew *or should have known*” of the basis for her  
8 claims. Opp. 32 (quoting *Allen v. State*, 118 Wn.2d 753, 758, 826 P.2d 200 (1992)) (emphasis  
9 added). Here, Plaintiff’s *own allegations in her Complaint*—as well as material in the public  
10 record that the Court may consider—make clear that Plaintiff should have known of the facts  
11 essential to her claims earlier than three years before she filed suit. Accordingly, Plaintiff’s claims  
12 are time-barred.

13           A complaint is subject to dismissal under CR 12(b)(6) when the “plaintiff includes  
14 allegations that show on the face of the complaint” that the plaintiff’s claim fails. *Kinney v. Cook*,  
15 159 Wn.2d 837, 842, 154 P.3d 206 (2007) (quotation marks omitted). Here, Plaintiff’s allegations  
16 demonstrate, on the face of the Complaint, that she brought her claims after the limitations period  
17 expired. Mot. 33–35. Plaintiff’s allegations unequivocally demonstrate that the connection  
18 between greenhouse gas emissions and global climate change, and claims that climate change  
19 could cause or exacerbate weather events, have been publicly known for decades. Indeed, the  
20 Complaint alleges “widespread public awareness of climate change” by “the late 1980s and early  
21 1990s.” FAC ¶4.51. Crucially, Plaintiff’s own allegations likewise confirm that claims regarding  
22 Defendants’ purported deception and conduct were widely known years before Ms. Leon’s death.

23 \_\_\_\_\_  
24 in their respective spheres of commerce. *Id.* But the plaintiffs in those cases ultimately sought to  
25 impose tort liability for alleged harms caused by emissions. *See General Motors*, 2007 WL  
26 2726871, at \*1–2; *Kivalina*, 663 F. Supp. 2d at 868–69; *Comer*, 839 F. Supp. 2d at 852, 854. The  
27 same is true of Plaintiff’s claims here. The political question doctrine bars these claims. Plaintiff’s  
28 insistence that she seeks only to “hold Defendants accountable for a deceptive misinformation  
campaign is simply a way to get in the back door what [she] cannot get in the front door.”  
*Baltimore I*, 2024 WL 3678699, at \*6.

1 For example, the Complaint alleges that, as early as 2007, there was Congressional testimony  
2 regarding industry funding of supposedly deceptive groups, and that one Defendant “receive[d]  
3 backlash” for purportedly funding groups that “misrepresented the science of climate change.” *Id.*  
4 ¶¶ 4.74, 4.76. Moreover, the Complaint *repeatedly* cites news articles and other public sources  
5 published prior to, or at the time of, Ms. Leon’s death that explicitly advance the same set of  
6 deception allegations asserted by Plaintiff. *See, e.g., id.* ¶¶ 4.67(d) n.86, 4.69 n.88, 4.72 n.107,  
7 4.74 n.108, 4.82 n.113, 4.83 n.115, 4.87(a) n.124, 4.98(a) n.138, 4.99(e) n.146. These allegations  
8 in the Complaint establish that Plaintiff was on notice of all the facts essential to her claims long  
9 before she filed suit.

10 Plaintiff makes virtually no effort to address these allegations in her own Complaint.  
11 Instead, she asserts that Defendants are attempting to “set forth” a “hypothetical set of facts”  
12 supporting their limitations argument. *Opp.* 33. That is incorrect. Defendants are not speculating  
13 about some hypothetical set of facts; they are identifying the allegations *in Plaintiff’s Complaint*  
14 *itself* that make clear that her claims are time-barred. And Washington courts dismiss claims on  
15 the pleadings as time-barred when “the complaint itself belies” the plaintiff’s arguments as to the  
16 discovery rule. *Larson v. Jarritos, Inc.*, 17 Wn. App. 2d 1072, 2021 WL 2346154, at \*3 (June 8,  
17 2021) (unpublished) (affirming CR 12(b)(6) dismissal of product liability claims); *see also, e.g.,*  
18 *Atchison v. Great Western Malting Co.*, 161 Wn.2d 372, 382, 166 P.3d 662 (2007) (affirming CR  
19 12(b)(6) dismissal on statute of limitations grounds).

20 Although the allegations in the Complaint are sufficient to find that Plaintiff’s claims are  
21 time-barred, other materials in the public record demonstrate the same thing. Government reports,  
22 including from the federal government, the Washington state government, and the City of Seattle,  
23 promptly and explicitly connected the 2021 Heat Dome to climate change. *Mot.* 35–36. And  
24 dozens of local and state governments, *including King County*, have filed lawsuits going back  
25 decades alleging the same sort of deception and misinformation that Plaintiff alleges here. *Mot.*  
26 36–37. Again, this material establishes beyond doubt that Plaintiff had, or should have had, all the  
27 information needed to file suit at the time of Ms. Leon’s death.

1           Whether considering solely Plaintiff’s allegations or also the public record, it is clear that  
2 the discovery rule cannot salvage Plaintiff’s claims. “The discovery rule requires a plaintiff to use  
3 due diligence in discovering the basis for the cause of action,” *Allen*, 118 Wn.2d at 758, and it “is  
4 not invoked when the plaintiff had ready access to information that a wrong occurred,” *Batten*,  
5 2025 WL 1819236, at \*3 (cleaned up). “In other words, the discovery rule will postpone the  
6 running of a statute of limitations only until the time when a plaintiff, through the exercise of due  
7 diligence, should have discovered the basis for the cause of action. A cause of action will accrue  
8 on that date even if *actual* discovery did not occur until later.” *Allen*, 118 Wn.2d at 758. Here,  
9 the allegations in Plaintiff’s Complaint, supported by material in the public record, reflect that  
10 Plaintiff, exercising due diligence, should have discovered the basis for her claims prior to May  
11 2022—three years before she filed suit.

12           Tellingly, Plaintiff does not identify any facts she could not have discovered during the  
13 limitations period. The best she can do is cite to a handful of cursory allegations that she exercised  
14 due diligence and filed suit upon discovering the facts essential to her claims. Opp. 33–34 (quoting  
15 FAC ¶¶ 3.11–3.13). But these “conclusory allegations,” *Arreola-Martinez v. State*, 36 Wn. App.  
16 2d 1025, 2026 WL 84585, at \*5 (Jan. 12, 2026) (unpublished), are insufficient to defeat a CR  
17 12(b)(6) motion to dismiss or overcome the explicit allegations in the Complaint reflecting that  
18 Plaintiff was on notice of her claims. *See also, e.g., Grimes v. Grimes*, 27 Wn. App. 2d 1015, 2023  
19 WL 4174352, at \*3 n.6 (June 26, 2023) (unpublished) (plaintiff did not “allege[] facts that support  
20 a claim of conspiracy” when his assertions “rested on conclusory allegations not supported by  
21 facts” (citing *Haberman v. Wash. Pub. Power Supply Sys.*, 109 Wn.2d 107, 120, 744 P.2d 1032  
22 (1987))). Plaintiff cannot allege specific facts in her Complaint that establish all the information  
23 that was reasonably available to her, and then ask the Court to disregard those specific allegations  
24 with a vague claim that she should not have been expected to discover any of this information.

25           Nor do any of Plaintiff’s remaining reasons why a “reasonable person” should not have  
26 been aware of this “public information,” Opp. 34, pass muster. Plaintiff asserts that Defendants’  
27 argument “omits any consideration” of their alleged deception campaign. *Id.* To the contrary,

1 Defendants explicitly noted that allegations regarding Defendants’ purported deception were  
2 widely known as of Ms. Leon’s death, as reflected in the numerous news articles and other public  
3 sources on this exact topic available prior to the limitations period and *cited in Plaintiff’s*  
4 *Complaint*. Mot. 34–35. Because public reporting on deception allegations was prolific and  
5 widely available to Plaintiff, this alleged deception was not a basis to delay accrual of Plaintiff’s  
6 causes of action.

7 Next, Plaintiff contends that she should not have been on notice from news articles or other  
8 lawsuits. The sources cited by Defendants are not “cherry-picked,” Opp. 35, but rather reflect  
9 widespread reporting on the issues raised by Plaintiff’s Complaint by government entities,  
10 litigants, and the news media, including King County and the City of Seattle. And, again,  
11 Defendants’ sources are largely those cited by Plaintiff in her Complaint. Plaintiff cites several  
12 non-Washington cases, but ignores the on-point Washington authority, *Allen v. State*, which  
13 affirmed that when an event “received considerable attention in local newspapers,” “[t]he facts  
14 were all available for [the plaintiff] to discover through the exercise of due diligence.” 118 Wn.2d  
15 at 759. There can be no dispute that climate change, its effects, and Defendants’ alleged deception  
16 have received decidedly more coverage than mere “attention in local newspapers.”

17 Finally, Plaintiff argues that Defendants’ “introduction of extrinsic evidence is  
18 inappropriate.” Opp. 35. But it is well-established that “[o]n a ruling on a motion to dismiss, the  
19 trial court may take judicial notice of public documents if their authenticity cannot be reasonably  
20 disputed.” *Est. of McCartney v. Pierce Cnty.*, 22 Wn. App. 2d 665, 677, 513 P.3d 119 (2022).  
21 Defendants noted this principle in their motion, Mot. 35 n.9, but Plaintiff ignores it. And here  
22 Defendants cite a panoply of public documents, from all levels and multiple branches of  
23 government, alerting Plaintiff to the issues raised by her suit.

24 Multiple courts have found similar climate claims untimely based on the same publicly  
25 available information. Those courts have also rejected the plaintiffs’ nearly identical discovery  
26 rule arguments. The *Delaware* court cited documents “showing that the general public had  
27 knowledge of or had access to information about the disputes . . . decades prior to the expiration

1 of the five-year limitations period,” including from news articles and prior litigation. 2024 WL  
2 98888, at \*19. The *Baltimore I* court held that “[t]he statements and allegations made in the  
3 complaint make it clear that Baltimore was well aware of Defendants’ alleged conduct” before the  
4 limitations period. 2024 WL 3678699, at \*15. The *Charleston* court emphasized that “[a]ny  
5 assertion that Plaintiff was not on reasonable notice of the facts giving rise to its claims by [the  
6 limitations period] is belied by its own allegations.” 2025 WL 2269770, at \*14. And the *Bayamón*  
7 and *San Juan* courts concluded that “Plaintiffs’ claims are barred by the applicable statutes of  
8 limitations, and no equitable doctrine salvages them” because the relevant information was  
9 “readily apparent from the coverage in the popular press, the court cases, and the reports, and  
10 Plaintiffs were not diligent.” *Bayamón*, 2025 WL 2630671, at \*24, \*27; *see also San Juan*, 2025  
11 WL 2848565, at \*3–5. Plaintiff contends that these decisions were either “erroneous[]” or  
12 “involved different . . . standards,” *Opp.* 32 n.6, but in reality those courts had the same task as  
13 this Court: to evaluate whether the plaintiffs’ claims were viable based on their allegations, the  
14 appropriate record, and the law. These courts all concluded that the climate plaintiffs’ claims were  
15 time-barred, and this Court should reach the same result.

16 **E. Washington Law Requires Dismissal of Plaintiff’s Claims.**

17 Plaintiff also fails to plead facts sufficient to state a claim under Washington law, and  
18 Plaintiff’s arguments to the contrary are unavailing.<sup>4</sup>

19 **1. Plaintiff Fails to Allege a Public Nuisance.**

20 Plaintiff fails to state a claim for public nuisance for two reasons: (1) Plaintiff’s nuisance  
21 claim is a product-liability claim that is preempted by the WPLA; and (2) Plaintiff fails to allege  
22 the required unreasonable interference with her use and enjoyment of property.

23 **a.** Plaintiff contends that her nuisance claim is not preempted by the WPLA because  
24 the WPLA preempts only common-law claims and remedies but not statutory claims. *Opp.* 37.  
25 That is incorrect. The WPLA defines a “[p]roduct liability claim” that must be brought under the  
26 WPLA as “any claim or action brought for harm caused by the manufacture, production, making,

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27 <sup>4</sup> Plaintiff does not dispute that, if her public nuisance and WPLA claims fail as a matter of law,  
28 her derivative “Wrongful Death and Survival” claim must also be dismissed. *See* FAC ¶ 5.4.

1 construction, fabrication, design, formula, preparation, assembly, installation, testing, warnings,  
2 instructions, marketing, packaging, storage or labeling of the relevant product.” RCW  
3 7.72.010(4) (emphasis added). Such preempted claims “include[], *but [are] not limited to*, any  
4 claim or action previously based on: Strict liability in tort; negligence; breach of express or  
5 implied warranty” and other theories. *Id.* (emphasis added).

6 “The scope of the statute could not have been stated more broadly,” and there is nothing  
7 whatsoever in its text to indicate that the WPLA’s reference to “any claim or action” sub silentio  
8 excludes from its scope statutory actions that sound in products liability. *Wash. Water Power*  
9 *Co. v. Graybar Elec. Co.*, 112 Wn.2d 847, 853–54, 774 P.2d 1199 (1989) (quoting RCW  
10 7.72.010(4)). To the contrary, “Washington courts have repeatedly construed the word ‘any’ to  
11 mean ‘every’ and ‘all.’” *State v. Smith*, 117 Wn.2d 263, 271, 814 P.2d 652 (1991). Indeed,  
12 Plaintiff’s contention—that the WPLA preempts only common-law claims—cannot be squared  
13 with the statutory text; the WPLA specifically exempts *statutory* Consumer Protection Act claims  
14 from its preemptive scope. RCW 7.72.010(4). If, as Plaintiff insists, the WPLA preempted only  
15 common-law claims, then this enumerated exemption for statutory Consumer Protection Act  
16 claims would be meaningless. *See Atkerson v. State*, 4 Wn.3d 307, 315, 562 P.3d 1256 (2025)  
17 (“Statutes must be interpreted and construed so that all the language used is given effect, with  
18 no portion rendered meaningless or superfluous.” (quoting *City of Seattle v. State*, 136 Wn.2d  
19 693, 698, 965 P.2d 619 (1998))). Thus, properly interpreted, the WPLA preempts any claims or  
20 actions brought for harm caused by a product—regardless of whether they are common-law or  
21 statutory—except for those explicitly exempted by the WPLA.

22 Plaintiff relies (Opp. 37) on a single federal district court’s conclusion that claims for  
23 public nuisance are not preempted by the WPLA because they are statutory causes of action. *See*  
24 *City of Seattle v. Monsanto Co.*, 237 F. Supp. 3d 1096, 1102 (W.D. Wash. 2017). That conclusion  
25 is wrong. The *City of Seattle* court rested this invented distinction between common-law and  
26 statutory claims on the Washington Supreme Court’s decision in *Graybar*, which held that “the  
27 WPLA means nothing if it does not preempt common law product liability remedies.” 112 Wn.2d

1 at 853. But nothing in *Graybar* suggests that the WPLA preempts *only* common-law claims. To  
2 the contrary, *Graybar* emphasized that “[t]he scope of the statute could not have been stated more  
3 broadly.” *Id.* at 854. It noted that the Senate Select Committee on Tort and Product Liability  
4 Reform had explained that the WPLA was adopted because “one of the most confusing areas of  
5 product liability tort law involves the variety of causes of actions” and that “the creation of a  
6 single cause of action, termed a ‘product liability claim’ . . . , eliminates this confusion and should  
7 be adopted.” *Id.* (quoting Senate Select Comm. on Tort and Product Liability Reform, *Final*  
8 *Report* 16 (Jan. 1981)). *Graybar* accordingly held that “[w]e cannot dilute” the WPLA’s  
9 definition of “product liability claim” “without frustrating the entire scheme of the statute.” *Id.*

10 Plaintiff also attempts to avoid the WPLA’s preemptive scope by claiming that her public-  
11 nuisance claim purportedly does not target harms caused by Defendants’ “fossil fuel *products*.”  
12 *Opp.* 37. But Plaintiff cannot reasonably deny that her nuisance claim is one “brought for harm  
13 caused by the . . . warnings, instructions, [and] marketing” of Defendants’ fossil-fuel products,  
14 and thus falls within the WPLA’s broad definition of a “[p]roduct liability claim.” RCW  
15 7.72.010(4). Plaintiff’s nuisance claim is based on allegations that Defendants “promot[ed] and  
16 creat[ed] the sale and use of fossil fuels without warning consumers that using fossil fuels would  
17 cause dangerous climate change,” that Defendants “misleadingly promot[ed] fossil fuel products  
18 as sustainable, clean energy products,” and that Defendants’ alleged deception “increased demand  
19 for fossil fuels and decreased demand for clean energy,” which “directly lead to increased  
20 greenhouse gas emissions, rendering deception a cause of [Ms. Leon’s] death.” FAC ¶¶ 5.28–  
21 5.29. Indeed, in the very next sentence after Plaintiff contends her nuisance claim does *not* target  
22 the effects of Defendants’ fossil-fuel products, Plaintiff argues that her nuisance claim rests on  
23 allegations that Defendants promoted the sale and use of fossil-fuel *products* while knowing that  
24 “expanding the use of those *products* would exacerbate climate change and cause harm.” *Opp.*  
25 37 (emphasis added). The fact that Plaintiff cannot even describe her nuisance claim without  
26 focusing on harms allegedly caused by Defendants’ products proves that her nuisance claim  
27

1 sounds in product liability and is preempted by the WPLA.<sup>5</sup>

2 Plaintiff pivots to arguing that, even if the WPLA would otherwise preempt her nuisance  
3 claim, the claim falls within the WPLA’s exemption for claims based on a “substantive legal  
4 theory” of “intentionally caused harm” under RCW 7.72.010(4), because Plaintiff alleged in her  
5 complaint that Defendants “actively engaged in fraudulent campaigns to conceal the risk of harm  
6 to the public.” Opp. 38. Plaintiff is mistaken. The WPLA’s exemption for claims of  
7 “intentionally caused harm” applies *only to claims where intent is an element of the cause of*  
8 *action—i.e., intentional torts.* *McCarthy v. Amazon.com, Inc.*, 679 F. Supp. 3d 1058, 1077 n.16  
9 (W.D. Wash. 2023) (noting that “the WPLA ‘intentionally caused harm’ exception applies only  
10 to ‘intentional tort[s]’”). If a tort “does not include intent as an essential element,” it “is not an  
11 intentional tort.” *Emeson v. Dep’t of Corr.*, 194 Wn. App. 617, 638–39, 376 P.3d 430 (2016).  
12 Because intent is not an element of a public-nuisance claim under RCW 7.48, Plaintiff cannot  
13 evade preemption.

14 Neither of the cases that Plaintiff cites elaborating the meaning of “intent” involved  
15 WPLA’s “intentionally caused harm” exemption, and they shed no light on its scope. *See Bradley*  
16 *v. Am. Smelting & Refin. Co.*, 104 Wn.2d 677, 683–84, 709 P.2d 782 (1985) (discussing “intent  
17 necessary to find a trespass”); *Birkliid v. Boeing Co.*, 127 Wn.2d 853, 855, 904 P.2d 278 (1995)  
18 (interpreting “deliberate intention” in Washington’s Industrial Insurance Act). And *City of*  
19 *Seattle* actually cuts *against* Plaintiff on this point. Even though that case’s “defective design”  
20 and “failure to warn” claims included “allegations of intentional conduct,” the court nonetheless  
21 held that they “fall within the WPLA’s preemptive scope” because they were “common-law  
22 claims which sound in either strict liability or negligence” and “are now clearly contemplated by

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24 <sup>5</sup> Plaintiff relies (Opp. 37) on an out-of-state decision allowing a public-nuisance claim to proceed  
25 under California law because the court viewed the challenged conduct as “quite similar to  
26 instructing the purchaser to use the product in a hazardous manner,” which the court viewed as  
27 distinct from product-liability claims. *See County of Santa Clara v. Atl. Richfield Co.*, 137 Cal.  
28 App. 4th 292, 309 (Cal. Ct. App. 2006). But this decision does not help Plaintiff because the  
WPLA preempts “any claim or action brought for harm caused by the . . . instructions . . . [for a]  
relevant product,” so the claim in *Atlantic Richfield* would have been preempted by the WPLA if  
it had been brought in Washington. RCW 7.72.010(4).

1 the WPLA’s ‘liability of manufacturer’ cause of action.” *City of Seattle*, 237 F. Supp. 3d at 1102–  
2 03. Because Plaintiff’s public-nuisance claim is a product-liability claim that is not an intentional  
3 tort, it is preempted by the WPLA.

4       **b.** Plaintiff contends (Opp. 38–40) that she need not allege an unreasonable  
5 interference with her use and enjoyment of property to state a public nuisance claim, because the  
6 statute broadly defines nuisance to include acts or omissions that “annoy[], injure[], or endanger[]  
7 the comfort, repose, health or safety of others,” or “in any way “render[] other persons insecure  
8 in life, or in the use of property.” RCW 7.48.120. But the Washington Supreme Court has held  
9 that, “[d]espite this expansive definition, generally, an activity is a nuisance only when it  
10 ‘interferes unreasonably with other persons’ use and enjoyment of their property.’” *Moore v.*  
11 *Steve’s Outboard Serv.*, 182 Wn.2d 151, 155, 339 P.3d 169 (2014) (quoting *Tiegs v. Watts*, 135  
12 Wn.2d 1, 13, 954 P.2d 877 (1998)). Several other cases—which Defendants cited in their opening  
13 brief, Mot. 39–40—have similarly held that a nuisance claim must allege an unreasonable  
14 interference with the plaintiff’s use and enjoyment of property. *Grundy v. Thurston Cnty.*, 155  
15 Wn.2d 1, 6, 117 P.3d 1089 (2005) (“Nuisance is ‘a substantial and unreasonable interference with  
16 the use and enjoyment of land.’”) (citation omitted); *MJD Props., LLC v. Haley*, 189 Wn. App.  
17 963, 970, 358 P.3d 476 (2015) (“An activity constitutes a nuisance when it interferes  
18 unreasonably with a neighbor’s use and enjoyment of his or her property.”); *Donner v. Blue*, 187  
19 Wn. App. 51, 65, 347 P.3d 881 (2015) (“Nuisance and trespass are related claims focusing on the  
20 invasion of a property interest.”).

21       Plaintiff has no response to most of these cases, and the responses she does provide are  
22 unpersuasive. Plaintiff asserts that *Moore* involved a nuisance *per se* and did not establish that a  
23 plaintiff must allege an unreasonable interference with property outside that context. Opp. 40.  
24 But *Moore* actually held *the opposite*: According to the Washington Supreme Court, to be a  
25 nuisance in general, an act must “interfere[] unreasonably with other persons’ use and enjoyment  
26 of their property,” whereas, “[i]n contrast, ‘[a] nuisance per se is an act, thing, omission, or use  
27 of property which of itself is a nuisance’ ... regardless of the reasonableness of the defendant’s

1 conduct.” 182 Wn.2d at 155. And in any event, the relevant distinction between nuisance and  
2 nuisance *per se* is not whether the nuisance interferes with another’s property rights but whether  
3 the defendant’s conduct was unreasonable. As the Western District of Washington has explained,  
4 even when a plaintiff establishes that conduct “constitutes a nuisance *per se*, it still must show  
5 that this nuisance caused some level of interference with its property interest” because that is an  
6 essential “aspect of a nuisance claim.” *S. Lake Union Hotel LLC v. F&F Rogers Family Ltd.*  
7 *P’ship*, 2025 WL 1744784, at \*4 (W.D. Wash. June 24, 2025). Thus, contrary to Plaintiff’s  
8 assertion, the cases Defendants cited *do* recognize “a general rule that all nuisance claims must  
9 involve interference with the use of land or harms to property.” Opp. 40.

10 Plaintiff faults Defendants for not citing cases allowing nuisance claims to proceed that  
11 did *not* involve “alleged interferences with use of property,” Opp. 39, but that is precisely the  
12 point: such cases do not exist because nuisances in Washington require an alleged interference  
13 with the use or enjoyment of property. That is why, when plaintiffs have brought nuisance claims  
14 for injuries that do not involve an interference with property—such as the burning of a plaintiff’s  
15 cat—courts have refused to allow such claims to proceed because they do not involve “a loss  
16 related to land or property fixed to the land.” *Womack v. Von Rardon*, 133 Wn. App. 254, 257,  
17 260, 135 P.3d 542 (2006). Plaintiff’s claim that *Womack* did not involve an “interference with  
18 public health and safety,” Opp. 39, is puzzling given that “using gasoline” to set a cat on fire at  
19 “a nearby school” would appear to interfere with public health and safety. *Womack*, 133 Wn.  
20 App. at 257.

21 The only authority Plaintiff musters for her argument that a public nuisance claim does  
22 not require an alleged interference with use and enjoyment of property is a non-binding trial court  
23 decision holding that “in[ter]ference with real property is not required.” *State v. Purdue Pharma*  
24 *L.P.*, 2018 WL 7892618, at \*2 (Wash. Super. Ct. May 14, 2018). But a trial court cannot overrule  
25 the repeated holdings of Washington appellate courts that “[d]espite [the statute’s] expansive  
26 definition,” “an activity is a nuisance only when it ‘interferes unreasonably with other persons’  
27 use and enjoyment of their property.” *Moore*, 182 Wn.2d at 155. And in any event, *Purdue*

1 *Pharma* is distinguishable because it held in the alternative that, even if an interference with real  
2 property is required to state a public-nuisance claim (and it is), “the State has made threshold  
3 allegations that would connect Purdue’s conduct to real property in the State.” *Purdue Pharma*,  
4 2018 WL 7892618, at \*2.

5 Because Plaintiff’s nuisance claim is barred by the WPLA and Plaintiff fails to allege  
6 the required interference with her use and enjoyment of real property, the Court should dismiss  
7 her nuisance claim.

8 **2. Plaintiff’s Failure-To-Warn Claim Fails Because Defendants Had No**  
9 **Duty to Warn the World of Widely Publicized Risks Relating to**  
10 **Climate Change.**

11 This Court should dismiss Plaintiff’s claim under the WPLA, RCW 7.72.030 and 7.72.040,  
12 because it exceeds the bounds of product liability law. The claim fails for two reasons.

13 *First*, there is no duty to warn about known or obvious dangers. *See, e.g., Baughn v. Honda*  
14 *Motor Co.*, 107 Wn.2d 127, 139, 727 P.2d 655 (1986) (“It is established law that a warning need  
15 not be given at all in instances where a danger is obvious or known.”). The Complaint itself  
16 acknowledges widespread discussion of climate risks spanning several decades. *See, e.g., FAC*  
17 ¶¶ 4.35, 4.51, 4.51(a)–(b), 4.64, 4.65. Those allegations foreclose Plaintiff’s WPLA claim.  
18 Plaintiff’s primary response is that this argument is a question for the trier of fact. *See Opp.* 42.  
19 Plaintiff asserts that dissemination of information among “technical and scientific forums” does  
20 not establish knowledge among consumers, and states that “where climate change was part of  
21 public debate[,]” Defendants “tempered conclusions of harm and downplayed any relationship [to  
22 fossil fuels].” *Id.* But Defendants’ argument is based on Plaintiff’s own allegations—including  
23 allegations of *public knowledge*—and they are buttressed by the undisputed public record. *See*  
24 *Mot.* 41–42.

25 For example, the Complaint concedes that (i) as far back as 1965, interest in understanding  
26 climate change “*permeated the public-private divide*”; (ii) events as far back as the 1980s led to  
27 “widespread *public* awareness” of climate change; (iii) in the 1980s, congressional testimony  
28 regarding the fact that human activities were causing global warming was “*widely publicized*,”  
including on the front page of the *New York Times*; (iv) in the 1990s, the *New York Times*

1 reported that experts warned climate change could cause “thousands of additional deaths each year  
2 during heat waves[;]” and (v) in the 1990s, mainstream media outlets reported that 1995 was the  
3 “hottest year on record” *due to “fossil fuel-induced climate change.”* FAC ¶¶ 4.35, 4.51, 4.51(a),  
4 4.64, 4.65 (emphases added). Plaintiff cannot seriously dispute that a reasonable consumer would  
5 have been aware of the alleged climate impacts of fossil fuel combustion which are the focus of  
6 the Complaint. *See Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*16 (dismissing similar climate change  
7 failure to warn claim because “Defendants had no duty to warn customers, let alone the public at  
8 large, of such well-understood dangers.”).

9 **Second**, Plaintiff’s claim seeks to impose liability based on a limitless “duty to warn the  
10 entire human race of the effects of climate change.” *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*32. No  
11 such duty exists. *See* Restatement (Second) of Torts §§ 388, 402 A, 402 B (containing no such  
12 duty); Opp. 43 (conceding that Washington follows the Second Restatement of Torts). As the  
13 Maryland Supreme Court explained, “[f]inding such a duty would stretch tort law beyond any  
14 manageable bounds.” *Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*32. Plaintiff now attempts to minimize  
15 the apparent scope of intended liability by asserting that her claims do not turn on a duty to warn  
16 the world or society at large, but merely on a “duty to warn fossil fuel consumers *in Washington*  
17 about their products’ risks.” Opp. 43. But Plaintiff’s own Complaint seeks damages for  
18 Defendants’ purported failure to warn *all of society* (not just Ms. Leon) about the risks of fossil-  
19 fuel combustion, which allegedly contributed to individual purchasing decisions and public-policy  
20 choices by countless third parties globally, and had the aggregate effect, over decades, of  
21 incrementally increasing emissions across the planet. *See, e.g.*, FAC ¶ 4.110 (alleging that  
22 Defendants’ “failure to warn” “deprived *the public*” of “the information necessary to mitigate  
23 climate change” (emphasis added)); *see also* Mot. 43; FAC ¶¶ 1.3, 1.9, 1.11, 1.13, 4.56, 4.67, 4.80,  
24 4.104, 4.108–09, 4.112, 5.15, 5.22.

25 Plaintiff does not contend that Ms. Leon’s death stemmed from Ms. Leon’s use of or direct  
26 contact with any of Defendants’ fossil-fuel products. And she does not assert that Ms. Leon’s  
27 death could have been avoided by any warning provided to Ms. Leon. Nor does she even contend

1 that Ms. Leon’s death could have been avoided by warning all Washington residents, as she does  
2 not and could not allege that Ms. Leon’s death was caused exclusively by emissions in  
3 Washington. Instead, her claim necessarily depends on the theory that Defendants purportedly  
4 failed to warn every individual in societies worldwide about the risk of fossil-fuel consumption,  
5 which allegedly contributed to individual purchasing choices and public-policy decisions by  
6 countless third parties, exacerbating global climate risks. This is why, despite Plaintiff’s  
7 contentions otherwise, “[i]mposing a duty on Defendants would be establishing a duty to warn the  
8 world,” which “would be extended to every single human being on the planet whose use of fossil  
9 fuel products may have contributed to global climate change[.]” *Baltimore I*, 2024 WL 3678699,  
10 at \*11–12.

11 Plaintiff does not identify any case from a Washington court recognizing the duty she urges  
12 this Court to adopt. Plaintiff cites *Washburn v. Federal Way*, 178 Wn.2d 732, 310 P.3d 1275  
13 (2013) and *Scott v. Amazon.com, Inc.*, 583 P.3d 1155 (2026), for the general proposition that duties  
14 can run to “third parties” and require a defendant “to avoid exposing another to harm through the  
15 foreseeable conduct of a third party,” *Scott*, 583 P.3d at 1162; *see* Opp. 43–44. But here, however,  
16 no such purchase, use, or contact is alleged. Instead, Plaintiff seeks to hold Defendants liable for  
17 risks that flow from a myriad of factors, over decades, and around the globe. *See* Opp. 43–44. As  
18 explained, asserting this sweeping duty to warn—with such an attenuated connection to the harm  
19 alleged—would represent a gross distortion of product liability principles. *See* Mot. 43–45.

20 *Washburn* and *Scott* do not come close to endorsing Plaintiff’s theory here. In *Washburn*,  
21 the plaintiffs’ mother was killed by her abusive partner after the partner received an anti-  
22 harassment order from police. *Washburn*, 178 Wn.2d at 738–40. The case discussed the public  
23 duty doctrine and the duty of care owed by a municipality when police serve anti-harassment  
24 orders, addressing the foreseeability of third-party criminal conduct within that context. *See id.* at  
25 739–40, 752, 757, 761–62. *Washburn* is not about product liability law or the duty to warn. *Scott*  
26 involved the deaths by suicide of individuals who purchased sodium nitrate from the defendant’s  
27 website and then ingested it. *See* 583 P.3d at 1157. The harm in *Scott* was caused by direct contact

1 with the defendant’s products, namely sodium nitrate poisoning. *See id.* It was in the context of  
2 that direct harm that the court was addressing the duty to avoid foreseeable harm. *See id.* at 1157,  
3 1161–63. In contrast here, Plaintiff does not claim that Ms. Leon’s death stemmed from direct  
4 contact with any of Defendants’ products, or that Ms. Leon’s death could have been avoided had  
5 she been warned about global climate change.

6 Thus, while Plaintiff attempts to argue otherwise, Opp. 43–44, Plaintiff’s WPLA claim far  
7 exceeds the scope of long-established product liability principles. Multiple courts have concluded  
8 that substantially similar failure-to-warn claims in other climate cases should be dismissed under  
9 state law. *See, e.g., Baltimore II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*32; *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*16  
10 (holding that “Defendants had no duty to warn customers, let alone the public at large,” of the  
11 “well-understood” dangers of fossil fuel emissions); *Baltimore I*, 2024 WL 3678699, at \*12  
12 (holding that Baltimore’s proposed “duty . . . to the world” is “what Maryland law warns against”).  
13 As in *Charleston*, the Complaint here is “concerned exclusively with alleged adverse impacts of  
14 worldwide collective use of products like those produced by Defendants—whatever their source.  
15 That is not the sort of thing that the law requires producers of lawful products to disclose.” 2025  
16 WL 2269770, at \*17.<sup>6</sup>

### 17 III. CONCLUSION

18 Allowing Plaintiff’s claims to proceed here would inevitably open the floodgates to  
19 baseless and unfounded litigation—a “perpetual series of lawsuits that reset after every storm,”  
20 marked by “unbounded” lists of potential plaintiffs and defendants and “limitless” theories of  
21 liability. *Charleston*, 2025 WL 2269770, at \*2. The result would be a “plainly ‘irrational system  
22 of regulation’ that would lead to ‘chaotic confrontation between sovereign states,’” as “each of the  
23 50 states” sought “to impose their own preferred policy solutions for climate change.” *Baltimore*

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25 <sup>6</sup> Separately, Plaintiff claims that, apart from Olympic Pipe Line Co., Defendants make no  
26 argument regarding the allegations arising under RCW 7.72.040(1)(c). Opp. 41. Not true.  
27 Defendants made clear in their Motion to Dismiss that Plaintiff’s allegations under RCW  
28 7.72.040(1)(c) fail for the same reasons that the other allegations arising under RCW 7.72 do. *See*  
Mot. 41–42 (stating that “Plaintiff brings a failure-to-warn claim under sections 7.72.030 and  
7.72.040 of the WPLA” and that “Plaintiff fails to plead such a claim for two reasons”).

1 *II*, 2026 WL 809501, at \*22 (quoting *Ouellette*, 479 U.S. at 496). This is precisely why numerous  
2 courts across the country have dismissed these types of novel, climate change-related cases on the  
3 pleadings. These courts have correctly held that such claims are both precluded and preempted by  
4 federal law, and a gross distortion of state law. This Court should join these courts and dismiss  
5 Plaintiff's Complaint, in full, with prejudice.

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1 Respectfully submitted this 6th day of May, 2026.

2 I certify that this memorandum does not exceed 35 pages, in compliance with the Court's  
3 Order of January 13, 2026.

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