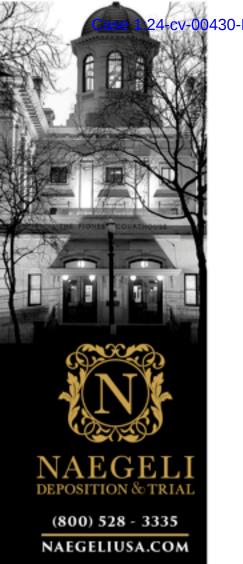
Exhibit 7



UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
DISTRICT OF MAINE

DINNER TABLE ACTION, FOR OUR FUTURE, and ALEX TITCOMB,

Plaintiffs.

v. Case No. 24-cv-00430-KFW
WILLIAM J. SCHNEIDER, in his official capacity as
Chairman of the Maine Commission on Governmental
Ethics and Election Practices; et al.,
Defendants.

DEPOSITION OF

CHRISTOPHER ROBERTSON

TAKEN ON WEDNESDAY, APRIL 2, 2025

NAEGELI DEPOSITION & TRIAL - BOSTON 265 FRANKLIN STREET, SUITE 1702 BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02110



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April 02, 2025

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	23	Milbank, on behalf of Intervenors.
25 also of Milbank and representing the Intervenors as	24	MS. HELLER: Good morning. Nola Heller
	25	also of Milbank and representing the Intervenors as

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1	well.
2	MR. BOLTON: Good morning. Jonathan
3	Bolton, Assistant Attorney General for the State of
4	Maine and I represent the State Defendants.
5	MS. AUSTIN: Good morning. MacKenzie
6	Austin, also from Milbank, and I represent the
7	Intervenors.
8	THE REPORTER: And we may proceed.
9	CHRISTOPHER ROBERTSON, having been first duly
LO	affirmed to tell the truth, was examined, and
11	testified as follows:
12	EXAMINATION
13	BY MR. MILLER:
L4	Q. Mr. Robertson, good morning.
15	A. Good morning.
16	Q. Thank you for joining us here today.
١7	Obviously, I know that you're an attorney or a law
18	professor, but have you been deposed before?
19	A. I've never been a witness in a deposition.
20	Q. Okay. It sounds like you've at least
21	attended them.

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All right. So you know the drills. Q. Basically, we're trying to make her job easy. We'll not talk over each other and we'll try to do the

best	that	we	can	to	speak	ı in	word	ls.	And,	you	know,
I'm ç	going	to	skip	al	l the	re	st of	the	typi	ical	
intro	duct	ion	stuf	f s	ince	I do	on't	thin	k it	s ne	eeded.

All right. Can you explain to me your role and assignment in this case?

- A. I was asked to try to answer some empirical questions that the Intervenors believed are raised by the Supreme Court's Doctrine and so I conducted two social science survey experiments to try to answer those questions.
- Q. Okay. And do you have a background in conducting surveys in this particular area and topic, as far as election related issues?
 - A. Yes.
 - Q. Okay. All right.

And can you explain to me what work you've
-- you've done related to elections and campaign
finance reform?

A. Sure. I've done a wide range of survey experiments for a wide range of topics and -- both scholarly and litigation contexts. Related specifically to elections, I have conducted the experiment that's reported as Robertson 2016 referred to in the literature review here. So that would be the -- I think that's the only published

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work that relates to elections.

I did conduct as part of a class I taught another survey experiment related to elections but it's not published.

- Okay. And when would that have been?
- Roughly 2014, that other one. Α.
- Yeah. And what was the -- the general Q. topic of that?
- That was about whether voters on petitions and referenda -- the sorts of information they would consider when -- when voting for a petition.
- Q. You're saying the types of information they'd consider?
- Yes. More specifically, there's an approach called deliberative polling that's conducted by a -- that's led by a Stanford political scientist named Fishkin and we were testing some theories as to how people would respond as voters when they heard about the results of deliberative polls.
 - Okay. And why did you do that? ο.
- Α. I mean, I'm a pretty wide ranging social scientist and was interested in that topic and it was a course I was teaching at the time called "The Law and Behavior Research Lab", and so in that class

1	where I'm teaching social science methods to
2	students I gave them a long list of potential
3	research projects, and one of the groups of students
4	chose that particular one. So I was involved with
5	it sort of as the senior scientist, but they were
6	doing the legwork on it like in a lab setting.
7	Q. Sure. All right, yeah. Makes sense.
8	All right. I just placed in front of you
9	what will essentially be the exhibit for for
10	today's deposition.
11	Can you identify that document for me?
12	THE REPORTER: Will this be Exhibit A or
13	1?
14	MR. MILLER: We'll say 1.
15	(Whereupon, Exhibit 1 was marked for
16	identification.)
17	THE DEPONENT: So this is the Declaration
18	of Christopher Robertson with three exhibits,
19	including my Expert Report, my CV, my Methodological
20	Appendix and the survey instrument.
21	BY MR. MILLER:
22	Q. Okay. And did you prepare the Declaration
23	portion of this on your own?
24	A. The Declaration portion was prepared by
25	the attorneys based on the expert report that I

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prepared on my own and based on some text that was	5
actually in the expert report. I think they copie	ed
it and put it in this format basically. But so)
all the text I wrote but not in this format.	

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o. All right. We'll quickly go through the Declaration here. All right.

It says you hold a JD from Harvard. What year was that? Sorry.

- 2007, I believe. I'm sorry; that should be something you don't forget, I guess. I'm getting old.
- You know, approximates are fine for me, so Q. that's --
 - Α. It's on my CV attached.
- Yeah. And then the philosophy degree, was О. that before or after the --
 - Α. That was before in 2003.
- 18 О. '03. All right. Did you -- I guess, did 19 you do any work prior to going to grad school for 20 the Ph.D.?
 - I worked for one year at Southeast Α. Missouri State where I completed my bachelor's degree as the coordinator of student involvement.
- 24 THE REPORTER: Can you repeat that, 25 please? South?

1	THE DEPONENT: Southeast Missouri State
2	University.
3	THE REPORTER: Thank you.
4	BY MR. MILLER:
5	Q. All right. And then what did you do
6	between getting the Ph.D. and going to law school?
7	A. I very briefly taught at my Ph.D.
8	institution, Washington University in St. Louis.
9	Q. Okay. And then post-JD, has all of your
10	work been academic in nature?
11	A. I passed the bar and briefly practiced law
12	before coming back to academia as a fellow.
13	Q. Okay. And where did you practice law?
14	A. In Oxford, Mississippi.
15	Q. What did you do there?
16	A. Mass tort litigation primarily.
17	Q. Oh, that's the hub of that.
18	A. Yeah, very interesting.
19	Q. That could be another topic to discuss.
20	That's
21	All right. Anyway, let's see. And then
22	so you're currently affiliated with BU, my alma
23	mater, and so what do you teach there?
24	A. I teach in the first year curriculum torts
25	and other classes in the health law curriculum.

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That's sort of my one of my main areas of
expertise. I've taught a course called Bioethics in
Health Care Decisions, a course called Science for
Lawyers, and this coming year I'll teach Food and
Drug Law.

- Q. Is that largely an LLM program or is it part of the --
- A. No, we do have an LLM program but I don't -- and I have some LLM students in my classes, but they're primarily JD classes.
- Q. All right. And in connection with the -with the work that you do in the health care realm, do you conduct many surveys like the one that was done here?
- A. Quite a few, surveys and survey experiments especially.
- Q. Okay. And so what is the use of these type of surveys in your normal concentration?
- A. So one of the most recent published papers, for example, is about how people -- how patients will think about artificial intelligence being used to assist in their diagnoses and what factors increase trust or decrease trust in artificial intelligence. And I've done others related to conflicts of interest in medicine, how

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patients think about their doctors having						
relationships with the drug industry. So really						
anything where, you know, humans can be a variety of						
roles. I'm a patient sometimes, I'm a voter						
sometimes, I'm a juror sometimes.						

We've also done jury studies like how will jurors think about medical malpractice and the different, you know, factors that could -- could affect a juror's decision in a med mal case. it's all the same methodology to get at, you know, what is going to affect people's decisions.

Q. All right. It says in January you were retained by EqualCitizens.

Do you know approximately when in January?

- Α. The early part of January, first half.
- o. Okay. And so how were you contacted by them?
- I was originally contacted by Larry Lessig Α. and -- in December and he told me that there would likely be some litigation and asked if I would be able to do an experiment or do research similar to that 2016 paper that didn't directly address the questions here. And then apparently when the litigation materialized, he then referred me to the administrators at EqualCitizens and said Chris is

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going	to	do	some	work	for	us	and	then	they	arranged
paymen	nt.									

- Q. All right. And did you know Larry Lessig prior to him reaching out to you for this case?
 - A. Yes.
- Q. All right. And how long have you known him?
- A. Since he came to Harvard in roughly -- I don't know exactly but in -- around 2012.
- Q. All right. So after you were a student there?
 - A. I believe so.
- Q. All right. And then were you -- did you maintain affiliation and involvement with Harvard after you graduated?
- A. Yes, after I graduated from Harvard I then became a fellow for two years there, which sort of trains you to be a professor; and then I later returned to Harvard as a visiting professor and taught for a year there and then -- and got to know Larry a bit in that context and then was affiliated with the Safra Center for Ethics.
- Q. Okay. And have you had prior conversations with him about your -- I think you said 2008 study?

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Α.	2016	study.
	2010	beau,

- Q. I'm sorry, 2016, yeah.
- A. Yes.
- Q. Okay. Was he involved in -- in conducting that or helping you prepare for that at all?
- A. He was involved in funding that study through the Safra Center which he was the director of at the time.
 - Q. Okay. Did he request that study?
- A. I don't recall the nature of those conversations from 2014. I think -- I think the best answer is no; I think I proposed the study instead.
- Q. Okay. And can you explain to me how the study you did for this case built upon the 2016 study?
- A. Sure. The 2016 study did not specifically test perceptions of corruption as they relate to SuperPACS in particular or these IECs, Independent -- what's it called? I can't remember what the "E" stands for.
 - Q. Expenditure?
- A. Expenditure Committees. They tested some other mechanisms of campaign finance and so this study -- the current study that's submitted in this

case is more specific to IECs.

Second, the current study tests the effect of a \$5000 cap in particular which we didn't test the impact of reforms in particular.

And thirdly, we have a sample here that is enriched to study Mainers, and so the prior study had no reason to focus on the Maine in particular. So I think that's at least three ways that the current study is an advance on the 2016 study.

- Q. Okay. Is there any inconsistencies or surprises that you've found from this current study compared to the 2016?
- A. Sure. So one of the things we did in this study was systematically manipulated an experiment one. We systematically manipulated the amount of the campaign -- the amount of the contribution to the committee from \$5 all the way up to \$50 million. And then we allowed respondents -- each respondent saw one of those amounts and we asked them how likely they thought that it would be for the official to sell a policy outcome for that amount.

And so one of those amounts was \$5000 and we saw this really striking discontinuity above \$5000, which we had not seen in the prior study and it was really quite surprising that that amount

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would be viewed as different to the respondents. So that's the first surprise that the respondents implicitly came up with that threshold themselves.

And then in experiment two some of the -as I said, the 2016 experiment didn't test reforms
at all; and so experiment two found that a \$5000 cap
could make a difference. That's the first surprise
that wasn't tested at all. But even more so the
size of the difference in perceptions of quid pro
quo corruption was really striking and that
surprised me as well that it makes that much of a
difference.

Q. All right. Let's see.

So how much -- how much did you charge to conduct this study?

- A. To conduct this study I charged \$10,000 in personal fees and like fees for my service, plus expenses.
 - Q. All right. How much were the expenses?
 - A. They were approximately \$18,000.
 - Q. All right. Did you pay the participants?
 - A. Indirectly I did.
 - Q. All right. Please explain.
- A. So there's a -- there are several different platforms you can use to do this sort of

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research and the one we chose to use was Survey
Monkey. It's a large company. And Survey Monkey
one of the services they provide is they maintain a
panel of potential respondents and they handle the
payment to the respondents. So we pay Survey Monkey
and Survey Monkey incentivizes or compensates the
respondents.
Q. So then it was Survey Monkey then that
created this panel for you?
A. Survey Monkey maintains a panel that lots
of researchers can use and then the people we
recruit into this survey is a subset of them.
O So then these are meenle who have self-

- So then these are people who have sellselected into participating in studies?
- Α. Yeah, it's called an opt-in panel for that reason.
- Okay. Maybe this -- maybe I should ask Q. this later but let's see; you're in here, your number of participants is 1144.

Is that number those who completed the entire survey?

- Α. Yes.
- All right. Do you know what percentage Q. didn't complete the entire survey?
 - Not offhand. The -- as I -- this also Α.

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varies a little bit by platform and I use a lot of
different platforms on different projects; but we
only pay for the completes. And so the incompletes
are sort of filtered before we handle them.

- Q. Okay. And it's probably likely then that the panel participants would only get paid if they complete the survey?
- A. Presumably, although that's kind of opaque on this platform.
 - Q. Okay.
- A. There are other platforms where I have to handle that participant by participant and there are pros and cons to using one versus the other, but on this platform it's -- it's not as transparent to me.
- Q. All right. And so is that why you had some of these control questions in there?
 - A. The attention checks?
 - O. Yes.
- A. We would use attention checks on any of these platforms. It's important for all internet surveys, but that allows us to assure some data quality.
- Q. All right. And you refer to this as two surveys but the surveys were completed by the same population?

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A.	Yeah,	I	refer	to	it	as	two	survey	7
experiment	ts in o	one	surve	∍y,	you	c	ould	say.	Two
experiment	ts, one	e s	urvey						

- And who -- who participated in crafting О. the survey questions?
- Α. I did, my statistics consultant did, and -- in crafting them, and then I also asked for feedback from Larry Lessig to make sure they sort of answered the legal questions.
- All right. And then you asked him for that input prior to putting the survey out in the field?
 - Α. Yes.
- All right. And who is the -- is the person you mentioned that worked on this?
- The statistics consultant or the methods Α. consultant is -- is a professor named Kelly Bergstrand. She's a Ph.D. sociologist.
 - Where is she? ο.
 - Α. Arlington, Texas.
 - Okay. Why did you involve her? Q.
- A few different reasons. One is she is Α. faster at doing statistical analysis than I am. I mean, you know, kind of a division of labor; it's hard to be, you know, super-fast at this aspect and

that aspect, so it's partly just a division of specialty.

So second is just that whenever you're doing social science you can kind of end up in an echo chamber, like somethings seems like you wrote a sentence and it seems perfectly clear to you but you show it to someone else and they're like "That doesn't make any sense." And as a law professor in particular, I mean, as lawyers we can get into jargon and things seem clear to us that don't make any sense to other people. And so the fact that she's not a lawyer also helps in crafting these sorts of stimuli and thinking about how laypersons will receive and respond. So the provided a lot of that kind of perspective.

And third, it's just more fun to do research with other people, you know, than just be sitting by yourself in front of a computer all day. So team science is really more fun than, you know, just cranking away by yourself.

- Q. I think post-COVID we all understand that.
- A. Yeah.
- Q. Let's see. So did she share in the \$10,000 that you received or was she --
 - A. No, I considered her an expense, so she --

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she's part of that expense category I referred to earlier.

- o. All right. How much did you pay her?
- Α. \$7500.
- ο. And so did she primarily then do the analysis after the -- the information came in?
- That was the core of her responsibility Α. but as I explained there's more to it.
- All right. You refer to this or at least the Declaration refers to this as a preliminary consolidated report.

You know, why would you call this preliminary?

- We -- as the project proceeded towards -you know, we did this Declaration at the end; we were thinking that we may want to publish the paper in the future and that would involve more revisions and, you know, formatting a print journal and that sort of thing. So I was thinking of the research report -- I mean, the litigation report as sort of preliminary in that sense.
- All right. So if you were to, you know, go ahead and turn this into some sort of scholarly manuscript, would you likely include additional breakdowns other than the sort of the two ways that

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you broke down the results here?

- A. Not necessarily. It kind of depends on the journal which we haven't selected yet. Each field is a little different as to what kind of figures versus tables and put things in the body versus in the appendix, so I think what we have here is pretty close to what we could publish in a journal as is.
- Q. You mentioned in the report a couple of times that for the sake of clarity you sort of consolidated responses?
 - A. Yes.
- Q. Would that -- what consolidation would likely remain, you know, when you would do a final scholarly article or probably would it be broken out more finely?
- A. Well, similar to what we did here is we present a clean figure -- a picture, you know, a chart that has the consolidated results and then have in appendix the detailed results. And so that allows kind of the best of both worlds. To some degree that's a judgment but in my view I want my work to be read and understood and like taken away, so it's really important for me as a scholar to have clean visuals. And at the same time you want to be

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rigorous and transparent, so you stick details in the appendix and you get the best of both worlds.

- Q. All right. Who would be the authors of that scholarly manuscript?
 - A. Dr. Bergstrand and me.
 - Q. Okay. Would Larry Lessig?
 - A. No.
- Q. Where might something like this be published or where would you shop it? Like, is it a Law Review thing or is it a sociology thing? Where would it go?
- A. In its current format it couldn't go in a Law Review because it's too short. I would have to add, you know, 10,000 words of discussing caselaw and stuff; and I need to make a decision if I want to spend the time and like -- and Law Reviews are also on a publication cycle. They publish in February and August and so this could go in a Law Review, but I often prefer not to put empirical research in Law Reviews because it's not peer reviewed; those are just edited by students typically.
 - Q. Right.
- A. And if you're doing high quality research, you should be willing to, you know, have it peer

reviewed. So there's a journal in law called The
Journal of Empirical Legal Studies that would be a
good candidate. We could publish it in a sociology
journal instead that's Kelly's field. Or finally
there's just general journals like PLoS One, P-1-o-
s, O-n-e, that will publish important work across
fields. It's like not just one specific so I really
like that journal and published in the past there.

- Q. All right. I thought you also were going to mention political science journals but I guess you --
- A. That would be quite possible, yes, but since I'm not a political scientist and Kelly is not, as I mentioned earlier, every field has -- has quirks.
 - Sure.
- A. Like the way they want tables. Like which -- do you want a standard deviation or a standard error? And for Kelly and I to go to a political science journal would be extra trouble just to like figure out how they want things and -- so -- but as you see, a lot of the articles we cite are in political science journals. The disciplines kind of build walls that are annoying.
 - Q. All right. Can you walk me through the

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time frame for, you know, conducting all of this and, you know, the -- you said that you were sort of I guess initially contacted in December. received the go-ahead in January and then this was assigned on the 19th of February.

So can you kind of tell me, you know, what happened and what time frame in between there?

Α. I started in December probably Sure. doing some preparatory work like recruiting Kelly and saying if this moves forward would you be interested in working with me? And I began doing feasibility analysis of which platforms would be able to deliver enough human subjects from Maine in particular. That's kind of a limiting factor here because it's a small state relatively. And so that was kind of preparatory work in December. January, we started writing the -- what we call the stimulus and the instrument and revising those back and forth; and in -- I don't remember the date offhand but by mid-January we were programming the software that would host the survey and then spent a couple of weeks in late January actually collecting the data.

And then the analysis was actually very quick, the analysis and the write-up because it

didn't actually -- it turned out to be very clean data, very clear. We didn't have to figure out any complicated models or anything and so then we wrote it up and I think it was essentially done by the first week in February; and then I think the lawyers spent some time figuring out the procedure of how it would be filed and that implicated the formatting of how it would be filed as a declaration or as an affidavit or I don't even know. And so we were actually -- I think the whole project was pretty much five or six weeks from the start of January.

Q. And is that typical or is that pretty quick?

A. That is typical for litigation research that I've done for lawyers in the past. It's -- and I would say the core -- and for research I would say for scholarly work that would also be typical for this kind of project. The only difference is we would probably spend four more months like polishing the paper and shopping like taking it to conferences and sending it to colleagues and saying, "Hey, what do you think about this? What are your first reactions?" And that process then allows us to -- the document itself gets richer although the core data collection might well have happened in the two

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or three weeks back previously.

I tend to work in these sorts of sprints often between semesters and just as this was. Otherwise, things -- it's hard to even remember what you did if you drag it out too long.

I quess I didn't ask Q. Sure. Let's see. this.

How much was each participant paid?

- Α. I don't actually know that. That's one of the features of this platform that is not transparent to me.
 - Okay. All right. Q.

Since you finished this in February, you know, looking back at it maybe preparing for this deposition, you know, have you -- have you sort of thought of anything that you would have liked to have put in the report that you didn't?

- Α. No. I noticed some typos and references to the exhibits with their own letters that I would've liked to fix, but no, to answer your question directly.
 - All right. Q.

Did -- after conducting the research, have you thought of -- has this caused you to think of additional research or refinements you would want to

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pul	olis	shing	g some	ething	g simila	ar?			

- Α. No.
- Do you understand the question? О.
- Α. I think I understand the question and the answer is no.
- Q. Okay. Yeah, so just to ask you another way just to make sure you understand it.

You know, after getting the data, you know, does it look you say, gee, now I need to ask this other thing, you know? Was there something interesting and you say, oh, now I want to look at this?

- Α. No.
- ο. Okay. All right.

Turning to the report itself, and of course I didn't say this earlier but, you know, any time you need to take a break, let us know. generally try to break about hourly but, you know, usually I'm having more fun with this than anyone else. So --

- Α. I could use some more water but I'll wait; it looks like we've got maybe 15 more minutes and then take a break?
 - Sure. All right. Q.

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So the first thing I notice in your summary here, you know, you sort of mention that the perceived risk of quid pro quo corruption is substantially higher when contributions are above \$4999 in particular.

So first what do you mean by "substantially higher"?

- A. I'm going to refer to the report to answer that.
 - Q. Sure.
- A. So I'm looking at Figure 1 and below \$5000 about 40 percent of respondents thought it would be likely to sell a policy outcome while above \$5000 this number rises to about 70 percent of the respondents. So in rough terms that's about a 30 percent shift which is substantial.
- Q. Okay. But why do you say \$4999? I feel like it's a Bob Barker number or --
- A. Well, I mean, that's just the -- the phrasing to refer to \$5000 and above which would be synonymous.
- Q. Okay. But like -- all right. I don't want to go like through this, you know, hitting every number.
- 25 But you didn't test any number between \$500 and

\$5000,	right?
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- A. True.
- Q. So you could also have said based upon this data that substantially higher when contributions are above \$500?
 - A. Yes.
- Q. So there's really no distinction in this particular study between that -- I don't know what you call it -- that order of magnitude between \$500 and \$5000, correct?
- A. That's right. We tested six, seven -- we tested 10 different levels and -- and that approach leaves the intervals between the levels kind of unknowable. We'd do another study if you're interested in whether the threshold is between -- where between \$5 and \$5000 that changes. So that could be a follow-up study.
- Q. All right. And then -- well, no, let me ask this.

Who selected these increments?

- A. I did.
- Q. And can you explain like why you chose it this way? You know, why does it go from \$5 all the way up to \$50 million?
 - A. Right. We were interested in whether --

to be candid, we were aware of the Maine -- was it an initiative?

Yeah.

A. Okay. We were aware of the Maine
Initiative that uses the \$5000 threshold. And so as researchers we were interested in whether that -- a cap at that level corresponded to anything in the -- in the perceptions of the public. And so in this first experiment, I didn't want to give the respondents that number because I was -- I wanted to ask them if there is a number, and so I decided that it would be an elegant way to avoid like a push poll. I didn't want to prime that number if I used fives up and down the scale. So -- and I wanted enough of them that I could rule out that it's just a coincidence that, you know, if I'd only done \$5 and \$500 it wouldn't have shed as much light.

So I decided this logarithmic scale where you multiply it by 10 each time would provide a big enough range that if there was a discontinuity that we could see it.

I kind of agree that, you know, \$5 and \$50 million are extreme, but you've got to end the scale somewhere; and by having enough levels you can kind of get a natural -- you can get sort of an implicit

variation.

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- Q. Okay. Can you explain to me what -- what those little lines are that kind of bracket, you know, the numbers there?
- Sure. So we're referring to Figure 1 and Α. those are called "error bars" which they're different -- different research fields use different things for error bars, but the most common ones and the ones I like to use are 95 percent confidence intervals. And in practical terms, you read that sort of figure and it accounts for statistical noise similar to a margin of error that you might read about in a poll. And so the true value could be anywhere within that range indicated by the confidence interval whereas the bar ends at what we call the point estimate, which we think is -- which, you know, the math shows is the -- is the estimate of the -- of the outcome at that level, but we can't rule out the possibility that it's a little higher or a little lower as defined by that confidence interval.
 - Q. Okay. And the confidence interval here -- how wide is it?
- A. I don't have the estimate in front of me mathematically, but it looks like plus or minus

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seven probably for any one of those estimates.

- Q. Okay. So then am I reading this correctly then that you can't rule out the possibility that the perception recorded here is pretty much flat from \$5000 and above?
- A. These confidence intervals are around each estimate. The question you're asking I think is about the slope between the estimates. And to calculate that so that's a different mathematical question and so you'd calculate a different kind of confidence interval around the slope, the line, rather than the point.

So I can't answer that question based on what we have right here.

- Q. What would you need to answer that question?
- A. Well, first we would need to filter the -so I think your question was just relating to the
 data above \$5000 or \$5000 and above. So first you
 would apply a filter to the data saying I'm going to
 ignore the lower three levels. And then you would
 calculate the slope of those points as a line and
 then you would calculate the confidence interval on
 that slope.
 - Q. And it almost sounds like calculus like

slope	
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- A. It's literally calculus.
- Q. Okay. All right.

So then you have all of the data, you know, that you -- I'm sorry; let me ask it this way.

You could conduct that analysis with the data that you had in hand to determine that if you so choose?

- A. I could, yes, as well as -- I'll just leave it at that, yes.
- Q. Okay. Statistics are fine, calculus I don't like.
 - A. I'm kind of the same way. I can -- yeah.
- Q. Okay. I guess I'm going to go back to the front here a little bit and then we'll take a break.

So what's the purpose of the literature review?

A. That's a good question. Frankly, one purpose is to do good science and that's a norm is that you don't do science if the question is already answered. And one of the reasons you don't is ethical; you don't use people as human subjects or, you know, you don't bother spending someone's money if the question's already answered. So the first step is to see if the question's already answered.

Q. The second is like you can see at the
on page six I say, you know, "This finding is
consistent with the prior literature." As an
analyst, it's important to know if what you're
seeing is is implausible because then if it's
like a wild break from the prior literature, you
need to go back and check, like, did we program the
survey instrument wrong or did like, what
happened here? And so it's just part of good
practice as a scientist to know how you are in
dialogue with the prior literature because it makes
your current study more rigorous because you can
catch anomalies.

So that's I think at least two of the reasons why you do a literature review.

- Q. So did you do the literature review before conducting the survey then?
- A. I did the review before conducting the survey and then wrote it up after conducting the survey.
- Q. I just -- I just want to make sure I kind of understand a couple of things you wrote here.
 - A. Sure.
- Q. So on page one -- I'm not going to go through all of these necessarily I don't think, but

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thir	nk it	says	so	"Ca	mpai	gn :	finar	nce r	eforms	did	
not	make	a sub	stant	ial	impa	ct (on th	nose	percept	tions	. <i>"</i>
		Can	you j	ust	expl	ain	what	t tha	t means	5?	

- Sure. As I recall, that particular study Α. is -- was -- and this is just from memory, but it was like a discursive study like a Law Review article and they were saying, you know, here are some surveys and you say this year and then this year and then this year; and across all those years people seem to really believe that corruption is widespread and then they said but, look, there was a big campaign finance reform in the middle of those years and people still think corruption is widespread. So that's -- that's the notion is that you had like pre/post cross-sectional surveys that don't change even though you had some campaign finance reform in the middle.
- Okay. All right. Makes sense. ο. right.

There's -- on page two you mentioned a 2015 study. It says the findings indicate that people would be willing to indict and convict politicians and donors of bribery which the authors operationalized as the definition of quid pro quo

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corruption. It says that even when contributions are legal under existent campaign finance laws.

So maybe this is me as a lawyer being confused, but it says bribery and it says even when legal? So I just don't know what you're saying there.

- A. Sure. First, let me clarify that I referred to in my testimony today this 2016 study that I conducted and this is the same study.
 - Q. Yeah.
- A. And in the bibliography it's referred to as a 2016 study. I'm actually at this moment not sure which is right, but I'm assuming this is a typo in the body.
 - Sure.
- A. Now, to answer your actual question, my understanding as a lawyer and the author of this piece is that contributions to candidates are regulated by multiple laws and one law is, say, the cap one direct contributions of roughly \$5400 under federal law, I think. So it's illegal to give \$5500. But even if you're giving less than the cap, that contribution could also be the quid in a bribery which would make it illegal. And so the point here where it says, "legal under extant"

BY MR. MILLER:

campaign finance laws" means it might be under the									
cap but respondent still said, well, that looks like									
bribery.									
Q. Right. So then bribery can be bribery no									
matter what the level if the politician's willing to									
be bribed?									
A. That's right and that's what we found.									
And, likewise, that even when									
contributions were independent like unlimited in									
amount but were to a body like a 501c4 organization,									
a dark money organization, that they could give rise									
to perceptions of quid pro quo corruption.									
MR. MILLER: All right. Let's go ahead									
and take that break now.									
THE DEPONENT: Thank you.									
THE REPORTER: We're off the record at									
11:01 a.m.									
(WHEREUPON, a recess was taken.)									

at 11:11 a.m. and you may proceed.

THE REPORTER: We are back on the record

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Is that consistent with your findings

- I did not ask about is it consistent. Α. Ι guess I'm -- sorry. I'm trying to think of the exact wording that I had used. We asked about this State of Ames as a hypothetical in the vignettes and we did ask about quid pro quo corruption and some of our questions talk about how likely quid pro quo is going to happen in that context and we did see large majorities finding likelihood. So I'm having to talk through this to make sure I'm -- I'm doing justice to your question, but I think the short answer is broadly yes, that's consistent with our findings.
- And was their finding made irrespective of ο. where the limits are set?
 - I do not know. Α.
- Because I'm thinking about this and then I ο. guess your 2016 study, you know, sort of makes the point that bribery could happen at any level.
- 22 Right? That's what you're saying there?
 - In 2016, we found that bribery could be perceived at a range of contribution levels. 2016, we didn't test very, very small ones or very,

very	large	ones	so	Ι	gue	SS	ľ	won't	say	yes	to	"any
level	" beca	use	we	did	ln't	te	st	"any	leve	el".		

- Q. You said even when contributions were legal, so it would be -- I took that to mean that you would ask them about a contribution below whatever a particular legal threshold was?
- A. In 2016, we did ask about direct contributions under the direct contribution limit.
- Q. All right. And then the next study you mentioned below Kelly is also 2016. It says, "Avkiran" and you indicate there they found a 7.48 percent higher concern for the corrupting effects of money and politics when campaign financing is not regulated.

All right. And this is my naivete for not being in the field but is that -- is that considered a significant delta, you know, the 7.48 percent?

A. That depends -- when you refer to "significant", that's a term of art in social science that refers to statistical significance.

And to evaluate that, the respondent -- the analyst would have to calculate a P value which would in part depend on their sample size. So there's no way for me to know just on this text if it was statistically significant, but I will say that I

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would not have put it in this report if it -- if I had read that it was insignificant. Does that make sense? ο. Yes. So I'm inferring from the fact that I put Α. it here that when I read the paper it was statistically significant. Or you infer it was? ο. I'm now inferring that it is significant Α. because I put it in this report over a month ago. And you would've confirmed that it was? ο. Α. Exactly. Okay. Do you recall, you know, what that Q. changed it from? I mean, did it change it from 70 percent to 77 or did it change it from 40 to 47? Do you recall? Α. I do not. The fact that Nexim's I think suggests that the baseline was --Pretty high? ο. -- pretty high in terms of concern for Α. corruption. Yeah. I see that now. Because ο. "respondents remain untrusting of politicians even when campaign finance regulations in place". Okay.

All right. And the next one, 2020,

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"They find that many common campaign lessons there. practices" -- excuse me, "campaign finance practices such as large donations and outside spending were viewed as corrupt."

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So reading through your sort of literature review here, I sort of get the impression that people just view campaign finance as corrupt, period. Is that fair?

- A lot of the studies find that people see the American system of private funding of campaigns as rife with corruption.
- Q. All right. I guess the next one of 2020, Primo and Milyo, "In their survey, however, Respondents do not correctly understand the complexities of the extant campaign finance system. In any case, they express skepticism that reforms will make substantial impact."

Do you agree or disagree with that statement?

- Α. I don't have a basis for it to agree or disagree. I mean, it's -- I didn't -- my current studies do not directly address those questions -that sentence, and so I don't have a basis for agreeing or disagreeing.
 - All right. Did the study that you do here Q.

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and I guess the past study that you did in 2016, did they lead you to believe that that conclusion is correct or incorrect?

- Α. So I think it's quite plausible based on my work that people are skeptical that reforms will make a substantial impact, but we found that reforms do make a substantial impact on perceptions of corruption. So -- so those are two slightly different points of view. And, you know, when the reform is itself an initiative that people voted for, you might make inferences about whether those voters thought it would have an impact. But that's all kind of beyond the scope of my research here.
- So I'm sorry, when did you find that made an impact?
- In this report, in experiment two we show Α. that a \$5K cap on contributions makes an impact on perceptions of quid pro quo corruption and on broader perceptions of governmental legitimacy and effectiveness.
- All right. We'll eventually get to that. Q. Let's see.

On the next page, I guess the second paragraph there you mention a 2021 study reporting a series of survey experiments, DeBell, and it said

that	they	find	that	even :	indep	enden	t co	ntributio	ns		
can	give	rise	to pe	rception	on of	quid	pro	quo			
corruption.											

Do you recall if there was any amount that was significant for them in their study?

- A. I don't recall the amounts.
- Q. All right. So now I'm starting to look at your study, so we've got the overall research methodology where you discussed the online population a bit and you also mentioned that you tried to heavily weight towards Maine because of the case. It says here that you had 115 Maine respondents.

Is that enough that you could provide a statistically relevant analysis of just the Maine respondents alone?

- A. Yes, and we do so.
- Q. All right. And your finding there was that the Maine respondents were essentially consistent with the non-Mainers?
 - A. Correct.
- Q. All right. And on page four you have Table 1, Descriptive Statistics. I guess most of it's obviously self-explanatory. I just have a question about the -- the "Always vote" line.

First, why did you ask that?

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A. So this is referring to a question in the survey instrument that says, "How often do you vote in US elections?" from "Always" to "Never", you know, a five-level Likert scale. We -- I don't actually recall specifically but the source of that question in developing the instrument we often will draw on prior published studies, like some of these in the literature review. And so -- and as I recall, this is a typical measure that's used in political science research and so it would be just sort of normal to include it just like you would include any of these demographics.

But one -- and so it's -- one hypothesis someone could raise is that people who never vote or are completely disengaged from the political system might respond differently to campaign finance reform because they're just not paying attention or they don't care. And so it's important to see if -- or it's potentially important to be able to look at the subset of people that do or don't vote, and so it allows -- especially if we've gotten a null result, if we found like, gosh, no one seemed to care about any of this then we might want to drill down and say, well, what if it's just the highly engaged

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So having extra data like that is kind of like a failsafe. Not a -- you know, it's a robustness that you can explore if -- if you need to understand what's going on in what's otherwise a perplexing result.

- Q. Okay. And do you know what percentage responded they never vote?
- Not offhand. We simplified for this table so it would all fit on one page.
- And when you designed this study what were ο. you hoping your -- the total number of respondents to receive?
- We had hoped to get many more Mainers, 500 or 700, so that was one hope. We also hoped to get at least 1000 respondents generally. We fell short on the Mainers.
 - О. Sure. They're an odd bunch, right?
 - Α. No comment.
 - Yeah. All right. All right. Q.

Experiment 1. The question that's presented in the box there: "Please think about the risk that a politician would sell a policy outcome, like a vote on a bill, in exchange for a financial contribution to a committee supporting his or her

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re-election. Doing so violates his or her oath and creates a risk of prosecution, if discovered. Suppose the contribution was \$X." All right.

So that's the question that the survey recipients would receive, correct?

- That's what I would call the stimulus. Α.
- Stimulus. Q.
- And the question is -- followed it. Α.
- Q. Okay. Got it. All right.

And so why did you specifically ask the phraseology or have in the stimulus the phraseology "the risk that a politician would sell"?

Like, why -- why are we asking about risk?

- Α. Well, that's -- that corresponds to the question we're asking. Like, how likely do you believe it would be to sell a policy outcome? So -so the likely -- and so we think, you know, just colloquially selling policy outcome is a bad thing and so when you refer to the likelihood of a bad thing happening, that's -- that's a risk. And so there's no -- it's not a technical term here. I'm just using it colloquially for the likelihood of a bad outcome or a bad thing.
- Q. And again just so I understand this, so each -- each survey participant only saw one of

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these seven options as far as the dollar amounts; is that right?

- Correct. There are seven and each one saw Α. a single one.
- And so I guess I'm curious; why did you do the study that way instead of sort of asking, you know, each -- each participant, you know, do you find \$5 corrupting, do you find \$50 corrupting, do you find \$5000 corrupting?
- By the way, first of all I realize there's actually eight of these levels as you can see on Figure 1. Apparently, I left out \$500 on the text in page five, so there's actually eight levels.
 - Q. Okay.
- Α. To answer your question, though, this is a methodological choice and so in a between subjects experiment, which is what this is called, you show one person because you don't necessarily want to invite them to make comparative judgments unless you do. And so here we -- I wanted to see how people respond to a given scenario and then I can analytically do the math and make comparisons across subjects. So -- and I think that's more realistic to how someone might confront, you know, that hear about a case in the news. They don't hear about

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eight cases in a row, they hear about one and how
does that make them feel, how does that make them
react? And so by giving them one I think it's in
that sense more realistic for a member of the public
being confronted with the case.

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- All right. And so for this response you Q. said it was a 7 point scale, so I guess the 7 to that means that there's like a neutral response?
 - That's right. Α.
 - Okay. All right. ο.

And then returning to the results that Figure 1 -- that we were looking at earlier, so here these responses combine all results that say likely even if it's somewhat likely, correct?

- Α. Yes.
- ο. Okay. Is it in the report here somewhere the breakdown so that I could see, you know, the percentages that would say "Somewhat" versus "Very"?
- I'm looking at the Appendix to see if we put it in there. I -- I think the Appendix we only did that for Experiment 2, so the answer to your question is no.
- All right. If I wanted that data, could you get it to me?
 - Α. Yes, I could.

Q. I guess I'll ask for that.

Why would you ask a 7 point scale if you end up consolidating with results into essentially two?

- A. For ease of presentation, it's easier to see on a figure like I was talking about; it's important to me that the results be clear and have sort of a take-away that's usable. But we also then analyzed the full scale data in the regression which is reported on page seven of the report. And so it kind of allows you as a scholar to both communicate clearly but provide analytical rigor as well. And so that's -- that answers your question.
- Q. All right. So where on page seven do I sort of see the -- how it's broken out between those different categories and the responses?
- A. In that first row in -- below the titles where it says "Amount of Money" and the coefficient is 2.4; that indicates that for each step on that Likert scale -- I'm sorry, let me put it the other way -- that for each step in the amount of money the Likert scale outcome moves by a quarter-of-a-step in those seven steps. I say a quarter because that's, you know, .25, so almost a quarter-of-a-step. So there the math is being done on the full scale not

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just on the reduced form scale.

- Q. Does that show whether it's linear or not?
- A. Technically, an OLS regression ordinarily
 ordinarily squares regression presumes linearity.
- Q. But the results from Experiment 1 do not look linear.
- A. OLS regressions are -- tend to be preferred by analysts for ease of interpretation, as long as you have a basically linear approach.

 There's never -- results are never perfectly linear, like, heights of people or anything else. A model is always an approximation and so it's reasonable to use this model here; and the alternative model you would use would -- would yield the same results.

And may I also say this is why we both just show the raw data itself in Figure 1. You can see what it is and we can talk about that, but if you want to do a regression which controls for all this other stuff, you need a model and a model is always going to be an approximation. And so a reasonable model is the OLS model. So you have, again, have your cake and eat it, too. We can talk about either one.

Q. Yeah. Well, again, I'm just trying to understand the significance of that particular --

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oh,	I'm	sorry;	Ι	don'	t	want	to	use	"sign	ificance"	•
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I'm trying to understand sort of the meaning of that particular number when you earlier discussed sort of the inflection point of moving from 500 to 5000 and it being a 30 percent change there.

- A. Table 2 is not useful for analyzing the inflection point, the discontinuity as I've called it. Table 2 is estimating the overall slope.
- Q. And to the extent that there's a major discommute (sic) -- I'm sorry, I --
 - A. Discontinuity.
 - Q. Discontinuity. That would smooth it out?
 - A. It -- the math smooths it out, yes.
 - Q. Okay.
- A. Which is why again we concede the discontinuity and have these confidence intervals on Figure 1 and we can therefore -- Figure 1 supports the conclusion that there is a discontinuity.
- Q. Would Figure 1 support setting the limit at \$500?
- A. Or perhaps just above \$500 at \$501. It would be consistent with that.
 - Q. And according to Figure 1, there's no significant difference between setting it at \$50,000

to \$5 million, I guess even \$50 million, right?

- A. Right. Those confidence intervals all overlap, so I would infer that there's not a significant difference at the sample size. Because those differences are smaller, you would need to run another study if you wanted to compare those two, a study where more respondents are allocated to those two bins and you could shrink those confidence intervals and more precise estimates.
- Q. All right. And the confidence interval overlaps between the \$5000 and the \$50,000 as well, meaning that you can't really distinguish between those either, correct?
- A. Correct. And the study wasn't really designed to -- to make those particular distinctions.
- Q. What do we do with the fact that this appears to show that 35 percent of the population believes that the \$5 contribution can be corrupt?
- A. I don't know. I find that on the one hand consistent with the prior literature that people just react to the entire private funding of elections. I don't know what else to say about it.
- Q. Is this research your experiment on consistent with the conclusion that many people

Α.

simply believe any donation to a candidate is											
corrupt?											
A. Well, here 35 percent of the people seem											
to agree with a very small donation could create a											
risk of corruption.											
Q. It looks like 40 percent say \$50 is											
corrupting, right?											
A. Could be.											
Q. Could be corrupting.											
A. Yes.											
Q. Right, because we're talking about risk of											
corruption, correct?											
A. We are talking about the risk of											
corruption, correct.											
Q. All right. So that's why I need so											
what exactly is the question then and where do I see											
that?											
A. Let's go to the instrument which is the											
I think Exhibit B and it's on page documentary											
page 45 and it's there at the bottom half of the											
page.											
Would you like me to read it into the											
record?											
Q. Yeah, go ahead.											

"How likely do you think a politician

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And there's a seven-point -- a six-point scale ranging from extremely unlikely to extremely likely.

ο. Okay. That's helpful. Thank you.

And since you prepared this study kind of in anticipation of this case, why did you not include a question where you just said "No cap" for Experiment 1?

- Well, Experiment 1 doesn't refer to a cap at all, so I think you may be getting ahead.
- Yeah, that's probably right. All right. Q. And Experiment 1 is presuming a direct contribution; is that right?
- Α. It's slightly -- well, it just says, "A financial contribution to a committee supporting his or her reelection", so that language is not limited to direct contributions.
- But it does not exclude direct contributions, either?
- It doesn't say either way and that's a Α. design choice of ours to try to avoid getting into legal technicalities in this first experiment. We wanted sort of more -- we wanted to let respondents sort of speak for themselves without giving them a

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whole lot of legal technicalities.

- Q. All right. So is it reasonable to conclude based upon Experiment 1 that while setting a contribution limit at \$5000 has no significant effect on the appearance of corruption between, say, setting it at \$5 million?
- A. Could you repeat the question one more time, please?

9 MR. MILLER: Yeah.

10 | Can you read that back?

11 THE REPORTER: Please stand by.

12 (WHEREUPON, the record was played back.)

13 THE DEPONENT: I don't understand your

phrasing when you say between setting it at \$50

15 | million (sic)? I don't --

16 BY MR. MILLER:

- Q. I'm saying as compared to. You know, so setting it at \$5 million versus setting it at \$5000 pretty much has the same effect on the appearance of corruption?
 - A. No.
 - Q. Okay. Please explain.
- A. So as Figure 1 shows, there is perceived corruption at the \$5000, \$50,000, and \$500,000 levels that would not be affected by a cap above

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those levels. But it would potentially be affected by a cap at \$5000.

- Q. But you -- but the error bars overlap, correct?
 - A. The error bars do overlap.
- Q. So then how can we say that this study could imply that there's a meaningful effect?
- A. Because there are people in each of those buckets at the \$5000 level that perceived corruption for donations that large or contributions that large. And so those people as I understand it would be changed by a cap at that level that wouldn't be changed by a cap at the higher level.
- Q. And I'm asking how can you say that if the error bars overlap?
- A. Because I see substantial perceptions of corruption at all those levels, so if you can address them at the lower levels then you're making a difference. So --
- Q. But doesn't this show that you're not making a difference? So, in other words, if the State of Ames had a cap that was set at \$5 million and then they changed it to \$5000, wouldn't this show that there's a potential no change in the respondents' view of the amount of corruption?

- A. No. Would you like me to make an analogy?
- Q. Sure.
- A. So imagine there are people at different heights that have cancer at 5', at 5'1", at 5'2", at 5'3", et cetera. And suppose we can cure the cancer of the people above 5'2". That would be great, we're curing some cancer. If we decide we're also going to cure cancer of people at 5'1" or 5'0", we're actually curing more cancer even if they all have the same type of cancer.
- Q. So the analogy that you're making is sort of -- and what you said earlier is just placing folks in different buckets, and I guess I don't quite understand how that would apply here.

Why are these different buckets versus when you look at this and say this is what, you know, 70 percent of the respondents think for each level?

A. Because what we're simulating here that each of these buckets in Figure 1 is someone exposed to a campaign contribution being given to a candidate, learning about it, say in the news or through word of mouth. And so in the real world there's going to be a distribution of these campaign contributions, some little ones and some big ones

just like there's the distribution of heights.

- Q. Mm-hmm.
- A. And so if you can treat more of them through a cap or through a cancer treatment, you're actually making a different on the margin so that someday when someone hears about a \$5000 in one contribution in one world that happens, in another world it doesn't happen. So in one world they have a perception of corruption; in another world they don't have perception of corruption.
- Q. All right. But -- so what you're saying is this chart shows that if you had a \$5 million limit and you reduce it to a \$500,000 limit that less people would view the system as corrupt?
- A. When they hear about contributions at that level that are allowed. Like, wow, this guy gave a \$500,000 contribution. The people that hear about that our study suggests that 78 percent of the people that hear about that contribution will be like, "My system is facilitating quid pro quo corruption." But if instead the world changes to prevent that transaction from happening those people don't end up with that reaction.
- Q. Well, but when we were at \$5 million the 78 percent look at it and say this is corrupting,

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they	change	it	to	\$500,000	and	it	still	says	it's	70
perce	ent, co	rrec	t?							

- My understanding of the way the cap works Α. is in -- is that those transactions then don't So you've eliminated some -- some transactions that people would respond to in affecting their perceptions of quid pro quo corruption.
 - Why would you --
- Α. Even if the larger transaction people would've responded to the same way; they're still going to be those -- those other transactions that aren't subject to the cap. But the ones that are subject to the cap get prevented if the cap works.
- So they would -- yeah, instead of having, you know, three contributions that were \$5 million, those three contributions would now be at \$500,000, right?

Like, the contribution would still happen; it would just happen at the lower limit.

Wouldn't you have to assume that?

- That's --Α.
- ο. Or do you think that --
- 24 Α. -- that's a -- I think a potentially 25 reasonable assumption.

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Q	. R:	ight.	And	so	based	upon	this	then	there
would	still	be the	e sar	ne :	reactio	on?			

- Yes, as far as I can tell there would be a Α. similar reaction that's probably more accurate statistically. If the reactions look similar, they could vary by a couple of percentage points that we can't detect here that have a similar reaction to donations at those two levels.
- Okay. So I think I'm tracking you now. When you were answering me earlier and you were talking about buckets, you were just assuming then that those donations above whatever the limit is simply go away and would not happen?
- The higher donations go away, yeah, and instead get perhaps substituted with a lower donation.
- All right. Which potentially because of Q. the overlap here could have the same effect on the appearance of corruption?
- Α. Yes, but overall there's a positive slope here, so the lower the money the less perceptions of corruption.
 - Okay. All right. о.
- So if you were to do this study again would you, you know, based upon the information you

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have here, would you include more intervals between the \$500 and the \$5000 level?

- Α. Well --
- If you were doing it for academic Q. purposes?
- If I learned that lots of states were Α. considering or enacting provisions, you know, between those two and someone asked me what's the right level between those two then that would be a very interesting follow-up study. But for our -but based on what I know now, the answer is no, I'm not -- you can always re-slice something a thousand more ways, but it takes money and time so I'm not motivated at the moment to do that study.
- All right. Let's go on to Experiment 2. All right. I know that you mentioned this a little bit before, but could you just again just lay out what Experiment 2 is and does?
 - Α. Great. Excuse me.

So Experiment 2 introduces the idea of a reform which you and I were talking and the basis of Experiment 1 hypothetically and we're trying to make some inferences about the effect of a reform, and in Experiment 2 we actually try to test a reform and the reform is a \$5000 cap on these IEC

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contributions.

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So the second thing we wanted to do in Experiment 2 was give more legal context, and some of the technicalities that go into campaign finance law because we thought that to evaluate one piece of that policy regime you have to have a sense of the other pieces of the regime. And so that's why we enumerated five background regime factors.

And so -- and the last thing that we did in Experiment 2 is we've used a lot of different outcome variables to see how the effect of the reform affected various perceptions of corruption, including but not limited to quid pro quo corruption. So those are, I think, three of the core features of Experiment 2.

- Q. All right. And when you said you used several outcome variables, are those the three that I see listed here or is it something other than these?
- A. It's those three plus several more that I refer to on page 11 in the second full paragraph and are fully listed in the Appendix.
 - Q. Okay.
- A. But we -- we just highlight the three that relate to guid pro quo corruption in Figure 2 for

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- Q. And the -- the Appendix here includes the numeric results for each of these?
 - A. Yes.
- Q. Okay. I guess with the Experiment 1 before that went out you reviewed that question formatting with Larry Lessig?
- A. To be honest, I -- you know, always being honest, but we were mostly focused on Experiment 2. I added Experiment 1 a little later in the process. I don't actually recall if he saw it.
- Q. Okay. So you don't recall any conversations with him about choosing the logarithmic method for setting those?
 - A. I don't recall.
 - Q. Okay. That's fine. Okay.

Looking at Experiment 2 -- I'm sorry, I got the page wrong. Wait a second here. Okay. So with the Experiment 2 I'm looking at page eight where you have the base stimulus.

Did you consult with Mr. Lessig --Professor Lessig on setting these -- these rules?

- A. Yes.
- Q. Why does Rule 1 presume that public officials need lots of money to support their

elections?

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Why is that a condition that you put in here?

- A. It sets the basic background framework of a privately funded election system which is a very important threshold policy choice that the United States has made; and so it's like, you know, the pre-condition for a lot of the rest of these rules. It would be hard to understand why you would have these other detailed rules if number one wasn't true. It's a pre-condition.
- Q. Do you know if it's true in the State of Maine that you need a lot of money to become elected as a state representative?
 - A. That is my impression.
 - Q. And how do you have that impression?
- A. Mostly through my inferences about like American politics broadly, I guess. I'm not an expert in Maine.

So let me just -- so you've asked me a question that's outside the scope of my report and I actually don't have any, you know, particular basis for knowing anything about Maine in particular. So I do my best to answer your question based on my general background knowledge of American politics.

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1	Ιn	Item	3	why	did	you	deci	ide	to	
specifical	lv	stat	e t	that	inde	epend	lent	exp	enditu	re

committees are sometimes called SuperPACS?

- A. Why -- is your question why did we use the phrase SuperPAC?
 - Q. Yes.
- A. A, my understanding is it's accurate for, you know, the practice in Maine and elsewhere in the country; and B, that the term might be familiar to respondents so it would help them understand what we were talking about.
- Q. Did any of the background research you looked at indicate that people are biased against SuperPACS?
- A. The word -- the word "bias" is sort of a very tricky term for a social scientist, but -- so it's hard to answer that because it presumes that there's like a true level and then someone's biased away from the true level. So I don't think I can answer the question out of the context.
- Q. All right. Well, then let me ask it this way.

Did any of the materials that you looked at indicate that the true level of people's view of

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SuperPACS is very negative?

- A. Although I couldn't tell you which study I saw, I do recall some studies of SuperPACS that found them associated with perceptions of corruption.
- Q. So then why would you choose to specifically have that term in the rule?
- A. Back to the answer I already gave, is I think it's real, like, SuperPACS do exist and we're trying to measure this reform in the real context, and so it's important to describe campaign finance as it exists.
- Q. But if there is a large level of negativity associated with something called a SuperPAC, is it possible that simply having that term in the base assumption can skew results?
- A. This goes back -- the word "skew" kind of goes back to the word "bias", very similar, and that's what I'm resisting.
 - Q. Okay. Yeah.
- A. It might have an effect on respondents but if the -- but if that is really their perception then that's what we want to measure.
 - Q. Yeah.
 - A. So just like if we're doing a study of

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cancer, we wouldn't avoid using the word "cancer" because if people are really scared of cancer that's what we need to measure.

- But you might need to measure if you don't Q. use that word, you know, if they will heal faster.
- Well, if we're talking about perceptions, Α. you know, whether a perception of cancer affects their level of smoking, for example; we wouldn't avoid using the word "cancer" because that is actually something people might be thinking about in deciding whether to smoke. So, likewise, if people are concerned about SuperPACS and it affects their perceptions of corruption, that's not irrelevant. That's not a bias. That's the opinion we're trying to measure.
- Okay. With Rule 4, you wrote that ο. "Contributions to these IECs may come from major donors who want official actions from elected officials."

Again, why would you put that as a rule?

- Α. It forms the policy context that we understood this cap is seeking to address and so it situates the cap appropriately.
- And Rule 5, "IECs may not necessarily know Q. if a candidate directed a donor to make a

contribution to the IEC or made any agreement with a donor in exchange for the contribution."

Why was it important to put that here?

- A. Because the word "independent" we're trying to -- is in the name of IECs, but as I mentioned before that's kind of a technical legal term that may not be accurate on the ground. And number 5 I believe is a true description of what happens in the world and it helps respondents think about whether independence is real versus a legal conclusion, a legal fiction you might say. And so number 5 represents that the donor could be using this vehicle without -- without independence, even though the vehicle is called independent.
- Q. Taken together don't 4 and 5 say there are major donors who want something from an elected official and they can use independent expenditure committees to bribe the official?
- A. The word "bribe" is a, you know, legal term of art involving as I understand it and, of course, various statutes have slightly different definitions but involve a quid pro quo and I don't see in number 4 and number 5 the quo. I don't see the agreement that's essential to a bribery and so my answer to your question is no.

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Q.	Well, wait	a minute. In	5	it says, "A
candidate	directed a	donor to make	a	contribution"
	Do you see	that?		

- A. Yes.
- Q. All right. So 4 says quid and 5 says quo, right?
- A. So having a candidate direct a donor to make a contribution is not -- is not necessarily bribery, as I understand it. To just say go give money over there is not necessarily bribery. What happens after the word "or", "or made any agreement with the donor in exchange for the contribution", that gets closer to bribery. And so number 5 just says the IEC may not know if bribery occurred.
- Q. Do you know what the legal treatment is of a donation to an IEC that is directed by the candidate?
 - A. Do -- no.
- Q. If I told you that it must be treated as a donation to the candidate with appropriate limits, would that be new information to you?
- A. Yes. I don't know that that's true in practice.
 - Q. So your statement now is that you think perhaps a practice of candidates and donors is

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evading the law?

- No, I didn't agree with your description Α. of the law. I said I don't know.
- Okay. But if that's true -- because you О. said I don't know if it's true in practice.
- And I -- and I didn't affirm that it was Α. true in law, either.
- I'm trying to figure out why you had it "I Q. don't know if it's true in practice".
- Because even if it is true in law it may not be true in practice. I'm aware of candidates just from the news doing behaviors that sound similar to this.
- MR. LOUVIS: I just ask that we do a break 14 15 soon if there's a stop.
 - THE DEPONENT: Yeah, I would appreciate that.
- 18 MR. MILLER: Yeah, just let me finish 19 questions about this table and then we'll definitely 20 do that.
- 21 BY MR. MILLER:
- 22 If when the -- I'm sorry, do you call them 23 participants or respondents? What did you call 24 them?
 - They're synonymous. That's fine, either Α.

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- If -- when the participant read Q. Yeah. these rules, if they took this to mean that donors are using SuperPACS to bribe elected officials, could that impact how they respond to the questions?
- I think that is what we measure in the --Α. in the questions.
- Q. Yeah. So the questions then presumes bribery?
- No, the questions ask about bribery and Α. the respondents tell us whether they see bribery. Well -- and let me -- the questions in Figure 2 I think describe quid pro quo corruption. None of them use the word "bribery", but just to be clear I'm just, you know, calling a spade a spade. You and I can use the word "bribery".
- 17 MR. MILLER: Okay. We can take a break 18 now.
- 19 THE DEPONENT: Thank you.
- 20 THE REPORTER: We are off the record at
- 21 12:10 p.m.
- 22 (WHEREUPON, a recess was taken.)
- 23 THE REPORTER: We are back on the record
- 24 at 12:19 p.m. You may proceed.
- 25 BY MR. MILLER:

Q. Okay. I guess looking at the specific vignettes, so I guess I'm looking at page 46 of the -- of the filing here.

In the first example it says -- number 6,

"The state of Ames has a cap of \$5,000 in

contributions to IECs. It is illegal for any person
or corporation to contribute more than \$5,000 to

IECs in this state."

And then number 7, "For example, in Ames, it is not legal for a sitting governor to tell a lobbyist requesting a policy change for a certain industry that the companies should contribute \$1 million dollars to a certain IEC that supports his re-election."

So my question is why do you have the million dollar number there if they have a cap of \$5000? Why would you even have that number there? I don't understand that.

A. So \$5000 is above -- oh, I'm sorry. So let me start over.

One million is above \$5000 so if you put a cap of \$5000 then \$1 million becomes illegal. So as an example, in theory, any number above \$5000 would suffice. That would serve the purpose of being an example and we chose \$1 million as a very common

round number.

- Q. Okay. But it's -- it also could've read that, you know, that it would -- that the lobbyist, you know, could not request a policy change for a certain industry, that the company should contribute \$10,000 to the IEC, right?
- A. And that's why in Experiment 1 we actually systematically manipulate those, but for simplicity we can't do everything all at once so we picked one level.
- Q. But doesn't that create confusion to the recipient of this survey that you're saying \$1 million right after you say there's a cap of \$5000?

 Couldn't it have just been cleaner to say to contribute more than \$5000?
- A. And we -- so this is one of the reasons that we actually ran the experiment with and without examples; and so we actually tested that to see if it's -- if it is confusing and so you can see in Condition C and Condition F those examples are absent. So we could speculate that it's confusing to think about a number above \$5000; I don't think it is confusing. But in any case we tried it the other way, too.
 - Q. Okay. And do we see the different results

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- A. We did not find substantially different results. They're broken out in the Appendix if you'd like to look at them.
 - Q. Okay. All right. Good.

All right. So in the result that you provide in your report Figure 2, page 10, for example, I guess the top question -- it looks like it's showing sort of around eight percent, I guess, you know, disagreeing for no cap and somewhere around 26 percent disagreeing if there's a \$5000 cap.

Do you see that?

- A. Yes. I think it's actually nine and 27 percent.
 - Q. Nine and 27 percent.
 - A. It triples.
 - Q. Okay. Well, it triples because you were focusing on disagreement. If you were -- if you're looking at agreement, it's not tripled, right? I mean, then you're going from like 75 to 90, something like that?
 - A. Right. If you want to do the subtraction, the difference in the percentage points would remain the same either way. But the multiplier would be

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Okay. Yeah, but this survey shows that, Q. you know, over 75 percent view a \$5000 cap as corrupting.

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- Well, so if you want to take the 27 percent in the blue bar and subtract it from 100 percent, you would get 73 percent, yes.
- Yeah, so 73 percent there and I was sort Q. of averaging the three of them.
 - Α. Okay.
- But the second one that would be 77 ο. percent or so, correct?
 - Α. Yeah.
- 14 And the third one would be about 78 Q. 15 percent.
- 16 There are still perceptions of corruption Α. with a \$5000 cap, but --17
 - о. Significant perceptions.
 - Substantial ones. Α.
- 20 Substantial. Sorry. I never get the Q. 21 lingo right.
 - Α. Well, I'm trying to be agreeable.
- 23 Yeah. I appreciate that. о.
- 24 Α. So our study is focused on whether the cap makes a difference not whether the cap eliminates 25

all perceptions of corruption.

- Q. And, again, I'm going to play wordsmith here for the third question.

 Why do you call it a political quid pro quo instead of just a political -- excuse me, instead of just a quid pro quo and not use the word "political"?
- A. I don't have a particular answer to that question. I'll just note that we use the word "policy" in the other two questions, so if you like "policy" better then that's -- you have those options. We did specifically ask essentially the same question three different ways in the hopes of getting a more robust response. Hopefully, kind of giving a -- you know, so therefore we'd be more confident that the particular wording isn't making the difference but the underlying concept. That's why we asked the same question three different ways.
- Q. Yeah. I guess the reason I'm concerned about the use of the word "political" there is like "log-rolling" could be considered a political quid pro quo, right?
- A. It could be but that wouldn't be a contribution to an IEC.
 - Q. No, but there's nothing illegal about log-

roll	ing	?
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A. That's a very interesting legal question that I -- that you -- that's beyond the scope of my report.

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- Q. Okay.
- A. It's a very interesting one, though.
- Q. Yeah. All right.

I guess on page 11 I'm confused about why is it prophylactic. I don't understand what here is prophylactic.

- A. I'm trying to find the specifics.
- Q. Oh, I'm sorry, yeah. So it's the middle paragraph, fourth line.
 - A. Okay. So --
- Q. Actually, let me ask you. Are you saying it has the appearance of a prophylactic effect or the recipient of the survey thinks that there's a prophylactic effect?

Is that what you're saying?

- A. Well, everything I'm doing here is interpreting the survey results so at a certain level, yes. I'm just -- so I'll just stop there.
- Q. Right, but the survey doesn't show what the actual effect on bribery is or quid pro quo corruption.

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A. That's definitely true. This paragraph
isn't about quid pro quo corruption, anyway. In
this paragraph we're expanding to other oceans of
corruption. So that's not what I'm getting at with
prophylactic.

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- Right, but you're not getting to actual Q. real world impact, either?
- We are measuring perceptions of Α. corruption, government effectiveness, government legitimacy.
- Did it give you any pause when Experiment ο. 2 essentially showed a baseline perception of corruption of, you know, over 70 percent?
 - Α. No.
 - ο. And why is that?
- Primarily because it's consistent with the Α. prior literature and consistent with -- yeah, I think I'll just leave it at that.
- Okay. Moving down to Strengths and ο. Limitations bottom of page 12, "Ours is not a probability based survey."

Can you explain what that means?

Sure. In the old days of surveys -- like Α. 30 years ago -- they would literally pick random numbers and make a phone number out of random

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numbers and call that number and say whoever picks
up will you answer our survey; and so that's
probability-based because everyone with a phone
number has the same chance of getting called. And
so ours doesn't work that way for the reasons I
explained in the rest of the sentence.

- Q. All right. And what is a micropsychological level?
 - A. Can you help me find that sentence?
 - Q. Yeah, top of page 14.
- A. Okay. So we are not -- we didn't design our study to analyze the rates at which or the prevalence of certain opinions in the wild, in the field the way let's say a Gallup survey might.

 Instead, we designed our study to engage with people and give them a vignette and see how they respond to that vignette with randomization to support causal inference.

So it's a -- it's in that sense a different kind of study.

Q. Okay. And you have I guess in the paragraph at the bottom of page 13 you sort of talk about some limitations here.

And is what you're saying there that when you create these vignettes you cause people to focus

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on	something	more	than	what	they	would	typically	do
in	their nor	mal da	ay to	day	lives	?		

- A. That is a big part of what I'm talking about on the bottom of page 13, yes.
- Q. All right. And is there anything else that you're saying there?
- A. Well, so that's -- that is -- I think that's the core of it and so our study is best understood as answering the question if someone does become aware of a campaign contribution at a certain level, how would they respond to it, in Experiment 1, for example.

So that's part of what I was saying is different than polling people generally about perceptions of corruption. This allows us to drill into these questions of \$5000 versus \$50 million in a way that you couldn't do with a Gallup poll.

- Q. And I guess -- so for Experiment 2 because you didn't have those -- those different numerical numbers, different alternatives, you know, we don't know if a similar effect would've been reported at a \$1000 level or a \$1 million dollar level, as far as was reported at \$5000, right?
- A. I think when you put Experiment 2 and Experiment 1 together and read them as a whole, it

allows us to see that, you know, the trends we
talked about in Experiment 1, that larger value
contributions are more concerning and contributions
you know, above that \$5000 level are different than
the ones, you know, at \$500 and below. So I think
we can make some inferences based on Experiment 1;
that's why we did it as to the amounts. But it's
also true that Experiment 2 was only focused on the
single threshold that I understand is at issue here
in this litigation.

- Q. Do you think that you would've received similar results had you conducted a survey that was richer in information that was provided to respondents like a conjoint experiment or something?
- A. A conjoint experiment is another social science method that's very similar to what I've done here and I think I could've fairly called this a conjoint experiment.
 - Q. Okay.
- A. That's a label used -- I talked earlier about some social science fields have different norms, so if I was a professor of marketing I probably would've called this a conjoint experiment. It's essentially the same thing as randomization and systematic manipulation of factors like I've done

here. So I hope that's helpful to answer your question in part.

Q. I think so.

You know, and sort of thoroughly discussing, you know, some limitations and things in your report here, you mention that a substantial number of 394 respondents failed the manipulation check.

Explain the significance of that.

A. So as I talk about in the report, this is a challenge of really any sort of social science research but especially when you're using these online populations. And so these respondents when we later asked them at the end of the survey can you apply what you learned one more time from the scenario, they got it wrong. They said, well, I actually don't know or I don't remember or they guessed incorrectly on that last question.

And so by -- so I want to be super clear that for all the data we've included so far, we discussed so far, those people are included. That means there's some noise in the data already and the differences we observed are infected by some noise. It's one reason the confidence intervals are as big as they are because we have people in there that

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might not have been paying attention. And so that's why in this last paragraph we say what happens when we take them out and it turns out that our effects get even clearer, the effects get even bigger. get more substantial and significant.

So this is a -- this is a standard technique in social science research to make -- to make sure that, you know, we don't end up with a null result and falsely affirm the null when people may have just not been paying attention.

- And when you take them out because the sample size is reduced, does that have any change to your confidence interval?
- Because the sample size is reduced, the confidence intervals would grow; but because you're taking the noise out of the sample, people who weren't really paying attention, yeah, the differences actually grow as well. And so you can get a more significant result, a more significant difference between experimental conditions even in the smaller sample, and that's exactly what we see in Table Al6 in the Appendix.
- All right. And Table Al6, is that о. referencing question one or question two?
 - Α. Experiment 2.

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1	Q. Experiment 2. Okay.
2	Do you have a similar chart for Experiment
3	1?
4	A. No.
5	Q. All right. Why not?
6	A. It we just didn't think to include it.
7	It was I think we kind of viewed Experiment 2 as
8	the primary experiment where that that we wanted
9	to have the this was the most direct test of the
10	effect of the cap, and so there we wanted to be
11	especially robust and especially careful and like,
12	you know, that's what you see here in giving you
13	this Appendix to make sure that if you do ask about
14	it then I've got that for you.
15	Q. Yeah. So did you run a table for that
16	Experiment 1?
17	A. In the manipulation check limited sample,
18	I don't recall if we ever did actually.
19	Q. I'm not talking about minor formatting
20	changes or anything like that.
21	Were there any substantive tables that you ran
22	that you did not include?

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1	likely", "Very likely", et cetera, I did create a
2	figure of that but it was hard to read because
3	there's so many levels all on one screen. So that's
4	why I didn't produce the simpler version you can see
5	here, so that that was that is I think
6	responsive to your question.
7	Q. I guess one of the questions that I guess
8	you maybe asked but didn't include on there, I'm
9	looking at Table A15 here.
10	It says, "Elected officials are likely to
11	represent the interests of major donors."
12	Do you see that?
13	A. Yes.
14	Q. But there could be different well, let
15	me ask this.
16	Is there a disagreement in the academic
17	research as far as which direction causation flows
18	for that?
19	In other words, you know, do donors give
20	money because the elected officials, you know, have

I'm -- I would agree that -- that causation can flow in both directions and scholars have sometimes tried to sort that out as to in any

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given case which way it's flowing or --

- Q. But just in general you would generally expect donors to give money to candidates who represent interests that they like, correct?
- A. I mean, that's outside the scope of my study here but it sounds plausible.

I would just emphasize this is just a question we asked to respondents and they sort of speak for themselves in the answers. And you can see in having a cap pretty dramatically changes people's perceptions of whether elected officials are likely to represent the interests of major donors.

- Q. Well, I mean, you characterize it as significant but even the change itself is still above 70 percent who think that way -- who think that there's corruption at the cap level.
- A. So I'm looking at Table A15, so you can see when there is a cap the -- the percent of people that go from agreeing strongly goes from 53 percent when there's no cap down to 21.58 percent when there is a cap. So you can see that the cap dramatically reduces perceptions of this form of representation of major donors.
 - Q. And in your conclusion you sort of, you

know, have some of the sort of magic language there
about "I'm able to render opinions in this report
with a reasonable degree of scientific certainty."
I guess my question is, is polling
considered a science? I didn't know that.
A. Polling is definitely considered a science
and I would call what I'm doing, survey experiments,
is definitely considered a science.
Q. All right. Is it a social science?
A. To the extent that these are humans I'm
interacting with, yes.
Q. Okay.
MR. MILLER: All right. Let me give me
a minute here and I'll just see if I have any other
questions.
All right. I don't have any further
questions.
Thank you for coming here today.
THE DEPONENT: Thank you.
THE REPORTER: Are there any other
questions from counsel?
MR. LOUVIS: No.
THE REPORTER: Okay. Before I take us off
the record, Attorney Miller, would you like to order
the original of the transcript?

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1	MR. MILLER: Yes.
2	THE REPORTER: Thank you.
3	Attorney Louvis, would you like to order a
4	copy of the transcript?
5	MR. LOUVIS: Yes.
6	THE REPORTER: Thank you.
7	Attorney Heller, would you like to order a
8	copy of the transcript?
9	MS. HELLER: I'll read Attorney Louvis'
10	copy.
11	THE REPORTER: Okay. Thank you.
12	And Attorney Bolton, would you like a copy
13	of the transcript?
14	MR. BOLTON: Yes, please.
15	THE REPORTER: Thank you. And Attorney
16	Austin, would you like a copy of the transcript?
17	MS. AUSTIN: No, I will also read Mr.
18	Louvis' copy. Thank you.
19	THE REPORTER: Great. Thank you. And
20	will there be a read and sign today? Read and sign?
21	MS. HELLER: No.
22	THE REPORTER: Okay. Thank you.
23	We are off the record at 12:45 p.m.
24	(WHEREUPON, the deposition of CHRISTOPHER

CERTIFICATE

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I, Andrea Y. Pearce, do hereby certify that I reported all proceedings adduced in the foregoing matter and that the foregoing transcript pages constitutes a full, true and accurate record of said proceedings to the best of my ability.

I further certify that I am neither related to counsel or any party to the proceedings nor have any interest in the outcome of the proceedings.

IN WITNESS HEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand this 21st day of April, 2025.

Andrea Y. Pearce

andreay Rearce

April 02, 2025

CHRISTOPHER ROBERTSON 83368

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1	CORRECTION SHEET					
2	Deposition of: Christopher Robertson Date: 04/02/25					
3	Regarding: Dinner Table Action, et al vs. Schneider					
4	Reporter: Pearce/Tate					
5						
6	Please make all corrections, changes or					
7	clarifications to your testimony on this sheet,					
8	showing page and line number. If there are no					
9	changes, write "none" across the page. Sign this					
LO	sheet and the line provided.					
11	Page Line Reason for Change					
12						
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24	Signature:					
25	Christopher Robertson					

April 02, 2025

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1	DECLARATION			
2	Deposition of: Christopher Robertson Date: 04/02/2025			
3	Regarding: DINNER TABLE ACTION, et al vs WILLIAM J. SCHNEIDER, et al			
4	Reporter: Andrea Y. Pearce			
5				
6				
7	I declare under penalty of perjury the following to be			
8	true:			
9				
10	I have read my deposition and the same is true and			
11	accurate save and except for any corrections as made			
12	by me on the Correction Sheet herein.			
13				
١4	Signed at,			
15	on the day of, 20			
16				
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18				
19				
20				
21				
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23				
24	Signature:			
25	Christopher Robertson			

April 02, 2025

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