The Federal Advisory Committee Act and Good Government

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Issues concerning the Federal Advisory Committee Act (FACA), which governs agency solicitation of policy advice from outside groups, have arisen with greater frequency in recent years. This is true in part as a result of regulatory initiatives that aim to include larger numbers of interested parties in regulatory decisionmaking processes. In this Article, Professors Croley and Funk first provide an overview of the history and basic structure of the FACA, and then consider the many legal questions surrounding the Act's purpose, scope, interpretation, and implementation. Along the way, they consider whether and how the FACA advances good-government goals such as openness and administrative efficiency. Their analysis is guided by the results of a survey of agency "advisory committee management officers," through which they sought to gather agencies' own views of the FACA's administration, as well as by contacts with the General Services Administration's Committee Management Secretariat, the agency which supervises all advisory-committee activities, and other agency personnel. Professors Croley and Funk conclude with a set of concrete recommendations for Congress, the White House, the courts, the GSA, and agencies that use federal advisory committees.

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Passed during the “good-government” initiative of the early- and mid-1970s, the Federal Advisory Committee Act (the FACA or the Act)\(^1\) aims to keep Congress and the public informed about the number, purpose, membership, and activities of groups established or utilized to offer advice or recommendations to the President or to officers or employees of the federal government.\(^2\) As explained in more detail below,\(^3\) the 1972 Act contains certain measures designed to ensure the even-handedness of such advice. For example, it requires that legislation authorizing the establishment of an advisory committee provide some means by which to achieve a “balanced” committee membership.\(^4\) The Act also requires notice of the impending establishment of an advisory committee, so that interested parties may seek membership or, if they wish, monitor committee proceedings. In addition to these requirements, the FACA provides for several layers of advisory

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2. See id. §§ 2(a), 2(b)(5), 3(2).
3. See generally infra Part II.
committee oversight by the President, Congress, the General Services Administration (GSA), and agencies themselves. These layers of oversight seek to guard against the establishment of unnecessary committees and the perpetuation of committees that have fulfilled their tasks. In short, on the surface at least, the FACA seems designed to further many "good-government" values—impartiality, openness, and administrative efficiency—much like its sibling statutes from the same decade, the Government in the Sunshine Act, the Freedom of Information Act (FOIA), and the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1980.

This is not to suggest, however, that agencies began to receive advice from nongovernmental entities only in 1972. Much to the contrary, the FACA was designed to formalize and routinize what was already an age-old institution, in part out of concern that some interests had come to enjoy unchecked and perhaps illicit access to federal executive decisionmakers. As a House report outlining the need for some kind of governance structure for advisory committees explained, for example, the Antitrust Division in the early 1950s expressed concerns about the proximity of some industry advisory committee members to the issues about which they were rendering advice, concerns which led the Justice Department to issue a set of standards for agencies’ use of advisory groups. Meanwhile, the possibility of legislative standards for the organization and operation of advisory committees had been considered by Congress intermittently in the two decades preceding the Act, with the earliest efforts of congressional control over “outsiders’” advice dating to 1842.

And yet, while the institution to which the FACA’s passage gave discipline and organization has a long heritage, advisory committees before and since the Act have until recently been largely “Beltway” phenomena—established by and for agency officials inside Washington and with Washington-oriented memberships. Lately, however, advisory committees have been and are being established throughout the country. As a result, field-level agency personnel, as well as potential committee members in various regions, have of necessity become familiar with the FACA, thereby raising the important if uncelebrated Act’s general visibility and, with that visibility, urgent questions about how it is (and should be) interpreted, applied, and

8. See infra Part II.
administered. This recent development is partly a consequence of the Clinton Administration's effort to promote consensus-oriented regulatory decisionmaking, an initiative that finds expression, for example, in the Vice President's highly publicized National Performance Review, which explicitly calls on agencies to make greater use of negotiated rulemaking and alternative dispute resolution techniques to widen participation in regulatory decisionmaking. Still more recently, the President himself in a memorandum dated March 4, 1995, formally instructed all "Heads of Departments and Agencies" to "convene groups consisting of front line regulators and the people affected by their regulations" for "conversations [that] should take place around the country—at our cleanup sites, our factories, our ports." The March 4 memorandum also contained what many agency personnel consider to be an important command: "NEGOTIATE, DON'T DICTATE." So, too, former Secretary of Labor Robert Reich encouraged his department and other agencies to rely more heavily upon consensus-based regulatory decisionmaking by, for example, appearing in a promotional video developed by the Department of Labor that urged agencies to experiment with negotiated rulemaking, a participation- and consensus-based decisionmaking process that, as the video observes, triggers the FACA.

As if to teach by example, the White House established, in the early rounds of its 1993 health-care initiative, the President's Task Force on National Health Care Reform (Health Care Task Force), chaired by Hillary Rodham Clinton, to explore problems plaguing the nation's health care system and to consider various policy responses to those problems. Shortly thereafter, the Administration also assembled a Federal Ecosystem Management Advisory Team (FEMAT) to help assess and devise a resolution of the Spotted Owl controversy between environmentalists and the lumber industry in the Pacific Northwest, an effort which led to a "Forest Conference" attended by both the President and the Vice President.

As events would have it, both highly publicized initiatives resulted in

14. Id.
17. Similar efforts have been undertaken by the Department of Agriculture and the Department of the Interior to include interested parties in decisions concerning the management of public lands. Furthermore, the Department of Transportation has initiated "safety summits" for the purposes of promoting dialogue with its constituencies about highway safety issues, while the Federal Aviation Administration has developed its own community outreach program designed to facilitate communication between agency personnel and citizens concerned about airport noise and radar safety.
high-profile litigation under the FACA. Cases were brought challenging both of the initiatives because, interestingly enough, in neither instance did the groups formed to aid federal decisionmakers comply with the requirements of the Act. Thus, in *Northwest Forest Resource Council v. Espy*, the plaintiffs sought to enjoin the Interior Department’s reliance upon the FEMAT’s report and recommendations on the ground that the FEMAT constituted an advisory committee governed by the Act and was thus subject to the Act’s requirements. Although the court agreed with the plaintiffs that the FEMAT was an advisory committee under the Act and that the FEMAT had not observed the Act’s requirements, the court granted only declaratory relief, for reasons to be explained below. The Health Care Task Force met an even more favorable fate. In *Association of American Physicians & Surgeons, Inc. v. Clinton*, the court held that the First Lady is a “de facto” employee of the federal government and that the Task Force was therefore not subject to the FACA, which specifically excludes from its reach groups composed wholly of full-time federal employees. However, while the court concluded that the Health Care Task Force itself was not subject to the Act, it also concluded that several “working groups” upon which the Task Force relied—which included many non-federal employees—were subject to the FACA to the extent they rendered substantive advice or recommendations to the Task Force itself.

The wider geographical relevance of the FACA and these recent high-profile FACA cases are not the only new developments that call for fresh analysis of the Act. First, new legislation, part of the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act of 1995, has exempted groups previously subject to the Act from its requirements. As explained below, section 204 of Title II of that act exempts from the FACA meetings held between federal officials and elected officers of state, local, or tribal governments or their designates. Congress has recently considered still further categorical exemptions from the FACA. Such legislative efforts raise fundamental questions about the desirability of the FACA and the importance of its requirements, for whether exemptions to the Act are welcome depends in part upon how well the Act works, and how

19. Id. at 1013-15.
21. Id. at 904-11.
23. 997 F.2d at 911-15.
26. Most notably, the narrowly failed Dole-Johnston compromise regulatory reform bill would have exempted the new “peer review” groups created by the bill to review agencies’ risk assessments required for “major rules or major environmental management activity” from the Act. At one point during consideration of that bill, Senator Domenici introduced an amendment that would have exempted from the FACA all review panels for EPA and OSHA rules.
well it does not. To what extent, in other words, does the FACA advance its original good-government goals? That answer, in turn, requires some systematic understanding of how the Act is interpreted, implemented, and administered.

Second, Executive Order (EO) 12,838,27 one of the first steps toward regulatory reform taken by the Clinton Administration, instructs agencies to reduce their reliance upon advisory committees by as much as one-third.28 EO 12,838's implementing directive, Office of Management and Budget (OMB) Circular A-135, "Management of Federal Advisory Committees," further restricts agencies from creating advisory committees by capping the number of advisory committees that each agency may maintain.29 This Order raises similar questions about the Act: Are fewer advisory committees better, or should agencies be instructed instead to use more advisory committees? Here again, answering the question first requires some broad understanding of the Act, its successes, and its failures. What is more, because EO 12,838's instruction is in some tension with the Administration's promotion of consensus-based regulatory decisionmaking—for many consensus-based decisionmaking techniques may well trigger the FACA thereby requiring the creation of an advisory committee—attention to the Act is necessary in the interest of determining whether consensus-based decisionmaking should as a policy matter be promoted under the Act or instead through exceptions to it.

In fairness, the mixed signals sent by the Administration are not simply the result of myopia. Rather, they constitute one concrete manifestation of a classic tension—familiar to students of administrative government—between principles favoring openness, participation, and accountability, on one hand, and those favoring administrative speed, efficiency, and sure-footedness, on the other. In short, "good government" encompasses different values that can lead, as the White House's directives do, in different directions. Thus, any argument about whether the FACA furthers its good-government aims requires some initial specification of the principles encompassed by that concept and of the proper balance between any such principles that come into conflict with one another. While a close analysis of the competing elements of good government is beyond the present scope of this Article, it will along the way identify the several good-government goals that seem to underlie the FACA (avoiding government waste and special-interest bias, and encouraging participation and accountability, for example), note how some trade-offs between or among them may be inevitable, and, most importantly, identify several specific reform possibilities that might minimize necessary trade-offs among the Act's underlying principles.

28. Of course, independent agencies need not comply with the executive order. But they are requested to do so, and OMB budgetary clout goes far to make the request an obligation. See Exec. Order No. 12,838 § 5, 3 C.F.R. 590 (1993), reprinted in 5 U.S.C. § 14 App. at 1379.
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This Article's primary aims, though, are to provide a comprehensive overview and a general evaluation of the seldom-studied Federal Advisory Committee Act, designed especially for policymakers, practitioners, and agency personnel. In so doing, it employs three methodological approaches: legal-doctrinal analysis, an agency survey questionnaire, and what might be called "investigative empiricism." First, this Article analyzes the FACA case law to ascertain exactly which interpretive questions the courts have answered, which they have not, and where different courts agree or disagree with respect to the Act and its regulations. It thus provides a comprehensive treatment of FACA law. Second, this Article relies on the results of a survey questionnaire sent to all agencies' "Advisory Committee Management Officers," soliciting basic information about agency administration of the Act and providing a vehicle for gathering agencies' views about both which aspects of the Act warrant careful study and where improvements to it might be made. As much as anything, the survey, which contains many qualitative questions as well as some quantitative questions, reveals how agencies view the Act, and its results helped to shape this Article's focus. A copy of the survey questionnaire, along with a summary of the survey results, is appended to this Article, and relevant references to those results are provided along the way. Third, and just as importantly, this Article relies on informal personal contacts—by mail, by telephone, or in person—to solicit different parties' views about the interpretation, implementation, and administration of the Act. Such personal contacts included the GSA Advisory Committee Management Secretariat, the Interagency Committee on Federal Advisory Committee Management, the chair of the Federal Advisory Committee Management...
Association. Advisory Committee Management Officers from various agencies, Department of Justice lawyers who litigate FACA cases on behalf of the government, personnel from the policy and solicitor's offices of the Department of Labor, and congressional staff with a special interest in the Act. Other contacts included representatives from several nationally known public interest groups who have litigated FACA issues the most, as well as representatives of the National Governors Association and the National Association of Counties, whose views about the Act and its implementation were also solicited. All of these sources informed the analysis that follows.

Part I below provides a brief primer on the FACA, summarizing its history (I.A.) as well as its basic structure and core requirements (I.B.). Part II examines the many questions and issues recently raised in connection with the Act, considered in nonexclusive categories that include constitutional issues (II.A.), issues concerning the identification (II.B.), creation (II.C.), and utilization (II.D.) of advisory committees, and finally issues concerning judicial review of claims brought under the Act (II.E.). Based on the analysis provided in Part II and informed in part by the survey results, Part III contains general conclusions, together with several specific recommendations—aimed at the Congress, the White House, the courts, the GSA, and agencies themselves—about how the Act may be better interpreted, applied, and administered.

I. The Federal Advisory Committee Act: History and Structure

A. The Historical Backdrop

As mentioned, groups that advise the President or others in the Executive Branch have been around nearly as long as the nation itself. Nevertheless, there is a common understanding that the great growth of advisory committees for his or her respective agency, together with personnel from the GSA. The group serves to provide an ongoing line of communication between agencies and the GSA. The GSA Advisory Committee Management Secretariat uses the group to help it develop short-term and long-term improvements to the Act and especially its regulations.

33. The membership of the Federal Advisory Committee Management Association (FACMA) overlaps substantially with that of the Interagency Committee on Federal Advisory Committee Management. The crucial difference is that the former is not organized under the GSA's auspices and does not include GSA personnel. The FACMA, in other words, provides some agencies' Advisory Committee Management Officers an opportunity to share their views about and experiences under the Act, while asserting some independence from the GSA.

34. See Cardozo, supra note 30; Errol Meidinger, Legislative History and Background on FACA, Conference on Understanding the Federal Advisory Committee Act: Implications for Public Involvement on the National Forests, Forest Trust and Pinchot Institute, Washington, D.C., Mar. 31, 1995 (unpublished manuscript, on file with authors). Cardozo refers generally to Washington having convened committees, and Meidinger specifically mentions the Whiskey Rebellion Commission. In addition, Meidinger quotes Henry Clay as saying in 1842 that advisory committees had "grown into use long since." Id.
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committees occurred after World War II, generally in response to the increased government regulation occasioned by the New Deal and perhaps by increased government and industry cooperation during the war. This increase in outside advice naturally inspired some concerns. Initially, the concerns involved antitrust problems that might arise from collusion within advisory groups composed of business members, which prompted the Justice Department to issue its Guidelines in 1950. These Guidelines required that: there exist either statutory authority or a specific finding of necessity by an agency head before an advisory committee could be created; agencies rather than advisory committees would determine the committees’ agendas; meetings would be called and chaired by a full-time government employee; there were to be complete minutes of each meeting; the committees were to have no decisional power; and the persons on the committees should come directly from business rather than from trade associations.

The Guidelines were merely recommendations, however, and apparently they were largely ignored. As a result, legislation was introduced in Congress in 1957 to make the Guidelines mandatory. Although the House passed a bill, the Senate preferred to rely on executive oversight. Accordingly, in 1959, the Bureau of Budget (BOB) issued a directive that essentially restated the Justice Guidelines. In 1962, President Kennedy issued EO 11,007, which again in large part continued the Justice Guidelines. That Executive Order expanded the scope of the guidelines, applying not only to advisory committees created by an agency, but also to any private committee, “but only during any period when it is being utilized by a department or agency in the same manner as a Government-formed advisory committee.” EO 11,007 also recognized “industry advisory committees” as a special form of advisory committee subject to particular requirements, such as a verbatim transcript of meetings. At the same time, it provided for general waivers of coverage for non-industry advisory committees, if an agency head found that such would serve the public

37. Id. The last of these requirements was added in 1951. See Levine, supra note 35, at 220.
38. See Public Citizen, 491 U.S. at 454.
40. See Levine, supra note 35, at 221.
41. See id.
43. See Levine, supra note 35, at 221.
44. Supra note 42.
45. Id. §§ 2(b), 6(d).
interest, and for waivers for industry advisory committees from the transcript requirement and the ban on trade-association employees being members, if the head of the agency found they would interfere with the effective functioning of the committee. It furthermore strengthened the antitrust protections by prohibiting industry advisory committees from collecting information concerning the current or future activities of identified companies, and it responded to concerns of proliferation of committees by requiring each committee to terminate after two years unless specifically renewed by the agency head. Like the BOB directive and Justice Guidelines before it, EO 11,007 did not apply to Presidential advisory committees.

Advisory committee issues then lay dormant until 1970, when the Government Operations Committees in both the House and Senate held investigatory hearings on the subject. In the House, the initial focus was on "the alleged duplicativeness, wasteful expenditures, and limited impact of Presidential Advisory Committees." Later, the Committee expanded its inquiry to include all advisory committees. In the Senate, the focus was on the alleged undue influence by industry acting through advisory committees on certain agency programs. The hearings continued into 1971, and bills were introduced in both the House and Senate. After passage of separate bills by each house, a conference committee reported a bill that both houses passed into law.

B. The Act's Main Requirements

The FACA reflects the concerns expressed by the congressional committees that considered the various bills. One general concern was government waste. The sheer number of committees, estimated at the time as being approximately 3,000, led some to believe that many were unnecessary. Moreover, Presidential committees were noted for costing substantial amounts and yet producing reports useful as little more than paperweights.
As a result, and as the Supreme Court later noted in *Public Citizen v. Department of Justice*, “[t]he FACA was born of a desire to assess the need for the ‘numerous committees, boards, commissions, councils, and similar groups which have been established to advise officers and agencies in the executive branch of the Federal Government.” The Act is designed in part to allow for easier accounting of the number and expense of advisory committees, and to facilitate terminations of committees that have outlived their usefulness.

Accordingly, section 5(a) of the Act requires each standing committee of Congress to make a continuing review of all advisory committees under its jurisdiction to determine whether they should be abolished or merged with another committee, whether their responsibilities should be revised, and whether they perform necessary functions not already being performed elsewhere. Similarly, the President is to report annually on the activities, status, and changes in the composition of advisory committees in existence during the preceding year. The report is to include information on the cost of advisory committees, a list of advisory committees that the President has abolished, and a list of statutorily created committees for which the President has recommended abolition. The FACA also requires the Administrator of the General Services Administration, who is given general management responsibility over advisory committees, to make an annual review of all advisory committees to determine whether they should be abolished or merged. Finally, agencies themselves are required to keep financial records for their advisory committees, and GSA is to keep the financial records of presidential advisory committees.

The Act also restricts the creation of new advisory committees. For instance, when considering legislation to authorize the establishment of a new advisory committee, standing committees of the House and Senate must first determine whether or not the functions could be performed by an agency or an existing advisory committee. And like the Justice Guidelines and EO 11,007 before it, the FACA requires that no new advisory committee be established unless the President or a statute specifically authorizes its creation, or the head of an agency determines “as a matter of formal

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56. 491 U.S. at 445-46 (quoting the FACA § 2(a)).
57. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 5(a).
58. *See id.* § 6(c). For an example of an annual report, see 23 PRES. ANN. REP. ON FED. ADVISORY COMMS. (1995).
59. *See 5 U.S.C. App. II § 6(c).*
60. *See id.* § 7(a), (c)-(e). The original Act placed oversight responsibility in the OMB but the responsibility was shifted to GSA in Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1977. 3 C.F.R. 197, 199 (1977), reprinted in 5 U.S.C. App. at 1567-70.
61. *See 5 U.S.C. App. II § 7(b).*
62. *See id.* § 12(a).
63. *See id.* § 5(b).
record, . . . after consultation with the Administrator . . . [that such establishment is] in the public interest in connection with the performance of duties imposed on that agency by law."

To ensure that new advisory committees meet these standards, the FACA also prohibits any advisory committee from meeting or taking any action until its charter has been filed with the Administrator (for presidential advisory committees) or with the head of the agency to which the committee will report, as well as with the standing committees of the House and Senate with jurisdiction over the agency. The Act also sets a two-year limit for all advisory committees, except for those statutorily created with a different period, though it allows the President or agency head to extend a committee's term for an additional two years. While there is no limit on the number of two-year extensions that may be granted to a committee, advisory committees that are extended, including statutory advisory committees, must file new charters.

Reducing government waste was not, however, Congress's only concern. Of at least equal importance was the worry that special interests had captured advisory committees and were thus exerting undue influence on public programs. The particular focus of the initial Senate hearings in this regard had been the Advisory Council on Federal Reports and its subgroups. The BOB had created that advisory committee to advise it with respect to the implementation of the Federal Reports Act of 1942, a predecessor of the Paperwork Reduction Act. In response to complaints concerning unnecessary and burdensome government reporting and record-keeping requirements, Congress provided in the Federal Reports Act that the BOB would review and approve or disapprove all proposed agency requests for information from the private sector. The BOB asked five leading national business organizations to appoint representatives to a group—the Advisory Council on Federal Reports—upon which it could call for advice on proposed federal reporting and record-keeping requirements. The Council formed standing committees concerned with particular industries and consisting of representatives from those industries. This design was criticized "as 'one-sided,' providing advice to the government only from representatives ‘of big businesses’ and with the power ‘to withhold from the public information

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64. Id. § 9(a).
65. See id. § 9(c). The charter must set out: the advisory committee's title; its purpose; the time necessary to carry out that purpose; the agency or official to whom it reports and who is responsible for providing necessary support; the duties for which the committee is responsible; the estimated annual cost and number and frequency of meetings; the termination date; and the date the charter is filed. See id.
66. See id. § 14(a).
67. See id. § 14(b).
68. See Cardozo, supra note 30, at 8.
70. See id.
71. See id.
72. See id.
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which it has the right to know . . . ."" Nor was the Advisory Council on Federal Reports the only committee criticized. William Rodgers' study of the National Industrial Pollution Control Council—an advisory committee created by President Nixon to "allow businessmen to communicate regularly with the President, the Council on Environmental Quality, and other governmental officials and private organizations which are working to improve the quality of our environment"—concluded that the Council's contribution to two environmental initiatives was to supply "invaluable inside-track opportunities for those who would redirect governmental policy . . . ."

Such undue influence stemmed from at least two different aspects of advisory-committee practice. First, committee membership often reflected only one point of view. EO 11,007, for example, had expressly approved of industry advisory groups, which were defined as groups "composed predominantly of members or representatives of a single industry or group of related industries, or of any subdivision of a single industry made on a geographic, service or product basis." Second, advisory groups operated in relative secrecy. EO 11,007 did not require committee meetings to be open to the public." It did require committees to keep minutes of their meetings, and it also required industry advisory groups to keep verbatim transcripts, but as noted the transcript requirement could be waived by the head of the agency upon a determination that it "would interfere with the proper functioning of [the] committee or would be impracticable, and that [a] waiver . . . would be in the public interest." Apparently, such waivers were often sought and obtained. Moreover, at least as indicated by Rodgers' study, "[t]he [committee] minutes amount[ed] to a skeletal outline of the issues discussed, evidently thoroughly sanitized." Committee documents were supposed to be included with the minutes, but this requirement was occasionally not adhered to, and, unless the documents were maintained by the agency, committees

73. Cardozo, supra note 30, at 8 (quoting 115 CONG. REC. 31,237 (1969)).
74. William H. Rodgers, Jr., The National Industrial Pollution Control Council: Advise or Collude?, 13 B.C. INDUS. & COM. L. REV. 719, 719 (1972) (quoting Statement by the President on Establishing the National Industrial Pollution Control Council, 6 WKLY. COMP. PRES. DOC. 502 (Apr. 9, 1970)).
75. Id. at 743.
76. 3 C.F.R. 573, 573 (1963). EO 11,007 did require that industry advisory groups be "reasonably representative of the group of industries, the single industry, or the geographical, service, or product segment thereof to which it relates, taking into account the size and function of business enterprises in the industry or industries, and their location, affiliation and competitive status, among other factors." Id. at 574.
77. See id. at 574-75.
78. See id. at 574.
79. See id.
80. Id.
81. See Rodgers, supra note 74, at 724-25.
82. Id. at 727.
83. See id.
argued they were not subject to the FOIA.\textsuperscript{44}

The FACA addressed these perceived problems in several ways. Responding to the concern that advisory committees reflected only the views of particular interests, the Act requires that the membership of advisory committees be “fairly balanced in terms of the points of view represented and the functions to be performed by the advisory committee.”\textsuperscript{95} No longer could advisory committees be industry-advisory committees.\textsuperscript{46} The Act similarly attempts to address the concern that advisory committees might become the tail that wags the agency dog; it requires that no advisory-committee meeting occur “except at the call of, or with the advance approval of, a designated officer or employee of the Federal Government, and [except for Presidential advisory committees] with an agenda approved by such officer or employee.”\textsuperscript{87} Moreover, no meeting can occur without the presence of a designated federal officer or employee, and the officer or employee is authorized to adjourn the meeting whenever “he determines it to be in the public interest.”\textsuperscript{88}

The FACA’s response to the secrecy concerns reflects the legal culture of the time, midway between the passage of the FOIA\textsuperscript{99} and the Government in the Sunshine Act.\textsuperscript{90} Section 10 of the Act begins by requiring that “[e]ach advisory committee meeting shall be open to the public.”\textsuperscript{91} In order to make this requirement meaningful, the Act further requires that “timely notice” of meetings be published in the \textit{Federal Register}, and that the Administrator prescribe rules for other types of public notice.\textsuperscript{92} Moreover, the public is entitled to participate in meetings by appearing before and filing statements with the committee.\textsuperscript{93} The FACA also requires that committees keep

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  \item \textsuperscript{84} See Perritt & Wilkinson, \textit{supra} note 30, at 733.
  \item \textsuperscript{85} 5 U.S.C. App. II \$ 5(b)(2). While subsection (b) by its terms applies only to legislation creating or authorizing advisory committees, section 5(c) requires that the guidelines set out in subsection (b) . . . shall be followed by the President, agency heads, or other Federal officials in creating an advisory committee.” Id. \$ 5(c).
  \item \textsuperscript{86} Senator Metcalf’s bill, S. 1637, 92d Cong. (1971), would have required one-third of the members of committees to come from public interest groups.
  \item \textsuperscript{87} 5 U.S.C. App. II \$ 10(f).
  \item \textsuperscript{88} Id. \$ 10(e).
  \item \textsuperscript{89} 5 U.S.C. \$ 552 (initially enacted in 1966).
  \item \textsuperscript{90} 5 U.S.C. \$ 552b (initially enacted in 1976).
  \item \textsuperscript{91} 5 U.S.C. App. II \$ 10(a)(1).
  \item \textsuperscript{92} Id. \$ 10(a)(2). GSA’s regulations require at least 15 days’ notice in the \textit{Federal Register}, 41 C.F.R. \$ 101-6.1015(b)(1). Those regulations further require that the notice contain the name of the committee; the time, date, place, and purpose of the meeting; a summary of the agenda; and a statement whether any of the meeting is to be closed to the public, and, if so, why. See id. There are exceptions to these requirements however. For example, notice of meetings is not required when the President determines that reasons of national security preclude giving such notice. See 5 U.S.C. App. II \$ 10(a)(2).
  \item \textsuperscript{93} See 5 U.S.C. App. II \$ 10(a)(3). However, meetings (or portions of meetings) need not be opened to the public if the President or the head of the advisory committee’s agency determines in writing, with reasons given, that the meetings would qualify for closure under the Government in the Sunshine Act. See id. \$ 10(d). In the original Act, which preceded the Government in the Sunshine Act,
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“[d]etailed minutes of each meeting,” the accuracy of which the chair of the committee must certify, and which must contain “a record of the persons present, a complete and accurate description of matters discussed and conclusions reached, and copies of all reports received, issued, or approved by the advisory committee.” These are to be made available for public inspection and copying at the offices of the advisory committee or agency, unless they are subject to one of the exemptions from public release contained in the FOIA. In several important ways, then, the FACA reflects the good-government values that motivated its passage.

II. Issues Currently Arising Under the FACA

But while the Act embodies many good-government concerns, it has in recent years raised new difficulties. The many salient issues that have recently arisen in connection with it can be categorized into five groups: constitutional issues; questions concerning the identification of groups subject to the Act; issues surrounding the creation of an advisory committee once a group that would be subject to the Act is identified; issues concerning the administration of advisory committees once created; and finally, issues concerning judicial review of claims brought under the Act. As will be seen, these categories overlap to some degree, but they nevertheless provide useful starting points for considering the many specific questions that the interpretation, implementation, and administration of the FACA have recently generated. Each is explored in turn.

A. Constitutional Issues

The FACA’s restrictions on federal executive power implicate several constitutional values, including federalism, separation of powers, and executive prerogative. Thus, for example, the Western Governors

meetings could be closed if they would deal with matters that could be withheld under the FOIA. See Federal Advisory Committee Act, Pub. L. No. 92-463, § 10(a)(3)(d), 86 Stat. 774, 775.

94. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 10(c). Although the FACA does not require a verbatim transcript of committee meetings—only the detailed minutes—transcripts are listed among the documents to be subject to inspection and copying, see id. § 10(b), and referred to in a provision requiring agencies and advisory committees to “make available to any person, at actual cost of duplication, copies of transcripts of . . . advisory committee meetings.” Id. § 11(a).

95. See id. § 10(b). Exemption 5 of the Freedom of Information Act, 5 U.S.C. § 552(b)(5), which exempts certain inter-agency and intra-agency documents, does not apply to draft reports, working papers, and other documents made available to or prepared by or for an advisory committee, because the committee is not an “agency.” See, e.g., Wolfe v. Weinberger, 403 F. Supp. 238, 241-43 (D.D.C. 1975).

96. The FACA might also raise delegation/nondelegation issues: For example, is the Act consistent with classic nondelegation doctrine—as embodied in cases like A.L.A. Schechter Poultry, Panama Refining Co., and Carter Coal—which prohibited the delegation of legislative authority to private or semi-private bodies? The short answer, and probably the correct one, is that under the FACA, agencies, not advisory committees, are the final decisionmakers. Arguably, however, parts of the Act do
Association (WGA) in June of 1994 resolved that the FACA “hinders the free flow of communication between [state and federal] jurisdictions” and thereby interferes with informed, cooperative decisionmaking by state and federal policy makers—in short, that it hinders federalist government.\(^7\) Clearly, the WGA is (or at least was, until passage of the Unfunded Mandates Act\(^8\)) partly correct. Literally speaking, the Act does inhibit the free flow of information between federal and state employees. This is a function of the definition of an “advisory committee” subject to the FACA, as given in section 3(2)(B) and 3(2)(C)(iii) of the Act. The definition includes “any committee, board, commission, council, conference, panel, task force, or other similar group,”\(^9\) which group is established or utilized by the President or by one or more agencies,\(^10\) but it excludes any such committee composed “wholly of full-time officers or employees of the Federal Government.”\(^11\) Because state officers and employees do not enjoy the benefit of section 3(2)(C)(iii)’s federal-employees exemption,\(^12\) the establishment of a group of state (or local) decisionmakers for the purpose of providing advice or recommendations to a federal decisionmaker would—unless it fell within the recent Unfunded Mandates’ exemption—trigger the Act’s requirements.

The governors, whose views, after all, may be shaped in part by incentives to bend the ears of federal decisionmakers without publicity, are not the only ones to have voiced such a concern. For example, the court in *Natural Resources Defense Council v. Environmental Protection Agency (NRDC v. EPA)* suggested that interpretations of the FACA inhibiting communication and cooperation between state governors and federal officials would raise questions about the Act’s compatibility with federalism.\(^13\) The case involved a claim by the NRDC that the Governors’ Forum on Environmental Management (Governors’ Forum), a bipartisan group including nine state governors together with EPA personnel formed at the request of the EPA Administrator to address the issue of states’ abilities to implement certain environmental programs such as those contemplated by the

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\(^7\) *Western Governors’ Association, Resolution No. 94-001* (1994).

\(^8\) See infra text accompanying notes 24-25.

\(^9\) 5 U.S.C. App. II § 3(2).

\(^10\) See id. § 3(2)(B)-(C).

\(^11\) Id. § 3(2)(C).


\(^13\) See infra text accompanying notes 24-25.
Safe Drinking Water Act,\textsuperscript{105} constituted an advisory committee under the FACA and that the Governors’ Forum was therefore obliged to open its meetings to the public. The court disagreed, concluding that because the governors who serve on the Governors’ Forum act “as independent chief executives in partnership with the federal agency,”\textsuperscript{106} it could not “ignore the federalism . . . concerns, which would arise if the Court were to determine that a body of nine Governors organized to address an environmental problem constitutes an advisory committee under FACA.”\textsuperscript{107} The court also stated that to conclude that the Governors’ Forum was an advisory committee under the FACA “would ignore the responsibilities the states maintain in complying with the Safe Drinking Water Act.”\textsuperscript{108}

Whether the governors’ or the court’s concerns truly necessitate or even justify further changes to the FACA to facilitate federal-state communication, however, is another matter. While freeing state and local officials from the strictures of the Act would facilitate federal-state dialogue, those gains might be offset by compromises to the values underlying the Act, such as openness and balance. Put bluntly, whereas state officials sometimes seek to communicate with their federal counterparts simply to coordinate federal-state programs, other times state officials act in the capacity of regional interest groups, whose communications may be better carried out pursuant to the Act. At the very least, the court in \textit{NRDC v. EPA} overstated its case. Concluding that the Governors’ Forum was subject to the FACA would not, in fact, have “ignor[ed] the responsibilities the states maintain in complying with the Safe Drinking Water Act.” Rather, such a holding would have simply required state officials to observe the FACA’s openness requirements in the process of carrying out those responsibilities.

To be sure, not satisfying the Act’s requirements is easier than satisfying them. To that extent, the FACA “burdens” federal-state communications. But, all things considered, the gains in openness and balance might well be worth their burdens. While the Act’s requirements may be unnecessary inconveniences on federal and state regulators who seek simply to coordinate a federal-state program, those requirements may be welcome inhibitions on regional influence peddling. Although the court in \textit{NRDC v. EPA} stated that “[c]losed meetings of the Governors’ Forum would foster an environment of cooperation and collegiality among the independent executives,”\textsuperscript{109} one wonders why open meetings would necessarily thwart cooperation and collegiality among governors trying \textit{merely} to achieve effective state

\textsuperscript{105} 42 U.S.C. § 300(f) - (j). Under the Safe Drinking Water Act, the EPA sets minimum national standards for specific water contaminants, and states are free to establish their own particular standards and to take the lead in enforcement, with the EPA providing financial and technical assistance. 42 U.S.C. § 300(g) - (j)(1).

\textsuperscript{106} 806 F. Supp. at 277.

\textsuperscript{107} Id. at 278.

\textsuperscript{108} Id. at 277.

\textsuperscript{109} Id. at 279.
implementation of federal programs. Unless courts are to determine the motives of federal-state advisory groups on a costly case-by-case basis, an overinclusive categorical rule may well be better than an underinclusive one. At any rate, the choice requires a weighing of values such as speed and efficiency of government decisionmaking, on the one hand, and openness and balance, on the other. The new exemption provided in the Unfunded Mandates legislation seems to facilitate federal-state coordination by freeing elected state officers and their delegates from the Act’s requirements. At the same time, the exclusion guards against such illicit forces as regional lobbying by limiting its application to communications carried out in state and local officials’ capacities. This accommodation of values seems reasonable, and the Act’s residual applicability to state officials—for example, to state elected officials who are part of advisory committees with other members who are neither federal nor state employees—can hardly be said to constitute a serious threat to federalism.

Federalism is not the only constitutional value implicated by the FACA, and perhaps not the most important. Many courts, including the Supreme Court, have also expressed concerns about separation of powers and the permissibility of the Act’s interference with executive power in particular. In fact, insofar as the FACA prohibits the President from receiving advice in whatever form or manner he might choose, the constitutionality of the Act has been subject to serious question. Thus in Public Citizen v. Department of Justice, the only Supreme Court FACA case, three justices argued in a concurring opinion that the Act constituted an unconstitutional interference with the President’s ability to solicit advice.

Public Citizen involved a challenge under the Act to presidential reliance upon the American Bar Association’s Standing Committee on the Federal Judiciary (ABA Committee) as a source of information about potential judicial nominees. The plaintiffs pointed out that section 3 of the Act defines “advisory committee” as “any committee, board, commission, council, conference, . . . established or utilized by the President, or established or utilized by one or more agencies, in the interest of obtaining advice or recommendations . . . .” Because the ABA Committee was utilized, though not established, by the President for the purpose of obtaining advice and

110. At the very least, the court’s suggestion here is in tension with Brandeis’s observation that “sunshine is the best disinfectant.” Louis Brandeis, Other People’s Money, and How the Bankers Use It 92 (1914).

111. Nevertheless, it was in response to such concerns that Congress passed the Unfunded Mandates exemption mentioned above. See supra text accompanying note 24. Interestingly, according to Congressional staff sources, that provision met resistance both from public interest groups, who believed that any exemption would compromise the purposes underlying the Act, and from the National Governors’ Association and the National Association of Counties, who sought an exception more broad than that which Congress in the end adopted.


113. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 3(2)(B)-(C) (emphasis added).
recommendations on potential judicial nominees, the plaintiffs argued that the ABA Committee must provide notice of its meetings, open those meeting to the public, and supply minutes and copies of committee records and reports upon request.

The Court disagreed. According to the Public Citizen majority, the word "utilize" in section 3 was not to be taken literally, but rather was properly understood as an extension and qualification of the term "establish." According to the majority:

"Utilize" is a woolly verb, its contours left undefined by the statute itself. Read unqualifiedly, it would extend FACA's requirements to any group of two or more persons, or at least any formal organization, from which the President or an executive agency seeks advice. We are convinced that Congress did not intend that result. A nodding acquaintance with FACA's purpose . . . reveals that it cannot have been Congress' intention, for example, to require the filing of a charter, the presence of a controlling federal official, and detailed minutes any time the President seeks the views of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) before nominating Commissioners to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, or asks the leaders of an American Legion Post he is visiting for the organization's opinion on some aspect of military policy.114

To avoid such an unlikely result, the majority looked past plain meaning and to the Act's legislative history, observing, for example, that the term "utilize" in the Act very likely originated in EO 11,007,"115 which was not understood by that or subsequent administrations to encompass the ABA Committee notwithstanding its highly visible role in advising the President regarding judicial nominees before and after the passage of the Act.116 The Court also explained that "construing FACA to apply to the Justice Department's consultations with the ABA Committee would present formidable constitutional difficulties."117 Noting that the district court below had held the Act unconstitutional insofar as it applied to consultations with the ABA Committee on the grounds that it infringed on the President's power to nominate federal judges and violated the separation of powers doctrine, the Court, without ruling on those questions, furthermore observed that "there is no gainsaying the seriousness of these constitutional challenges."118 Because the legislative history contained substantial evidence that Congress did not

114. 491 U.S. at 452-53.
115. See Exec. Order No. 11,007, supra note 42.
116. 491 U.S. at 456-57.
117. Id. at 466.
118. Id. at 467.
intend "utilize" to include consultations with the ABA Committee, the Court avoided "formidable constitutional difficulties" by interpreting the term "utilize" more narrowly.

However, three justices resisted the majority's interpretation, arguing instead that "utilize" in section 3 was best interpreted as consistent with common usage. In an opinion written by Justice Kennedy (joined by Rehnquist and O'Connor), they argued that the legislative history was more complicated than the majority acknowledged and did not provide a justifiable basis for the majority's gloss on "utilize." Turning, then, to the constitutional question that the Act's application to the ABA Committee presented, the concurrers concluded that the Act violated constitutional separation of powers by infringing upon the President's appointment power.120

Like the concurrers in Public Citizen, Judge Buckley, concurring in Association of Am. Physicians & Surgeons, Inc. v. Clinton,121 explained that in his view too the FACA's application to the supply of presidential advice was unconstitutional. The majority of the D.C. Circuit panel in that case avoided considering that constitutional question when it concluded that the First Lady was an "employee" for the purposes of the Act, and thus that her leadership of the presidential Task Force on Health Care Reform did not render that group an advisory committee subject to the Act. Judge Buckley, in contrast, argued that the Act's language "full-time officers or employees of the Federal Government" clearly excluded the First Lady.122 Under his interpretation, then, the Task Force was clearly covered by the Act, for the First Lady's presence on the Task Force meant that the Task Force was not "composed wholly of full-time officers or employees" and thus was not excluded from the Act's definition of an "advisory committee." But this conclusion raised the question whether the Act could withstand constitutional scrutiny, given its restrictions on presidential power. Citing the Nixon cases, Judge Buckley concluded that it could not.123

Still other courts have raised questions about the effect of the Act on separation of powers and executive prerogative with reference to judicial, rather than with legislative, limitations on executive power. That is, courts have sometimes questioned their own ability to enjoin the president from

119. Id. at 474-77 (Kennedy, J., concurring).
120. Id. at 482-88.
121. 997 F.2d 898 (D.C. Cir. 1993) (Buckley, J., concurring).
123. 997 F.2d at 917-922. In making his argument, Judge Buckley observed that even the Public Citizen Court stated that courts cannot "press statutory construction to the point of disingenuous evasion [of Congress's intent], even to avoid a constitutional question." Id. at 917 (quoting Public Citizen, 491 U.S. at 467).
125. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 3(2).
127. 997 F.2d at 924-25.
relying on advice or recommendations from groups seemingly covered by the Act but whose procedures did not conform with the Act’s requirements. The Espy case exemplifies this concern. There, a district court concluded that considerations of separation of powers and of executive privilege allowed only declaratory relief to plaintiffs who had brought a successful FACA claim. Other lower courts have expressed similar concerns about the Act’s compatibility with separation of powers.

In addition to broad constitutional principles such as federalism and separation of powers, the FACA also implicates a seldom-remembered provision in Article I, section 9, which states: “[N]o Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under [the United States] shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.” The Emoluments Clause might be read to pose constitutional restrictions on advisory-committee membership. For example, members of international organizations who receive financial support from foreign governments might be barred by the Emoluments Clause from serving on advisory committees. More importantly, perhaps, lawyers employed by law firms whose clients include foreign governments—including, for example, most large D.C. law firms—might be barred from serving on an advisory committee. Although this issue has not been litigated, the Department of Justice once expressed the view that the Clause may well prohibit such membership. Whether that view is sound of course depends on whether advisory-committee membership constitutes an “Office of Profit or Trust,” and whether foreign business relationships, for example, constitute a type of “Emolument.” Given the Act’s many openness requirements, there are no strong policy reasons for interpreting the Clause this way, and only the rare agency (and no court) has done so.

128. See supra text accompanying note 18.
129. See, e.g., National Anti-Hunger Coalition v. Executive Comm. of the President’s Private Sector Survey on Cost Control, 557 F. Supp. 524, 530 (D.D.C. 1983) (“The Act leaves a myriad of questions unanswered, especially concerning the extent to which Congress intended to interfere with the President’s formulation of policy. A President constantly seeks, as he should, informed advice. His choice of advisors should be largely his personal concern under our tripartite form of government.”); Nader v. Baroody, 396 F. Supp. 1231, 1234 (D.D.C. 1975) (“To hold that Congress intended to subject [biweekly White-House meetings between the President and non-public parties] . . . to press scrutiny and public participation with advance notice on formulated agendas, etc., as required by the Act, would raise the most serious questions under our tripartite form of government as to the congressional power to restrict the effective discharge of the President’s business.”)
131. See SOURCEBOOK, supra note 9, at 573.
132. The Act and the GSA regulations certainly contemplate that advisory-committee members will be paid. See 5 U.S.C. App. II § 7(d); 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1033.
133. See Responses to Question 11, Federal Advisory Committee Act Agency Survey (on file with authors).
B. What Constitutes an Advisory Committee Governed by the Act?

Although potentially the most important, constitutional questions do not account for most of the FACA litigation. Rather the most litigated issue under the FACA concerns whether, when, and how a given group becomes an advisory committee subject to the Act.\textsuperscript{134} Such litigation arises when someone sues because persons are providing advice to the President or to an agency without complying with the FACA’s chartering and meeting requirements. Challengers may sue in order to monitor the advice being given, to affect the advice being given, to oppose advice that has been given, or to oppose government action that might be taken on the basis of advice given. Agencies can avoid such lawsuits by ensuring that all groups that are arguably advisory committees undergo the requisite chartering and follow the required procedures. Given the burdens involved in fulfilling these tasks, however, it is not surprising that agencies or the President may attempt to operate outside of the Act’s scope while nonetheless trying to obtain advice from persons outside government. The Act’s exact scope thus has become a perennial issue.

The FACA itself defines an “advisory committee” as:

any committee, board, commission, council, conference, panel, task force, or other similar group, or any subcommittee or other subgroup thereof . . . , which is

(A) established by statute or reorganization plan, or
(B) established or utilized by the President, or
(C) established or utilized by one or more agencies,

in the interest of obtaining advice or recommendations for the President or one or more agencies or officers of the Federal Government . . . .\textsuperscript{135}

The definition goes on to exclude the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, the Commission on Government Procurement, and any committee composed wholly of full-time Federal employees\textsuperscript{136} as well as any advisory committees of the Central Intelligence Agency or the Federal Reserve System,\textsuperscript{137} any advisory committee that is a local civic group “whose primary function is that of rendering a public service with respect to a Federal program,”\textsuperscript{138} and any state or local committee “established to advise or make recommendations to State or local officials or agencies.”\textsuperscript{139} Subsequent

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item See generally Croley, supra note 30.
\item 5 U.S.C. App. II § 3(2).
\item Id. § 3(2)(C).
\item Id. § 4(b).
\item Id. § 4(c).
\item Id. The Act’s definition is given further specification by GSA regulations. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1003-04.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
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statutes have from time to time exempted specific advisory committees that would otherwise meet the Act's definition.140

Exemptions aside, there are three core components to the Act's definition of "advisory committee." First, the Act applies only to a "group" (containing at least one person not employed by the government). Second, groups subject to the Act must be either "established" by a statute (or reorganization plan) or "utilized" by the President or an agency. Third, groups so established or utilized must be established or utilized for the purpose of supplying "advice or recommendations" to the President or an agency. Each of these requirements raises several questions.

1. The Group Requirement

A single person cannot be an advisory committee.141 An unresolved question is whether a single, non-natural "person" can be an advisory committee. For example, a corporate entity like General Motors certainly would not seem to fit the concept of a "committee, board, commission, council, conference, panel, task force, or other similar group." At the same time, the Board of Directors of General Motors is literally a "board," and to the extent that communications from GM were authorized by the Board, one might conclude that advice from GM to an agency constituted advice from a board. Though this would seem to stretch the conception of the Act and there are no cases to suggest that a for-profit corporation, acting alone, might qualify as an advisory committee, there are a number of cases involving non-profit corporations. For example, an early FACA case involved a challenge to meetings between the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) and the American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO).142 In concluding that AASHTO was an advisory committee utilized by the FHWA, the court never questioned whether AASHTO was a "committee" within the meaning of the Act. Moreover, in Public Citizen, the Supreme Court never questioned whether the American Bar Association's Standing Committee on the Federal Judiciary was a "committee" under the Act; the issue was whether it was "utilized" by the President within the meaning of the Act. Given the lack of discussion on the subject, it is not clear whether the Court relied on the fact that the recommendations came from the "Standing Committee on the Federal Judiciary," as opposed to the ABA itself. There is a suggestion in the opinion, however, that the involvement of the "Standing Committee" was not critical: In explaining why the term "utilize" should not be read broadly, the Court said that otherwise the National

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140. See, e.g., 29 U.S.C. § 1302(h)(8) (advisory committee to Pension Benefits Guaranty Corporation not subject to FACA).
141. See also 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1004(h) (meetings initiated by President or agency to seek advice from single individual not subject to Act).
Association for the Advancement of Colored People, leaders of an American Legion Post, or the President's own political party would be an advisory committee if the President sought their advice. One can question, however, why for the purposes of the Act these disparate entities should be considered committees or groups at all. Perhaps there is a sense of membership in these entities that is missing from a for-profit organization, and perhaps it is this element of membership in an organization that suggests the organization is a similar group to a committee, board, commission, and so on. On this view, the important distinction is not for-profit versus non-profit. Neither Stanford University nor General Motors would be a committee, but under the membership rationale both the Association of American Law Schools and the Motor Vehicles Manufacturers Association would be. Such an analysis might explain the cases, but it is difficult to see why improper influence is more likely to arise from a general-membership group than from other corporate entities. Nor is it clear how the underlying purposes of the FACA—specifically, avoiding improper influence of government by private interests—would be served by such a distinction.

Building on the idea that a single individual cannot be a committee, the GSA has provided by regulation that convening a number of people to obtain the advice of each individually (rather than collectively) does not establish an advisory committee. A number of agencies make use of this provision, and this approach makes considerable sense. If an agency separately asks a number of individuals for their individual advice, doing so would not implicate the FACA. If that agency asks the same people for the identical (individual) advice, but for the purposes of efficiency does so in a group setting, the FACA likewise should not apply. Moreover, when one thinks of a committee, board, commission, council, etc., one imagines that the group will vote or otherwise seek to obtain at least a majority position for whatever position it takes. Advice from such an entity, therefore, suggests advice from a collective identity. However sensible this may be, there is nothing inherent in the concept of a committee, board, commission, or council that positively precludes the notion of individual members having responsibilities separate from, or in addition to, any collective responsibility of the group. Consequently, there is nothing in the language "committee, board,

143. Public Citizen, 491 U.S. at 453.
144. Indeed, to the extent that the concern is with improper government influence by private interests, the evil may also arise from powerful individuals, whose advice is clearly outside the bounds of the FACA. At any rate, this issue, insofar as it related to privately organized groups, has largely been mooted by the Supreme Court's decision in Public Citizen, which restrictively interpreted the term "utilized." See infra Subsection I.B.2.a. Consequently, whether or not these private organizations are committees or groups, even if they do provide advice to agencies, they are not likely to be considered "utilized" by the agency within the meaning of the FACA and, therefore, will escape characterization as "advisory committees." Nevertheless, the failure of courts to address clearly what constitutes a committee continues to raise questions when an agency or the President brings individuals together.
145. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1004(i).
commission, council . . ." that precludes members of a committee transmitting their individual, as opposed to collective, views. Moreover, the FACA's definition does not explicitly refer to the committee's advice or recommendations; it merely says that the committee is established in the interest of obtaining advice for an agency. One could read that language to include the creation of a group for the purpose of obtaining the advice of each of its members individually.

Such a reading implies that the GSA's regulation might be questionable. However, because the GSA is the agency entrusted with administering the FACA one might also expect courts to apply the standards of *Chevron, U.S.A., Inc. v. National Resources Defense Council*\(^1\), to its regulatory interpretations of an ambiguous statutory definition. Yet this has not been the case. The Supreme Court in *Public Citizen*, without citing *Chevron*, gave several reasons not to defer to the GSA's regulatory definition of advisory committee, two of which are relevant here. First, the Court said that GSA's regulations were not contemporaneous interpretations of the statute because they were not finally promulgated until more than ten years after the FACA was passed.\(^2\) Second, the Court interpreted the FACA's authorization to the GSA to "prescribe administrative guidelines and management controls applicable to advisory committees, and . . . provide advice, assistance, and guidance to advisory committees . . ."\(^3\) not to "empower the agency to issue, in addition to these guidelines, a regulatory definition of 'advisory committee' carrying the force of law."\(^4\) Subsequently, the D.C. Circuit rejected deference to the GSA's regulations on the related issue of whether advisory committees had to provide consensus advice, stating that it does not defer to an agency's construction of a statute interpreted by more than one agency, "let alone one applicable to all agencies."\(^5\) Nevertheless, despite a refusal to accord deference to GSA's interpretation, the D.C. Circuit expressly agreed with the GSA's conclusion, stating that "a group is a FACA advisory committee when it is asked to render advice or recommendations, as a group, and not as a collection of individuals."\(^6\) As the only circuit court decision directly on

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148. *Public Citizen*, 491 U.S. at 463 n.12. *Chevron*, of course, did not require (or even deem relevant) whether an agency's regulations were contemporaneous with the statute, finding the justification for deference to lie in a presumed delegation of authority from Congress to clarify ambiguities in the statute, rather than in exogenous reasons for the agency's interpretation to be correct.
149. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 7(c).
151. *Physicians & Surgeons*, 997 F.2d at 913. The court failed to recognize that while the FACA may apply to all agencies, GSA has been given a special role under the FACA. Thus, the court's citation to *Reporters Comm. for Freedom of the Press v. Department of Justice*, 816 F.2d 730, 734 (D.C. Cir. 1987), rev'd on other grounds, 489 U.S. 749 (1989), in which the court refused to defer to the Justice Department's interpretation of the FOIA, was inapt.
152. 997 F.2d at 913 (emphasis in the original). Its explanation for its agreement is somewhat problematic. The court indicated that it believed the group's activities were expected to benefit from the interaction among the members. This may be true, but it is certainly conceivable that a group could
point, it may decide the issue definitively.\textsuperscript{155}

Even if a group of individuals convened to provide individual advice does not constitute an advisory committee in principle, there are practical problems associated with such undertakings. First, a group brought together for the purpose of providing individual advice may, in the course of the meeting, end up providing collective advice. If this occurs, the GSA regulation states—and the \textit{Physicians & Surgeons} court confirms—group dynamics might well transform the substance of the advice, with the result being that the meeting would be covered by the FACA.\textsuperscript{154} The problem is, by that point in time, it would be too late to comply with the FACA’s requirements, since the meeting would already have occurred. Just such a scenario occurred with respect to a panel of experts assembled by the Fish and Wildlife Service to provide individual advice with respect to listing the Alabama Sturgeon as an endangered species.\textsuperscript{155} Rather than filing individual reports as originally requested, the scientists decided to file a joint report recommending that the Alabama Sturgeon be listed. As a result, they were considered an advisory committee which had not complied with the FACA, resulting in an injunction against their advice being used by the agency for any purpose.\textsuperscript{156}

Second, even if the members do not provide collective advice, but how to individual opinions, if the group is challenged as an advisory committee, a failure to adequately memorialize the purpose and activities of the group may lead to extended discovery and litigation over what actually took place. In \textit{Physicians & Surgeons}, for example, the court agreed that persons gathered together to provide individual advice did not constitute advisory committees, but explained that the record before it did not enable the court to determine whether the working group for the President’s Task Force on National Health Care Reform provided only the individual advice of its members. As a result, the court was forced to remand the case to the district court for further proceedings, including discovery, to determine the character of the working

discuss a matter among themselves and still render individual opinions on the subject. Thus, interaction does not necessarily mean advice “as a group.” The court also indicated that advisory committees not only provide advice, but they also provide political legitimacy to that advice stemming from the “distinguished and knowledgeable individuals appointed.” \textit{Id.} But again, if distinguished and knowledgeable individuals render individual advice, they still provide political legitimacy to that advice, albeit perhaps not as much as would be the case if it were joint advice. Thus, the court’s statement that “committees bestow these various benefits only insofar as their members act as a group,” \textit{id.} at 914, seems to overstate the case.

\textsuperscript{153} \textit{See also} American Society of Dermatology v. Shalala, No. 95-1263, 1996 WL 693830 (D.D.C. 1996) (multispeciality physician panels established by Health Care Financing Administration are not advisory committees because they are created in order to obtain individual ratings of members rather than consensus view).

\textsuperscript{154} 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1004(i).

\textsuperscript{155} \textit{Id.}

\textsuperscript{156} \textit{Id.}
group and the relationship among its members. On remand, the government was unable to easily recreate the membership and activities of the working group, resulting in further litigation and discovery.\textsuperscript{157}

2. "Establishing" or "Utilizing" a Committee

a. "Utilized"

Prior to \textit{Public Citizen v. Department of Justice}, there were a number of cases in lower courts trying to determine when a private group was "utilized" within the meaning of the FACA for providing advice to government agencies or the President.\textsuperscript{158} Previous courts, like the GSA regulation defining "utilized,"\textsuperscript{159} used a functional test—asking whether an outside group was used as a preferred source of advice on some sort of official or institutional basis. This would exclude outside groups whose advice was provided on an incidental basis or as just another member of the public. In \textit{Public Citizen}, the ABA's Standing Committee on the Federal Judiciary seemed to satisfy this preferred-source test with respect to its recommendations regarding potential judicial nominees. But, because such an interpretation would raise grave constitutional questions,\textsuperscript{160} the Court looked to the legislative history of the term to determine its purpose and limitations. In EO 11,007, "utilized" had been used as part of the phrase, "utilized by a department or agency in the same manner as a Government-formed advisory committee,"\textsuperscript{161} and yet as noted, the ABA Committee had never been considered to fall within the definition of the executive order.\textsuperscript{162} The Court furthermore noted that the House Committee Report that accompanied the bill that became the FACA reflected this definition by stating that the bill would include "committees ..., which are used by the President or any agency in the same way as an advisory committee formed by the President himself or the agency itself."\textsuperscript{163} And while the Senate Report provided some examples of "private" advisory committees,\textsuperscript{164} the Court characterized them as "limited to groups organized by or closely tied to the Federal Government, and thus enjoying quasi-public
status." Finally, the Conference Report, which actually added the words "or utilized" to the bill—without explaining the reason for the addition—stated generally that the bill did not apply to "advisory committees not directly established by or for [federal] agencies." From these indicia of congressional intent and prior executive practice, and in light of the need to avoid constitutional questions, the Court concluded:

["Utilized"] appears to have been added simply to clarify that FACA applies to advisory committees established by the Federal Government in a generous sense of that term, encompassing groups formed indirectly by quasi-public organizations such as the National Academy of Sciences "for" public agencies as well as "by" such agencies themselves.

The ABA's Standing Committee on the Federal Judiciary did constitute such a group because it was formed privately, not at the federal government's prompting, because neither the President nor the Department of Justice had any control over the Committee, and because the Committee received no federal funds to provide the advice or recommendations. Moreover, the Committee had not been created by "some organization created or permeated by the Federal Government" or by "some semiprivate entity the Federal Government helped bring into being." The Public Citizen court was quite explicit in stating that the factor that tipped the balance against including the ABA's Standing Committee within the FACA's definition was the serious constitutional question such an interpretation would raise. This then raises the question whether "utilized" should receive the same restrictive interpretation when agencies created by Congress seek advice from private groups as to the implementation of statutes passed by Congress, as opposed to the President seeking advice with respect to his constitutional duty to nominate federal judges. Here, there would seem to be little constitutional question that Congress could, if it wished, so restrict the agencies without running afoul of the doctrine of separation of powers. Nevertheless, there would remain a (different) constitutional question as to interference with the associational and expressive rights of members of private groups wishing to advise agencies. Both the ABA and amici raised this issue in Public Citizen, but the Court did not address it. Earlier,

167. Public Citizen, 491 U.S. at 462.
168. Id. at 457, 460.
169. Id. at 465.
170. Id. at 457, 460.
171. Id. at 463.
172. Id. at 465-66.
173. Id. at 466-67.
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however, in *Center for Auto Safety v. Cox*, the D.C. Circuit had dismissed a claim that imposing the FACA requirements for advisory-committee meetings on a private group "utilized" for advice by an agency would interfere with the group’s First Amendment rights. The court concluded:

[The group] and its members remain free to communicate their views to the Administrator. They remain free to lobby the [agency]. Congress has determined simply that when a federal executive official utilizes an advisory committee to assist him in discharging his responsibilities, in most instances he must do so openly and publicly. [The group] has no First Amendment right to have the Administrator keep its communications secret.

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According to this analysis, the FACA’s openness requirements only apply "when a federal executive official utilizes an advisory committee." If by this language the court means the Act’s openness requirements will apply when the advisory committee actually meets with or communicates to the official, the court’s conclusion seems well taken. If, however, the court means whenever a private group is "utilized" for obtaining advice by an agency, the private group’s internal deliberations regarding recommendations to the agency must be subject to the FACA’s openness requirements, that would raise serious First Amendment questions, unless "utilized" is read narrowly, and consistently with *Public Citizen*, as applied to agencies as well. In the latter situation, private groups that provide advice to agencies—even on a regular and preferred basis—would very rarely be deemed "utilized" by the agencies.

Cases subsequent to *Public Citizen* suggest that the Supreme Court’s narrow reading of "utilized" will indeed be applied to independent groups providing advice to agencies. In *Food Chemical News v. Young*, for example, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) had contracted with the Federation of America Societies for Experimental Biology (FASEB) to provide advice to the agency. Pursuant to the contract, the FASEB assembled panels of experts to provide it with "expert counsel." Because the FACA’s legislative history specifically stated that the Act does not apply to "persons or organizations which have contractual relationships with Federal agencies," all were agreed that the FASEB itself was not an advisory committee. Food Chemical News, an industry publication, argued among

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175.  Id. at 694.
176. 900 F.2d 328 (D.C. Cir. 1990).
177.  H.R. CONF. REP. No. 1403, at 10 (1972) ("The Act does not apply to persons or organizations which have contractual relationships with Federal agencies."). See also H.R. REP. No. 1017, at 4 (1972) ("advisory committee" does not include contractor or consultant hired by officer or agency of Federal Government).
other things that the expert panels were advisory committees utilized by the
FDA, and that Public Citizen's interpretation of "utilized" was only a narrow
exception to the otherwise broadly inclusive definition of advisory
committees. The D.C. Circuit rejected this argument and applied Public
Citizen's analysis to the expert panels. Because the expert panels were
established by the FASEB rather than by the FDA—the FASEB selected the
members, scheduled the meetings, and was to review the panels' work before
making its own report to the FDA—it was the FASEB that utilized the panels,
not the FDA. Moreover, the court observed, the FASEB was a private entity
that did not have "quasi-public status."

If indeed a necessary prerequisite for a group to be a "utilized" advisory
committee is that it must have "quasi-public status" or must be created by an
entity that has "quasi-public status," a "semiprivate entity the Federal
Government helped to bring into being," or an "organization created or
permeated by the Federal Government," there will be few "utilized" advisory
committees. If, however, this aspect of the Supreme Court's analysis is
viewed as just one factor in deciding whether a private group is "utilized"
within the meaning of the FACA, then the term may serve the purpose of
preventing agencies from evading the FACA merely by having a private entity
create a group which otherwise would be controlled by the agency. For
example, the Environmental Protection Agency, prior to proposing a policy

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179. Id.
180. Id. at 333.
181. Id. See also Aluminum Co. of America v. National Marine Fisheries Service, 92 F.3d 902
(9th Cir. 1996) (committees were created by parties to litigation at instance of court); Sofamor Danek
Group, Inc. v. Gaus, 61 F.3d 929 (D.C. Cir. 1995) (restrictively applying FACA and citing Public Citizen
discussions and negotiations with industry group did not render it "utilized" advisory committee).
Pandora's Box that could erupt [sic] if FACA were construed broadly, the Supreme Court has adopted
restrictive interpretation.").
182. In Public Citizen, 491 U.S. at 460, the Court gave one example of a "quasi-public"
organization, the National Academy of Sciences (NAS), and stated in dicta that groups formed by the
NAS indirectly for federal agencies would be "utilized" advisory committees. The NAS maintains,
however, that the FACA's legislative history "evidences a general intent to exclude from coverage
the committees of the Academy." Food Chemical News, 900 F.2d at 333 n.4. In an early FACA case, a court
held that a committee created by the NAS pursuant to an NAS-EPA contract was not subject to the
FACA. See Lombardo v. Handler, 397 F. Supp. 792, 798-800 (D.D.C. 1975), aff'd without opinion, 546
F.2d 1043 (D.C. Cir. 1976), cert. denied, 431 U.S. 932 (1977). A more recent case, however, suggests
that NAS's committees henceforth will be deemed advisory committees used by agencies. In Animal
Legal Defense Fund v. Shalala, 104 F.3d 424 (D.C. Cir. 1997), a committee formed by a subcomponent
of the NAS's principal operating arm was involved in producing the 7th edition of the Guide for the Care
and Use of Laboratory Animals, guidelines used by federal agencies for handling and treatment of
laboratory animals. The Animal Legal Defense Fund sought access to the committee meetings under the
FACA. The committee and the NAS denied that it was an advisory committee utilized by federal
agencies. The court, however, stated that Public Citizen "focus[ed] not so much on how [the committee]
is used but whether or not the character of its creating institution can be thought to have a quasi-public
status." 104 F.3d at 428, and the NAS was in fact just such a quasi-public organization, which the Court
had specifically identified in Public Citizen.
on how to treat environmental audits conducted voluntarily by regulated entities, assembled a group of interested stakeholders to make recommendations on EPA’s initial concept. While this group was officially assembled under the auspices of the American Bar Association’s Section on Natural Resources, Energy, and Environmental Law, that section was responding to the EPA’s request for such a group. The EPA had specified some persons who should be members and otherwise gave indications of who should be members, and the EPA furthermore determined what the group would consider, when it would meet, and under what circumstances. Subsequent to the comment period on the proposed policy, the EPA again summoned this group for its reactions to the EPA’s policy and the comments thereon. Under these circumstances, but for the fact that the ABA is not a “quasi-public” entity, the EPA would otherwise seem to be “utilizing” this group as an advisory committee.

Even if “quasi-public” status is not a prerequisite to a group being considered a “utilized” advisory committee, Public Citizen as applied to agencies goes far to eliminate the FACA’s applicability to existing private groups that may advise federal agencies, again even on a regular and preferred basis. Thus, the Court has in this area come down on the side of facilitating interchange of views between private entities and the federal government at the cost of the openness and public participation goals of the FACA. It should be recognized, however, that the FOIA will in most instances ensure that the public can have access to whatever written communications are made to agencies by these private groups. With this information, the ability of the public to communicate its views directly to the agency may largely compensate for the limited participation rights the public has under the Act itself.

183. “In developing this interim policy, the Agency . . . held a focus group meeting in San Francisco on January 19, 1995 with key stakeholders from industry, trade groups, State environmental commissions, State attorneys general offices, district attorneys’ offices, environmental and public interest groups, and professional environmental auditing groups.” Voluntary Environmental Self-Policing and Self-Disclosure Interim Policy Statement, 60 Fed. Reg. 16,875, 16,876 (1995).

184. It could also be argued that on these facts the EPA “established” this committee, as the next subsection explains.


186. 5 U.S.C. § 552.

b. "Established"

The vast majority of federal advisory committees are established by statute, the President, or an agency. At the end of fiscal year 1993 there were 1,088 established advisory committees.188 Of these, about one-third were specifically mandated by statute, another third were specifically authorized by statute, and almost another third were created under general agency authority.189 As with the term "utilized," "established" has also raised questions as to its exact meaning. The Senate Report on the bill that became the FACA expressed the view that the term should be broadly interpreted.190 The Conference Report, however, suggested a somewhat more limited understanding.191 Since, the executive branch's interpretation predictably has favored a narrower view of the term. Immediately following passage of the FACA, the OMB192 and the Department of Justice issued a joint memorandum to provide guidance to agencies, which included guidelines for determining what constituted established committees.193 These guidelines suggested that only groups convened by a federal agency in a relatively formal manner would constitute established committees.194

In a series of early cases, the parameters of "established" were further explored. For example, in Nader v. Baroody,195 Ralph Nader challenged the White House's failure to follow the FACA in convening biweekly, three-hour meetings between high executive officials and major business organizations and other private sector groups. The meetings were convened to exchange information and views,196 and each involved different individuals.197 Noting that "the Act was not intended to apply to all amorphous, ad hoc group

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188. GENERAL SERVICES ADMINISTRATION, TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT ON FEDERAL ADVISORY COMMITTEES 1 (1994). This marked a net decrease of 148 over the course of the year. Id.
189. Id. at 7. Two percent were created under Presidential authority. Id.
190. See S. REP. No. 92-1098, at 8 (1972) ("The intention is to interpret the [word] 'established' ... in [its] most liberal sense, so that when an officer brings together a group by formal or informal means, by contract or other arrangement, and whether or not Federal money is expended, to obtain advice and information, such group is covered by the provisions of this bill.").
191. See H.R. CONF. REP. No. 92-1403, at 10 (1972) ("The Act does not apply to persons or organizations which have contractual relationships with Federal agencies nor to advisory committees not directly established by or for such agencies.").
192. Under the FACA as originally enacted, the OMB rather than the GSA was the agency responsible for general guidance and oversight of executive implementation of the FACA. See Federal Advisory Committee Act, Pub. L. No. 92-463, § 7, 86 Stat. 770, 772 (1972).
194. The guidelines said that "such bodies would have all or most of the following characteristics:
(a) Fixed membership . . . ; (c) A defined purpose . . . ; (d) An organizational structure (e.g., officers) and a staff; [and] (e) Regular or periodic meetings." Id.
196. Id. at 1232.
197. Id.
meetings" and citing cases agreeing with that proposition, the court concurred with the OMB/Justice guidelines by agreeing that "established" committees should have "some sort of established structure and defined purpose." The court emphasized that the ad hoc groups in question were not brought together for "specific recommendations on a particular matter of governmental policy." Accordingly, and especially in light of the constitutional questions a contrary interpretation would raise, the court found the biweekly groups not to be "established" advisory committees.

At almost the same time, a different judge in Food Chemical News, Inc. v. Davis found that two "informal" meetings—between officials of the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms (ATF) and representatives of consumer groups, and between the ATF and the distilled spirits industry—were subject to the FACA. Here, however, the agency had called specific persons together to advise the agency's proposed rulemaking on ingredient labeling of alcoholic beverages. Similarly, in National Nutritional Foods Ass'n v. Califano, the Second Circuit found the FACA applicable to one meeting between six Food and Drug Administration officials and five experts on obesity "to assist the FDA in selecting the best course of action for regulating the production and promotion of [weight reduction protein products] and/or informing the public of their hazard potential." The court said that it agreed with the courts in both Nader v. Baroody and Food Chemical News, but found Food Chemical News more on point, explaining that in the latter, as in the case before it, specific individuals were called upon by an agency to give group advice on a particular government proposed regulation, and furthermore that although only one meeting was held, the group stood ready to be used again in the future. The court was also moved by the public reliance the agency placed on the advice received from the group.

These two lines of cases begin to mark the boundary between when a group can be called upon for advice without being an "established" advisory committee. If the group is brought together on an ad hoc basis to discuss general matters of concern, the courts seem willing to accept such meetings as part of the give-and-take between agencies and elements of the public, something Congress did not intend to impede by subjecting all such activities to the formalities of the Act. If, however, an agency wishes to obtain advice on a particular policy matter, especially a matter of policy that may have effect on other persons, then the courts are more likely to perceive the convening of an ad hoc group for that purpose as the "establishment" of an
advocacy committee, requiring the formalities of the FACA.\textsuperscript{206} Even so, the court in \textit{Physicians & Surgeons} suggested that one “important factor in determining the presence of an advisory committee becomes the formality and structure of the group.”\textsuperscript{207} The court went on to observe that when a group is created that “has, in large measure, an organized structure, a fixed membership, and a specific purpose,” courts will tend to consider such a group an established advisory committee.\textsuperscript{208}

As indicated earlier, although the Senate Report on the original bill manifested an intention to include advisory committees brought together by contract,\textsuperscript{209} the House Report reflected a different view,\textsuperscript{210} and the Conference Report adopted the House view.\textsuperscript{211} Although the GSA regulations do not include this exception in their list of exceptions, the D.C. Circuit in \textit{Food Chemical News v. Young} referred to the Conference Committee’s report as the “main rule” to dispose of a claim that a group acting pursuant to an agency contract could be an advisory committee.\textsuperscript{212} The court suggested that the selection of government contractors is subject to its own set of procedures aimed at providing checks against waste or improper influence, thereby making the FACA’s protections unnecessary.\textsuperscript{213} On the other hand, in \textit{Physicians & Surgeons}, the same court, when faced with the question of whether certain “consultants” working “on an intermittent basis with or without compensation”\textsuperscript{214} could trigger the FACA’s requirements when they met with a group of federal employees, did not specifically mention the contractual exception. Rather, the court asked whether the consultants’ “involvement and role are functionally indistinguishable from other [committee] members.”\textsuperscript{215} The court said:

We must construe FACA in light of its purpose to regulate the growth and operation of advisory committees. FACA would be rather easy to avoid if an agency could simply appoint 10 private citizens as special government employees for two days, and then have the committee

\begin{thebibliography}{9}
\bibitem{206} See, e.g., Alabama-Tombigbee Rivers Coalition v. Department of Interior, 26 F.3d 1103 (11th Cir. 1994) (panel of four scientists asked to make recommendations as to the listing of the Alabama Sturgeon as an endangered species held advisory committee). \textit{But cf.} Natural Resources Defense Council v. Herrington, 637 F. Supp. 116 (D.D.C. 1986) (panel of scientist-executives convened by the Secretary of Energy to study safety of a government-owned nuclear reactor in light of nuclear disaster at Chernobyl was not an advisory committee).
\bibitem{207} 997 F.2d at 914.
\bibitem{208} \textit{Id.}
\bibitem{209} S. REP. No. 92-1098, at 8 (1972).
\bibitem{210} \textit{See} H.R. REP. NO. 92-1017, at 4 (1972) (“advisory committee” does not include contractor or consultant hired by an officer or agency of the Federal government).
\bibitem{211} \textit{See} H.R. CONF. REP. NO. 92-1403, at 10 (1972) (“The Act does not apply to persons or organizations which have contractual relationships with Federal agencies.”).
\bibitem{212} \textit{See} Food Chemical News \textit{v. Young}, 900 F.2d 328, 331 (D.C. Cir. 1990).
\bibitem{213} \textit{Id.}
\bibitem{214} 997 F.2d at 915.
\bibitem{215} \textit{Id.}
\end{thebibliography}
While this statement was made in the context of a claim of the “full-time employee” exception, the same could be said for evading the Act’s requirements under the contractual relationship exception. The likely synthesis of *Food Chemical News* and *Physicians & Surgeons* is to retain the contractual exception with respect to traditional government contracts with private organizations that provide analysis and recommendations to the contracting agency, but not to recognize it when individuals are hired (by contract) as consultants and thereafter regularly participate in “committee” meetings as participants in formulating collective advice to the agency.

A final issue with regard to the term “established” is whether the committee must be directly established by statute, the President, or an agency, as opposed to by contractors or other third parties. The Conference Report stated that the Act did not reach committees not “directly established by or for” federal agencies. The Supreme Court in *Public Citizen* interpreted this language to mean that “established” committees were established by agencies, while “utilized” committees were established for agencies. The D.C. Circuit has relied on this distinction to exclude from “established” committees any committee not directly created by the agency. Thus in *Food Chemical News* the court found that, although the FDA’s contract required the contractor to create an advisory committee, the agency did not establish the committee. The court reached a similar result in *Aluminum Co. of America v. National Marine Fisheries Service*. There, the Aluminum Company of America challenged the activities of two working groups assisting the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) to produce a biological opinion relating to salmon in the Columbia River system. The court held that the working groups were not advisory committees under the Act because they were not established by NMFS. Rather, the court concluded, the “principals” in litigation challenging an earlier biological opinion, which included not only several federal agencies but also several states and Indian tribes, had established the groups.

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216. *Id.*
221. *Id.* The court also relied on the conclusion that the contractual provision was proposed by the contractor, and the contractor selected the committee’s members, set the agenda, and scheduled its meetings. *Id.* at 333.
222. 92 F.3d 902 (9th Cir. 1996).
223. *See also* People for Ethical Treatment of Animals, Inc. v. Barshefsky, 925 F. Supp. 844 (D.D.C. 1996) (working group on the Development of International Humane Standards established at the behest of an international constituency, not the President or a federal agency.).
3. The “Advice or Recommendations” Requirement

Only committees established or utilized “in the interest of obtaining advice or recommendations for the President or one or more agencies or officers of the Federal Government” are subject to the FACA. Thus, if a committee only receives information from an agency, rather than providing advice or recommendations to the agency, the committee is not an advisory committee. Similarly, a committee which provides advice and recommendations to private entities but not to the President or a federal agency is not an “advisory committee” subject to the Act. In addition, if the advice does not involve governmental policy, the entity will not qualify as an advisory committee. For example, in Judicial Watch, Inc. v. Clinton, the court found that a trust set up to help defray President and Mrs. Clinton’s personal legal expenses was not an advisory committee subject to the Act because whatever advice it gave did not relate to government policy. The court reasoned that the membership requirements for advisory committees reflected a purpose to ensure that committees would provide varying points of view, which necessarily implicated debatable policy choices.

The GSA has by regulation further interpreted the “advice and recommendations” language in the Act to exclude committees whose functions are primarily “operational,” rather than advisory. That is, if a committee primarily is involved in “making or implementing Government decisions or policy,” it simply is not an “advisory committee.” Moreover, even if such a committee incidentally or occasionally provides advice or recommendations, it does not automatically become an advisory committee subject to the FACA. Only if the committee becomes “primarily advisory in nature” does it become an advisory committee subject to the Act. This interpretation finds support in both the legislative history and the case law.
If the validity of this exception seems clear, however, its application is much less clear. That is, what is "operational" as opposed to "advisory" is not always apparent. One area of continuing question relates to peer review of proposals for government grants. When the federal government decides which of the many proposed private research or artistic endeavors to support with federal funds, the agency involved usually uses a system of peer group review. The National Institutes of Health, the National Science Foundation, the EPA, and the National Endowments for the Arts and Humanities all use peer-review systems to assess proposed grants. Normally this involves the use of peer-review panels and indeed this is the preferred method of peer review. Of course, the peer-review panels do not actually decide to fund the grant; that is done by the agency. Thus, the question is whether the panel's activity is "advisory," requiring application of the FACA's requirements. At the present time, the above agencies treat these groups as advisory committees, but there are strong arguments that they properly should be viewed merely as operational. These arguments sometimes derive from the characterization of these peer-review groups as acting in the nature of staff to the agency. Were these activities of reviewing and making recommendations on particular proposals actually performed by agency staff, one would consider the activity operational, even though the staff might not have power to make the actual grant. The fact that this staff work is performed by a group of outsiders, the argument goes, makes the work operational rather than advisory. This argument alone, however, proves too much, because whatever work advisory committees do could, in theory, be performed by agency staff. After all, agency staff is not precluded from giving advice and making recommendations to higher authorities in the agency. But here, the argument continues, the peer groups' function is very narrow and focused, commonly concerning the technical merit of proposals, not the kind of policy advice one normally associates with advisory committees such as, for example, advice to an agency concerning the categories of activities the
agency should support through grants. Ultimately, this argument depends upon a particular reading of the ambiguous statutory language “advice or recommendations.”

In any event, the GSA has taken the spirit of the “operational” exception and gone one step further to exclude committees or meetings where “the purpose [is the] exchanging of facts or information,” as opposed to giving advice or making recommendations to the agency. Unlike the GSA’s “operational” interpretation, there does not appear to be strong support for this interpretation in the case law or the legislative history, and clearly a committee might well provide facts and information to an agency in support of its advice and recommendations. On the other hand, if all the committee does is transmit or receive facts and information, the committee could arguably be operational, rather than advisory. Here the difficulty concerns the blurry line not between “operational” functions and “advice,” but rather between “information” and “advice.” Here, too, further clarification—whether legislative, administrative, or judicial—is in order. While the Act’s openness and participation goals probably do not require agencies to charter an advisory committee whenever they request or accept raw data, agencies need guidance on where the line between information and advice is to be drawn.

4. Subgroups and the Act’s Requirements

A question often arises with respect to subcommittees or subgroups of recognized advisory committees—are they themselves also advisory committees? The definition of advisory committee in the Act expressly states that it includes “any subcommittee or other subgroup thereof.” However, this language, like that describing the other entities listed in the definition, is also modified (and apparently limited) by the clause: “which is established . . . in the interest of obtaining advice and recommendations for the President or one or more agencies or officers of the Federal Government.” Thus, it has been argued that if an advisory committee creates a subcommittee for the purpose of aiding the full committee, rather than for providing advice directly to the President or an agency, the subcommittee is not an advisory committee. The subcommittee would then not be required to be balanced,

239. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1004(l).
240. To the contrary, in Northwest Forest Resource Council v. Espy, 846 F. Supp. 1009 (D.D.C. 1994), the court indicated a distinct hostility to the claim that a committee’s presentation of technical options did not constitute advice or recommendations.
241. After all, in one sense advice necessarily communicates information, at the very least information about the advice-giver’s views. Still, it is certainly possible to supply information without rendering advice.
242. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 3(2).
243. Id.
244. Interestingly, virtually every agency responding to the survey questionnaire indicated that 0-
chartered by the GSA, or subject to the open-meeting requirements. The GSA itself has refused to recognize such a general exception to its regulations, but it has made two accommodations to this argument. First, it has provided that "[s]ubcommittees that do not function independently of the full or parent advisory committee need not follow [the chartering requirements for advisory committees]." However, such subcommittees are subject to all other requirements of the Act. In addition, the GSA has exempted from all requirements of the Act:

[m]eetings of two or more advisory committee or subcommittee members convened solely to gather information or conduct research for a chartered advisory committee, to analyze relevant issues and facts, or to draft position papers for deliberation by the advisory committee or a subcommittee of the advisory committee.

This latter exemption, however, seems to create a loophole in the GSA's purported requirement that "dependent" subcommittees follow "all other requirements of the Act." That is, if the members of the subcommittee meet for one of the three specified purposes, they are simply excused from compliance with the requirements applicable to advisory-committee meetings. Moreover, even the members of an advisory committee with no subcommittees could meet in groups (but apparently not call them subcommittees) and likewise escape all the requirements of the Act, so long as they only engage in one of the three specified functions. Inasmuch as these three specified functions seem to exhaust the functions of a "dependent" subcommittee—that is, essentially acting as staff for the full committee—it is not clear that GSA's regulations in fact require subgroups "that do not function independently of the full or parent advisory committee" to follow any of the requirements of the Act.

Nothing in the legislative history of the Act suggests such an exception from the public access and participation requirements for subgroups of advisory committees. Nevertheless, this exception, like a similar exception from the Government in the Sunshine Act applicable to meetings of subgroups of a multimember agency not formally delegated authority to take action for the agency, seems to derive directly from the statutory language.

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20% of their advisory committees have independently chartered subgroups that meet at least as often as their parent committees, while 29 of 36 agencies answering the question indicated that 0-20% of their advisory committees have unchartered subcommittees that meet at least as often as their parent committees. See Appendix A, Questions 50-51.

246. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1007(b)(3). See also 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1007(b)(4) (requiring charters for subcommittees that function independently, "such as by making recommendations directly to the agency rather than for consideration by the chartered advisory committee").
247. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1004(k).
248. See generally Federal Communications Comm'n v. ITT World Communications, 466 U.S.
even if perhaps by inadvertence. And although there have not been many judicial decisions addressing this issue, courts that have considered it have agreed with the conclusion that the dependent subgroups are not themselves advisory committees and are therefore not subject to the Act.\textsuperscript{249}

5. Statutory Exceptions to the Act

In addition to the several exceptions inferred from the Act, the FACA expressly excludes certain specific committees and certain types of committees from the definition of advisory committee.\textsuperscript{250} Least problematic from an interpretive standpoint, the Act exempts any advisory committee established or utilized by the Central Intelligence Agency or the Federal Reserve System.\textsuperscript{251} It also exempts the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations and the Commission on Government Procurement.\textsuperscript{252} Subsequent statutes have exempted various newly created advisory committees from all or part of the Act.\textsuperscript{253} Rarely has Congress articulated a reason for exempting a specific advisory committee from the FACA. Thus, it is difficult to perceive an overarching principle governing why some committees should be subject to the Act and others not. More likely, exemptions are based on ad hoc, political considerations of the relative benefits and costs of subjecting new committees to the Act.

Another exemption provided by the FACA itself is for "any local civic group whose primary function is that of rendering a public service with respect to a Federal program, or any State or local committee, council, board, commission, or similar group established to advise or make recommendations to State or local officials or agencies."\textsuperscript{254} The explanation for this exemption was that "it would be unwise both administratively, and even constitutionally, for Congress to impose Federal standards as to advisory bodies created at the State and local level."\textsuperscript{255} An early case interpreting this provision held it inapplicable to a national organization of state highway officials.\textsuperscript{256} The court questioned whether any national organization, even if made up of state officials, would qualify under the statutory language, but it was certain that

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\bibitem{249} See National Anti-Hunger Coalition v. Executive Comm. of the President’s Private Sector Survey on Cost Control, 711 F.2d 1071, 1075 (D.C. Cir. 1983) (task forces to committee acting as “staff” and not providing advice directly to President or any agency); Association of Am. Physicians & Surgeons, Inc. v. Clinton, 813 F. Supp. 82, 88-89 (D.D.C. 1993), rev’d on other grounds, 997 F.2d 898 (D.C. Cir. 1993).
\bibitem{250} See 5 U.S.C. App. II §§ 3(2)(C), 4(b)-(c).
\bibitem{251} Id. § 4(b)(1)-(2).
\bibitem{252} Id. § 3(2)(i)-(ii).
\bibitem{253} See, e.g., 29 U.S.C. § 1302(h)(8) (advisory committee to Pension Benefits Guaranty Corporation not subject to FACA).
\bibitem{254} 5 U.S.C. App. II § 4(c).
\bibitem{255} S. REP. NO. 90-1098, at 9 (1972).
\bibitem{256} See Center for Auto Safety v. Cox, 580 F.2d 689, 692-93 (D.C. Cir. 1978).
\end{thebibliography}
the organization in that case was established for purposes beyond making advice and recommendations to state or local officials or agencies.\textsuperscript{257}

Congress' most recent generic exemption from the FACA came in the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act of 1995,\textsuperscript{258} which as mentioned earlier exempts "meetings held exclusively between Federal officials and elected officers of State, local, and tribal governments (or their designated employees with authority to act on their behalf) acting in their official capacities,"\textsuperscript{259} if the meetings "are solely for the purposes of exchanging views, information, or advice relating to the management or implementation of Federal programs established pursuant to public law that explicitly or inherently share intergovernmental responsibilities or administration."\textsuperscript{260} Guidance provided to agencies by the OMB pursuant to the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act\textsuperscript{261} broadly interprets this exemption to ensure that "the process required by the Federal Advisory Committee Act is not . . . a hindrance to full and effective intergovernmental consultation."\textsuperscript{262} For example, despite the seeming limitation of the exemption to executive agencies,\textsuperscript{263} the OMB indicated that the exemption applies to "all Federal agencies subject to FACA."\textsuperscript{264} Moreover, although the statutory language limits the exemption to meetings between federal officials and elected state, local, and tribal officers (or their designated employees with authority to act on their behalf), the OMB's guidance seems to broaden this category by referring generally to state, local, and tribal "elected officers, officials, employees, and Washington representatives."\textsuperscript{265} Finally, whereas the statutory language seems to restrict the exemption to meetings "solely" for the purposes of exchanging views, information, or advice about "Federal programs established pursuant to public law that explicitly or inherently share intergovernmental responsibilities or administration," the OMB guidance eliminates any reference to the "sole"

\textsuperscript{257} See id.
\textsuperscript{259} Id. § 1534(b)(1).
\textsuperscript{260} Id. § 1534(b)(2).
\textsuperscript{261} Id. § 1534(c).

\textsuperscript{262} Guidelines and Instructions for Implementing Section 204, "State, Local, and Tribal Government Input," of Title II of Public Law 104-4, 60 Fed. Reg. 50,651 (1995) [hereinafter Guidelines]. Only 4 of 36 responding agencies indicated that they believed the FACA discourages communication between their agency and state or local governments; 24 agencies indicated that they did not believe this to be the case; while 8 were uncertain about the matter. See Appendix A, Questions 25-26.

\textsuperscript{263} Section 3(1) of the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act, 2 U.S.C. § 1502(1), provides that the definitions found in section 421 of the Congressional Budget and Impoundment Control Act of 1974, as added by section 101 of the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act, apply to the entire Act. The definition of "agency" in section 421(1), 2 U.S.C. § 658(1), incorporates the definition of agency in the APA, 5 U.S.C. § 551(1), except that it excludes independent regulatory agencies. Accordingly, the FACA exemption in the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act would seem to apply only to executive agencies. There is no apparent reason for this limitation, and it is probably the result of careless legislative drafting, but this does not gainsay the express language of the Act.

\textsuperscript{264} Guidelines, supra note 262, at 50,653.
\textsuperscript{265} Id.
purpose of the meetings and does not limit exempt meetings concerning intergovernmental responsibilities to those regarding statutorily created federal programs. The OMB guidelines provide instead that the intergovernmental responsibilities “include[s] those that arise . . . under statute, regulation, or executive order.” 266 In short, the guidance suggests that the exemption covers any meeting of the requisite people generally “concerning the implementation of intergovernmental responsibilities or administration.” 267 Given this broad interpretation of the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act’s FACA exemption in a guidance document specifically authorized and required by Congress, 268 courts might well rely upon it rather than search for other bases for exempting intergovernmental advisory bodies. For example, in NRDC v. EPA, 269 where the EPA had established a Governors’ Forum to assist it in addressing the problems encountered by states in carrying out their delegated responsibilities under the Safe Drinking Water Act, 270 the court determined a meeting between the Governors’ Forum and the Administrator of EPA to be exempt from the FACA in part on the grounds that the group was an operational committee 271 (a conclusion questionable on the facts). Under the OMB’s interpretation of the new exemption in the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act, however, the meeting would clearly be exempt.

Finally, the FACA itself exempts any committee “composed wholly of full-time officers or employees of the Federal Government.” 272 The major question that has arisen under this exemption is when a person becomes a “full-time employee.” The most notable case here is Physicians & Surgeons, 273 in which the Court held that the President’s spouse—the only possible non-full-time officer or employee of the federal government on the Health Care Task Force—is a “full-time employee” of the federal government for purposes of the Act. That holding is unlikely to have much application beyond the case, but Physicians & Surgeons also involved a FACA challenge to a “working group” under the Task Force. In addition to the some 300 federal officers and employees involved in the working group, there were also 40 “special government employees.” The term “special government employee” appears in Title 18 of the U.S. Code and means a person “employed to perform, with or without compensation, for not to exceed [130] days during any period of

266. Id.
267. Id.
268. Actually, the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act refers to guidelines issued by the President, but the President delegated his authority to make those guidelines to OMB. See 60 Fed. Reg. 45,039 (1995).
270. Id. at 276.
271. Id. at 277-78.
[365] consecutive days, temporary duties either on a full-time or intermittent basis." The government's argument was that because the definition of special government employee refers to full-time employees with temporary duties, full-time employees under the FACA can include special government employees with a temporary assignment. The Physicians & Surgeons majority rejected this argument, however, finding that the definition of "special government employee" for purposes of conflict-of-interest statutes was simply not relevant to the term "full-time employee" in the FACA. Nevertheless, the court remanded the case to determine whether the special government employees were in fact "full-time." Although the court did not give any particular guidance as to what "full-time" meant, it indicated that the Act must be interpreted consistently with its purpose, and that it would be inconsistent with the purpose of the Act if an agency could avoid its requirements simply by designating a person as a full-time, but temporary, employee for the days of a committee meeting.

C. Issues Concerning the Creation of an Advisory Committee

Distinguishing groups subject to the Act from those outside of its scope does not exhaust the salient issues currently surrounding the FACA. The actual creation of an advisory committee squarely within the Act's scope also implicates a range of issues, from those as mundane as satisfying information and other paperwork requirements, on the one hand, to issues concerning the Administration's substantive policy goals of controlling the costs of federal regulation and encouraging consensus-based regulatory decisionmaking on the other. Issues surrounding the mechanics of advisory-committee creation, the limitations on advisory-committee membership, and the constraints upon the establishment of advisory committees imposed by recent White House directives have in recent years proven to be especially thorny.

275. See 997 F.2d at 914-15.
276. Id. at 915. Judge Buckley, who concurred in the judgement on the grounds that, while the President's wife could not be construed to be an employee of the government, it would be unconstitutional to apply the FACA to the Task Force, found a great deal of relevance between the conflict-of-interest provisions of federal law and the applicability of the FACA. See 997 F.2d at 921-22. He noted that the significant burdens imposed by the Ethics in Government Act, which Act includes the various conflict-of-interest provisions, provide safeguards that substitute for at least one of the purposes of the FACA—the protection against undue influence of outside interests. "Because committees not composed exclusively of federal officers and employees have members who are not required to foreswear their private associations and insulate themselves against potential conflicts of interest, the FACA requires, as an alternative check, that their deliberations be conducted in the open," Id. at 922.
277. Id.
278. Id. See also Northwest Forest Resource Council v. Espy, 846 F. Supp. 1009 (D.D.C. 1994). There, the court held that the fact that persons worked over 40 hours per week on a Forest Ecology Management Task Force would not render them "full-time" employees and that "the exception for 'full-time officers and employees' only supports the purposes of the FACA if the term as used in the FACA is interpreted as drawing a distinction between regular civil servants and outsiders or hybrids; it clearly has no place in FACA as a wage-and-hour rule." 846 F. Supp. at 1013.
1. The Mechanics of Advisory Committee Creation

As explained above, an advisory committee cannot meet or otherwise become active until a charter has been filed with the head of the agency establishing the committee (or with the head of the GSA in the case of presidential advisory committees) and also with the standing committees of the Senate and House having jurisdiction over the relevant agency. In addition, the GSA's regulations establish procedures for the filing of charters, according to which agency heads are instructed to submit charter proposals to the GSA's FACA Secretariat for review. According to these regulations, agencies are to justify a proposed advisory committee by explaining why the committee is necessary, how its balance will be ensured, and so on. Upon review, the GSA notifies the agency head of its views of the proposed committee, although authority to establish an advisory committee ultimately resides with the agency.

President Clinton's EO 12,838 furthermore requires the OMB's permission to establish any new advisory committee. The Order, designed explicitly to reduce the number of agencies' advisory committees, instructs agencies not to create a new advisory committee "unless... the agency head (a) finds that compelling considerations necessitate the creation of such a committee, and (b) receives the approval of the Director of [OMB]." Like the GSA chartering requirements, EO 12,838 and OMB Circular A-135 (EO 12,838's implementing directive) create layers of administrative requirements for agencies using advisory committees. Thus, an agency now must report annually to the OMB and the GSA on how the agency is meeting the goals of EO 12,838, including the agency's performance measures used to evaluate its existing committees, its plans for establishing any new committees, a summary of the agency's actions taken to ensure that EO 12,838's goal of committee reduction is achieved, and the results of the agency's review of its non-discretionary committees—all of this in addition to the information agencies are required to maintain under section 8 of the FACA itself and the information which agencies must provide the GSA under section 101-6.1035 of the GSA's regulations to aid in the preparation of both the GSA's and the President's annual reports.

Currently, the GSA Secretariat, with help from a subgroup of the GSA-initiated Interagency Committee on the Federal Advisory Committee Act

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279. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 9(c).
280. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1007(b)(2).
281. Id.
282. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1007(b)(2).
283. Id.
285. OMB Circular A-135 § (5). OMB Circular A-135 also instructs agencies to notify the GSA of any plans to establish a non-discretionary committee—one required by statute—prior to filing such a committee's charter.
(ICFACA)—specifically, the ICFACA Focus Group on GSA Regulations, Annual Report & Circular A-135 (Focus Group)—is undertaking efforts to eliminate duplicative reporting requirements imposed by the above. The Focus Group is contemplating amendments to the GSA’s Annual Report forms so that those forms can satisfy agencies’ obligations under both the GSA regulations and OMB Circular A-135 at once. These efforts reflect agencies’ perception that advisory-committee chartering requirements are more cumbersome than necessary to achieve effective agency oversight of advisory committees. In fact, approximately half of the agencies responding to the survey questionnaire expressed the view that changes in the chartering requirements could make chartering easier. The GSA’s efforts to streamline the chartering and reporting requirements have been met with no resistance, nor is it easy to see why consolidation of those requirements is in any way undesirable.

2. Limitations on Advisory Committee Membership

Once an agency has determined that it will establish an advisory committee and has received OMB approval to do so, the agency is obliged to assemble committee members mindful of two sets of limitations. The first relates to regulatory, statutory, and possibly even constitutional limitations on the selection of particular committee members. The second relates to the membership of a committee taken as a whole.

a. The Selection of Individual Committee Members

First, Section 101-6.1009(j) of the GSA regulations instructs agency heads to ensure that the “interests and affiliations of advisory-committee members are reviewed consistent with regulations published by the Office of Government Ethics . . . , and [consistent with] additional requirements, if any, established by the sponsoring agency pursuant to EO 12764, the conflict-of-interest statutes, and the Ethics in Government Act of 1978, as amended.” Section 101-6.1009(j) does not create independent obligations as much as it serves as a reminder to agencies that existing ethics requirements listed there may be applicable to the selection of advisory committee members. These several ethics requirements are all closely related.

To take them one at a time, the Ethics in Government Act of 1978 (EGA) requires financial disclosure by officers and employees of the federal

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286. See INTERAGENCY FOCUS GROUP ON GSA REGULATIONS, ANNUAL REPORT & CIRCULAR A-135, MEMORANDUM TO INTERAGENCY COMMITTEE ON THE FEDERAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE ACT (1995) (on file with the authors).
287. See Appendix A, Question 8.
288. See Appendix A, Question 9.
289. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1009(j).
The EGA also created the Office of Government Ethics, charged by EGA to facilitate other agencies' compliance with federal conflict-of-interest laws. The Office in turn was given expanded powers and greater independence by the Ethics Reform Act of 1989 and by EO 12731, one of a series of executive orders concerning ethical conduct by executive-branch employees. Pursuant to the Ethics Reform Act and EO 12731, the Office has issued regulations seeking to establish "a single, comprehensive, and clear set of executive-branch standards of conduct." And EO 12731 itself sets forth general principles of ethical conduct for federal officers and employees by directing the head of each agency to supplement the Office of Government Ethics regulations, as appropriate, given "the particular functions and activities of that agency."

These various ethics statutes and regulations can implicate the selection of potential advisory-committee members in several ways. For example, section 208 of Title 18 (part of the EGA) makes it a crime for any "officer or employee" to participate in any way in a "decision, approval, disapproval, recommendation, [or] the rendering of advice, . . ." with respect to any "particular matter" in which that officer or employee has a financial interest. Section 208 contains a waiver for "special Government employee[s] serving on an advisory committee within the meaning of the Federal Advisory Committee Act (including an individual being considered for an appointment to such a position)" whose service is determined by the official responsible for the employee's appointment, "after review of the financial disclosure report filed . . . pursuant to the Ethics in Government Act of 1978," to be valuable enough to outweigh the potential for a conflict of interest. This means that before an individual is appointed to an advisory committee, an establishing agency must first ensure that such an appointment will not create a conflict of interest. If a conflict of interest would or might be created, the agency must then determine whether that individual's service on a committee is important enough to trump potential conflicts of interest.

Similarly, section 219 of Title 18 of the United States Code makes it a
crime for any "officer or employee of the United States" to act as "an agent of a foreign principal." 299 However, like section 208, section 219 has a caveat: An agent of a foreign government can be a government employee, if that employee is a "special Government employee" whose service is determined by the head of the employing agency to be "required in the national interest." 300 Again, an agency must determine whether a potential committee member acts as an agent of a foreign principal, as many lawyers with foreign-government clients may be deemed to do. If so, the agency must then determine whether national interests nevertheless counsel in favor of that individual's appointment.

These sections of the Ethics in Government Act apply to advisory committees insofar as an advisory-committee member constitutes a "special Government employee" under the EGA. The EGA defines "special Government employee" as "an officer or employee . . . who is retained, designated, appointed, or employed to perform, with or without compensation, for not to exceed one hundred and thirty days during any period of three hundred and sixty-five consecutive days, temporary duties either on a full-time or intermittent basis . . . ." 301 On the surface, this definition might be thought to encompass all advisory committee members, though neither the EGA itself nor the executive orders governing ethical conduct address this issue explicitly. In any event, the Office of Government Ethics has issued a Memorandum to agencies instructing that advisory-committee members who are selected because of their individual qualifications, but not those selected as representatives of larger groups (such as an industry or a public interest group), are to be considered "special government employee[s]" subject to the EGA. 302 The Office has also provided guidelines to distinguish members selected to represent a group from those selected to act in their individual capacities. 303 Notwithstanding the Office of Government Ethics' Memorandum concerning special government employees, many agencies categorize all of their advisory-committee members as such, or none of them as such, rather than making case-by-case determinations. 304

300. 18 U.S.C. § 219(b).
303. In addition to the requirements of the EGA itself, EOs 12674 and 12731 instruct the Office of Government Ethics to establish a system of conflict-of-interest reports to complement the public reports required by the EGA. See Exec. Order No. 12,674, supra note 294; Exec. Order No. 12,731, supra note 295. These confidential reports, less extensive than the public financial disclosure reports required by the EGA for ordinary government employees, see 5 U.S.C. App., §§ 201-207, are applicable to some special government employees.
304. Finally, in addition to these statutory, regulatory, and executive constraints on advisory-committee membership, the ability of an individual to serve on an advisory committee may be subject to the Emoluments Clause. As noted above, there is no judicial guidance on this question, though the Justice Department at one time took the position that the Emoluments Clause does limit advisory-committee membership.
To satisfy these various requirements, agencies now have routine procedures for ascertaining possible conflicts of interests of potential advisory-committee members, as indicated in agencies’ responses to the survey questionnaire. Typically, these procedures include providing potential committee members with ethics counseling or training either by agencies’ designated agency ethics officials—senior ethics employees whose appointment is required by the EGA and who help oversee agencies’ conformity with ethics requirements—or by agencies’ general counsel offices or ethics committees. Most agencies also require potential committee members to file conflict-of-interest disclosure forms created by the Office of Government Ethics. If the form reveals a conflict of interest, potential members are dismissed unless circumstances call for available waivers (or the conflict is removed through, for example, divestiture of an offending asset).

Whether agencies’ current methods for detecting and dealing with potential conflicts of interest could be improved is open to question. Because this subject has been addressed elsewhere, it will not be examined at great length here. A couple of observations, however, are in order. First, Public Citizen, among other groups, has called for reforming agencies’ systems for protecting against unwanted conflicts of interest on the part of advisory-committee members. Specifically, Public Citizen has advocated simplified, uniform, and publicly available conflict-of-interest disclosure for all advisory-committee members, a view which enjoyed the support of the Administrative Conference of the United States. Senate sponsors of S. 444, on the other hand, the last serious attempt to amend the FACA (prior to the Unfunded Mandates legislation), would have instead required only advisory-committee members who were federal employees to file conflict-of-interest reports, and would have codified many agencies’ existing practice of providing ethics counseling to advisory-committee members representing non-federal interests.

Whether advisory-committee members should be required to file conflict-
of-interest reports which disclose their financial interest, and, a fortiori, whether members’ reports should be available to the public, requires balancing administrative efficiency against openness and even-handedness. Mandatory conflict-of-interest reporting would add to the requirements that agencies already must satisfy in order to establish an advisory committee, thereby increasing agencies’ paperwork and other administrative costs. In addition, potential advisory-committee members may not, for legitimate reasons, be eager to divulge personal financial information, particularly if it will become publicly available. Such reluctance would further add to agencies’ burdens to the extent that it caused potential committee members to decline agencies’ offers of appointment, thereby ultimately reducing the quantity or quality of advisory-committee advice. Furthermore, although uniform disclosure requirements certainly have some appeal, advisory committees in fact serve agencies in a wide range of ways over a wide range of issues. In light of this fact, it is not clear that uniform reporting and disclosure requirements would be desirable. It is at least plausible that the need for such requirements is not uniform across agencies. To the extent that such a lack of uniformity exists, some amount of agency discretion in this area may be justified. For some advisory committees, an ethics briefing may be perfectly adequate.

This is not to say, however, that uniform or publicly available disclosure would be undesirable, all things considered. Mandatory financial disclosure reports might alert agencies to some conflict-of-interest problems they might not otherwise discover during the course of an ethics training session or the like. Publicly available financial disclosure reports would likely further reduce the danger of illicit influence on advisory-committee activities by subjecting the relationships between committee members’ financial interests and the subject-matter of their advice to public scrutiny. These benefits could be considerable. Even so, whether these advantages outweigh the disadvantages just described depends on how the balance is struck between goals of even-handedness and openness and goals of administrative efficiency.

b. The Committee as a Whole

Having determined the eligibility of particular committee members, the agency must also ensure the “fair balance” of any committee, viewing its membership as a whole, at least according to the GSA’s regulations. According to the Act itself, Congress is to ensure that committees have a “fairly balanced” membership whenever Congress considers legislation establishing or authorizing the establishment of advisory committees.” In addition, section 5(c), “Responsibilities of Congress,” states: “To the extent

311. Id. § 5(b).
they are applicable, the guidelines set out in subsection (b) of this section shall be followed by the President, agency heads, or other Federal officials in creating an advisory committee." 312 Section 5(c) thus seems to impose some obligation on the part of agencies as well as to seek balanced advisory-committee memberships. Yet, because section 5 specifies not agencies', but rather Congress's, responsibilities under the Act, and furthermore because 5(c) conditions its applicability with the language "[t]o the extent possible"—without specifying who shall determine the extent to which observance of 5(b) is possible—it is not clear how much 5(b) itself actually constrains agencies. 313

However that may be, the GSA's regulations do instruct agencies to seek a balanced membership. Section 101-6.1007(b)(2)(iii) instructs agencies to include within their charter plans for ensuring that proposed committees are "fairly balanced." 314 And section 101-6.1015 similarly instructs agencies to include in their Federal Register notice announcing the establishment of an advisory-committee agency plans for attaining a "fairly balanced membership." 315 In addition, many agencies seem to take independent measures to ensure that their committees are fairly balanced, as suggested in several agencies' responses to the survey questionnaire. For example, the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights indicated that its seeks to balance its committees, among other ways, according to political party, race, age, and religion, while the Small Business Administration similarly selects its advisory committee members in partial consideration of ethnic, gender, and geographic balance. 316 In general, eleven of thirty-two responding agencies indicated that between 81 and 100% of their advisory committees have "at least one member who is also a member of a citizens interest group, consumer interest group, or environmental interest group." 317 One agency indicated that 61 to 80% of its advisory committees have such members, while twenty indicated that 60% or fewer of their committees have such members (5 agencies at 41-60%; 4 agencies at 21-40%; and 11 agencies at 0-20%). 318

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312. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 5(c).
313. Nor is it clear how a claim alleging that an agency violated § 5(b) creates a justiciable question for courts. See infra Part III.E.
314. Section 101-6.1007(b)(2)(iii) states, in relevant part: "[The agency's proposed charter shall include a] description of the agency's plan to attain fairly balanced membership. The plan will ensure that, in the selection of members for the committee, the agency will consider a cross-section of those directly affected, interested, and qualified, as appropriate to the nature and functions of the committee." 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1007(b)(2)(iii).
315. Section 101-6.1015(a) states, in relevant part: "Upon receiving notification of the completed review from the Secretariat . . . the agency shall publish a notice in the FEDERAL REGISTER that the committee is being established. . . . For a new committee, such notice shall also describe the nature and purpose of the committee and the agency's plan to attain fairly balanced membership . . . ." 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1015(a).
316. See Responses to Question 14, Federal Advisory Committee Act Agency Survey (on file with authors).
317. Appendix A Question 15.
318. Id.
Agency efforts to achieve balanced committees are consistent with one of the purposes of the Act and, as such, are clearly unobjectionable. Whether those efforts are sufficient, on the other hand, is not perfectly clear. Unfortunately, however, the magnitude of such efforts is difficult to gauge, though agencies’ conformity with sections 101-6.1007 and 101-6.1015 presumably goes far to ensure balanced committee membership. The only plausible external check on agencies’ selection of committee members, besides the GSA (whose view is not decisive\textsuperscript{3}) and the OMB, is the courts. Whether courts can perform this oversight function depends ultimately on whether courts have meaningful criteria against which to assess the balance of a given committee, an issue to be examined below.

3. \textit{Constraints Imposed by White House Policy Directives}

Much more problematic than both the paperwork requirements associated with notice and chartering and the constraints imposed by conflict-of-interest and balancing requirements, however, are the more recent constraints on the creation of advisory committees imposed by EO 12,838 and other White-House directives issued to further EO 12,838’s goal of reducing the total number of advisory committees. As mentioned above, besides requiring the OMB’s approval, the Order also conditions the establishment of an advisory committee upon a finding by the relevant agency head that “compelling considerations necessitate [the] creation of such a committee.”\textsuperscript{2} In addition, the Order instructs all agencies to terminate “not less than one-third of the advisory committees . . . that are sponsored by the department or agency”\textsuperscript{2} and to submit justifications to the GSA and the OMB for the continued existence of committees not terminated.\textsuperscript{2}

But the new advisory-committee ceilings imposed under OMB Circular A-135, EO 12,838’s implementing directive, constitute the greatest concern with the current administration of the Act for many agencies’ Committee Management Officers. Under it, agencies are no longer able to establish advisory committees at their discretion, even if an agency determines that a committee could produce helpful advice and recommendations at a price worth its cost, or, indeed, even if “compelling considerations” necessitate the creation of a committee as anticipated in EO 12,838. Instead, agencies must establish committees subject to the number of available slots under their given ceilings. This means that agencies already at their ceilings cannot establish a new committee without abolishing one in existence.\textsuperscript{2} By the same

\textsuperscript{319} See 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1007(c)-(d).
\textsuperscript{321} Id. § (1).
\textsuperscript{322} Id. § (2).
\textsuperscript{323} According to some, agencies sometimes create and abolish an advisory committee within the same year, with OMB acceptance, without counting such a committee against the OMB ceilings. The extent of this practice is difficult to gauge, however, in part because agencies may be reluctant to
token, agencies must allocate any remaining slots mindful of the fact that filling their slots will render them effectively unable to establish new advisory committees. In short, agencies no longer enjoy discretion to establish advisory committees determined to be necessary and effective at assisting them to carry out their statutory responsibilities. This limitation on agency discretion is currently a sore spot for agency advisory-committee management personnel. Thus, one agency response to the survey questionnaire suggested that “OMB Circular No. A-135 should be withdrawn,” while another wrote: “It has gotten to the point where the OMB is deciding for Department/agency heads whether or not they can seek advice from experts outside the Federal government regardless of the mandate/mission. I do not believe this was the intent of Congress when FACA became law.” And the Federal Advisory Committee Management Association’s first two recommendations in response to the survey questionnaire were that EO 12,838 and OMB Circular A-135 be withdrawn.

Agency personnel are by no means alone in their disenchantment with the new advisory-committee ceilings. State and local government officials, grassroots interest groups, and citizens groups have also expressed frustration at agencies’ refusal to enter into communications with them on the grounds that to do so would trigger the FACA’s requirements for agencies already at their advisory-committee ceiling. For example, the Department of Transportation recently held “town meetings” and “transportation summits” to discuss with interested parties certain highway-safety issues. Non-federal participants at these meetings, deeming them successful in addressing important highway-safety concerns, sought to complement those meetings by establishing certain “implementation groups” to follow-up on recommendations voiced at the meetings and to develop related recommendations. For a time, however, the Department resisted maintaining close contact with interested parties, out of concern that communications would trigger the FACA when the agency’s ceiling gave it no room to establish a new advisory committee. As a result of the Department’s resistance, those interested parties came to perceive the Department as a one-time listener, not serious about solving real regulatory problems, a perception harmful to the reputation of the Department and, by extension, the Administration.

acknowledge such a practice.

324. See infra Appendix B.
325. Id.
326. See infra Appendix C.
327. The story continues: Responding to the criticism, the Department has subsequently decided to communicate with any parties interested in certain highway-safety issues. Specifically, interested parties will be able to participate in periodic dialogue the Department has described as a “give and take” and an “exchange of information.” The Department intends to instruct those participating in the dialogue that it is seeking neither “advice” nor “consensus” viewpoints from participants.
D. Issues Concerning the Administration of an Advisory Committee

Once created, advisory committees must be administered under section 10 of the Act. Here too matters are more complex than might first meet the eye. As explained in Part I, section 10's requirements are intended to protect against the undue influence of outside persons on agency activity in two separate ways. One is to ensure the primary authority of the agency with respect to the committee, the other to open up the process to public access and accountability.

The FACA ensures that the agency retains its authority over the committee meetings by requiring that a designated employee of the agency attend each meeting and have the authority to terminate the meeting when he or she determines it is in the public interest. Moreover, as explained above, committee meetings can only be held on the call, or with the prior approval, of the designated employee, who must approve the agenda (except for Presidential advisory committees). These provisions have not been the subject of litigation or complaint by agencies or advisory committees.

The same cannot be said for the provisions ensuring public access and accountability. While the time and bureaucratic difficulties involved in chartering new advisory committees are the greatest source of complaint by agencies, the public access and accountability provisions also have been the object of agency criticism. First, committee meetings must be open to the public. In order to make this requirement meaningful, the Act also requires that agencies give "timely notice" of the meetings in the Federal Register (except when the President determines otherwise for reasons of national security) and requires the GSA to provide by regulation for other types of notice to assure that potentially interested parties are notified. The GSA's regulations specify a minimum of 15 days of notice in the Federal Register except "in exceptional circumstances," which must be explained in the notice, but they do not address other types of notice to assure interested persons are notified, notwithstanding the fact that many agencies routinely do use additional methods of notification. In fact, twenty-three of thirty-eight responding agencies indicated that they provide notice of committee meeting in fora other than the Federal Register, and sixteen of those agencies indicated that they do so "very frequently." For one example, the Environmental Protection Agency indicates that it notifies appropriate trade

328. See 5 U.S.C. App. II § 10(e).
329. See id. § 10(f).
330. See supra note 31 and accompanying text (summarizing agency survey response). See also infra Appendix B (quoting agency response: "The time consuming chartering process has become the biggest barrier to public participation.").
332. See id. § 10(a)(2).
333. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1015(a)(2).
334. See Appendix A Questions 43-44.
journals and maintains a mailing list of persons who have indicated they are “interested persons.” However communicated, the notice must include a summary of the agenda.

A second burden (from some agencies’ point of view) of the public access and accountability provisions is the requirement that interested persons are entitled to “attend, appear before, or file statements with any advisory committee,” subject to any reasonable rules GSA may prescribe. Those regulations specify that members of the public may file written statements with a committee, and, if the agency’s guidelines so permit, may speak at the meeting. In addition, “detailed minutes” of each meeting must be kept, which must include a record of those present, “a complete and accurate description of matter discussed and conclusions reached, and copies of all reports received, issued, or approved by the advisory committee.” As noted, the GSA’s regulations require the chairperson of each committee to certify to the accuracy of the minutes. And any “records, reports, transcripts, minutes, appendices, working papers, drafts, studies, agenda, or other documents which were made available to or prepared for or by each advisory committee” must be made available to the public.

The burdens occasioned by these public access and accountability requirements are at least two-fold. First, providing advance notice of what a committee will consider substantially limits the flexibility and spontaneity of committee meetings and may preclude a committee from considering a matter in a timely fashion. This burden is exacerbated by a decision of the D.C. Circuit to the effect that an agency must release committee materials so that “whenever practicable, parties have access to the relevant materials before or at the meeting at which the materials are used and discussed.” At the same time, the requirement that all discussions and information be made public may inhibit candid advice to the agency or candid discussion within the committee, or even reduce the available input to the committee if the person who would submit that information would be concerned about it being made public.

Fortunately, Congress recognized the need to keep certain information confidential and included exceptions to the open-meeting requirement and to

335. See Federal Advisory Committee Act Agency Survey, Response by Mary Anne Betty, EPA Committee Management Officer (on file with authors).
337. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 10(a)(3).
338. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1021(c), (d). Given this statutory and regulatory language, it is difficult to conclude that interested persons have no right of public participation in advisory committees as the court held in Gates v. Schlesinger, 366 F. Supp. 797 (D.D.C. 1973).
339. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 10(c).
340. 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1025(b).
341. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 10(b).
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the requirement that information be made public. Advisory committees may close meetings (or portions of meetings) to the public if the President or the head of the agency to which the advisory-committee reports determines that one of the exceptions to the Government in the Sunshine Act would apply.\textsuperscript{343} Such a determination must be made in writing and explain why the meeting (or portion thereof) qualifies for closing.\textsuperscript{344} While most agencies' advisory committees rarely close their meetings under one of the Sunshine Act's exemptions, a few agencies' committees do so regularly.\textsuperscript{345} Such committees must still issue a report (at least annually) summarizing "activities and such related matters as would be informative to the public consistent with the policy of [the Government in the Sunshine Act]."\textsuperscript{346} And even closed meetings must be announced in the \textit{Federal Register}, with indication of why they are closed.\textsuperscript{347} Furthermore, the GSA's regulations require consultation with the agency's general counsel, or the GSA's general counsel in the case of Presidential advisory committees, before the agency head (or President) makes a determination to close a meeting.\textsuperscript{348}

There would appear to be a certain rationality in applying the exceptions of the Government in the Sunshine Act to advisory-committee meetings. The same purposes of public access to (and some public participation in) the internal deliberations that lead to government action underlie both statutes, and there is much functional equivalence between meetings of an advisory committee and the meetings of a multi-member agency. There may be reasonable questions whether the exceptions in the Sunshine Act go far enough (or too far), but the same issues would generally arise with respect to advisory committees.

On the other hand, despite the similarities between advisory committees and Sunshine Act agencies, there is one major difference: the committees only recommend, while agencies decide. Even if the purpose of public access is the same in both cases, its importance necessarily is less with respect to advisory committees, because there will be public access to (and often some participation in) the agency decision itself. Loss of access to or participation

\textsuperscript{343} 5 U.S.C. App. II § 10(d). The exceptions to the Government in the Sunshine Act are found at 5 U.S.C. § 552b(c). Prior to the enactment of the Government in the Sunshine Act in 1976, meetings of advisory committees could be closed if they "concerned matters listed in [the exceptions to the FOIA]." Pub. L. No. 92-463, § 10(d), 86 Stat. 770, 775 (1972) (codified as amended at 5 U.S.C. App. II §§ 1-15. Determining how the exceptions applicable to documents applied to meetings occasioned a fair amount of litigation, in particular with respect to the inter- and intra-agency memoranda exception in 5 U.S.C. § 552(b)(5). See, e.g., Aviation Consumer Action Project v. Washburn, 535 F.2d 101 (D.C. Cir. 1976) (holding exemption (b)(5) applicable to advisory committee meetings discussing inter- or intra-agency memoranda). Substitution of the Sunshine Act's exemptions applicable to agency meetings for the FOIA exemptions clarified many of the questions and resolved definitively that there was no deliberative privilege exemption for closing meetings.

\textsuperscript{344} Id.

\textsuperscript{345} See Appendix A Question 48.

\textsuperscript{346} 5 U.S.C. App. II § 10(d).

\textsuperscript{347} 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1015(b)(1)(iv).

\textsuperscript{348} 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1023(b).
in the advisory-committee process may somewhat disadvantage those members of the public who would seek it, but it does not foreclose them altogether from ultimately affecting agency decisions. Because the value in public access and participation is probably less with respect to recommendations than to the decision itself, the balance between the value of those interests and the value of the interests of confidentiality might turn out differently with respect to advisory committees, as compared to agencies subject to the Sunshine Act. This is particularly true in light of the underlying values behind the deliberative-process privilege. If the purpose of an advisory committee is to provide advice and recommendations to an agency or the President, and if it is true that candid and frank advice is inhibited by knowledge that it will be publicly disclosed, the value of protecting the confidentiality of that advice, if not for the whole committee, at least for the internal deliberations of its members, would seem to be particularly high.

These arguments did not prevail, however, at the time of the FACA’s passage—the Act expressly applies the exemptions of the Sunshine Act equally to advisory committees. The legislative determination that Sunshine Act agency deliberations and advisory-committee meetings should be treated as equivalents suggests that Sunshine Act case law would apply to advisory-committee meetings. This would include not only the case law on the exemptions to public meetings, but also the case law as to what constitutes a meeting subject to the Sunshine Act in the first place. Thus, for example, in *Federal Communications Comm’n v. ITT World Communications*, the Supreme Court held that a meeting of a subgroup of a Sunshine Act agency was not a meeting subject to the Act where the subgroup did not possess the “formally delegated authority to take official action for the agency.” While obviously not directly applicable to the question of whether subgroups of advisory committees are subject to the FACA, the logic and policies reflected in the Sunshine Act and the Court’s opinion would support a similar conclusion with respect to FACA subgroups. That is, if the subgroup merely reports to the full committee and cannot take action (make a recommendation) on behalf of the full committee or directly to an agency, the subgroup’s meetings would not be subject to the FACA.

One area in which FACA advisory committees and Sunshine Act

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349. It is certainly true that some types of agency decisions may not be subject to any public access or participation, and it might be argued that here the need for public access to and participation in advisory committee meetings is critical. However, if public access and participation are not required, and presumably therefore not advisable, with respect to the agency decision itself, the question may be asked why it is advisable with regard to an advisory committee’s recommendation. The answer might be that requiring public oversight of the advisory committee was a political compromise by those who would have preferred public oversight of the agency decision itself, but who could not achieve that outcome.


352. *Id.* at 472.
agencies may not be equivalent involves peer review panels. While the FACA's main burden for these panels may lie in the chartering requirements, the public meeting requirements could also create major problems. Yet, such problems have been largely avoided. The National Science Foundation, for example, held 474 advisory-committee meetings in FY 1994. Of these, 399 were totally closed (the largest number of any federal agency), and 35 were partially closed. For another example, the National Endowment for the Humanities held no open advisory-committee meetings and totally closed 169 of its 173 meetings. Indeed, four agencies utilizing peer-review panels accounted for approximately 44% of all advisory-committee meetings, but they accounted for over 70% of all totally or partially closed advisory-committee meetings.

According to the National Science Foundation, its peer-review panels are closed to protect personal privacy and proprietary and patentable information of researchers. At least in theory, the Sunshine Act would probably protect such information. Exemption (c)(4) protects "trade secrets and commercial or financial information obtained from a person and privileged and confidential," while exemption (c)(6) protects "information of a personal nature where disclosure would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy." The first of these is identical to a FOIA exemption, while the second is slightly broader on its face than its comparable FOIA

353. See generally supra Part II.B.3. There is a strong argument that at least some peer review panels are "operational" rather than advisory however. See supra text accompanying note 238. At present, the large number of peer review panels necessitated by different subject-matter expertise plagues the chartering agencies. The National Science Foundation, for example, has the third largest number of advisory committees of all agencies of the federal government. See GENERAL SERVICES ADMINISTRATION, TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT ON FEDERAL ADVISORY COMMITTEES 7 (1994). Advisory committees of the National Institutes of Health are not separately broken out from the rest of the Department of Health and Human Servs. (HHS), but they undoubtedly are primarily responsible for HHS's position as the agency with the most advisory committees. Id.

354. See Cardozo, supra note 30, at 44-45 (quoting from statement made in hearings on possible FACA amendments).

355. GENERAL SERVICES ADMINISTRATION, supra note 353.

356. Id.

357. Id.

358. Id. This counts all of the Department of Health and Human Services' advisory committees, at least some of which are not peer review panels, but it does not count any of EPA's advisory committees, some of which are peer review panels.

359. Id.

360. See Federal Advisory Committee Agency Survey, NSF Response (on file with authors). Thomas McGarity's study suggests similar grounds form the basis for closing the other agencies' peer review panels, see McGarity, supra note 234, at 68-71. See also, e.g., National Science Foundation, Special Emphasis Panel in Design, Manufacture, and Industrial Innovation; Notice of Meeting, 60 Fed. Reg. 46,872 (1995) ("Reason for Closing: The proposals being reviewed include information of a proprietary or confidential nature, including technical information; financial data, such as salaries; and personal information concerning individuals associated with the proposals.").

361. 5 U.S.C. § 552(c)(4).

362. 5 U.S.C. § 552(c)(6).

exemption. The case law, however, is not totally supportive of a broad ability to use these exemptions to close peer-review panels. The only case directly relating to peer groups is Washington Research Project, Inc. v. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, a FOIA case, in which an organization sought the grant applications, the peer review's site-visit report, and the staff's summary of the peer review's reactions and recommendations for certain NIH-funded projects. The agency claimed that the information was exempt under exemptions 4, 5, and 6 of the FOIA. The court construed exemption 4 narrowly, however, holding that "a non-commercial scientist's research design is not literally a trade secret or item of commercial information, for it defies common sense to pretend that the scientist is engaged in trade or commerce." This conclusion stemmed from a general view that non-profit organizations not engaged in profit-making ventures (e.g., colleges, universities, research institutes, hospitals, and state agencies) are not engaged in commercial activity.

This is not to say that arguments do not exist for considering even this information to be potentially "commercial information." For example, in Critical Mass Energy Project v. Nuclear Regulatory Comm'n, the court held that information obtained by a non-profit industry group regarding nuclear reactor safety incidents was commercial information because "[t]he revelation of the details of the operations of [its members'] nuclear power plants, whether in critical or laudatory contexts, could materially affect their profitability in multiple ways." This language could be read to support the idea that any information that, if made public, would affect the financial interests of a person could be "commercial information." Both grant-application materials as well as peer-review reports, whether in hard science, soft science, or the arts, could well have this effect, as public knowledge of a

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364. See 5 U.S.C. § 552(b)(6) ("personnel and medical files and similar files the disclosure of which would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy"). The case law under this FOIA exemption, however, reads "similar files" so broadly that it is doubtful whether the Sunshine Act exemption as a practical matter is any broader. See Washington Post Co. v. Department of State, 456 U.S. 595, 600 (1982). See also Washington Post Co. v. Department of Health and Human Servs., 690 F.2d 252, 260 (D.C. Cir. 1982) (similar files requirement "is fairly minimal and is easily satisfied").


366. Id. at 241-242.

367. As a general matter, exemptions to the FOIA are construed narrowly. See, e.g., Department of the Air Force v. Rose, 425 U.S. 352, 361 (1976).

368. 504 F.2d at 244.

369. 504 F.2d at 244 n.6. McGarity doubts that the factual assumptions of that opinion still are valid (if they ever were), noting that "[i]n the booming area of biotechnology, lucrative partnerships and consultancies are no longer the exception to the general rule that academic scientists are devoted, but poorly compensated, seekers of scientific truth." McGarity, supra note 234, at 70. Nevertheless, as he further recognizes, "the Washington Research Project rationale would still seem to preclude using the trade secrecy exemption to shield from public disclosure peer review information about applications in other hard sciences, the social sciences, and the arts." Id.


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proposed study or artistic endeavor could lead to another person using this information to beat the applicant to the study (if not to the grant). Certainly, public disclosure of negative information in the peer review could affect the financial well-being of the applicant beyond the effect on the application itself.\footnote{372} The court of appeals in \textit{Washington Research Project} did not address the exemption 6 question. An initial question is whose personal privacy this exemption protects—the applicants’ or the peer reviewers’? The reviewers are expressing their personal opinions on the proposal, and it is possible that, if made public, those opinions might embarrass the reviewers. Nevertheless, this does not seem to be the type of invasion of personal privacy at which this exemption is aimed. Rather it seems more responsive to the concerns underlying the deliberative-process privilege encompassed by Exemption 5 of the FOIA, which does not exist in the Sunshine Act.\footnote{373} More likely, the personal privacy of the applicants could be involved in the reviewers’ comments on their reputations, professional qualifications, or competence in the field, which may be relevant in considering the grant proposals. Even here, however, there is some question about the applicability of the exemption. While negative assessments of the person’s reputation might be embarrassing, it is not clear that a person’s reputation among his peers is private information.\footnote{374}

On the other hand, reviewers’ opinions of a person’s qualifications and competence seem much like what one would find in an employee’s personnel file, which is clearly covered by exemption 6. Perhaps for this reason, the district court in \textit{Washington Research Project} held that portions of the site visit reports and the panel’s recommendations that would identify the applicants could qualify for deletion from released materials.\footnote{375} To the extent, however, that the reviewers assess the merits of the proposal itself, as opposed to the person making it, there would seem to be little personal information involved at all. Nevertheless, the mere fact that a negative assessment would

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\item[372.] McGarity relates the horror story of a NSF applicant who was identified (falsely) in the peer review as involved with CIA covert operations. McGarity, supra note 234, at 22-23.
\item[373.] See Schell v. Department of Health and Human Servs., 843 F.2d 933, 939 (6th Cir. 1988) (stating in dictum that author’s opinions, even if embarrassing to him if released, did not fall within personal privacy exemption, but finding exemption 5 applicable).
\item[374.] Arguably, a person’s reputation is by definition public. But see Rural Housing Alliance v. Department of Agric., 498 F.2d 73, 77 (D.C. Cir. 1974) (finding file containing “information regarding marital status, legitimacy of children, identity of fathers of children, medical condition, welfare payments, alcoholic consumption, family fights and reputation” subject to exemption 6).
\item[375.] See \textit{Washington Research Project}, Inc. v. Department of Health, Educ., and Welfare, 366 F. Supp. 929, at 937 (D.D.C. 1973), \textit{aff'd on other grounds}, 504 F.2d 238 (D.C. Cir. 1974), cert. denied, 421 U.S. 963 (1975). The court held that exemption 6 was not available because the information was not in “personnel and medical files and similar files” as required for that exemption, but it found authority for deletion of identifying data in 5 U.S.C. § 552(b)(6)’s provision allowing for deletion of “identifying details” “[t]o the extent required to prevent a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy.” Subsequent case law suggests that the court’s restrictive interpretation of the files subject to exemption 6 would not be followed today.
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be embarrassing to the applicant might suggest that disclosure would invade his privacy. Even assuming the peer-review panel’s meeting would implicate the applicant’s personal privacy, its invasion would have to be “clearly unwarranted” in order to qualify for exemption 6. If the information was relevant to whether the grant should be awarded, a good case could be made that there is a sufficient public interest in its disclosure to make the invasion of privacy “warranted.”

In light of this analysis, Thomas McGarity’s conclusion that “[w]hile the case for closing peer-review panel meetings to the public under the FACA is plausible, it is not especially compelling,”376 seems well taken. Nonetheless, the agencies utilizing peer-review panels appear to close those meetings, in whole or in part, in the vast majority of cases, and the lack of judicial actions challenging that practice may suggest general acceptance of this way of doing business. What is clear, however, is that the law is not clear. Given the importance of peer review to the grant review process of a number of agencies and the large number of peer-review panels, this ambiguity of the law should be resolved. Preferably, this would be accomplished by Congress, but repeated calls to exempt or largely exempt peer review from the FACA have so far been unavailing.377 Moreover, if peer-review panels were to be categorically exempt from the FACA, there may be a need for some regulation of their procedures to avoid the potential problem of bias by the panels,378 and at least NSF is not enthusiastic about trading an exemption from the FACA for an unseen specific peer-review statute.379 After all, NSF and the other peer-review agencies are already avoiding much of the effect of the FACA by routinely closing committee meetings. The GSA, as the oversight agency under the Act, might establish clear rules and exclusions with respect to peer-review panels.380 Instead, the peer-review agencies have relied on an opinion from the Office of Legal Counsel (the OLC) in the Department of Justice in 1980,381 the interpretive decisions of which are authoritative within the executive branch382 and can carry weight with reviewing courts.383 The OLC’s opinion, relying in part on two congressional committee reports indicating

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377. See Cardozo, supra note 30, at 44-46.
378. See generally McGarity, supra note 234.
380. See Cardozo, supra note 30, at 46-47 (suggesting GSA regulations to govern peer review panels). A difficulty, however, is that unlike GSA regulations interpreting terms of the FACA, regulations here would be interpreting the Sunshine Act (and derivatively the FOIA), and GSA does not have any particular oversight or administrative responsibilities for those acts. Consequently, Chevron deference would not and probably should not apply.
concern as to the applicability of the FACA to peer review and clinical trial preliminary review, and citing the district court opinion in Washington Research Project, concluded that “discussing a scholar's competence, a researcher's reputation, or an applicant's ability to carry through a project that he starts . . . could reveal highly personal matters as to which an individual has a strong privacy interest.” The opinion acknowledged that this privacy interest had to be weighed against the “countervailing interests in openness,” and that the fact that certain private information might be discussed did not necessarily justify closing the entire meeting. It went on to say, however, that “it might be impossible to segregate in advance all of the policy-oriented, nonprivate topics from the particularized, highly private subjects,” suggesting that in such circumstances the whole meeting might have to be closed. While agencies should be able to rely upon the OLC for the proposition that discussions of applicants' personal information or qualifications is private in nature, the opinion does not provide blanket authority for closing all peer-review panel meetings.

Even if peer-review panel meetings could be closed, there remains the separate requirement in section 10(b) of the FACA that “the records, reports, transcripts, minutes, appendixes, working papers, drafts, studies, agenda, or other documents which were made available to or prepared for or by each advisory committee shall be made available for public inspection” subject to the exceptions of the FOIA. As discussed above, exemptions 4 and 6 of the FOIA may be applicable to some materials. The FOIA, however, also contains a deliberative-process privilege in exemption 5, which could justify non-disclosure for certain types of materials. Exemption 5 by its terms only applies to “inter-agency or intra-agency memorandums or letters.”

This exemption can arise in two different circumstances. The first would involve internal documents within an advisory committee. The second would be an internal document of the agency which is provided to an advisory committee. In either case, the question arises whether an advisory committee is itself to be considered an “agency” or part of an “agency” for purposes of

384. The first report stated that the FOIA's privacy exemption “may” apply to “a review of a grant application which requires assessing an individual's professional competence.” S. REP. NO. 94-354, at 21 (1975). However, this is an after-the-fact statement about the meaning of the original FACA, not legislative history for any provision that became law. The second report was part of the legislative history of the amendments that applied the Sunshine Act's exceptions to the FACA, but here the only statement reads: “The conferees . . . are concerned about the possible effect of this amendment upon the peer review and clinical trial preliminary review systems of the National Institutes of Health. The conferees thus wish to state as clearly as possible that personal data, such as individual medical information, is especially sensitive and should be given appropriate protection to prevent clearly unwarranted invasions of individual privacy.” H. R. CONF. REP. NO. 94-1441, at 26 (1976).

386. Id.
387. Id. at 748.
388. Id.
389. 5 U.S.C. § 552(b)(5).
the FOIA so that internal documents would be intra-agency documents and documents from an agency could be inter-agency documents. The case law is consistent that advisory committees are not themselves to be considered agencies.90 Prior to the FACA’s amendment substituting the Sunshine Act exceptions for the FOIA exceptions as a ground for closing an advisory committee meeting, the courts were split on the issue of whether the internal deliberations of an advisory committee would qualify for the deliberative-process privilege contained in the FOIA’s exemption 5.91 While the 1976 amendments to the FACA clearly eliminated the deliberative-process privilege as a basis for closing meetings of an advisory committee, they left intact the exemptions of the FOIA, including the deliberative-process privilege of exemption 5, applicable to the various documents of an advisory committee. Of course, if the meetings of a committee must be open, it is less likely that the agency will attempt to maintain the confidentiality of documents used by the committee. Where, however, the agency can close the meetings under another exemption, such as exemptions 4 or 6, or where members of a committee meet privately under the theory that they do not constitute an advisory committee,92 the desire to maintain confidentiality of these internal deliberations and documents might well remain. Here, the pre-FACA amendments decision of the court in Washington Research Project93 would seem to have continuing validity. In that case, the court held that the peer-review panels were not themselves agencies, but that they acted in the nature of staff to the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and thus their internal deliberations were intra-agency documents subject to exemption 5.94 Nevertheless, the possibly unique aspects of peer-review panels and the context in which the case arose (when arguably the FACA was more protective of internal deliberations) may undermine its guidance to other circumstances today. And there do not appear to be any post-1976 judicial opinions on the subject.95

92. See, e.g., 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1004(k).
93. 504 F.2d 238 (D.C. Cir. 1974).
94. Id. at 246-49.
95. Reflecting a greater commitment to openness, a highly respected analysis of the FOIA and the FACA states flatly that “[e]xemption 5 does not apply to draft reports, working papers and other documents made available to or prepared by or for an advisory committee.” LITIGATION UNDER THE FEDERAL OPEN GOVERNMENT LAWS 343 (A.R. Adler ed., 18th ed. 1993). The book cites three cases to support the sentence. But the first, Food Chemical News v. Advisory Comm. on the Food and Drug Admin., 760 F. Supp. 220 (D.D.C. 1991), aff’d as clarified sub nom., Food Chemical News v. Department of Health and Human Servs., 980 F.2d 1408 (D.C. Cir. 1992), does not support the
Moreover, there seems to be a culture of disclosure of the internal documents of advisory committees without consideration of whether they are exempt from disclosure. Of course, an agency can always waive the deliberative-process privilege under exemption 5, and indeed it is Administration policy to waive the privilege unless there is a particular determination that disclosure would be harmful to the interest protected by the privilege. Accordingly, the release of internal advisory committee deliberative materials may well be the consequence of a general or particular determination that release does not have significant adverse consequences on the advice received by the agency.

To sum up, the public access and participation requirements of section 10 of the FACA impose significant burdens on agency use of advisory committees, providing another incentive for agencies to structure groups in a way to avoid "advisory committee" designation. Yet, the agencies that traditionally have complained the most about these requirements (the agencies sponsoring peer-review groups—for whom the Act's openness and accountability values are much less relevant relative to other agencies) have made at least some accommodations to the FACA and its requirements. Meanwhile, they have largely avoided its public-access and participation requirements under one or more Sunshine Act or FOIA exemptions.

Access and participation values counsel in favor of preserving section 10's requirements for other agencies. At the least, relaxation of those requirements would involve significant trade-off between administrative-efficiency, on the one hand, and openness and participation, on the other.

E. Judicial Review of FACA Claims

Unless the FACA's requirements are merely hortatory, they must be enforceable by the courts upon the successful prosecution of a claim brought by the appropriate parties. Courts must be able to offer meaningful relief to parties with standing who bring justiciable claims under the Act. Yet, while standing requirements have not created insurmountable barriers to successful FACA challenges, several courts have raised serious questions about the

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statement; it acknowledged an argument of the plaintiffs seeking release that exemption 5 did not apply to internal deliberations of advisory committees, but it did not express an opinion on the issue and ruled against plaintiffs on other grounds. The second and third cases cited are unreported decisions, ACLU v. Attorney General's Comm'n on Pornography, C.A. No. 86-0893 (D.D.C. 1986), and BNA v. President's Council of Advisors of Science & Technology, C.A. 92-1088 (D.D.C. 1993). The latter is acknowledged as a case in which the government entered into a stipulation requiring disclosure.


397. One can reasonably question the scope of the public access and participation requirements of the FACA in light of the distinctions between advisory committees and agencies, but Congress has clearly decided that advisory committees and Sunshine Act agencies should be treated as equivalent entities.
justiciability of at least one of the Act’s core requirements. At the same time, several other courts have raised important questions about the limited types of remedies that courts can grant, even for clearly justiciable claims brought by parties with solid standing to sue.

1. Proper Plaintiffs and Proper Defendants

In *Public Citizen*, the Supreme Court settled the issue of standing in the context of claims brought under section 10 of the Act. The ABA Judicial Selection Committee (as amicus) argued that the plaintiffs lacked standing to sue to enjoin the Justice Department and force compliance with the FACA. It rested its argument on two separate grounds: (1) that the plaintiff’s grievance was a general, non-concrete one; and (2) that a decision in their favor would not redress their alleged harm because the meetings they sought to attend and the records they sought to review would probably be closed to them under the provisions of the FACA.

The Court disagreed on both counts. It explained that, as in the case of the FOIA, refusing to permit the plaintiffs to review the ABA Committee’s records and minutes (much less to participate in its deliberations) constitutes a “sufficiently distinct injury to provide standing to sue.” With respect to the argument that a remedy would not redress the plaintiff’s harm, the Court simply noted that, were the plaintiffs to prevail, the Justice Department would have to file a charter for the ABA Committee and give notice of its meetings. In addition, the Court further noted, while some of the ABA Committee’s meetings might be closed under the Act, there was no reason to believe that all of them would be, and moreover the ABA Committee would be obliged to provide some records even where the FACA’s exceptions applied. Thus *Public Citizen* makes clear that parties seeking the application of the FACA’s section 10 requirements have standing to sue under the Act.

The matter is somewhat more complicated, however, with respect to section 5. As explained above, whereas section 10 specifies agencies’ duties to provide notice of the formation of advisory committees, keep minutes of committee meetings, and allow for public participation, section 5 speaks instead to Congress’s duty to ensure that committees are fairly balanced and not unduly influenced by special interests (although the “fairly balanced” requirement is echoed in the GSA’s regulations in reference to agencies). Thus, it is less immediately clear that parties seeking to sue for alleged

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399. 5 U.S.C. App. II § 10(b), (d). *See also supra* Part II.D. (explaining Act’s openness provisions).
400. 491 U.S. at 449.
401. 491 U.S. at 450.
402. *Id.*
violations of section 5 can satisfy standing requirements. Nevertheless, the rare cases that have addressed the question suggest that plaintiffs can, at least in principle, satisfy standing requirements to bring a claim under section 5.

The court in National Anti-Hunger Coalition v. Executive Comm. of the President’s Private Sector Survey on Cost Control, a leading case on the question, addressed the standing issue in the context of a challenge under section 5. The plaintiffs brought a section 5 claim on the grounds that the advisory committee upon which the President relied for advice about how to minimize the federal government’s management costs consisted mainly of executives of major corporations, and included no public-interest advocates or beneficiaries of federal food-assistance programs notwithstanding that the committee’s policy recommendations would likely have significant consequences for poor persons, and might affect the availability of federal food-assistance programs specifically. On the appeal of their claim, the appellate court strongly suggested that the plaintiffs had standing under 5(b)(2). Below, Judge Gesell had concluded that he saw no difference between section 10 and section 5 relevant to standing purposes, noting an earlier appellate court case in which the court stated in dicta that a plaintiff denied actual representation on an advisory committee would have standing under the FACA. The appellate court vindicated Judge Gesell’s conclusion by suggesting that, in the appropriate circumstances, plaintiffs could have standing under section 5 as well as section 10.

Of course, identifying those parties with standing to sue under the FACA still leaves open the question of who may be sued under the Act. Fortunately,

404. Id. at 527.
406. National Anti-Hunger Coalition v. Executive Comm. of the President’s Private Sector Survey on Cost Control, 711 F.2d 1071, 1074 n.2 (D.C. Cir. 1983). There, the court wrote: Like the District Court, . . . we can find ‘no distinction between requirements under § 5 and requirements under § 10 of the Act’ for purposes of standing. Section 5, to be sure, confers no cognizable personal right to an advisory committee appointment. But . . . [w]hen the requirements [of a fairly balanced committee] is [sic] ignored, . . . persons having a direct interest in the committee’s purpose suffer injury-in-fact sufficient to confer standing to sue.

Id. As explained below, however, the proper interpretation of this footnote became a bone of contention in a subsequent D.C. Circuit case. See infra text accompanying notes 419-27.
407. See Metcalf v. National Petroleum Council, 553 F.2d 176 (D.C. Cir. 1977). In practice, standing may be difficult to satisfy in the context of a section 5 claim, notwithstanding that the proper plaintiffs making the proper allegations could conceivably satisfy standing requirements. See, e.g., Public Citizen v. Department of Health and Human Servs., 795 F. Supp. 1212, 1222 (D.D.C. 1992) (suggesting that standing to bring section 5 claim is difficult to satisfy but not ruling that standing to bring section 5 claim can never be satisfied).
this issue is fairly straightforward. The language of the Act quite clearly creates obligations on the part of agencies, not on private parties. Thus, the plain meaning of the Act strongly suggests that violations of the FACA gives rise to claims against agencies and not against private parties allegedly in violation of the FACA.

Any doubt regarding who may be a defendant in FACA was settled in Center for Auto Safety v. Coxe and Washington Legal Foundation v. American Bar Association Standing Committee on the Federal Judiciary. In Center for Auto Safety, the plaintiffs brought suit against the Administrator of the Federal Highway Administration to prohibit the Administrator from relying on the American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO) for advice or recommendations on certain regulations concerning highway safety. While the appeals court agreed with the plaintiffs that the district court had correctly concluded that the AASHTO was an advisory committee governed by the Act and thus subject to its requirements, the court observed in passing that the Act regulated the agency in reliance on advisory committees, and not third parties such as the AASHTO which themselves constitute advisory committees.

Washington Legal Foundation, a predecessor to Public Citizen v. Department of Justice, tested this proposition. There, the plaintiffs brought a FACA case against the ABA Committee, seeking to enjoin the Committee from holding meetings in violation of section 10 of the Act. The ABA Committee moved to dismiss, arguing among other things that the plaintiffs lacked standing and that the FACA could not serve as a basis for a cause of action against a private entity. After determining that the plaintiffs had standing to sue, the court nevertheless granted the Committee's motion to dismiss on the grounds that the FACA does not sanction suits against private parties. Citing Center for Auto Safety and noting that the language of the Act creates obligations only on the part of government officials, the court explained:

If the Act regulates the government's use of the advisory committee and not the committee itself, it follows that the proper defendant in a suit brought to enforce the Act is the government, not the advisory committee "utilized" by the government. ... Phrased differently, it is the government's involvement with the committee that triggers the Act, not actions of the committee taken independently of the

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408. 580 F.2d 689 (D.C. Cir. 1978).
410. 580 F.2d at 693.
411. While the defendant's motion was pending, the plaintiffs filed a separate action against the Justice Department, which was consolidated with a case against the Justice Department brought by Public Citizen, which the Supreme Court heard in Public Citizen v. Department of Justice, 491 U.S. 440 (1989).
government. The proper remedy for a violation of FACA, therefore, is an order requiring the government either to cease its undertakings with the advisory committee or to ensure that the advisory committee is brought into compliance with the Act.413

The court's conclusion here is uncontroverted in the FACA case law. Thus, it seems clear that whatever uncertainties surround the standing issue under section 5,414 suits under section 5 or section 10 are properly brought against the agency allegedly relying on an advisory committee governed by, but allegedly in violation of, the Act.

2. Justiciability and Section 5(b)

As explained in Part I, the FACA seeks to ensure that the advice and recommendations federal decisionmakers receive from non-governmental parties are even-handed. In particular, section 5(b)(2) provides that Congress, in considering legislation establishing or authorizing the establishment of an advisory committee, must "require the membership of the advisory committee to be fairly balanced in terms of the points of view represented . . . by the advisory committee."415 Section 5(b)(3) additionally requires that any such legislation "contain appropriate provisions to assure that the advice and recommendations of the advisory committee will not be inappropriately influenced by the appointing authority or by any special interest, but will instead be the result of the advisory committee's independent judgment[]."416 Similar requirements find expression in the GSA regulations.417

413. Id. (emphasis in original).
414. Notwithstanding that section 5 on its face seems to create obligations on the part of Congress and not agencies, most courts that have considered the question of standing in the context of a section 5 case have concluded or implied that, under the right set of factual circumstances, plaintiffs may be able to meet standing requirements. Only one judge has suggested that plaintiffs cannot possibly satisfy standing in a case based on section 5. In Public Citizen v. National Advisory Comm. on Microbiological Criteria for Foods, 886 F.2d 419 (D.C. Cir. 1989), Judge Silberman argued that plaintiffs cannot have standing in a section 5 case because a court could not possibly fashion a remedy that affords plaintiffs relief. See id. at 431. According to that argument, to conclude that a plaintiff's absence from an advisory committee undermined the fair balance of that committee a court would first have to answer or assume away daunting philosophical questions about which kinds of groups most accurately represent various kinds of interests. See id. at 428-30. But this argument overstates the judicial task in question. A court need not, to use Judge Silberman's own example, resolve whether groups like Public Citizen or instead groups sharing the economic perspective of Milton Friedman most legitimately represent consumers' interests in some ultimate sense. Surely both types of groups represent different consumer interests in different ways over different contexts. Rather, a court need only make the more modest conclusion that a particular plaintiff's perspective (regardless of merit) is missing from a particular committee, and that this lack of representation is inappropriate, given that committee's task. Such an approach to the remedy prong of the standing doctrine not only comports with common sense, but is more faithful to the language of section 5(b)(2) itself, which mentions balance of "points of view represented," not interests represented, thus allowing for different points of view about who best represents different interests.
416. Id. § 5(b)(3).
417. See supra Part II.C.2.b.
Although the avoidance of bias is among the core aims of the FACA, it is not clear whether that aim can be vindicated through judicial review. Indeed, the justiciability of section 5(b) constitutes one of the thorniest issues of the FACA case law. More than one court has suggested that section 5(b)(2)'s "fairly balanced" requirement presents a non-justiciable issue. At the same time, at least one court has indicated the same with regard to section 5(b)(3)'s language proscribing undue "special interest" influence.

The position that section 5(b)(2) does not provide grounds for a justiciable claim is represented by Judge Silberman's concurring opinion in Public Citizen v. National Advisory Comm. on Microbiological Criteria. In that case, a D.C. Circuit panel affirmed the district court's dismissal of a section 5(b)(2) claim. Public Citizen brought the case alleging that the National Advisory Committee on Microbiological Criteria did not contain members who would adequately represent consumers' interests, and thus was not "fairly balanced" as contemplated in section 5(b)(2). The district court found that the plaintiffs had offered no specific evidence that their viewpoints were not adequately represented, and therefore dismissed the case. The appeals court affirmed, but the panel, deeply split on both the justiciability and the merits of the case, issued three separate opinions. One judge concluded that the plaintiffs' claim was nonjusticiable, the second concluded that the claim was justiciable but lacked merit, and the third concluded that the plaintiffs' claim was justiciable and meritorious.

According to Judge Silberman, the plaintiffs' claim was nonjusticiable because the court lacked any way of determining what constitutes a "fairly balanced" committee. He wrote, "For any claim under section 5(b)(2) of the FACA to be justiciable . . . we must first conclude that Congress provided 'a meaningful standard against which to judge the agency's exercise of discretion.'" Because he perceived "no principled basis for a federal court to determine which among the myriad points of view deserve representation on particular advisory committees," Judge Silberman concluded that whether such a committee is fairly balanced is a question committed entirely to the Secretaries' discretion and is thus not subject to judicial review.

The other two judges in Microbiological Criteria concluded that claims under 5(b)(2) are justiciable. They disagreed with Judge Silberman

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418. 886 F.2d 419, 426 (D.C. Cir. 1989).
420. 886 F.2d at 426 (Silberman, J., concurring) (quoting Heckler v. Chaney, 470 U.S. 821, 830 (1985), and § 5(b)(2) of the FACA).
421. Id.
422. Id. Judge Silberman also argued that the court's inability to ascertain whether the advisory committee was fairly balanced rendered it incapable of remedying the plaintiffs' claim, and that standing was therefore lacking. See id. at 431. See also supra note 414.
423. Judge Friedman concluded that the committee in question was fairly balanced. See id. at 423-25, while Judge Edwards concluded that the committee was not. See id. at 432-34.
specifically regarding the significance of an earlier footnote in *National Anti-Hunger Coalition v. Executive Comm. of the President's Private Sector Survey on Cost Control*. There, in affirming the district court's decision in *National Anti-Hunger Coalition*, the appellate court wrote:

[As] the legislative history makes clear, the “fairly balanced” requirement was designed to ensure that persons or groups directly affected by the work of a particular advisory committee would have some representation on the committee. When the requirement is ignored, therefore, persons having a direct interest in the committee’s purpose suffer injury-in-fact sufficient to confer standing to sue.

This footnote was cited in all three of the *Microbiological Criteria* opinions. Judge Silberman argued that this passage constituted *dicta*, since the *National Anti-Hunger Coalition* court had held that it did not need to settle the standing question in order to affirm the district court’s decision in that case. The other two judges gave this footnote more weight, and therefore determined that the plaintiffs did have standing.

Despite the lack of guidance from above, the lower courts have been consistent in denying claims based on alleged lack of balance. In *Doe v.*

424. 711 F.2d 1071, 1071 n.2 (D.C. Cir. 1983).
425. *Id.* (citations to legislative history of the FACA omitted). It is noteworthy that subsequent to the appellate court's decision in *Anti-Hunger Coalition*, the plaintiffs challenged the factual basis of the decision below. They brought pleadings contending that the advisory committee was not genuinely a deliberative body but rather a pro forma “rubber stamp” of recommendations brought to it by its component task forces, and offered evidence that the advisory committee did make recommendations relating to the repeal of three pieces of legislation specifically concerned with hunger relief. The plaintiffs also argued that the committee had acted beyond the scope of its mission statement, which authorized it to control government’s management costs. The court rejected the plaintiffs’ first claim, but granted declaratory relief on their second, declaring the committee’s approval of recommendations to repeal the hunger-relief legislation to be “ultra vires and illegal because of the lack of fair balance.” See *National Anti-Hunger Coalition v. Executive Comm. of the President’s Private Sector Survey on Cost Control*, 566 F. Supp. 1515, 1517 (D.D.C. 1983).
426. See 711 F.2d at 1074-75.
427. *Id.* at 1073-74. None of the opinions in *Microbiological Criteria* is entirely convincing. Judge Friedman’s opinion essentially skirts the justiciability issue. Judge Edward’s opinion does not squarely confront the fact that section 5 addresses congressional rather than agency obligations. And Judge Silberman’s opinion seems to blur justiciability and standing by arguing, in effect, that the plaintiff’s claim was not justiciable because the plaintiffs lacked standing because their claim was not redressable. Although courts often consider justiciability determinations to be pragmatically prior to standing issues, strictly speaking the two are independent. A plaintiff could in principle have standing to sue to bring a nonjusticiable claim. If, on the other hand, Judge Silberman is right that, for the purposes of section 5(b)(2), the “law to apply” question (justiciability) and the redressability question (standing) are inextricably intertwined, then his characterization of *National Anti-Hunger Coalition* as nongoverning on the standing issue misses the mark; by considering the plaintiffs’ claim to be justiciable, the *National Anti-Hunger Coalition* court necessarily implied (according to the logic that insists the two are connected) that the plaintiffs had standing.
Shalala, the court stated without discussion that "the balance of judicial opinion holds that, by reason of the lack of judicial standards to address alleged 'imbalances' of membership on such committees, courts will not decide the issue; it is non-justiciable."429 And, in Public Citizen v. Department of Health and Human Servs., the court addressed the justiciability of a claim under section 5(b)(2), setting the stage with the following apt observation: "Unfortunately, the decisions that have been rendered thus far (concerning the "fairly balanced" requirement of 5(b)(2)) have resulted in a legal quagmire with no coherent guidelines for district courts to follow."430 As if out of frustration, the court in Public Citizen v. Department of Health and Human Servs. cast its vote against the justiciability of section 5(b)(2) claims. The court did discuss the "function-based" approach to section 5(b)(2) which the opinion in National Anti-Hunger Coalition seemed to suggest. According to this function-based approach, a court considering a section 5(b)(2) claim would take into account the function of the advisory committee in question when determining whether that advisory committee included members of all interests directly affected by its deliberations. However, the court rejected the function-based approach on the grounds that it provided district courts with insufficient guidance.431 In so doing, the court asked:

Is the Court to engage in continuous oversight so that for each separate "function" that a particular committee engages in, the Court can reassess whether the committee was "fairly balanced" to engage in that function? Is the Court to examine the background of every person on the committee to determine whether anyone already represents the interests of the person or group challenging the committee's composition?432

Arguing that the judicial precedent with respect to the justiciability of section 5(b)(2) did not compel the conclusion that the plaintiffs' claims were justiciable,433 the court quoted from Judge Silberman's opinion in Public

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1988).


430. 795 F. Supp. at 1213.

431. 795 F. Supp. at 1221, 1221 n.7.

432. Id.

433. Id. at 1220.
Citizen v. National Advisory Comm. on Microbiological Criteria for Foods\textsuperscript{434} and concluded that those claims were not justiciable, with a parting invitation to the appellate court to resolve the matter.\textsuperscript{435} More recently, the district court of the District of Columbia bemoaned the lack of clear circuit guidance but had little difficulty in holding that section 5(b)(2) was not justiciable.\textsuperscript{436} In the words of Judge Sporkin:

For the Court to become entangled in determining what represents a "fair balance" would require the Court to arbitrarily substitute its judgment for that of the agency. No meaningful standards are available to assist the Court in making such determinations. In short, courts should not involve themselves in what is really an executive branch function.\textsuperscript{437}

If few courts have squarely considered the justiciability of section 5(b)(2), even fewer courts have addressed the justiciability of section 5(b)(3). Microbiological Criteria is one of the few. As with respect to section 5(b)(2), Judge Silberman argued that 5(b)(3) also presents a nonjusticiable question. First, section 5(b)(3), "on its face, is directed to the establishment of procedures to prevent 'inappropriate' external influences on an already constituted advisory committee by outside special interests or the appointing body."\textsuperscript{438} Second, like section 5(b)(2), section 5(b)(3) supplies no meaningful standard for judicial enforcement because it is dependent on the meaning of a value-laden, undefinable term.\textsuperscript{439} Here too, however, his colleagues agreed that the issue was justiciable, but split on the merits of that question in the case before them.

Whatever uncertainty attaches to section 5(b)(3) as a basis for a judicially cognizable claim, it should be noted that this uncertainty probably overlaps substantially with that surrounding section 5(b)(2). This is true because sections 5(b)(2) and 5(b)(3) are probably best understood largely as flip sides of the same coin: If an advisory committee is truly "fairly balanced," then it is difficult to see how it could be unduly influenced by a "special interest." The

\begin{thebibliography}{499}
\bibitem{434} 886 F.2d 419 (D.C. Cir. 1989).
\bibitem{435} 795 F. Supp. at 1221, 1223. This invitation has, to date, not been accepted.
\bibitem{437} 938 F. Supp. at 54-55.
\bibitem{438} Microbiological Criteria, 886 F.2d at 430 (emphasis in original). This claim is somewhat puzzling in light of the provision’s language. Section 5(b)(3) states: "Any such legislation [establishing or authorizing the establishment of any advisory committee] shall . . . contain appropriate provisions to assure that the advice and recommendations of the advisory committee will not be inappropriately influenced by the appointing authority or by any special interest, but will instead be the result of the advisory committee’s independent judgment." 5 U.S.C. App. II § 5(b)(3).
\bibitem{439} See 886 F.2d at 430.
\end{thebibliography}
inverse (though probably not the converse) also seems true: If a committee is unduly influenced by a special interest, then it is not fairly balanced. In this light, it is not clear that plaintiffs would benefit from standing to bring a justiciable claim under section 5(b)(3) if they can satisfy standing requirements to do so under section 5(b)(2). Additionally, if plaintiffs cannot satisfy standing under section 5(b)(2), it is not clear how they could do so under section 5(b)(3). Perhaps for this reason Judge Edwards in *Microbiological Criteria* seemed to consider standing under 5(b) without specifically distinguishing 5(b)(2) from 5(b)(3).

Of course, whether a claim under section 5(b) is justiciable depends upon whether there is law for courts to apply. Judges who have answered that question in the affirmative have stated that, in view of both the language of section 5 and its legislative history, courts are to consider the functions of the advisory committee in question and the interests directly affected by that committee given its function. Judges who have answered the question in the negative have, not without some justification, found these inquiries to be uselessly open-ended.

3. **Forms of Relief for Violations of Section 10**

As explained above, several courts have raised questions about the FACA's compatibility with separation-of-powers principles, questions which have at times influenced courts' interpretations of the Act. Other times, however, such concerns have instead affected the remedies courts have been willing to grant litigants bringing a successful FACA claim. Because the FACA itself does not specify what remedies are to be granted for its violation, the issue here is perceived as one of possible judicial, rather than legislative, infringement on executive power.

*Northwest Forest Resource Council v. Espy* provides the best example. There, the plaintiffs (the Northwest Forest Resource Council) argued that the FEMAT, an interagency organization composed of numerous subteams and

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440. An advisory committee could be unfairly imbalanced without being unduly influenced by a special interest.

441. See, e.g., *Citizens to Preserve Overton Park v. Volpe*, 401 U.S. 402, 410-13 (1971) (discussing exception to justiciability where statute is drawn so broadly that there is in effect no law to apply, but holding that there was law to apply in case at issue); *Heckler v. Chaney*, 470 U.S. 821 (1985) (holding administrative agency's behavior immune from judicial review under Administrative Procedures Act because statute in question was drawn such that judge would have no meaningful standard of review, no law to apply).


subgroups whose non-government participants included private contractors.\textsuperscript{445} constituted an advisory committee subject to the Act. The FEMAT was organized during the events immediately surrounding President Clinton and Vice President Gore’s visit to Portland, Oregon for a one-day “Forest Conference,” mentioned above, designed to negotiate a solution to the long-standing controversy between environmentalists and foresters concerning the use of federal forest lands.

Because the FEMAT’s membership included individuals other than full-time employees of the federal government, the FACA applied to the group. Accordingly, the court agreed with the plaintiffs that the “FEMAT was subject to FACA, [and] that FEMAT was convened and did its work in violation of the Act’s requirements for the proper conduct of ‘advisory-committee’ business.’”\textsuperscript{446} The past tense here is what created the problem for the court. For the plaintiff’s success on the merits naturally raised the question of what remedy the court would grant for the Act’s previous violation. Given that the violation was no longer ongoing—the FEMAT had concluded its work and submitted its report—the only nondeclaratory remedy the court could grant was to enjoin the Administration from relying upon the FEMAT report in promulgating regulations implementing the Administration’s “Forest Plan for a Sustainable Economy and a Sustainable Environment.” The President chose this plan from among a list of options which where developed by the FEMAT and contained in its Report. The problem, according to the \textit{Espy} court, was that such a remedy would raise a serious separation of powers question, for the court doubted its constitutional ability to restrict the President or the Cabinet from relying on any advice, from any source, “however irregular.”\textsuperscript{447}

To avoid that difficult separation-of-powers issue, the \textit{Espy} court provided only declaratory relief. This relief did not interfere with the President’s ability to solicit or act upon outside advice. Pragmatic concerns clearly influenced the court’s decision:

Both the Supreme Court majority in \textit{Public Citizen} and the D.C. Circuit majority in [\textit{Physicians & Surgeons}] were able, by adroit semantics and near-clairvoyant discernment of legislative intent, to avoid that drastic result in the circumstances of those cases, but not, however, without difficulty, and in doing so incurred stern disapprobation from concurring brethren who were less squeamish. . . . However, this Court has rejected the opportunities offered by defendants to engage in similar creative statutory construction and interpretation, and no others have manifested themselves

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{445} The private contractors included full-time university professors. In all, the FEMAT, counting its subdivisions, consisted of between 600 and 700 people. 846 F. Supp. at 1011.
\item \textsuperscript{446} \textit{Id.} at 1013.
\item \textsuperscript{447} \textit{Id.} at 1015.
\end{itemize}
spontaneously. Nevertheless, the importance of avoiding the constitutional issues to the last, acknowledged by both the Public Citizen and [Physicians & Surgeons] courts, must still be respected if at all possible, and the avenue by which escape lies for this Court is found in the measure of the remedy to be given on the plaintiff's complaint.44

Because the FACA prescribes no specific remedies for its violation, the court went on to explain, the court is left to exercise its own general equitable powers in fashioning a remedy. Those equitable powers, in turn, must be invoked subject to constitutional considerations. Thus, the court reasoned, constitutional considerations counsel the award of only declaratory relief to the successful plaintiffs.45 According to the Espy court: "[A]n injunction would exceed the injury presently to be redressed. There is nothing in the record to suggest that the FEMAT Report, or its advice and recommendations to the President, would have in any way been altered had FACA been complied with to the letter."430

However, the case law provides somewhat mixed signals with respect to the judicial remedies available to plaintiffs bringing successful claims under section 10 of the Act. While not all courts have followed the Espy court's escape route, two appellate courts have affirmed the denial of injunctive relief in other cases.45 On the other hand, the Court of Appeals for the Eleventh Circuit has not shied away from granting successful plaintiffs injunctive relief for violation of the FACA. In Alabama-Tombigbee Rivers v. Department of the Interior,452 the Interior Department's Fish and Wildlife Service (FWS) had proposed a rule listing Alabama Sturgeon on the endangered species list, following a report supplied to the FWS by a scientific advisory panel organized by the FWS, under directions from the Secretary, to assess the status of the Sturgeon. The plaintiffs were a coalition of thirty-four businesses and other organizations that operate on the Alabama and Mississippi Rivers. Concerned about the objectivity of the panel's membership, they brought a FACA claim in district court. The district court ruled in their favor and enjoined the FWS from "publishing, employing and relying upon the Advisory Committee report . . . for any purpose whatsoever, directly or indirectly, in the process of determining whether or not to list the Alabama Sturgeon as an endangered species."453

The Eleventh Circuit affirmed. Sharing with the Espy court the premise

448. Id. at 1014 (citations omitted).
449. Id. at 1014-15.
450. 846 F. Supp. at 1015.
451. See Microbiological Criteria, 886 F.2d at 419; National Nutritional Foods Ass'n v. Califano, 603 F.2d 327 (2d Cir. 1979).
452. 26 F.3d 1103 (11th Cir. 1994).
453. Id. at 1105.
that, because the FACA prescribes no specific remedy for its violation, courts must rely on their equitable powers when fashioning relief, the appellate court concluded that "to allow the government to use the product of a tainted procedure would circumvent the very policy that serves as the foundation of the Act." Moreover, the court added, only injunctive relief "carries the sufficient remedial effect to ensure future compliance with the FACA's clear requirements." In reaching this conclusion, the court did not indicate whether in its view the importance of injunctive relief trumped any separation-of-powers concerns, or whether instead separation-of-powers concerns were simply misplaced.

Yet, Alabama-Tombigbee Rivers represents the minority approach. In a post-Espy, consolidated case, Seattle Audubon Society v. Lyons (again challenging the legality of the FEMAT's forest-management plan, but this time by environmental groups rather than by the loggers' association), the court specifically considered and then rejected the plaintiffs' request for an injunction prohibiting the government from relying upon the FEMAT's report. The Seattle Audubon Society court determined that injunctive relief would be inappropriate in large part because the FEMAT report "was circulated during [a] ninety-day public comment period and was subjected to public comments and criticisms, including those by [some of the plaintiffs]." Similarly, in National Nutritional Foods v. Califano, after having held that the FDA violated the FACA by convening a group of nutrition experts who developed proposals to respond to perceived dangers of liquid protein diets, the court refused to enjoin the FDA from using the fruits of the experts' deliberations. The court explained, in a passage later quoted by the Seattle Audubon Society court:

[N]o court has held that a violation of FACA would invalidate a regulation adopted under otherwise appropriate procedures, simply because it stemmed from the advisory committee's recommendations, or even that pending rulemaking must be aborted and a fresh start made. . . . Applicable rulemaking procedures afford

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454. Id. at 1107.
455. Id.
456. In National Nutritional Foods Ass'n, 603 F.2d at 336, the Second Circuit considered the appropriateness of injunctive relief for violation of the Act, but concluded that relief enjoining the FDA from relying on tainted advice was inappropriate given (1) that the agency had acted on a good faith belief that the advisory group in question was not an advisory committee under the FACA, (2) that the agency agreed not to reconvene the group, (3) that the agency had only proposed regulations, and (4) that, according to the court, normal rulemaking processes would "afford ample opportunity to correct infirmities resulting from improper advisory committee action." Id.
458. 871 F. Supp. at 1310.
459. See supra text accompanying note 203.
460. 871 F. Supp. at 1309-10. See also id. at 1310 ("Here, as in National Nutritional, . . . the procedures afforded ample opportunity to correct infirmities.")
ample opportunity to correct infirmities resulting from improper advisory-committee action prior to the proposal.\footnote{61}

Indeed, even in *Alabama-Tombigbee Rivers*, the court did not compel the agency to "undo" anything it had done; the court certainly did not invalidate a promulgated rule. Rather, the court enjoined the agency from using the panel report before the agency had distributed and formally relied upon that report's conclusions. In this light, *Alabama-Tombigbee Rivers* represents one end of a continuum more than it represents an isolated alternative approach to the remedies question, for courts have consistently suggested that injunctive relief is appropriate in the context of a challenge brought contemporaneously with the offending advisory committee's activities. So in *Seattle Audubon Society*, for example, the court remarked that the "FACA can and should be enforced by injunctive relief during the process; that is, by an order requiring that a proposed or existing committee comply with the statute."\footnote{62} This approach makes considerable sense, for injunctive relief in the context of an ongoing FACA violation is a remedy commensurate with the injury in question. It is most unlikely, for example, that courts would hesitate to enjoin an agency from holding advisory-committee meetings in violation of section 10's various openness requirements until the agency ensured compliance with those requirements.

III. Conclusions and Recommendations

The foregoing analysis of the Federal Advisory Committee Act yields mixed results, but the results are more positive than negative: By and large, the FACA and its regulations appear to serve the Act's original purposes in an effective and efficient manner. Nothing in the Act's case law, and nothing that agency personnel with the greatest understanding of how the FACA is administered have identified, suggests any basis for a fundamental restructuring of its basic framework. Furthermore, while the Act has over the years raised several significant constitutional questions, the Supreme Court's interpretations of "utilize" and the Unfunded Mandates Act's exemption of state and local officials (certainly as interpreted by the OMB) go far to avoid the most serious constitutional problems the FACA may have once presented.

What is more, according to a recent Annual Report of the President,\footnote{63} the FACA's administrative expenses cost the federal government approximately $133 million annually, a trifle for the quantity and range of advice and

462. 871 F. Supp. at 1309.
463. GENERAL SERVICES ADMINISTRATION, supra note 188, at 3.}
recommendations that price seems to buy. Whether or not fully appreciated by those who passed the Act, the main virtue of the FACA is that it enables the federal government to solicit what is tantamount to free advice.

The Act, however, is not only an economic bargain. It also seems to promote openness, participation, and accountability in regulatory decisionmaking, thus enhancing the political legitimacy of the administrative state. Additionally, the Act helps to ensure that such participation is unbiased and evenhanded, thereby minimizing the danger of illicit influence on agency decisionmaking. These virtues are interdependent. Because self-serving advice, however cheap, is no bargain, it is crucial that balance, evenhandedness, and openness continue to be promoted in advisory-committee activities.

While the interpretation, implementation, and administration of the Act have for the most part contributed to the success of the FACA, it is also true that a review of the case law and the results of the agency survey suggest several innovations that could improve the Act’s effectiveness while advancing its underlying goals. Although some imaginable innovations would require difficult trade-offs between administrative-efficiency values, on one hand, and participation and openness values, on the other, certain improvements would largely further both sets of values simultaneously. Such innovations warrant serious consideration—by Congress, the GSA, the White House, the courts, and by agencies themselves.

First of all, the scope of the Act has generated considerable uncertainty. This uncertainty is partly due to elements of the definition of “advisory committee” that are unclear, and in part to the improbable implications of giving that language its full literal effect (not only with respect to constitutional issues that might then arise but also from inferred imperatives of normal, and desirable, government practice). Because advisory committees, without differentiation among them, are subject to the full range of the Act’s requirements, some courts have often strained to interpret the Act’s language to exempt certain groups or types of groups providing advice to the government from strictures that would effectively prohibit the government from obtaining benign outside counsel. Other courts, however, have at times evidenced a somewhat different balance between the value of facilitating interchange between outside groups and the government and the value of “government in the sunshine.” These courts seem more willing to give broad effect to the definition in order to bring more groups under the umbrella of the FACA. Unfortunately, these seemingly competing approaches leave agencies somewhat confused, a confusion aggravated by courts’ unwillingness to defer to the GSA’s regulations interpreting the Act.

464. To this figure, the government’s cost of defending the FACA suits must also be added in order to get a true picture of the total costs of the Act. This additional cost is not great. According to Department of Justice lawyers who handle the government’s FACA litigation, only a few FACA cases, if any, are on the government’s docket at any given time.
The relative values of openness and the facilitation of communication between agencies and outside parties are appropriately determined by Congress. The FACA’s current definition of “advisory committee,” however, is not a convincing statement of such a determination. Moreover, it is probably true that attitudes with regard to those values have changed since the Act’s passage. Congress should clarify and update the definition of “advisory committee,” making perfectly clear, among other things, that parties like technical peer reviewers and ordinary government consultants are not subject to the Act.

In the meantime, the GSA, as the agency charged with overseeing the Act, should provide leadership with respect to the definition of advisory committee. Specifically, the GSA should amend section 101-6.1003 of its regulations both to bring the definition of “utilize” in that section into harmony with the case law on the meaning of “utilize” and to emphasize that under Public Citizen agencies are quite free to receive advice from previously established, independent groups. The GSA should also amend subsection 101-6.1004(l) to clarify the distinction between advice, on the one hand, and facts or information, on the other. Similarly, the GSA should reexamine subsection 101-6.1004(i) to ensure its consistency with recent case law indicating that “consensus” is not a sine qua non for triggering the Act. And finally, the GSA should promulgate regulations making clear that peer reviewers and contractors are outside of the Act’s scope unless they behave as ordinary advice-giving members of an advisory committee. GSA codification of judicial signals concerning the Act’s applicability would help to make clear both that ordinary consultants are not subject to the Act, and that simply hiring a consultant to behave as an advisory-committee member will not suffice to avoid the Act. Such an approach would advance administrative-efficiency goals by avoiding duplicative administrative requirements while preserving the Act’s openness and accountability goals by ensuring that agencies cannot short-circuit the Act with a contract. Indeed, in each of these areas, more guidance from the GSA with respect to activities outside of the Act’s scope would avoid unnecessary confusion without jeopardizing other important values such as balance and openness.

The GSA should also promulgate new regulations permitting agencies to exploit new technologies such as electronic bulletin boards in order to provide cheaper and more effective notification to interested parties of the pending establishment of an advisory committee, as well as notice of advisory-committee meetings and agenda. Existing notice requirements are both too narrow and too broad. They are too narrow in being limited to the Federal Register. And despite the FACA’s requirement for GSA regulations to provide for broader notice, GSA has not provided guidance. Regular targeted notice in additional fora would likely mean more effective notice. Parties interested in advisory committees that potentially affect them would not have
to rely exclusively on their own monitoring of the Federal Register to
discover whether meetings are planned. Instead, they could, for example,
monitor the appropriate electronic bulletin board—a cheaper and much less
cumbersome task. To that extent, encouraging more targeted notice
techniques requires no painful trade-off between efficiency and participation
values.

At the same time, the FACA’s notice requirements are too broad in that
they do not provide for alternative forms of notice in lieu of Federal Register
publication. This problem is particularly acute in the case of meetings which
are regularly closed, as is true with many peer-review panels. Moreover,
some proposed advisory committees’ activities will affect only a narrow set of
interests, with respect to a rather narrow policy issue or in a discrete
geographical area. In both such cases, the Federal Register’s net is wastefully
wide. Arguably, a need remains for formal notice of meetings, whether open
or closed. However, the cost and inefficiency of Federal Register notice
suggests that in this electronic age a different form of formal notice (possibly
posting on the agency’s Internet home page, for example) should suffice. Of
course, this issue is hardly limited to notice of the FACA meetings or the
FACA at all. Nevertheless, Congress (or the GSA) need not wait to make
global solutions before improving this aspect of the Act.

Accordingly, subsections 101-6.1015(a)(1) and 101-6.1015(b) of the
GSA’s regulations should be revisited. If necessary, Congress should amend
section 9(a)(2) of the Act for the same reason. Employed appropriately,
targeted notice techniques could minimize the costs of the Act’s requirements
while at the same time facilitating participation in advisory-committee
activities by reducing interested parties’ burdens of keeping abreast of those
activities. Agencies should employ alternative notice techniques whenever,
but only whenever, the activities of a particular advisory committee would
interest only a narrow constituency and notice in the Federal Register would
therefore be wasteful. Furthermore, agencies employing alternative notice
techniques should have the burden of establishing that their notice was
adequate to reach potentially interested parties. Notice requirements for
meetings that will be closed should also be relaxed, again by the GSA and, if
necessary, by Congress. Their costs bring no openness benefits.

465. See generally Bruce Maxwell, Washington Online: How to Access the Federal
Government on the Internet (1995); Bruce Maxwell, Washington Online: How to Access the
466. According to the NSF, it spends approximately $60,000 per year in direct costs and $75,000
per year in staff time to satisfy notice requirements of meetings that are closed. And according to the
NIH, it has published meetings notices in the Federal Register for over 2,000 closed meetings. Several
agencies close their committees’ meetings more often than not. See Appendix A Question 48.
467. The Federal Register had 13,750 subscribers as of January of this 1995. Telephone Interview
with General Accounting Office Marketing Department (Mar. 14, 1995).
468. Absent notice of a closed meeting, an interested party might never discover that a meeting
had ever been held, even if that meeting was closed improperly.
In addition, the GSA should strive to consolidate agencies' chartering and reporting obligations under section 9 of the Act, sections 101-6.1007, 101-6.1009(c), 101-6.1013, 101-6.1017(b), and 101-6.1035 of the regulations, as well as those under EO 12,838 and OMB Circular A-135. Agencies' reporting obligations could be profitably streamlined given that in several cases, these requirements ask for redundant information. As agency committee management officers and the GSA have recognized, the information required under OMB Circular A-135 and that required for the GSA's annual report overlap substantially. Streamlining would save on administrative costs without jeopardizing openness and accountability; redundant paperwork requirements compromise the administrative efficiency of advisory committees while achieving no offsetting benefits in the form of greater openness or participation. The efforts of the Interagency Committee on Federal Advisory Committee Management in this regard should be encouraged and promoted.

Finally, and not least of all, the GSA should add to or amend its regulations to provide courts with law to apply to determine whether agencies have satisfied the "fairly balanced" requirements of section 5(b)(2) of the Act and sections 101-6.1007(2)(iii) and 101-6.1015(a)(1) of the regulations. The current judicial treatment of the "fairly balanced" requirement is not only unnecessarily confusing but it also seriously jeopardizes the Act's openness and participation goals. Specifically, the GSA should consider adding a subsection to 101-6.1009, "Responsibilities of an agency head," providing specific criteria according to which agencies establishing an advisory committee can ensure that proposed committees are fairly balanced in furtherance of one of the Act's central purposes. Such a subsection could instruct agencies to consider first the interests likely to be directly affected by an agency's ultimate approach to the issue with respect to which the agency seeks advice or recommendation, taking into account factors such as: (i) the interests that are most directly affected by that agencies' decisions, (ii) the interests that are most directly implicated by the specific statute(s) or regulation(s) under which the agency is contemplating action about which it seeks advice/recommendations, (iii) the interests that typically seek to influence agency decisions of a similar nature through participation in the kinds of agency decisionmaking processes employed once the agency decided to act in one way or another on the matter, and (iv) the identity of parties who have in the past indicated an interest in advisory-committee activities concerning related subject matter. Such a subsection might further instruct agencies to compile a list of parties who commonly represent the interests so identified, and to communicate with representatives of those parties concerning the proposed establishment of an advisory committee, much as is already contemplated in section 101-6.1015.
Admittedly, whether an agency satisfied such guiding criteria would present a fact-specific question, not resolvable in the abstract. But in the context of a particular case, regulations providing agencies with instructions on the establishment of a “fairly balanced” committee would provide a judicial metric according to which section 5(b)(2) claims could be assessed. Moreover, such a metric need not be finely calibrated. Precision is not necessary for a 5(b)(2) claim to be justiciable; close questions could be resolved in favor of the agency, leaving the appointment of committee members largely, but not entirely, to the discretion of the appointing agency official. So long as the agency could show that it followed regulatory guidance by appointing committee members mindful of the specific interests likely to be affected by a decision on the particular issue with respect to which the agency seeks advice, courts could conclude that section 5(b)(2) and its related regulations were satisfied. At the same time, regulatory instruction concerning how an agency is to seek to establish a fairly balanced committee would provide courts with law to apply. Thus, egregious omissions from a committee’s membership could be corrected, and one of the central goals of the Act could be judicially safeguarded. What is more, such guidance would, by codifying in the interest of justiciability some of the very efforts agencies already undertake informally, promote participation and balance values without imposing onerous new administrative burdens on agencies.

As for 5(b)(3), claims under 5(b)(3) should be subsumed by 5(b)(2), for reasons explained above. Plaintiffs who bring a successful 5(b)(2) claim do not need 5(b)(3), and plaintiffs who could not show an absence of fair balance probably could not show special interest capture. Thus, section 5(b)(3) need do no independent work. More guidance on section 5(b)(2) alone would adequately vindicate the Act’s goal of providing even-handed advice to the executive branch. Moreover, the subsuming of 5(b)(3) by 5(b)(2) would avoid administrative and judicial uncertainties surrounding the satisfaction of two separate, but closely overlapping, requirements.

Agencies, for their part, should better recognize the lesson of Public Citizen and its progeny, which gives them fairly wide latitude to communicate with preexisting, independent groups without triggering the Act. In addition, agencies employing committees whose activities do not promote participation and openness by supplying advice to agencies on specific policy matters should not automatically assume that those committees are subject to the Act. For example, given that no court has held that scientific peer-review groups are covered by the Act, and given also that such committees would seem to fall within the category of “operational” committees not subject to the Act (which category has received judicial sanction), agencies should not necessarily assume that technical peer-review committees, such as those convened by the National Institute of Health and

469. Cf. Microbiological Criteria, 886 F.2d at 430-31 (Silberman, J., concurring).
the National Science Foundation, are subject to the FACA. On policy grounds, the case for administering peer review outside of the FACA is especially strong for those peer-review committees whose deliberations are categorically closed and whose deliberations and reports routinely fall within Sunshine and FOIA exceptions, as contemplated by subsections 10(b) and 10(d) of the Act. Chartering such committees, whose missions usually do not implicate substantive policy issues, creates administrative burdens without offsetting openness or participation benefits. Again, the GSA and/or the Office of Legal Counsel (as necessary to interpret the Sunshine Act and the FOIA) should provide explicit guidance on the type of peer-review committees that fall outside of the FACA's scope. In addition, agencies should understand that consultants are not subject to the FACA, insofar as (and only insofar as) agencies do not hire consultants to participate in the production of policy advice as an end-around the Act. Finally, agencies that wish to rely on the "individual advice" exception from the FACA should make and retain records detailing both the agency's desire for individual advice from the members and its actions to assure that only such advice is received.

With regard to the White House, the Administration should view the FACA as a useful tool for promoting its goals of reducing regulatory costs while promoting consensus-oriented decisionmaking. Unfortunately, the White House so far has sent mixed signals about how advisory committees fit within its vision of reinvented government.470 As the agency survey reveals, these mixed signals have generated understandable frustration among agency personnel. Insofar as its regulatory policy goals include reducing federal management costs while promoting participation and open government, advisory committees are fully compatible with the Administration's goals. This is not to say that the White House should not ensure through executive oversight that advisory committees are dissolved when they are no longer useful. But oversight can be achieved through more productive means than advisory-committee ceilings, for often creation of an advisory committee provides citizens with cost-effective access to their government. In other words, the Administration's goal of promoting consensus-based regulatory decisionmaking could be advanced by greater, not lesser, use of the FACA. While the policies underlying EO 12,838, OMB Circular A-135, and other similar White-House directives are laudable, they are not effectively advanced by the establishment of advisory-committee ceilings. Simply put, the number of ceilings that any given agency "should" have cannot be determined in the abstract. Rather, whether an agency should establish a committee depends

470. As one congressional staff person astutely observed during the course of our research, "the FACA means pain for the Administration." This is probably true, given the bad press for the Administration generated by the Physicians & Surgeons case. If true, this association of the FACA with pain is unfortunate, for in fact the Act in many ways embodies the Administration's regulatory-policy goals.
upon whether the advice or recommendations the committee would generate would be worth the agency’s trouble. This determination depends crucially upon the particular circumstances at hand.

Worse yet, some of the Administration’s most important regulatory policy goals are actually thwarted by strictly enforced ceilings. The March 4, 1995 White-House memorandum instructing agencies to “negotiate, don’t dictate,” for example, stands in considerable tension with restrictions on advisory committees that, but for the OMB’s ceilings, would be chartered precisely to engage in consensus-building regulatory decisionmaking. Nor does the March 4 memorandum constitute an isolated signal about the Administration’s regulatory priorities. Its call for greater use of regulatory negotiation and other consensus-based decisionmaking techniques is found not only in the National Performance Review, but also in EO 12,866 and EO 12,875—both of which also direct agencies to make greater use of consultation. How agencies are to heed both sets of commands simultaneously is thus not altogether clear. To the extent agencies seek to expand their efforts towards consensus-based decisionmaking techniques, they face the constraint of advisory-committee ceilings. To the extent they seek to meet the Administration’s goals of reducing the number of advisory committees, on the other hand, their ability to initiate regulatory consultation and negotiation is significantly limited. In response, some agencies seem to have adopted a “don’t ask, don’t tell” stance towards advisory-committee formation, formally combining committees to reduce their tally, stretching the regulation’s “operational” committees exception, hiring consultants where they might otherwise prefer a chartered committee, and so on.

Fortunately, this tension has not escaped the Administration’s notice. Indeed, even in his March 4 memorandum, the President stated explicitly: “I will amend EO 12,838 to allow for advisory committees established for negotiated rulemakings.” Shortly thereafter, a memorandum from the Director of the GSA’s Committee Management Secretariat also indicated that the Administration was considering an amendment to EO 12,838 to expand the use of negotiated rulemaking committees.” Such an exclusion, however, has not been provided as of yet. Moreover, as indicated in agencies’ survey responses, slightly fewer than one-third of all agencies have “ever conducted a negotiated rulemaking.” Excluding committees chartered under the Negotiated Rulemaking Act from agency ceilings thus would not go very far to resolve the more general tension between the White House’s efforts to

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471. See supra note 13.
472. See supra note 12.
475. See 41 C.F.R. § 101-6.1004(g).
476. See supra note 13.
477. See Appendix A Question 18.
promote public participation in regulatory decisionmaking, on the one hand, and its efforts to reduce agency reliance on advisory committees, on the other hand. The White House should do more to encourage consensus-based decisionmaking under the FACA.

None of this is to suggest, however, that only advisory committees involved in consensus-based regulatory decisionmaking are worth the federal dollar. To the contrary, the use of advisory committees not convened for the purpose of a negotiated rulemaking, including some established primarily to advise agencies on narrow technical questions, should also be encouraged in several areas. The National Institute of Health's advisory committees provide one of many available examples of how agencies can benefit from the use of advisory committees. According to agency personnel, members of NIH's "initial review groups" (IRGs)—advisory committees that conduct the agency's first-tier peer review—spend approximately forty-five days per year (excluding any necessary site visits and any mail or telephone exchanges related to reviews) reviewing the technical details of grant applications and proposals and preparing comments, in anticipation of periodic IRG meetings. Once the individual advisory-committee members have completed their own reviews, they assemble for a meeting to make their determinations with respect to NIH grants and contracts. In return for their work, these members are paid by the agency for the time they actually serve at the IRG meetings, which amounts to nine days per year on average. Clearly, the federal government should make use of as many such groups as possible.

The Department of Transportation's Commercial Space Transportation Advisory Committee (COMSTAC) provides another compelling example of how the FACA allows agencies to solicit unremunerated expertise. Its impressive twenty-four person membership includes CEOs of major space firms, as well as such luminaries as a vice-president of Rockwell International, the president of the International Association of Machinists, the Director of Satellite Communications of AT&T, and the Lieutenant Governor of Colorado. The Committee and its subgroups meet regularly and write comprehensive reports on issues of great policy importance to the Department. They do so at the trivial cost to the Department of approximately twenty-four hundred dollars per year (the costs of travel for some of COMSTAC's members, plus printing/copying and other miscellaneous costs). Given the high costs of their time, individuals such as those on the COMSTAC are not generally available to be hired as government consultants.

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479. Whether peer-review committees should be subject to the FACA is another question, however. The important point is that, through the Act, the government can enlist the resources of non-agency personnel for submarket prices.
Even were they so available, the cost of hiring one such person for just one year would be prohibitive. And even if the Department could afford to hire one or even a few high-caliber consultants, that alternative would sacrifice the balance achieved by a group of twenty-five individuals with varying interests. Here again, the federal government, and in turn the public, benefit from advisory-committee advice at the price of a song.

Indeed, one of the greatest benefits of the FACA is that it allows agencies to exploit incentives present in other institutions to encourage members to render advisory service to agencies for submarket pay. Because advisory-committee membership is in many circles honorific or prestigious,480 some individuals are willing to render service with little or no remuneration. To be very sure, potential members' eagerness to serve on an advisory committee may at times be motivated by ignoble goals. As already explained, worries about the proximity of some members' interests to the regulatory jurisdiction of the agencies they advised led to the FACA's passage in the first place.481 But bolstering the Act's requirements of openness and balance, rather than eliminating committees altogether, seems likely to be the best antidote to agency infiltration.

This is not to say that more advisory committees are necessarily better than fewer, but rather that, EO 12,838 and OMB Circular A-135 notwithstanding, fewer committees are not necessarily better than more. Agencies' creation of an advisory committee should not depend on strictly enforced ceilings arrived at in the abstract. Thus, the Vice President's datum that EO 12,838's ceilings have led to a savings for the federal government of $17 million might, if understood incorrectly, create misperceptions.482 While the elimination of some 300 committees since EO 12,838 was issued has meant that total expenditures for advisory committees have been reduced by $17 million, policy makers sympathetic to the Administration's goal of reducing the costs of regulatory programs will be interested most keenly in the net savings achieved by the elimination of advisory committees. And those net savings are probably less, and may be negative—depending on whether the foregone benefits of eliminated advisory committees are greater or less than their costs. Wasteful committees should be eliminated, but committees producing advice or recommendations worth their costs should be encouraged, even though those benefits are not included in FACA budget reports.

480. See, e.g., Physicians & Surgeons, 997 F.2d at 914 (noting that advisory committee membership is prestigious).

481. See, e.g., 118 CONG. REC. 30,276 (1972) ("Viewed in its worst light, the federal advisory committee can be a convenient nesting place for special interests seeking to change and preserve a federal policy for their own ends. Such committees stacked with giants in their respective fields can overwhelm a federal decision maker, or at least make him wary of upsetting the status quo.") (excerpt of Senate staff report entered into record by Sen. Percy). See also S. REP. NO. 92-1098, at 5 (1972).

Instead of advisory-committee ceilings, the White House should place greater reliance on performance measures, the chartering (and rechartering) process, and advisory-committee justification reports already required under section 7(b) of the Act and section 101-6.1009(e) of the regulations to ensure that committees do not outlive their usefulness. White-House exemption of advisory committees convened for the purposes of a regulatory negotiation from EO 12,838 and its implementing directive, OMB Circular-135, would be a welcome development in this regard, but the White House should go still further to reconcile its good-government goals.

Finally, courts should safeguard the Act's underlying principles by requiring non-complying agencies, including agencies that have chartered committees that are not fairly balanced, to suspend their advice-gathering activities until they observe the Act's requirements. But while courts should not be cavalier about the ease with which FACA violations can be ameliorated during ordinary notice-and-comment processes, neither should courts strive to wipe non-complying advice or recommendations from agencies' memories. Invalidating an otherwise unobjectionable final rule on the grounds that an agency had somewhere violated the Act would in most cases exceed the injury to be redressed. Quite apart from any constitutional concerns courts might have about sweeping injunctive relief, neither the Act's participation and accountability goals, nor its administrative-efficiency goals would be best advanced by a "Start Over" remedial approach to FACA violations. Instead, courts should require agencies to consider whatever points of view were not represented as a result of a violation—not instead of, but in addition to—the advice or recommendations generated by an agency's non-complying activities. On the other hand, judicial refusal to enjoin ongoing advisory-committee meetings held in violation of the Act's requirements would needlessly thwart the FACA's openness and participation goals. Lastly, and more generally, courts should also show some deference to GSA's resolution as to the relative weight to be given to the competing values inherent in the FACA, just as the Supreme Court deferred to EPA's resolution of the competing values of economic efficiency and clean air in adopting a "bubble" policy (at the very least until Congress itself addresses some of the issues identified here).

The interpretation, implementation, and administration of the FACA could be improved in these several ways. Such steps, if taken—and surely none of them asks too much—would further advance the Act's underlying openness and administrative-efficiency goals without requiring painful trade-offs between them. As it stands, the Act promotes both openness and efficiency fairly successfully. No act can do so perfectly, but the changes

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483. See Appendix A Questions 4-5 (large majority of agencies recharter committees at least once, and a large majority of them are rechartered at least once again).
The Federal Advisory Committee Act and Good Government described would narrow the unbridgeable gap between the ideal and the possible.
Appendix A: Federal Advisory Committee Act Agency Survey

NAME OF AGENCY: ________________________________

NAME OF AGENCY’S ADVISORY COMMITTEE MANAGEMENT OFFICER: ________________________________

NAME AND POSITION OF PERSON ANSWERING THIS SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE: ________________________________

Chartering an Advisory Committee:

1. How many of your agency’s current chartered advisory committees/subcommittees were established by your agency?

2. How many of your agency’s current chartered advisory committees/subcommittees were not established by your agency, but are nevertheless utilized by your agency? Put differently, how many of your agency’s chartered advisory committees had a previous, independent existence?

3. What percentage of your agency’s Advisory Committees have independently chartered subcommittees or independently chartered “work groups,” “task forces,” or other committee subdivisions?

    - 37 a. 0-20%
    - 0 b. 21-40%
    - 0 c. 41-60%
    - 0 d. 61-80%
    - 0 e. 81-100%

485. We distributed this survey questionnaire to 49 departments, agencies, councils, and boards (collectively, "agencies") from a list provided in the TWENTY-SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT. Department of Agriculture personnel reproduced the questionnaire and distributed it to nine agencies within the Department, increasing the list of recipient agencies to 58. Thirty-seven agencies responded. Those responding included the largest agencies, and those who rely most on federal advisory committees, such as EPA, DOT, HHS, and NSF, for examples. This Appendix reports agencies’ responses to the non-qualitative survey questions. Where the answers to a question do not add up to 37, one or more of the respondents left that question unanswered (unless that question applies only to agencies that answered a previous question in a particular way). Since our aim in presenting the survey results is simply to report how agencies view the Act, not to test some hypothesis, we recorded all answers agencies submitted, and did not exclude an agency from the tabulation if that agency did not answer every survey question. Appendix B provides examples of representative responses to the survey’s most important qualitative question, question number 55. Appendix C contains the Federal Advisory Committee Management Association’s organized, official response to the survey questionnaire.
4. What percentage of your agency's advisory committees, including chartered subcommittees, are re-chartered for at least one additional two-year period?

   a. 0-20%
   b. 21-40%
   c. 41-60%
   d. 61-80%
   e. 81-100%

5. What percentage of those re-chartered advisory committees/subcommittees are re-chartered at least once again?

   a. 0-20%
   b. 21-40%
   c. 41-60%
   d. 61-80%
   e. 81-100%

6. Does your agency currently use advisory committees statutorily or otherwise exempted from FACA?

   a. Yes
   b. No

7. If yes, approximately how many? __________

8. In your view, which best describes the FACA's chartering requirements:

   a. insufficiently stringent to aid your agency's management/oversight of its advisory committees
   b. appropriately stringent to aid your agency's oversight of its advisory committees
   c. more cumbersome than what is necessary to aid your agency's oversight of its advisory committees

9. Do you think changes in the chartering requirements would make the chartering process easier?

   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Don't Know

10. If yes, what amendments to the FACA or changes in its implementing regulations do you think would make the chartering process easier? (For this and all similar questions, feel free to attach additional pages as necessary.)

   __________________________________________________________________________________________

   __________________________________________________________________________________________

Composition of Advisory Committees:

11. Please provide a brief explanation of how, if at all, the Emoluments Clause of the U.S.
Constitution affects the composition of your agency’s advisory committees.

12. Please provide a brief description of the steps, if any, your particular agency takes with respect to the General Services Administration’s requirement, under 41 C.F.R. §101-6.1009(j), of conformity with ethics and conflict-of-interest statutes and regulations.

13. Please provide a brief description of the steps, if any, your agency takes to ensure that the advisory committees it establishes are balanced with respect to the point of view represented on them.

14. Please provide a brief description of the steps, if any, your agency takes to ensure that none of its advisory committees is unduly influenced by one special interest.

15. What percentage of your agency’s advisory committees have at least one member who is also a member of a citizens interest group, consumer interest group, or environmental interest group?
   a. 0-20%
   b. 21-40%
   c. 41-60%
   d. 61-80%
   e. 81-100%

16. What percentage of your agency’s advisory committees have only one member who is a federal officer?
   a. 0-20%
   b. 21-40%
   c. 41-60%
   d. 61-80%
   e. 81-100%
17. What percentage of your agency’s advisory committees have chartered or unchartered subcommittees that have at least one member who is not also a member of the relevant subcommittee’s full, parent committee?

   30  a. 0-20%
   2   b. 21-40%
   2   c. 41-60%
   1   d. 61-80%
   0   e. 81-100%

The FACA and Negotiated Rulemaking:

18. Has your agency ever conducted a negotiated rulemaking?

   23  a. Yes
   11  b. No

19. In your estimation, does the FACA discourage your agency’s use of and/or experimentation with negotiated rulemaking?

   16  a. Yes
   13  b. No
   3   c. Don’t Know

20. If yes, which statement best describes the extent to which the FACA discourage your agency’s use of and/or experimentation with negotiated rulemaking?

   1   a. FACA discourages use of negotiated rulemaking only slightly
   1   b. FACA is a substantial impediment to use of negotiated rulemaking
   1   c. FACA is my agency’s greatest obstacle to use of negotiated rulemaking

21. If, in your estimation, the FACA discourages your agency’s use of negotiated rulemaking procedures, which particular FACA requirements impede the use of those procedures?

   

   

22. What amendments to the FACA or changes in its implementing regulations, if any, do you think would facilitate your agency’s use of negotiated rulemaking?

   

   

541
The FACA and Federal-State Relations:

23. What percentage of your agency’s advisory committees are composed wholly of full-time state employees (aside from their designated federal officers)? Put differently, advisory committees with only full-time state employees as members constitute what percentage of your agency’s advisory committees?

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24. Does your agency frequently communicate with members of, or representatives from, state or local governments?

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25. In your estimation, does the FACA discourage communication by your agency with state and/or local government officials (elected or unelected)?

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<th>a. Yes</th>
<th>b. No</th>
<th>c. Don’t Know</th>
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<td>5</td>
<td>24</td>
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26. If yes, which statement best describes the extent to which the FACA discourages communication by your agency with state and/or local government officials?

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>a. FACA discourages such communication only slightly</th>
<th>b. FACA is a substantial impediment to such communication</th>
<th>c. FACA is my agency’s greatest obstacle to such communication</th>
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27. If, in your estimation, the FACA discourages communication by your agency with state and/or local government officials, which particular FACA requirements most impede the use of those procedures?

28. What amendments to the FACA or changes in its implementing regulations, if any, would improve your agency’s ability to communicate with state and/or local government officials?

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The Federal Advisory Committee Act and Good Government

The FACA and Peer Review:

29. Has your agency ever used peer-review processes?
   15 a. Yes  20 b. No

30. In your estimation, does the FACA discourage your agency’s reliance on peer-review processes?
   6 a. Yes  16 b. No  11 c. Don’t Know

31. If yes, which statement best describes the extent to which the FACA discourages your agency’s reliance on peer review?
   4 a. FACA discourages our agency’s use of peer review only slightly
   2 b. FACA is a substantial impediment to our agency’s use of peer review
   0 c. FACA is my agency’s greatest obstacle to our agency’s use of peer review

32. If, in your estimation, the FACA discourages the use of peer review by your agency, which particular FACA requirements do so most?

33. What amendments to the FACA or changes in its implementing regulations, if any, would facilitate use of peer review?

Agency-GSA/OMB Relations:

34. Please provide a brief description of the main ways in which your agency’s AC guidelines, promulgated pursuant to §8(a) of the FACA, supplement or otherwise differ from the General Services Administrations regulations, 41 C.F.R. §101-6.1001 et seq.

35. What percentage of your agency’s proposals for the creation of a chartered advisory committee submitted to the General Services Administration, as contemplated by 41 C.F.R. §101-6.1007(c), are reviewed unfavorably by the General Services Administration?
   35 a. 0-20%
   0 b. 21-40%
   0 c. 41-60%
   0 d. 61-80%
   0 e. 81-100%
36. What percentage of those proposals nevertheless lead to the creation of an advisory committee as contemplated by 41 C.F.R. §101-6.1007(d)?

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>a. 0-20%</th>
<th>b. 21-40%</th>
<th>c. 41-60%</th>
<th>d. 61-80%</th>
<th>e. 81-100%</th>
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37. Which statement best describes the frequency with which your agency communicates with the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) specifically on FACA-related matters?

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>a. very rarely or never</th>
<th>b. occasionally, but not regularly</th>
<th>c. regularly</th>
<th>d. on an on-going basis</th>
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38. Please describe the nature of those communications, if any.

____________________________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________________

Agency Management/Oversight of Advisory Committees:

39. Which statement best describes the allocation of advisory committee oversight duties in your agency between your agency’s advisory committee management officer and the head of your agency?

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>a. head of agency performs most of substantive oversight duties, with advisory committee management officer providing administrative support</th>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>b. substantive oversight duties shared roughly evenly by head of agency and advisory committee management officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>c. advisory committee management officer performs most of substantive duties, with head of agency serving a largely ministerial role</td>
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40. Which statement best describes your agency’s general counsel’s role in overseeing your agency’s advisory committees?

   a. general counsel plays minor or no substantive role in oversight of agency’s advisory committees
   b. general counsel plays significant but not dominant role in oversight of agency’s advisory committees
   c. general counsel plays dominant role in oversight of agency’s advisory committees

Executive Order 12,838:

41. Has your agency established any advisory committees since the issuance of Executive Order 12,838?

   a. Yes     20   b. No

42. If yes, please provide a brief description of the steps your agency has taken to conform to Executive Order 12,838’s higher, “compelling considerations” standard (EO 12,838 §3(a)) for establishing an advisory committee?

Public Participation in Advisory Committee and Subcommittee Proceedings:

43. Does your agency ever provide notice of its advisory committees’ meetings in any publication besides the Federal Register?

   a. Yes     14   b. No

44. If yes, how often?

   a. rarely  0   b. sometimes  7   c. very frequently  16

45. If yes, please also list one or two example publications in which such notice is published.

__________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________

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46. Please provide a brief description of how, if at all, your agency seeks to ensure an opportunity for public participation in your agency’s advisory committees’ proceedings?

________________________________________________________________________

47. Please provide a brief description of how, if at all, your agency seeks to ensure an opportunity for public participation in your agency’s advisory committees’ subcommittees’ proceedings?

________________________________________________________________________

48. What percentage of your agency’s advisory committees close one or more of their meetings pursuant to §10(d)’s incorporation of the Sunshine Act’s exemptions (5 U.S.C. §552b(c))? 
   a. 0-20%
   b. 21-40%
   c. 41-60%
   d. 61-80%
   e. 81-100%

49. Where, if anywhere besides the Library of Congress, are records of your advisory committees’ records, minutes, reports, background papers, studies, data, etc., maintained for public inspection?

________________________________________________________________________

50. What percentage of your agency’s advisory committees have unchartered subcommittees that meet at least as often as their full, parent committee?
   a. 0-20%
   b. 21-40%
   c. 41-60%
   d. 61-80%
   e. 81-100%

51. What percentage of your agency’s advisory committees have chartered subcommittees that meet at least as often as their full, parent committee?
   a. 0-20%
   b. 21-40%
   c. 41-60%
   d. 61-80%
   e. 81-100%

52. What percentage of your agency’s advisory committees have unchartered
The Federal Advisory Committee Act and Good Government

subcommittees that meet privately?

a. 0-20%
b. 21-40%
c. 41-60%
d. 61-80%
e. 81-100%

53. What percentage of your agency's advisory committees have chartered subcommittees that meet privately?

a. 0-20%
b. 21-40%
c. 41-60%
d. 61-80%
e. 81-100%

54. What amendments to the FACA or changes in its implementing regulations, if any, do you think would increase public participation in advisory committee/subcommittee proceedings in a cost-effective way?

General Comments:

55. Please comment on any aspects of the FACA or any FACA-related issues—especially aspects of the Act and issues not implicated by the above questions—that you think warrant amendment of the Act or changes in its implementation.
Appendix B: Representative Responses to Survey Question 55

"OMB Circular No. A-135 should be withdrawn. This Circular places ceilings on discretionary committees and requires agencies to predict what committees they might need in the coming year. Again, ceilings create a loss of time. Should a committee be needed and the agency can't eliminate any of their other committees, OMB would have to find a slot. An important task may not get completed in time waiting for this process to take place. Second, although it might be possible to know of an upcoming need for a committee, there is no way for any agency to accurately predict what committees might be necessary in the upcoming year."

"Requirements for annual reports should be combined into one report. As most information required by OMB Circular No.-135 is already contained in the Annual Report to the President, it would not be difficult to consolidate these two requirements. Closed meeting reports aren't submitted to GSA so it may be more difficult to combine this report into the annual report submitted to GSA. However, this report should be reviewed to see if the information is actually being used and, if not, determine the need for its continuation."

*I* * * * *

"I have been associated with federal advisory committee management long before FACA was enacted, and have first hand knowledge of what it was like before FACA and what it has been like since FACA. It is my belief that FACA was needed before as well as now. However, what is not needed are the controls we're having to contend with from OMB and GSA over the number of advisory committee in our inventory. It has gotten to the point where OMB is deciding for department/agency heads whether or not they can seek advice from experts outside the federal government regardless of the mandate/mission. I do not believe this was the intent of Congress when FACA became law."

"Also, I would like to raise the question of who is better qualified to determine what is needed to accomplish the mission of a particular program than the head of that department or agency? Example, when a department head (who is a member of the President's cabinet, and is confirmed by the Senate, I might add) is asked by top program officials to make a decision as to how a particular congressional mandate is to be carried out, and is provided briefing papers which contains a discussion, options, pros and cons on the situation, recommendations, etc., and that department head makes a determination that advice from a group composed of experts from the private sector is what is needed--why must that cabinet level official be required to send a letter of justification for that decision to another cabinet level official requesting approval to establish that advisory committee? This is one example of the kind of micromanagement we're having to contend with."

*I* * * *

"I helped draft the comments of the Federal Advisory Committee Management Association, and I fully concur with those recommendations. I would also like to reiterate that:"
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1) Advisory committees are a very low cost option for getting professional and technical advice. If we were to contract for such services, we would only be able to hire limited expertise and, as a regulatory agency, would not have the benefit of face to face discussions with all of the affected parties. Contracting for advice is also a much more expensive option for scarce budget dollars.

2) Advisory committees are an excellent tool for increasing public involvement in federal decisionmaking which is a primary goal of this Administration.

3) The primary responsibility for determining the number and range of advisory committees should be within the purview of each individual agency. Future budget limitations will serve as sufficient inhibitors to reduce numbers and costs.”

* * *

“In spite of the criticism that the language of the Federal Advisory Committee Act (FACA) is broad and ambiguous in part, the Act has served government agencies and the public well for 23 years. Also, it should be noted that, prior to the Clinton Administration, the subject was given little attention in the press and the Act’s existence was unknown to many government officials. The Administration’s efforts to cut government costs, streamline and involve the public to make government leaner and more responsive to State and local governments and the public in general, have made FACA front page news commencing with the President’s Health Reform initiative.”

* * *

“The time consuming chartering process has become the biggest barrier to public participation. Quite often committees are needed immediately and the Agency’s approval procedure may take 2 months, in addition to the 2-3 months needed to obtain OMB approval. If the Agency is over-ceiling or at-ceiling, OMB will likely say “No.” Therefore, agency staff do not contact the CMO regarding chartering; instead they hold meetings that do not trigger FACA (individual opinions rather than collective advice). Such meetings do not always meet the Agency’s needs, nor do they ensure maximum public participation. But they do happen much quicker by avoiding the ‘Mother May I’ red-tape.”

* * *

“Applying FACA requirements equally to peer-review panels and general advisory committees has always been awkward. FACA is intended to open to public participation and scrutiny the agencies’ receipt of policy or program advice from sources outside the federal government and to prevent undue influence on government policy-making.”

“FACA does not fit peer-review panels. Panels provide advice from outside persons, but they are narrowly focused on individual research proposals, not policy. Moreover, the openness so crucial to general advisory committees is inappropriate to panel
reviews."

* * *

"Emphasize National Performance Review principle of evidence, direction, leadership rather than control, micro-management (this should apply to the Administration (especially OMB/somewhat GSA) and Congress, both.)"

* * *

"The most difficult part of FACA is its attempt to be all things to all committees. A classic case was the attempt several years ago to amend FACA to impose severe financial reporting/conflict of interest rules. That amendment, had it passed, would have required an enormous amount of paperwork that we could not have managed without great difficulty (agency with fewer than 100 staff and more than 600 advisory committee members) and that would have caused us difficulty in recruiting members, who reasonably could have asked, 'Why such rules for an agency that makes no grants, enforces no regulations or laws?'"
The Federal Advisory Committee Act and Good Government

Appendix C: Letter from FACMA

Professor Steven P. Croley
The University of Michigan Law School
428 Hutchins Hall
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109-1215

Dear Professor Croley:

On behalf of the Federal Advisory Committee Management Association (FACMA), I am pleased to forward the enclosed response to the Federal Advisory Committee Act Agency Survey.

As you may know, the FACMA is an association of committee management officers and other journeyman professionals who administer committee management programs in federal departments and agencies. The organization was formed in 1980 and has been consulted and has offered advice in the past on a number of significant issues which have affected the advisory committee community. For example, the members commented on the then proposed GSA Rule, (41 CFR, Part 101-6) in 1986, made recommendations to GSA concerning the annual reporting requirement, and assisted GSA in achieving uniform cost reporting. In 1989 our members testified before the Senate Committee on Governmental Affairs concerning proposed FACA amendments (S-444).

At our July, 1995 meeting we discussed at length the survey you distributed to our respective agencies. Since the FACMA members have common views and concerns which go beyond the survey’s impact on any particular agency, we considered it appropriate to formulate a collective response which focuses on the substantive issues in the narrative questions. The enclosed commentary represents the combined views of our members, whose organizations make up most of the Executive Branch departments and agencies. We trust that this response will be helpful to you in evaluating the views of the advisory committee community with regard to the FACA, and the manner in which it is implemented.

Sincerely,

Henry J. Gioia
President

Enclosure
55. General Comments:

The Federal Advisory Committee Act (FACA) has served government agencies and the public well for 23 years, bringing government decisionmaking out in the open and allowing for substantial citizen participation. The federal government and the nation have benefited greatly from the knowledge and expertise of public citizens who give freely of their time by serving on FACA advisory committees. Using FACA committee members to provide expertise not resident in the federal government is generally more cost-effective than hiring individual consultants because many committee members do not receive compensation for their services and some even pay for their own travel expenses.

The Act works well for a very broad range of advisory committees. FACA's very success in assisting government managers to resolve contentious issues by including the affected parties in the decisionmaking process has spawned such new concepts as the Negotiated Rulemaking Act of 1990 and EO 12,871, 'Labor-Management Partnerships. Although, this has created some administrative duplication, FACA should not be abandoned or unnecessarily revised because of its success.

The language of FACA is broad, and it is difficult to narrowly define which groups are intended to be included and which are operational or otherwise intended to be excluded. We applaud the common sense FACA exemption in 5204 of P.L. 104-4 (the Unfunded Mandates Reform Act of 1995). It allows federal officials to meet with elected state, local, and tribal officials (or their designated employees with authority to act on their behalf) acting in their official capacities regarding management or implementation of federal programs established pursuant to public law that explicitly or inherently share intergovernmental responsibilities or administration. Communication with state and/or local officials would be further improved by exempting from FACA those meetings held with local citizens, not just elected officials, for the purpose of discussing local issues, not national public policy. Rather than amending FACA, it would be far simpler to focus on other such remedies which are more within our immediate reach as outlined herewith.

For example: the GSA Rule on Committee Management could be revised (1) to clarify certain exemptions from the Act and (2) to streamline the procedures for biennial renewal of committee charters.

EO 12,838 (issued 2/10/93) which requires OMB approval of FACA committees should be rescinded because it has made the chartering process so burdensome that some agencies cannot get the citizen participation needed for good government without circumventing FACA. EO 12,838 has made public participation more difficult by the requirement for OMB approval of proposed FACA committees. This dual (OMB/GSA) review of committee establishments has delayed the chartering process by months, making it difficult to use FACA committees when advice is needed on a timely basis for critical requirements.

Circular A-135 (issued 10/5/94) which sets arbitrary ceilings limiting the number of FACA advisory committees should be withdrawn because it has made it impossible for some agencies to establish sorely needed new committees without that have not terminating currently established committees completed their objectives. It has also caused the federal government to spend more resources on advisory committee management by attempting to project what committees will be needed in the coming fiscal year, only to find that the Annual Plan changes on a monthly basis due to the current crises situations in
The Federal Advisory Committee Act and Good Government

the nation. Agency committee management officers and agency FACA attorneys have spent significant amounts of time on such activities as interpreting requirements, issuing guidance to the agencies, consulting with the program offices, advising agency management officials, preparing reports, and interacting with OMB and GSA, all in direct response to EO 12,838 and OMB A-135.

Following are several proposed changes that the Administration could make to reinvent government and streamline the process to bring relief without amending FACA.

PROPOSED CHANGES

1. Withdraw EO 12,838 which requires OMB approval of discretionary FACA committees needed by other Agency heads. Return to the “consultation” requirement with GSA as contained in FACA. In cases where there is a disagreement regarding proposed establishment, the Agency head retains final authority for establishing a particular advisory committee (as stated in the GSA Rule).

Discussion:
Section 9 of FACA requires the head of an agency to publish a notice announcing establishment of an advisory committee in the Federal Register after consultation with the Director of the CMB (which was subsequently changed to GSA in 1976 when the Committee Management Secretariat staff was moved from OMB to GSA). However, the consultation was never meant to be a red-tape obstacle in the chartering process as it has now become. One of the authors of FACA (Former Representative John S. Monagan) spoke at a Federal Bar Association seminar on 9/25/86 saying:

“I abhor the idea that this legislation . . . [FACA] may be used to delay government action, that a branch of the Executive may use it to hold up action which another branch thinks is desirable. That certainly is far from the objective of stimulating economy and efficiency in government.”

The Federal Bar Association has testified to Congress numerous times that the consultation process has unduly delayed the establishment of advisory committees. However, just prior to issuance of EO 12,838, the establishment process was functioning rather efficiently because GSA was conducting the consultation without OMB review. Some consultations were completed by GSA within a 15-day turn-around period. Now, however, the consultation process has become more burdensome than ever under the new OMB approval requirements for the chartering of all discretionary committees. Making it so difficult to obtain OMB approval to establish new advisory committees has hindered valuable consensus communications between the federal government and the citizen stakeholders in government policy. We need to revert to FACA’s consultation requirements and 5101-6.1007(c) of the GSA Rule which states “The agency head retains final authority for establishing a particular advisory committee.”

2. Withdraw OMB Circular A-15 which sets arbitrary ceilings on FACA committees and requires an annual plan justifying committees proposed to be established during the next fiscal year.

Discussion:
Ceiling limitations lead to circumvention of FACA because agency officials won’t admit to having a FACA Committee if they know it will be difficult to get OMB approval. It puts agency and department staffers in a ‘Don’t Ask-Don’t Tell’ frame of mind rather
than open government.

In addition to requiring OMB approval of proposed discretionary committees, EO 12,838 also required agencies to terminate one-third of their discretionary committees by the end of fiscal year 1993. Although more than a one-third reduction was achieved, the President directed the executive branch to exercise continued restraint in the creation and management of advisory committees. This resulted in OMB Circular A-135 setting arbitrary agency ceilings on the number of discretionary advisory committees. Getting OMB approval to exceed the ceiling is extremely time-consuming and sometimes impossible. Ceiling limitations lead to circumvention of FACA. The current budget reductions will serve to make agencies prioritize how best to spend their limited resources and minimize the number of advisory committees far better than an arbitrary ceiling.

The ceilings were derived artificially by the Director of the OMB who, upon completion of the one-third reduction of discretionary committees by federal agencies in compliance with EO 12,838, set the resultant overall number remaining as the government-wide ceiling. There was little, if any, evaluation of individual agency requirements based on rational analysis. It is interesting to note, in this respect, that the agencies overall are currently well below (494) the government-wide ceiling of 534. Therefore, further ceiling control limits will further inhibit federal officials from obtaining collective advice and recommendations at minimum cost to the taxpayers.

### Annual Plans Are Costly and Inaccurate

OMB A-135 also requires agencies to submit an annual plan regarding the committees proposed for establishment during the coming fiscal year. It is impossible for some agencies to accurately predict the number or kinds of FACA committees that may be needed during the next fiscal year because the need constantly changes. The high level agency officials who are involved in the crystal ball playing sessions required to develop the annual plan make it a very resource intensive project which may be totally different in a few months as agency priorities change.

By the time agencies receive OMB approval to establish the committees projected in their annual plans, the fiscal year is half over. Once OMB approval is granted for committees proposed in the annual plan, agencies do not have to request OBM approval again during the chartering process unless creation of these committees causes an agency to go over their ceiling. However, agencies are required to also send the OMB approved committee’s charter to GSA for review and consultation which takes an additional two weeks or more. OMB approval of newly proposed committees that were not included in the approved annual plan has taken more than two months in some agencies, delaying the establishment considerably. This needless delay in the chartering process may jeopardize the success of the project were advice and recommendations are needed quickly to resolve an emergency situation that threatens the health and safety of the nation. Thus, the OMB approval process results in a disservice to the American taxpayer by spending extra resources and causing more delays in the chartering process, or driving some groups to meet secretly because they don’t have the time or resources to spend in obtaining OMB approval to charter.

3. **Streamline the GSA Rule procedures for biennial renewal of discretionary charters.**

**Discussion:**

The FACA requires committee charters to be renewed biennially and filed with
Congress and the GSA Committee Management Secretariat. An annual report on every FACA committee is submitted to GSA at the end of each fiscal year (as required by 56(c) of FACA). The annual report to GSA provides justifications for continuing all committees that are not scheduled for termination. Therefore, it should not be necessary to submit this information to GSA CMS again when the committee charter is about to expire within months after the annual report has been submitted (as is currently required by Sec. 101-6.1029 of the GSA Rule). If the charter has been revised, the renewal charter should be filed with GSA and Congress without any additional consultation since it was justified satisfactorily in the annual report to GSA. However, if the charter was not revised, a copy of the Federal Register notice indicating the committee's renewal should be sent to CSA and the appropriate Congressional committees in lieu of submitting a renewal charter.

4. Specify in the GSA Rule exemptions in Section 101-6.1004 that peer-review committees (such as those that provide expertise and evaluation for use by an agency in selecting among competing applications or proposals for grants, fellowships, or other assistance awards) are considered operational and therefore exempt from the Act.

Discussion:
FACA was created to allow for openness and public participation and to prevent special interests from having undue influence in government policy decisions. Peer-review panels do not provide policy advice, but provide peer reviews and evaluations of grant applications and contract proposals that are required prior to federal funding. They focus on individual grant applications and contract proposals as well as research conducted at an agency where the effectiveness and efficiency of individual investigators are assessed. The panels cannot comply with the openness intent of FACA because they must protect (1) the disclosure of personal information concerning individuals which would constitute an invasion of personal privacy; (2) any confidential or proprietary information which a proposal or application contains; (3) the reviewers' right to candid review; and (4) the reviewers' right to be free from harassment or undue influence on behalf of a particular applicant or researcher. Meetings are closed and grant and contract proposal applicants' and panelists' names are not released to the public in connection with a specific review.

Including peer-review committees under FACA artificially adds large numbers of committees to the advisory committee inventory. Agencies are encouraged by the Administration and GAO to increase their use of peer-review panels, but at the same time they fall under the strict OMB ceiling. Furthermore, counting the large number of peer-review panels as advisory committees distorts the total numbers and makes it appear that advisory committees are proliferating. This results in such measures as EO 12,838 and OMB, Circular A-135.

Requiring the panels to comply with FACA adds administrative burden and cost without benefit. Therefore, agencies are disinclined to create additional panels but rather evade FACA by creating ad hoc, non-consensus groups or simply mailing out proposals for individual review.

Since the review panels are an integral and necessary part of the mission of the agencies which use them, it could be argued that they are operational and thus exempt from FACA. At some agencies, the panels do not merely advise and make recommendations—they actually determine which grant applications or contract proposals merit funding. This exemption could be accomplished by adding peer-review panels to the list in §101-6.1004 of the GSA Rule on Committee Management.

If peer review is not considered to be operational and therefore is subject to FACA,
GSA guidance should allow agencies the flexibility to decide how best to reach their customers, while complying with the spirit of FACA, by exempting such committees from certain provisions of FACA, e.g.: (1) eliminate requirement for publication of Federal Register notices for peer-review meetings where such meetings are closed consistent with the provisions of section 552(b) of title 5; (2) allow agencies to utilize alternative methods of public notice, of meetings in lieu of publication in the Federal Register; (3) eliminate the requirement for annual closed meeting reports summarizing activities of closed meetings because this same information is contained in the accomplishments section of the GSA annual report; (4) eliminate requirement for consultation with OMB and GSA prior to establishment of peer-review committees; and (5) eliminate the requirement for renewal of peer-review committees.

5. Amend Sec. 2(9) of the Negotiated Rulemaking Act (NRA) of 1990 to state that Negotiated Rulemaking Committees are not subject to the FACA charter procedures.

Discussion:
This is an excellent example of the government undermining the objectives it seeks to achieve. The President directed agencies on March 4, 1995, to substantially expand efforts to promote consensual rulemaking. Currently, negotiated rulemaking committees only amount to one percent of the total government FACA committees. The President stated: “I will amend EO 12,838 to allow for advisory committees established for negotiated rulemakings.” However, as of this date, the OMB continues to work against the President’s directive by counting negotiated rulemaking committees against the agencies’ ceilings. Because of ceiling limitations, it is impossible for some agencies to establish temporary regulatory negotiation (Reg-Neg) committees without terminating currently needed on-going committees.

Reg-Neg committees provide many long-term benefits by achieving a more cooperative relationship between the agency and other affected parties in the rulemaking process. They potentially save the government money and may reduce compliance costs. It is very cost-effective for some agencies to enlist the free help of the affected parties and thereby prevent potential law suits that are very expensive for the taxpayers.

In some ways the NRA requirements are more stringent than the FACA requirements. For example, FACA requires agencies to publish a Federal Register notice announcing the establishment of a new committee. Whereas NRA requires agencies to publish a Federal Register notice of an intent to establish a Negotiated Rulemaking committee as well as a list of the interests which will be significantly affected by the rule. Therefore, it serves no purpose for the Reg-Neg committee to go through the FACA consultation/approval process after holding the convening meetings which were held to determine whether the stakeholders are willing to negotiate in good faith. Thus, NRA should be amended to exempt Reg-Neg committees from the FACA chartering procedures so that agencies could establish these committees as needed without GSA/OMB hindrance and red-tape during the chartering process.
6. Delete provisions such as the General Government Appropriation (Sec. 611 of P.L. 103-123) prohibiting federal agencies/departments from providing joint funding to committees that benefit more than one agency.

Discussion:
Special limitations on joint funding of advisory committees are unduly inhibiting when applied to committees performing services of value to more than one agency. If such services are done through contract or under the Economy Act, more than one agency may contribute to its cost; why limit use of advisory committees where private sector advice is available, usually at less cost? Given the ceiling on creation of new advisory committees, one possibility for obtaining private sector advice, that is not precluded by the FACA itself but is not recognized in GSA regulations, is the use by one agency of another agency or agencies, advisory committees. There may be an existing advisory committee with expertise in general areas analogous to those of interest to another agency. While that committee would not normally undertake a study of a specific subject of interest to another agency, it might be willing to do so if requested by its sponsoring agency. It might even create a working group with members selected for this specific expertise.

There might even be more than one agency with an advisory committee with competence in the area of interest, so that a joint working group, reporting to each parent committee, would be a possible arrangement.

So long as the subject is generally within the scope of the sponsoring agency’s mission and that agency may make use of the advice generated in at least a peripheral way, as well as pass the advice to the requesting agency, such an arrangement seems to be consistent both with FACA and with other legislation, such as the Economy Act. If the general areas of study of advisory committees were made available, other agencies, that do not have current advisory committees in those areas but have a need for advice, would be able to research the available resources and to seek advice through existing committees of other agencies. This would be analogous to the use of umbrella committees within a single agency.