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6 IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT  
7 FOR THE DISTRICT OF ARIZONA

8 Jennifer N. Murphey, individually and on ) Case No.: 2:22-CV-01224-JJT  
9 behalf of all others similarly situated, )  
)  
10 Plaintiff, ) PLAINTIFF’S OPPOSITION TO THE  
11 v. ) FEDERAL DEFENDANTS’ MOTION  
) TO DISMISS  
12 United States of America *et al.*, )  
13 ) (Oral Argument Requested)  
14 Defendants. )

15 **INTRODUCTION**

16 I hereby submit my response in opposition to the Motion to Dismiss submitted by  
17 the federal Defendants (Doc. 40).

18 **ARGUMENT**

19 **I. Plaintiff Has Standing on All Claims**

20 **A. Plaintiff Pled Injury-in-Fact Sufficient for Standing on all Claims**

21 To establish standing, a plaintiff invoking federal jurisdiction must establish “injury  
22 in fact, causation, and a likelihood that a favorable decision will redress the plaintiff’s  
23 alleged injury.” *Lopez v. Candaele*, 622 F.3d 1112, 1121 (9th Cir. 2010). As Defendants’  
24 Motion is limited to the first element (injury-in-fact), I limit my response accordingly.

25 To establish an injury-in-fact for a pre-enforcement challenge, a plaintiff need not  
26 “first expose himself to actual arrest or prosecution to be entitled to challenge [the] statute.”  
27 *Babbitt v. United Farm Workers Nat’l Union*, 442 U.S. 289, 298 (1979) (internal quote  
28 omitted). Rather, a plaintiff must demonstrate that she has “an intention to engage in a

1 course of conduct arguably affected with a constitutional interest, but proscribed by a  
2 statute,” and that “there exists a credible threat of prosecution thereunder.” *Id.*

3 To evaluate the credibility of a threat of prosecution, courts consider 1) whether the  
4 plaintiff has articulated a concrete plan to violate the law in question; 2) whether authorities  
5 have communicated a specific warning or threat to initiate proceedings; and 3) the history  
6 of past prosecution or enforcement under the statute. *Thomas v. Anchorage Equal Rights*  
7 *Comm'n*, 220 F.3d 1134, 1139 (9th Cir. 2000) (en banc).

8 A plaintiff satisfies the “concrete plan” element where the plaintiff currently violates  
9 the law at issue. *See e.g., Oklevueha Native Am. Church of Haw., Inc. v. Holder*, 676 F.3d  
10 829, 836 (9th Cir. 2012) (Plaintiffs satisfied the concrete plan element where they “are  
11 currently violating and plan to continue to violate the CSA by purchasing and consuming  
12 marijuana”); *Valle Del Sol Inc. v. Whiting*, 732 F.3d 1006, 1015 (9th Cir. 2013) (Finding a  
13 credible threat of prosecution where the plaintiff provides, and plans to continue to provide,  
14 shelter and transportation to unauthorized aliens, actions which fell “within the plain  
15 language of [the statute’s] prohibitions[.]” (internal quotes omitted). As alleged, I currently  
16 engage and intend to continue engaging in conduct unconstitutionally proscribed by the  
17 Controlled Substances Act (CSA) and the 1961 Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs and  
18 1971 Convention on Psychotropic Substances (the Conventions). Doc. 22 ¶ 136.  
19 Accordingly, I satisfy the “concrete plan” element.

20 Courts have found, on numerous occasions, that to require a direct specific warning  
21 or threat would go against a long line of cases involving pre-enforcement standing. *See*  
22 *Valle Del Sol*, 732 F.3d at 1016 n.5 (“We [have] held that we consider, as *one* of the factors  
23 . . . ‘whether the prosecuting authorities have communicated a specific warning or threat  
24 to initiate proceedings.’ But we have never held that a specific threat is necessary to  
25 demonstrate standing.) (citing *Cal. Pro-Life Council, Inc. v. Getman*, 328 F.3d 1088, 1094  
26 (9th Cir. 2003) (Noting years of precedent recognizing the validity of pre-enforcement  
27 challenges to statutes infringing upon constitutional rights.”)).

28

1 Absent a direct threat, a plaintiff can establish a reasonable likelihood of  
2 enforcement by alleging “a history of past enforcement against parties similarly situated to  
3 the plaintiff”. *Lopez*, 622 F.3d at 1122. *See also Babbitt* 442 U.S. at 298 (Finding that a  
4 plaintiff “does not have to await the consummation of threatened injury to obtain  
5 preventive relief.”); *Virginia v. Am. Booksellers Ass'n*, 484 U.S. 383, 393 (1988) (Finding  
6 that in the absence of non-enforcement, a credible threat of prosecution exists.). As alleged  
7 by me, and as undisputed by Defendants, Defendants have a history of past enforcement  
8 against parties similarly situated to me. Doc. 22 ¶ 137.

9 As this is a pre-enforcement challenge to unconstitutional laws and treaties that  
10 prohibit the exact conduct that I currently engage in, and Defendants currently and  
11 historically enforce the CSA and Conventions against others similarly situated to me for  
12 the same conduct, I have established injury-in-fact necessary for standing on all claims.  
13 Additionally, as I allege a First Amendment claim, the threshold for standing is lower. *See*  
14 *Lopez*, 622 F.3d at 1116 (“First Amendment cases raise unique standing considerations that  
15 tilt dramatically toward a finding of standing.”) (internal quotations omitted).

#### 16 **B. Plaintiff has Standing to Challenge the Conventions**

17 Defendants argue that I do not have standing to challenge the 1961 Single  
18 Convention on Narcotic Drugs, and the 1971 Convention on Psychotropic Substances (the  
19 Conventions). Doc. 40 p. 10. However, standing required to challenge international treaties  
20 does not differ from the standing elements required to challenge other federal laws, so long  
21 as the treaties carry the force of federal law.

22 International treaties have the force of domestic law when “Congress has either  
23 enacted implementing statutes or the treaty itself conveys an intention that it be ‘self-  
24 executing’ and is ratified on these terms.” *Medellín v. Texas*, 552 U.S. 491, 505 (2008)  
25 (internal quotation omitted). *See also Flores v. S. Peru Copper Corp.*, 414 F.3d 233, 257  
26 (2d Cir. 2003) (“[A] treaty that is self-executing or that has been executed through an Act  
27 of Congress . . . gives rise to rights legally enforceable in our courts.”) Here, The  
28 Conventions have the force of binding domestic law as they were implemented by the CSA.

1 *See* 21 U.S.C. § 801a(3) (“In implementing the Convention on Psychotropic Substances . . .  
2 ..”); *United States v. Rodriguez-Camacho*, 468 F.2d 1220, 1222 (9th Cir. 1972) (“The  
3 United States is a party to the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs, binding, inter alia, all  
4 signatories to control[.]”)

5 Federal courts considered constitutional challenges to treaties on many occasions.  
6 *See e.g., Pfeifer v. U.S. Bureau of Prisons*, 615 F.2d 873 (9th Cir. 1980) (constitutional  
7 challenge to the Treaty on the Execution of Penal Sentences, which had implementing  
8 legislation.); *Bell v. Clark*, 437 F.2d 200, 203 (4th Cir. 1971) (“Acceptance of the  
9 [Treaty’s] provisions is compulsory upon all courts of the United States, for the Agreement,  
10 having the form and force of a treaty, is given supremacy by Article VI, cl. 2 of the  
11 Constitution”); and *Lidas, Inc. v. U.S.*, 238 F.3d 1076, 1078 (9th Cir. 2001) (Considering  
12 whether the United States-France Income Tax Treaty was constitutionally void.).  
13 Moreover, the United States, as a signatory to the Conventions, agreed that the Conventions  
14 would be subject to constitutional limitations. *See* 1971 Convention, art. 21 & 22, and 1961  
15 Single Convention, art. 35, 36 & 38.

16 As Defendants chose to implement the Conventions through acts of Congress and  
17 regularly cite the Conventions in the CSA, scheduling decisions, and prior court cases as  
18 being binding on them and as justification for prohibition of possession of certain  
19 substances and enforcement of the CSA, the Conventions have the force and effect of a  
20 legislative enactment subject to constitutional challenge. The same standing requirements  
21 for pre-enforcement claims, as described above, applies and have been sufficiently alleged.  
22 Thus, I have standing to challenge the Conventions.

### 23 **C. There are No Administrative Exhaustion Requirements for Plaintiff’s Claims**

24 Defendants allege that I must exhaust administrative remedies by petitioning the  
25 DEA to seek rescheduling of substances. Doc. 40 p. 11. However, I do not seek  
26 rescheduling of any substances and never alleged such. I allege that the schedules within  
27 the regulations, are final agency actions based on scheduling processes and decisions which  
28 are arbitrary, capricious, an abuse of discretion, not in accordance with law, and

1 unconstitutional. Doc. 22 ¶¶ 26 & 171. Review of such processes is not within the  
2 competence of Defendants to decide and such review would be futile.

3 First, Defendants cannot grant the relief requested (Doc. 22 ¶ 170 & Prayer for  
4 Relief), as administrative relief under the CSA is limited to re- or descheduling of  
5 substances. *See McCarthy v. Madigan*, 503 U.S. 140, 147-48 (1992) (Finding an  
6 administrative remedy may be inadequate where an agency may be unable to consider the  
7 constitutionality of a statute.); and *Barron v. Ashcroft*, 358 F.3d 674, 678 (9th Cir. 2004)  
8 (The principle of exhaustion excludes constitutional challenges not within the competence  
9 of administrative agencies.). Next, as alleged multiple times with numerous examples in  
10 my Complaint (Doc. 22), Defendants and their scheduling processes and decisions are  
11 biased. *Washington v. Barr*, 925 F.3d 109, 118 (2d Cir. 2019) (“exhaustion may be  
12 unnecessary where it would be futile . . . because agency decisionmakers are biased”)  
13 (citing *McCarthy* 503 U.S. at 148). Finally, as mentioned, it is not the specific schedule  
14 designations of substances that I challenge, rather it is the processes and procedures used  
15 by Defendants to make such designations. *See McCarthy* 503 U.S. at 148 (“exhaustion has  
16 not been required where the challenge is to the adequacy of the agency procedure itself,  
17 such that ‘the question of the adequacy of the administrative remedy . . . [is] for all practical  
18 purposes identical with the merits of [the plaintiff’s] lawsuit.’”) (internal quote omitted).  
19 Accordingly, exhaustion of administrative remedies is not appropriate or required here.

20 **D. Plaintiff’s APA Claims are Not Barred and Explicitly Reference the Schedules**

21 Defendants argue both that, because some of the subparts of the regulations are older  
22 than six years, my APA challenge is barred by the statute of limitations, and that my  
23 challenge is broad and unspecified. (Doc. 40 p. 10-11). These are baseless arguments and  
24 were not discussed with me during the parties’ meet and conferral as Ordered (Doc. 8). I  
25 explicitly mention “the schedules” each time I cite 21 C.F.R. §§ 1300.01, *et seq.*, including  
26 in Count VIII. The schedules, 21 C.F.R. §§ 1308.11-1308.15, are continually changed.  
27 Moreover, other regulations included in § 1300.01 *et seq.* reference the schedules. Also,  
28 curiously, Defendants’ use the 1997 version of § 1300.01 “Definitions relating to

1 controlled substances” as a supporting exhibit, but fail to acknowledge the 2021 changes  
2 to that subpart. Therefore, my APA challenge is not barred and is not overbroad.

3 **E. Plaintiff’s APA Claim is Reviewable by this Court**

4 Defendants argue that 21 U.S.C. § 877 obligates me to assert my APA claim directly  
5 to the courts of appeal. Doc. 40 p. 11. However, “district courts have exercised jurisdiction  
6 over . . . decisions implementing the CSA, concluding there is a sphere of DEA activity  
7 that falls within the APA’s ‘final agency action,’ but outside § 877’s ‘final determinations,  
8 findings, and conclusions.’” *John Doe v. Drug Enfor.*, 484 F.3d 561, 568 (D.C. Cir. 2007).  
9 Defendants admit that only “to the extent Plaintiff’s complaint can be read to challenge  
10 decisions about scheduling particular substances, that claim is foreclosed by 21 U.S.C. §  
11 877.” (Doc. 40 p. 11). Because none of my claims challenge the scheduling of specific  
12 substances, my APA claim is reviewable by this court.

13 Federal district courts may exercise federal question jurisdiction over an action  
14 alleging a pattern or practice of constitutional violations by an agency. *McNary v. Haitian*  
15 *Refugee Center, Inc.*, 498 U.S. 479, 483 (1991). The *McNary* court looked to an exclusive  
16 jurisdiction statute similar to § 877 and, permitting district court review, found it applied  
17 to “the process of direct review of individual denials . . ., rather than as referring to general  
18 collateral challenges to unconstitutional practices and policies used by the agency in  
19 processing applications.” *Id.* at 492. Similar reasoning was used in *Monson v. Drug Enfor.*  
20 *Admin.*, where the court found that § 877 did not preclude district court review of the  
21 plaintiffs’ action seeking declaratory relief and stating “there was no final decision of the  
22 DEA to be reviewed and the crux of [plaintiffs’] action is a challenge to the applicability  
23 of the CSA to their proposed activities and the authority of the DEA under the CSA to  
24 regulate those activities in the first instance”. 589 F.3d 952, 961 (8th Cir. 2009).

25 Almost all cases requiring review by the courts of appeal under § 877 involved  
26 plaintiffs who were first directly involved with an administrative procedure and were  
27 seeking review of a determination or order therefrom. *See e.g. John Doe*, 484 F.3d 561,  
28 (applying § 877 to the review of DEA’s denial of a permit to import a controlled substance);

1 *Fry v. DEA*, 353 F.3d 1041, 1042 (9th Cir. 2003) (Applying § 877 to review of DEA’s  
 2 Order to Show Cause on a matter involving a certificate of registration to dispense  
 3 controlled substances”). In those cases, appellate review was appropriate because there was  
 4 an established record that could be reviewed. A reading of 21 U.S.C. § 877 in its entirety  
 5 is informative on this subject:

6 All final determinations, findings, and conclusions of the Attorney General  
 7 under this subchapter shall be final and conclusive decisions of the matters  
 8 involved, except that any person aggrieved by a final decision of the Attorney  
 9 General may obtain review of the decision . . . for the circuit in which his  
 10 principal place of business is located upon petition filed with the court and  
 delivered to the Attorney General within thirty days **after notice of the  
 decision. Findings of fact by the Attorney General, if supported by  
 substantial evidence, shall be conclusive.** (emphasis added)

11 I do not challenge a specific decision such that findings of fact or any established record  
 12 thereof could be considered. I allege a pattern of unconstitutional practices and policies  
 13 that led to the creation of and continuous changes to the schedules in the regulations.  
 14 Therefore, my APA claim is reviewable by this court under 5 U.S.C. § 704 which permits  
 15 review of final agency action for which there is no other adequate remedy in a court.

## 16 **II. Plaintiff States a Claim for Substantive Due Process Violations**

17 A Plaintiff need only allege the deprivation of a fundamental right to state a claim  
 18 for Substantive Due Process violations.

19 The fundamental right alleged is as follows:

20 I have a constitutionally protected liberty interest in exercising my personal  
 21 and mental autonomy by determining and choosing what is best for my own  
 22 mind, body and spirit . . . [interacting] with and [expanding] my own  
 23 consciousness. . . growing plants or fungi of my choosing for personal use  
 24 in the sanctity of my own home and choosing to consume those substances.  
 The CSA, AZCSA, Conventions, and related criminal provisions unlawfully  
 25 tread into those sacred and intimate realms of my human existence by  
 26 criminalizing my private life choices to continue using the natural remedies  
 27 described above for my personal healing . . . (Doc. 22 ¶ 132)

28 At the crux of my asserted right is the fundamental right to make personal private  
 life choices in the privacy of my home. The U.S. Supreme Court consistently recognizes  
 the fundamental rights of humans to engage in private conduct in the privacy of their home



1 or make choices constitutive of private life, while consistently rejecting the narrow analysis  
2 of such right as to allow the court or government to impute its own moral codes.

3 The Supreme Court in *Lawrence v. Texas* invalidated a law criminalizing sodomy  
4 and specifically rejected the framing of the right as a right to homosexual sodomy, stating  
5 such framing was a “failure to appreciate the extent of the liberty at stake.” 539 U.S. 558,  
6 564-67 (2003). Instead, the Court stated, “We conclude the case should be resolved by  
7 determining whether the petitioners were free as adults to engage in the private conduct in  
8 the [exercise of their liberty].” *Id.* at 564. The Court also stated, “for centuries there have  
9 been powerful voices to condemn homosexual conduct as immoral, but this Court’s  
10 obligation is to define the liberty of all, not to mandate its own moral code.” *Id.* at 571.

11 The Court stated “There are broad statements of the substantive reach of liberty  
12 under the Due Process Clause in earlier cases” (*Id.* at 564.), and cited some of the following  
13 cases: *Griswold v. Conn.*, 381 U.S. 479, 485 (1965) (Invalidating a law prohibiting the use  
14 of contraceptive drugs and describing the protected interest as a right to privacy, especially  
15 in the marital relationship – not as the right to possess contraceptives.); *Eisenstadt v. Baird*,  
16 405 U.S. 438, 453 (1972) (Adding to *Griswold*, finding that individuals have the same  
17 fundamental privacy rights as married couples to such personal private decisions such as  
18 whether to take contraceptive drugs.); *Pierce v. Society of Sisters*, 268 U.S. 510, 534-35  
19 (1925) (Invalidating a law criminalizing private school attendance, framing the right as  
20 “the liberty of parents and guardians to direct the upbringing and education of children  
21 under their control”); and *Cruzan ex rel. Cruzan v. Dir., Mo. Dep’t of Health*, 497 U.S.  
22 261, 306 (1990) (Recognizing that the consequences of personal decisions do not vitiate  
23 rights of medical self-determination and finding that the well-established rule that it is the  
24 patient who decides treatment has never been qualified by either the nature or purpose of  
25 the treatment.); *Santosky v. Kramer*, 455 U.S. 745, 753 (1982) (addressing the “Court’s  
26 historical recognition that freedom of personal choice in matters of family life is a  
27 fundamental liberty interest.”)

28



1           The purpose of narrowing an asserted right, narrowing of which the courts take  
2 liberty rather than relying on the plaintiff or dismissing a claim for failure to do so, is to  
3 minimize the court’s risk of placing “the matter outside the arena of public debate and  
4 legislative action” when constitutional protection is extended to it. *Washington v.*  
5 *Glucksberg*, 521 U.S. 702, 720 (1997). However, as indicated by multiple U.S. Supreme  
6 Court holdings, the true and correct analysis is to determine whether the specific asserted  
7 right (private possession and consumption of natural substances of my personal choosing  
8 and determination for my personal wellbeing, growth, benefit or happiness) is constitutive  
9 of the established fundamental right to make private life choices – not whether the court  
10 deems the specific conduct or substance as moral or acceptable to Defendants, the medical  
11 industry, pharmaceutical companies, other corporate institutions, or even society. That  
12 private determination and discretion is mine alone.

13           The fundamental right to make personal private choices in the privacy of one’s own  
14 home has already been established as deeply rooted in this nation’s history and tradition.  
15 The question is whether the CSA and Conventions violate those fundamental rights through  
16 their prohibition of private conduct. *See Coons v. Lew*, 762 F.3d 891 (9th Cir. 2014)  
17 (Considering whether a statute violated the plaintiff’s well-established substantive due  
18 process rights to medical autonomy and informational privacy and omitting any reference  
19 to whether his claims were deeply rooted in this nation’s history and tradition.)

20           Because the Supreme Court has recognized under the broad fundamental right to  
21 privacy the rights to engage in sodomy in one’s home, to consume contraceptive drugs, to  
22 direct the upbringing of one’s child, and to medical self-determination, then it follows that  
23 I have a fundamental right of privacy to make a personal choice to consume a natural  
24 substance in the privacy of my home, to be intimate with my own mind, body and spirit.  
25 The government and courts do not get to examine my private recreational choices and  
26 decide for me whether those choices serve me or my central nervous system, medically or  
27 psychologically, in a way they or others approve and then criminalize those choices they  
28 do not approve. *See Stanley* 394 U.S. 557 (rejecting this exact analysis and the

1 government’s argument that private consumption of ideas must be regulated by the  
2 government, stating, “The line between the transmission of ideas and mere entertainment  
3 is much too elusive for this Court to draw, if indeed such a line can be drawn at all.”).

4 Equally notable, most of the recognized fundamental rights described above involve  
5 another person: the right of consenting adults to engage in anal sex, the right of parents to  
6 direct the upbringing of children, the right to consume contraceptive drugs in respect of the  
7 marital relationship. Similarly, the court in *Dobbs v. Jackson Women’s Health Org.* rested  
8 its decision on the fact that abortion involves “potential life”. 142 S. Ct. 2228, 2261 (2022)  
9 (“The exercise of the rights at issue in [prior cases] does not destroy a ‘potential life,’ but  
10 an abortion has that effect.”). Here, the right I assert is arguably more sacred and deserving  
11 of protection as it involves no other. It involves intimacy with my own mind, body, and  
12 spirit – a decision that is personal and private in those terms’ purest form.

13 Finally, contrary to Defendants’ claim (Doc. 40 p. 13-14), the *Raich v. Gonzales*  
14 decision is not controlling here. The court held “federal law does not recognize a  
15 fundamental right to use medical marijuana prescribed by a licensed physician to alleviate  
16 excruciating pain and human suffering.” 500 F.3d 850, 866 (9th Cir. 2007). However,  
17 Raich’s arguments vastly differ from mine. Raich’s arguments, and subsequently the  
18 court’s analysis, focused on the history of medical use of marijuana at the advice of a  
19 physician. Raich did not assert a right to make personal choices constitutive of private life,  
20 and therefore, the court did not conduct an analysis thereof. As discussed at length above,  
21 it is not for the court or government to decide which substances I may choose to consume  
22 in the privacy of my home or the reason therefore, nor to consider, one by one, whether  
23 each substance’s use is moral or accepted by Defendants, the medical industry,  
24 pharmaceutical companies, other institutions, or society. *See Nat’l Inst. of Family & Life*  
25 *Advocates v. Becerra*, 138 S. Ct. 2361, 2374-75 (2018) (“Professionals might have a host  
26 of good-faith disagreements . . . Doctors and nurses might disagree about the ethics of  
27 assisted suicide or the benefits of medical marijuana . . . [A]nd the people lose when the  
28 government is the one deciding which ideas should prevail.”). Rather, it is my fundamental

1 right to make the personal private choice for the satisfaction of my own wellbeing and  
2 happiness of what enters my body in the privacy of my own home. Accordingly, my  
3 asserted right is well within the realm of previously recognized fundamental rights such  
4 that I have stated a claim for substantive due process violations.

### 5 **III. Plaintiff States a Claim for Procedural Due Process Violations**

6 To sufficiently state a procedural due process claim, a plaintiff must allege (1) a  
7 protected liberty interest, and (2) a governmental failure to provide an appropriate level of  
8 process. *See Bd. of Regents v. Roth*, 408 U.S. 564, 569–73 (1972).

#### 9 **A. Plaintiff Alleged Cognizable Liberty Interests**

10 Liberty interests for procedural due process purposes denotes the freedom  
11 “generally to enjoy those privileges long recognized . . . as essential to the orderly pursuit  
12 of happiness by free men. . . . In a Constitution for a free people, there can be no doubt that  
13 the meaning of ‘liberty’ must be broad indeed.” *Id.* at 572.

14 I have alleged multiple cognizable liberty interests. Doc. 22 ¶¶ 132-135. First, it is  
15 well-established that liberty interests include the freedoms from imprisonment and  
16 prosecution, and that the mere presence of criminal penalties within a law invokes this  
17 liberty interest. *See Bd. of Pardons v. Allen*, 482 U.S. 369, 373 n. 3 (1987) (“[F]reedom;  
18 liberty from bodily restraint is at the heart of the liberty protected by the Due Process  
19 Clause.”); *Forbes v. Woods*, 71 F. Supp. 2d 1015, 1018 (D. Ariz. 1999) (“where a statute  
20 imposes criminal penalties, the standard of certainty that due process requires is higher.”)  
21 (internal quotation omitted); *Briggs v. Treatment Assessment Screening Ctr.*, 562 F. Supp.  
22 3d 168, 172 (D. Ariz. 2021) (Recognizing a liberty interest in “freedom from imprisonment  
23 or freedom from prosecution and the possibility of a criminal record and imprisonment.”).  
24 (internal quotations omitted). As the CSA imposes criminal penalties for conduct I engage  
25 in, I identified a cognizable liberty interest invoking procedural due process requirements.

26 I also allege multiple liberty interests in exercising personal private choices, and  
27 deprivation thereof. Doc. 22 ¶¶ 130-36. While the private choices I allege include those  
28 relating to personal, bodily and medical autonomy, informed consent, private consumption

1 of substances, and more, courts do not consider the specific choice in question. Rather,  
2 they recognize that it is within the constitutional liberty among free men to make a personal  
3 private choice in the first place. Courts have long recognized that freedom of choice and  
4 privacy are protected liberty interests. *See Lawrence*, 539 U.S. at 562 (“Liberty protects  
5 the person from unwarranted government intrusions into a dwelling or other private  
6 places.”); *Glucksberg*, 521 U.S. at 724 (“[L]iberty protected by the Due Process Clause  
7 includes ‘basic and intimate exercises of personal autonomy[.]’”); *Cruzan*, 497 U.S. at 341  
8 (“[T]his Court has long recognized that the liberty to make the decisions and choices  
9 constitutive of private life is so fundamental to our concept of ordered liberty” and finding  
10 a liberty interest in self-determination and choice of medical treatment.); *Harris v. McRae*,  
11 448 U.S. 297, 317 (1980) (“liberty” includes freedom of choice); and *Carey v. Population*  
12 *Servs. Int’l*, 431 U.S. 678, 684-86 (1977) (the liberty to make choices regarding  
13 contraception is a right of personal privacy.)

14 The government may interfere with the freedom of choice and privacy only if they  
15 provide fundamentally fair procedures. *Keates v. Koile*, 883 F.3d 1228, 1236 (9th Cir.  
16 2018). As I allege cognizable liberty rights, and a deprivation thereof through inadequate  
17 procedures, I have stated a procedural due process claim under the Fourteenth Amendment  
18 for which relief may be granted.

### 19 **B. Plaintiff Alleged Lack of Adequate Process**

20 Defendants do not argue that I failed to allege inadequate procedures. Rather, their  
21 argument rests solely on the reiteration of their previous argument regarding administrative  
22 exhaustion and that because there is an administrative process that I may avail myself to  
23 (via the notice and comment period for scheduling specific substances or the petition  
24 process to seek reclassification of substances) that my procedural due process claims fail.  
25 (Doc. 40 pp. 15-16). However, nowhere in this action do I seek reclassification of specific  
26 substances.<sup>1</sup> Rather, I allege the CSA and Conventions do not satisfy the procedural due  
27

28 <sup>1</sup> Defendants cite *United States v. Christie*, 825 F.3d 1048 (9th Cir. 2016). However, this  
case only addressed the validity of the marijuana classification as Schedule I.

1 process guarantees of the Fifth Amendment. As discussed above and incorporated by  
2 reference herein, administrative agencies are not competent arbiters of such challenges.

3 Additionally, the Conventions provide no administrative procedures to which I may  
4 avail myself. To the contrary, the CSA explicitly states that substance scheduling pursuant  
5 to the Conventions are exempt from administrative processes. *See* 21 U.S.C. § 811(d)(1)  
6 (“If control is required by United States obligations under international treaties,  
7 conventions, or protocols . . . the Attorney General shall issue an order controlling such  
8 drug . . . without regard to the [required findings or rulemaking procedures].”).

9 There mere existence of rulemaking procedures for the classification of specific  
10 substances does not foreclose my claims regarding the CSA’s and Conventions’ violations  
11 of procedural due process. In fact, the *Christie* opinion cited by Defendants (Doc. 40 p. 16)  
12 considered a CSA procedural due process claim without any regard to the existence of  
13 rulemaking procedures. 825 F.3d at 1065-66. Further, *Bos. Redev. Auth. v. Nat’l Park Serv.*,  
14 cited by Defendants, dealt with a claim by an appellant that it failed to receive notice of a  
15 fact that was specifically provided by the appellees through informal agency decision-  
16 making, and thus, is of no relevance here. 838 F.3d 42 (1st Cir. 2016). Accordingly, I state  
17 a claim for procedural due process violations.

#### 18 **IV. Plaintiff States a Claim for First Amendment Violations**

19 As alleged in the FAC, “Defendants use personal thoughts, beliefs, intentions,  
20 motivations, and expression to determine how substances should be scheduled and . . .  
21 criminalized . . . and chill and deter individual thoughts, beliefs, and expression, in  
22 violation of the First Amendment.” Doc. 22 ¶ 119. Defendants argue that these asserted  
23 rights are not protected by the Constitution. Doc. 40 p. 16-18.

24 It is well established that freedom of thought, which naturally includes belief,  
25 intention and motivation, are fundamental First Amendment rights. *See Lawrence* 539 U.S.  
26 at 562 (recognizing the fundamental right to “an autonomy of self that includes freedom of  
27 thought, belief, expression, and certain intimate conduct.”); *Thomas v. Collins*, 323 U.S.  
28 516, 531 (1945) (“The First Amendment gives freedom of mind the same security as

1 freedom of conscience."); *Becerra*, 138 S. Ct. at 2379 ("Freedom of speech secures  
 2 freedom of thought and belief."); *United States v. Alvarez*, 567 U.S. 709, 728 (2012)  
 3 ("Freedom of . . . thought flows not from the beneficence of the state but from the  
 4 inalienable rights of the person."); and *Turner Broad. Sys., Inc. v. Fed. Comm'n Comm'n*,  
 5 512 U.S. 622, 641 (1994) ("At the heart of the First Amendment lies the principle that each  
 6 person should decide for him or herself the ideas and beliefs deserving of expression,  
 7 consideration, and adherence.").

8 At every turn, the CSA and Conventions unconstitutionally intrude into the  
 9 protected intimate realms of individual thought, belief, intentions and consciousness and  
 10 the intrusions are far from merely incidental. The government overreach into the private  
 11 realms of our minds is vast, downright frightening, and permeates virtually all aspects of  
 12 decisions for which controlled substances will carry criminal penalties for their private  
 13 possession. I alleged numerous facts demonstrating these impermissible intrusions, such as  
 14 Defendants' definition of "drug abuse", the scheduling factors, inspection of personal  
 15 anecdotes to presume thoughts, intentions, beliefs, how one feels or desires to feel when  
 16 consuming a substance, and much more. Doc. 22 ¶¶ 119-127. For example, Defendants use  
 17 the following definitions:

18 *Drug Abuse*: the intentional, non-therapeutic use of a drug product or  
 19 substance, even once, to achieve a desired psychological or physiological  
 20 effect. Therefore, *abuse potential* refers to the likelihood that abuse will  
 21 occur with a particular drug product or substance with CNS activity. Desired  
 psychological effects can include euphoria . . . alterations in cognition, and  
 changes in mood.

22 *Psychological dependence*: a state in which individuals have impaired  
 23 control over drug use based on the rewarding properties of the drug . . .

24 The presence of a euphoria-like response is a key observation in the clinical  
 25 assessment of whether a test drug has abuse potential.

26 *Euphoria-related terms*: Euphoric mood; Elevated mood; Feeling abnormal;  
 . . . Thinking abnormal . . .<sup>2</sup>

27 <sup>2</sup> Exhibit 1: excerpts from *Assessment of Abuse Potential of Drugs, Guidance for*  
 28 *Industry*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, pp. 4 & 21-22 (Jan. 2017)  
 (cited in FAC Doc. 22 ¶¶ 30, 55, 120-21).



1 Thus, the definition of “drug abuse” includes the contents of one’s mind prior to and during  
2 consuming a substance, and “psychological dependence” includes the contents of one’s  
3 mind after consuming a substance. *See also* Doc. 22 ¶¶ 123-124, and generally Exhibit 2  
4 (excerpts from *Manual on Drug Dependence*, WHO, 1975) (cited in Doc. 22 ¶ 124), and  
5 *Id.* at p. 25. (“In judging . . . psychic dependence . . . it is important to ascertain to what  
6 extent he (1) devotes his time to thinking about . . . drug affects[.]”). It is off-limits for  
7 Defendants to consider and use to determine criminal penalties one’s personal thoughts  
8 when consuming a substance; whether one’s desire for use conforms to commercially-  
9 indicated “therapeutic use”; how a substance affects one’s personal cognition or mood;  
10 whether one’s control over personal use is “impaired”; what is considered “abnormal  
11 thinking”; or any other factors that relate to personal cognition and emotions.

12 It also follows that the CSA and Conventions are content-based laws (contents of  
13 one’s thoughts), prohibiting expressive conduct (acting on those thoughts by consuming a  
14 substance). *See Turner* 512 U.S. at 643 (“As a general rule, laws that, by their terms,  
15 distinguish favored speech from disfavored speech on the basis of the ideas or views  
16 expressed are content based.”); *Wilson v. Lynch*, 835 F.3d 1083, 1095 (9th Cir. 2016)  
17 (Holding that the mere “acquisition of a [marijuana] registry card falls within the scope of  
18 conduct protected by the First Amendment”); and *Fulton v. City of Phila.*, 141 S. Ct. 1868,  
19 1893 (2021) (concurrency) (Finding that those who “ingest peyote . . . are surely engaging  
20 in expressive conduct that falls within the scope of the Free Speech Clause.”).

21 Moreover, the required finding of “currently accepted medical use” under 21 U.S.C.  
22 § 812, is determined by considering whether one uses a substance “on their own initiative”  
23 versus the advice of a third party who can only prescribe commercial products. Doc. 22 ¶¶  
24 80 & 123. Here, defendants take traditionally non-medical recreational substances and  
25 prohibit the use thereof by applying them to medical standards meant for pharmaceutical  
26 drugs. *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* defines the phrase “on one's own initiative” as “at  
27 one's own discretion; independently of outside influence or control.” Therefore, if the  
28



1 motivation behind my personal choice comes from my own mind, and not someone else's,  
2 that is used in favor of criminalizing the associated conduct.

3 Courts have consistently held laws that criminalize conduct, or otherwise penalize  
4 people, based on personal thoughts, beliefs, and perspectives as violative of the First  
5 Amendment. *See e.g., Stanley*, 394 U.S. 557 (Holding that a law criminalizing possession  
6 of material the government deemed obscene violated First Amendment rights, including  
7 rights to beliefs, thoughts, emotions, and sensations, to be let alone and satisfy one's  
8 intellectual and emotional needs in the privacy of his own home.); *Ashcroft v. Free Speech*  
9 *Coalition*, 535 U.S. 234, 253 (2002) (Invalidating a law criminalizing possession of  
10 material in the government-asserted interest of protecting one's mind and stating, "The  
11 government 'cannot constitutionally premise legislation on the desirability of controlling a  
12 person's private thoughts.'" (internal quotes omitted); *Schneider v. Smith*, 390 U.S. 17, 25  
13 (1968) (Invalidating procedures used by the U.S. to judge one's character and habits by  
14 probing thoughts and beliefs, not actual past conduct, and stating "The First Amendment's  
15 ban against Congress 'abridging' freedom of speech . . . create[s] a preserve where the  
16 views of the individual are made inviolate."); *Speiser v. Randall*, 357 U.S. 513, 535-36  
17 (1958) (concurrency) (Finding that a state cannot withhold benefits based on one's personal  
18 beliefs and stating: "[W]hat one thinks or believes . . . [has] the full protection of the First  
19 Amendment. It is only his actions that government may examine and penalize."); and *Baird*  
20 *v. State Bar of Ariz.*, 401 U.S. 1, 6 (1971) (Reversing a bar admission denial where the  
21 application probed into the applicant's political beliefs, stating, "The First Amendment . .  
22 . prohibits . . . punishing [a person] solely because . . . he holds certain beliefs").

23 Prevention of "drug abuse" is at crux of CSA and the Conventions<sup>3</sup>, and the criminal  
24 provisions thereof are premised on the terms "drug abuse" and "potential for abuse", which  
25 are defined as one's thoughts and desires before, during, and after consuming a substance.  
26 In fact, drugs that do not have "potential for abuse", i.e. potential to produce certain

27 \_\_\_\_\_  
28 <sup>3</sup> The stated purpose of the CSA is "to provide increased research into, and prevention of,  
drug abuse and drug dependence . . . and to strengthen existing law enforcement authority  
in the field of drug abuse." Pub.L. No. 91-513, 84 Stat. 1236 (1970) (preamble).

1 thoughts or desires, are not considered for control. Defendants, along with the World  
2 Health Organization, took non-medical recreational activities, applied them to a medical  
3 framework, and criminalized those private activities solely because of the potential  
4 cognitive affects they might induce in Americans, including mere happiness, joy and  
5 increased perception, which threatens the government’s agenda and control. *See* Exhibit 3  
6 (*Drug Dependence*, Bull. Wld. Hlth. Org. 1965, 32, p. 731) (cited in Doc. 22 ¶ 124) (finding  
7 although hallucinogens do not cause physical dependency, they are likely to be used by  
8 “non-conformists” to “clarify perception” and gain “psychological insight”); and Exhibit 2  
9 p. 40 (hallucinogens are used by those “who have a more than usual interest in artistic and  
10 intellectual pursuits . . . particularly to ‘expand the consciousness’”[.]).

11 Thus, the basis of determining what conduct is criminalized, and what is not, is the  
12 contents of one’s thoughts and the potential that consuming a substance might produce  
13 thoughts the government deems undesirable. These intimate thoughts are presumed  
14 through unlawful probing of and bias conclusions about individual cognition. What’s next?  
15 Prohibition of dancing or consuming chocolate, without physician approval, due to the  
16 euphoric effects or effects on the central nervous system of those? Or banning the private  
17 possession of books that serve as mere entertainment or might expand the consciousness  
18 of the reader, but are devoid of ideological content approved by the government? This type  
19 of communistic control over thoughts and perception was emphatically rejected in *Stanley*.  
20 394 U.S. at 565-66. Allowing such control to persist creates a slippery slope towards  
21 federal control, under the guise of the power to regulate the medical industry, over anything  
22 that might produce thoughts or desires they deem inappropriate. Accordingly, the  
23 fundamental right of freedom of thought protected by the First Amendment is infringed,  
24 and thus, I stated a claim for First Amendment violations for which relief may be granted.

25 **V. Plaintiff’s Commerce and Necessary and Proper Clause and Tenth**  
26 **Amendment Claims are not Foreclosed**

27 Defendants argue that the Commerce and Necessary and Proper Clause and Tenth  
28 Amendment claims (Counts VI & VII) are foreclosed by *Gonzales v. Raich*, 545 U.S. 1

1 (2005). Doc. 40 p. 18-20. However, *Raich* is not controlling as there is substantial new  
2 evidence, accumulated in the 18 years since *Raich*, which proves what may have been a  
3 “rational basis” at the time of that decision, is now irrational, and what was speculated as  
4 “necessary and proper”, actually is not. The court cannot ignore the vast changes of state  
5 marijuana legislation and the demonstrated effects it has had on Defendant’s enforcement  
6 of the CSA and Conventions in the past 18 years – effects that demonstrate ending the  
7 prohibition on personal intrastate cultivation and possession actually furthers Defendants’  
8 purpose under the CSA and Conventions of suppressing interstate trafficking.

9 *Raich* considered the narrow questions of whether personal intrastate cultivation and  
10 possession of medical marijuana substantially affects commerce, and whether the  
11 prohibition of such was, thereby, violative of the Commerce Clause, and whether  
12 prohibiting personal intrastate cultivation and possession of medical marijuana was  
13 “necessary and proper” to the CSA’s scheme and purpose of suppressing interstate  
14 commerce. The only evidence considered by the *Raich* court in holding that personal  
15 intrastate cultivation and possession of medical marijuana “could” have a substantial effect  
16 on commerce and that the CSA’s scheme was “necessary and proper”, was a predictive  
17 congressional finding made in 1970 (21 U.S.C. § 801(5)) and the government’s purely  
18 speculative conclusions – maybe because there was no other evidence to consider. *Id.* at  
19 20-22. However, predictive congressional findings are not insulated from judicial review;  
20 are considered helpful to the courts but do not end the analysis; and do not automatically  
21 withstand the test of time and experience. See *Turner* 512 U.S. at 666 (Finding that  
22 Congress' predictive judgments are not insulated from meaningful judicial review.); *Raich*  
23 545 U.S. at 21 (Noting that congressional findings may be considered as part of an analysis,  
24 when available); *Minority Television Project, Inc. v. Fed. Comm'n's Comm'n*, 736 F.3d  
25 1192, 1199-1200 (9th Cir. 2013) (Noting that the information before Congress at the time  
26 of the legislation was limited, and considering new evidence since the time of enactment  
27 to determine whether the predictive findings beared out in order to support the purpose of  
28 the enactment.), and *Free Speech Coal., Inc. v. Attorney Gen. of the United States Free*

1 *Speech Coal., Inc.*, 677 F.3d 519, 546-47 (3d Cir. 2012 )(dissent) (“[A]lthough section  
2 2257 has been on the books for almost 25 years, the record contains no evidence as to . . .  
3 the government's experience under the statute, and, therefore, no means of assessing  
4 whether the requirements actually have had any deterrent or preventive effect.”)

5 The Supreme Court, exercising independent judgment on the facts, has held that  
6 “proof of connection” to interstate commerce is required to find validity of legislation  
7 under the Commerce Clause. *See Bond v. United States*, 572 U.S. 844, 859 (2014), and  
8 *Turner* 512 U.S. at 666 (1994) (“[T]he deference afforded to legislative findings does not  
9 foreclose our independent judgment of the facts bearing on an issue of constitutional law.”)  
10 (internal quote omitted). Based on the evidence accumulated in the time since *Raich*, it is  
11 no longer rational to conclude that the federal prohibition on personal intrastate cultivation  
12 and possession of substances could substantially affect commerce or that it undercuts the  
13 regulation of the interstate market. Defendants cannot lawfully allege that they have an  
14 interest in maintaining the interstate illicit market of substances, and thereby, the existence  
15 and profitability of drug traffickers. Rather, their lawful interest can only be in suppressing  
16 the illicit interstate market. And as alleged in the Complaint (Doc. 22 ¶ 88), and not denied  
17 by Defendants, the increase in state legislation legalizing personal cultivation and  
18 possession of marijuana, since *Raich*, has had a direct correlation on the reduction of  
19 federal marijuana trafficking arrests. The additional evidence accumulated since *Raich*,  
20 which must be considered by the court, proves that ending prohibition of personal  
21 cultivation and possession of substances does not, in fact, substantially affect the interstate  
22 market in a way that undercuts the regulatory scheme of the CSA. To the contrary, ending  
23 such prohibition would drastically reduce the resources expended by the federal  
24 government and further its interest in suppressing the illicit interstate market.

25 *Raich*'s holding that prohibition on personal cultivation and possession is  
26 “necessary and proper” is equally no longer valid in light of the 18 years of additional  
27 evidence. Congressional action is valid under the Necessary and Proper Clause, only if it  
28 carries into the *beneficial execution* of its Commerce power. *See United States v. Comstock*,

1 560 U.S. 126, 170 n.8 (2010) (citing *McCulloch v. Maryland*, 17 U.S. 316, 418 (1819)). As  
2 indicated above, ensuring the maintenance and existence of an illicit market of substances  
3 or drugs is not within the power granted to Congress and the new evidence proves that  
4 prohibition of personal cultivation and possession is not a beneficial exercise of its lawful  
5 power to suppress the illicit market.

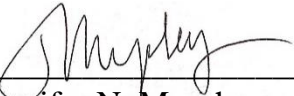
6 Finally, the *Raich* court focused on use of marijuana for medical purposes, which is  
7 not the issue here. The court stated, “[T]he CSA is a comprehensive regulatory regime  
8 specifically designed to regulate which controlled substances can be utilized for medicinal  
9 purposes, and in what manner.” *Id.* at 27. Defendants may have a power to regulate FDA-  
10 approved drugs as those have a defined commercial market – from which defendants profit  
11 generously. However, the prohibition and criminalization of non-medical recreational  
12 activities, simply because those activities involve substances that could be bought or sold  
13 (like virtually any material possessions), is unrelated to the pharmaceutical industry and  
14 the analysis in *Raich*, and exceeds Defendants’ power.

15 As both the CSA and Conventions prohibit personal cultivation and possession of  
16 substances and additional evidence since *Raich* proves prohibition is not a beneficial  
17 exercise of any valid congressional power, and ending prohibition does not undercut any  
18 valid regulatory scheme of the CSA or Conventions, these prohibitions violate the  
19 Commerce and Necessary and Proper Clauses, and thereby, exceed Defendants’ authority  
20 under the Tenth Amendment. Accordingly, Counts VI and VII should not be dismissed.

### 21 CONCLUSION

22 For the foregoing reasons, Defendants’ Motion to Dismiss (Doc. 40) should be  
23 denied in its entirety.

24 Respectfully submitted on May 18, 2023,

25  
26 By:   
27 Jennifer N. Murphey  
28 Plaintiff/pro se