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| 5 | pro se | |
| 6 | IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT | |
| 7 | FOR THE DISTRICT OF ARIZONA | |
| 8 | Lengthen N. Margaline in distinguity and an |) C N 0.00 CV 01004 UT |
| 9 | Jennifer N. Murphey, individually and on behalf of all others similarly situated, |) Case No.: 2:22-CV-01224-JJT) |
| 10 | Plaintiff, |)) PLAINTIFF'S OPPOSITION TO THE |
| 11 | v. |) STATE DEFENDANT'S MOTION TO |
| 12 | United States of America, et al., |) DISMISS) |
| 13 | Defendants. |) (Oral Argument Requested) |
| 14 | Derendants. |)) |
| 15 | INTRODUCTION | |
| 16 | I hereby submit my response in opposition to the State Defendant's Motion to | |
| 17 18 | Dismiss (Doc. 31). Further, as Defendant admits that the Arizona Controlled Substance | |
| 18 19 | Act and related criminal provisions, A.R.S. § 13-3401 et seq. (collectively referred to as | |
| 19 20 | the "AZCSA") is based on the federal Controlled Substances Act (CSA) and the 1961 | |
| 20 | Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs and 1971 Convention on Psychotropic Substances | |
| 22 | (the Conventions), all references to the CSA and Conventions herein apply to the AZCSA. | |
| 22 | See Doc 31 p. 7 | |
| 24 | ARGUMENT | |
| 25 | I. Plaintiff States a Claim for Violations of the First Amendment and Article 2 of the Arizona State Constitution | |
| 26 | As alleged in the FAC, "Defendants use personal thoughts, beliefs, intentions, | |
| 27 | motivations, and expression to determine how substances should be scheduled and | |
| 28 | criminalized and chill and deter individual thoughts, beliefs, and expression, in | |
| | | |

violation of the First Amendment." Doc. 22 ¶ 119. Defendants argue that these asserted 1 rights are not protected by the Constitution. Doc. 40 p. 16-18. 2

It is well established that freedom of thought, which naturally includes belief, 3 intention and motivation, are fundamental First Amendment rights. See Lawrence 539 U.S. 4 5 at 562 (recognizing the fundamental right to "an autonomy of self that includes freedom of thought, belief, expression, and certain intimate conduct."); Thomas v. Collins, 323 U.S. 6 7 516, 531 (1945) ("The First Amendment gives freedom of mind the same security as freedom of conscience."); Becerra, 138 S. Ct. at 2379 ("Freedom of speech secures 8 freedom of thought and belief."); United States v. Alvarez, 567 U.S. 709, 728 (2012) 9 10 ("Freedom of . . . thought flows not from the beneficence of the state but from the inalienable rights of the person."); and Turner Broad. Sys., Inc. v. Fed. Commc'n Comm'n, 11 12 512 U.S. 622, 641 (1994) ("At the heart of the First Amendment lies the principle that each person should decide for him or herself the ideas and beliefs deserving of expression, 13 14 consideration, and adherence.").

At every turn, the CSA and Conventions unconstitutionally intrude into the 15 protected intimate realms of individual thought, belief, intentions and consciousness and 16 17 the intrusions are far from merely incidental. The government overreach into the private 18 realms of our minds is vast, downright frightening, and permeates virtually all aspects of 19 decisions for which controlled substances will carry criminal penalties for their private possession. I alleged numerous facts demonstrating these impermissible intrusions, such as 20 21 Defendants' definition of "drug abuse", the scheduling factors, inspection of personal 22 anecdotes to presume thoughts, intentions, beliefs, how one feels or desires to feel when consuming a substance, and much more. Doc. 22 ¶¶ 119-127. For example, Defendants use 23 the following definitions: 24

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Drug Abuse: the intentional, non-therapeutic use of a drug product or substance, even once, to achieve a desired psychological or physiological 26 effect. Therefore, abuse potential refers to the likelihood that abuse will occur with a particular drug product or substance with CNS activity. Desired 27 psychological effects can include euphoria . . . alterations in cognition, and 28 changes in mood.

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

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

Euphoria-related terms: Euphoric mood; Elevated mood; Feeling abnormal; . . . Thinking abnormal . . . 1

6 Thus, the definition of "drug abuse" includes the contents of one's mind prior to and during 7 consuming a substance, and "psychological dependence" includes the contents of one's 8 mind after consuming a substance. See also Doc. 22 ¶¶ 123-124, and generally Exhibit 2 9 (excerpts from Manual on Drug Dependence, WHO, 1975) (cited in Doc. 22 ¶ 124), and 10 Id. at p. 25. ("In judging . . . psychic dependence . . . it is important to ascertain to what 11 extent he (1) devotes his time to thinking about . . . drug affects [.]"). It is off-limits for 12 Defendants to consider and use to determine criminal penalties one's personal thoughts 13 when consuming a substance; whether one's desire for use conforms to commercially-14 indicated "therapeutic use"; how a substance affects one's personal cognition or mood; 15 whether one's control over personal use is "impaired"; what is considered "abnormal 16 thinking"; or any other factors that relate to personal cognition and emotions.

17 It also follows that the CSA and Conventions are content-based laws (contents of 18 one's thoughts), prohibiting expressive conduct (acting on those thoughts by consuming a 19 substance). See Turner 512 U.S. at 643 ("As a general rule, laws that, by their terms, 20 distinguish favored speech from disfavored speech on the basis of the ideas or views 21 expressed are content based."); Wilson v. Lynch, 835 F.3d 1083, 1095 (9th Cir. 2016) 22 (Holding that the mere "acquisition of a [marijuana] registry card falls within the scope of 23 conduct protected by the First Amendment"); and Fulton v. City of Phila., 141 S. Ct. 1868, 24 1893 (2021) (concurrence) (Finding that those who "ingest peyote . . . are surely engaging 25 in expressive conduct that falls within the scope of the Free Speech Clause.").

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 ²⁷ ¹ Exhibit 1: excerpts from *Assessment of Abuse Potential of Drugs, Guidance for* ²⁸ ¹ Exhibit 1: excerpts from *Assessment of Abuse Potential of Drugs, Guidance for* ²⁸ ¹ (cited in FAC Doc. 22 ¶¶ 30, 55, 120-21).

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Moreover, the required finding of "currently accepted medical use" under 21 U.S.C. 1 § 812, is determined by considering whether one uses a substance "on their own initiative" 2 versus the advice of a third party who can only prescribe commercial products. Doc. 22 ¶¶ 3 80 & 123. Here, defendants take traditionally non-medical recreational substances and 4 prohibit the use thereof by applying them to medical standards meant for pharmaceutical 5 drugs. Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines the phrase "on one's own initiative" as "at 6 7 one's own discretion; independently of outside influence or control." Therefore, if the 8 motivation behind my personal choice comes from my own mind, and not someone else's, that is used in favor of criminalizing the associated conduct. 9

10 Courts have consistently held laws that criminalize conduct, or otherwise penalize people, based on personal thoughts, beliefs, and perspectives as violative of the First 11 12 Amendment. See e.g., Stanley, 394 U.S. 557 (Holding that a law criminalizing possession of material the government deemed obscene violated First Amendment rights, including 13 rights to beliefs, thoughts, emotions, and sensations, to be let alone and satisfy one's 14 intellectual and emotional needs in the privacy of his own home.); Ashcroft v. Free Speech 15 Coalition, 535 U.S. 234, 253 (2002) (Invalidating a law criminalizing possession of 16 17 material in the government-asserted interest of protecting one's mind and stating, "The 18 government 'cannot constitutionally premise legislation on the desirability of controlling a 19 person's private thoughts.") (internal quotes omitted); Schneider v. Smith, 390 U.S. 17, 25 (1968) (Invalidating procedures used by the U.S. to judge one's character and habits by 20 21 probing thoughts and beliefs, not actual past conduct, and stating "The First Amendment's ban against Congress 'abridging' freedom of speech . . . create[s] a preserve where the 22 23 views of the individual are made inviolate."); Speiser v. Randall, 357 U.S. 513, 535-36 (1958) (concurrence) (Finding that a state cannot withhold benefits based on one's personal 24 beliefs and stating: "[W]hat one thinks or believes . . . [has] the full protection of the First 25 Amendment. It is only his actions that government may examine and penalize."); and *Baird* 26 v. State Bar of Ariz., 401 U.S. 1, 6 (1971) (Reversing a bar admission denial where the 27 28 application probed into the applicant's political beliefs and stating, "The First

Amendment's protection . . . prohibits . . . punishing [a person] solely because . . . he holds
 certain beliefs").

Prevention of "drug abuse" is at crux of CSA and the Conventions², and the criminal 3 provisions thereof are premised on the terms "drug abuse" and "potential for abuse", which 4 are defined as one's thoughts and desires before, during, and after consuming a substance. 5 In fact, drugs that do not have "potential for abuse", i.e. potential to produce certain 6 7 thoughts or desires, are not considered for control. Defendants, along with the World Health Organization, took non-medical recreational activities, applied them to a medical 8 framework, and criminalized those private activities solely because of the potential 9 10 cognitive affects they might induce in Americans, including mere happiness, joy and increased perception, which threatens the government's agenda and control. See Exhibit 3 11 12 (Drug Dependence, Bull. Wld. Hlth. Org. 1965, 32, p. 731) (cited in Doc. 22 ¶ 124) (finding although hallucinogens do not cause physical dependency, they are likely to be used by 13 "non-conformists" to "clarify perception" and gain "psychological insight"); and Exhibit 2 14 p. 40 (hallucinogens are used by those "who have a more than usual interest in artistic and 15 intellectual pursuits . . . particularly to 'expand the consciousness'"[.]). 16

17 Therefore, the foundation of determining what conduct is criminalized, and what is not, is the contents of one's thoughts and the potential that consuming a substance might 18 produce thoughts the government deems undesirable. These intimate thoughts are 19 presumed through unlawful probing of and bias conclusions about individual cognition. 20 21 What's next? The prohibition of dancing or consuming chocolate, without prior physician 22 approval, due to the euphoric effects or effects on the central nervous system of those? Or banning the private possession of books that serve as mere entertainment or might expand 23 24 the consciousness of the reader, but are devoid of ideological content approved by the 25 government? This type of communistic control over thoughts and perception was emphatically rejected in Stanley. 394 U.S. at 565-66. Allowing such control to persist 26

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 ² 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).

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creates a slippery slope towards federal control, under the guise of the power to regulate
 the medical industry, over anything that might produce thoughts or desires they deem
 inappropriate.

Accordingly, the fundamental right of freedom of thought protected by the First
Amendment is infringed, and thus, I stated a claim for violations of the First Amendment,
and thereby, Article 2 of the Arizona Constitution, for which relief may be granted.

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II. Plaintiff States a Claim for Substantive Due Process Violations

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A Plaintiff need only allege the deprivation of a fundamental right to state a claim

- 9 for Substantive Due Process violations.
- 10 The fundamental right alleged is as follows:

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

- 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
 or make choices constitutive of private life, while consistently rejecting the narrow analysis
 of such right as to allow the court or government to impute its own moral codes.
- The Supreme Court in *Lawrence* invalidated a law criminalizing sodomy and specifically rejected the framing of the right as a right to homosexual sodomy, stating such framing was a "failure to appreciate the extent of the liberty at stake." 539 U.S. at 564-67. Instead, the Court stated, "We conclude the case should be resolved by determining whether the petitioners were free as adults to engage in the private conduct in the [exercise of their liberty]." *Id.* at 564. The Court also stated, "for centuries there have been powerful
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voices to condemn homosexual conduct as immoral, but this Court's obligation is to define
 the liberty of all, not to mandate its own moral code." *Id.* at 571.

The Court stated "There are broad statements of the substantive reach of liberty 3 under the Due Process Clause in earlier cases" (Id. at 564.), and cited some of the following 4 5 cases: Griswold v. Conn., 381 U.S. 479, 485 (1965) (Invalidating a law prohibiting the use of contraceptive drugs and describing the protected interest as a right to privacy, especially 6 7 in the marital relationship – not as the right to possess contraceptives.); *Eisenstadt v. Baird*, 8 405 U.S. 438, 453 (1972) (Adding to *Griswold*, finding that individuals have the same fundamental privacy rights as married couples to such personal private decisions such as 9 10 whether to take contraceptive drugs.); Pierce v. Society of Sisters, 268 U.S. 510, 534-35 (1925) (Invalidating a law criminalizing private school attendance, framing the right as 11 12 "the liberty of parents and guardians to direct the upbringing and education of children" under their control"); and Cruzan ex rel. Cruzan v. Dir., Mo. Dep't of Health, 497 U.S. 13 14 261, 306 (1990) (Recognizing that the consequences of personal decisions do not vitiate rights of medical self-determination and finding that the well-established rule that it is the 15 patient who decides treatment has never been qualified by either the nature or purpose of 16 the treatment.); Santosky v. Kramer, 455 U.S. 745, 753 (1982) (addressing the "Court's 17 18 historical recognition that freedom of personal choice in matters of family life is a

The purpose of narrowing an asserted right, narrowing of which the courts take 20 21 liberty rather than relying on the plaintiff or dismissing a claim for failure to do so, is to 22 minimize the court's risk of placing "the matter outside the arena of public debate and legislative action" when constitutional protection is extended to it. Washington v. 23 Glucksberg, 521 U.S. 702, 720 (1997). However, as indicated by multiple U.S. Supreme 24 25 Court holdings, the true and correct analysis is to determine whether the specific asserted right (private possession and consumption of natural substances of my personal choosing 26 and determination for my personal wellbeing, growth, benefit or happiness) is constitutive 27 28 of the established fundamental right to make private life choices – not whether the court

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fundamental liberty interest.")

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deems the specific conduct or substance as moral or acceptable to Defendants, the medical
 industry, pharmaceutical companies, other corporate institutions, or even society. That
 private determination and discretion is mine alone.

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

Because the Supreme Court has recognized under the broad fundamental right to 11 12 privacy the rights to engage in sodomy in one's home, to consume contraceptive drugs, to direct the upbringing of one's child, and to medical self-determination, then it follows that 13 14 I have a fundamental right of privacy to make a personal choice to consume a natural substance in the privacy of my home, to be intimate with my own mind, body and spirit. 15 16 The government and courts do not get to examine my private recreational choices and 17 decide for me whether those choices serve me or my central nervous system, medically or 18 psychologically, in a way they or others approve and then criminalize those choices they 19 do not approve. See Stanley 394 U.S. 557 (rejecting this exact analysis and the government's argument that private consumption of ideas must be regulated by the 20 21 government, stating, "The line between the transmission of ideas and mere entertainment 22 is much too elusive for this Court to draw, if indeed such a line can be drawn at all.").

Equally notable, most of the recognized fundamental rights described above involve another person: the right of consenting adults to engage in anal sex, the right of parents to direct the upbringing of children, the right to consume contraceptive drugs in respect of the marital relationship. Similarly, the court in *Dobbs v. Jackson Women's Health Org.* rested its decision on the fact that abortion involves "potential life". 142 S. Ct. 2228, 2261 (2022) ("The exercise of the rights at issue in [prior cases] does not destroy a 'potential life,' but

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an abortion has that effect."). Here, the right I assert is arguably more sacred and deserving
 of protection as it involves no other. It involves intimacy with my own mind, body, and
 spirit – a decision that is personal and private in those terms' purest form.

Finally, contrary to Defendant's claim (Doc. 31 p. 5), the Raich v. Gonzales decision 4 is not controlling here. The court held "federal law does not recognize a fundamental right 5 to use medical marijuana prescribed by a licensed physician to alleviate excruciating pain 6 7 and human suffering." 500 F.3d 850, 866 (9th Cir. 2007). However, Raich's arguments 8 vastly differ from mine. Raich's arguments, and subsequently the court's analysis, focused on the history of medical use of marijuana at the advice of a physician. Raich did not assert 9 10 a right to make personal choices constitutive of private life, and therefore, the court did not conduct an analysis thereof. As discussed at length above, it is not for the court or 11 12 government to decide which substances I may choose to consume in the privacy of my home or the reason therefore, nor to consider, one by one, whether each substance's use is 13 moral or accepted by Defendants, the medical industry, pharmaceutical companies, other 14 institutions, or society. See Becerra, 138 S. Ct. at 2374-75 ("Professionals might have a 15 host of good-faith disagreements Doctors and nurses might disagree about the ethics 16 of assisted suicide or the benefits of medical marijuana [A]nd the people lose when 17 18 the government is the one deciding which ideas should prevail."). Rather, it is my 19 fundamental right to make the personal private choice for the satisfaction of my own wellbeing and happiness of what enters my body in the privacy of my own home. 20 21 Accordingly, my asserted right is well within the realm of previously recognized 22 fundamental rights such that I have stated a claim for substantive due process violations under the Fourteenth Amendment and Art. 2 of the Arizona State Constitution. 23

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III. Plaintiff States a Claim for Procedural Due Process Violations

To sufficiently state a procedural due process claim, a plaintiff must allege (1) deprivation of a protected liberty interest, and (2) a governmental failure to provide an appropriate level of process. *See Bd. of Regents v. Roth*, 408 U.S. 564, 569–73 (1972). Defendant does not deny the adequacy of procedures used by Defendants nor does Defendant suggest I failed to allege inadequate procedures. Rather, Defendant's argument
 rests solely on the contention that I did not allege a cognizable property or liberty interest.

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A. Plaintiff Alleged Cognizable Liberty Interests

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

8 I have alleged multiple cognizable liberty interests. Doc. 22 ¶¶ 132-135. First, it is well-established that liberty interests include the freedoms from imprisonment and 9 10 prosecution, and that the mere presence of criminal penalties within a law invokes this liberty interest. See Bd. of Pardons v. Allen, 482 U.S. 369, 373 n. 3 (1987) ("[F]reedom; 11 12 liberty from bodily restraint is at the heart of the liberty protected by the Due Process Clause."); Forbes v. Woods, 71 F. Supp. 2d 1015, 1018 (D. Ariz. 1999) ("where a statute 13 imposes criminal penalties, the standard of certainty that due process requires is higher.") 14 (internal quotation omitted); Briggs v. Treatment Assessment Screening Ctr., 562 F. Supp. 15 3d 168, 172 (D. Ariz. 2021) (Recognizing a liberty interest in "freedom from imprisonment 16 17 or freedom from prosecution and the possibility of a criminal record and imprisonment"). 18 (internal quotations omitted). As the CSA imposes criminal penalties for conduct I engage 19 in, I identified a cognizable liberty interest invoking procedural due process requirements. I also allege multiple liberty interests in exercising personal private choices, and 20 21 deprivation thereof. Doc. 22 ¶¶ 130-36. While the private choices I allege include those 22 relating to personal, bodily and medical autonomy, informed consent, private consumption 23 of substances, and more, courts do not consider the specific choice in question. Rather, they recognize that it is within the constitutional liberty among free men to make a personal 24 25 private choice in the first place. Courts have long recognized that freedom of choice and privacy are protected liberty interests. See Lawrence, 539 U.S. at 562 ("Liberty protects" 26 27 the person from unwarranted government intrusions into a dwelling or other private 28 places."); *Glucksberg*, 521 U.S. at 724 ("[L]iberty protected by the Due Process Clause

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includes 'basic and intimate exercises of personal autonomy[.]'"); *Cruzan*, 497 U.S. at 341
("[T]his Court has long recognized that the liberty to make the decisions and choices
constitutive of private life is so fundamental to our concept of ordered liberty" and finding
a liberty interest in self-determination and choice of medical treatment.); *Harris v. McRae*,
448 U.S. 297, 317 (1980) ("liberty" includes freedom of choice); and *Carey v. Population Servs. Int'l*, 431 U.S. 678, 684-86 (1977) (the liberty to make choices regarding
contraception is a right of personal privacy.)

The government may interfere with the freedom of choice and privacy only if they provide fundamentally fair procedures. *Keates v. Koile*, 883 F.3d 1228, 1236 (9th Cir. 2018). As I allege cognizable liberty rights, and a deprivation thereof through inadequate procedures, I have stated a procedural due process claim under the Fourteenth Amendment and Art. 2 of the Arizona State Constitution for which relief may be granted.

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IV. Strict Scrutiny Applies to Plaintiff's First Amendment and Substantive Due Process Claims

15 It is well established that legislation implicating fundamental rights must survive 16 strict scrutiny. See e.g. Regan v. Taxation with Representation, 461 U.S. 540, 547 (1983) 17 ("Statutes are subjected to [strict] scrutiny if they interfere with the exercise of a 18 fundamental right."); and Baird 401 U.S. at 6-7 ("When a State seeks to inquire about an 19 individual's beliefs and associations a heavy burden lies upon it to show that the inquiry is 20 necessary to protect a legitimate state interest."). The infringement may occur either 21 directly or indirectly. See Buckley v. Valeo, 424 U.S. 1, 65 (1976) ("[Strict] scrutiny is 22 necessary even if any deterrent effect on the exercise of [fundamental] rights arises ... 23 indirectly as an unintended but inevitable result of the government's conduct"). As 24 described above, freedom of thought is a First Amendment fundamental right and the 25 freedom to make personal choices constitutive of private life is a fundamental right under 26 the Fourteenth Amendment's substantive due process guarantees, and each are infringed 27 upon by Defendant. Also, as described herein, (supra p. 2-6), the CSA and Conventions 28 are content-based laws (contents of one's thoughts), prohibiting expressive conduct (acting on those thoughts by consuming a substance). These facts provide additional grounds
 necessitating strict scrutiny.

To withstand strict scrutiny, the State carries the burden to show that legislation is narrowly tailored to serve and is the least restrictive means to achieve compelling state interests. *See Boardman v. Inslee*, 978 F.3d 1092, 1136 (9th Cir. 2020). That legislation merely prohibits conduct is not a permissible scapegoat for the government. *See generally Stanley* 394 U.S. 557 (Invalidating a law criminalizing mere possession of material in the privacy of one's home as violative of the First Amendment.)

9 The Supreme Court in *Stanley* considered multiple interests set forth by the State 10 and struck down each when considering whether a statute imposing criminal sanctions upon the mere possession of obscene matter was constitutional. In *Stanley*, the State argued 11 12 it had the broad authority to regulate materials it deemed offensive. The Court recognized the State's power to regulate obscenity, but held that power did not reach into the privacy 13 of one's home. *Id.* at 565. The State next asserted the right to protect the individual's mind 14 from the effects of obscenity. The Court stated this amounted to an assertion "that the State 15 has the right to control the moral content of a person's thoughts" and that it "cannot 16 17 constitutionally premise legislation on the desirability of controlling a person's private 18 thoughts." *Id.* at 565-66. The State next asserted that exposure to obscene materials may 19 lead to future crime. The Court rejected this stating, "the State may no more prohibit mere possession of obscene matter on the ground that it may lead to antisocial conduct than it 20 21 may prohibit possession of chemistry books on the ground that they may lead to the 22 manufacture of homemade spirits." See also, Ashcroft 535 U.S. at 253 (2002) ("The government may not prohibit speech because it increases the chance an unlawful act will 23 be committed at some indefinite future time."). Finally, the State argued "prohibition of 24 25 possession of obscene materials is a necessary incident to statutory schemes prohibiting distribution." Id. at 567. The Court rejected this as insufficient justification and found that 26 the rights involved are so "fundamental to our scheme of individual liberty, its restriction 27 28 may not be justified by the need to ease the administration of otherwise valid criminal

laws." The Court held that "the First and Fourteenth Amendments prohibit making mere
 private possession of obscene material a crime."

The strict scrutiny analysis used in *Stanley* is controlling here. Like Stanley, I seek 3 to invalidate legislation criminalizing private possession of substances and assert similar 4 5 rights. See Id. at 564-65 (an individual's right to their beliefs, thoughts, emotions, and sensations, to be let alone, to read or observe what one please and satisfy one's intellectual 6 7 and emotional needs in the privacy of one's own home). Here, Defendant sets forth only one broad interest – "an interest in regulating drugs" – with no further explanation. Doc. 8 31 p. 7. The State's asserted interest falls drastically short of satisfying its burden and, 9 10 thereby, does not withstand strict scrutiny.

11

V.

Defendant's Facial Challenge Argument

Defendant incorrectly argues that I allege the CSA, Conventions, and thereby, the AZCSA, are facially unconstitutional. Doc. 31 p. 7-8. Defendant cites cases wherein plaintiffs allege a law is facially unconstitutional. None of the eight counts in my FAC include a constitutional facial challenge, therefore, there is nothing for the court to consider for dismissal in this regard. Accordingly, I will not entertain that section in Defendant's Motion.

CONCLUSION

For the foregoing reasons, Defendant's Motion to Dismiss (Doc. 31) should bedenied in its entirety.

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- 23 Respectfully submitted on May 18, 2023,
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Bv:

Jemifer N. Murphey Plaintiff/pro se