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14 UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
15 CENTRAL DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

16
17 AZADEH KHATIBI, M.D., *et al.*,
18 Plaintiffs,

19 v.

20 RANDY W. HAWKINS, in his official
21 capacity as President of the Medical
Board of California, *et al.*,
22 Defendants.

Case No.: 2:23-cv-06195-DSF-E

**PLAINTIFFS' MEMORANDUM
OF POINTS AND
AUTHORITIES IN
OPPOSITION TO
DEFENDANTS' MOTION TO
DISMISS**

23 Date: November 20, 2023

24 Time: 1:30 p.m.

25 Courtroom: 7D

Judge: Honorable Dale S. Fischer

26 Trial Date: Not Set

27 Action Filed: August 1, 2023
28

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INTRODUCTION

1
2 Plaintiffs Dr. Azadeh Khatibi and Dr. Marilyn M. Singleton, as well
3 as at least one member of Plaintiff Do No Harm, are California-licensed
4 physicians who teach and organize continuing medical education (CME)
5 courses in California. ECF No. 1 ¶¶ 5–7. As a result of Cal. Bus. & Prof.
6 Code § 2190.1(d), Plaintiffs are now required to include discussion of
7 implicit bias in each course they teach. Defendants include the President
8 and officers of the Medical Board of California (collectively “Board”) who
9 are tasked with enforcing Cal. Bus. & Prof. Code § 2190.1(d).

10 Implicit bias trainings are highly controversial. Among other
11 divisive reasons, there is a lack of evidence showing they are effective in
12 reducing implicit bias. ECF No. 1 ¶ 24. There is also evidence that the
13 trainings can have harmful, counterproductive results. *Id.* at ¶ 25.
14 Indeed, even the concept of implicit bias is controversial. *Id.* at ¶¶ 21, 23.

15 Owing to the controversy and efficacy of implicit bias trainings, the
16 limited time available for instruction in continuing education courses, the
17 typical lack of relevance to the courses taught by her, and the wish to not
18 misleadingly elevate the role that implicit bias may play in causing
19 disparities in healthcare, Dr. Khatibi does not want to be compelled to
20 include discussion of implicit bias in the CME courses she teaches. *Id.* at
21 ¶¶ 32–33.

22 Dr. Singleton likewise does not want to include implicit bias
23 training in her courses because she believes it would be harmful to
24 physicians and their patients. *Id.* at ¶ 41. And at least one of Do No
25 Harm’s members wishes to not discuss implicit bias in CME courses due
26 to concerns that such discussions lead to divisive and discriminatory
27 ideas. *Id.* at ¶ 46.

1 The Board does not contest the controversy around implicit bias
2 trainings or that section 2190.1(d) compels Plaintiffs to include
3 discussion of implicit bias in the CME courses they teach. Rather, the
4 Board argues that Plaintiffs may be compelled to teach these ideas
5 because the “content of continuing medical education courses—including
6 discussion of implicit bias—constitutes government speech.”¹ ECF No.
7 16-1 at 7.

8 Classifying the private content of countless CME courses, created
9 by who knows how many physicians, on the wide range of topics from, for
10 example, “Intraspinal Bone Fragments Resorption in Thoracolumbar
11 Burst Fracture” to “Man With Disappearing Subconjunctival Foreign
12 Body”² as *government* speech would stretch the courts’ understanding of
13 that category of speech beyond recognition. As surely as Congress does
14 not “hide elephants in mouseholes,” an implicit bias mandate does not
15 transform all private continuing education instruction into unprotected
16 government speech. See *Whitman v. American Trucking Ass’ns*, 531 U.S.
17 457, 468 (2001). Private physicians speaking in their private capacity
18 about topics on which they are experts, is not government speech. The
19 motion to dismiss should be denied.

22
23 ¹ The Board does not address Plaintiffs’ unconstitutional condition claim,
24 ECF No. 1 ¶¶ 59–65, in their motion to dismiss. However, as that claim
25 relies on Plaintiffs having a First Amendment right not to be compelled
26 to include discussion of the challenged implicit bias requirement in CME
27 courses taught by them, this Court’s resolution of the pending motion to
28 dismiss would apply to that claim.

² These are just two of the 7,777 CME courses available for credit on the
website of the American Medical Association. See [https://edhub.ama-
assn.org/by-topic](https://edhub.ama-assn.org/by-topic).

STATUTORY AND REGULATORY BACKGROUND

1
2 California’s CME requirement for licensed physicians allows for a
3 broad range of educational courses. The 50-hour biennial requirement,
4 Cal. Code Regs. tit. 16, § 1336(a), can be met by educational activities
5 that “include, but are not limited to,” a wide array of topics concerning
6 medical practice, Cal. Bus. & Prof. Code § 2190.1(a). So long as a course
7 is a proper educational activity and is accredited by the California
8 Medical Association, American Medical Association, American Academy
9 of Family Physicians, Accreditation Council for Continuing Medical
10 Education, or “other organizations and institutions acceptable to” the
11 Medical Board of California, then it counts toward the 50-hour
12 requirement. *See* § 2190.1(g); Cal. Code Regs. tit. 16, § 1337(a)–(b). In
13 addition to that nonexclusive array of possible topics, the legislature
14 mandates a few specific inclusions, such as the implicit bias requirement
15 challenged here. *See* Cal. Bus. & Prof. Code § 2190.1(d).

16 As to the implicit bias requirement, section 2190(d) requires that
17 *all* courses must include “[e]xamples of how implicit bias affects
18 perceptions and treatment decisions of physicians and surgeons, leading
19 to disparities in health outcomes,” or “[s]trategies to address how
20 unintended biases in decisionmaking may contribute to health care
21 disparities by shaping behavior and producing differences in medical
22 treatment along lines of” various individual characteristics, or a
23 combination of both. § 2190.1(e). The law otherwise delegates to the
24 private accrediting organizations the task of establishing standards for
25 approving the content of the implicit bias requirement. § 2190.1(d)(3).

STANDARD OF REVIEW

26
27 When considering a motion to dismiss, courts “must review the
28 complaint in the light most favorable to Plaintiffs, accept their factual

1 allegations as true,” and grant dismissal only if Plaintiffs undoubtedly
 2 “can prove no set of facts in support of [their] claims that would entitle
 3 [them] to relief.” *Balistreri v. Pacifica Police Dep’t*, 901 F.2d 696, 699 (9th
 4 Cir. 1988). Plaintiffs only need to plead general factual allegations, as the
 5 Court “presume[s] that general allegations embrace those specific facts
 6 that are necessary to support the claim.” *See LSO, Ltd. v. Stroh*, 205 F.3d
 7 1146, 1156 (9th Cir. 2000) (citing *Lujan v. Defenders of Wildlife*, 504 U.S.
 8 555, 561 (1992)) (cleaned up).

9 ARGUMENT

10 I. The Content of CME Courses Is Private Speech

11 Much like continuing legal education courses may be given by any
 12 lawyer in his or her private capacity,³ CME courses are given by private
 13 doctors in their private capacity. This private speech is not transformed
 14 into government speech simply because there are mandates that the
 15 speaker must satisfy. Courts “must exercise great caution before
 16 extending our government-speech precedents,” because the failure to do
 17 so renders the doctrine “susceptible to dangerous misuse.” *Matal v. Tam*,
 18 582 U.S. 218, 235 (2017). That is precisely the worry here. The Board
 19 argues that the “content of continuing medical education courses—
 20 including discussion of implicit bias—constitutes government speech.”
 21 ECF No. 16-1 at 7. Were this Court to adopt the Board’s argument, it
 22
 23

24
 25 ³ Some of Plaintiffs’ counsel work for Pacific Legal Foundation (PLF)—a
 26 nonprofit legal organization that defends Americans’ liberties when
 27 threatened by government overreach and abuse. PLF is an accredited
 28 MCLE provider by the State Bar of California. Surely, the State Bar of
 California does not think PLF attorneys are speaking on its behalf when
 giving CLEs.

1 “would constitute a huge and dangerous extension of the government-
2 speech doctrine.”⁴ *Tam*, 582 U.S. at 239.

3 The Supreme Court “conduct[s] a holistic inquiry” to determine
4 whether expression is government speech. *Shurtleff v. City of Boston*, 596
5 U.S. 243, 252 (2022). In conducting that inquiry, the Court considers
6 three main factors: (1) “the history of the expression at issue;” (2) “the
7 public’s likely perception as to who (the government or a private person)
8 is speaking;” and (3) “the extent to which the government has actively
9 shaped or controlled the expression.” *Id.* (citing *Walker v. Texas Div.,
10 Sons of Confederate Veterans, Inc.*, 576 U.S. 200, 209–14 (2015)). All three
11 weigh in favor of CME course content being protected speech.

12 **A. There is no history of CME courses as government speech**

13 In considering whether the first factor is met, courts look to
14 whether the particular type of speech has historically been an avenue for
15 the government to speak. For example, in *Pleasant Grove City v.
16 Summum*, the Court held that permanent monuments displayed on
17 public property are an expression of government speech, in part, because
18 “[g]overnments have long used monuments to speak to the public.” 555
19 U.S. 460, 470 (2009). Similarly, in *Walker*—a case “which likely marks
20 the outer bounds of the government-speech doctrine,” *Tam*, 582 U.S. at
21 238—approved messages on specialty license plates were deemed
22 government speech, in part, because “the history of license plates shows
23 that ... they have long communicated messages from the States.” 576
24 U.S. at 210–11. In short, the factor weighed in favor of a finding of
25
26

27 ⁴ As there are more than 50 licensed professions in California with
28 continuing education requirements, the implications of the Board’s
government speech argument are drastic.

1 government speech because the government has historically spoken
2 through public monuments and specialty license plate designs.

3 On the other hand, in *Tam*, federal registration of trademarks did
4 not convert the marks to government speech. 582 U.S. at 239. There, the
5 Court recognized that trademarks—marks that the government “does not
6 dream up” or edit—“have not traditionally been used to convey”
7 government messages. *Id.* at 235, 238. Likewise, in *Kotler v. Webb*, No.
8 19-2682-GW-SKx, 2019 WL 4635168, at *6–7 (C.D. Cal. Aug. 29, 2019),
9 this Court held that—unlike the specialty license plates in *Walker*—it
10 was “unaware of any history of states using” custom vanity license plates
11 to speak to the public. *See also Ogilvie v. Gordon*, No. 20-cv-01707-JST,
12 2020 WL 10963944, at *3 (N.D. Cal. July 8, 2020) (same).

13 Here, the Board fails to even argue that the content of CMEs has
14 historically been used by the government to speak. Instead, it asserts
15 that the “Legislature has historically used continuing education
16 curriculum requirements as a way to ensure that licensed physicians are
17 adequately trained in subjects the State considers essential.” ECF No.
18 16-1 at 7. But that is not the right inquiry. Even assuming the truth of
19 that unsupported fact,⁵ all it shows is that the state wants to ensure that
20 doctors learn certain subjects. It does not show that the state has
21 historically used CMEs to communicate a governmental message. How
22 doctors acquire knowledge the state deems essential—including who
23 speaks to them—is left almost entirely to the doctors’ discretion.

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⁵ To be sure, even had the Board supported the fact, “district courts may not consider material outside the pleadings when assessing the sufficiency of a complaint under Rule 12(b)(6).” *Khoja v. Orexigen Therapeutics, Inc.*, 899 F.3d 988, 998 (9th Cir. 2018).

1 **B. The public does not perceive the content of CMEs as**
2 **coming from the government**

3 The Board fails to explain how the public perceives CME course
4 content as coming from the government other than noting the regulated
5 nature of the medical profession and the requirements for continuing
6 education. ECF No. 16-1 at 8–9. Does the regulated nature of the medical
7 profession turn one’s annual checkup into government speech? The Board
8 does not say. Surely the public does not perceive a CME like “What
9 Should US Policymakers Learn From International Drug Pricing
10 Transparency Strategies?”⁶ as coming from the government. Merely
11 highlighting the government’s general involvement in regulating the
12 medical profession says nothing about to whom the public attributes the
13 content of continuing education courses.

14 In *Summum*, the Court recognized that the public interprets
15 monuments “as conveying some message on the property owner’s behalf.”
16 555 U.S. at 470–71. The fact that the monuments were on public property
17 suggested the government was speaking. *Id.* Similarly, in *Walker*,
18 because Texas owned the designs on specialty license plates, required
19 drivers to display license plates, and included the state name on all
20 plates, the specialty plate designs were more likely to be associated with
21 the government. 576 U.S. at 212.

22 In contrast, in *Tam*, there was “no evidence that the public
23 associates the contents of trademarks with the” government. 582 U.S. at
24 238. Indeed, the government disavowed that registration constituted
25 approval of a mark, and the Court noted it was “unlikely that more than
26 a tiny fraction of the public has any idea what federal registration of a
27

28 ⁶ Another course available for CME credit on the AMA’s website, in which
different approaches to drug pricing were compared and debated.

1 trademark means.” *Id.* at 237. And this Court in *Kotler* recognized that,
2 “it strain[ed] believability to argue that viewers perceive the government
3 as speaking through personalized vanity plates.” 2019 WL 4635168, at
4 *7. *See also Ogilvie*, 2020 WL 10963944, at *3–4.

5 The same is true here. Physicians are required to take 50 hours of
6 CME biennially. Cal. Code Regs. tit. 16, § 1336(a). Cal. Bus. & Prof. Code
7 § 2190.1(a) identifies a wide array of nonexclusive topics that will be
8 approved for credit so long as an individual course is approved by certain
9 organizations. In addition, a few specific topics, like section 2190.1(d)’s
10 implicit bias requirement, are also mandated. Thus, at most, viewers
11 may view these requirements as “governmental” mandates. But just
12 because there is a governmental mandate does not mean the public
13 recognizes the content of those courses—which are approved and
14 provided by private groups and physicians—as government *speech*.

15 Indeed, if “[t]he public understands the difference” between
16 specialty plate designs and custom vanity license plates, *Kotler*, 2019 WL
17 4635168, at *7, then so too does the public understand the difference
18 between the government requiring instruction on certain topics (not
19 government speech) and, for example, the county health department
20 publishing COVID-19 guidance (government speech).

21 **C. The government does not control the content of CMEs**

22 California exercises almost no control over the content of CMEs.
23 The 7,777 courses available on the AMA’s website represent just a small
24 fraction of the courses that are eligible for CME credit in California. In
25 none of those courses is the government exercising control over the
26 content; content creation is left to the private physicians and accrediting
27 organizations.
28

1 The lack of control over the content of CME courses stands in stark
2 contrast to *Summum*, where the Court noted the history of municipalities
3 using various methods to “exercise editorial control” over the monuments
4 they chose to erect. 555 U.S. at 472. Editorial control is necessary because
5 monuments displayed on public property are “meant to convey and have
6 the effect of conveying a government message.” *Id.* Likewise, in *Walker*,
7 Texas law granted the government “sole control” over license plates, thus
8 the government had to “approve every specialty plate design proposal
9 before the design can appear on a Texas plate.” 576 U.S. at 213.

10 Even though the governmental control was much greater in both
11 *Shurtleff* and *Tam* than it is here, the Court in those cases held it was
12 insufficient to invoke the government speech doctrine. In *Shurtleff*, the
13 City of Boston permitted private groups to request to display flags of their
14 choosing on one flagpole outside of city hall. 596 U.S. at 248. The Court
15 held that the display of private groups’ flags on a city flagpole was not
16 government speech because the city exerted no control over the messages
17 conveyed by the flags. *Id.* at 256–57. Similarly, in *Tam*, so long as
18 trademarks sought for registration met viewpoint-neutral statutory
19 requirements, registration of the mark by the Patent and Trademark
20 Office was mandatory. 582 U.S. at 235. And in *Kotler*, while the
21 government had to approve every proposed customized vanity license
22 plate, it was “nonsensical” to conclude that government approval of
23 hundreds of thousands of custom plates in California equated to the
24 “direct control” contemplated under the Supreme Court’s government
25 speech precedents. 2019 WL 4635168, at *7. *See also Ogilvie*, 2020 WL
26 10963944, at *4 (“The fact that the government exerts regulatory control
27 over speech cannot, on its own, transform that speech into government
28 speech”).

1 Here, the limited control the government exerts over the content
2 discussed in CME courses does not suffice to transform the content into
3 government speech. Aside from a few specific inclusions like the implicit
4 bias requirement, state law merely suggests a non-exhaustive array of
5 topics. *See* Cal. Bus. & Prof. Code § 2190.1(a). Beyond that, courses must
6 be approved by one of many *private* accrediting organizations for the
7 Medical Board to recognize a course for continuing education credit.⁷ *See*
8 § 2190.1(g); Cal. Code Regs. tit. 16, § 1337(a)–(b). Ultimately, the
9 government exerts almost no control over the topics of CME courses—or
10 their content—and instead delegates that task to private organizations.

11 Nor does the government exert sufficient control over the implicit
12 bias requirement to convert content meant to satisfy that requirement
13 into government speech. Section 2190.1(d) states that all courses must
14 include “[e]xamples of how implicit bias affects perceptions and
15 treatment decisions of physicians and surgeons, leading to disparities in
16 health outcomes,” or “[s]trategies to address how unintended biases in
17 decisionmaking may contribute to health care disparities by shaping
18 behavior and producing differences in medical treatment along lines of”
19 various individual characteristics, or a combination of both. § 2190.1(e).
20 Within those parameters, the content of the requirement is left entirely
21 to the discretion of individual instructors and private accrediting
22 organizations. *See* § 2190.1(d)(3).

23 **D. This compelled speech case is fundamentally different**
24 **from government speech and school curriculum cases**

25 As seen in the cases discussed above, the government speech
26 doctrine arises where the government is concerned about speech that
27

28 ⁷ If a particular course is not audited by the Medical Board, then it is
presumptively approved for continuing education credit.

1 might be attributed *to it*. From the denial of a religious group’s proposed
2 monument, to the rejection of a specialty license plate design, the Court’s
3 government speech cases arise where the government rejects speech that
4 might be associated with, and attributed to, the government itself.

5 The Board ignores that key context, which is wholly absent in this
6 case. In fact, it fails to discuss the Court’s government speech cases at
7 any depth. Instead, the Board relies on school curriculum cases to claim
8 that CME courses, including the implicit bias requirement, are
9 government speech. This Court should reject those strained efforts.

10 All cases relied upon by the Board involve circumstances far afield
11 from this case, where public entities or public officials are speaking.
12 *Nampa Classical Academy v. Goesling*, 447 F. App’x 776, 778 (9th Cir.
13 2011), explains the Board’s line of cases succinctly. There, the court held
14 that because charter schools “are governmental entities, the curriculum
15 presented in such a school is not the speech of teachers ... but that of the
16 [state] government.” The court so held “because the message is
17 communicated by employees working at institutions that are state-
18 funded, state-authorized, and extensively state-regulated.” *Id.* The
19 remaining cases cited by the Board follow a similar path. *See, e.g.,*
20 *Hazelwood Sch. Dist. v. Kuhlmeier*, 484 U.S. 260, 271 (1988) (public
21 school officials free to “exercise great[] control over” expressive activities
22 of students that “may fairly be characterized as part of the school
23 curriculum”); *Brown v. Li*, 308 F.3d 939, 947 (9th Cir. 2002) (public
24 university may restrict student speech so long as the “limitation is
25 reasonably related to a legitimate pedagogical purpose”); *Downs v. Los*
26 *Angeles Unified Sch. Dist.*, 228 F.3d 1003, 1005 (9th Cir. 2000) (public
27 high schools may decline to allow views that are “antagonistic and
28 contrary” to the school’s own to be expressed on school property to

1 students by one of the school’s teachers).⁸ None of the characteristics of
2 the school curriculum cases are present here, where private individuals
3 voluntarily teach CME courses to private licensed physicians, under the
4 auspices of private organizations responsible for accrediting the courses,
5 and largely unsupervised by the government except for the broad
6 standards and few mandated inclusions.

7 Perhaps the obvious reason that government speech and school
8 curriculum cases are inapplicable here, is that the implicit bias
9 requirement, if not purely compelled speech, is more akin to a disclosure
10 or notice requirement. But even if that were true, it would not implicate
11 the government speech doctrine. For example, in *National Institute of*
12 *Family and Life Advocates v. Becerra (NIFLA)*, 138 S. Ct. 2361, 2369–70
13 (2018), a California law mandated crisis pregnancy centers to post a
14 “government-drafted notice on site.” Because the notice requirement
15 compelled clinics’ speech, the Court analyzed the requirement as
16 compelled—not government—speech. *Id.* at 2371. Even under *Zauderer*
17 *v. Office of Disciplinary Counsel of Supreme Ct. of Ohio*, 471 U.S. 626,
18 650–51 (1985), mandated disclosures of “purely factual and
19 uncontroversial information” in commercial advertising implicate an
20 advertiser’s First Amendment rights. If section 2190.1(d) only sought to

21 ⁸ The district court cases cited by the Board likewise fail to support its
22 attempt to equate public school curriculum cases with this compelled
23 speech. See *Riley’s American Heritage Farms v. Claremont Unified Sch.*
24 *Dist.*, No. EDCV 18-2185-JGB-SHKx, 2019 WL 3240105, at *6 (C.D. Cal.
25 Mar. 6, 2019) (school districts enjoy “wide discretion in designing
26 curriculum”); *California Parents for Equalization of Educational*
27 *Materials v. Torlakson*, 267 F.Supp.3d 1218, 1234 (N.D. Cal. 2017) (the
28 Fourteenth Amendment’s Equal Protection Clause “does not provide a
basis to challenge [public school] curriculum decisions”); *California*
Parents for Equalization of Educational Materials v. Noonan, 600
F.Supp.2d 1088, 1111 (E.D. Cal. 2009) (same).

1 compel CME instructors to recite a governmental message verbatim—it
2 does much more than that of course—it would still be unconstitutional
3 compelled speech under *NIFLA*.

4 The Board makes much of the Court’s admonishment in *Walker*
5 that government speech can still be government speech even if “private
6 parties take part in the design and propagation of a message.” ECF No.
7 16-1 at 10 (quoting 576 U.S. at 217). But the Court’s admonishment was
8 made in the context of individuals submitting proposed designs for
9 specialty license plates to the government, and once a design was
10 accepted for use on a plate, it transformed into government speech under
11 the Court’s analysis. *See* 576 U.S. at 217. The same was true of
12 monuments accepted for display in *Summum. Id.* The same is not true
13 here, where as discussed above, speech made to comply with the implicit
14 bias requirement remains private expression.

15 *Burwell v. Portland Sch. Dist. No. 1J*, No. 3:19-cv-00385-JR, 2019
16 WL 9441663, at *5 (D. Or. Mar. 23, 2019), is not to the contrary. There,
17 parents complained that students were, among other things, required to
18 participate in anti-gun demonstrations during school. *Id.* at *2.
19 Considering the plaintiffs’ compelled *subsidization* claim—in which
20 plaintiffs objected to being forced to subsidize through taxes anti-gun
21 speech with which they disagreed—the court held that including
22 students in expressing the government school’s message in favor of gun
23 control did not prevent that message from being classified as government
24 speech. *Id.* at *5.

25 Rather than “dictate” the curriculum of CME courses, ECF No. 16-
26 1 at 11, Plaintiffs seek to not be compelled to engage in controversial
27 speech regarding implicit bias. Perhaps the Board’s quip would ring true
28 were this a case of physicians complaining about being required to take

1 a course on implicit bias. In such a case, the school curriculum cases
2 would at least superficially apply, as the doctors would be attempting to
3 dictate curriculum they are required to take.⁹ But that is not this case.
4 Instead, this case involves private actors given broad parameters on
5 including discussion of implicit bias in CME courses taught by them. All
6 specifics on fulfilling those broad parameters are up to individual
7 instructors like Plaintiffs and private organizations responsible for
8 accrediting the courses. The government’s speech is thus not at issue.

9 **II. Plaintiffs Sufficiently Allege a Compelled Speech Claim**

10 The Board contests whether Plaintiffs have sufficiently alleged a
11 compelled speech claim due to supposedly failing to allege that complying
12 with the implicit bias requirement would cause Plaintiffs to utter speech
13 that is “readily associated” with them. ECF No. 16-1 at 12. The Board’s
14 argument fails for three reasons.

15 First, the Board gets the standard wrong. It argues that the
16 standard for determining whether speech is compelled is whether the
17 message is “readily associated” with an objecting plaintiff. ECF No. 16-1
18 at 12. It is not. Instead, courts evaluate whether the government
19 compulsion “alters the content” of a plaintiff’s speech to determine
20 whether a plaintiff has stated a compelled speech claim. *Green v. Miss*
21 *United States of America, LLC*, 52 F.4th 773, 791 (9th Cir. 2022).

22 At least as early as *W. Va. State Bd. of Educ. v. Barnette*, the Court
23 recognized the importance of altered content in speech compulsion cases.

24
25 ⁹ This is how the State Bar of California mandates implicit bias training.
26 Cal. Bus. & Prof. Code § 6070.5. Whether that mandate is constitutional
27 is a different question not necessarily implicated by this case. To be clear,
28 Plaintiffs do not argue here that the school curriculum cases would apply
in such a case, only that the applicability of those cases could be plausibly
argued. That possibility is not present here.

1 319 U.S. 624 (1943). There, the Court declared compulsory flag saluting
2 and reciting of the pledge of allegiance in schools violated the First
3 Amendment because the requirements forced students “to utter what is
4 not in [their] mind[s].” *Id.* at 626–29, 634, 642. More recently, in *NIFLA*,
5 the disclosure requirement was a content-based regulation of speech
6 because it “compel[led] individuals to speak a particular message,” thus
7 “altering the content of their speech.” 138 S. Ct. at 2371 (citing
8 authorities) (cleaned up). In between *Barnette* and *NIFLA*, the Court’s
9 analysis has remained consistent. *See, e.g., Riley v. Nat’l Fed’n of the*
10 *Blind of N. Carolina, Inc.*, 487 U.S. 781, 795 (1988) (speech compelled
11 because it “necessarily alter[ed] the content of the speech”); *Miami*
12 *Herald Publishing Co. v. Tornillo*, 418 U.S. 241, 256–58 (1974) (law
13 intruded on the right of editors to choose the content to be published);
14 *Wooley v. Maynard*, 430 U.S. 705, 715–17 (1977) (forced individuals to
15 use their private property as a “mobile billboard” for the state).

16 Here, Plaintiffs’ Complaint correctly alleges that section 2190.1(d)
17 will alter the content of their speech. For example, Dr. Khatibi alleges
18 that because her “courses do not generally cover disparities in care, and
19 because there is limited time available for instruction in a given course,
20 section 2190.1(d) ... prevents her from having a more robust and
21 appropriate discussion of the topic.” ECF No. 1, ¶ 33. Dr. Singleton
22 alleges that compliance with section 2190.1(d) would force her “to include
23 information that is not relevant to her chosen topic,” and “would require
24 her to change a portion of the talk to include information on implicit bias
25 at the expense of other information she would prefer to include.” ECF No.
26 1, ¶ 40. And Do No Harm alleges that at least one of its members “would
27 not include discussion of implicit bias in the continuing medical
28

1 education courses taught by her” if not for section 2190.1(d). ECF No. 1,
2 ¶ 47. *See also* ECF No. 1, ¶¶ 51–52.

3 Second, even if the Board is correct that Plaintiffs must allege that
4 discussion of implicit bias is “readily associated” with Plaintiffs instead
5 of the government, Defendants are incorrect that the Complaint fails to
6 allege it. Take Dr. Singleton who alleges that “informing an audience of
7 her disagreement with including mandatory discussion of implicit bias
8 would be insufficient to make clear that the government’s required
9 message is not her own” because of the practical requirements of section
10 2190.1(d). ECF No. 1 at ¶ 41.

11 Third, the Board’s factual *ipse dixit*—that medical professionals
12 taking CME courses “understand that it is the Legislature and the
13 Medical Board that set the standards for these courses and determine
14 which courses are eligible for credit”—is wholly unsupported and
15 otherwise improper on a motion to dismiss. ECF No. 16-1 at 12. As a
16 result of its factual “understanding,” the Board argues that “any
17 discussion of implicit bias will be understood as coming from the Medical
18 Board.” *Id.* Whether medical professionals understand a discussion of
19 implicit bias as coming from the course instructor or the Medical Board
20 is a factual question not properly before this Court. And in any event, it
21 is plainly wrong.

22 For the reasons discussed above, CMEs are given by private
23 individuals in their private capacity. No listener associates the discussion
24 on implicit bias embedded within the CME to the Board. For example,
25 when an instructor is giving a CME on “Tubular Diskectomy vs.
26 Conventional Diskectomy for Treatment of Sciatica,”¹⁰ no one thinks that
27 is the Medical Board speaking. Indeed, that is the whole reason behind
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¹⁰ This is another course offered for CME credit on the AMA’s website.

1 structuring the implicit bias requirement the way section 2190.1(d) does.
2 By forcing private individuals to talk about it *as part of their expertise*, it
3 gives the implicit bias requirement the imprimatur as coming from these
4 private medical experts. If the legislature wanted these experts to make
5 an implicit bias disclosure that merely recited the state’s message, it
6 could have crafted the law that way.¹¹ It did not. Because it did not,
7 section 2190.1(d) compels private individuals to alter their private
8 speech.

9 Finally, if the Board is correct that “Plaintiffs fail to allege that
10 discussion of implicit bias would be associated with them,” and have thus
11 failed to state a compelled speech claim as a result, this Court should
12 grant Plaintiffs leave to amend the complaint. According to the Ninth
13 Circuit, Fed. R. Civ. P. 15(a)’s policy of “freely” granting leave to amend
14 is to be carried out “with extreme liberality.” *Owens v. Kaiser Found.*
15 *Health Plan, Inc.*, 244 F.3d 708, 712 (9th Cir. 2001) (quoting *Morongo*
16 *Band of Mission Indians v. Rose*, 893 F.2d 1074, 1079 (9th Cir. 1990)).

17 CONCLUSION

18 For all the reasons discussed above, this Court should deny the
19 Board’s Motion to Dismiss. Should this Court grant the Board’s Motion,
20 Plaintiffs request leave to amend the Complaint.
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28 ¹¹ That too would have been unconstitutional under *NIFLA*, but it would
have been more closely associated with the Board.

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2 Respectfully submitted,

3
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