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7
8 IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
FOR THE NORTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

9
10 **PEOPLE OF THE STATE OF**
CALIFORNIA, ex rel. Xavier Becerra,
Attorney General of California,

11
12 Plaintiff,
13 v.

14 **UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF**
EDUCATION and **MIGUEL CARDONA**, in
15 his official capacity as the United States
Secretary of Education,

16
17 Defendants.

Case No. 3:21-cv-384-JD

**DEFENDANTS' NOTICE OF MOTION,
MOTION TO DISMISS, AND
MEMORANDUM IN SUPPORT**

Date: June 10, 2021

Time: 10:00 a.m.

Courtroom: 11

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1
2 **NOTICE OF MOTION**

3 PLEASE TAKE NOTICE that on June 10, 2021, at 10:00 a.m. in the United States
4 Courthouse, San Jose, California, Defendants Miguel Cardona, in his official capacity as
5 Secretary of Education, and the U.S. Department of Education (“Department”), by and through
6 undersigned counsel, will move the Court to dismiss this action.

7 **MOTION TO DISMISS**

8 Defendants hereby move to dismiss this action in its entirety pursuant to Federal Rule of
9 Civil Procedure 12(b)(1), for the reasons set forth in the following Memorandum.

10 **MEMORANDUM OF POINTS AND AUTHORITIES**

11 **INTRODUCTION**

12 In this case, the State of California (the “State”) brings Administrative Procedure Act
13 (“APA”) challenges to a 2020 final rule revising the Department’s regulations under Title IV of
14 the Higher Education Act (“HEA”) related to distance education, *see* 85 Fed. Reg. 54742 (Sept.
15 2, 2020) (“2020 Rule”). The State focuses on two discrete revisions and their alleged impact on
16 proprietary schools. Protecting students and regulating schools—including proprietary schools—
17 is a critical part of the Department’s mission, and the Department has begun a review to
18 determine how best to meet that mandate. However, this litigation is not a proper vehicle for
19 such an effort. Both of the State’s claims should be dismissed for lack of standing because
20 neither of the challenged revisions is likely to cause a cognizable injury to the State.
21 Longstanding authority bars states from suing the federal government *parens patriae*, on behalf
22 of their residents, as the State attempts to do. It cannot do so because the federal government has
23 its own sovereign relationship with the nation’s citizens.

24 The State also asserts a supposed competitive injury to State schools and alleged burdens
25 on its consumer protection law enforcement and its Cal Grant program, but those injuries cannot
26 support standing. They depend on the highly speculative premise that, as a result of the two
27 challenged revisions, proprietary schools will remain eligible for the Department’s Title IV
28 financial aid programs when they otherwise would not have, and more students will then attend

1 proprietary rather than California public schools. However, the State fails to show that any such
 2 impact is likely, or even reasonably probable. The first revision allows for automatic renewal of
 3 a school’s eligibility certification if its application has remained pending without a decision by
 4 the Department for at least a year. But schools could already get monthly extensions before the
 5 2020 Rule, calling into question the State’s premise that automatic renewal would affect a
 6 school’s eligible status—much less the even more speculative impact on State school
 7 enrollments. The second revision removes a 50% cap that had limited the number of credits
 8 students enrolled at one Title IV-eligible school may earn from courses at other Title IV-eligible
 9 schools under common ownership. But again, the State fails to show that removal of the 50% cap
 10 would likely impact any given school’s Title IV eligibility or have a downstream impact on the
 11 State. The Court should therefore dismiss this action for lack of standing.

STATEMENT OF THE ISSUES

12
 13 Whether the State’s allegations of injury caused by the regulatory revisions they
 14 challenge confer standing to proceed in this Court as required by Article III of the Constitution.
 15

BACKGROUND

I. Statutory Background

16
 17
 18 The HEA’s Title IV, 20 U.S.C. §§ 1070 *et seq.*, authorizes the Department to enter into
 19 agreements with certain public, non-profit, and proprietary postsecondary schools that allow
 20 students at those schools to receive federal financial aid, including grants, loans and work-study
 21 funds. *See* 20 U.S.C. §§ 1001, 1002. The HEA vests in the Secretary the responsibility to certify
 22 postsecondary schools as qualified for Title IV participation, for periods up to six years, subject
 23 to renewal. 20 U.S.C. § 1099c(a), (g)(1).

II. Regulatory Background

24
 25 Congress has vested the Secretary with broad authority to “make, promulgate, issue,
 26 rescind, and amend rules and regulations governing the manner of operation of, and governing
 27 the applicable programs administered by, the Department.” 20 U.S.C. § 1221e-3; *see id.* § 3474.
 28 Pursuant to this authority, the Department has promulgated regulations governing a school’s

1 Title IV participation. 34 C.F.R. §§ 668.1 –.29. Following a negotiated rulemaking process,
2 which resulted in consensus language in the proposed rule, *see* 85 Fed. Reg. 18638, 18642 (Apr.
3 2, 2020), the Department promulgated the 2020 Rule at issue here on September 2, 2020. The
4 Rule will go into effect on July 1, 2021. Pursuant to 20 U.S.C. § 1089(c)(2)(A), the Secretary
5 also designated the 2020 Rule for early implementation. 85 Fed. Reg. at 54743.

6 The first provision challenged by the State is a revision to 34 C.F.R. § 668.13. That
7 provision implements Congress’s grant of authority to the Department to certify a school’s Title
8 IV eligibility. *See* 20 U.S.C. § 1099c(g)(1). In accord with the statute, the regulation provides
9 that a school’s period of participation following certification is generally “no more than six years
10 after the date [of certification],” 34 C.F.R. § 668.13(b)(1), but is subject to renewal. Once a
11 school submits a materially complete renewal application, an expired certification will be
12 extended month to month until the Secretary issues a decision. *Id.* § 668.13(b)(2). The 2020 Rule
13 retains those provisions while further providing that, if the Secretary fails to “make a
14 determination to grant or deny certification within 12 months” of the prior certification period’s
15 expiration, the school “will automatically be granted renewal of certification, which may be
16 provisional.” *See* 34 C.F.R. § 668.13(b)(3). A provisional certification may not last beyond the
17 end of the following award year, *id.* § 668.13(b)(2)(i), and may be revoked, *id.* § 668.13(d).

18 The second challenged provision is a revision to 34 C.F.R. § 668.5, which addresses
19 schools’ entry into written arrangements with each other to share in providing educational
20 programs to their students. Before the 2020 Rule, when Title IV-eligible schools under common
21 ownership or control entered into such an arrangement, the school granting the degree had to
22 provide more than 50 percent of the educational program. *See id.* § 668.5(a)(2)(ii) (until July 1,
23 2021). The 2020 Rule removed that requirement. *See id.* § 668.5(a)(2) (effective July 1, 2021).

24 **III. The State’s Complaint**

25 The State filed the instant action on January 15, 2021, asserting two APA claims. Claim 1
26 asserts, pursuant to 5 U.S.C. § 706(2)(A) and (C), that the 2020 Rule’s revision of 34 C.F.R.
27 § 668.13 to allow for automatic certification renewal after 12 months’ inaction (the “Automatic
28 Renewal Provision”) is not in accordance with law and in excess of statutory authority. Compl.

¶ 112. Claim 2 asserts, again pursuant to § 706(2)(A), that the Automatic Renewal Provision as well as the removal of the 50 percent requirement in § 668.5 for Title IV-eligible schools under common ownership (the “Common Ownership Provision”) are arbitrary, capricious, or otherwise not in accordance with law because, the State alleges, the Department failed to “provid[e] a reasoned explanation” for these revisions. Compl. ¶¶ 114–17. The State asks the Court to set aside the two provisions and declare them in violation of the APA. Compl. at 19.

ARGUMENT

I. Legal Standard

Plaintiffs bear the burden to establish each element of the “irreducible constitutional minimum of standing[.]” *Lujan v. Defs. of Wildlife*, 504 U.S. 555, 560–61 (1992). Plaintiffs must show that they have “(1) suffered an injury in fact, (2) that is fairly traceable to the challenged conduct of the defendant, and (3) that is likely to be redressed by a favorable judicial decision.” *Spokeo, Inc. v. Robins*, 136 S. Ct. 1540, 1547 (2016). At the pleading stage, plaintiffs must “clearly allege facts demonstrating each element.” *Id.* (citation omitted). Moreover, these elements must be satisfied “for each claim [a plaintiff] seeks to press and for each form of relief that is sought.” *Town of Chester, N.Y. v. Laroe Estates, Inc.*, 137 S. Ct. 1645, 1647 (2017) (citation omitted). Because the State’s challenges with respect to the Automatic Renewal Provision and the Common Ownership Provision are “legally distinct,” the State must establish standing to raise each of those challenges independently. *Ctr. for Biological Diversity v. Bernhardt*, 946 F.3d 553, 560 (9th Cir. 2019) (recognizing challenges to different provisions of the same statute presented “legally distinct” claims that required separate showings of standing).

Here, the State bears a heightened burden because it challenges the Department’s regulation of independent third parties—proprietary schools unaffiliated with the State. *See Lujan*, 504 U.S. at 562 (“When, . . . as in this case, a plaintiff’s asserted injury arises from the government’s allegedly unlawful regulation (or lack of regulation) of someone else, much more is needed.”). The State thus must “adduce facts showing” that the causation and redressability prongs are satisfied despite the exercise of discretion by such schools, which “the courts cannot

1 presume either to control or to predict.” *See id.* (internal quotation omitted). Such a showing is
 2 “substantially more difficult to establish.” *Id.* (internal quotation omitted).

3 **II. The State Lacks Standing**

4 **A. The State Fails To Identify a Viable Injury Fairly Traceable to the 2020 Rule**

5 **1. The State Cannot Sue the Federal Government on Behalf of Its Residents 6 Under a Theory of *Parens Patriae* or Other Third-Party Standing**

7 “A State does not have standing as *parens patriae* to bring an action against the Federal
 8 Government.” *See Alfred L. Snapp & Son, Inc. v. Puerto Rico*, 458 U.S. 592, 607, 610 n.16
 9 (1982). The federal government has its own sovereign relationship with the nation’s citizens,
 10 which precludes states from asserting those same citizens’ interests *against* the federal
 11 government. *Massachusetts v. Mellon*, 262 U.S. 447, 485–86 (1923) (“[I]t is no part of [a state’s]
 12 duty or power to enforce [the rights of its citizens] in respect of their relations with the federal
 13 government.”); *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. 497, 520 n.17 (2007) (state has no standing “to
 14 protect her citizens from the operation of federal statutes”). By expressly invoking a “quasi-
 15 sovereign interest” in “the health and well-being” of its residents, Compl. ¶ 87, the State invites
 16 the Court to ignore this long-standing bar—but that is the very interest that courts have
 17 repeatedly recognized is unavailable against the federal government. *E.g., Nevada v. Burford*,
 18 918 F.2d 854, 858 (9th Cir. 1990) (rejecting state’s asserted “quasi-sovereign interest in the
 19 health and well-being” of its residents—the interest at issue in *Snapp*—as proper basis to sue
 20 federal government). This clear authority precludes the State’s standing on this basis. Nor does
 21 the State’s assertion of APA claims suggest otherwise. *Gov’t of Manitoba v. Bernhardt*, 923 F.3d
 22 173, 181 (D.C. Cir. 2019) (“[T]he APA evinces no congressional intent to authorize a State as
 23 *parens patriae* to sue the federal government.”); *Maryland v. U.S. Dep’t of Educ.*, 474 F. Supp.
 24 3d 13, 44 (D.D.C. 2020), *vacated on other grounds*, 2020 WL 7868112 (D.C. Cir. Dec. 22,
 25 2020) (“The APA never explicitly mentions a state or state agency, much less expressly
 26 authorizes a state or state entity to sue the federal government in their role as *parens patriae*.”).¹

27 ¹ The State’s suggestion that the 2020 Rule concedes that the challenged provisions may harm
 28 students is also flawed because it relies on language in the Rule relating to a different provision,
 34 C.F.R. § 668.5(c), not at issue in this case. *See* Compl. ¶ 91 (citing 85 Fed. Reg. 54772).

1 Nor does the third-party standing doctrine allow the State to circumvent the *parens*
2 *patriae* bar. In *Washington v. Trump*, 847 F.3d 1151 (9th Cir. 2017), the Ninth Circuit
3 recognized that state colleges could assert interests of *their own* identifiable students and faculty.
4 *Id.* at 1160–61. That case provides no mechanism for a state to invoke the interests of its
5 residents in general, or even the subset of those residents generally seeking higher education,
6 against the federal government. Indeed, the State’s theory hinges on the notion that students and
7 prospective students at *non-state* schools are at risk. *E.g.*, Compl. ¶ 89 (alleging “for-profit
8 schools” “take advantage of and defraud” their students). This is nothing other than an assertion
9 of *parens patriae* standing, which is precluded for the reasons already explained.²

10 The State also asserts a quasi-sovereign interest in enforcing its consumer protection
11 laws. Compl. ¶¶ 97–98. But this is not a situation like that in *New York v. United States*, 505
12 U.S. 144 (1992), where the Court recognized a state’s quasi-sovereign interest in not being
13 commandeered by the federal government to enforce federal law. *See id.* at 160. Nor do either
14 of the two challenged provisions interfere with the State’s power to “create and enforce a legal
15 code.” *Virginia ex rel. Cuccinelli v. Sebelius*, 656 F.3d 253, 268–70 (4th Cir. 2011). As another
16 court explained, a state’s investment in investigating fraudulent proprietary programs is not
17 attributable to the Department. *Maryland*, 474 F. Supp. 3d at 36. “Instead, *the States’*
18 *legislatures* have presumably passed laws that protect consumers and that authorize the
19 investigation and prosecution of fraudulent [proprietary p]rograms, and the state officials who
20 enforce such laws have elected to use their prosecutorial discretion to target, investigate, and
21 prosecute [such] Programs for running afoul of state law.” *Id.* Although the State identifies its
22 enforcement of consumer protection laws as one of its contributions to postsecondary education
23 regulation, Compl. ¶ 97, the Department imposes no obligation on states to undertake that role,
24 nor does it purport to direct states’ exercise of their enforcement discretion. The State cannot

25
26 ² Nor are the requirements for third-party standing otherwise satisfied here. *See McCollum v.*
27 *Cal. Dep’t. of Corr. & Rehab.*, 647 F.3d 870, 879 (9th Cir. 2011) (“[T]o demonstrate third party
28 standing, a plaintiff must show his own injury, a close relationship between himself and the
parties whose rights he asserts, and the inability of the parties to assert their own rights.” (citation
omitted)). For example, students with standing could bring the same challenge.

1 circumvent the *parens patriae* bar here by invoking an interest in enforcing its own laws.

2 **2. The State Does Not Identify a Cognizable Proprietary Interest That**
3 **Could Support Its Standing Here**

4 The State’s theory of competitive injury is equally flawed. *See* Compl. ¶¶ 57–77. The
5 State alleges that the two challenged provisions “deregulate and ease federal oversight of the
6 proprietary-school industry,” Compl. ¶ 67, and that students may then “enroll in schools and
7 programs that would otherwise be inaccessible due to Title IV ineligibility,” *id.* ¶ 68. The State
8 goes so far as to suggest that the diversity of public school students will be affected. *See id.* ¶ 71.

9 The State’s theory does not fall into any accepted category of proprietary harm, and its
10 reliance on a speculative and attenuated chain of possible actions by third parties is also fatal to
11 its standing. Courts have recognized that states can establish standing when they show a concrete
12 and particularized injury to a proprietary interest of their own state institutions. Thus in *Trump*,
13 the Ninth Circuit held that the state plaintiffs could challenge an Executive Order restricting the
14 admission of citizens of certain foreign countries into the United States because state universities
15 had faculty or students who were citizens of those countries, had expended funds on those
16 individuals’ visa applications and other arrangements, and relied on those foreign faculty and
17 students to achieve their mission of “global engagement.” *See* 858 F.3d at 1159–60; *cf. Regents*
18 *v. U.S. Dep’t of Homeland Sec.*, 279 F. Supp. 3d 1011, 1033–34 (N.D. Cal. 2018) (state
19 university established proprietary harm where it invested in its own student DACA recipients).

20 But here the State does not allege that the two challenged provisions will directly impact
21 State schools or their students. To the contrary, the State posits competitive harm based on the
22 provisions’ application to proprietary schools. This theory should be rejected because, for one
23 thing, the competitor standing doctrine is inapplicable here. Competitor standing may be
24 appropriate in instances where businesses bid against each other for government contracts or
25 grants. *See Planned Parenthood v. U.S. Dep’t of Health & Human Servs.*, 946 F.3d 1100, 1108
26 (9th Cir. 2020) (relevant injury-in-fact for competitor standing is “the inability to compete on an
27 equal footing in [a] bidding process” (internal quotation omitted)). Thus, in *Planned Parenthood*,
28 the court held the plaintiff could challenge certain federal grant requirements even though it had

1 not participated in the grant competition. *Id.* at 1109; *see also City of L.A. v. Barr*, 929 F.3d
2 1163, 1170–74 (9th Cir. 2019) (sanctuary city’s alleged disadvantage in federal policing grant
3 competition conferred standing). Courts have also recognized competitor standing where the
4 government provided a direct regulatory benefit to the plaintiff’s marketplace competitor by
5 authorizing its operation in the United States, *Int’l Brotherhood of Teamsters v. U.S. Dep’t of*
6 *Transp.*, 861 F.3d 944, 951 (9th Cir. 2017), or approving its utility rates, *La. Energy & Power*
7 *Auth. v. FERC*, 141 F.3d 364, 367 (D.C. Cir. 1998).

8 In contrast to those cases, the State does not bid against proprietary schools for Title IV
9 funds. Nor are individual students comparable to federal grant dollars or market share in a
10 product or service. For one thing, students make independent decisions about what schools to
11 attend. One proprietary school’s loss of Title IV eligibility does not translate to an automatic
12 transfer of its students to State schools. Such students may choose to attend a different
13 proprietary school, a public school in another state, or forego higher education altogether. Any
14 supposed impact on State school enrollments therefore is purely speculative—particularly in the
15 context of distance education, where even more options are available. Moreover, the premise that
16 the State reaps a financial benefit from student enrollments at its schools is backwards. In fact, as
17 the State concedes, State school enrollments cost the State *more* money. *E.g.*, Compl. ¶ 61 (citing
18 budgetary request for additional \$175 million to accommodate “additional, expected enrollments
19 [at California community colleges] from veterans returning from Iraq and Afghanistan and the
20 closure of several for-profit schools”); *see also* 79 Fed. Reg. 64890, 65081 (Oct. 31, 2014)
21 (recognizing “[s]tate and local governments may experience increased costs” if students transfer
22 from proprietary to public schools). The possibility of additional State school students’
23 participation in the Federal Work-Study Program, Compl. ¶ 76, does not change the fact that, on
24 balance, the higher enrollment at State schools would yield a net financial loss to the State.

25 The State’s further assumption that the challenged provisions will save some proprietary
26 schools from losing their eligibility for Title IV participation is also speculative. The Automatic
27 Renewal Provision would only come into play once the Department had failed to act on a
28 school’s certification for a year. *See* 34 C.F.R. § 668.13(b)(3). But even without that provision, a

1 school would have received indefinite monthly extensions of its certification as long as it
2 submitted a materially complete application at least 90 days before its current certification
3 expired. *See id.* § 668.13(b)(2). The State thus has failed to show any likelihood that the
4 provision will impact schools’ Title IV eligibility, much less that it might impact the distribution
5 of students between State and proprietary schools. Indeed, the Complaint identifies no instance
6 before the 2020 Rule where a proprietary school lost Title IV eligibility because the Department
7 failed to act on its renewal application within a year, nor where such a result caused an increase
8 in State school enrollments.

9 With respect to the Common Ownership Provision, the State similarly fails to show that
10 any proprietary school lost Title IV eligibility due to the 50% cap that was in place prior to the
11 2020 Rule, or that such a loss increased State school enrollments. The notion that schools would
12 nevertheless have lost eligibility in the future, had the 50% cap remained in effect, is pure
13 conjecture. After all, a school faced with such a cap could simply ensure that it did not approve
14 attendance at other commonly-owned schools beyond the 50% limit.

15 The State’s theory of competitive standing is thus far more speculative, and the causal
16 chain far more attenuated, than that in *California v. U.S. Dep’t of Educ.* (“*California I*”), No. 17-
17 cv-7106, 2018 WL 10345668 (N.D. Cal. Jun. 27, 2018). There, the court rejected the sufficiency
18 of the State’s allegations regarding an injury to its proprietary interests in its public colleges and
19 universities because the complaint contained no plausible allegation “that any individual was
20 unable to attend one of California’s public universities” because of the debt relief rule that the
21 State sought to challenge. *See id.* at *7 (“The most that Plaintiff alleges is that students who
22 might theoretically want to attend one of California’s public universities might not be able to
23 make an informed decision.”). The court later held, after the State amended its complaint, that it
24 had established harm to a proprietary interest that was sufficiently concrete and nonspeculative
25 to support standing. *California v. U.S. Dep’t of Educ.* (“*California II*”), No. 17-cv-7106, 2019
26 WL 7669767, at *6–7 (N.D. Cal. Mar. 4, 2019). However, that case challenged the Department’s
27 implementation of its borrower-defense (“BD”) regulation for students who had already attended
28 a specific proprietary school that had since closed, and had already incurred debt. *See id.* at *1–3.

1 The State thus identified specific students who wished to attend a State school but could not
2 because of undischarged loan debt. *See id.* at *3–4. The court held that the State “has met its
3 burden to show that students cannot attend California’s public colleges and universities because
4 their federal loan debt from attending [the proprietary] schools remains undischarged.” *Id.* at *6.
5 Here, the State has not demonstrated a similar concrete impact of the challenged provisions on
6 identifiable students at State schools. The State’s assertion of standing based on a supposed
7 competitive or proprietary harm therefore should be rejected.

8 **3. The State Fails To Show That Its Choice To Tie Cal Grant Eligibility to** 9 **Title IV Eligibility Supports Its Standing Here**

10 The State’s final asserted injury is also economic but arises from the fact that the State
11 expressly ties eligibility for its own Cal Grant financial aid to Title IV eligibility. *See* Compl.
12 ¶¶ 78–86; *see* Cal. Code Regs. tit. 5, § 30009(d) (cross-referencing 34 C.F.R. Part 600). The
13 State posits that, if the challenged provisions allow certain proprietary schools to remain Title IV
14 eligible, the State could end up providing Cal Grants to students at those schools. Compl. ¶ 85.

15 This theory fails for the reasons explained above; that is, it is too speculative to assume
16 that the challenged provisions will impact the Title IV eligibility of any proprietary school.
17 Moreover, the State’s theory of injury is flawed as a matter of law. The situation that the State
18 describes directly parallels that in *Pennsylvania v. New Jersey*, 426 U.S. 660 (1976) (per
19 curiam), where the plaintiff states chose to provide tax credits to their residents that were tied to
20 the defendant states’ tax levels. *Id.* at 664. In that case, the Supreme Court rejected the plaintiff
21 states’ theory of injury as “self-inflicted.” *See id.* As in *Pennsylvania*, nothing in federal law
22 requires the State to condition its own grants on a school’s satisfaction of a federal standard.
23 Another court, considering a similar argument, concluded that the plaintiff states in that case
24 (including California) were under no federal obligation to “link their fiscs to federal practices,”
25 or to provide financial aid to students enrolling in proprietary programs that the states deemed
26 problematic *Maryland*, 474 F. Supp. 3d at *36. Here as well any injury resulting from the State’s
27 decision to cross-reference the Department’s regulation in its own law is “self-inflicted,”
28 resulting from the State’s choices regarding allocation of resources and enforcement efforts,

1 rather than a result of any direct burden imposed upon it by the Department. *See Clapper v.*
2 *Amnesty Int’l USA*, 568 U.S. 398, 418 (2013). The State’s own actions in creating the alleged
3 “self-inflicted” harm “break the causal chain,” preventing them from supporting the State’s
4 Article III standing. *See Maryland*, 474 F. Supp. 3d at *35.

5 Moreover, even aside from the self-inflicted nature of the State’s alleged injury, both the
6 Supreme Court and other courts have more broadly rejected collateral impacts of federal laws on
7 states’ economies as insufficient to confer state standing. *Florida v. Mellon*, 273 U.S. 12, 17
8 (1927) (no standing to challenge federal inheritance tax based on economic impact on state’s
9 property tax revenues); *Massachusetts v. Mellon*, 262 U.S. at 484–85 (no standing to challenge
10 the Maternity Act, which provided for appropriations to states for cooperative efforts to enhance
11 maternal and infant health, where “[n]o rights of the state falling within the scope of the judicial
12 power have been brought within the actual or threatened operation of the statute”); *Pennsylvania*
13 *v. Kleppe*, 533 F.2d 668, 671–72 (D.C. Cir. 1976) (no standing to challenge discontinuation of
14 federal disaster relief program based on economic impact on state). After all, “virtually all
15 federal policies” may have “unavoidable economic repercussions” on states, *see id.* at 672, so
16 deeming an economic impact to be sufficient would eviscerate long-recognized limitations on
17 states’ standing to sue the federal government. *See Snapp*, 458 U.S. at 609–10.

18 **B. A Procedural Rights Standing Analysis Is Inapplicable Here and in Any Event**
19 **Would Not Confer Jurisdiction Over Claim 2**

20 In Claim 2, the State characterizes its “arbitrary and capricious” challenge under the
21 APA, 5 U.S.C. § 706(2)(A), as asserting that the Department “failed to follow the basic
22 procedural requirement of providing a reasoned explanation” for the two challenged provisions.
23 Compl. ¶ 115. The State evidently seeks to invoke a “procedural rights” standing analysis, in
24 which the causation and redressability prongs are somewhat relaxed. But as discussed below,
25 such an analysis is inapposite here because the State’s Claim 2 is substantive rather than
26 procedural. Moreover, the same defects identified above would be fatal to the State’s standing
27 even under a procedural rights standing analysis.

28 The Ninth Circuit has applied a slightly modified standing analysis to claims seeking to

1 vindicate procedural rights conferred by statute, such as those set forth in the National
2 Environmental Policy Act (“NEPA”), *see W. Watersheds Project v. Grimm*, 921 F.3d 1141, 1146
3 (9th Cir. 2019); Section 402 of the National Historic Preservation Act, *see Ctr. for Biological*
4 *Diversity v. Mattis*, 868 F.3d 803, 817 (9th Cir. 2017); or the APA’s express requirements in 5
5 U.S.C. § 553 related to notice and comment rulemaking, *see California v. Azar*, 911 F.3d 558,
6 570–71 (9th Cir. 2018). In *Azar*, for example, the court applied a procedural rights standing
7 analysis in connection with the State’s claim that the Department’s issuance of interim final rules
8 without prior notice and consideration of public comments improperly bypassed the procedures
9 identified in § 553. 911 F.3d at 575 (citing obligations to “issue a general notice of proposed
10 rulemaking” in § 553(b) and to “give interested persons an opportunity to participate in the rule
11 making through submission of written data, views or arguments” in § 553(c)).

12 In contrast to *Azar*, the State here does not allege that the Department violated any
13 procedural step set forth in § 553. To the contrary, the State acknowledges that the Department
14 went through a notice and comment rulemaking process and ultimately gave an “explanation” for
15 the two challenged provisions. Compl. ¶ 116. Rather than § 553, the State relies on § 706(2)(A)
16 as imposing a procedural requirement. Compl. ¶¶ 38, 51. But § 706(2)(A), by its plain terms, sets
17 forth a deferential “standard of review” for judicial review of final agency action, allowing
18 agency actions to be set aside if they are “arbitrary” or “capricious.” *In re Big Thorne Project*,
19 857 F.3d 968, 973 (9th Cir. 2017). This standard calls on a court to “simply ensure[] that the
20 agency has acted within a zone of reasonableness and, in particular, has reasonably considered
21 the relevant issues and reasonably explained the decision.” *FCC v. Prometheus Radio Proj.*, No.
22 19-1231, 2021 WL 1215716, at *5 (U.S. Apr. 1, 2021).

23 A court’s application of this standard flows “not from the APA’s *procedural* dictates,
24 but from its *substantive* command that agency decisionmaking not be “arbitrary” or
25 “capricious.”” *Nat’l Ass’n of Home Builders (“NAHB”) v. EPA*, 682 F.3d 1032, 1042 (D.C. Cir.
26 2012) (emphasis added) (quoting Merrick B. Garland, *Deregulation and Judicial Review*, 98
27 Harv. L. Rev. 505, 530 (1985)). The standard is intended to ensure that a court’s review under
28 § 706(2)(A), though substantive, also be deferential. In other words, the court would *only*

1 evaluate whether the agency reasonably considered its decision, without “substitut[ing] [the
2 court’s] judgment for that of the agency.” *Ctr. for Bio. Diversity v. Zinke*, 868 F.3d 1054, 1057
3 (9th Cir. 2017). To be sure, the Supreme Court has identified factors to assist a court’s review.
4 *See Motor Vehicle Mfrs. Ass’n of U.S., Inc. v. State Farm Mut. Auto. Ins. Co.*, 463 U.S. 29, 42–
5 44 (1983). But judicial review under § 706(2)(A), even when applying the *State Farm* factors,
6 focuses “not on the kind of *procedure* that an agency must use . . . , but rather on the kind of
7 *decisionmaking record* the agency must produce.” *NAHB*, 682 F.3d at 1042 (emphasis added)
8 (quoting Garland, 98 Harv. L. Rev. at 530).

9 Indeed, a court cannot use the § 706(2)(A) reasonableness standard to “improperly
10 impose[] nonstatutory procedural requirements.” *See FCC*, 2021 WL 1215716, at *8 (Thomas,
11 J., concurring). Rather, “[c]ourts have no authority to impose ‘judge-made procedur[es]’ on
12 agencies.” *Id.* (quoting *Perez v. Mtg. Bankers Ass’n*, 575 U.S. 92, 102 (2015)). The crux of the
13 State’s argument is thus not that the Department failed to follow statutory rulemaking procedures
14 but that its ultimate decision was substantively deficient for various reasons.

15 Other courts have recognized the difference between procedural rights conferred by
16 statute, on the one hand, and deferential judicial review pursuant to § 706(2)(A), on the other.
17 Where only the § 706(2)(A) standard is at issue, without an independent statutory right such as
18 that conferred by NEPA or § 553, courts apply regular standing analysis. *See Dep’t of Commerce*
19 *v. New York*, 139 S. Ct. 2551, 2565 (2019); *City & Cty. of S.F. v. USCIS*, 944 F.3d 773, 787 (9th
20 Cir. 2019). Thus, in *New Mexico v. McAleenan*, 450 F. Supp. 3d 1130 (D.N.M. 2020), the court
21 distinguished between an allegation that “Defendants failed to comply with a procedural right
22 that a statute or regulation provides” and “the APA’s arbitrary and capricious standard, against
23 which the Court may evaluate its claims.” *Id.* at 1181 (applying regular standing analysis).

24 The State will no doubt seek to rely on *California v. Bernhardt*, 460 F. Supp. 3d 875, 890
25 (N.D. Cal. 2020), where the court conflated § 706(2)(A) with a statutory right. But that case is
26 wrongly decided and contrary to the controlling authority identified here. The court in that case
27 cited *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. 497. *Bernhardt*, 460 F. Supp. 3d at 890. However, the
28 claim in *Massachusetts* arose under the Clean Air Act, not the APA. As the Court explained,

1 unlike § 706, the Clean Air Act is more than a cause of action; rather, through the Act,
2 “Congress has ordered EPA to protect Massachusetts (among others) by prescribing [air
3 emissions] standards.” *Massachusetts v. EPA*, 549 U.S. at 519. The Court thus understood the
4 Act as granting “a concomitant procedural *right*” to challenge the EPA’s failure to fulfill that
5 statutory obligation. *See id.* at 520 (emphasis added). The Clean Air Act thus bundles the right of
6 action and statutory procedural right together while § 706 does not. Instead, any procedural right
7 at issue in a § 706(2)(A) claim must derive from a separate statutory source—which here is
8 lacking. Another court recognized precisely this distinction when explaining why it was
9 evaluating standing to assert a claim under § 706(2)(A) under a regular rather than relaxed
10 standing analysis. *See Ctr. for Biological Diversity v. EPA*, 90 F. Supp. 3d 1177, 1190 n.8 (W.D.
11 Wash. 2015) (“lower standard” of *Massachusetts* “does not apply . . . because [t]he Clean Water
12 Act’s citizen suit provision . . . is inapplicable” to the case before it).

13 The court in *Bernhardt* also relied on *Encino Motocars LLC v. Navarro*, 136 S Ct. 2117
14 (2016). *Bernhardt*, 460 F. Supp. 3d at 890. But that decision did not consider the plaintiff’s
15 standing and thus did not address the proper standard for evaluating standing to bring a claim
16 under § 706(2)(A). The decision’s reference to an agency’s “procedural requirement” to provide
17 “adequate reasons for its decisions,” in a context that had nothing to do with standing, cannot be
18 taken as the Supreme Court’s authoritative decision that standing for § 706(2)(A) claims should
19 be evaluated under a relaxed “procedural rights” framework, particularly when the Court has
20 never applied that framework to a § 706(2)(A) claim. Indeed, *after Encino Motocars* was
21 decided, the Court applied a regular standing analysis in *Dep’t of Commerce*, 139 S. Ct. at 2565–
22 66. And the Court’s recent decision in *FCC* did not characterize § 706(2)(A) as imposing
23 procedural requirements. *See FCC*, 2021 WL 1215716, at *5. Significantly, despite the
24 prevalence of suits brought against federal agencies pursuant to § 706(2)(A), the court in
25 *Bernhardt* was unable to identify a *single case* (other than a prior decision issued by the same
26 judge, where the issue was discussed but not resolved) where a court has applied a “procedural
27 rights” standing analysis to a claim under § 706(2)(A) where no separate statutory procedural
28 right was at issue. This Court should decline to follow *Bernhardt* and should instead reject the

1 State’s attempt to invoke a procedural rights standing analysis here.

2 In the end, the distinction between regular and “procedural rights” standing does not
 3 matter here because the same defects described *supra* Part A would be equally fatal in a
 4 procedural rights analysis. Under such an analysis, a plaintiff still must demonstrate “(1) that he
 5 has a procedural right that, if exercised, could have protected his concrete interests, (2) that the
 6 procedures in question are designed to protect those concrete interests, and (3) that the
 7 challenged action’s threat to the plaintiff’s concrete interests is reasonably probable.” *Azar*, 911
 8 F.3d at 570. The required “concrete interest” is akin to the injury-in-fact required in a traditional
 9 standing analysis. *See Summers v. Earth Island Inst.*, 555 U.S. 488, 496–97 (2009) (“Unlike
 10 redressability, . . . the requirement of injury in fact is a hard floor of Article III jurisdiction that
 11 cannot be removed by statute.”). A plaintiff therefore cannot rely merely on the alleged violation
 12 of a procedural right as an injury but must establish an independent Article III injury, just as in a
 13 regular standing analysis. *See Azar*, 911 F.3d at 571. Moreover, “[n]othing in the procedural-
 14 injury jurisprudence relaxes” the heavy burden to show causation where, as here, independent
 15 actors, such as proprietary schools and students, are involved. *See Coal. for a Sustainable Delta*
 16 *v. FEMA*, 711 F. Supp. 2d 1152, 1167 (E.D. Cal. 2010). Although a plaintiff “need not prove that
 17 the substantive result would have been different had he received proper procedure,” *Azar*, 911
 18 F.3d at 571, a “reasonably probable” link between the challenged action and the plaintiff’s
 19 alleged injury is still required, *id.* at 570; *see also Fla. Audubon Soc’y v. Bentsen*, 94 F.3d 658,
 20 664–66 (D.C. Cir. 1996) (recognizing that the Supreme Court “has never freed a plaintiff
 21 alleging a procedural violation from showing a causal connection between the government action
 22 that supposedly required the disregarded procedure and some reasonably increased risk of injury
 23 to its particularized interest”). Here, the State fails to show a “reasonably probable” link between
 24 either of the challenged provisions and any cognizable Article III injury and thus lacks standing.

25 CONCLUSION

26 For the foregoing reasons, Defendants’ motion to dismiss should be granted.

27 DATED: March 22, 2021

Respectfully submitted,

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7
8 **IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT**
FOR THE NORTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA
9 **OAKLAND DIVISION**

10 **PEOPLE OF THE STATE OF**
11 **CALIFORNIA**, ex rel. Xavier Becerra,
Attorney General of California,

12 Plaintiff,
13 v.

14 **UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF**
15 **EDUCATION** and **MIGUEL**
16 **CARDONA**, in his official capacity as the
United States Secretary of Education,

17 Defendants.

Case No. 3:21-cv-384-JD

[proposed] ORDER GRANTING
DEFENDANTS' MOTION TO DISMISS

18 For the reasons set forth in Defendants' Motion to Dismiss, it is hereby
19 ORDERED that Defendants' Motion to Dismiss is GRANTED; and it is
20 ORDERED that this action is DISMISSED WITH PREJUDICE.
21

22 IT IS SO ORDERED.

23 DATED: _____, 20__

24
25
26 _____
JAMES DONATO
United States District Judge
27
28