Case 3:16-cv-02442-AJB-MSB Document 116 Filed 11/18/19 PageID.5639 Page 1 of 35

under the Fifth Amendment based on ten specific acts as detailed in Plaintiffs' 4AC ¶125. The Federal Defendants "move to dismiss the third cause of action in Plaintiffs' 4AC . . . - the United States has not waived sovereign immunity over such a claim, and therefore the Court lacks subject matter jurisdiction." [citations omitted]" [Doc #110, Pg. 3; Lines 3-8]. For the reasons stated below Defendants' legal objections are insufficient for this Court to grant their Motion to Dismiss.

II. JURISDICTION

Plaintiffs bring their 4AC pursuant to the following statutory authority: 28 U.S.C. 1331 (federal question) [4AC:1]; 5 U.S.C. 500-596, 701-706 (APA) [4AC:2]; 28 U.S.C. 1361 (mandamus) [4AC:3]; 28 U.S.C. 2201-2 (declaratory judgment) [4AC:4]; common law; and the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and 28 U.S.C. §1343(a)(4). This Court has jurisdiction to award damages pursuant to the following jurisdictional statutes, common law, and constitutional law: 1) General Jurisdiction pursuant to 28 U.S.C. § 1331, 1343; 2) Fifth Amendment to the Constitution; 3) 25 C.F.R. Indians; 4) 25 C.F.R.§48; 4) Trust relationship established in 1831; 5) 28 U.S.C. §1491; 6) 28 U.S.C. §1505; 7) and "Sue and be sued" clauses. The relevant source of substantive law can fairly

be interpreted as mandating compensation for damages sustained for constitutional violations and for breach of trust duties.

As discussed below Sovereign Immunity is waived: 1) under the Fifth Amendment; 2) pursuant to specific waivers of sovereign immunity; 3) pursuant to general statutory waivers; 4) pursuant to the non-statutory doctrine; and 4) pursuant to the Doctrine of Constitutional Waiver. Application of the doctrine of sovereign immunity in this case would be unconstitutional because it would result in denying Plaintiffs their due process and equal protection rights that are guaranteed by the Fifth Amendment to the United States Constitution.

III RESPONSE TO CASES CITED IN DEFENDANTS' MOTION TO DISMISS.

As Justice Scalia remarked to general laughter at oral argument in a takings case against the United States, "You can usually count on the government to file the canned sovereign immunity brief." Transcript of oral argument at 22, John R. Sand & Gravel Co. v. United States, 128 U.S. 730 (2008) (No. 06-1164). See, Gregory C. Sisk, Litigation with the Federal Government, West Academic Publishing, St. Paul, MN (2016) at 99. [Hereinafter referred to as "Sisk"]. The

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Government cited twenty-three cases in its boiler plate motion to dismiss on the basis of sovereign immunity. A closer look at each case shows that in the twentyone (21) cases that made references to sovereign immunity, the reference is simply dicta because the cases were decided on other grounds. Only two (2) cases were decided on the grounds of sovereign immunity and are not controlling in this case: Lane v. Pena, 518 U.S. 187 (1996). Sovereign immunity was waived under §§501 and 505(a)(1) of the Civil Rights Act of 1991; 2. United States v. Testan, 424 U.S. 392 (1976). The Supreme Court en banc held that if it was determined that the CSC had made an erroneous classification, the court was authorized to award money damages under the Tucker Act [28 U.S.C. §1491] for back pay lost; 3. F.D.I.C. v Meyer, 510 U.S. 471 (1994). The Supreme Court stated that the "sue and be sued" clause contained in the FSLIC's organic statute constituted a waiver of sovereign immunity; 4. Gilbert v. Dagrossa, 756 F.2d 1455 (9th Cir. 1985). Title 5 U.S.C. §702 waives sovereign immunity. Citing Hutchinson v. United States, 677 F.2d 1322, 1327 (9th Cir. 1982); 5. McCarthy v. U.S., 850 F.2d 558 (9th Cir. 1988). The District Court found that it did not have jurisdiction because 33 U.S.C.§702c immunity applied; 6. United States v. Park Place Associates, 563 F. 3d 907(9th Cir. 2009). The Federal District Court found that

the Government had waived its sovereign immunity as to binding arbitration because it stepped into the shoes of private individuals. The Ninth Circuit held that the FAA [arbitration award] did not itself confer jurisdiction on federal district courts over actions to compel arbitration or to confirm or vacate arbitration awards. Subsequently, the Court of Claims held that it did not have the jurisdiction to enforce arbitration awards; 7. Summer Peck Ranch v. Bureau of Recl., 823 F.Supp. 715 (E.D.Cal. 1993). The Court held that the United States retains immunity for torts committed in the exercise of a discretionary function. Sumner at 740; 8. Hughes v. United States, 953 F.2d 531 (9th Cir. 1992). Plaintiffs sued to stop tax collection activities. Court lacked jurisdiction on grounds of laches; and the anti-injunction act 26 U.S.C. §7421; 28 U.S.C. §2201 (exceptions for disputes with respect to federal taxes). Summary Judgment was granted pursuant to Rule 7.10 [CDCA] because plaintiff failed to appear at the hearing; 9. Jachetta v. United States, 653 F.3d 898 (9th Cir. 2011). The Court held that Jachetta's FTCA claims were barred because: 1) Plaintiff failed to exhaust administrative remedies; 2) There was no final agency action for the APA claim; 3) Plaintiff failed to join an indispensable party; 4) res judicata; and 5) Wrong court because Plaintiff should have filed in Federal Court of Claims; 10.

Salazar v. Heckler, 787 F.2d 527 (10th Cir. 1986). Court held that commissioned PHS officers were not civilian employees, but were military employees. Section 717(a) exempts military members. Executive Order No. 11478 did not extend federal policy of equal opportunity to members of uniformed services; 11. Beale v. Blount, 461 F.2d 1133 (5th Cir. 1972). The Court found that Beale failed to exhaust administrative remedies. Case was dismissed. Title 39 U.S.C. §402(1) empowers USPS "to sue and be sued in its official name." The issue of sovereign immunity was bypassed because the Court applied the Doctrine of Exhaustion of Remedies; 12. Brian v. Gugin, 853 F. Supp. 358 (D. Idaho 1994) aff'd 46 F.3d 1138 (9th Cir. 1995). The Court found no Fourth Amendment violation because the prosecutor had statutory absolute immunity; 13. Easterly v. Dep't of the Army, No. CVS01712591JAMDADPS (E.D.Cal. Sept. 26, 2008). This case is inapplicable because the San Pasqual Plaintiffs did not plead Title 42 U.S.C. §1983 or §1985; 14. Carruth v. United States, 627 F.2d 1068 (Ct.Cl. 1980). Texas Peanut Farmers sued under Title 7 U.S.C. §1357(1976) and 7 USC §§601-02 (1976) and alleged a fifth amendment taking. The Court dismissed the case based on doctrine of laches; application of 5 U.S.C. §701(a); and 7 U.S.C. §1429(1976). [See also, (15 USC §714)"]; 15. Rivera v. United States, 924 F.2d

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948 (9th Cir. 1991). A civilian librarian employed at an air force base alleged that she was retaliated against. Court held that her remedy was through CSRA and not the FTCA; 16. Clemente v. United States, 766 F.2d 1358 (9th Cir. 1985). The Appellate court reverse and remanded the case to the district court for further proceedings relating to plaintiff's Title VII claim; 17. Arnsberg v. United States, 757 F.2d 971 (9th Cir. 1985). The Court found no fourth amendment violation; 18. Orion Ins. Grp. v. Washington's Office of Minority & Women's Bus. Enterprises, 754 F. App'x 556 (9th Cir. 2018). Court held that DOT did not violate the APA when it failed to make a decision on their appeal within 180 days and dismissed the APA claim; 19. Nassiri v. Berryhill, No. 15-v-0583-WQH-NLS, 2017 WL3055709 (S.D.Cal. July 19, 2017). The Court held that Title 42 U.S.C. §405 is the sole method whereby a plaintiff can appeal an adverse decision concerning their social security benefits; 20. Boyd v. United States Dep't of the Treasury, 713 F.App'x 648 (9th Cir. 2018). Case dismissed because Plaintiff failed to file his claim under FTCA (CTCA) and Complaint was deficient factually; 21. Hutchinson v. United States, 677 F.2d 1322 (9th Cir. 1982). The Court dismissed the case based on the Anti-Injunction Act - IRC 7421(a) and because Plaintiff failed to file his claim as required. 22. Gottschalk v. City &

City of San Francisco, 964 F.Supp.2d 1147 (N.N.Cal. 2013). Case dismissed pursuant to Rule 8 F.R.Civ.P. Therefore, it is not applicable to the case at bar.

23. Campell v. U.S. Dep't of Ed., No. 10-cv-266 JLS(WMc) 2010 WL

2605803, (S.D.Cal. June 28, 2010). Case was dismissed with prejudice for failure to state a claim. The reference to sovereign immunity is dicta. "The United States has not waived its sovereign immunity for purposes of the False Claims Act."

IV.

THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, AND THE SAN PASQUAL BAND OF MISSION INDIANS.

Congress formally established the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) in the Department of War in 1834, ostensibly to assist Indians, but also to subjugate and in some cases exterminate them. Transferred to the newly created Department of the Interior in 1849, the BIA oversaw gradual but dramatic shifts in federal Indian policy, including the end of the Treaty Era in 1871. [See, The Appropriations Act of March 3, 1871, 25 U.S.C. §71 (2000)]. The nineteenth century saw the movement of tribes onto Indian Reservations and the breaking up of tribal land holdings, with "excess" lands becoming available for settlement by non-Indians. [General Allotment Act of 1887 (25 U.S.C. §331). The "Indian New Deal" was marked by the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934, which put an end to allotment

of tribal lands, and promoted the revitalization of tribal governments. [Indian Reorganization Act (Wheeler-Howard Act), 25 C.F.R. §461-479 (2000)]. In the 1970's Congress passed the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act, [Pub.L. 93-638, 88 Stat. 2214 (§§458-458(e) (2000)]. [See, Robert McCarthy, *The Bureau of Indian Affairs and the Federal Trust Obligation to American Indians*, 19:I BYU J.Pub.L. 4-5 (2004)].

The BIA has been adjudged "incapable" by the federal court in *Cobell v. Norton*, 226 F. Supp. 2d 1, 11 (D.D.C. 2002), *vacated in part and remanded by* 334 F.3d 1128 (D.C.Cir. 2003). In *Cobell*, the Court Referred to the Secretary of Interior as a trustee-delegate. [See, *McCarthy*, nts 2, 16, 24, 25]. A series of articles in the Arizona Republic in 1897 led to an investigation and a conclusion that "[m]any of the Federal Indian programs are fraught with corruption and fraud. Most of the others are marred by mismanagement, and some by incompetence.

The BIA has become emblematic of the federal trust responsibility to Indians. This trust responsibility is rooted in the United States Constitution.

[McCarthy at 9] resulting in the United States becoming trustee or guardian for the tribes. This role traces to the Supreme Court's opinion in Cherokee Nation v.

Georgia, 30 U.S. (5 Pet.) 1 (1831), in which Chief Justice Marshall wrote that the

relationship of the tribes to the United States resembles that of a "Ward to its guardian." The role of the United States as guardian to trustee has several consequences. The tribal and individual Indian status as ward entitles tribes to sue offices of the United States when that standard of care is violated. [See, Lindsay G. Robertson, *Native Americans and the Law: Native Americans Under Current United States Law,* June 2011]; *Seminole Nation v. United States,* 316 U.S. 286, 296-97 (1942) (The Government has to be judged by the most exacting fiduciary standards).

The San Pasqual Band of Mission Indians is a federally recognized Indian tribe whose ancestors occupied the San Pasqual Valley, east of San Diego, California. As part of these trust responsibilities, the BIA is entrusted with the responsibility to help Tribes set up their own constitution. Article III, section 2 of the Band's Constitution gives the Secretary of the Interior final authority over tribal enrollment decisions. [Ex 2 4AC]. This Constitution also expressly incorporates federal regulations, promulgateed in 1959, adopted in 1960, and formally codified at 25 C.F.R. §48.1-48.15 ("the 1960 regulations"). Section 48 addressed tribal enrollment criteria, the process for completing an initial membership roll, the procedures for keeping the membership roll current, and the purposes for which the

roll was to be used. *Alto v. Black*, 738 F.3d 111 (9th Cir. 2013). (The Tribe's own governing documents vest the United States Department of Interior and BIA with ultimate authority over membership decisions).

The BIA functioned as a trustee when its delegates promulgated 25 C.F.R.§48 to the San Pasqual Band of Mission Indians and persuaded them to incorporate §48 into its constitution which was enacted and approved on November 29, 1970. [See, Ex 2 4AC]. In addition, the San Pasqual Constitution incorporated in Article IX, Title II of the Civil Rights Act of 1968 (82 Stat. 77). As a result of inserting itself into the San Pasqual Constitution, the United States has waived its sovereign immunity concerning any constitutional violations of the San Pasqual Constitution and/or 25 C.F.R. §48.

V. HISTORY OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY

The words "sovereign immunity" do not appear in the Constitution. Rather, it is a doctrine from English law that the Court has assumed as silently imported into American law. *United States v. Lee*, 106 U.S. 196, 205-7 (1982). Today, more than ever we have Constitutional rights that stand above Congress and so the broad interpretation [of sovereign immunity] cannot be saved on that ground. [John Lobato & Jeffrey Theodore, *Federal Sovereign Immunity*, Harvard Law School,

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draft updated May 14, 2006, at 2]. "Just because a sovereign creates the law does not mean that he should be immune to the law." *Id.* at 3.

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Professor Kenneth Culp Davis contended that the doctrine of sovereign immunity is unnecessary as a "judicial tool." Gregory C. Sisk, Yesterday and Today: Of Indians, Breach of Trust, Money, and Sovereign Immunity, 39:2 Tulsa L.Rev. 313 (2013). Professor Susan Randall contends that sovereign immunity should be viewed as "a prudential rather than a jurisdictional doctrine. By this approach, "courts would attempt to balance the needs of the political branches to govern effectively with the rights of the citizenry to redress governmental violations of law." Sisk at 70, 71. [See also Katherine Florey, Sovereign Immunity's Penumbra: Common Law, "Accident," and Policy in the Development of Sovereign Immunity Doctrine, 43 Wake Forest L.Rev. 765, 796 (2008)]. "When mundane government activity is involved, devoid of policy implications, we should expect legislative waivers readily to be adopted." Dean Harold J. Kent, Reconceptualizing Sovereign Immunity 45 Vand.L.Rev. 1529, 1529-33 (1992)]. [e.g. Brettschneider & McNamee, Sovereign and State: A Democratic Theory of Sovereign Immunity, 93 Tex.L.Rev. 1229, 1261, (2015). Sisk at 73. The conventional account of the

pertinent history and the one accepted by the majority of the Supreme Court, holds

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that "[w]hen the Constitution was ratified, it was well established in English law that the Crown could not be sued without consent in its courts." Alden v. Maine, 527 U.S. 706, 715 (1999). Sisk at 73. But, it must be remembered that in the case at bar, the plaintiffs and their forefathers were here centuries before the Constitution. Binding sovereign peoples to limits on their civil rights through a Constitution that they had no voice in ratifying is unconstitutional.

Congress may pierce federal sovereign immunity by enacting statutory waivers. In this case, sovereign immunity is pierced historically and by the actions of the Government, as will be discussed infra. "The term 'judicial power' is a broad and encompassing term" that "extends to the national judiciary a fundamental governmental authority" which supersedes sovereign immunity. Sisk at 74.

There are three identified basis for the staying power of the idea of federal immunity. First, English law; Second, the Constitution commits the power to appropriate money to Congress; [See, 31 U.S.C. §1304] and Third, Congress' control over the jurisdiction of the federal courts. Sovereign immunity could be described as a particularized elaboration of congress' control over the lower court's jurisdiction. Sisk at 75. The American Revolution itself was a battle against governmental sovereignty. At that time neither federal institutions nor state

governments were truly sovereign But rather "[o]nly the people were," so that a government "Could not . . . claim a sovereign's immunity." *Id*.

In 1882, the majority of Supreme Court justices in *United States v. Lee*, 106 U.S. 196 (1882) were not convinced that making the Government amenable to suit would impair the essential workings of government. Although sovereign immunity had become 'established doctrine' in the United States, Justice Miller suggested it had assumed that position without careful analysis in prior decisions and without any principled basis. See, *Sisk, supra* at 79; *Lee, supra* at 208-23.

The *Lee* case was a "taking" case in violation of the Fifth Amendment. When property is taken by the United States without just compensation, the Government's conduct offends the Takings Clause of the Fifth Amendment. [U.S. Const. Amend V]. The *Lee* case strongly reaffirmed the role of the Judicial Branch as a guardian of the citizen from abuse of power by other branches of government. It is clear that the *Lee* decision intended to open the door widely to citizen suits against government officers. [See also, *Larson v Domestic & Foreign Commerce Corp.*, 337 U.S. 682 (1949) (when a government employee acts beyond his delegated authority, and/or when his actions are *ultra vires*, a suit for specific relief against the officer may proceed. When an officer acts pursuant to statutory

authority, but his conduct crosses constitutional lines, the suit may proceed against the officer individually. Lee was an example of a government officer acting in contravention of a constitutional limitation on authority, specifically the Takings Clause. Conduct that exceeds delegated authority, statutory or constitutional, separates an individual officer from the sovereign government. [Justice Frankfurter in Larson directly disputed the very concept of sovereign immunity. Larson at 705-29 (Frankfurter, J., dissenting). Frankfurter further stated: "[T]he policy behind the immunity of the sovereign from suit without its consent does not call for disregard of a citizen's right to pursue an agent of the government for a wrongful invasion of a recognized legal right unless the legislature deems it appropriate to displace the right of suing the individual defendant with the right to sue the Government." In the case at bar, the Defendants acted beyond their statutory limits resulting in actions that crossed constitutional lines.

Under the *Larson-Malone* sovereign immunity doctrine, a suit may be maintained directly against a governmental officer under two circumstances: "First, if the officer acted outside the authority conferred upon his or her office by congress, that is, beyond delegated statutory power, then his or her conduct will be treated as individual in nature and will be neither attributed to the sovereign nor

barred by sovereign immunity. [i.e. acting *ultra vires*]. Second, if the officer acted within the conferred statutory prerogatives of the office, but his or her conduct offended a provision of the Constitution, then sovereign immunity again is lifted. The *Larson* Court described the rule permitting suit against a government officer acting in violation of the Constitution as "the constitutional exception to the doctrine of sovereign immunity." *Larson v Domestic & Foreign Exchange Corp.*, 337 U.S. 682, 701-02 (1940) [See, *Sisk, supra* at 85-6; *Malone v. Bowdoin*, 369 U.S. 643 (1962).

VI. WAIVERS AND EXCEPTIONS TO THE DOCTRINE OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY

A waiver of sovereign immunity means the United States is amenable to suit in a court properly possessing jurisdiction. *Alvarado v Tale Mountain Rancheria*, 509 F.3d 1008, 1016 (9th Cir. 2007) ["To confer subject matter jurisdiction in an action against a sovereign, in addition to a waiver of sovereign immunity, there must be statutory authority vesting a district court with subject matter jurisdiction."). In the case at bar, Plaintiffs have invoked 28 U.S.C. §1331 for the Court's General Jurisdiction. Plaintiffs recognize that such a statute may create subject matter jurisdiction yet not waive sovereign immunity. See *Powelson v*. *United States*, 150 F.3d 1103, 1105 (9th Cir. 1998) ("holding that 28 U.S.C §1340

created subject matter jurisdiction but did not constitute a waiver of sovereign immunity.") See, Hughes v United States, 953 F.2d 531 n.5 (9th Cir. 1992). Plaintiffs further recognize that they must demonstrate an unequivocal waiver of immunity. Cunningham v. United States, 786 F.2d 1445, 1446 (9th Cir. 1986); United States v. Mitchell, 463 U.S. 206 (1983). (The United States government may only be sued if the government waives its sovereign immunity or the actions alleged by the plaintiffs are included within the statutory exceptions to immunity). See, e.g. Villegas v. United States, 926 F. Supp. 1185 (E.D. Wash. 2013) citing Arford v. United States, 934 F.2d 229, 231 (9th Cir. 1991). Arford and Villegas do not require a statutory exception, only a waiver of sovereign immunity. In the case at bar, the BIA waived any sovereign immunity defense when it created 25 C.F.R. §48, advised the San Pasqual Tribe to include §48 into its Constitution and then approve the Tribal Constitution in 1971.

Historically, the judicial philosophy was that every legal injury deserved a legal or equitable remedy. The Constitution set up Article III Federal Courts in order to exercise that philosophy. Exclusive Article III federal jurisdiction was created by Congress in, for example, Admiralty, Patents, IRS. Originally, when exercising this general jurisdiction the federal courts would make damage awards.

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The prevailing party would have to go to congress or the department of the treasury to collect his or her judgment. Not all judgments were able to be paid. This situation created a separation of power problem. In order to protect the Treasury Congress began to apply the doctrine of sovereign immunity. Strict enforcement of this concept denied many justified and rightful litigants their day in court as a result of an overreaching application of the doctrine. Since only Congress can waive the United States' sovereign immunity [Dunn & Black, PS v. United States, 492 F.3d 1084, 1090 (9th Cir. 2007)], Congress began to carve out exceptions to the application of the doctrine. OPM v. Richmond, 486 U.S. 414, 428 (1990). In an effort to provide redress for constitutional claims and to protect the United States treasury, Congress has created four categories of waivers of sovereign immunity: 1) specific statutory waivers; 2) general statutory waivers; 3) the non-statutory doctrinel and 4) the Constitutional waiver doctrine. SPECIFIC STATUTORY WAIVERS OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY Congress has provided for specific statutory waivers of sovereign immunity in the following instances: 28 U.S.C.§ 1346 (b)(1) [FTCA]; 46 U.S.C. §741) [SAA]; 46 U.S.C.§781 [PVA]; 42 U.S.C. §2000e-5, 2 [Title VII which includes

Employment Discrimination Claims and the Equal Employment Opportunity Act;

1 29 U.S.C.§621-34 [ADEA]; 42 U.S.C. ch. 126 § 1201 [DDA]; 42 U.S.C.§2000e-3 16; 5 U.S.C. §552 and 552a [FOIA]; 42 U.S.C. §405(a)[SSA]; 38 U.S.C. §§1-7907; 42 U.S.C. ch. 21B §2000bb; 17 U.S.C. §1-1332; 42 U.S.C. §7418, 7604 5 (a)(1). Congress has inserted "sue and be sued" clauses into many of its agencies 6 7 such as: FHA, HUD, SBA, USPS; the Department/Secretary of Commerce, 8 Department/Secretary of Interior; and Government Corporations such as: FSLIC and FDIC, Pension and benefit Corporation, Export-Import Bank, and the 10 11 Tennessee Valley Authority. These statutory waivers show that Congress is willing 12 to create specific waivers of the Government's sovereign immunity. 13 14 GENERAL STATUTORY WAIVERS OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY B. 15 Congress has created the following general statutory waivers of sovereign 16 17 The Tucker Act (28 U.S.C. §1491); The Little Tucker Act (28 U.S.C. immunity: 18 1346); The Indian Tucker Act (28 U.S.C. §1505); Administrative Procedures Act 19 [APA] (5 U.S.C. §500-702 et seq.); Government Benefit Claims; and the Equal 20 21 Access to Justice Act. The APA gives this court jurisdiction and waives sovereign 22 immunity for Plaintiffs' first two causes of action. The Tucker and Indian Tucker 23 24 Act also waives the government's sovereign immunity in this case, as will be 25 discussed infra. 26

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C. THE NON-STATUTORY WAIVER DOCTRINE

The Supreme Court has moved away from an early jaundiced attitude toward statutory waivers of sovereign immunity and has taken a path marked with a greater respect for the legislative pledge of relief to those harmed by their government.

[Sisk, supra at 95]. As Justice Antonin Scalia and Bryan Garner put it, the supposed corollary that "limitations and conditions upon which the Government consents to be sued must be strictly observed and exceptions thereto are not to be 'implied' may have "made sense when suits against the government were disfavored, but not in modern times." Antonin Scalia & Bryan A. Garner, Reading Law: The Interpretation of Legal Texts, 285 (West 2012).

The "non-statutory review" is applied when there is a "gap" in a statutory waiver of sovereign immunity and the relief sought is not otherwise preluded by a deliberately limited statutory remedy. This non-statutory review proceeds outside of an express statutory waiver of federal sovereign immunity. [See, Kathryn E. Koas, *Revealing Redundancy: The Tension Between Federal Sovereign Immunity and Nonstatutory Review*, 54 Drake L.Rev. 77, 98 (2005). The case at bar is a perfect example where "non-statutory review" should be applied because: 1) Plaintiffs are a unique group of indigenous persons; 2) The issues in this case are

unique; 3) The Constitution demands that Plaintiffs be made whole; and 4) There has been a special relationship between the San Pasqual Indians and the government ever since The Treaty of Santa Ysabel wherein the San Pasqual Indians agreed to: 1) Not wage war; 2) Leave their native lands; and 3) Relocate to assigned reservations. In addition, contract and fiduciary principles attached under the Land Patent Act of 1891 and when the BIA inserted itself into tribal matters and tribal affairs when it created 25 C.F.R. §48 in 1959, recommended that the Tribe incorporate §48 into its tribal Constitution, and in 1971 approved the Band's tribal Constitution containing §48. [See 4AC ¶38,39,49,55-63: pgs 9-15].

D. THE CONSTITUTIONAL EXCEPTION TO THE DOCTRINE OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY.

The Constitutional exception to the Doctrine of Sovereign Immunity is applied when a government employee acts beyond his delegated authority. When a government employee acts beyond his delegated authority under a statute, his actions beyond the statutory limitations are considered "individual and not sovereign acts." The officer's actions are "ultra vires" and a suit for specific relief against the officer may proceed. A second instance subjects the government to suit: When an officer acts pursuant to statutory authority, but his conduct crosses

constitutional lines, the suit may proceed against the officer individually. This was confirmed in: *Lee, supra*, 106 U.S. at 205-7; *Larson, supra*, 337 U.S. 682; *Malone, supra*, 369 U.S. 643. As alleged in Plaintiffs' 4AC at ¶28-49 [Pages 9-15],

Dutschke, Moore, and others exceeded their statutory authority resulting in a waiver of sovereign immunity.

VII. PLAINTIFFS' CLAIMS ARE NOT BARRED BY THE DOCTRINE OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY.

A. SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED UNDER THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES ACT

The APA [Administrative Procedures Act] (5 U.S.C. §702) applies to Plaintiffs' first two causes of actions. Defendants do not challenge this.

B. SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED BY THE TUCKER ACT, THE LITTLE TUCKER ACT, AND THE INDIAN TUCKER ACT.

The Tucker Act (28 U.S.C §1491) is a jurisdictional statute by which the United States Government has waived its sovereign immunity with respect to certain lawsuits for monetary claims "founded either upon the Constitution, or any Act of Congress, or any regulation of an executive department, or upon any express or implied contract with the United States, or for liquidated or unliquidated damages in cases not sounding in tort." [Emphasis added]. 28

U.S.C. §1346(a)(2), 1491(a)(1). Ruckelshaus v. Monsanto Co., 467 U.S. 986, 1017 (1984), Sisk at 315. The District Court retains concurrent jurisdiction over Tucker Act claims for \$10,000.00 or less under §1346 of Title 28, the "Little" Tucker Act. §1346(a)(2). The substance of the statutory waiver of sovereign immunity is the same whether a Tucker Act claim is heard in District Court or in the Court of Federal Claims. See, United States v. Testan, 424 U.S. 392 (1976); Gregory C. Sisk, Yesterday and Today: Of Indians, Breach of Trust, Money, and Sovereign Immunity, 39 Tulsa L. Rev. 313 (2013). See, Simanonok v. Simanonok, 918 F.2d 947, 950-51 (Fed. Cir. 1990). A plaintiff may remain in the district court under the Little Tucker Act even if his damages exceed \$10,000 if he waives all recovery in excess of \$10,000. E.g., Zumerling v. Devine, 769 F.2d 745, 748 (Fed. Cir. 1985); Stone v. United States, 683 F.2d 449, 451 (D.C. Cir. 1982).

The historical guardian-ward relationship between the federal government and indigenous peoples also gives rise to a special cause of action, which is presumptively redressable in money damages. Congress enacted the Indian Tucker Act in 1946. [28 U.S.C. §1505] which directs the invocation of jurisdiction by the Court of Claims. In the case at bar, Group A Plaintiffs are a specific identifiable

group of Indians, who should be protected from equal protection violations by the Defendants.

The United States Government, through its actions as alleged in Plaintiffs' 4AC created many implied contracts and written treaties with the San Pasqual Indians. Through these acts, the Courts have held the Government in the position of having a high fiduciary relationship with the Plaintiffs. In this case, the Defendants orchestrated their way into the San Pasqual tribal affairs and tribal constitution. By inserting themselves into the San Pasqual Constitution by way of 25 C.F.R.§48, they not only waived sovereign immunity, but they created a contract of good faith and fair dealings. It is clear this covenant of good faith and fair dealings has been breached by the government, allowing Plaintiffs to sue for damages in this Court and the Court of Federal Claims.

There are three core fundamental principles in the field of United States
Federal Indian Law: 1) Congressional Plenary Power doctrine, which holds that
Congress exercises plenary authority in Indian affairs; 2) The Diminished Tribal
Sovereignty doctrine, which holds that Indian tribe still retains those aspects of
their inherent sovereignty not expressly divested by treaty or statute, or implicitly
divested by virtue of their status; and 3) The Trust doctrine, which holds that in

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exercising its broad discretionary authority in Indian affairs, Congress and the Executive are charged with the responsibilities of a guardian acting on behalf of its dependent Indian wards. The third doctrine - Trust Doctrine- gives substance to a Tucker Act claim. Sisk 318. These three fundamental principles in the field of United States Indian Law act as waivers of the doctrine of sovereign immunity.

C. THE NON-STATUTORY DOCTRINE WAIVES STATUTORY IMMUNITY.

Federal sovereign immunity was a doctrine of limited effect in the early years of this republic and allowed for a number of remedies for governmental wrongdoing The Constitutional provenance of federal "sovereign immunity" is obscure, and was a matter of genuine uncertainty in early years. *Marbury v. Madison*, 5 U.S. (1 Cranch) 137, 163 (1805). Among the strands of constitutional structure behind federal "sovereign immunity" are Congress' powers over appropriations and the jurisdiction of the federal courts. These are powers that do not coincide. *Jackson* at 521-22. The tension between the jurisdiction of the federal courts to award damages and the Congress' powers over appropriations has resulted in an adverse effect of the doctrine of sovereign immunity of the courts' capacities to provide individual justice. *Id.* [See, the Judgment Fund, 31 U.S.C.

§1304 where Congress has provided for payment of judgments in a special appropriations fund].

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The essence of Marbury v. Madison [5 U.S. (1 Crnch) 157, 168 (1805)] holding is that the "essence of civil liberty" is that the law provide a remedy for the violations of rights. The doctrine of "sovereign immunity" is nowhere explicitly set forth in the Constitution. It was not until 1846 that the Supreme Court invented the proposition that the United States was subject to suit only by its consent given in legislation as a basis to deny relief. See, United States v McLemore, 45 U.S. (4 How) 286, 288 (1846). [See, Jackson pg 524 fn 6]. The Court in United States v Lee, 106 U.S. 196 (1882) rejected sovereign immunity defense.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Congress has "plenary power" over Indian affairs (Lone Wolf v. Hitchcock, 187 U.S.553 (1903) and has repeatedly acted to limit the scope of tribal and individual Indian power; one dramatic example is the Indian Civil Rights Act [ICRA] (25 U.S.C. §§1301-1304). Tahon v. Maves, 163 U.S. 376 (1896). Prior to the enactment of the ICRA in 1968, the Tribes, who were non parties to the United States Constitution, had been free historically to legislate to the extent allowed by their own constitution. As part of Congress' "plenary power" over Indian affairs, it 26

created the Bureau of Indian Affairs, who in turn promulgated 25 C.F.R. §48, which was then enacted into the San Pasqual Band's Constitution.

A. SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED BY THE TUCKER ACTS.

1. BREACH OF IMPLIED CONTRACT

The principal federal agency charged with carving out the trust responsibility to the Indians is the BIA in the DOI. The trust responsibility runs to all federally recognized tribes and individual Indians. Prior to 1871, the federal government dealt with tribes by treaties, many of which remain in force today. Statutes affecting Indians and Indian tribes are for the most part found in Title 25 U.S.C. Alaska v. Native Village of Venetie Tribal Government, 522 U.S. 520 (1998).

Tucker Act jurisdiction can be based on written or implied contracts. As discussed supra, the United States Government created many contracts with the San Pasqual Indians and the Courts have held that the Government has a fiduciary relationship with the San Pasqual Indians. This duty waives sovereign immunity.

2. BREACH OF TRUST.

The historical guardian-ward relationship between the federal government and indigenous peoples also gives rise to a special cause of action, which is presumptively redressable in money damages. In *Mitchell II* the Court of Claims

held that various timber management statutes enacted after the General Allotment Act of 1887, together with other statutes regulating governmental handling of Indian funds, imposed a fiduciary duty on the United States for management of allotted lands. United States v. Mitchell, 463 U.S. 206, 211 (1983) ("Mitchell II"). By virtue of this fiduciary duty the court ruled that the statutes were implicitly money-mandating within the meaning of the Tucker Act. Id. On second Certiorari review the Supreme Court through Justice Marshall explained: "[T]he Tucker Act itself accomplishes the waiver of sovereign immunity, in addition to directing claims to the appropriate forum through its jurisdictional directives." Mitchell II, 463 U.S. at 212, 215-6. This duty is aalogous to the duty that the Defendants owe to Plaintiffs. After Mitchell II a party must find a substantive right [cause of action] outside of the Tucker Act, but the party need not point to a separate waiver of sovereign immunity. Id. at 218. The Tucker Act is the waiver of the Government's sovereign immunity. [See, citations in Mitchell II at 226].

In Navajo Nation, Justice Ginsburg wrote: "the axiomatic [doctrine] that the United States may not be sued without its consent," the now established understanding that the Tucker Act - and the Indian Tucker Act - both confers jurisdiction upon the Court of Federal Claims and provides the necessary consent

to suit. *Navajo Nation v. United States*, 537 U.S. 488, 502-3 (2003). Once a full fiduciary duty has been identified in the pertinent statute (as in this case the Fifth Amendment and 25 C.F.R. §48) the Court said that "the availability of ...damages [as a remedy] may be inferred," even if not expressly referenced in the statute. The underlying statute must show that the federal government retained meaningful protective duties and that the approval power was "a significant component of the Government's general trust responsibility." *Id.* at 515.

United States v. White Mountain Apache Tribe, is a very instructive case. In 1870, the United States Army established Fort Apache in the White Mountains of east-central Arizona. In the early 1920's control of the fort was transferred to the DOI. In 1960, Congress declared that Fort Apache be held by the United States in trust for the White Mountain Apache Tribe . . ." Pub.L.No. 86-392, 74; Stat. 8, 8 (1960). In 1976 the fort was designated as a National Historic Site and in 1998 it was placed on the list of 100 Most Endangered Monuments. The Secretary of the Interior allowed Ft. Apache to fall into disrepair which would cost fourteen [14] million dollars to rehabilitate the property. United States v. White Mt. Apache Tribe, 537 U.S. 465, 469 (2003). In 1999 the White Mountain Apache Tribe filed suit in the Federal Claims under the Tucker Act and the Indian Tucker Act for

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damages for Breach of Trust. In 2001 the US Court for Appeals for the Federal Circuit recognized an actionable fiduciary obligation on the part of the federal government. The court of appeals held, "control alone is sufficient to create a fiduciary relationship." [Emphasis added]. White Mt. Apache, 249 F.3d at 1375. Justice Stouter stated: "[A]lthough an unequivocal waiver of sovereign immunity is a predicate to any suit against the United States, the Tucker Act and its companion statute the Indian Tucker Act, provide such consent. . . . Because the Tucker Act itself provides the necessary sovereign immunity waiver, a strict construction rule does not apply to this stage of analysis. Thus, the pertinent statute need only "be reasonably amenable to the reading that it mandates a right of recovery in damages", that is, a "fair inference will do." Id. at 479. The Defendants had a fiduciary duty not to discriminate against Plaintiffs. They breached that duty as evidenced by their actions and the creation of 25 C.F.R. §48, and its inclusion in the Tribe's Constitution. Since a full fiduciary relationship between the Government and Plaintiffs was created, then any breach of the government's obligations is redressable in money damages. (See, Navajo Nation, supra at 516).

B. SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED PURSUANT TO THE CONSTITUTIONAL RESTRICTIONS AGAINST A FIFTH AMENDMENT TAKING.

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"Actions brought under the taking clause of the Fifth Amendment are . . . an exception to the rule that sovereign immunity is a bar to damages against the United States for direct constitutional violations." Duarte v. United States, 532 F.2d 850, n3 (2d Cir. 1976). When the San Pasqual Tribal Enrollment Committee enrolled Plaintiffs as members of the Tribe, they gave Plaintiffs a property right (i.e. membership in the Band) that can not be taken from them unless the Fifth Amendment is satisfied. [See 4AC ¶¶28-31]. This property right was given to Group A Plaintiffs on April 10, 2005, by the constitutionally formed business committee. In Board of Regents v. Roth, 408 U.S. 564 (1972), the Supreme Court defined the property interest protected by the Fifth Amendment, as a "legitimate claim of entitlement" to the item or benefit in question. Such "entitlements" are "created and their dimensions are defined by existing rules or understandings that stem from an independent source such as state law-rules or understandings that secure certain benefits and that support claims of entitlement too those benefits." Id. at 577. It has been over fourteen [14] years, and the BIA has refused to federally recognize Plaintiffs' membership in the Band. As a result, Group A Plaintiffs have not been able to enjoy the benefits of tribal membership. The courts have held that actions brought under the takings clause of the Fifth Amendment are

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an exception to the rule that sovereign immunity is a bar to damages against the United States for direct constitutional violations. Arnsberg v. United States, 757 F.2d 971, 981 (9th Cir. 1984) citing Duarte, 532 F.2d 850, 852, n3 (2d. Cir. 1976). See, Ruckelshaus v. Monsanto Co., 467 U.S. 986, 989 (1984). Thus a Tucker Act taking claim is a claim for just compensation required by the Fifth Amendment or implied contract with the United States. Hayward v. Henderson, 623 F.2d 596, 598 (9th Cir. 1980). [Also see, Carols Manuel Vasquez, Sovereign Immunity, Due Process, and the Alden Trilogy, 109 Yale L.J. (2000) n 91]. SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED BY THE CONSTITUTIONAL

EXCEPTION TO THE DOCTRINE OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY.

Title 25 C.F.R. §48 is an unconstitutional statute because it treats similarly situated San Pasqual Indians differently. It is unconstitutional facially and as applied to Plaintiffs. There is no rational basis for a statute that violates the guarantees of equal protection. As a result, Plaintiffs have been denied the Fifth Amendment guarantees of equal protection. This unconstitutional statue that was created by the Defendants waives the Government's sovereign immunity. [See, Plaintiffs' 4AC ¶¶ 51-62; 108-140; Pages 30-38; 15-21]. (See, e.g., Willowbrook v. Olech, 528 U.S. 562, 564 (2000) (per curiam); see also Gerhart v. Lake City, 637 F.3d 1013, 1022 (9th Cir. 2011). The facts as alleged in Plaintiffs'

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4AC clearly show that Group A San Pasqual Plaintiffs have received direct and objective different treatment resulting in a violation of equal protection.

D. SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED BY THE NON-STATUTORY DOCTRINE.

1. THE APPROPRIATIONS DOCTRINE AS A BASIS FOR APPLYING SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY NO LONGER EXISTS.

One basis for the doctrine of federal sovereign immunity is the constitutional commitment of appropriations to Congress. [Jackson at 539] . The establishment of the federal "judgment fund", which is a permanent, indefinite appropriation" for the payment of most judgments against the United States, removed the uncertainty of a litigant being able to collect his judgment from Congress or the Treasury. [35 Geo. Wash. Int'l L. Rev, 594 (2003). As early as the 1850's, the Court identified the appropriations power as the basis for requiring a specific statute authorizing awards of monetary relief against the treasure before judicial relief could be granted. See Reeside v. Walker, 52 U.S. 11 How.) 272, 291 (1850). See, Vicki C. Jackson, Suing the Federal Government: Sovereignty, Immunity, and Judicial Independence, 35 Geo. Wash. Int'l L. Rev. 521-609 (2003). As outlined in this Response and Opposition, there is no longer a need to cite a specific statute waiving immunity. There are at least four (4) different approaches and avenues for this Court to use to 33

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find that the Defendants have waived their defense of sovereign immunity. One such basis for waiver is when the Government "steps into the shoes" of the private person - here the San Pasqual Indians - and participates in their affairs as if they were a member of the tribe.

2. DOI IS A "SUE AND BE SUED" GOVERNMENTAL ENTITY.

Congress has inserted "sue and be sued" clauses into many of its agencies and one such agency is the Department of Interior through the Secretary of Interior. As an alternative to proceeding directly against the United States pursuant to the Tucker Act, the Supreme Court in *FHA v. Burr*, 309 U.S. 242 (1940) stated that Congress may organize sue and be sued agencies and such agencies may be sued in any court of otherwise competent jurisdiction as if it were a private litigant, as long as the agency is to pay the judgment from its own budget, not from the United States Treasury. See *United States v. Testan*, 424 U.S. 392 (1976). The DOI is a "sued and be sued" agency, therefore sovereign immunity is waived in this case. [See, Ruckelshaus v. Monsato Co., 467 U.S. 986, 1017 (1984), citing 28 U.S.C. §1491].

3. THE CONSTITUTIONAL EXCEPTION TO THE DOCTRINE OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS APPLICABLE.

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2	Plaintiffs' claims are based on the Equal Protection Clause of the Fifth				
3	Amendment, The Tucker Act, and 25 C.F.R. §48 as the Statutory basis for their				
4 5	claims. This Court should apply the Constitutional Exception to the Doctrine of				
6	Sovereign Immunity enunciated in Larson, supra, 337 U.S. 682 and Malone, supra	·a,			
7 8	369 U.S. 643. The Government's sovereign immunity is waived pursuant to the				
9	following: 1) General Jurisdiction pursuant to 28 U.S.C. § 1331, 1343; 2) Fifth				
10	Amendment; 3) 25 C.F.R. Indians; 4) 25 C.F.R.§48; 4) Trust relationship				
11 12	established in 1831; 5) 28 U.S.C. §1491; 6) 28 U.S.C. §1505; 7) and "Sue and be				
13	sued" clauses. The relevant source of substantive law can fairly be interpreted as				
14	mandating compensation for damages sustained for constitutional violations and				
15 16	for breach of trust duties. Since this is a Constitutional claim, Plaintiffs are not				
17	required to show a specific statutory waiver of sovereign immunity. Defendants'				
18 19	Motion to Dismiss should be DENIED.				
20	Dated: November 17, 2019 Respectfully submitted,				
21					
22	<u>/s/ Carolyn Chapman, Esq.</u> Carolyn Chapman, Esq,				
23					
24 25	Dated: November 17, 2019 - <u> S Alexandra R. McIntosh</u> Alexandra R. McIntosh, Esq.				
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27	35				
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11 12	Cindy Alegre, an individual, et.al., Case No. 16-cv-2442-AJB-KSC			
13) Consolidated with Plaintiffs,) Case No. 17-cv-1149-AJB-KSC			
14) PLAINTIFFS' RESPONSE AND OPPOSITION TO DEFENDANTS'			
15) MOTION TO DISMISS THIRD			
16	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,) CAUSE OF ACTION IN et. al., PLAINTIFFS' FOURTH			
17 18) AMENDED COMPLAINT Defendants.			
19				
20	TABLE OF CONTENTS			
21	I. INTRODUCTION 1			
22	II. JURISDICTION 2			
23	III. RESPONSE TO CASES CITED 3			
24				
25 26	1. Lane v. Pena, 518 U.S. 187 (1996).			
26	2. United States v. Testan, 424 U.S. 392 (1976).			
28	3. F.D.I.C. v Meyer, 510 U.S. 471 (1994).			

1			
2	4	Gilbert v. Dagrossa, 756 F.2d 1455 (9th Cir. 1985).	4
3	T	Glibert V. Dagrossa, 750 F.2d 1455 (9 Cir. 1985).	4
4	5.	McCarthy v. United States., 850 F.2d 558	
5		(9 th Cir. 1988).	4
6	6.	United States v. Park Place Associates,	
7		563 F. 3d 907 (9th Cir. 2009).	4
8	7.	Summer Peck Ranch v. Bureau of Recl., 823 F.Supp.	
9		715 (E.D.Cal. 1993).	5
10	8.	Hughes v. United States, 953 F.2d 531 (9th Cir. 1992).	5
11	9.	Jachetta v. United States, 653 F.3d 898 (9th Cir. 2011).	~
12	- J.	vaenetta v. Omted States, 055 F.50 898 (9 Cff. 2011).	5
13	10.	Salazar v. Heckler, 787 F.2d 527 (10 th Cir. 1986).	6
14	11.	Beale v. Blount, 461 F.2d 1133 (5th Cir. 1972).	6
15	12.	Brian v. Gugin, 853 F. Supp. 358 (D. Idaho 1994)	
16 17		aff'd 46 F.3d 1138 (9 th Cir. 1995).	6
18	13.	Easterly v. Dep't of the Army, No. CVS01712591-	
19		JAMDADPS (E.D.Cal. Sept. 26, 2008).	6
20	14.	Carruth v. United States, 627 F.2d 1068 (Ct.Cl. 1980).	6
21	15.	Rivera v. United States, 924 F.2d 948 (9th Cir. 1991).	(
22	15.	Idvera v. Omica States, 924 F.20 948 (9° Cir. 1991).	6
23	16.	Clemente v. United States, 766 F.2d 1358 (9th Cir. 1985)	. 7
24	17.	Arnsberg v. United States, 757 F.2d 971 (9th Cir. 1985).	7
25	10	Orion Inc. Car. as W1:	_
26	18.	Orion Ins. Grp. v. Washington's Office of Minority & Women's Bus. Enterprises, 754 F.App'x 556 (9th Cir. 20	7 18)
27		2	,
28			

1				
1 2 3		19.	Nassiri v. Berryhill, No. 15-v-0583-WQH-NLS, 2017 WL3055709 (S.D.Cal. July 19, 2017); 2018 WL	7
			295974 (S.D.Cal. Jan. 3, 2018).	
5		20.	Boyd v. United States Dep't of the Treasury, 713 F.App'x 648 (9th Cir. 2018).	7
67		21.	Hutchinson v. United States, 677 F.2d 1322 (9th Cir. 1982).	7
8 9 10		22.	Gottschalk v. City & City of San Francisco, 964 F.Supp.2d 1147 (N.N.Cal. 2013).	7,8
11		23.	Campell v. U.S. Dep't of Ed., No.10-cv-266 JLS(WMc) 2010 WL 2605803, (S.D.Cal. June 28, 2010).	8
13 14	IV.	OF S	BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, THE DEPARTMENT TATE, AND THE SAN PASQUAL BAND OF SION INDIANS	8
15				O
16	V.	HIST	ORY OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY	11
17	VI.		VER AND EXCEPTIONS TO THE DOCTRINE OVEREIGN IMMUNITY	16
20	(1	A.	SPECIFIC STATUTORY WAIVERS OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY	18
21 22		В.	GENERAL WAIVERS OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY	19
23		C.	NON STATUTORY WAIVER DOCTRINE	20
25		D.	CONSTITUTIONAL EXCEPTION TO THE DOCTRINE OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY	21
7			23	
8				

1				
2	VII.		INTIFFS' CLAIMS ARE NOT BARRED BY THE TRINE OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY	22
4		A.	ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES ACT [APA]	22
5		В.	THE THOUGH ACT THE LITTLE THOUGH ACT	
6		Б.	THE TUCKER ACT, THE LITTLE TUCKER ACT, AND THE INDIAN TUCKER ACT.	22
7		C.	THE NON-STATUTORY DOCTRINE	25
8	VIII	CON	CLUSION	26
9	V 1111.	COIV	CLOSION	26
10		A.	SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED BY ALL	
11			THREE OF THE TUCKER ACTS FOR BREACH OF IMPLIED CONTRACT.	0.7
12			OF IMPLIED CONTRACT.	27
13			1. BREACH OF CONTRACT	27
14			2. BREACH OF TRUST	27
15 16 17		B.	SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED BY THE CONSTITUTIONAL RESTRICTION AGAINST	
			A FIFTH AMENDMENT TAKING	30
18		C.	SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED BY THE	
19			CONSTITUTIONAL EXCEPTION TO THE	
20			DOCTRINE OF SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY	32
21		D.	SOVEREIGN IMMUNITY IS WAIVED BY THE	
22			NON STATUTORY DOCTRINE	33
23			1. THE APPROPRIATIONS DOCTRINE AS A	
24			BASIS FOR APPLYING SOVEREIGN	
25			IMMUNITY NO LONGER EXISTS	33
26				
27			4	
28	e.			

Qase 3:16-cv-02442-AJB-MSB Document 116-1 Filed 11/18/19 PageID.5678 Page 5 of 11

TABLE OF CASES CASES **PAGE** Alaska v. Native Village of Venetie Tribal Government. 522 U.S. 520 (1998) Alden v. Maine, 527 U.S. 706 (1999)2 Alto v. Black, 738 F.3d 111 (9th Cir. 2013) Alvarado v Tale Mountain Rancheria, 509 F.3d 1008 (9th Cir. 2007) Arford v. United States, 934 F.2d 229 (9th Cir. 1991) Arnsberg v. United States, 757 F.2d 971 (9th Cir. 1984) 7,32 Beale v. Blount, 461 F.2d 1133 (5th Cir. 1972) Board of Regents v. Roth, 408 U.S. 564 (1972) Boyd v. United States Dep't of the Treasury, 713 F.App'x 648 (9th Cir. 2018) Brian v. Gugin, 853 F. Supp. 358 (D. Idaho 1994) aff'd 46 F.3d 1138 (9th Cir. 1995) Campell v. U.S. Dep't of Ed., No.10-cv-266 JLS(WMc) 2010 WL 2605803, (S.D.Cal. June 28, 2010) Carruth v. United States, 627 F.2d 1068 (Ct.Cl. 1980) Cherokee Nation v. Georgia, 30 U.S. (5 Pet.) 1 (1831) 9,10 Clemente v. United States, 766 F.2d 1358 (9th Cir. 1985) Cobell v. Norton, 226 F. Supp. 2d 1 (D.D.C. 2002), vacated in part and remanded by 334 F.3d 1128 (D.C.Cir. 2003) Cunningham v. United States, 786 F.2d 1445, 1446 (9th Cir. 1986) Duarte v. United States, 532 F.2d 850 (2d Cir. 1976) 31, 32 Dunn & Black, PS v. United States, 492 F.3d 1084 (9th Cir. 2007) Easterly v. Dep't of the Army, No. CVS01712591-JAMDADPS (E.D.Cal. Sept. 26, 2008) F.D.I.C. v. Meyer, 510 U.S. 471 (1994) FHA v. Burr, 309 U.S. 242 (1940)

1		
2	CASES	PAGE
3	Gerhart v. Lake City, 637 F.3d 1013 (9th Cir. 2011)	32
	Gilbert v. Dagrossa, 756 F.2d 1455 (9th Cir. 1985)	4
5	Gottschalk v. City & City of San Francisco, 964 F.Supp.2d 1147 (N.N.Cal. 2013)	7,8
6	Hayward v. Henderson, 623 F.2d 596 (9th Cir. 1980)	32
7	Hughes v United States, 953 F.2d 531 (9th Cir. 1992)	5,17
8	Hutchinson v. United States, 677 F.2d 1322 (9th Cir. 1982)	7
9	Jachetta v. United States, 653 F.3d 898 (9th Cir. 2011)	5
10	John R. Sand & Gravel Co. v. United States, 128 U.S. 730 (2008) (N0. 06-1164)	3
11	Lane v. Pena, 518 U.S. 187 (1996)	4
12 13	Larson v Domestic & Foreign Commerce Corp., 337 U.S. 682 (1949)	14-16 22,35
14	Lone Wolf v. Hitchcock, 187 U.S. 553 (1903)	26
15	Malone v. Bowdoin, 369 U.S. 643 (1962)	14-16,22,35
16	Marbury v. Madison, 5 U.S. (1 Cranch) 137 (1805)	25,26
17	McCarthy v. United States, 850 F.2d 558 (9th Cir. 1988)	4
18	Nassiri v. Berryhill, No. 15-v-0583-WQH-NLS, 2017	7
19	WL3055709 (S.D.Cal. July 19, 2017); 2018 WL 295974 (S.D.Cal. Jan. 3, 2018)	
20	Navajo Nation v. United States, 537 U.S. 488 (2003)	28,29
21	OPM v. Richmond, 486 U.S. 414 (1990)	18
22	Orion Ins. Grp. v. Washington's Office of Minority & Women's Bus. Enterprises, 754 F.App'x 556 (9th Cir. 2018)	7
23	Powelson v. United States, 150 F.3d 1103 (9th Cir. 1998)	16
24	Reeside v. Walker, 52 U.S. 11 How.) 272 (1850)	33
25	Rivera v. United States, 924 F.2d 948 (9th Cir. 1991)	6,7
26	Ruckelshaus v. Monsanto Co., 467 U.S. 986 (1984)	**************************************
27	(1704)	23,31,34

1		
2	CASES	PAGE
	Salazar v. Heckler, 787 F.2d 527 (10th Cir. 1986)	6
3	Seminole Nation v. United States, 316 U.S. 286 (1942)	10
4	Simanonok v. Simanonok, 918 F.2d 947 (Fed. Cir. 1990)	23
5	Stone v. United States, 683 F.2d 449 (D.C. Cir. 1982)	23
6 7	Summer Peck Ranch v. Bureau of Recl., 823 F.Supp. 715 (E.D.Cal. 1993)	5
8	Tahon v. Maves, 163 U.S. 376 (1896)	26
9	United States. v. Mitchell, 463 U.S. 206 (1983) [Mitchell II]	17,27,28
10	United States v McLemore, 45 U.S. (4 How) 286 (1846)	26
11	United States v. Lee, 106 U.S. 196 (1982)	11-14,22,26
12	United States v. Testan, 424 U.S. 392 (1976)	4,23,33,34
13	United States v. Park Place Associates, 563 F. 3d 907 (9th Cir. 2009)	4
14	United States v. White Mt. Apache Tribe, 537 U.S. 465 (2003)	29,30.33
15	Villegas v. United States, 926 F. Supp. 1185 (E.D. Wash. 2013)	17
16	Willowbrook v. Olech, 528 U.S. 562 (2000) (per curium)	32
17	Zumerling v. Devine, 769 F.2d 745 (Fed. Cir. 1985)	23
18	UNITED STATES CONSTITUTION	
19	U.S. Const. Amend V	Passim
20	FEDERAL STATUTES	
21	Title 5 U.S.C. §§500-596	2
22	Title 5 U.S.C. §§701-706	2, 22
23	Title 5 U.S.C. §§552, 552(a)	19,22
24	Title 17 U.S.C. §§1-1332	19
25	Title 25 U.S.C. §331 [General Allotment Act of 1887]	8
26	Title 25 U.S.C. §71 (2000) The Appropriations Act of March 3, 1871	8
27		
28	Q.	

1	FEDERAL STATUTES	PAGE
3	Title 25 C.F.R. §§461-479 (2000)	9
	Title 25 U.S.C. §§1301-1304 [Indian Civil Rights Act]	26
4	Title 28 U.S.C. §1331	2,16,34,35
5	Title 28 U.S.C. §1334	34
6 7	Title 28 U.S.C. §1340	16
8	Title 28 U.S.C. §1343(a)(4)	2,,18,35
9	Title 28 U.S.C. §1346(a)(2); (b)(1)	18,22,23
10	Title 28 U.S.C. §1361	2
11	Title 28 U.S.C. §1491 [Tucker Act]	2,19,22, 34,35
12	Title 28 U.S.C. §1505 [Indian Tucker Act]	2 19 23 34
13	Title 28 U.S.C. §§2201-2	35 2
14	Title 29 U.S.C. §§621-34	19
15	Title 31 U.S.C. §1304	13,25
16	Title 38 U.S.C. §§1-7907	19
17	Title 42 U.S.C. §405(a)	19
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