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13  
14 SUPERIOR COURT OF THE STATE OF CALIFORNIA  
15 COUNTY OF ALAMEDA

16 MAYA ROBLES-WONG, et al.

17 Plaintiffs,

18 v.

19 STATE OF CALIFORNIA; and ARNOLD  
20 SCHWARZENEGGER, Governor of the State of  
California,

21  
22 Defendants.

23 And

24  
25 CALIFORNIA TEACHERS ASSOCIATION,

26 Plaintiff-Intervener

No. RG10515768

**PLAINTIFFS' OPPOSITION TO  
DEFENDANTS' DEMURRER TO  
COMPLAINT**

**[Filed Concurrently with Plaintiffs'  
Opposition to Defendants' Request for  
Judicial Notice in Support of Plaintiffs'  
Demurrer; Plaintiffs' Opposition to  
Defendants' Motion to Strike  
Complaints; Appendix of Non-California  
Authorities Not Previously Cited to  
Court Filed in Support of Plaintiffs'  
Opposition to Defendants' Demurrer]**

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1       **I.       INTRODUCTION**

2           The State’s demurrer asserts that article IX of the California Constitution confers no  
3 substantive rights upon school children and imposes no substantive duties on the State, or in the  
4 alternative, that any obligations imposed on the State are satisfied by the minimum funding  
5 constitutional provisions enacted by Proposition 98. The State’s limited construction of the  
6 rights conferred and the duties imposed by article IX is at odds with the language and historical  
7 purpose of the article, numerous pronouncements from the California Supreme Court regarding  
8 the fundamental right to an education, and judicial interpretations of similar provisions in other  
9 state constitutions. Nor can the State rely on Proposition 98 to avoid its constitutional  
10 obligations, because the minimum funding provisions there do not conflict with or trump the  
11 State’s obligations or the rights of children under article IX and the equal protection clause.

12           The State further asserts that plaintiffs ask this Court to “order the appropriation of more  
13 money for California’s schools . . . .” (Defendants’ Demurrer to Plaintiffs’ Complaint (Aug. 10,  
14 2010) p. 11:4-5 (hereafter Dem.)) That is wrong, as is the related argument that the  
15 constitutionality of the State’s school finance system is non-justiciable. The State ignores that  
16 the California Supreme Court in *Serrano I* and *Serrano II* reviewed the constitutionality of the  
17 State’s school finance system, found that the system violated the constitutional rights of students,  
18 and ordered the State to develop a new school finance system consistent with constitutional  
19 principles. (See generally *Serrano v. Priest* (1971) 5 Cal.3d 584 (hereafter *Serrano I*); *Serrano*  
20 *v. Priest* (1976) 18 Cal.3d 728 (hereafter *Serrano II*.) In numerous cases throughout the nation,  
21 courts have considered whether school funding schemes pass muster under their state  
22 constitutions. Plaintiffs ask this Court to do no more than review the state’s school finance  
23 system – as the trial court did in *Serrano* – to determine whether the State is living up to its  
24 constitutional obligations.

25       **II.       STANDARD OF REVIEW**

26           In considering a demurrer, all material facts properly pleaded are deemed true (*Serrano*  
27 *II*, 5 Cal.3d at p. 591), and those facts may be implied or inferred from those expressly alleged.  
28

1 (*Marshall v. Gibson, Dunn & Crutcher* (1995) 37 Cal.App.4th 1397, 1403.) Defendants must  
2 show that the challenged causes of action in the complaint are defective on their face. (See Code  
3 Civ. Proc., § 430.30(a).) A demurrer tests the legal, not factual, sufficiency of a complaint – the  
4 complaint must only state a cause of action for which there is a remedy. (See Code Civ. Proc., §  
5 3422.) If a complaint contains allegations of the facts essential to state a cause of action,  
6 regardless of mistaken theory or imperfections of form, the court must overrule the demurrer.  
7 (*Brousseau v. Jarrett* (1977) 73 Cal.App.3d 864, 870.)

### 8 **III. OVERVIEW AND FACTUAL ALLEGATIONS**

#### 9 **A. Constitutional Framework Establishing the State’s Obligation to** 10 **Provide and Support a System of Public Education**

11 Californians have recognized the paramount importance of public education since the  
12 adoption of the California Constitution in 1849. That Constitution provided for the three  
13 branches of government and required only two other institutions: the state militia and the public  
14 school system. (Plaintiffs’ Complaint (May 20, 2010) ¶ 2 (hereafter Compl.)) Even today, the  
15 duties contained in the education article are the only affirmative constitutional duties placed  
16 upon the State to establish any public welfare or social services.

17 Section 1 of the education article provides that:

18 A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence being essential to the  
19 preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the Legislature shall  
20 encourage by all suitable means the promotion of intellectual, scientific,  
21 moral, and agricultural improvement.

22 (Cal. Const., art IX, § 1.) The California Supreme Court has held that education is not only  
23 essential for the “preservat[ion] of other basic civil and political rights,” (*Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at  
24 p. 608), but that public education “forms the basis of self-government and constitutes the very  
25 corner stone [*sic*] of republican institutions.” (*Hartzell v. Connell* (1984) 35 Cal.3d 899, 906  
26 (quoting Debates and Proceedings, Cal. Const. Convention 1878-1879, p. 1087).) Because  
27 “education is a major determinant of an individual’s chances for economic and social success in  
28 our competitive society” and “is a unique influence on a child’s development as a citizen and his  
participation in political and community life,” education is a fundamental right of each child in

1 California. (*Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at pp. 605, 608-09.) California courts have repeatedly held that  
2 the purpose of the State’s public education system is to teach students the skills they need to  
3 succeed as productive members of modern society.

4 To ensure that all students are afforded their right to an education, the Constitution  
5 requires that “[t]he Legislature shall provide for a *system of common schools* by which a free  
6 school *shall be kept up and supported* in each district . . . .” (Cal. Const., art. IX, § 5, italics  
7 added.) The Supreme Court has held that “the word ‘system,’ as used in article IX, section 5,  
8 implies a ‘unity of purpose as well as an entirety of operation, and the direction to the legislature  
9 to provide a system of common schools means one system which shall be applicable to all the  
10 common schools within the state.” (*Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at p. 595, italics omitted (quoting  
11 *Kennedy v. Miller* (1893) 97 Cal. 429, 432).) The State is obligated to ensure that the common  
12 schools are maintained and operated so that the education guaranteed by the Constitution is  
13 provided throughout the California school system. (*Id.* at pp. 595-96.)

14 It is well established that the education provided by the State through the common school  
15 system must be made available to all students on an equal basis. Quoting from *Brown v. Board of*  
16 *Education* (1954) 347 U.S. 483, the California Supreme Court explains:

17 In these days, it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to  
18 succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of an education. Such an  
19 opportunity, where the state has undertaken to provide it, is a right which  
20 must be made available to all on equal terms.

21 (*Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at p. 606.) Equal educational opportunities are essential because “the public  
22 schools of this state are the bright hope for entry of the poor and oppressed into the mainstream of  
23 American society.” (*Id.* at p. 609.) Moreover, because public education is a “uniquely  
24 fundamental” concern of the State, the “State itself has broad responsibility to ensure basic  
25 educational equality under the California Constitution” and cannot delegate that responsibility to  
26 any other entity. (*Butt v. California* (1992) 4 Cal.4th 668, 681.)

26 The California Constitution recognizes the paramount importance of public education by  
27 requiring that funding of common schools take priority over other State expenditures – from each  
28 year’s state revenues shall “*first be set apart* the moneys to be applied by the state for support of

1 the public school system.” (Cal. Const., art. XVI, § 8(a), italics added.) The Constitution provides  
2 no similar funding priority for any other public institution or public service.

3 This constitutional framework for public education makes it clear that: education is a  
4 fundamental right that is essential to preserving other rights and liberties granted by the  
5 Constitution; the purpose of the State’s public education system is to teach students the skills they  
6 need to succeed in a competitive economy, and to become informed citizens and productive  
7 members of modern society; the common school system must be maintained and operated so that  
8 the education guaranteed by the Constitution is available to students throughout the public school  
9 system; and that the common school system must be maintained and operated so that all students  
10 are provided equal educational opportunities.

11 The complaint states four separate claims for relief<sup>1</sup>:

12 (1) The first cause of action alleges that the State has violated its duty under sections  
13 1 and 5 of article IX to “provide for a system of common schools” that is “kept up and  
14 supported” by the State using “all suitable means” by failing to provide a funding system that has  
15 a coherent or functional relationship with the educational program that the State requires the  
16 schools to deliver, and that this failure prevents the State from delivering an educational program  
17 to all students that provides them an opportunity to learn the academic standards prescribed by  
18 the State for success in the 21st century.

19 (2) The second cause of action alleges that the State is denying students their  
20 fundamental right to an education under article IX, is denying students an opportunity to become  
21 proficient according to the State’s academic standards, and is denying students an opportunity to  
22 develop the skills and capacities necessary to achieve economic and social success because it  
23 operates an irrational and insufficient school finance system.

24 (3) The third cause of action alleges that the State violates the equal protection  
25 guarantees of sections 7(a) and 7(b) of article I and section 16 of article IV of the California  
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27 <sup>1</sup> Other than a cursory argument that the alleged facts do not support an equal protection claim, the State does not  
28 specifically analyze and demur to any of Plaintiffs’ four causes of action in their 33-page Demurrer.



1 Constitution by failing to provide and support an education finance system that provides all  
2 California school children equal access to the State's prescribed educational program and an  
3 equal educational opportunity to become proficient in the State's academic standards.

4 (4) The fourth cause of action alleges that by failing to intentionally and rationally  
5 determine and provide the amount of funding necessary to support the State's prescribed  
6 education program and the educational needs of all students, the State has violated its duty under  
7 section 8(a) of article XVI of the California Constitution to ensure that from each year's state  
8 revenues shall "first be set apart the moneys to be applied by the state for support of the public  
9 school system."

10 **B. Factual Allegations Support Each Claim for Relief**

11 The State has implemented its article IX constitutional obligations by establishing a  
12 comprehensive, standards-based education program and accountability scheme that defines the  
13 specific academic knowledge, skills, and abilities that all public schools are expected to teach  
14 and that all students are expected to learn. (See Compl. at ¶¶ 61-68.) This comprehensive  
15 education program provides a common purpose and goal for the State's system of public schools.

16 In 1995, the State began developing statewide "academic content standards" in English-  
17 language arts, mathematics, history and science. Consistent with the purpose of article IX,  
18 section 1, the Legislature directed that the academic content standards "shall be based on the  
19 knowledge and skills that pupils will need in order to succeed in the information-based, global  
20 economy of the 21st century." (Ed. Code, § 60602.) These content standards are central to the  
21 State's education program, and define "the specific academic knowledge, skills, and abilities that  
22 all public schools in this state are expected to teach and all pupils expected to learn in each of the  
23 core curriculum areas, at each grade level tested." (Ed. Code, § 60603.) Through the statutorily-  
24 required alignment of curriculum frameworks, instructional materials, and teacher training, a  
25 common, comprehensive education program was imposed on the entire public school system.  
26 (Compl. at ¶¶ 61-68.)

27 The State also developed a statewide assessment and accountability program to measure  
28 success in providing the required program and learning the required material. Assessments

1 measure the extent to which students in each school and school district reach “proficiency” in the  
2 State’s academic standards. Based on student performance on these assessments, each school and  
3 school district receives an “Academic Performance Index” (API) ranking that serves as the basis  
4 for both state and federal accountability measures, including mandatory sanctions. (Compl. at ¶¶  
5 64-67.)

6 There is no coherent or functional relationship, however, between the State’s  
7 comprehensive education program and its school finance system. The State has not aligned  
8 funding policies and mechanisms with the education program it has developed, and has made no  
9 effort to determine the actual cost of providing the education program in all of its public schools.  
10 (Compl. at ¶¶ 82-106.) Nor does the State’s funding scheme sufficiently account for the learning  
11 needs of certain populations of students, including English learners and economically  
12 disadvantaged children, to ensure these children have equal access to the program and equal  
13 opportunities to meet the State’s education standards.<sup>2</sup> (*Id.* at ¶¶ 107-17.)

14 California’s school finance system is based on formulas and policies cobbled together over  
15 decades and bears no relation to the current educational needs of students. (Compl. at ¶¶ 82-106.)  
16 School funding amounts are primarily based upon a minimum funding guarantee (Proposition 98)  
17 that predates the development of the standards-based education program. (*Id.* at ¶¶ 97-105.)  
18 Allocations to schools and school districts are primarily based on archaic formulas and policies  
19 (such as “revenue limits”) that are unrelated to the programs and services those schools and  
20 districts must currently provide. (*Id.* at ¶¶ 88-93.) Moreover, state funding is unstable, unreliable  
21 and insufficient to support core education programs and services related to academic proficiency,  
22 or necessary intervention programs, support services and enrichment activities.<sup>3</sup> (*Id.* at ¶¶ 106-31.)

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24 <sup>2</sup> Governor Schwarzenegger’s Committee on Education Excellence concluded that education funding “is based on  
25 anachronistic formulas, neither tied to the needs of individual students nor to intended academic outcomes” and the  
26 current system “[d]oes not ensure that sufficient resources reach students according to their needs.” (Compl. at ¶ 70.)

27 <sup>3</sup> Low funding levels and ineffective financing policies directly impact the educational resources available to  
28 California students. Out of 50 states, California ranks 49<sup>th</sup> in teacher-student ratios and 48<sup>th</sup> in total school staff-  
student ratios. (Compl. at ¶ 24.) Teacher-student ratios and class sizes in California schools are not determined by  
pedagogical or education policy factors, but are purely a function of funding amounts generated by arbitrary  
formulas and policies on a year-to-year basis. (Compl. at ¶ 72.)

1           The irrational and unstable funding system directly impedes the ability of school districts,  
2 including plaintiff school districts, to meet the requirements imposed by the State and the  
3 educational needs of their students. Districts cannot maintain appropriate teacher-student ratios  
4 and appropriate class-sizes; they are unable to offer sufficient instructional minutes in core  
5 academic subject courses and necessary preparatory classes to all students, including the additional  
6 instructional time necessary for English learners; they cannot design and implement necessary  
7 intervention and remedial programs which require long-term planning and continuity in order to be  
8 effective; and they cannot provide all students appropriate instructional materials, including access  
9 to computers and educational technology, to effectively communicate and deliver course content.  
10 (Compl. at ¶ 171.)

11           Many California students, including the individual plaintiff students here, are harmed or at  
12 risk of being harmed by the State’s educational finance system because it denies them the  
13 educational resources they need to learn the State’s academic standards and acquire the  
14 “knowledge and skills . . . [they] need in order to succeed in the information-based, global  
15 economy of the 21st century.” (Ed. Code, § 60602.) According to the State’s own assessments,  
16 millions of California students are not proficient in the academic standards and fail to acquire the  
17 specific skills and knowledge the State itself deems necessary for success in the 21st Century.  
18 Only about half of all California students are proficient in English-language arts. That number  
19 drops precipitously for certain subgroups of students – by 11th grade, only one out of four African-  
20 American, Hispanic, or economically-disadvantaged students is proficient in English. Overall  
21 proficiency is even lower in math. (Compl. at ¶¶ 76-80.) California also ranks near the bottom in  
22 nationwide rankings of academic achievement, as evidenced by the latest National Assessment of  
23 Educational Progress (NAEP) rankings in which California tied for 47th on fourth grade reading  
24 and 46th in eighth grade math. (*Id.* at ¶ 75.)

25 **IV. ARGUMENT**

26 **A. Article IX Provides Substantive Rights and Enforceable Duties**

27           The heart of article IX is sections 1 and 5. Section 1 provides:  
28

1 A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence being essential to the  
2 preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the Legislature shall  
3 encourage by all suitable means the promotion of intellectual, scientific,  
4 moral and agricultural improvement.

5 Section 5 provides: “The Legislature shall provide for a system of common schools by which a  
6 free school shall be kept up and supported in each district at least six months in every year . . . .”

7 In determining the meaning and scope of article IX, the court’s objective must be “to  
8 discern the true intent of [constitutional provisions’] authors, and when that intent has been  
9 ascertained, it becomes the duty of the Court to give effect to it . . . .” (*Bourland v. Hildreth*  
10 (1864) 26 Cal. 161, 180.) Constitutional provisions must not “be interpreted according to narrow  
11 or supertechnical [*sic*] principles, but liberally and on broad general lines, so that it may  
12 accomplish in full measure the objects of its establishment and so carry out the great principles  
13 of government.” (*People v. Giordano* (2007) 42 Cal.4th 644, 655, citations omitted.) To do this,  
14 courts look to the plain meaning of the words. (*Mutual Life Ins. Co. v. City of Los Angeles*  
15 (1990) 50 Cal.3d 402, 407.) Courts may also, if necessary, look to the history of the provisions,  
16 interpretations of the provisions in prior judicial decisions, as well as the decisions of courts from  
17 other states that have interpreted similar provisions in their state constitutions. (*Id.* at p. 407;  
18 *Arcadia Unified Sch. Dist. v. State Dept. of Ed.* (1992) 2 Cal.4th 251, 261; *Hartzell*, 35 Cal.3d at  
19 pp. 905-12.) Based on these authorities, the provisions of article IX create enforceable  
20 substantive rights.

21 1. Plain Meaning and History of Article IX Establish the Connection  
22 Between the State’s Obligation to Support its Public School  
23 System and Every Child’s Substantive Right to an Education.

24 Sections 1 and 5 confer substantive rights and impose affirmative duties. Both use the  
25 term “shall,” which connotes a mandatory or directory duty. (See *Woodbury v. Brown-Dempsey*  
26 (2003) 108 Cal.App.4th 421, 435-36.) The use of the word “all” to modify “suitable means”  
27 demonstrates that the framers and voters intended the State to use its best or maximal effort to  
28 achieve the educational goal stated in section 1. Implicit in section 1 is a requirement that the  
diffusion of knowledge and intelligence be of *sufficient quality* to preserve the rights and liberties  
of the people, which are specified in detail in the Constitution. The language of section 5 also

1 invokes a qualitative standard; inherent in the idea of being “kept up and supported” is the notion  
2 of a standard that the schools would meet. The phrase suggests both a substantive component  
3 (*i.e.*, “kept up and supported” to meet educational standards) and a temporal component (*i.e.*,  
4 “kept up” to continue to meet standards over the course of time).<sup>4</sup>

5 The framers viewed education of the young as the most important priority for the new  
6 state and therefore enacted language that would ensure its provision. The state school fund  
7 created by the 1849 Constitution was originally supported by designated revenues that were to be  
8 “inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools.” (Cal. Const., art. IX, § 2.)  
9 Delegates to the 1849 Constitutional Convention rejected proposals that would have deleted the  
10 term “inviolably” or allowed some funds to be diverted from education “if the exigencies of the  
11 State require it.” (Rep. of the Debates in the Convention of Cal., on the Formation of the State  
12 Const. (1850) pp. 203-206.) The delegates overwhelmingly rejected these proposals, stating that  
13 “there cannot be too large a fund for educational purposes” and that “[n]othing will have a  
14 greater tendency to secure prosperity to the State, stability to our institutions, and an enlightened  
15 state of society, than by providing for the education of our posterity.” (*Id.* at p. 204.) Financial  
16 responsibility for support of the schools was thus connected to the underlying entitlement to an  
17 education, and was seen from the earliest days of statehood as a critical element of the “system”  
18 required by the Constitution.

19 The language now found in sections 1 and 5 of article IX was added at the Constitutional  
20 Convention of 1879. (Debates and Proceedings in the Convention of Cal. On Formation of State  
21 Const. (1881) p. 1089.) Several delegates emphasized that the language of Section 1 “means  
22 something” beyond a mere statement of principles: “[section 1] makes it the duty of the  
23 Legislature to forward [public education] in every way that the Legislature may have the power  
24 to do.” (*Id.* at p. 1089.) That section was specially placed at the beginning of article IX because

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25  
26 <sup>4</sup> Several state constitutions express an analogous concept with the word “maintain,” and courts have recognized that  
27 the term “implies a continuing obligation to ensure compliance with evolving educational standards.” (*Op. of the*  
28 *Justices*, No. 338 (Ala. 1993) 624 So.2d 107, 154; see also *Campaign for Fiscal Equity v. New York* (2003) 801  
N.E.2d 326, 330.)

1 it provided “the basis upon which the whole [education system was] founded.” (*Id.*)

2 In 1910, the Constitution was amended to impose the requirement that from each year’s  
3 state revenues, “there shall first be set apart the moneys to be applied by the state for support of  
4 the public school system.” This amendment moved the funding priority from the education  
5 article to article XIII (state revenues), had the effect of changing the funding source for education  
6 from a set of finite revenues to all state revenues, and made clear that education was designated  
7 as the State’s first priority. The explicit command to the Legislature to affirmatively establish a  
8 system of provision for education is unique in the constitution. All other constitutional  
9 provisions concerning public welfare or social services are couched in permissive terms.

10 2. California Judicial Decisions Identify Article IX Rights and Duties.

11 Article IX confers judicially enforceable educational rights, including “a legal right”  
12 entitling all children “to be educated at the public expense.” (*Ward v. Flood* (1874) 48 Cal. 36,  
13 50-51; accord *Piper v. Big Pine School Dist.* (1924) 193 Cal. 664, 669; *Hartzell*, 35 Cal. 3d at p.  
14 911.) California courts have repeatedly held that article IX provides schoolchildren a  
15 “fundamental” right to an education and that the purpose of the State’s education system is to  
16 teach students the skills they need to succeed as productive members of modern society.  
17 (*Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at p. 608-09; *Hartzell*, 35 Cal.3d at pp. 906-09; *Butt*, 4 Cal.4th at p. 681;  
18 *O’Connell v. Superior Ct.* (2006) 141 Cal. App. 4th 1452, 1482; *Piper*, 193 Cal. at p. 670.) For  
19 example, in *Serrano I* the court held that the education guaranteed to students is one that  
20 provides all students opportunities to gain the skills necessary to enter “the chambers of science,  
21 art and the learned professions, as well as into fields of industrial and commercial activities.”  
22 (*Serrano I*, 5 Cal. 3d at p. 607 (citing *Piper*, 193 Cal. at p. 673.) The court further held that the  
23 fundamental “right to an education today means more than access to a classroom” and the  
24 education provided must be of sufficient quality to provide students with the skills necessary to  
25 “participate in the social, cultural and political activity of our society.” (*Id.* at p. 606, citations  
26 omitted; see also *O’Connell*, 141 Cal.App.4th at p. 1482 [California’s public school system  
27 exists “not [simply] to endow students with diplomas, but to equip [students] with the  
28

1 substantive knowledge and skills they need to succeed in life”].) In short, these decisions make  
2 it clear that the fundamental right to an education is also a substantive right – every California  
3 schoolchild has the right to an education that provides them the opportunity to participate  
4 successfully in the economic, social, and civic life of the state.

5 Similarly, courts have interpreted the term “system of common schools” in section 5 to  
6 have a qualitative component – it must be a functional system that applies to all schools in the  
7 State. (See *Serrano I*, 5 Cal. 3d at p. 595 [“the word ‘system,’ as used in article IX, section 5,  
8 implies a ‘unity of purpose as well as an entirety of operation, and the direction to the legislature to  
9 provide ‘a’ system of common schools means one system which shall be applicable to all the  
10 common schools within the state.”] (quoting *Kennedy*, 97 Cal. at p. 432).)

11 The State has implemented its obligations under sections 1 and 5 by establishing a  
12 comprehensive, standards-based education program that defines the specific academic knowledge,  
13 skills, and abilities that all public schools are expected to teach and that all students are expected to  
14 learn. (Compl. at ¶¶ 61-68.) Consistent with the cases establishing students’ qualitative right  
15 under article IX, the Legislature specifically directed that the academic content standards “shall be  
16 based on the knowledge and skills that pupils will need in order to succeed in the information-  
17 based, global economy of the 21st century.” (Ed. Code, § 60602.) Thus, the State has defined the  
18 education that all students are currently entitled to receive, and this Court may afford considerable  
19 deference to the legislative scheme establishing the contours of the substantive right.<sup>5</sup>

20 Moreover, California’s comprehensive, standards-based education program is the core of  
21 the current public school system (Compl. at ¶¶ 63-67) and is “common” in the manner  
22 contemplated in *Kennedy* and *Serrano*. Consequently, the State’s school finance scheme must be  
23 coherently connected to the standards-based education program so that the “system” functions with  
24 a “unity of purpose as well as an entirety of operation,” and so that the education program is  
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26 <sup>5</sup> Cf. *Lobato v. State* (Colo. 2009) 218 P.3d 358, n.17 (“[T]he General Assembly has enacted additional education  
27 reform statutes with proficiency targets and content standards, which the plaintiffs in this case assert, and we agree,  
28 may also be used to help evaluate the constitutionality of the legislature’s actions.”).

1 provided in “all the common schools within the State.” (*Kennedy*, 97 Cal. at p. 432; *Serrano I*, 5  
2 Cal.3d at p. 595.)

3 Defendants, however, attempt to construe the *Serrano* cases and *Wilson v. State Board of*  
4 *Education* (1999) 75 Cal.App.4th 1125, 1135, to prohibit the application of article IX to the school  
5 finance system and to the standards-based education program. In so doing, defendants limit  
6 *Serrano* and expand *Wilson* in ways that are inconsistent with the facts and holdings of those cases.

7 In *Serrano*, plaintiffs challenged a school finance system that made the educational  
8 resources available to students dependent on the tax wealth of the students’ districts under both  
9 equal protection provisions and section 5 of article IX. The section 5 claim asserted that the State’s  
10 finance policies created separate “systems” (based on a district’s tax wealth) rather than the  
11 “common system” required by section 5. The Supreme Court agreed with plaintiffs that a funding  
12 system that results in wealth-based differences would violate equal protection guarantees, but  
13 upheld the demurrer to the section 5 claim to avoid a direct conflict with the text of former section  
14 6. (*Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at pp. 595-96.) At that time, section 6 directed the Legislature to “provide  
15 for the levying annually by the governing board of each county . . . of such school district taxes, at  
16 rates . . . as will produce in each fiscal year such revenue as the governing board thereof shall  
17 determine is required . . .” (Former Cal. Const., art. IX, § 6.) In *Serrano I* the Court  
18 characterized plaintiffs’ claims as seeking “equal spending,” and in *Serrano II* the Court concisely  
19 explained the reason why the section 5 claim had to be rejected:

20 At pages 595 and 596 of our opinion in *Serrano I*, in rejecting plaintiffs’  
21 contention that the system there alleged to exist was violative of the  
22 provisions of article IX, section 5 (requiring ‘a system of common  
23 schools’), we observed that former article IX, section 6, paragraph 6, the  
24 provision here at issue, ‘specifically authorizes the very element [variation  
25 in school district expenditures] of which plaintiffs’ complain.

26 (*Serrano II*, 18 Cal.3d at pp. 770,771, citations removed.) The text of former section 6 is no  
27 longer part of the constitution. Plaintiffs do not challenge the State’s failure to provide “equal  
28 spending” but its failure to provide a finance system that allows students to master the education  
program that the State deems necessary to succeed in the 21st century. *Serrano*’s holding that  
section 5 does not support an “equal spending” claim cannot be stretched to support the State’s



1 assertion that its education finance system can never be challenged for failing to meet the  
2 requirements of article IX.<sup>6</sup>

3 The State also cites *Serrano* in an attempt to limit the requirements of section 5 to only  
4 uniformity in the prescribed course of study and progression from grade to grade. (Dem. at 7,  
5 n.5.) However, *Serrano* also cited *Piper*, which stated that each grade “forms a working unit in a  
6 comprehensive plan of education” and must be “preparatory” with the entire system purposefully  
7 aimed to “afford [its students] an entrance into schools of technology, agriculture . . . and the  
8 University of California.” (*Piper*, 193 Cal. at p. 673.) While plaintiffs dispute that *Serrano* and  
9 *Piper* support the narrow construction of section 5 given by the State, the current system fails to  
10 meet even the requirements the State acknowledges. The statewide academic standards identify  
11 the skills needed to be mastered at each level in order to progress through the system and,  
12 ultimately, to be prepared for college or employment. Failure to master skills (*i.e.*, reach  
13 proficiency) at one level prevents a student from moving forward as contemplated by the system.  
14 Failure to reach proficiency leaves students unprepared for college or employment. The State’s  
15 failure to provide a funding system that ensures that each student will have the resources  
16 necessary to master those skills and move to the next level *is* a failure to ensure the kind of  
17 progression and preparation for work or higher education envisioned by *Serrano* and *Piper*.

18 *Wilson* supports the plaintiffs in this regard, as it acknowledges that changes to the  
19 educational program in the last decade (*i.e.*, adoption of statewide standards and accountability  
20 measures) have had the effect of requiring uniformity as to key ingredients of the “system,” *e.g.*,  
21 the requirement that the education program be provided on an equal basis to all without cost; the  
22 requirement that all schools provide adequately trained teachers and minimum instructional time;  
23 the fact that all students must “be geared to meet the same state standards;” and *measurement of*  
24 *student progress by standardized assessments.* (*Wilson*, 75 Cal.App.4th at pp. 1135, 1137-38,

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26 <sup>6</sup> *Butt* also supports plaintiffs. In *Butt*, the Court concluded that the probable equal protection violation made it  
27 “unnecessary to address claims that a State duty of intervention may also have arisen under the ‘free school’ clause.”  
28 (*Butt*, 4 Cal.4th at p. 693.) In its analysis, however, the Court rejected the State’s argument that its obligations under  
article IX extended only to keeping school doors open for six months each year. (*Id.* at p. 685.)

1 italics added.) Thus, *Wilson* recognized that the State has itself defined critical elements of the  
2 constitutionally required “system.” Contrary to the State’s inference, plaintiffs do not seek to make  
3 each element of the State’s required program a constitutional requirement, but rather to ensure that  
4 the core elements of the standards-based education program are available to all students throughout  
5 the public school system.

6 In sum, California cases establish that education is a fundamental and substantive right of  
7 every school child. Implementing its article IX obligations, the State has established a standards-  
8 based education program that defines the academic skills and knowledge necessary for success in  
9 the 21st century, and thus provides the contours and critical elements of the substantive right.  
10 California cases also require a coherent, functional relationship between the State’s school finance  
11 scheme and the standards-based education program, so that the public school system functions  
12 with a “unity of purpose as well as an entirety of operation,” and so that the education program is  
13 provided in “all the common schools within the State.” (*Kennedy*, 97 Cal. at p. 432; *Serrano*, 5  
14 Cal.3d at p. 595.) This Court may properly use the State’s own standards as evidence of the  
15 constitutionally required education program, and the State’s own assessments as a measurement of  
16 the State’s success in ensuring that all students have an opportunity to realize the promised  
17 educational program. The duty to provide and support the system of common schools requires  
18 the State to operate a funding system that ensures all students will have access to the State’s  
19 educational program. The substantive right to an education, and the obligation to provide a  
20 functional public school system, are related – the State cannot operate its school finance system in  
21 a manner that violates the substantive rights of students.

22 3. Majority of Non-California Authority Suggests Article IX Must Be  
23 Interpreted to Provide Substantive Rights and Enforceable Duties.

24 This Court may look to the decisions of other state courts that have interpreted similar  
25 constitutional provisions because where “words are used which are employed in a certain sense  
26 in the constitutions or statutes of other States . . . it is proper to consider them as employed in  
27 the same sense in our Constitution.” (*County of Sacramento v. Hickman* (1967) 66 Cal.2d 841,  
28 850, italics omitted; see also *Arcadia Unified Sch. Dist. v. State Dept. of Ed.* (1992) 2 Cal.4th

1 251, 261.) In fact, the framers of the Education Article took the language for Article IX, Section  
2 1 directly from a half dozen other constitutions. (See Debates and Proceedings in the  
3 Convention of Cal. On Formation of State Const. (1881) p. 1087 (statement of Mr. Winans).)

4 At least 21 state supreme courts have held that their education articles guarantee students  
5 substantive educational opportunities, and allowed plaintiffs to bring challenges to state funding  
6 policies alleged to violate those substantive rights.<sup>7</sup> Many of those cases interpreted  
7 constitutional provisions with language very similar to that of California's education article. For  
8 example, in *Leandro v. State* (1997) 346 N.C. 336, the North Carolina Supreme Court interpreted  
9 N.C. Const., art. IX, §§ 1, 2: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good  
10 government and the happiness of mankind, schools, libraries, and the means of education shall  
11 forever be encouraged" and "the General Assembly shall provide . . . for a general and uniform  
12 system of free public schools." Based on that language, the court held that "the right to  
13 education provided in the state constitution is a right to a sound basic education, [which]  
14 prepar[es] students to participate and compete in the society . . . ." (*Leandro*, 346 N.C. at p. 345.)

#### 15 B. State Violates Children's Rights to Equal Protection of the Law

16 The State is denying individual student plaintiffs and California schoolchildren equal  
17 protection of the laws in two separate ways. First, education is a fundamental interest and any  
18 child denied equal access to the State's education program and an equal opportunity to become  
19 proficient according to the State's education standards is being denied equal protection of the  
20

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21 <sup>7</sup> **Arizona:** *Roosevelt Elementary Sch. Dist. No. 66 v. Bishop* (Ariz. 1994) 877 P.2d 806; **Arkansas:** *Tucker*  
22 *v. Lake View Sch. Dist. No. 25* (Ark. 1996) 917 S.W.2d 530; **Colorado:** *Lobato v. Colorado* (Colo. 2009) 218 P.3d  
23 358; **Connecticut:** *Connecticut Coalition for Educ. Justice, Inc. v. Rell* (Conn. 2010) 990 A.2d 206; **Idaho:** *Idaho*  
24 *Schs. For Equal Ed. Opportunity* (Idaho 1998) 976 P.2d 913; **Kansas:** *Montoy v. State* (Kan. 2005) 120 P.3d 306;  
25 **Kentucky:** *Rose v. Council for Better Ed.* (Ky. 1989) 790 S.W.2d 186; **Massachusetts:** *McDuffy v. Sect. of the*  
26 *Office of Ed.* (Mass. 1993) 615 N.E.2d 516; **Montana:** *Columbia Falls Elementary Sch. Dist. No. 6 v. State* (Mont.  
27 2005) 109 P.3d 257; **New Hampshire:** *Claremont Sch. Dist. v. Governor* (N.H. 1997) 703 A.2d 1353; **New Jersey:**  
28 *Abbott v. Burke* (N.J. 1990) 575 A.2d 359; **New York:** *Campaign for Fiscal Equity v. State* (N.Y. 2003) 801 N.E. 2d  
326; **North Carolina:** *Leandro v. State* (N.C. 1997) 488 S.E.2d 249; **Ohio:** *DeRolph v. State* (Ohio 1997) 677  
N.E.2d 733; **South Carolina:** *Abbeville County Sch. Dist. v. State* (S.C. 1999) 515 S.E.2d 535; **Texas:** *Edgewood*  
*Indep. Sch. Dist. v. Kirby* (Tex. 1989) 777 S.W.2d 391; **Vermont:** *Brigham v. State* (Vt. 1997) 692 A.2d 384;  
**Wisconsin:** *Vincent v. Voight* (Wis. 2000) 614 N.W.2d 388; **Washington:** *Seattle Sch. Dist. No. 1 v. State* (1978) 90  
Wash.2d 476; **West Virginia:** *Pauley v. Kelly* (W.Va. 1979) 255 S.E.2d 859, 870; **Wyoming:** *Campbell County*  
*Sch. Dist. v. State* (Wyo. 1995) 907 P.2d 1238.

1 law. Second, the State is violating California’s equal protection guarantee by failing to provide  
2 discrete groups of students – economically disadvantaged children, racial minority children, and  
3 English learners – the educational resources they need to have an equal opportunity to learn the  
4 academic material prescribed by the State, thereby failing to provide basic education equality to  
5 such children.

6 Defendants do not argue that the school finance system cannot be challenged on equal  
7 protection grounds. Instead, they assert that Plaintiffs’ factual allegations are insufficient  
8 because the complaint “must allege that defendants were motivated by discriminatory animus;”  
9 because Plaintiffs fail “to identify any disparities relating to the allocation of education resources  
10 between students or between school districts;” and because “there are no allegations that any of  
11 the Student/Plaintiffs have suffered or are about to suffer any ‘real and appreciable impact’ in the  
12 form of any ‘extreme and unprecedented disparity in education services or progress.’” (Dem. at  
13 28-29 (citing *Butt*, 4 Cal. 4th at pp. 686-87).) These assertions misunderstand the complaint and  
14 the law of equal protection.

15 1. Allegations of Discriminatory Animus Are Not Required  
16 Under California State Equal Protection Law.

17 The equal protection clause of the California Constitution protects citizens against the  
18 State’s infringement of fundamental rights, even if the state action does not discriminate against  
19 suspect classes or is not borne out of animus. As emphasized in *Butt*, equal protection applies to  
20 either “State maintained discrimination whenever the disfavored class is suspect *or* [when] the  
21 disparate treatment has a real and appreciable impact on a fundamental right or interest.” (*Butt*,  
22 4 Cal. 4th at pp. 685-86, italics in original.) “[T]he absence of purposeful conduct by the State  
23 [does] not prevent a finding that the State system for funding public education had produced  
24 unconstitutional results.” (*Id.* at p. 682 (citing *Serrano I*, 5 Cal. 3d at pp. 603-04).) As a result  
25 of its misapprehension of the law and the present claims, the State misguidedly attempts to bring  
26 law applicable to intentional discrimination against suspect classes into this case.

27 The State relies heavily on language from *Sanchez v. California* (2009) 179 Cal.App.4th  
28 467, which involved allegations of discrimination against a suspect class. The court in *Sanchez*

1 dismissed the claims for lack of an identified suspect class, and then offered observations about  
2 role of animus in those circumstances. (*Id.* at pp. 488-89.) In contrast, in *Butt*, the Supreme  
3 Court unequivocally rejected similar arguments by the State that equal protection does not apply  
4 where there are no allegations of discrimination against a suspect class, holding that “the absence  
5 of purposeful conduct by the State [does] not prevent a finding that the State system for funding  
6 public education had produced unconstitutional results.” (*Butt*, 4 Cal.4th at p. 682 (citing  
7 *Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at pp. 603-04).) Instead, “denials of basic educational equality on the basis  
8 of district residence are subject to strict scrutiny” without regard to animus or discrimination  
9 against suspect classifications. (*Id.* at p. 692.) Plaintiffs do not need to allege animus to state an  
10 equal protection claim based on the on-going denial of basic educational equality.

11 2. State’s School Finance System Impinges and Has a Real and Appreciable  
12 Impact on Student Plaintiffs’ and California schoolchildren’s Fundamental  
13 Right to an Education.

14 “[B]oth federal and California decisions make clear that heightened scrutiny applies to  
15 State-maintained discrimination whenever . . . the disparate treatment has a real and appreciable  
16 impact on a fundamental right or interest.” (*Butt*, 4 Cal.4th at pp. 685-86.) In the leading cases  
17 on the right to basic educational equality under the California Constitution, the equal protection  
18 claims were grounded in the fundamental right to an education, (*Id.* at p. 692; *Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d  
19 at pp. 604-10; *Hartzell*, 35 Cal. 3d at pp. 906-09; *O’Connell*, 141 Cal App.4th at p. 1467), with  
20 only *Serrano* additionally identifying a suspect classification of persons who were subjected to  
21 disparate treatment. (*Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at pp. 597-604.) Plaintiffs need only plead that  
22 children are deprived of resources sufficient to provide them with the “prevailing statewide  
23 standard” of educational opportunity. (See *Butt*, 4 Cal.4th at pp. 686-87.) In *Butt*, the California  
24 Supreme Court again ruled in favor of plaintiff students on their equal protection claim based  
25 solely on “unjustified discrimination against District students compared to those elsewhere in  
26 California.” (*Id.* at p. 674.) There, the plaintiffs made no allegations of discrimination against a  
27 suspect class. Similarly, in *O’Connell*, the finding of a likelihood of success on the merits of an  
28 equal protection claim rested on evidence of the “disparate effect of . . . scarcity of resources on  
schools serving economically challenged neighborhoods and communities,” and found simply

1 that “students in economically challenged communities have not had an equal opportunity to  
2 learn . . . .” (*O’Connell*, 141 Cal.App.4th at p. 1465.)

3 Here, Plaintiffs sufficiently allege that, due to the State’s dysfunctional and insufficient  
4 school finance system, districts are unable to provide students the resources necessary to ensure  
5 that every student receives her fundamental right to an education and thereby denies or threatens  
6 to deny California’s children equal educational opportunity. The complaint alleges that  
7 California’s children do not have the required preparation or opportunities to meet statewide  
8 proficiency standards, i.e., the prevailing statewide standards, as provided by the Legislature.  
9 (Compl. at ¶¶ 70 – 80, 97, 101, 106 – 131.)

10 3. Economically Disadvantaged, English Learner and Racial Minority  
11 Plaintiffs and California Schoolchildren Are Being Denied Their  
12 Fundamental Right to an Education.

13 The Complaint alleges many examples of how the economically disadvantaged children,  
14 English learners, and racial minorities throughout California are denied their rights to basic  
15 educational equality because their educational opportunities fall “fundamentally below  
16 prevailing statewide standards.” (*Butt*, 4 Cal. 4th at pp. 686-87.) The complaint makes  
17 numerous allegations regarding the failure of the State to provide sufficient funding to ensure  
18 that all children have an opportunity—based on their needs—to become proficient in the  
19 educational standards that the State itself has made the prevailing standard for California’s public  
20 school system. (See Compl. at ¶¶ 106-22). It also alleges specific harm to economically  
21 disadvantaged, English learners, and racial minority students from these shortfalls, much like the  
22 plaintiffs in *O’Connell*. (See *O’Connell*, 141 Cal.App.4th at p. 165; see, e.g., Compl. at ¶¶ 109,  
23 111.)

24 **C. The Constitutional Rights and Obligations Under Articles IX**  
25 **and XVI Are Not Nullified By Proposition 98**

26 Proposition 98 was the 1988 voter response to the gradual drop in California’s per pupil  
27 spending following the adoption of Proposition 13, which dramatically reduced local property  
28 tax revenues and the increased competition for State revenues. (Cal. Const., art. XVI, § 8(b).)  
Proposition 98 establishes a *minimum* amount of monies to be appropriated annually from the

1 General Fund each year for education: “[T]he monies to be applied by the state for the support  
2 of school districts and community college districts *shall be not less than*” the greater of the tests  
3 specified therein. (*Id.*) While Proposition 98 serves as a critical backstop against wholesale cuts  
4 to education, there is no support for the State’s assertion that when voters adopted Proposition 98  
5 they intended to define or limit the State’s constitutional duties under articles IX and XVI.<sup>8</sup>

6 Interpretation of a constitutional initiative amendment must be guided primarily by the  
7 voters’ intent, including a review of “the natural and ordinary meaning of its words.” (*City and*  
8 *County of San Francisco v. County of San Mateo* (1995) 10 Cal.4th 554, 562-63.) Proposition 98  
9 provides that funding from the general fund shall be “not less than” a certain amount each year.  
10 Courts have construed it as requiring a “minimum” level of funding. (*California Teachers’*  
11 *Association v. Hayes* (1992) 5 Cal.App.4th 1513, 1518-19.) Webster’s Dictionary defines  
12 “minimum” to mean “the *least* quantity assignable, admissible, or possible.” (Italics added.) By  
13 its terms, therefore, Proposition 98 only sets out formulas by which a floor for General Fund  
14 appropriations for public schools is set each year. Nor do Defendants suggest otherwise, using  
15 references to “minimum” funding several times in their demurrer. (See, e.g., Dem. at 9:17.)

16 Defendants’ interpretation of Proposition 98 would read critical rights and duties  
17 contained in article IX (and subdivision (a) of article XVI, section 8) out of the Constitution – an  
18 interpretation disfavored by the courts. “In choosing between alternative interpretations of  
19 constitutional provisions we are further constrained by our duty to harmonize various  
20 constitutional provisions in order to avoid the implied repeal of one provision by another.” (*City*  
21 *and County of San Francisco*, 10 Cal.4th at p. 563 (citing *Serrano I*, 5 Cal.3d at p. 596).) There  
22 is such a “strong . . . presumption against implied repeals” in California that courts will  
23 “conclude one constitutional provision impliedly repeals another *only when the more recently*  
24 *enacted of two provisions constitutes a revision of the entire subject* addressed by the

25  
26  
27 <sup>8</sup> While the complaint does not allege a violation of Proposition 98, it does allege that the State has systematically  
28 manipulated and undermined the Proposition 98 variables in ways that have frustrated the purpose of the initiative.  
(Compl. at ¶¶ 102-105.)

1 provisions.” (*Id.* at p. 563, italics added.)

2 Proposition 98 did not purport to “constitute[] a revision of the entire subject addressed  
3 by” article IX. It did not amend article IX and does not refer to article IX.<sup>9</sup> Nor did it use any of  
4 the terminology from article IX. Proposition 98 simply sets a minimum amount to be  
5 appropriated each year from the general fund; it does not suggest that its formulas were designed  
6 to satisfy the State’s substantive obligations under article IX. In fact, courts have specifically  
7 interpreted Proposition 98 to avoid conflict with other constitutional provisions and ensure that the  
8 State fulfills its constitutional duties that flow from other provisions of the Constitution:

9 Another principle of constitutional adjudication requires that the  
10 constitutional provisions added by Proposition 98 be considered in light of  
11 all other relevant provisions of the Constitution, including those that  
12 contain, define, and limit the status of school districts and their  
13 relationship to the state. “The initiative amendment to the [C]onstitution  
14 itself must be interpreted in harmony with the other provisions of the  
15 organic law of this state of which it has become a part.”

16 (*California Teachers Ass’n v. Hayes* (1992) 5 Cal.App.4th 1513, 1532 (citing *Galvin v. Board of*  
17 *Supervisors* (1925) 195 Cal. 686, 692).)

18 Two of the fundamental elements in the relationship between the State and districts are  
19 the responsibility for defining the educational program and providing for the revenues to deliver  
20 that program. Both have changed significantly over the past decades. Proposition 98 pre-dated  
21 California’s adoption of a comprehensive, standards-based education program applicable to all  
22 public schools and students, and the corresponding need to design and enact a finance system to  
23 support that program. In short, Proposition 98 does not relieve the State of its constitutional  
24 obligation to provide all students with the educational program that the State itself promises:

25 Since Proposition 98 did not alter the state’s role in education, the  
26 Constitution continues to make education and the operation of the public  
27 schools a matter of statewide rather than local or municipal concern...*The*  
28 *Legislature still has ultimate and nondelegable responsibility for*

<sup>9</sup> It also does not amend the “first set apart language” in article XVI, section 8(a). While Proposition 98 immediately follows section 8(a), it does not purport to define that language – which it could easily have done. Nor can it be intended that satisfaction of 8(b) automatically satisfies 8(a), as such an interpretation would work an implied repeal of 8(a).



1           *education in this state.*

2           (*Id.* at p. 1533, internal citations omitted, italics added.)

3           The Supreme Court of Colorado recently analyzed the impact of a “minimum funding”  
4 provision similar to Proposition 98. (*Lobato v. State* (2009) 218 P.3d 358.) Plaintiffs in that  
5 case argued that Colorado’s education system violated the Colorado Constitution, which requires  
6 the state to establish and maintain “a thorough and uniform system of free public schools,”  
7 because the system “is underfunded and allocates funds on an irrational and arbitrary basis.” (*Id.*  
8 at pp. 362-63.) The Court rejected the argument that “Amendment 23,” an initiative that  
9 provided for minimum annual increases in funding, satisfied the level of state funding required  
10 by Colorado’s education clause. (*Id.* at p. 375.) The initiative was designed to reverse the  
11 decline in education spending that followed the adoption of limits on state revenues and  
12 spending, but “was not intended to qualify, quantify, or modify the ‘thorough and uniform’  
13 mandate expressed in the education clause.” (*Id.* at p. 376.) The same is true of Proposition 98.

14           **D. Plaintiffs’ Claims are Justiciable and Do Not Violate Separation of**  
15           **Powers Doctrine.**

16           The claims and relief requested by Plaintiffs do not ask the Court to render policy choices  
17 or value determinations in violation of the political question or separation of powers doctrines,  
18 but rather leave discretion to the State as to how it chooses to meet its constitutional obligations.  
19 This Court must exercise its duty - as specifically envisioned by separation of powers - to review  
20 the constitutionality of the education finance system as it currently exists, and enforce the  
21 Constitutional requirements for the system of public schools. (See, e.g., *Katzenburg v. Regents*  
22 *of Univ. of Cal.* (2002) 29 Cal.4th 300, 331 [“The California Constitution is the supreme law of  
23 our state . . . and safeguards individual rights and liberties.”]; *Amwest Surety Ins. Co. v. Wilson*  
24 (1995) 11 Cal.4th 1243, 1252 [the court “must enforce the provisions of our Constitution and  
25 ‘may not lightly disregard or blink at . . . a clear constitutional mandate’”], citations omitted;  
26 *O’Connell*, 141 Cal.App.4th at p. 1475 [“In both *Serrano II* and *Butt*, as well as in *Crawford*, the  
27 injunctive relief issued by the trial courts, and upheld by the Supreme Court, was limited to  
28 directing the legislative and executive branches to find a way to redress the particular

1 constitutional violation identified by the judicial branch, by providing the affected students with  
2 the funding needed to ensure their equal access to educational opportunity.”].) The Court’s  
3 adjudicatory power is proper and is derived from its role as interpreter of the Constitution.

4 1. California’s Separation of Powers Doctrine Does Not  
5 Preclude Court Review or the Relief Sought by Plaintiffs.

6 Defendants’ contention that this Court cannot provide the relief sought in the Complaint  
7 without violating the separation of powers doctrine (Cal. Const., art. III, § 3.) misreads the  
8 complaint. Plaintiffs do not ask the Court to order a specific appropriation or to redesign the  
9 school finance system. A ruling in this matter does not require the Court to become involved in  
10 the minutiae of how an educational funding system should be structured. Rather, Plaintiffs  
11 request that this Court serve its important—and limited—constitutional role of declaring the  
12 State’s educational finance system unconstitutional and ordering the State to develop a new  
13 finance system consistent with its constitutional obligations.<sup>10</sup>

14 The courts have engaged in this very review before. In *Serrano II*, the trial court issued  
15 an order finding that “the [education financing] system before it was violative of our state  
16 constitutional standard” of equal protection, and ordered that the violation be remedied by  
17 bringing the school finance system into constitutional compliance. (*Serrano II*, 18 Cal. 3d at p.  
18 749.) But the court cautioned that its order “was not to be construed to require the adoption of  
19 any particular system of school finance, but only to require that the plan adopted comport with  
20 the requirements of state equal protection provisions.” (*Id.* at p. 750.) Agreeing with the trial  
21 court’s approach, the California Supreme Court upheld the trial court’s order and noted:

22 We decline defendants’ invitation to address ourselves to the constitutional  
23 merits of the various financing alternatives and combinations thereof which  
24 have been developed in the scholarly literature on this subject. Our concern  
25 today is with the system presently before us. We are confident that the

26 <sup>10</sup> In a footnote, the State seems to suggest that this Court should not rule on the constitutionality of the school  
27 finance system because non-finance related reforms may also be needed to “dramatically improve student  
28 achievement.” (Dem. at 19:24-20:28, fn. 9) Regardless of whether the State’s assertion is accurate, the State has  
broad authority to enact education reforms and cannot use its failure to do so as an excuse to operate an  
unconstitutional school finance system.

1 Legislature, aided by what we have said today and the body of scholarship  
2 which has grown up about this subject, will be able to devise a public school  
3 financing system which achieves constitutional conformity from the  
4 standpoint of educational opportunity through an equitable structure of  
5 taxation. (*Id.* at p. 775 n. 54.)<sup>11</sup>

6 Like *Serrano II*, Plaintiffs seek an order from the Court directing the State to reform  
7 California's school finance system such that it passes constitutional scrutiny. Defendants  
8 repeatedly misconstrue the Complaint, declaring it asks this Court to "order the appropriation of  
9 more money for California's schools." (See, e.g., Dem. at 11:4-5.) Defendants further suggest  
10 that the Court is being asked to override "both the Legislature and the People to compel the  
11 allocation of money to California schools and to order the re-design of California's entire  
12 education finance system." (Dem. at 13:1-2.) The prayer for relief contains no such request.  
13 Rather, Plaintiffs seek an injunction ordering the State to comply with its constitutional  
14 obligations by implementing a coherent system of public school finance that supports the  
15 educational program all students are entitled to receive. (See Compl. at 56:17-18.) California  
16 law does not prohibit such a judicially-ordered scheme. Indeed, the Supreme Court already  
17 approved such an injunction in *Serrano II*. Defendants essentially concede this point, making no  
18 attempt to distinguish the facts of *Serrano II* from Plaintiff's allegations.

19 Without California law on their side, Defendants resort cite a non-binding, minority  
20 jurisprudence from other states, spending more than nine pages surveying the only seven cases<sup>12</sup>  
21 in which courts, citing separation of powers, justiciability, and/or political question doctrine

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22 <sup>11</sup>In *Butt*, the trial court issued an order directing the State "to ensure 'by whatever means they deem appropriate' that .  
23 . . . students [in the district] would receive their educational rights," but "made clear that '[h]ow these defendants  
24 accomplish this is up to the discretion of defendants . . .'" (*Butt*, 4 Cal.4th at p. 694.) The California Supreme Court  
25 upheld the trial court's finding that "the State has a constitutional duty . . . to prevent the budgetary problems of a  
26 particular school district from depriving its students of 'basic' educational equality," and that a preliminary injunction  
27 was proper. (*Id.* at p. 674.) However, the Court overturned the portion of the trial court's injunction that provided  
28 financing for the district's operations by diverting funds that the legislature had intended for another purpose. (*Id.* at  
p. 698.) Plaintiffs seek no similar diversion or appropriation of funds in their complaint.

<sup>12</sup> A Florida trial court recently distinguished the ruling in *Coalition for Adequacy and Fairness in Sch.  
Funding, Inc.*, 680 So.2d at p. 400 (cited by the State) as nonbinding and, relying on a recent amendment to the  
Florida Constitution, found a challenge to the Florida school finance system justiciable. (*Citizens for Strong  
Schools, Inc. v. Florida State Bd. of Ed.* (Fla. Cir. Ct. Aug. 20, 2010) Case No. 09-CA-4534.)

1 concerns, declined to address the merits of plaintiffs' challenges to state school finance  
2 schemes.<sup>13</sup> While cautioning that "[t]his court should avoid . . .the 'swamp,' and 'morass' of  
3 constitutional challenges to public school funding systems," (Dem. at 13:10-11.), they ignore the  
4 fact that California courts have already shown their willingness to enforce the State's  
5 constitutional obligations for education (unlike the seven states cited).

6 To the extent the Court looks to other states for guidance on justiciability, the Court will  
7 find that in more than three quarters of the states whose supreme courts have considered a school  
8 finance challenge – 25 states/cases – neither justiciability nor separation of powers concerns  
9 prevented the courts from ruling on the constitutionality of the state's educational finance  
10 system.<sup>14</sup> (See, e.g., *Lake View Sch. Dist. No. 25*, 91 S.W.3d at p. 507 ("This Court's refusal to  
11 review school funding under our state constitution would be a complete abrogation of our judicial  
12

13  
14 <sup>13</sup> Defendants also cite *Ex Parte James* (2002) 836 So.2d 813 to argue that constitutional school finance  
15 claims are non-justiciable, but they fail to mention that the Alabama Supreme Court previously issued opinions  
16 holding that the constitutionality of the state's school finance system was justiciable and that the state had to comply  
with a lower court's ruling that the system was unconstitutional. (*Op. of the Justices*, No. 338 (Ala. 1993) 624 So.2d  
107, 109.) The 2002 ruling did not disturb that liability and separation-of-powers finding; it only vacated the court's  
remedial order.

17 <sup>14</sup> State supreme courts in 25 states/cases have found challenges to state school finance systems justiciable  
18 under state constitutional provisions: *Connecticut Coalition for Educ. Justice, Inc. v. Rell* (Conn. 2010) 990 A.2d  
206 (Connecticut); *Lobato v. Colorado* (Colo. 2009) 218 P.3d 358 (Colorado); *Columbia Falls Elementary Sch.*  
19 *Dist. No. 6 v. State* (Mont. 2005) 109 P.3d 257 (Montana); *Lake View Sch. Dist. v. Huckabee* (2002) 351 Ark. 31  
20 (Arkansas); *Campaign for Fiscal Equity v. State* (N.Y. 2003) 801 N.E.2d 326 (New York); *Vincent v. Voight* (Wis.  
21 2000) 614 N.W.2d 388 (Wisconsin); *Abbeville County Sch. Dist. v. State* (S.C. 1999) 515 S.E.2d 535 (South  
22 Carolina); *Claremont Sch. Dist. v. Governor* (N.H. 1997) 703 A.2d 1353 (New Hampshire); *Leandro v. State*  
23 (N.C. 1997) 488 S.E.2d 249 (North Carolina); *DeRolph v. State* (Ohio 1997) 677 N.E.2d 733 (Ohio); *Brigham v.*  
24 *State* (Vt. 1997) 692 A.2d 384 (Vermont); *Campaign for Fiscal Equity v. State*, (N.Y. 1995) 655 N.E.2d 661 (New  
25 York); *Campbell County Sch. Dist. v. State* (Wyo. 1995) 907 P.2d 1238 (Wyoming); *Roosevelt Elementary Sch.*  
*Dist. No. 66 v. Bishop* (Ariz. 1994) 877 P.2d 806 (Arizona); *Unified Sch. Dist. No. 229 v. State*, (1994) 256 Kan. 232  
(Kansas); *Opinion of the Justices*, (Ala. 1993) 624 So.2d 107, 109 (Alabama); *McDuffy v. Sect. of the Office of Ed.*  
(Mass. 1993) 615 N.E.2d 516 (Massachusetts); *Small Sch. Sys. v. McWherter* (Tenn. 1993) 851 S.W.2d 139  
(Tennessee); *Idaho Sch. For Equal Educ. Opportunity v. Evans* (1993) 123 Idaho 573 (Idaho); *Abbott v. Burke*  
(N.J. 1990) 575 A.2d 359 (New Jersey); *Rose v. Council for Better Ed.* (Ky. 1989) 790 S.W.2d 186 (Kentucky);  
*Edgewood Indep. Sch. Dist. v. Kirby* (Tex. 1989) 777 S.W.2d 391 (Texas); *McDaniel v. Thomas*, (1981) 248 Ga.  
632 (Georgia); *Pauley v. Kelly* (W.Va. 1979) 255 S.E.2d 859, 870 (West Virginia); *Seattle Sch. Dist. No. 1 v. State*  
(1978) 90 Wash.2d 476 (Washington).

26 Lower courts in the following four states have found similar claims justiciable: *Citizens for Strong*  
*Schools, Inc. v. Florida State Bd. of Ed.* (Fla. Cir. Ct. Aug. 20, 2010) Case No. 09-CA-4534 (Florida); *Kasayulie v.*  
27 *State* (Sept. 1, 1999) 3AN-97-3782 CIV (Alaska); *Zuni Sch. Dist. v. State* (McKinley County Dist. Ct. Oct. 14,  
1999) No. CV-98-14-11 (challenging adequacy of facilities funding) (New Mexico); *Bradford v. Maryland St. Bd.*  
28 *of Ed.* (Cir. Ct. for Balt. City, Md. 1996) Case Nos. 94349958/CE189672 and 9258055/CL202151 (Maryland).

1 responsibility and would work a severe disservice to the people of this state. We refuse to close  
2 our eyes or turn a deaf ear to claims of a dereliction of duty in the field of education.”.)

3 2. Judicial Review of Plaintiffs’ Claims Does Not Violate the  
4 Political Question Doctrine and Can be Based on Judicially  
5 Manageable Standards.

6 The “constitutionality of an act is inherently a judicial rather than [a] political question  
7 and neither the Legislature, the executive, nor both acting in concert can validate an  
8 unconstitutional act or deprive the courts of jurisdiction to decide questions of constitutionality.”  
9 (*Schabarum v. Cal. Legislature* (1998) 60 Cal.App.4th 1205, 1215.) The political question  
10 doctrine—which flows from separation of powers principles—does not encroach on the role of  
11 the judiciary as the ultimate interpreter of the Constitution nor its power to compel the legislature  
12 and executive branches to act in accordance with such interpretations, but rather carves out only  
13 policy choices and value determinations for discretion of the legislature and executive. (*Id.* at  
14 pp. 1213-14.) The doctrine can be employed to prevent a court from deciding a controversy on  
15 its merits only when “complete deference to the role of the legislative or executive branch is  
16 required and there is nothing upon which a court can adjudicate . . . .” (*Id.* at p. 1214.) Such  
17 deference is not required here. Plaintiffs only request the Court to determine the constitutionality  
18 of the State’s education finance system, not to make policy determinations or value judgments  
19 about the content of that education. The relief sought by Plaintiffs would allow the State to  
20 retain its authority to make those policy determinations.

21 Defendants broadly contend that “there is [sic] also a ‘lack of satisfactory criteria for a  
22 judicial determination of’ whether California’s school financing system is ‘intentionally,  
23 rationally, and demonstrably aligned’ with California’s educational goals.” (Dem. at p. 13 (citing  
24 *Baker v. Carr* (1962) 369 U.S. 186.) Plaintiffs do not ask this Court to determine the elements of  
25 the constitutionally required educational program or the precise design of a constitutional finance  
26 system. They acknowledge the State has established a comprehensive program designed to  
27 provide the level of educational quality and content necessary to produce informed and engaged  
28 citizens as required by article IX. (Compl. at ¶¶ 61-68.) It has made the policy decision that the  
statewide academic standards define the “knowledge and skills that pupils will need in order to

1 succeed in the information-based, global economy of the 21st century” and represent “the  
2 specific academic knowledge, skills, and abilities that all public schools in this state are expected  
3 to teach and all pupils expected to learn in each of the core curriculum areas, at each grade level  
4 tested. (Ed. Code §§ 60602, 60603.)

5 The Court may use these legislatively determined standards as guidelines for determining  
6 whether or not the State has kept up and supported a system of common schools that gives all  
7 California children an equal opportunity to become proficient according to the State’s standards  
8 and to participate fully in the civic and economic life of our State as is required by article IX.  
9 The recent *Lobato* decision in Colorado is instructive. (*Lobato*, 218 P.3d at p. 358.) Plaintiffs  
10 (school districts and children from those school districts) alleged that the Colorado school  
11 finance system violated the Education Clause of the State Constitution because it was  
12 underfunded and allocated funds on an irrational and arbitrary basis, preventing school districts  
13 from satisfying the “content standards and performance objectives in [state] education reform  
14 legislation” and particularly harming children with disabilities, economically disadvantaged  
15 children, and English learners. (*Id.* at pp. 363-64.) The State of Colorado argued that the  
16 plaintiffs’ claims ran afoul of the political question doctrine and were non-justiciable in part  
17 because there were no “judicially manageable standards.” (*Id.* at pp. 368-75.) The Colorado  
18 Supreme Court rejected the state’s arguments and found that the court could look to the state’s  
19 educational content standards for guidance as to the qualitative standard of education that the  
20 constitution required. (*Id.* [“the General Assembly has enacted additional education reform  
21 statutes with proficiency targets and content standards, which . . . may also be used to help evaluate  
22 the constitutionality of the legislature’s actions”].) The court further held that a “ruling that the  
23 plaintiffs’ claims are nonjusticiable would give the legislative branch unchecked power, potentially  
24 allowing it to ignore its constitutional responsibility to fashion and to fund a “thorough and  
25 uniform” system of public education.” (*Id.* at p. 372.)

26 Other courts have similarly respected the legislature’s competence and policymaking  
27 authority by deferring to their legislatures’ standards of quality education, which delineated the  
28 specific skills that students must acquire to fulfill the education objectives outlined in those

1 states' respective education provisions. By doing so, those courts have avoided protracted  
2 litigation and judicial oversight because they are able to rely on data provided by statewide  
3 assessments aligned to those standards to determine whether their legislatures fulfill their  
4 constitutional obligations. California's academic standards and the assessment and  
5 accountability systems aligned to those standards are similar to those relied on by the Supreme  
6 Courts in Colorado, Idaho, North Carolina, and Kansas when those courts identified judicially  
7 manageable standards.<sup>15</sup> As in those cases, this Court can similarly look to the California  
8 Legislature's content standards in order to determine whether the school finance system is  
9 providing the quality of education required to satisfy the education article.

10 **E. Defendants' Joinder and Standing Arguments Should be Rejected.**

11 1. State of California and Governor Are Appropriate Parties.

12 The State argues that the case must be dismissed because no specific officer is named  
13 other than the Governor. (Dem. at p. 23.) The State appears to argue that because no one  
14 official is responsible for the totality of the State's education funding scheme, that scheme  
15 cannot be subject to constitutional challenge. This argument must be rejected.

16 The ultimate obligation to provide students with their right to an education, and to protect  
17 that right, belongs to the State. (See, e.g., *Serrano*, 18 Cal.3d at p. 755; *Piper*, 193 Cal. at p.  
18 669.) Although specific state officials may manage various aspects of the day-to-day operations,  
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21 <sup>15</sup> See e.g., *Lobato*, 218 P.3d 358, n.17; *Idaho Schs. for Equal Educational Opportunity v. Evans* (1993) 123 Idaho  
22 573, 584 ("We believe that our acknowledgement of these [legislatively-mandated academic] standards  
23 appropriately involves the other branches of government while allowing the judiciary to hold fast to its independent  
24 duty of interpreting the constitution when and as required."); *Unified Sch. Dist. No. 229 v. State*, 256 (1994) Kan.  
25 232, 257 ["By utilizing as a base the standards enunciated by the legislature, the court will fulfill its obligations of  
26 interpreting the Constitution and of safeguarding the basic rights reserved thereby to the people."]; *Leandro v. State*  
27 (1997) 346 N.C. 336, 355 [relying on "educational goals and standards adopted by the legislature" allows court to  
28 fulfill its "duty to determine meaning of requirements of state constitution."].)

Those courts maintained their roles as interpreters by not "constitutionalizing" and adopting those  
legislatively-created standards as *the* constitutional minimum. Rather, the courts made clear they could find those  
standards unsatisfactory in the future should the legislatures dilute requirements to ensure easy compliance. Were  
the State to dilute content standards to the point that they would not ensure that all children had an opportunity to  
participate meaningfully in the economy and civic life of California, the standards would no longer be an  
appropriate constitutional reference point.

1 the State bears the ultimate responsibility of protecting children’s constitutional rights because  
2 the State of California’s education obligation is plenary and non-delegable. (See *Butt*, 4 Cal.4th  
3 at pp. 674, 681, 692.) *Butt v. State of California* demonstrates that it is typical to name the State  
4 as a defendant in education cases (4 Cal.4th 668.)

5 The Governor is also appropriately named as a defendant. While no one officer is  
6 responsible for all aspects of education in California, the Governor is vested with the “supreme  
7 executive power of the State” and responsibility for ensuring that “the law is faithfully  
8 executed.” (Cal. Const., art. V, § 1; *White v. Davis, as Governor, et al.* (2003) 30 Cal.4th 528.)  
9 Plaintiffs do not seek an order directing the Governor to sign specific legislation.

10 The State suggests – without support – that the Legislature is an indispensable party.  
11 (Dem. at p. 23.) This argument was expressly rejected in *Serrano II*, 18 Cal.3d at pp. 751-54.  
12 And, while there may be state officers with specific education responsibilities who may also be  
13 *proper* parties to this litigation, they are not *indispensable* parties whose absence would provide  
14 grounds for dismissal of the action. (*Id.* at pp. 752-53 [discussing difference between proper  
15 parties and indispensable parties].) The State’s argument should be rejected for the same reason it  
16 was rejected in *Serrano II*: the named parties (*i.e.*, the Governor and State of California) can  
17 effectively defend this case in a manner that benefits all potentially proper parties and adequately  
18 protects the interests of the State. (*Id.* at p. 753; see also Cal. Code of Civ. Proc. §§ 382, 389(a);  
19 *Countrywide Home Loans v. Super. Ct.* (1999) 69 Cal.App.4th 785, 795-98; *Bank of Cal. Nat.*  
20 *Ass’n v. Super. Ct.* (1940) 16 Cal.2d 516, 521 [court should be careful “to avoid converting a  
21 discretionary power or a rule of fairness in procedure into an arbitrary and burdensome  
22 requirement which may thwart rather than accomplish justice”].)

23 2. Plaintiffs Have Standing to Challenge the State’s Failure to  
24 Provide a Constitutionally Sufficient Finance System.

25 In California, a plaintiff need only be “beneficially interested in the controversy.” (*Holmes*  
26 *v. Cal. Nat. Guard* (2001) 90 Cal.App.4th 297.) A beneficial interest is “some special interest to  
27 be served or some particular right to be preserved or protected over and above the interest held in  
28 common with the public at large’ . . . [an] interest that is concrete and actual, and not conjectural or



1 hypothetical.” (*Holmes*, 90 Cal.App.4th at pp. 314-15 (citing *Carsten v. Psychology Examining*  
2 *Com.* (1980) 27 Cal.3d 793, 796).) All plaintiff here possesses such a “special interest.”

3 In addition, each Plaintiff would be entitled to bring this action as a “citizen suit” – an  
4 *exception* to the requirement of beneficial interest that applies “where the question is one of public  
5 right and the object of the action is to enforce a public duty.” (*Waste Management of Alameda*  
6 *County, Inc. v. County of Alameda* (2000) 79 Cal. App. 4th 1223, 1233 [beneficial interest and  
7 citizen interest with respect to public duty separate bases for establishing standing].) “Citizen suits  
8 promote the policy of guaranteeing citizens the opportunity to ensure that governmental bodies do  
9 not impair or defeat public rights.” (*Connerly v. State Personnel Bd.* (2001) 92 Cal.App.4th 16,  
10 17.) Where the object of the case is enforcement of a public right, plaintiff need not show any  
11 special interest in the result, “since it is sufficient he is interested as a citizen in having the laws  
12 executed and the duty in question enforced.” (*Driving School Assn of California v. San Mateo*  
13 *Union High School Dist.* (1992) 11 Cal.App.4th 1513, 1518.)

14 As the Supreme Court has held, “[t]he purpose of a standing requirement is to ensure that  
15 the courts will decide only actual controversies between parties with a sufficient interest in the  
16 subject matter of the dispute to press their case with vigor.” (*Common Cause v. Bd. of Supervisors*  
17 (1989) 49 Cal.3d 432, 439; see also *California Water & Telephone Co. v. County of Los Angeles*  
18 (1967) 253 Cal.App.2d 16, 26 [doubts about justiciability should be resolved in favor of  
19 adjudication where public has interest in resolution of legal issue].) Those concerns are met here.<sup>16</sup>

20 a. Individual Students.

21 The Complaint alleges that each student plaintiff is, or is about to be, a student in the  
22 California public school system. (Compl. at ¶ 10.) It makes clear that each of these students,  
23 and other students in plaintiff districts, is suffering actual or threatened injury as a result of  
24 defendants’ implementation of its dysfunctional school finance system. (See, e.g., Compl. at ¶  
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26  
27 <sup>16</sup> To the extent the Court prefers more specific allegations to cure defects related to allegations of harm or standing,  
28 plaintiffs request leave to amend. Plaintiffs note such amendments could have been cured by prior amendment had  
the defendants met and conferred with plaintiffs about the specific nature of their grounds for demurrer.

1 118-31, 154 [detailing the resources and services children are being denied due to the irrational  
2 and insufficient finance system].) It further alleges that “California students are directly harmed  
3 by the State’s failure to meet its constitutional obligation to support its system of public schools.”  
4 (Compl. at ¶¶ 107-22.) “A complaining party’s demonstration that the subject of a particular  
5 challenge has the effect of infringing some constitutional or statutory right may qualify as a  
6 legitimate claim of beneficial interest sufficient to confer standing on that party.” (*Holmes*, 90  
7 Cal.App.4th at p. 315 (citing *Associated Builders & Contractors, Inc. v. San Francisco Airports*  
8 *Com.* (1999) 21 Cal.4th 352, 361-363).)

9 These allegations are sufficient to demonstrate that the State’s actions may result in  
10 “actual or threatened injury” to the student plaintiffs and that they have a beneficial interest in  
11 the litigation. (See *Trustees of Capital Wholesale Electric Etc. Fund v. Shearson Lehman Bros.*  
12 (1990) 221 Cal.App.3d 617, 621; *Poseidon Development, Inc. v. Woodland Lane Estates, LLC*  
13 (2007) 152 Cal.App.4th 1106, 1111 [on demurrer, complaint must be liberally construed and  
14 given reasonable interpretation, with a view to substantial justice between the parties].)

15 *In re Tania S.* (1992) 5 Cal.App.4th 728, cited by the State, is distinguishable. In that  
16 case, a father whose children were removed based on the threat of endangerment asserted that the  
17 Welfare & Institutions Code improperly created two classes of parents – those who injure their  
18 children out of a religious belief and those who injure their children for nonreligious reasons,  
19 although he did not claim that any religious beliefs were implicated in his case. The court denied  
20 standing to challenge the statute, concluding that the father did not have the necessary “personal  
21 stake” in the outcome of the controversy over the treatment of religious endangerment issues.  
22 Here, in contrast, student plaintiffs are intimately affected by the State’s educational system and  
23 any constitutional defects in that system that affect the State’s delivery of the education program.  
24 They therefore have the requisite personal stake in the resolution of the controversy.  
25 Additionally, student plaintiffs also have standing to bring a citizen suit as they unquestionably  
26 have an interest in having the State constitutional obligations to provide and support the  
27 educational system enforced. (See *Connerly*, 92 Cal. App.4th at p. 30.)

28 b. School District and Association Plaintiffs.

1           The State asserts that neither the districts nor associations have standing, relying on *Elk*  
2 *Grove Unified School Dist. v. Newdow* (2004) 542 U.S. 1. *Newdow* was based on federal “Article  
3 III” concerns, which are not present in the California Constitution, and on federal law governing  
4 standing, much of which “digress[es] from established California law.” (*Environmental*  
5 *Information Protection Ctr. v. California Dep’t of Forestry and Fire Prot.* (1996) 43 Cal.App.4th  
6 1011, 1016-20; see *Stocks v. City of Irvine* (1981) 114 Cal.App.3d 520, 528-37.) The State also  
7 asserts that districts “lack standing to object to the amount of education funding that is allocated to  
8 their individual school districts,” citing *Hayes v. Commission on State Mandates* (1992) 11  
9 Cal.App.4th 1564. But the cited discussion in *Hayes* is inapt because it did not involve a challenge  
10 to school district standing and Plaintiffs are not requesting a specific amount of funding for any  
11 district. Rather, they ask the court to review the State’s compliance with its constitutional duties.

12           Moreover, the State’s assertion that school districts do not have standing to maintain a legal  
13 action against the State is belied by the numerous cases in which districts have challenged state  
14 action. For example, in *San Carlos Sch. Dist. v. State Bd. of Education* (1968) 258 Cal.App.2d  
15 317, 323, the Court acknowledged that “the legislative power over the creation, alteration and  
16 abolition of school districts is plenary,” but cautioned that it must be exercised subject to  
17 constitutional limitations and that “school districts have standing to challenge the constitutionality  
18 of acts . . . vitally affecting them.” (*Id.* at p. 322.) “Where, as here, district trustees believe that  
19 legislation affecting the administration of the district is unconstitutional or is being enforced in an  
20 unconstitutional manner, they have a right to resist.” (*Id.* at p. 323)<sup>17</sup>

21           Applying a similar analysis, courts have held that a local governmental entity has standing  
22 to challenge the constitutionality of a law when the entity is threatened with injury or obligation by  
23 the allegedly unconstitutional operation of the law. (*County of San Diego v. San Diego NORML*  
24 (2008) 165 Cal.App.4th 798, 816.) Standing has also been allowed for a political subdivision to  
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26           <sup>17</sup> The court’s analysis also identified multiple cases in which constitutional claims asserted by school  
27 districts were litigated on the merits and concluded that these precedents “necessarily imply a finding that the school  
28 district has sufficient standing to raise constitutional questions even against the state.” (*Id.* at 323.)

1 challenge the constitutionality of a statute or regulation on behalf of its constituents “where the  
2 constituents’ rights under the challenged provision are ‘inextricably bound up with’ the  
3 subdivision’s duties under its enabling statutes.” (*Central Delta Water Agency v. State Water*  
4 *Resources Control Bd.* (1993) 17 Cal.App.4th 621, 629-30.)

5 Districts have distinct obligations and are suffering real and concrete harm as the result of  
6 the State’s creation and maintenance of a funding system that is disconnected from the both  
7 programmatic and student needs; they are “vital[ly] affect[ed]” by the State’s school funding system,  
8 and the rights of their students to an education that meets constitutional standards are “inextricably  
9 bound up” with their own duties under the law. The complaint alleges that the State’s  
10 dysfunctional educational finance system prevents schools and school districts from ensuring that  
11 every student is provided with an equal opportunity to progress from grade to grade and to access  
12 and master the State’s prescribed education program. (Compl. at ¶ 5, 107-22.) The complaint also  
13 alleges that school districts are held accountable to and may be sanctioned by the State for the  
14 failure of children to master the State’s program. (*Id.* at ¶¶ 64-67.) These allegations sufficiently  
15 identify a beneficial interest.

16 The three plaintiff associations – California School Boards Association (“CSBA”),  
17 Association of California School Administrators (“ACSA”) and the California Congress of Parents  
18 Teachers and Students (“CA PTA”) – have standing as well. An association has standing to bring  
19 suit on behalf of its members when: (a) its members would otherwise have standing to sue in their  
20 own right; (b) the interests it seeks to protect are germane to the organization’s purpose; and (c)  
21 neither the claim asserted nor the relief requested requires the participation of individual members  
22 in the lawsuit.” (*Apartment Ass’n of Los Angeles County, Inc. v. City of Los Angeles* (2006) 136  
23 Cal.App.4th 119, 129, internal citations omitted.) The complaint alleges these facts with respect to  
24 each organizational plaintiff; the State does not challenge these allegations. (Compl. at ¶¶ 49-51.)  
25 As organizations intensely involved with education in California, CSBA, ACSA and CA PTA each  
26 have a beneficial interest in the constitutionality of the current education funding system, as do the  
27 members of each organization in their own right.

28 CSBA is comprised of the governing boards of nearly 1,000 school districts and county

1 boards of education in California. These governing board members are responsible under state law  
2 for administering the State's education program on a local level. (Ed. Code §§ 35010; 35160 et  
3 seq.) ACSA is comprised of school district superintendents and other administrative officials (e.g.,  
4 principals and assistant principals). Administrators are tasked with overseeing the operation of all  
5 or part of a school or school district. Board members and administrators have a personal stake in  
6 the controversy both as citizens and public officials. CA PTA is made up of local PTA groups  
7 comprised of parents, teachers and students who are active in the education programs in their own  
8 communities. The students and their parents obviously have a direct interest in the education  
9 program provided, and teachers have a "special interest" beyond that of the general public as well.  
10 All three organizations focus on issues that have statewide consequences for public education.  
11 (Compl. at ¶¶ 49-51.)<sup>18</sup> The school finance system clearly is an issue of statewide consequence,  
12 thus the lawsuit clearly seeks to protect interests that are germane to each organization's purpose.

13 Finally, the districts, the associations (non-profit corporations), and their individual  
14 members would also be entitled to pursue a citizen suit to adjudicate the constitutionality of the  
15 State's education funding system. In *Waste Management*, 79 Cal.App.4th at pp. 750-51, the court  
16 concluded that whether a "nonhuman entity" should be allowed to pursue a citizen suit depends on  
17 the specific factual circumstances, including the entity's level of commitment or interest in the  
18 subject matter; whether the entity represents individuals who would have a beneficial interest;  
19 whether members would find it difficult or impossible to seek vindication of right individually; and  
20 whether prosecution of the suit as a citizen's suit would conflict with other public policies. (*Id.*)  
21 Those factors support standing for both the districts and education associations.<sup>19</sup>

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22  
23 <sup>18</sup> In *Environmental Protection Information Center*, 43 Cal.App.4th at p. 1019, the court referenced prior litigation  
24 conducted by the parties as evidence of their level of interest. CSBA and ACSA have been parties in numerous  
25 court cases, including *CSBA v. State* (2009) 171 Cal.App.4th 1183; *CSBA v. California State Bd. of Education*  
26 (2010) 2020 WL 1692760 (unpublished, includes ACSA); *CSBA v. State Bd. of Education* (2010) 186 Cal.App.4th  
1298 (includes ACSA.) The organizations have also filed *amicus* briefs in more than a dozen appellate cases. CA  
PTA was a party to *Dawson v. East Side Union High School Dist.* (1994) 28 Cal.App.4th 998, 1014, and filed an  
*amicus* brief in *California Teachers Assn. v. Hayes* (1992) 5 Cal.App.4th 1513.

27 <sup>19</sup> Plaintiffs also note that where at least one plaintiff has standing, the federal courts have allowed multiple plaintiffs  
28 to proceed without separately establishing standing. (See, e.g., *Massachusetts v. EPA* (2007) 549 U.S. 497, 518  
[citing to *Rumsfeld v. Forum for Academic and Institutional Rights, Inc.* (2006) 547 U.S. 47, 52, n. 2].)

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**F. There are No Administrative Remedies to be Exhausted Because the Complaint Does Not Seek Reimbursement for Specific Mandates.**

The State’s argument that Plaintiffs have failed to exhaust their administrative remedies before the Commission on State Mandates misconstrues the nature of Plaintiffs’ requested relief. Plaintiffs do not seek reimbursement for specific programs or services – they seek an order from this Court declaring that the current system fails to meet constitutional standards and directing the Legislature to develop a new system that meets those standards. (Compl. at ¶¶ 54-57.)

The requirement for exhaustion of administrative remedies applies only if the administrative agency has jurisdiction over the dispute and authority to grant an adequate remedy. (*County of Contra Costa v. State* (1986) 177 Cal.App.3d 62, 66-67.) The Commission on State Mandates lacks jurisdiction over Plaintiffs’ claims because its jurisdiction is limited to determination whether a particular program or service constitutes a mandate under article XIII B, section 6 and, if so, the cost of the mandate. (Govt. Code, § 17500 et seq.; *Kinlaw v. State* (1991) 54 Cal.3d 326, 331-32.) Plaintiffs seek no such determination in this case. Nor could the Commission award Plaintiffs adequate relief, as it has neither jurisdiction over the State’s education finance system nor the legal authority to enter the declaratory relief or injunctive relief sought by Plaintiffs. (See Cal. Const., article III, § 3.5 [administrative agencies have no authority to declare state law unconstitutional].)

1  
2 **V. CONCLUSION**

3 For the reasons stated above, plaintiffs respectfully request the Court deny defendants'  
4 Demurrer as to all causes of action.

5  
6 DATED: October 8, 2010

7  
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