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9 UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
10 FOR THE SOUTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

11 MICHELLE NGUYEN, et al,

12 Plaintiffs,

13 vs.

14 ROB BONTA, Attorney General of
15 California, et al,

16 Defendants.
17
18
19

Case No. 3:20-cv-02470-WQH-MDD

PLAINTIFFS' SUPPLEMENTAL
BRIEF IN SUPPORT OF
PLAINTIFFS' MOTION FOR
SUMMARY JUDGMENT

Judge: Hon. William Q. Hayes
Courtroom: 14B

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I. Introduction

Plaintiffs continue their challenge to California’s laws prohibiting ordinary law-abiding citizens from purchasing more than one handgun, semiautomatic centerfire rifle, or any combination thereof, within any 30-day period, while arbitrarily carving out special exemption classifications for people in certain favored industries. Cal. Pen. Code § 27535(a)-(b) (colloquially, “one-gun-per-month” or “OGM” law).¹ Now, after the Supreme Court’s decision in *New York State Rifle & Pistol Ass’n v. Bruen*, 142 S. Ct. 2111 (2022) (“*Bruen*”), courts are bound to travel along a historically rooted path in adjudicating Second Amendment claims like this. Plaintiffs have been forging this path from the start, as best they could while navigating the now-abrogated but then-controlling “two-step” interest balancing test of the Ninth Circuit. Envisioning what the constitutional framework *should be* and how the claim *should be* resolved under the clear directives of *Heller*, Plaintiffs argued in their summary judgment motion:

As the pronouncements in *Heller* make clear, the true test for the constitutionality of restrictions on the Second Amendment right involves a simple, single inquiry: Is the prohibited conduct protected under the scope of the Second Amendment as defined and understood ‘when the people adopted’ it? *Heller*, 554 U.S. at 634-35. If so, then the prohibition is unconstitutional—period. *Id.* That inquiry would end the analysis here and quickly dismantle the OGM law at issue, given the clear historical record securing the right of law-abiding people like Plaintiffs to purchase multiple firearms without any restriction on the number or frequency of such acquisitions.

Pltf. Mtn. for Summary Judgment (“PMSJ”) at 9.

That’s pretty much it in a nutshell. This supplemental brief will walk through the steps of the path that *Bruen* requires and show why the outcome that Plaintiffs’ complaint has foretold from the beginning is now inevitable: the proper inquiry based on the relevant historical record indeed dismantles California’s OGM law.

¹ And the clamping down on these rights continues: under recent Assembly Bill No. 1621, the OGM law will extend the same purchase prohibitions to all arms falling within an expanded definition of “firearm,” so as to include “completed frames or receivers” and all other “firearm precursor parts,” effective January 1, 2024.

II. Background

A review of the parties’ competing arguments in the pre-*Bruen* world helps illustrate where everything currently stands, what remains in dispute, and how those disputes should be resolved under the *Bruen* framework in deciding whether “there is no genuine dispute as to any material fact and [Plaintiffs are] entitled to judgment as a matter of law.” *Anderson v. Liberty Lobby, Inc.*, 477 U.S. 242, 248 (1986).

There was never any dispute that the OGM law targets conduct and arms protected under the Second Amendment. *See* Reply to Resp. to SOMF in Support of PMSJ (Dkt No. 37-1) (“Reply-SOMF”) ¶ 9. Handguns and semiautomatic centerfire rifles are indisputably protected because they are in common use for lawful purposes and are not “dangerous and unusual.” *Caetano v. Massachusetts*, 577 U.S. 411, 417 (2016) (Alito, J., concurring); *District of Columbia v. Heller*, 554 U.S. 570, 625 (2008); *id.* at 628-29 (the handgun is “the quintessential self-defense weapon” “overwhelmingly chosen by American society” for lawful self-defense); *Staples v. United States*, 511 U.S. 600, 603 (1994) (“[t]he AR-15 is the civilian version of the military’s M-16 rifle, and is, unless modified, a semiautomatic weapon”).

While Defendants pressed a narrow conception of the right, claiming it was “limited to a home-bound right of self-defense,” Def. Opp. to PMSJ at 2—which *Bruen* squarely rejected, 142 S.Ct. at 2134—they did not and could not dispute that the OGM law also targets firearms *acquisition* activity protected under the Second Amendment. “[T]he Second Amendment protects ancillary rights necessary to the realization of the core right to possess a firearm for self-defense.” *Teixeira v. Cty. of Alameda*, 873 F.3d 670, 677-78 (9th Cir. 2017). And the “core Second Amendment right to keep and bear arms for self-defense ‘wouldn’t mean much’ without the ability to acquire arms.” *Id.* at 677 (quoting *Ezell v. City of Chicago*, 651 F.3d 684, 704 (9th Cir. 2011)); *id.* 678 (quoting *Andrews v. State*, 50 Tenn. 165, 178 (1871) (“[t]he right to keep arms, necessarily involves *the right to purchase them*, to keep them in a state of efficiency

1 for use, and to purchase and provide ammunition suitable for such arms, and to keep
2 them in repair”); *accord Renna v. Becerra*, 535 F.Supp.3d 931, 940 (S.D. Cal. 2021).

3 Significantly too, Plaintiffs introduced voluminous materials and an expert
4 declaration concerning the history of firearms regulations, contending that “[t]he
5 undisputed evidence shows the absence of any historical precedent for OGM laws
6 during the founding era and throughout American history until 1975,” Pltf. Opp. to
7 Def. MSJ at 4, and that this sealed the fate of the law as unconstitutional under *Heller’s*
8 “true test,” PMSJ at 9. Defendants never disputed this evidence or what it established.
9 Instead, they basically *conceded* that Plaintiffs were correct about the infancy of OGM
10 laws in the history of this Nation but shrugged it off as immaterial under their view of
11 the controlling legal standards. *See* Def. MSJ Reply Brf. at 2 (“Plaintiffs appear to
12 argue that strict scrutiny is appropriate because purchasing multiple firearms within a
13 thirty-day period was lawful at the ‘time of founding’ and the first OGM law was not
14 enacted until 1975. *See* Pltfs’ Opp’n at 4-5. But strict scrutiny does not apply just
15 because an OGM law may not have existed at the ‘time of founding.’”).

16 Defendants’ strategy was to argue that the OGM law passed constitutional
17 muster *notwithstanding* the foregoing facts because the California legislature had made
18 a policy judgment that OGM laws “make it *harder* for criminals” to obtain multiple
19 firearm within “a short period of time,” “*can* help reduce the use of firearms in crimes,”
20 and thus “make[] people safer,” Def. MSJ at 16 (*italics added*), and the Court must
21 defer to that judgment so long as the evidence “‘fairly support[s]’” it, Def. MSJ Reply
22 at 3 (quoting *Pena v. Lindley*, 898 F.3d 969, 982 (9th Cir. 2018)). The only “evidence”
23 Defendants proffered in support of their strategy here were various studies and a couple
24 of expert reports concerning the supposed efficacy of the OGM laws in the small
25 handful of states on the east coast that have enacted them—again, no earlier than 1975.

26 Plaintiffs contended that Defendants’ legal standards were way off because the
27 only truly relevant evidence was the historical record showing the absence of any
28 precedent for such restraints on firearm rights throughout relevant American history

1 and thus neither the existence nor the purported efficacy of distinctly *modern* OGM
 2 laws mattered at all. Pltf. Opp. to Def. MSJ at 4-5. Moreover, Plaintiffs argued, even
 3 assuming these laws mattered, they didn’t support the facts that Defendants sought to
 4 establish because Defendants had failed to show the other OGM laws were materially
 5 similar to California’s OGM law—in their prohibitions, their exceptions, or the general
 6 firearm regulatory schemes of which they are part—and, even so, the studies and expert
 7 reports did not reliably show these laws were effective in achieving the legislative
 8 policies that California claims to be pursuing here. Pltf. Opp. to Def. MSJ at 12-24.

9 This was of no moment to Defendants, who claimed that any such disputes or
 10 doubts about the credibility or value of this evidence must be resolved in their favor
 11 because “[i]t is the legislature’s job, not [the courts’], to weigh [that] evidence and
 12 make policy judgments,” Def. Opp. to PMSJ at 5 (quoting *Kachalsky v. Cnty. Of*
 13 *Westchester*, 701 F.3d 81, 99 (2d Cir. 2012)), given the paramount need to “accord
 14 substantial deference to the predictive judgments of the [legislature],” *id.* at 5 (quoting
 15 *Turner Broad. Sys., Inc. v. FCC*, 520 U.S. 180, 195 (1997)); Def. MSJ Reply at 6-7
 16 (sweeping aside any concerns about the validity of this evidence as simply amounting
 17 to “conflicting evidence” on matters that the legislature is entitled to decide).

18 Plaintiff argued that even if this evidence did show that California’s OGM law
 19 advances its “plain vanilla public safety purposes,” the State’s claimed interests were
 20 “far too generic and far too broad to pass constitutional muster even under the most
 21 lenient of the potentially applicable standards of ‘intermediate’ scrutiny.” PMSJ Reply
 22 at 6. This was particularly true given the undisputed fact that the State actively enforces
 23 a vast network of statutes, regulations, policies, and law enforcement mechanisms
 24 designed to target the same claimed interests behind the OGM law. Reply-SOMF ¶¶
 25 32-35. Indeed, the record showed that any risks associated with multiple-firearm
 26 purchases exist only in relation to multiple purchases made on the same day or within
 27 no more than five days—which the ATF already actively monitors—and there is no
 28 evidence that a period greater than five days but less than 30 days would not be just as

1 effective. PMSJ, Ex. 14 at 190. Defendants even admitted there was no evidence “to
 2 show that a five-day or a seven-day or a ten-day is not alone as effective as a 30-day”
 3 limitation in meeting the claimed goals of the OGM law. Reply-SOMF ¶ 69.

4 Yet, to Defendants, all this made no difference because “[i]ntermediate scrutiny
 5 does not require such precision.” Def. Opp. to PMSJ 7. In fact, Defendants claimed,
 6 these numerous overlapping regulations were “*irrelevant*” because the government
 7 ““must be allowed a reasonable opportunity to experiment with solutions to admittedly
 8 serious problems.”” *Id.* at 6 (quoting *City of Renton v. Playtime Theatres, Inc.*, 475 U.S.
 9 41, 52 (1986)). They argued that *Plaintiffs* had to prove the rest of the scheme was “just
 10 as effective as OGM laws in reducing illegal firearms trafficking,” to carry *their burden*
 11 of demonstrating that the law was *not* constitutional. *Id.* at 7.

12 So, as things stood in their prior briefing, *Plaintiffs* were arguing that it was
 13 Defendants’ burden to prove the constitutionality of the OGM law based on the
 14 meaning of the right to keep and bear arms during the Founding Era, and Defendants
 15 were arguing that they need only point to evidence of the purported efficacy of modern
 16 day OGM laws and, if that evidence “fairly” supports the legislative goals, *Plaintiffs*
 17 must show those goals could be achieved just as effectively without the law.

18 **III. *Bruen***

19 Then along came *Bruen*, which eliminated the “two-step” test that had become
 20 a fixture in many federal circuits since *Heller*. Further, it ended the “interest-balancing”
 21 that enabled governments to supplant their policy judgments for that of “the people”
 22 who “adopted” the Second Amendment, 142 S.Ct. at 2136, and then claim “substantial
 23 deference” when challenged in court, just as Defendants have done here. As *Bruen*
 24 explained, “*Heller’s* methodology centered on constitutional text and history.” *Id.*
 25 2127-28. While “step one” of this two-step framework—under which “the government
 26 may justify its regulation by ‘establish[ing] that the challenged law regulates activity
 27 falling outside the scope of the right as originally understood’” is “broadly consistent
 28 with *Heller*,” *id.* at 2126, 2127 (quoting *Kanter v. Barr*, 919 F.3d 437, 441 (7th Cir.

2019)), the “means-end scrutiny” process of “step two”—judicial balancing of the relative importance of the government’s claimed interest against the burdens imposed against the Second Amendment right—is just plain wrong, *id.*

“Instead, the government must affirmatively prove that its firearms regulation is part of the historical tradition that delimits the outer bounds of the right to keep and bear arms.” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2127. This is a single inquiry focused “on text and history.” *Id.* at 2128. Specifically, “[w]hen the Second Amendment’s plain text covers an individual’s conduct, the Constitution presumptively protects that conduct. The government must then justify its regulation by demonstrating that it is consistent with the Nation’s historical tradition of firearm regulation.” *Id.* at 2129-30. “Only if a firearm regulation is consistent with this Nation’s historical tradition may a court conclude that the individual’s conduct falls outside the Second Amendment’s ‘unqualified command.’” *Id.* 2126 (quoting *Konigsberg v. State Bar of Cal.*, 366 U.S. 36, 50, n. 10 (1961)). What “demands our unqualified deference” is the balance “struck by the traditions of the American people”—not “the determinations of legislatures,” *id.* at 2131, or “the evolving product of federal judges,” *id.* at 2132 n. 7. Importantly then, in no event may a court “engage in independent means-end scrutiny under the guise of an analogical inquiry,” because the proper reasoning “requires judges to apply faithfully the balance struck by the founding generation to modern circumstances.” *Id.*

The burden rests squarely and unrelentingly on the government’s shoulders throughout this inquiry. *See Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2130 (quoting *United States v. Playboy Entertainment Group, Inc.*, 529 U.S. 803, 816 (2000) (explaining that “[t]his Second Amendment standard accords with how we protect other constitutional rights,” like in the First Amendment context where “the Government bears the burden of proving the constitutionality of its actions” when it restricts protected speech); *id.* at 2135 (“the burden falls on respondents to show that New York’s proper-cause requirement is consistent with this Nation’s historical tradition of firearm regulation”); *id.* at 2150

1 (“we are not obliged to sift the historical materials for evidence to sustain New York’s
2 statute,” because “[t]hat is respondents’ burden” in seeking to uphold it).

3 **A. The Analysis Required Under *Bruen***

4 The true test begins with “a ‘textual analysis’ focused on the ‘normal and
5 ordinary’ meaning of the Second Amendment’s language.” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2127
6 (quoting *Heller*, 554 U.S. at 576-77). This compelled the conclusion in *Bruen* that the
7 Second Amendment “presumptively guarantees” “a right to ‘bear’ arms in public for
8 self-defense,” since “[n]othing in the Second Amendment’s text draws a home/public
9 distinction with respect to the right to keep and bear arms.” *Id.* at 2124-25.

10 To justify a regulation as “consistent with the Second Amendment’s text and
11 historical understanding,” the government must demonstrate by “analogical reasoning”
12 the existence of “a proper analogue.” *Bruen*, 42 S.Ct. 2131-32. The analogue must be
13 “‘relevantly similar.’” *Id.* at 2132 (quoting C. Sunstein, On Analogical Reasoning, 106
14 Harv. L. Rev. 741, 773 (1993)). It “may be analogous enough to pass constitutional
15 muster” even if it’s not “a historical *twin*” or a “dead ringer” for the modern regulation,
16 but it must be “well-established and representative.” *Id.* at 2133. *Bruen* did not
17 “provide an exhaustive survey of the features that render regulations relevantly similar”
18 here, but “*Heller* and *McDonald* point toward at least two metrics: how and why the
19 regulations burden a law-abiding citizen’s right to armed self-defense.” *Id.* at 2132.
20 “[W]hether modern and historical regulations impose a comparable burden on the right
21 of armed self-defense and whether that burden is comparably justified are ‘*central*’
22 considerations when engaging in an analogical inquiry,” because “individual self-
23 defense is ‘the *central component*’ of the Second Amendment right.” *Id.* at 2133
24 (quoting *McDonald v. City of Chicago*, 561 U.S. 742, 767 (2010)).

25 As for what constitutes the relevant historical period, the high court explained,
26 “when it comes to interpreting the Constitution, not all history is created equal.” *Bruen*,
27 142 S.Ct. at 2136. Foremost, “[c]onstitutional rights are enshrined with the scope they
28 were understood to have when the people adopted them.” *Id.* at 2137 (quoting *Heller*,

1 554 U.S. at 634-35). While “[s]trictly speaking,” the States are “bound to respect the
 2 right to keep and bear arms because of the Fourteenth Amendment,” adopted in 1868,
 3 and not the Second, adopted in 1791, “we have generally assumed that the scope of the
 4 protection applicable to the Federal Government and States is pegged to the public
 5 understanding of the right when the Bill of Rights was adopted in 1791.” *Id.* Indeed,
 6 as noted, the standard established in *Bruen* “requires judges to apply faithfully the
 7 balance struck by the founding generation to modern circumstances.” *Id.* at 2132 n. 7
 8 (italics added). While “there is an ongoing scholarly debate” over whether the
 9 understanding of the Second Amendment in 1791 or 1868 should be considered
 10 primary, that issue need not be resolved when “the public understanding of the right to
 11 keep and bear arms in both 1791 and 1868 was, for all relevant purposes, the same with
 12 respect to” the rights at stake. *Id.* at 2138.

13 What is more, while *Bruen* flagged this scholarly debate for possible future
 14 Supreme Court consideration, lower courts are bound to look to 1791 given the Court’s
 15 repeated holdings (a) that 1791 is the key date for interpreting the Bill of Rights against
 16 the federal government, *see, e.g., Gamble v. United States*, __ U.S. __, 139 S. Ct. 1960,
 17 1976 (2019), and (b) that incorporated provisions of the Bill of Rights have the same
 18 meaning when applied against the states as applied against the federal government, *see,*
 19 *e.g., McDonald*, 561 U.S. at 765. *See, e.g., Khan v. State Oil Co.*, 93 F.3d 1358, 1363
 20 (7th Cir. 1996) (lower courts must follow Supreme Court holdings even with “wobbly,
 21 moth-eaten foundation” until overruled by the Supreme court), *vacated by State Oil*
 22 *Co. v. Khan*, 522 U.S. 3, 20 (1997) (overruling precedent but making clear that the
 23 “Court of Appeals was correct in applying [*stare decisis*] . . . for it is this Court’s
 24 prerogative alone to overrule one of its precedents”).

25 As for periods of time other than those surrounding the Founding or
 26 Reconstruction, some may bear a degree of secondary significance while others may
 27 have little to no bearing. English common law prevailing at the time the Constitution
 28 “was framed and adopted” may have some relevance, *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2138, but

1 anything that “long predates” 1791 or 1868 is generally suspect because it may not
 2 accurately “illuminate the scope of the right,” *id.* at 2136. The period “immediately
 3 after its ratification through the end of the 19th century” can be a “critical tool of
 4 constitutional interpretation,” but “we must also guard against giving postenactment
 5 history more weight than it can rightly bear.” *Id.* The main purpose of consulting such
 6 evidence is to *confirm* the public understanding of the right to keep and bear arms at
 7 the time Second Amendment was adopted. *Id.* at 2137 (quoting *Gamble*, 139 S.Ct. at
 8 1975–76 (2019) (the mid-to-late 19th century evidence considered in *Heller* “was
 9 ‘treated as mere confirmation of what the Court thought had already been
 10 established’”); *Heller*, 554 U.S. at 600-01 (“Our interpretation is confirmed by
 11 analogous arms-bearing rights in state constitutions that preceded and immediately
 12 followed adoption of the Second Amendment”).

13 Standing alone, evidence from the mid-to-late 19th century “do[es] not provide
 14 as much insight into its original meaning as earlier sources.” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2137.
 15 Similarly, “late-19th-century evidence cannot provide much insight into the meaning
 16 of the Second Amendment when it contradicts earlier evidence.” Laws from this period
 17 that “conflict with the Nation’s earlier approach to firearm regulation, are most unlikely
 18 to reflect ‘the origins and continuing significance of the Second Amendment’ and we
 19 do not consider them ‘instructive.’” *Id.* at 2154 (quoting *Heller*, 554 U.S. at 614); *id.*
 20 at 2163 (Barrett, J., concurring) (“today’s decision should not be understood to endorse
 21 freewheeling reliance on historical practice from the mid-to-late 19th century to
 22 establish the original meaning of the Bill of Rights”). Nor does “20th-century historical
 23 evidence” that “contradicts earlier evidence” “provide insight into the meaning of the
 24 Second Amendment.” *Id.* at 2153, n. 28. The same goes for any other “later history”
 25 that “contradicts what the text says,” because “‘post-ratification adoption or acceptance
 26 of laws that are *inconsistent* with the original meaning of the constitutional text
 27 obviously cannot overcome or alter that text.’” *Id.* at 2137 (quoting *Heller v. District*
 28 *of Columbia*, 670 F.3d 1244, 1274, n. 6 (D.C. Cir. 2011) (Kavanaugh, J., dissenting)).

1 **B. Essential Guiding Principles**

2 Several essential guiding principles emerge from the *Bruen* court’s application
3 of this framework in striking down New York’s carry license scheme.

4 **First**, regardless of the historical period from which it may hail, any firearms
5 regulation that conflicts with the Supreme Court’s interpretation of the Second
6 Amendment right in *Heller* and its progeny cannot serve as a historical “analogue.”
7 Thus, the *Bruen* court disregarded a statute from the year 1541 that “impeded not only
8 public carry, but further made it unlawful for those without sufficient means to ‘kepe
9 in his or their houses’ any ‘handgun,’” because “[o]f course, this kind of limitation is
10 inconsistent with *Heller*’s historical analysis regarding the Second Amendment’s
11 meaning at the founding and thereafter.” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2140, n. 10. And, because
12 it conflicted with *Heller*, such a restriction necessarily “was not incorporated into the
13 Second Amendment’s scope.” *Id.* Similarly, state laws from the late 19th century that
14 broadly prohibited the public carrying of handguns without qualification bore no
15 weight in the analysis despite having been upheld by courts of the day, because those
16 courts had “operated under a fundamental misunderstanding of the right to bear arms,
17 as expressed in *Heller*.” *Id.* at 2155; *id.* (citing as “clearly erroneous” a 1905 Kansas
18 decision that upheld such a law based on the rationale that the Second Amendment
19 only protects a *civic* right to bear arms as a member of a militia group).

20 **Second**, any conflicts in the evidence as to whether the Second Amendment does
21 or does not protect the targeted arms or conduct should be resolved in favor of the
22 protective interpretation. Thus, in *Bruen*, when the dissent complained that one case
23 only “arguably” supported finding protection for the public carry rights targeted by
24 certain restrictions in the 1600s and 1700s, the majority’s reminded that “respondents
25 here shoulder the burden” of proving the regulation was “consistent with the Second
26 Amendment’s text and historical scope” and admonished that “[t]o the extent there are
27 multiple plausible interpretations of [the case], we will favor the one that is more
28 consistent with the Second Amendment’s command.” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2141, n. 11.

1 **Third**, even if a historical regulation may otherwise be “relevantly similar” for
 2 all intents and purposes, it cannot justify the challenged regulation when it was an
 3 “outlier” or an exception to the tradition prevailing within the vast majority of
 4 jurisdictions at the time. *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2142 (“we doubt that three colonial
 5 regulations could suffice to show a tradition of public-carry regulation”); *id.* at 2144
 6 (“we cannot put meaningful weight on this solitary statute”); 2147, n. 22 (rejecting as
 7 of “insubstantial” value an 1860 “extreme restriction” that was “an outlier statute
 8 enacted by a territorial government nearly 70 years after the ratification of the Bill of
 9 Rights” whose “constitutionality was never tested in court”); *id.* at 2153 (rejecting
 10 broad carry prohibitions in Texas from the 1870s as “outliers” “endorsed by no other
 11 court during this period”); *id.* (“we will not give disproportionate weight to a single
 12 state statute and a pair of state-court decisions”); *id.* 2154 (“the bare existence of these
 13 localized restrictions cannot overcome the overwhelming evidence of an otherwise
 14 enduring American tradition permitting public carry”); *id.* at 2155 (quoting *Heller*, 554
 15 U.S. at 632) (rejecting “a handful of temporary territorial laws that were enacted nearly
 16 a century after the Second Amendment’s adoption, governed less than 1% of the
 17 American population, and also ‘contradic[t] the overwhelming weight’ of other, more
 18 contemporaneous historical evidence”); *id.* at 2155 (rejecting 1890 prohibitions in
 19 three cities of Kansas that represented only 6.5% of the state’s overall population).

20 **Fourth**, when a historical regulation that conflicted with the prevailing tradition
 21 was never subjected to judicial scrutiny, it is of inherently suspect value. *Bruen*, 142
 22 S.Ct. at 2131 (“if some jurisdictions actually attempted to enact analogous regulations
 23 during this timeframe, but those proposals were rejected on constitutional grounds, that
 24 rejection surely would provide some probative evidence of unconstitutionality”); *id.* at
 25 2155 (“because these territorial laws were rarely subject to judicial scrutiny, we do not
 26 know the basis of their perceived legality”); *id.* at 2147 (rejecting a post-ratification
 27 “outlier” statute whose “constitutionality was never tested in court”).
 28

IV. The OGM Law Flatly Fails Under the *Bruen* Framework

No longer able to claim that this Court must “accord substantial deference” to the legislature as it “experiment[s] with” the fundamental rights of law-abiding people, Def. Opp. to PMSJ 5, 7, Defendants must finally face the music and carry the burden they’ve had all along: to *prove* this regulation “is consistent with the Nation’s historical tradition of firearm regulation” using historically *relevant* evidence. *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2126. They cannot do so, for the same essential reasons that New York could not justify its “special need” condition for public carry licenses at issue in *Bruen*.

Beginning with the text, like in *Bruen*, nothing in the language of the Second Amendment’s guarantee supports the prohibition at issue. It plainly declares that “the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.” Indeed, by referencing *Arms* in the plural, the text can only support the opposition conclusion—that the right is *not* subject to any limitation on the frequency or quantity of protected arms that a law-abiding person may purchase or otherwise acquire for lawful purposes.

In fact, like the small bandwagon of jurisdictions New York joined in pursuing its “may-issue” carry licensing scheme, California joins a just handful of jurisdictions with its OGM law. *See Bruen*, 142 S. Ct. at 2123-24 (“only six States and the District of Columbia have ‘may issue’ licensing laws, under which authorities have discretion to deny concealed-carry licenses even when the applicant satisfies the statutory criteria”). Not only is the group even smaller—only four states (South Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, New Jersey) and the District of Columbia, have ever enacted such laws, and only those in Virginia, Maryland, and New Jersey are still in force²—but the

² South Carolina enacted an OGM law in 1975, but repealed it in 2004. Reply SOMF ¶13. Virginia enacted one in 1993, repealed it in 2020, and reenacted another one in 2020. *Id.* ¶14. Maryland enacted an OGM law no earlier than 1996. *Id.* ¶15. New Jersey enacted an OGM law no earlier than 2009. *Id.* ¶16. The District of Columbia enacted a pistol registration requirement in 2008 (after *Heller*) that effectively limited residents to one pistol per month, although that was struck down as unconstitutional in 2015. *Id.* ¶17. California’s OGM law was enacted as to handguns in 2000 and extended to semiautomatic centerfire rifles effective July 1, 2021.

1 OGM law is even more restrictive: while New York’s *discretionary* licensing scheme
 2 included *some* relief valve for those applicants who *could* meet the onerous “special
 3 need” condition, there’s no discretion at all under the OGM law; the 30-day purchase
 4 and sale prohibitions imposed against ordinary law-abiding Californians are *absolute*.
 5 And, California’s OGM law is the *most* restrictive of the group—targeting handgun
 6 and long guns (and soon, all firearm “precursor” parts too). Reply SOMF ¶40.

7 The historical record is worse too. As with the New York law, “the public
 8 understanding of the right to keep and bear arms in both 1791 and 1868 was, for all
 9 relevant purposes, the same with respect to” the rights at stake under the OGM law.
 10 *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2138. And the “may-issue” schemes like New York’s ultimately
 11 could not pass constitutional muster because “apart from a handful of late-19th-century
 12 jurisdictions, the historical record compiled by respondents does not demonstrate a
 13 tradition of broadly prohibiting the public carry of commonly used firearms for self-
 14 defense.” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2138. Here, apart from a handful of *late 20th century and*
 15 *early 21st century* jurisdictions enacting OGM laws, the historical record does not
 16 show any tradition of broadly prohibiting law-abiding citizens from commercially
 17 purchasing more than one handgun, semiautomatic rifle, or combination of the same
 18 within any 30-day period. Tellingly, the record shows there was no tradition *at all* of
 19 imposing *any* frequency-over-time purchase restrictions, for *any* type of firearm.

20 **A. The Existing Historical Record in This Case**

21 Again, Defendants have already conceded that no prohibitions against
 22 “purchasing multiple firearms within a thirty-day period” existed during the Founding
 23 era, Def. MSJ Reply at 2, with the modern day OGM laws being the first in time, as
 24 already established by the undisputed evidence that Plaintiffs previously provided, *See*
 25 Reply SOMF ¶¶ 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 23. Nor have Defendants
 26 credibly disputed or produced anything to counter the evidence already showing that it
 27

1 was common during the Founding era for ordinary people to purchase and sell multiple
 2 firearms in single or frequent transactions, and to even establish a personal “arsenal”
 3 of firearms,” R-SOMF ¶¶ 24-28, and that “[t]here is an American tradition of
 4 transacting in and collecting protected firearms, free of quantity-over-time
 5 restrictions,” PMSJ, Ex. 2 (Dec. of George Mocsary) at ¶ 31.

6 As Plaintiffs previously highlighted as well, the historical evidence that
 7 Defendants themselves previously submitted only *bolsters* these points. The Halbrook
 8 publication (Def. Ex. 7 to Depo. of George Mocsary) recounts that during the Founding
 9 era, “[t]here was not a law on the books in any of the states which interfered with the
 10 keeping or bearing of arms by free citizens, and this right was understood and deemed
 11 fundamental despite the lack of a state bill of rights.” Reply SOMF ¶20 (PMSJ Ex. 4
 12 at p. 318). Instead, “it appears that having arms was manifestly an attribute of free
 13 citizenship” during this period. Reply SOMF ¶22 (PMSJ Ex. 4 at pp. 285-86).
 14 Consistent with these attributes of citizenship, free citizens commonly possessed and
 15 used multiple firearms at any given time. Reply SOMF ¶26 (PMSJ Ex. 4 at pp. 291-
 16 92) (“Vermont’s founding fathers” “carried a gun and a brace [a pair] of pistols on their
 17 persons as a common practice.”); Reply SOMF ¶27 (PMSJ Ex. 4 at p. 295) (“Pistols in
 18 the pocket and an arsenal at home were options available to every free citizen”).

19 **B. Additional Compelling Historical Evidence**

20 Given *Bruen*’s affirmation that evidence of the Nation’s tradition of firearms
 21 regulations is the key to determining the constitutionality of modern regulations,
 22 Plaintiffs have conducted an even more in-depth investigation of the historical record.
 23 This additional research only further confirms what the previously undisputed evidence
 24 already established and only further confirms that the OGM law cannot be sustained.³

26 ³ Again, neither Plaintiffs nor the Court is “obliged to sift the historical materials
 27 for evidence to sustain [California’s] statute,” because the burden rests entirely with
 28 Defendants. *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2150. Plaintiffs supply this additional evidence simply
 to further facilitate proper adjudication and resolution. They reserve the right to rebut

1 Plaintiffs’ research was objectively conducted and focused on the available data
 2 regarding the nature and scope of firearms regulations during the relevant time periods.
 3 Thus, it even includes publications from authors and groups who have compiled
 4 relevant data while advocating for “gun control.”⁴ But the history speaks for itself.

5 **1. General Traditions**

6 First, this further study of the annals affirms that the general American tradition
 7 throughout the Nation’s history was to not only permit but encourage—indeed *require*
 8 for most of the history—ready access to the acquisition of firearms for all free citizens
 9 without any frequency-of-purchase-over-time or quantity restrictions.

10 “The first English settlers in North America founded the Virginia colony in
 11 1607. When they crossed the Atlantic, they brought with them perpetual guarantees of
 12 their arms rights.” *Firearms Law and the Second Amendment: Regulation, Rights, and*
 13 *Policy*, Third Edition, 2021, Nicholas J. Johnson, David B. Kopel, George A. Mocsary,
 14 E. Gregory Wallace, Donald E. Kilmer, Chapter 3, Excerpt, available at
 15 <https://www.aspenpublishing.com/Johnson-SecondAmendment3> (Ex. 2) at 173.
 16 “Guarantees of the rights of Englishmen were common in other American colonial

17
 18 any evidence Defendants may produce in support of their summary judgment motion
 19 since, from an evidentiary perspective, they are *the movant* under the *Bruen* framework.

20 ⁴ Some of the publications were authored by Saul Cornell, who strongly advocated
 21 against any finding of an individual right to keep and bear arms before *Heller* was
 22 decided, Saul Cornell and Nathan DeDino, *A Well Regulated Right: The Early*
 23 *American Origins of Gun Control*, 73 Fordham L. Rev. 487 (2004) (Ex. 1 to Plaintiffs’
 24 MSJ) at p. 597 (arguing that any such conception of the right was “phantasmagorical”
 25 and “far-fetched”), and who has since heavily criticized the Supreme Court for
 26 ultimately interpreting the right as individual in nature, Saul Cornell, *The Police Power*
 27 *and the Authority to Regulate Firearms in Early America*, Brennan Center for Justice
 28 (2021), at p. 2, <https://www.brennancenter.org/our-work/research-reports/police-power-and-authority-regulate-firearms-early-america> (arguing *Heller* “distorts the
 texts it seeks to illuminate”); *Cherry-picked history and ideology-driven outcomes:
 Bruen’s originalist distortions*, <https://www.scotusblog.com/2022/06/cherry-picked-history-and-ideology-driven-outcomes-bruens-originalist-distortions/> (characterizing
 the *Bruen* majority opinion as based on “fiction, fantasy, and mythology”).

1 charters.” *Id.* at 175. “So when English rights were restated in the 1689 English Bill of
 2 Rights ..., those rights—including the right to ‘arms for their defence’—applied to
 3 Americans, too.” *Id.* “No colony or state restricted arms possession by males who were
 4 too young or too old for the militia, nor by females.” *Id.* at 188. In 1688, after “the gun-
 5 confiscating King James II of England was removed by the Glorious Revolution,”
 6 “[t]he new monarchs William and Mary in 1689 expressly affirmed the English
 7 constitutional right to arms,” after which “the new attitude seemed to be that a free
 8 person could carry any firearm, including a pistol, anywhere.” *Id.* at 198-99.

9 “An examination of the Colonial statutes reveals that ... almost all colonies
 10 required white adult men to possess firearms and ammunition.” *Cramer, Clayton E.,*
 11 *Colonial Firearms Regulation* (2016), online at <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2759961> or
 12 <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2759961>, (Ex. 3) at 1. “If Colonial governments evinced
 13 any distrust of the free population concerning guns, it was a fear that not enough
 14 freemen would own and carry guns.” *Id.* Thus, “Colonies that did not explicitly require
 15 firearms ownership passed laws requiring the carrying of guns under circumstances
 16 that implied nearly universal ownership.” *Id.* at 1-2. “None of the Colonial laws in any
 17 way limited the possession of firearms by the white non-Catholic population; quite the
 18 opposite.” *Id.* at 2, 6. “For the vast majority of people, who were considered loyal
 19 members of the community, gun ownership was not only allowed, it was an
 20 obligation.” *Id.* at 17. In fact, several Colonies required their militiamen to be equipped
 21 and to keep with them at all times a “case of good *pistols*”—i.e., *multiple* firearms.
 22 *Military Obligation: The American Tradition*, vol. 2 (Arthur Vollmer ed., 1947) (Ex.
 23 4), at 21, 45, 52, 139, 145, 151, 311 (cataloguing laws mandating such requirements in
 24 Massachusetts (1693), New Hampshire (1718), Connecticut (1754), Virginia (1755),
 25 North Carolina (1756), New Jersey (1777), and New York (1782)).

26 Consistent with these traditions and practices, gun ownership was prolific
 27 throughout early American history. Generally, “there were high numbers of guns in
 28 early America.” *James Lindgren and Justin L. Heather, Counting Guns in Early*

1 *America*, 43 Wm. & Mary L. Rev. 1777 (2002),
 2 <https://scholarship.law.wm.edu/wmlr/vol43/iss5/2> (Ex. 5) at 1835. “[I]n the late
 3 seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, guns were next in importance after beds,
 4 cooking utensils, and pewter-and ahead of chairs and books.” *Id.* at 1837. They were
 5 “more common than chairs or hoes in a poor agricultural county” and “as common as
 6 plows” with “eighteenth century mid-Atlantic farmers.” *Id.* “Thus, everywhere and in
 7 every time period from 1637 through 1810,” there were “high percentages of gun
 8 ownership”—50 to 79% of males within the free citizenry. *Id.* at 1838.

9 To state the obvious: any regulation prohibiting anyone within the free citizenry
 10 from purchasing or otherwise acquiring no more than one of *any* type of firearm—
 11 much less the most popular and ubiquitous types—within *any* given period of time—
 12 much less within an entire month—would be fundamentally *inconsistent* with this
 13 tradition of *ensuring and promoting* ready access to firearms without any limitations
 14 on either quantity or frequency of purchase. As borne out in the record, the traditional
 15 *regulations* of the time that did place restrictions on the possession, use, ownership, or
 16 purchase of firearms are surely no “historical analogue” to the OGM law.

17 All the traditional firearms regulations fell into the same set general of
 18 categories: prohibitions and disarmaments based on a failure or refusal to pledge
 19 sufficient loyalty or allegiance to the government or simply to force subjugation; laws
 20 regulating the militia; prohibitions and disarmaments based on race or ethnicity; age-
 21 based restraints; gunpowder storage conditions; public carry restrictions; hunting
 22 regulations; regulations on the discharge of firearms; and restrictions on sales designed
 23 to enforce the restrictions in the foregoing categories or a handful of blanket firearms
 24 prohibitions entirely inconsistent with this Nation’s tradition.

25 **2. Loyalty Oath and Allegiance Conditions**

26 While still under British control, citizens who refused “to swear loyalty” to the
 27 King were forbidden to possess or use of firearms or ammunition, *Firearms Law and*
 28 *the Second Amendment* (Ex. 2) at 197, and others “suspected of disloyalty” were also

1 disarmed, *id.* The Crown further ordered general confiscations of the citizenry’s arms
 2 in an effort to subjugate the populace. *Id.* at 175. These actions, effected by force when
 3 met with resistance, are what set off the American Revolution. *Id.*; *How the British*
 4 *Gun Control Program Precipitated the American Revolution*, Charleston L. Rev., Vol.
 5 6, No. 2, David B. Kopel (2012) (Ex. 6) at 285. The British sought to “take[] away”
 6 the “Arms of all the People” to prevent any “rebellions” against them. *Id.* at 324. This
 7 old world order was “anathema to the Second Amendment” and “what Americans
 8 fought a war to ensure could never happen again in America.” *Id.*

9 Laws “which attempt to disarm people who have proven themselves to be a
 10 particular threat to public safety” are one thing, but “laws which aim to disarm the
 11 public at large are precisely what turned a political argument into the American
 12 Revolution.” *How the British Gun Control Program Precipitated the American*
 13 *Revolution* (Ex. 6) at 327. All such prohibitions and disarmaments are clearly untenable
 14 under *Heller*—not to mention the Fourth Amendment’s guarantees against
 15 unreasonable search and seizure—and thus necessarily were not “incorporated into the
 16 Second Amendment’s scope.” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2140, n. 10.

17 And, no such regulations could bear any “analogical” relation to the purchase
 18 prohibitions of the OGM law imposed against California’s law-abiding citizens today.

19 **3. Militia Laws**

20 The general aim of the militia regulations was to ensure *compliance* with
 21 *mandates* of firearm ownership, possession, and use by all members of the free
 22 citizenry. *Firearms Law and the Second Amendment* (Ex. 2) at 177-188 (cataloguing
 23 laws mandating such firearms ownership, possession, and use throughout the Colonial
 24 and Founding eras, which included the “community service” duties to join the “hue
 25 and cry” in pursuing fleeing criminals, “watch and ward” for the general safety of
 26 towns and villages, and partake in the *posse comitatus* as called upon to assist with
 27 “keeping the peace”). These regulations enabled the government to “keep track of who
 28 had firearms”—at least for persons in the militia—and required the free citizens “to

report for a muster,” *A Well Regulated Right* (Ex. 1) at 505, but it is clear that they were designed to ensure compliance with the general duties because the failure to do so called for “stiff penalties,” *id.*, *Colonial Firearms Regulation* (Ex. 3) at 6 (citing Colonial statutes establishing “fines for failure to appear with guns at church or militia musters” as was generally required). And, anyway, regulations designed to *ensure* the free citizenry *was armed* clearly can’t serve as any sort of analogue justifying the purchase prohibitions of the OGM law.

4. Race and Ethnicity Based Prohibitions

Broad firearm prohibitions were imposed against Blacks, Indians, “foreigners,” and other immigrants throughout the Colonial and Founding eras. *Firearms Law and the Second Amendment* (Ex. 2) at 194 (e.g., “[N]o negro or other slave, within this province, shall be permitted to carry any gun or any other offensive Weapon, from off their master’s Land, without licence from their said Master.”); *id.* at 216 (“Most colonies, North Carolina included, saw nothing wrong with enslaving an Indian taken captive in a justified Indian war.”); *Colonial Firearms Regulation* (Ex. 3) at 17 (Indians and Blacks were “not trusted” to be “loyal” citizens); Spitzer, Robert, J. *Gun Law History in the United States* (2017) (Ex. 7) at 72 (“Early gun laws aimed at preventing felons, foreigners, or others deemed dangerous from owning firearms focused on Native Americans”); *id.* (“By the early 1900s, as anti-immigrant sentiment spread, many states enacted laws aimed at keeping guns from non-citizens...”).

The racism and prejudice that spurred these prohibitions and the many other laws oppressing the basic human rights of these individuals—long since deemed antithetical to the Constitution and surely not “incorporated into the Second Amendment’s scope,” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2140 n. 10—certainly cannot represent a legitimate American “tradition” for any purposes under the *Bruen* framework.

5. Age-Based Restrictions

Age-based restrictions arose in some states in the late 1800s and early 1900s. *Gun Law History in the United States* (Ex. 7) at 76. As a general matter, firearm rights

prohibitions based on age are constitutionally suspect when applied to young adults 18 to 20 years old, *see Hirschfeld v. BATFE*, 5 F.4th 407, 421 (4th Cir. 2021), *vacated on mootness grounds*, 14 F.4th 322, 328 (4th Cir. 2021) (“Our nation’s most cherished constitutional rights vest no later than 18. And the Second Amendment’s right to keep and bear arms is no different.”). In any event, any such regulations based solely on a person’s *age* can bear no “relevant similarity” to the purchase prohibitions of the OGM law which are based on the frequency of otherwise lawful purchases of firearms.

6. Gunpowder Storage

Many laws regulated the storage and transport of gun powder in the 18th century, *A Well Regulated Right* (Ex. 1) at 506, given the inherent risks posed by the use of “loose gun powder” in early firearms, *Gun Law History in the United States* (Ex. 7) at 74. But again, such regulations are in no way analogous to the very different purchase prohibitions imposed by the OGM law.

7. Hunting Regulations

Hunting regulations during the 17th and 18th centuries established hunting seasons, licensing schemes, and protections for particular wildlife, mainly aimed at those who hunted certain game “on private lands or in preserves” or who employed dangerous methods of hunting, like setting fires to draw out and trap their prey. *Gun Law History in the United States* (Ex. 7) at 73-74; *Colonial Firearms Regulation* (Ex. 3) at 17. This is nothing on the order of the purchase prohibitions at issue here.

8. Firearm Discharge

Laws regulating the discharge of firearms were on the books of some states during the Colonial and Founding Eras, but mainly to prohibit indiscriminate shooting that posed unnecessary risks or that could spark unnecessary alarm to the public. *Firearms Law and the Second Amendment* (Ex. 1) at 193 (“firearms were the leading tool for rapid communication” to warn of approaching dangers, so “[i]nappropriate gunfire could raise a false alarm”); *id.* at 194 (citing a Pennsylvania law that prohibited shooting “wantonly, and without reasonable occasion”); *Gun Law History in the*

1 *United States* (Ex. 7) at 63 (states “criminalize[d] the threatening use” of firearms). By
 2 stark contrast, the OGM law targets *law-abiding* citizens to prohibit them from
 3 exercising the very distinct right of *lawfully acquiring* a firearm for *lawful* purposes.

4 **9. Public Carry Restrictions**

5 The *Bruen* opinion exhaustively describes the history of regulations on the
 6 public carrying of firearms, illustrating why no historical analogue exists that would
 7 justify the sort of “special need” condition of New York’s “may-issue” licensing
 8 scheme and that law-abiding citizens cannot be subject to such a restriction. Indeed,
 9 the *valid* historical regulations were only aimed at “bearing arms to terrorize the
 10 people,” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2143, and blanket prohibitions on carrying or bearing
 11 firearms without any requirement of criminal or wrongful intent were unconstitutional,
 12 *id.* at 2140, n. 10; *id.* at 2141, 2145, 2146, 2148, 2148-49 (rejecting New York’s
 13 attempt to analogize to carry restrictions that only applied to those who carried with an
 14 evil, violent, or other nefarious purpose, and did not prohibit public carry *per se*).

15 Not only does California’s OGM law blanketly impose purchase prohibitions
 16 against *law-abiding* citizens never shown to pose any danger to the public, but again,
 17 they are more severe than “*may-issue*” licensing schemes like New York’s because the
 18 OGM prohibitions are absolute with no room for any discretionary relief.

19 **10. Sales Regulations**

20 As for any regulations on the sale or purchase of firearms during the relevant
 21 period, these were also limited to laws that cannot justify the prohibitions of the OGM
 22 law. They fall into two categories: a handful of late 18th to early 19th century laws
 23 prohibiting the sale of “dangerous” weapons; and a handful of late 19th century laws
 24 flatly banning the sale or exchange of firearms. The prohibitions against “dangerous”
 25 weapons were tied up with *blanket* bans on the use, possession, and concealed carry of
 26 “dangerous” weapons, which were ultimately aimed at “the complete prohibition of
 27 this class of weapon.” *A Well Regulated Right* (Ex. 1) at 505, 513-14. They had little
 28 to no exceptions for self-defense and they defined “dangerous weapon” to include any

1 “pistol.” *Id.* at 513-515. As *Bruen* just reaffirmed, all arms in “‘common use’ for self-
 2 defense today,” which indisputably include *handguns*, are protected under the Second
 3 Amendment—and such common arms cannot be both dangerous *and* unusual. So, any
 4 historical regulations designed to ban such arms as “dangerous” can “provide no
 5 justification” for imposing prohibitions against arms “unquestionably in common use
 6 today,” *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2143, and such practices in a mere handful of states cannot
 7 establish any “American tradition” anyway, *id.* at 2156.⁵

8 As for “categorical bans that criminalized the sale or exchange of firearms,”
 9 again, only “[a] handful of laws” did so, and all were enacted *after* ratification of the
 10 Fourteenth Amendment in 1868. *Gun Law History in the United States* (Ex. 7) at 62
 11 (citing such laws enacted in five states between 1869 and 1901). A handful of laws
 12 enacted late in the game *totally banning* any sale or exchange of firearms is clearly
 13 beyond the constitutional pale. *Teixeira*, 873 F.3d at 693 (Tallman, J., concurring and
 14 dissenting in part) (“All would agree that a complete ban on the sale of firearms and
 15 ammunition would be unconstitutional.”); *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2163 (Barrett, J.,
 16 concurring) (quoting *Espinoza v. Montana Dept. of Revenue*, 591 U.S. ___, 140 S.Ct.
 17 2246, 2258–59 (2020) (“a practice that ‘arose in the second half of the 19th century ...
 18 cannot by itself establish an early American tradition’”).⁶

20 ⁵ Spitzer cites a handful of other laws “restricting or barring certain dangerous or
 21 unusual weapons,” which included “pistols.” *Gun Law History in the United States*
 22 (Ex. 7) at 67. Not only are these laws *against* the recognized the traditions of this
 23 Nation’s firearm regulations, as shown, but they were all enacted in the early-to-mid-
 20th century, *id.*, rendering of them no significance. *See Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. 2163.

24 ⁶ Spitzer references another small group of state laws that “regulated, *barred*, or
 25 licensed firearm sales,” but goes on to describe them as simply requiring licenses for
 26 gun dealers, permits and/or registration for purchasers, and prohibiting the “public
 27 display” of firearms for sale, without any indication that any of them *barred*
 28 commercial sales in any way. *Gun Law History in the United States*, Ex. 7 at 75 (italics
 added). In any event, all these laws (which amount only eight in total) came far too late
 in time, as they span between 1902 and 1925. *See Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. 2163.

Once again then, nothing in this category of historical regulations in any way supports the purchase prohibitions that California imposes against law-abiding citizens under the OGM law. There is certainly no “well-established and representative” *tradition* of prohibiting such individuals from purchasing more than one firearm—of *any* type, much less of the *most popular* types—within 30 days. Nothing in the record reveals “a comparable burden on the right of armed self-defense” at any time during the relevant history. *Id.* at 2132. Rather, the entire body of such evidence weighs *heavily against* the existence of any tradition of frequency-of-purchase-over-time or purchase quantity limitations, since the prevailing norms and practices throughout all pertinent time periods actively permitted, promoted, and often *required* ready access to firearms without any restrictions on the frequency or quantity of purchases.

C. Defendants Cannot Avoid the Inevitable by Claiming the OGM Law Enjoys Any Sort of “Longstanding” or “Presumptively Lawful” Status

For the same essential reasons, Defendants cannot hope to claim that the OGM law constitutes a “longstanding” “presumptively lawful” regulatory measure so as to somehow place the law beyond the reach of the Second Amendment’s protection. Notably, the New York law *struck down* in *Bruen* had been on the books since 1905, *Bruen*, 142 S.Ct. at 2122—which is far more “longstanding” than any of the OGM laws out there, particularly California’s, which wasn’t enacted until the year 2000. And the New York law was clearly not treated as “*presumptively* lawful”—if it were, the burden would have been *reversed*, with the challengers bearing the burden to show the law was unconstitutional in order to overcome the presumption. Instead, *Bruen* emphatically compelled New York to justify its regulation of the protected conduct. That was surely *because* the law stood against the established traditions of this Nation.

So it is here with the purchase prohibitions of the OGM law. It is no answer to simply say the prohibitions constitute “conditions and qualifications on the commercial sale of arms.” *See Heller*, 554 U.S. at 626-27. Indeed, “the Supreme Court in *Heller* could not have meant that anything that *could* be *characterized* as a condition and

1 qualification on the commercial sale of firearms is immune from more searching
 2 Second Amendment scrutiny.” *Pena*, 898 F.3d at 1007 (Bybee, J., concurring and
 3 dissenting). “Take, for example, a law saying that a condition for the commercial sale
 4 of firearms is that sales may take place only between 11 p.m. and midnight, on
 5 Tuesdays. Or a law imposing a \$1,000,000 point-of-sale tax on the purchase of firearms
 6 for self-defense.” *Id.* at 1007-08. “Even though these restrictions can be characterized
 7 as ‘conditions and qualifications on the commercial sale of arms,’ we would have to
 8 find such restrictions inconsistent with the ‘scope of the Second Amendment.’” *Id.* at
 9 1008. “After *Heller*, it seems clear that challenges to these laws would easily overcome
 10 any presumption of lawfulness.” *Id.* The “scope of the Second Amendment”
 11 undoubtedly includes the arms and conduct targeted by the OGM law—again, that is
 12 *undisputed* in this case—and, as all the relevant evidence shows, its prohibitions are
 13 “inconsistent” with the protections of the Amendment as clearly reflected throughout
 14 the history of this Nation’s laws, customs, and practices designed to *maximize* access
 15 to arms for law-abiding people without any frequency or quantity limitations.

16 In no event may the OGM law be shrouded with a presumption of lawfulness to
 17 subvert the *Bruen* framework, which is specifically designed to ferret out modern-day
 18 gun laws divorced from the regulations within the scope of the Second Amendment.
 19 Even *assuming* Defendants could claim such a presumption, it is sharply rebutted for
 20 all the same reasons that the law fails under *Bruen*. *See Pena*, 898 F.3d at 1006 (Bybee,
 21 J., concurring and dissenting) (quoting *Heller*, 670 F.3d at 1253 (“A plaintiff may rebut
 22 the presumption of validity by showing that the regulation at issue has ‘more than a de
 23 minimis effect upon his right.’”).

24 **V. Plaintiffs are Entitled to Judgment on the Equal Protection Claim Too**

25 Not much else need be said about the equal protection claim, except that the
 26 OGM law’s abject failure under the *Bruen* framework underscores that it indeed
 27 “impermissibly interferes with the exercise of a fundamental right,” subjecting it to
 28 strict scrutiny. *Mass. Bd. of Retirement v. Murgia*, 427 U.S. 307, 312 (1976).

Defendants haven't even attempted to claim the law would survive such scrutiny. They just seek refuge under the "rational basis" standard—the lowest conceivably applicable form of scrutiny—for their special exemption classifications. It bears emphasis that the only argument Defendants have made in support of jettisoning strict scrutiny for rational basis is that the "Individual Plaintiffs are not similarly situated to a group exempt from California's OGM law." DMSJ at 20. But their own justification for these exemption classifications—that "many of these exempt entities have rarely, if ever, been involved in the criminal misuse of firearms purchased as part of a multiple sale," Def. MSJ, Ex. 19 ¶ 24—defeats this argument, because it's undisputed that the Individual Plaintiffs are *law-abiding* citizens, who therefore *similarly* have not "been involved in the criminal misuse of firearms purchased as part of a multiple sale."

And the same self-defeating argument sinks the whole case for Defendants on this clam: because countless *non-exempted* individuals and groups "rarely, if ever," have been involved in such criminal misconduct, the classifications the State has drawn here are so "arbitrary or irrational" as to defeat the law even under "rational basis" scrutiny. *City of Cleburne, Tex. v. Cleburne Living Center*, 473 U.S. 432, 446 (1985). Defendants' own defense of the law shows there is no demonstrated "relation between the classification adopted and the object to be attained." *Romer v. Evans*, 517 U.S. 620, 632 (1996). Therefore, summary judgment for Plaintiffs must follow here too.

VI. Conclusion

For these reasons, Plaintiffs respectfully request this Court grant their motion for summary judgment and deny Defendants' cross-motion for summary judgment.

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