

02–7160

IN THE UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS

FOR THE SECOND CIRCUIT

NANCY HARGRAVE,

On behalf of herself and all others similarly situated,

Plaintiff–Appelllee,

VERMONT PROTECTION AND ADVOCACY, INC.,

Plaintiff–Intervenor–Appellee,

v.

STATE OF VERMONT, THE VERMONT DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENTAL

AND MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES, and SUSAN BESIO in her capacity as

Commissioner of the Vermont Department of Developmental and Mental Health Services

Defendants–Appellants.

On appeal from the United States District Court

for the District of Vermont

**BRIEF FOR NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF PROTECTION AND ADVOCACY SYSTEMS, THE J
DAVID BAZELON CENTER FOR MENTAL HEALTH LAW AND NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
RIGHTS PROTECTION AND ADVOCACY AS AMICI CURIAE IN SUPPORT OF THE APPELLE
FOR AFFIRMANCE**

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July 2, 2002

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Robert D. Fleischner

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Interest of Amici

The three organizations submitting this brief are national organizations that advocate for individuals with disabilities. This case involves the scope and interpretation of the Americans with Disabilities Act ("ADA"), which protects people with disabilities against discrimination, as it applies to advance directives for mental health care. Because individuals served by or members of these organizations have encountered discrimination in government programs, amici have an interest in this Court's decision, and particularly the impact it will have on the availability of advance directives as an effective tool for mental health treatment planning. Amici have substantial expertise with regard to interpretation and application of the laws relevant to this case. The Appellants have consented to the filing of

The National Association of Protection and Advocacy Systems ("NAPAS"), founded in 1981, is the member association for protection and advocacy ("P&A") agencies. P&As were established in each state under the Protection and Advocacy for Individuals with Mental Illness Act (hereinafter "PAIMI" or "the Act"), 42 U.S.C. § 10801 and related federal statutes, to investigate abuse and neglect of persons with mental illness and other disabilities and to provide them legal representation and advocacy services. In fiscal year 2001 alone, P&As served hundreds of thousands of people with disabilities.

The Judge David Bazelon Center for Mental Health Law ("Bazelon Center") is a national legal–advocacy organization that works to advance the rights and dignity of individuals with mental disabilities and ensure their access to the services and supports they need for full participation in community life. Through litigation and public–policy arena, the Center strives to ensure that people with mental disabilities have equal access to health care, education, housing and employment.

The National Association for Rights Protection and Advocacy ("NARPA") is an organization comprised of a lay advocates, people with psychiatric histories, mental health professionals and administrators, and academic. Its fundamental mission for over twenty years has been empowerment, self–determination and equal citizenship for people diagnosed or perceived as psychiatrically or mentally disabled. NARPA's work includes education, training, and legal intervention, monitoring developing trends in mental health law, and identifying systemic issues and alternative strategies in mental health service delivery. Some of its members have advance directives or durable powers of attorney, and other members are health care agents for people with psychiatric disabilities.

Summary of Argument

The ADA is designed to protect individuals with disabilities from discrimination based on stereotypes and unwarranted assumptions, especially "overprotective rules and policies," and "outright intentional exclusion." U.S.C. § 12102(a)(5). This case presents a good example of how these forms of discrimination can intertwine

In 1987, Vermont enacted legislation which allowed all Vermont citizens to create durable powers of attorney for health care ("DPOAs") in order "to enable adults to retain control over their own medical care during periods of incapacity through the prior designation of an individual to make health care decisions on their behalf." 14 V.S.A. 3451. The statute contemplated that "health care decisions" would include "consent, refusal to consent, or withdrawal of consent to any care, treatment service or procedure to maintain, diagnose or treat an individual's physical condition." 14 V.S.A. 3452(5).

Eleven years later, new legislation significantly restricted the right to implement DPOAs for three groups: people involuntarily committed to psychiatric hospitals, people involuntarily committed to the community who had previously been committed to psychiatric hospitals, and convicted felons receiving mental health treatment u

joint custody of the Department of Corrections and the Department of Developmental and Mental Health Services, 18 V.S.A. 7626 (“Act 114”).

(See footnote 1)

Although Act 114 recognizes the right of competent persons in these groups to refuse psychotropic medication indefinitely, it limits the implementation of their competently executed DPOAs to 45 days unless there is “significant clinical improvement.” The reason appellants give for this exclusion is to protect these groups (and only these groups) from refusing mental health treatment that the State believes they need. Appellants Brief at pp. 18, 21, 32, 47.

Act 114 nullifies the right of individuals subject to it—all of whom are individuals with psychiatric disabilities, many of whom live in the community—to have their DPOAs implemented in the same way as all other Vermont citizens. People with psychiatric disabilities in Vermont have also been deterred from executing DPOAs because of Act 114. *See* Affidavit of Judith Rex, Paragraphs 12–21, Joint Appendix at 0215–0216. Making a DPOA’s validity contingent on the clinical improvement of its author is not a requirement imposed on any other citizen or group of citizens in Vermont.

The fact that Act 114 permits this intrusion is ironic, since the very purpose of the DPOA legislation is to “enable adults to retain control over their own medical care during periods of incapacity.” 14 V.S.A. 3451. The benefit of DPOA legislation, which permits Vermont citizens to effectuate personal values that may matter more than “clinical improvement,” should not be denied to appellees on the basis of their mental disability. This is particularly true because the same statute permits those subject to Act 114 to make treatment choices as long as they are competent, regardless of whether such choices result in “clinical improvement.” It is difficult to understand why appellants permit a competent person to make treatment choices, but preclude him or her from memorializing those choices in a DPOA and effectuating them through the appointment of an agent.

Appellants claim that it would “fundamentally alter” the mental health treatment program if they were required to follow the legal mandate of 14 V.S.A. 3451 *et seq.* and honor the decisions of health care agents relating to mental health treatment. However, the fundamental alteration defense is not applicable, since appellees are not asking for a reasonable modification of neutral practices, but rather seeking to strike down a facially discriminatory statutory provision. Even if the fundamental alteration defense is applicable, the State has not met its burden of proving that the operation of mental health DPOAs would fundamentally alter the purpose of its program. Rather, DPOAs appear to advance the purpose of the program, which is “to empower [clients] to live as independently and productively as possible.” State of Vermont, Department of Developmental and Mental Health Services Home Page, <<http://www.state.vt.us/dmh>> Further, “[t]he goal of the Department of Developmental and Mental Health Services is to have a service system without coercion.” Joint Appendix, A–0185. Honoring DPOAs appears to fit well in the current program, rather than to fundamentally alter it.

Appellants’ also argue that honoring DPOAs will result in longer institutional stays. Appellants’ Brief at 18, 21, and 47. They have not presented sufficient evidence to show this. Even if it were true, it is not at all clear how many more days a “longer” stay entails, or that honoring DPOA refusal constitutes a “fundamental alteration” when the mental health system is already required to honor the competent medication refusals of its clients. 18 V.S.A. 7626.

Recently, this court noted that the purpose of Title II of the ADA, “far broader” than the equal protection clause of the Constitution, is “the eradication of unequal effects.” *Garcia v. New York Health Sciences Center*, 280 F.3d 110 (2nd Cir. 2001). This case involves inequality that goes beyond unequal “effects”—it reflects the intent of a public entity to single out a group of mentally disabled individuals and treat them differently and disadvantageously in the exercise of statutory rights that implicate fundamental issues of bodily autonomy. Through the DPOA statute, Vermont has extended to all its citizens a formal and recognized means of exercising the right of a competent

to specify treatment choices in advance and to appoint an individual to carry out those choices. To exclude a people with psychiatric disabilities from this important right, and to justify this exclusion by invoking stereotypes about dangerousness that are irrelevant and unsupported in the record, is unequal and unjustified. Vermonters are secure in the knowledge that their DPOAs will be implemented backed by the full authority of the law. The people with psychiatric disabilities who are subject to Act 114 deserve no less.

ARGUMENT

I. Persons Subject to Act 114 Are Qualified To Have Their DPOAs Honored.

The appellants argue that “a person subject to Act 114 is not a qualified individual with a disability” because they have been committed for treatment of a mental illness “based on a finding of dangerousness and...[is] incompetent to make treatment decisions.” Appellants’ Brief at 24. The definition of a “qualified individual with a disability” is “an individual with a disability who, with or without reasonable modifications to rules, policies, and practices...meets the essential eligibility requirements for the receipt of services or the participation in programs and activities provided by a public entity.” 42 U.S.C. § 12131(2). The eligibility requirements for implementing and executing a DPOA are contained in the statute, and by its terms it does not exclude people in appellees’ situation.

Under Vermont law, including Act 114, commitment status alone neither empowers the State to medicate an individual against his or her will nor precludes the execution of a DPOA. Involuntary medication of persons subject to Act 114 is precluded if a court finds that they are competent. 18 V.S.A. 7627(d). If commitment status alone disqualifies an individual from the right to refuse psychotropic medication, or from executing a DPOA, it is difficult to see how commitment status plus incompetence would disqualify an individual from implementation of a DPOA. Being incompetent is a necessary qualification for its implementation. It makes very little sense to give competent psychiatric patients—even committed ones—the right to refuse psychotropic medication, but to deny them the implementation of their DPOAs. The State’s arguments about commitment, dangerousness, and custody are not applicable to competent individuals under orders of treatment, and yet they have the right to refuse medication.

Finally, it is clear that if a person is presently assaultive or threatening assault or to harm him or herself, the execution of a DPOA would not preclude emergency intervention. Appellees have never contested this. Medication used to prevent imminent harm is not the same as the ongoing medication for treatment covered by a DPOA. Since a commitment need only find dangerousness on a person’s first commitment, *In re P.S.* 167 Vt. 63, 71 (1997), and individuals who are recommitted many times, the appellants’ argument that all persons subject to Act 114 are unqualified because they are presently dangerous is incorrect. An initial finding of dangerousness—perhaps years earlier—is not sufficient to disqualify an individual from the right to have a DPOA implemented years after the initial commitment.

II. Enactments Such as Act 114 that Facially Restrict Statutory Rights on the Basis of Commitment Status Violate the ADA

A. Enactments that Facially Restrict Statutory Rights on the Basis of Commitment Status Discriminate on the Basis of Disability

If all persons subject to Act 114 are qualified individuals with a disability for the purpose of participation in the benefit of having a properly executed DPOA honored, then a statute which facially discriminates against people who fall into this category discriminates on the basis of disability under the ADA. Appellants’ argument that some mentally ill people in Vermont can execute DPOAs without interference by the State is unavailing. A statute that need not discriminate against the entire universe of people with a certain disability to be discriminatory on the basis of that disability. *Olmstead v. L.C. ex rel. Zimring*, 527 U.S. 581 (1999) (persons unnecessarily institutionalized are not subject to discrimination on the basis of disability, although they did not constitute the universe of mentally ill people).

people in Georgia.) In fact, many courts have held that policies and actions which disadvantage a subgroup of people on the basis of severity of disability state a cause of action under both Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and the ADA. *Messier v. Southbury Training School*, 1999 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 1479 *33 (D.Conn. Jan. 5, 1999); *v. Gallen*, 522 F.Supp. 171, 215–217 (D.N.H. 1981), *Martin v. Voinovich*, 840 F.Supp. 1175, 1192 (S.D. Ohio 1991). When a statute “has the practical effect of excluding individuals with mental disabilities from all other individuals who enjoy [the statutory] right” it is discriminatory under the ADA even if it doesn’t exclude all individuals with mental disabilities. *Doe v. Stincer*, 990 F.Supp. 1427, 1431 (S.D.Fla. 1997) (statute permitting facilities to exclude people who had been hospitalized for mental health treatment from access to their treatment records while requiring facilities to grant all others complete access to their treatment records), *vacated on other grounds*, 175 F.3d 808 (11th Cir. 1999).

Although people subject to Act 114 are disabled, otherwise qualified to implement DPOAs, and singled out as a group for differential and adverse limitations on their DPOAs, appellants argue that they are not discriminated against because of their mental illness. Rather, appellants contend their right to have their DPOAs honored is limited to people who are 1) they are either dangerous or substantially likely to become dangerous and 2) they are in state custody. Appellants’ Brief at 20,27,32,34. However, competent persons who are committed and in state custody are allowed to make their own treatment choices regardless of their clinical improvement. It is difficult to understand a distinction that forbids some people, while competent, from completing an enforceable written document indicating their treatment choices and appointing an agent. As the court said in *In re Rosa M.*, the first case involving the advance directive of a hospitalized individual,

absent an overriding state interest, a hospital or medical facility must give continued respect to a patient’s competent rejection of certain medical procedures after the patient loses competence. The fundamental right of all individuals to have final say in respect to decisions regarding their medical treatment extends equally to severely mentally ill persons, who are not to be treated as persons of lesser status and dignity because of their illness.

155 Misc.2d 103, 104 –105 (N.Y.Sup.Ct. 1991).

It is also worth noting that the meaning of the word “dangerous” in the Vermont commitment scheme is different from its connotations in everyday discourse, as is the concept of “state custody.” Other groups of people who fit both criteria may still execute and enforce DPOAs in Vermont.

The only time that the State actually needs to prove dangerousness is in an individual’s initial commitment hearing. *In re P.S.*, 167 Vt. at 71. Even at the initial commitment hearing, there is no need to show an overt act of dangerousness, nor need the act of dangerousness be recent. *In re L.R.*, 146 Vt. 17, 20–22 (1985). In fact, it need not even be an overt act of “dangerous” under the common understanding of the word: deterioration of mental status is enough for an individual’s commitment. *Id.* Thus, while in everyday discourse “dangerousness” connotes credible threats directed at others, in the commitment context it may simply mean that soon the individual will be unable to care for himself or herself. As the Vermont Supreme Court has said, “In this context, dangerousness is an ‘amorphous concept,’ that is highly fact-dependent on its application...many states have defined the concept with no more certainty and imminence than the ‘patient in need of further treatment’ standard...” *In re P.S.*, 167 Vt. at 104–105. Thus, to say that Act 114 applies only to people who are dangerous or substantially likely to become dangerous is simply another way of saying that a certain subset of people with mental illness are singled out by a state statute to be excluded from the benefit of having a DPOA honored for more than 45 days.

The exclusion of Act 114 is not based on any judgment or inquiry as to the competence of such individuals when executing the DPOA. Rather it is based on a disagreement with the choices they may have while competent. People whose DPOAs happen to agree with clinical recommendations will not be subject to Act 114’s restrictions. This is a content-based restriction that nullifies the ability of a competent person with a psychiatric disability to

often has previous experience of treatment and its effects, to make treatment choices while competent and have their choices honored later. Act 114 suspends the operation of a DPOA based on the treatment choice of the individual—the protection of which is the core function of a DPOA.

Finally, the appellant's distinction that Act 114 discriminates on the basis of dangerousness plus state custody, is dubious. There are a number of groups of people who are dangerous and in state custody, whose rights to full implementation of DPOAs have not been hindered by the State. If the issue is dangerousness plus state custody, it is difficult to understand why other people in state custody because of dangerousness have not had their DPOA rights limited. People with untreated tuberculosis, who can be committed to state custody, can execute and implement DPOAs. 18 V.S.A. 1058. People with mental retardation who are dangerous can be committed to state custody, 18 V.S.A. 8839, without losing their right to execute and implement DPOAs. People addicted to drugs and committed to state custody on a finding of "uncontrollable desire for [the] use or consumption of [the] drugs," 18 V.S.A. 8401–8402, do not lose their right to implement DPOAs. The only group of people who are not entitled to full implementation of their DPOAs under 14 V.S.A. 3451 *et seq.* are people with mental illness.

There is no doubt that Act 114 is discriminatory: "the Act...facially single[s] out the handicapped and apply[ies] different rules to them. Thus the discriminatory intent and purpose of the Act ...[is] apparent on its face. Whether such discrimination is legal or illegal remains to be seen, but there can be no doubt that the Act...[is] discriminatory." *Bangerter v. Orem*, 46 F.3d 1491, 1500 (10th Cir. 1995).

B. Statutes Which Restricted Basic Rights on the Basis of Commitment or Guardianship Status Have Consistently Been Invalidated

For the last twenty years, laws excluding civilly committed persons or former mental patients from participating in civil rights or legislatively created benefit programs have been invalidated. Voting restrictions based on civil commitment or guardianship status used to be common. Courts have invalidated such restrictions for many of the same reasons that Act 114 should be invalidated. For example, in *Manhattan State Citizens' Group v. Bass*, the court found that a law precluding individuals who were involuntarily committed from voting violated the equal protection clause. 524 F.Supp. 1270, 1274 (S.D.N.Y. 1981). Twenty years later, in *Doe v. Rowe*, a provision restricting the voting rights of persons with mental disabilities from voting—those under guardianship for mental illness—was struck down. The court held that "the State has disenfranchised a subset of mentally ill citizens based on a stereotype rather than on actual relevant incapacity." 156 F.Supp.2d 35, 52 (D.Me. 2001). That court found that the distinction between people with traditional psychiatric disorders, who were precluded from voting, and people under guardianship for mental retardation or senility, who were permitted to vote, was arbitrary and irrational. *See also Allen v. Heckler*, 786 F.2d 64, 66 (D.C.Cir. 1985) (formerly hospitalized patients relegated to "non-competitive" civil service status were protected under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act by virtue of their status).

Similarly, in this case, discrimination on the basis of commitment status is discrimination on the basis of disability under the ADA. People with mental disabilities or who are regarded as being mentally disabled are subject to commitment, so appellants' argument that they are discriminating on the basis of commitment status amounts to an argument that they are discriminating against a sub-group of people with mental disabilities. The State under the ADA need not disadvantage all persons with a certain disability in order to discriminate: if every person who is disadvantaged by a certain enactment, such as Act 114, is necessarily a person with a certain disability, the enactment is discriminatory on the basis of disability. This is especially true in the case of laws such as Act 114, which are facially discriminatory on their face, as opposed to laws that have disparate impact.

This was confirmed in *Doe v. Stincer*, 990 F.Supp. 1427 (S.D.Fla. 1997), where a statute requiring facilities to give former patients unfettered access to their medical treatment records but which permitted facilities to deny access to mental health treatment records, was held to violate the ADA because it operated to "impose or apply eligi-

criteria that screen out or tend to screen out an individual with a disability or any class of individuals with disabilities from fully and equally enjoying any service, program, or activity, unless criteria can be shown to be necessary for the provision of the service, program or activity being offered.” *Id.* At 1432.

In both *Doe* and this case, legislatures enacted broad rights for state citizens, then created exclusions to those rights for people receiving psychiatric treatment. In both, the exclusions were justified as protections in the best interests of the disadvantaged class. In both, available research did not support dire predictions of harm to psychiatric patients if they were allowed to exercise their rights in the same way as other citizens. In both, there is at least some evidence that citizens in other states exercise similar rights without disaster or difficulty.

(See footnote 2)

Appellants’ argument is similar to that made in *Mx Group v. City of Covington*, 2002 U.S.AppLEXIS 112 (2nd Cir. June 12, 2002). In defending a city ordinance forbidding the establishment of methadone clinics, the city argued that it was the secondary effects of criminality and not a physiological impairment that resulted in the discrimination. *Id.* at *43. The Court of Appeals rejected this argument, and affirmed a finding that the city had discriminated on the basis of disability. In the same way, the discrimination here is because the Vermont wants to be able to involuntarily medicate people with mental illness because of their mental illness.

In a recent case, this Court found that people residing in a halfway house were people with disabilities under the ADA because they had to meet certain statutory criteria before being admitted to the program. *Regional Economic Community Action Program v. City of Middletown*, 281 F.3d 333, 345 (2nd Cir. 2002). If the state in that case had argued that it was not discriminating against substance abusers, but only those individuals with substance abuse who happened to meet the legislative criteria, it would not have succeeded. Appellants here should also fail. The classification “people subject to Act 114” contains within it only people who have mental disabilities that substantially limit their major life activities, in the same way that the classification “methadone users” contains within it only people whose addiction substantially limits their major life activities.

Act 114 screens out people with disabilities, and imposes on them burdens not imposed on non-disabled people. This clearly constitutes discrimination under the ADA. *Ellen S. v. Florida Board of Bar Examiners*, 859 F.Supp. 1494 (S.D.Fla. 1994)(finding defendants discriminated against qualified applicants with disabilities by using requirements that placed additional burdens on them because of their disability); *Guckenberger v. Boston University*, 947 F.Supp. 106, 137 (D.Mass. 1997)(same).

III. Appellants’ Fundamental Alteration Defense Fails

A. The Affirmative Defense of Fundamental Alteration Is Inapplicable in Cases Where the Plaintiff Does Not Seek a Reasonable Accommodation

Appellants claim that requiring them to honor the DPOAs of people under orders of treatment would “fundamentally alter their program.” In the first place, the “program or benefit” from which appellees have been excluded is not the state’s mental health program, but the benefit of being able to implement a DPOA in the same way as other Vermont citizens. Including appellees in this program—as was done in the decade between 1987 and 1997—was hardly a fundamental alteration to objectives of the statute.

In addition, appellants misunderstand the nature of the affirmative defense of “fundamental alteration.” As is clear from the regulations and case law, “fundamental alteration” and “undue hardship” are affirmative defenses that

raised only when an individual plaintiff requests a reasonable accommodation from a defendant.

The Department of Justice, charged with promulgating regulations to implement Title II of the ADA, permits a “fundamental alteration” defense when a disabled person asked for a reasonable modification of a public entity’s services, programs or activities, 28 C.F.R. 35.130(b)(7). (See footnote 3) This reference to “fundamental alteration” is the only time that this defense appears in the Department of Justice’s regulations implementing the ADA. In cases in this Circuit, “fundamental alteration” appears only in the context of cases about reasonable modifications. *e.g.*, *Garcia v. State of New York Health Sciences Center*, 280 F.3d 98, 109 (2nd Cir. 2001) (referring to “Title II requirement that a state make reasonable modifications in its programs, services or activities for a ‘qualified individual with a disability’ unless that state can establish that the modification would work a fundamental alteration in the nature of the program, service or activity”). See also *Borkowski v. Central Valley School District* 63 F.3d 13 (9th Cir. 1995); *Staron v. McDonald’s Corp.*, 51 F.3d 353, 356 (2nd Cir. 1995).

In this case, appellees are not asking for a reasonable modification, any more than a black plaintiff asking that a statute that specifically excluded him on the basis of race would be asking for a “reasonable modification” of the statute. Appellees contend that the provision barring them from the right to implement a program for over 45 days without clinical improvement constitutes disparate treatment and is facially discriminatory. The remedy they seek is for this provision to be eliminated. It is doubtful that any challenge to a statute as facially discriminatory could be subject to a fundamental alteration defense. As the 10th Circuit has explained, “the theory of a reasonable accommodation claim is that a defendant must make an affirmative change in an otherwise valid policy.” *Bangerter v. Orem*, 46 F.3d 1491, 1500–1502 (10th Cir. 1995). A fundamental alteration defense precludes a generally applicable statute or program that confers a benefit, but which must be somehow altered or modified to ensure that disabled people can have equal access to it. See, *Mx Group v. City of Covington*, 2002 U.S.App.Lex 11249 at *56 (6th Cir. June 12, 2002), quoting *Bay Area Addition Research and Treatment Inc v. City of Antioch*, 107 F.3d 725, 734 (9th Cir. 1999) (“where the ‘statute discriminates against qualified individuals on its face rather than in its application’ then the ...regulation interpreting Title II, which only requires ‘reasonable’ accommodation, makes no sense...The only way to alter a facially discriminatory ordinance is to remove the discriminatory feature, but that would fundamentally alter the ordinance.”).

Act 114 is not generally applicable. It applies only and specifically to people with psychiatric disabilities, and the provision restricting their advance directives is aimed only at them. When a statute facially singles out a group of disabled people and applies different standards to them, plaintiffs who challenge the statute are alleging intentional discrimination, regardless of the motivation of those who passed the statute. *United Auto Workers v. Johnson Controls*, 499 U.S. 187 (1991). Since a facially discriminatory statute or ordinance cannot be “reasonably modified,” the fundamental alteration defense is inapplicable.

B. Even if the State Is Entitled To Assert a Fundamental Alteration or Necessity Defense, It Cannot Carry Its Burden of Proof Because There Is No Evidence Linking Treatment Refusals Under DPOAs to Increased Length of Stay In Hospital Settings

Even if the fundamental alteration defense applies, appellants cannot meet their burden of proof that honoring DPOAs of people under orders of treatment would fundamentally alter Vermont’s mental health program. Since fundamental alteration is an affirmative defense, the appellants bear the burden of producing evidence in support of their claims. This they have not done and cannot do. As the Supreme Court noted in the context of the affirmative defense of direct threat, “[a]s a health care professional, petitioner had the duty to assess the risk...based on the objective, scientific information available to him and others in his profession. His belief that a significant risk existed, even if maintained in good faith, would not relieve him from liability...” *Bragdon v. Abbott*, 524 U.S. 624, 64

Neither Appellants' brief nor the record contains sufficient evidence, experience, or research to support its claim. The State's basic argument appears to be two-fold: first, that following DPOAs will lead to longer institutional stays; second, it will preclude needed mental health treatment.

As to the first argument, since many people subject to Act 114 are not hospitalized,

(See footnote 4)

Act 114 is drastically overinclusive. As to the State's argument that agents acting pursuant to DPOAs will prevent treatment that doctors regard as necessary, many DPOAs do not refuse all treatment, but rather direct one form of treatment over another. Furthermore, in the medical arena, people are permitted to forego treatment that doctors consider essential to the preservation of life. Indeed, the form drafted by the Legislature specifically contemplates refusal of treatment. 14 V.S.A. 3466.

Appellants cannot meet their burden of proof that honoring DPOAs will increase the length of stay, let alone predict by how long patients' stays would be increased (a significant datum that appears nowhere in the record or in appellants' brief), because the impact on length of stay is entirely speculative. First, the research on the impact of treatment refusal on length of stay is equivocal at best, see pp. 23–26 *infra*. Second, there is a substantial distinction between treatment choices made by an institutionalized individual in the moment that medication is offered and a decision for the future, made by a competent person, embodied in a legal document.

Finally, it is not at all clear that an increased length of stay would, in fact, constitute a “fundamental alteration” in the State's mental health program. State mental health agencies argued this proposition strenuously twenty years ago when the right to refuse treatment was first litigated. They failed to convince courts then that recognizing the right to refuse treatment would fundamentally alter the mental health system or undermine care and treatment. See *Rogers v. Commissioner of Mental Health*, 458 N.E. 2d 308 (Mass.1983), *Rivers v. Katz*, 495 N.E. 2d 337 (N.Y. 1986), *State ex rel. Jones v. Gerhardstein*, 416 N.W.2d 883 (Wisc. 1987). The skepticism was well founded. Later empirical research showed that the right to refuse treatment had little if any impact on the operation of the institutions or the state mental health systems.

(See footnote 5)

Because of the concern about the impact of granting patients the right to refuse treatment on mental health systems, there was significant research on the topic. That research is highly equivocal. As Prof. Clayton observed fifteen years ago, “the evidence about the impact of treatment refusal on length of hospitalization is conflicting.”

(See footnote 6)

Older and more recent studies simply confirm the ambiguities of the older ones. Some studies were done on patients with crimes who had diagnoses of mental illness, whose lengths of mental hospitalization were presumably significantly influenced by other factors, such as the crimes they had committed.

(See footnote 7)

Some studies show no difference in length of stay between treatment acceptors and treatment refusers,

(See footnote 8)

others showed increased length of stay in treatment refusers,

(See footnote 9)

while still others showed better results for treatment refusers after discharge.

(See footnote 10)

Interestingly, several studies appear to indicate that refusers who are promptly treated with involuntary medication still have somewhat greater lengths of stay than those who are compliant with their medications, suggesting that the increase in length of stay derives from some characteristic of the refuser other than the absence of medication.

(See footnote 11)

Dr. Bertold Francke, the author of appellant's sole affidavit on the issue of fundamental alteration, concurs with the equivocality of the research literature. His sole statement about the relationship between medication refusal and length of stay is that "[a] VSH patient's refusal to take medication when recommended by a staff psychiatrist *may* result in longer hospital stays." Joint Appendix at A-0294 (emphasis supplied). This is simply legally insufficient to support a facially discriminatory statute.

In addition, just because people refuse medication does not mean that they languish untreated. Other treatments are available in both hospital and community settings. And just because people are treated does not mean they are discharged from institutions. In fact, case law and research suggest that people who are involuntarily medicated remain hospitalized.

(See footnote 12)

Moreover, people who have been institutionalized the longest—for decades—are on medications and have been on them the entire length of their stay.

Equating research regarding medication refusal in institutions with any kind of prediction about the results of honoring DPOAs is problematic. One of the major advantages of DPOAs is precisely that they permit an individual to make a thoughtful decision about treatment in advance of the crisis of hospitalization. Thus, treatment choices pursuant to DPOAs cannot be equated with spur of the moment refusals by someone in an acute, possibly debilitated and dysfunctional state. Rather, they represent the carefully considered wishes of a competent individual, reduced to writing and witnessed by two individuals. Any effort to equate the consequences of treatment refusal by hospitalized individuals and the consequences of treatment refusal pursuant to a DPOA, must be viewed skeptically and any conclusions analyzed with care.

If anything, the DPOA format is particularly well suited for people with psychiatric disabilities, who can make predictions regarding what they would or would not want in the way of treatment based on past experience. For people with psychiatric disability is cyclical and intermittent people with psychiatric disability are well situated to execute directives, anticipating what might happen in the next crisis on the basis of their experience in the last. It is well acknowledged by the psychiatric profession that for some people, no medications work; for many others, some medications work and others do not, and that some medications have idiosyncratic or negative effects on particular individuals. A DPOA can be a useful means of ensuring that lessons from the experience of what works and what will be implemented by treatment professionals if the individual is incompetent.

Although there is no support for the proposition that honoring DPOAs would lead to longer lengths of stay if it did, this could be a rational choice for competent people to make, given the risks, intrusiveness, and side

psychotropic medication. See *Toraty v. Mental Hygiene Legal Services (In re Joseph O.)*, 666 N.Y.S.2d 322, (N.Y.App.Div. 1997)(citing Joseph O’s clearly expressed desire to remain institutionalized if that was the cost of refusing medication). See also *J.S. v. City of Newark*, 652 A.2d 265 (N.J. Super. 1993)(patient with tuberculosis retained his right to refuse medication “with numerous side effects” even if it led to his continued confinement). The highest court in Massachusetts observed, “since it is the patient who bears the risks as well as the benefits of treatment by antipsychotic drugs, and must suffer the consequences of any treatment decision, the patient has the right to make that decision,” *Rogers v. Commissioner of Mental Health*, 458 NE 2d 308, 316 (1983). “Even if the choice will not achieve the restoration of the patient’s health, or will result in longer hospitalizations, that choice must be respected.” *Id.* at n. 15.

Amici agree that concern over length of stay is valid, but question whether, in the absence of any kind of evidence that honoring DPOAs would extend length of stay, or for how long, defendants can meet their burden of showing fundamental alteration to the mental health system. Unfortunately, long stays by some patients are not uncommon; they hardly constitute “fundamental alterations” of the state’s mental health program. The question is whether permitting clients who have thought through their own treatment carefully enough to implement a legal document naming an individual to represent them and protect their preferences would “fundamentally alter” the mental health treatment system. If all that defendants can muster to support their argument is a single conclusory and inadequate affidavit, a program of broad exclusion of all patients in this group from implementation of their preferences cannot stand.

Conclusion

The decision of the district court should be affirmed.

Respectfully submitted,

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Certificate of Service

I hereby certify that two copies of the above document were served upon Bridget C. Asay, Assistant Attorney General,

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Certificate of Compliance

I hereby certify that this brief was prepared using MS Word and that the program’s word count tool indicates that this brief (not including the cover page, tables, the corporate disclosure statement and the certificates of counsel) contains 10,000 words.

Robert D. Fleischner

Footnote: 1

Appellants make much of the fact that the statute granting Vermonters the right to create DPOA permits probate courts in guardianship proceedings to consider whether to suspend or revoke the authority of an agent. The purpose of this provision is to resolve differences of opinion between a guardian and an agent, while the purpose of the Act 114 provision is to nullify health care choices of persons with mental illness when those choices conflict with the choices of mental health professionals. Since appellees have no objection to the guardianship provision in the DPOA statute, its presence weakens appellants’ arguments by providing a path for the relief they seek and demonstrating that the separate Act 114 provision is neither necessary nor would striking it down operate as a “fundamental alteration” of the commitment scheme in Vermont.

Footnote: 2

Patricia Backlar and Bentson McFarland, “A Survey on the Use of Advance Directives for Health Treatment in Oregon,” 47 *Psychiatric Services* 1387 (1996)(finding that in each case where advance directives were used in crises they were honored), see also *In the Matter of Rosa M. Smith*, Misc. 2d 103 (Sup. Ct. 1991); *In re Hatsuye T.*, 689 N.E. 2d 248 (Ill. App. Div. 1997), *In re Smith*, 712 N.E. 2d 422 (Ill. App.Ct.1999).

Footnote: 3

“A public entity shall make reasonable modifications in policies, practices or procedures w

modifications are necessary to avoid discrimination on the basis of disability, unless the party can demonstrate that making the modifications would fundamentally alter the nature of the service, program or activity,” 28 C.F.R. 35.130(b)(7).

Footnote: 4

Act 114 precludes people who now live in the community but who were once hospitalized from the implementation of their DPOAs for more than 45 days without significant clinical improvement. 18 V.S.A. 7624(a)(2).

Footnote: 5

Paul S. Appelbaum and Thomas Gutheil, “Drug Refusal: A Study of Psychiatric Inpatients,” *Am. J. of Psych.* 340, 345 (1980)(noting that “permitting [patients]...to decline medication as a ‘right’ but as a matter of clinical policy, did not seriously impair their overall treatment and yielded some positive advantages,” and further indicating that out of 72 treatment refusals only five seriously impaired patient care); Phil Gordon, “Psychiatric Treatment Refusal, Patient Competence and Informed Consent,” *8 Int’l. J. of Psych. and L.* 83, 85–89 (1986)(impact of recognizing right to refuse treatment on institutional functioning minimal); *see also Rogers v. Comm. for Mental Health*, 478 F.Supp. 1342, 1370 (D.Mass. 1979)(finding that when the court’s TRO against forced medication was in place, “the doctors’ ability to establish a therapeutic environment in treating patients was not substantially reduced”).

Footnote: 6

Ellen Wright Clayton, “From *Rogers* to *Rivers*: The Rights of the Mentally Ill to Refuse Medication,” *13 Am. J. of L. and Medicine* 7, 31 (1987).

Footnote: 7

P. Rodenhauer, C. Schwenker, and H.J. Khamis, “Factors Related to Drug Treatment Refusal in a Forensic Hospital,” *38 Hospital and Community Psych.* 631 (1987); Williams et al, “Drug Treatment Refusal and Length of Hospitalization of Insanity Acquittes,” *16 Bull. of the Am. Acad. of Psych. and L.* 279 (1988).

Footnote: 8

F. Cournos, K. McKinnon and B. Stanley, “Outcome of Involuntary Medication in a State Hospital System,” *148 Am. J. of Psych.* 489 (1991); Julie Zito, et al., “Drug Treatment Refusal, Diagnosis, and Length of Hospitalization in Involuntary Psychiatric Patients,” *4 Behavioral Science and the L.* 327, 328 (1986); Irwin Hassenfeld and Barbara Grumet, “A Study of the Right to Refuse Treatment,” *12 Bull. of the Am. Acad. of Psych. and L.* 65 (1984).

Footnote: 9

Shelly Levin, et al., “A Controlled Comparison of Involuntarily Hospitalized Medication Refusers and Acceptors,” 19 Bull. of the Am. Acad. of Psych. and L. 161, 169 (1991); J.D. Bloom, J. Williams, C. Land, et al, “Treatment Refusal Procedures and Service Utilization: A Comparison of Involuntarily Hospitalized Populations,” 25 J. of the Am.. Acad. of Psych. and L. 349 (1991).

Footnote: 10

Irwin Hassenfeld and Barbara Grumet, supra. n. 8 (treatment refusers stayed in the community twice as long before their next hospitalization than treatment compliant patients).

Footnote: 11

J.A. Kasper, Steven Hoge, T. Feucht–Haviar, J.Cortina, et al, “Prospective Study of Patient Refusal of Antipsychotic Medication Under a Physician Discretion Review Procedure,” 15 J. of Psych. 483–89 (1997); P. Rodenhauser, C. Schwenker, and H. Khamis, supra.

Footnote: 12

F. Cournos, K. McKinnon, and B. Stanley, supra n.8 (half the patients in both the treatment compliant and forcibly medicated groups remained continuously institutionalized for the two year period of the study).