1 GLUCK LAW FIRM P.C. Jeffrey S. Gluck (SBN 304555) 123 N. Kings Road #6 Los Angeles, California 90048 3 Telephone: 310.776.7413 4 ERIKSON LAW GROUP David Alden Erikson (SBN 189838) Antoinette Waller (SBN 152895) 200 North Larchmont Boulevard Los Angeles, California 90004 Telephone: 323.465.3100 6 7 Facsimile: 323.465.3177 8 Attorneys for Plaintiff 9 10 UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT 11 CENTRAL DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA, WESTERN DIVISION 12 13 ADRIAN FALKNER, an individual; Case No. 2:18-cv-00549-SVW-JPR 14 Plaintiff, Honorable Stephen V. Wilson 15 PLAINTIFF'S OPPOSITION TO v. MOTION FOR SUMMARY 16 GENERAL MOTORS LLC; and DOES **JUDGMENT** 1-10 inclusive. 17 July 23, 2018 Date: Defendant. Time: 1:30 pm 18 10A Courtroom: Plaintiff Adrian Falkner respectfully submits this memorandum in opposition 19 to Defendant General Motors LLC's ("GM") Motion for Summary Judgement, Or 20 In The Alternative, Partial Summary Judgment (the "Motion"). GM's Motion is 21 22 based on two grounds: (1) that 17 U.S.C. § 120(a) ("Section 120(a)"), a statute 23 permitting photography of works protected by architectural copyrights, represents a complete defense to Plaintiff's copyright infringement claim and can be established 24 25 as a matter of law; and (2) that Defendant can conclusively negate the intent element of Plaintiff's 17 U.S.C. 1202(b) ("Section 1202") claim for removal of copyright 26 management information ("CMI"). 27 28

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I. INTRODUCTION

Both of GM's grounds for summary judgment fail.

Section 120(a)'s photography exception does not apply to Plaintiff's mural.

As a threshold matter, GM cannot rely on the Section 120(a) defense because it has not shown that the parking garage housing Plaintiff's mural (the "Mural") qualifies as a protected "architectural work." Section 120(a) does not apply to all structures. To qualify, the work must include some degree of originality, and be something more than a functional combination of "standard features." Further, as the Federal Circuit found in 2010, structures that humans "access" but do not "occupy" (such as bridges and pedestrian walkways) are excluded from copyright protections. GM is not entitled to summary judgment because it makes no attempt to show these fact-intensive standards are met.

Even if the parking garage were an architectural work, GM's Section 120(a) defense would fail because it relies on a fundamental misunderstanding of the Architectural Works Copyright Protection Act (the "AWCPA," which added Section 120(a) to the code), and because under no stretch of the imagination, could Plaintiff's Mural be such an integral part of the parking garage architecture that they become part of one unitary architectural work.

In 1990, Congress for the first time expanded copyright protection to architectural works via the AWCPA—as was required for the U.S. to become a signatory to the Berne Convention. The legislation only *expanded* copyright protection—although it took back a bit of what it gave. Not wanting to turn every tourist at Walt Disney Concert Hall into an infringer, legislators wisely limited this expansion of copyright protection by specifically allowing photography *of architectural works* (which Congress determined was consistent with Berne). In other words, the legislation was not motivated by a desire to protect outdoor photography. Rather, it was legislation designed to protect architectural works to the extent required to comply with Berne.

This interpretation of the AWCPA is clear from the statutory language, the legislative history, and all applicable legal authorities. GM's argument that the *Leicester* case holds otherwise could not be more incorrect. The contrary view that GM clings to—that the AWCPA eliminated protection for other works contained in a photograph of an architectural work—is a vastly oversimplified caricature of a view expressed only in Judge Tashima's *Leicester* concurrence. The majority opinion and dissent each reject this view.

No court has ever applied Section 120(a) to somehow immunize infringement of a "pictorial, graphic or sculptural ('PGS') work" work simply because it appears in the same picture as an architectural work. The *Leicester* case actually illustrates this point. There, the plaintiff/artist described his work as sculptural—but the court applied the Section 120 exception only because it found that there was no PGS work—but rather that the work in question was an integral part of a 24-story office building's architecture, and thus simply one part of a unitary architectural work.

Given the extraordinary degree of integration of the plaintiff's purported "sculptural work" into the building's architecture, *Leicester* shows just how rare it will be that a purportedly independent work will be "part of" the architecture in this way. As a threshold matter, this was no mere sculpture. Rather it was a courtyard, garden, public space (including public benches), contained free-standing elements such as a fountain, which was contained by large walls that included decorative three-story high towers (the "Courtyard"). Many of the particulars of the work were mandated by architectural codes imposed by a development agency, and the work was built and planned along with the building. The Courtyard (especially the streetwall and towers) even matched the building's architecture and were made of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The legislative history of the AWCPA shows that Congress was aware of this issue. In a footnote about the special case of stained glass windows (which have a much greater claim to being part and parcel of the building), Congress found that treating the 2-D design as part of the architecture was inappropriate if the artist was someone other than the architect).

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many of the same materials. In fact, the architect collaborated in the Courtyard to such an extent that he was deemed a joint author—and the artist even contractually acknowledged that the Courtyard was a product of his "collaborative design efforts" with the architect. In other words, it was quite a stretch for the artist to call the Courtyard his own sculptural work, as opposed to part of the architecture. Leicester v. Warner Bros., 232 F.3d 1212, 1214 (9th Cir. 2000). Given that the Ninth Circuit panel was applying a clear error standard, it's certainly no surprise that it found 'powerful evidence" that the artist's work was "part of the functional and architectural vocabulary of the building." Id. at 1219. Plaintiff's Mural could not be more dissimilar. It was conceived of after the parking structure was built, has no relationship to the architecture, and plays no

functional role. Its only relation to the architecture of the parking garage is that it is on an elevator shed.

GM has not conclusively established its lack of intent under Section 1202

GM's argument that it has negated the "intent" element of Plaintiff's Section 1202(b) claim (for removal of copyright management information) fails because GM has not conclusively demonstrated lack of the required intent. To the contrary, GM's sole support for its motion—self-serving declarations of the photographer and a GM spokesman claiming general ignorance as to Plaintiff's signature on the Mural—lack credibility and are insufficient as a matter of law to establish the absence of intent. Under well-established principles, summary judgment is inappropriate when based on self-serving reports of lack of intent, and when credibility is at issue. Plaintiff does not rely on general principles: he offers specific evidence that calls into question the accounts of GM's declarants. At very least, Plaintiff is entitled to discovery on these issues.

#### II. GM IS NOT ENTITLED TO SUMMARY JUDGMENT ON PLAINTIFF'S COPYRIGHT INFRINGEMENT CLAIM.

GM is not entitled to summary adjudication on Plaintiff's copyright

infringement claim because it has not established that Section 120(a)'s architectural photography exception applies.

#### A. GM bears a heavy burden.

Where the moving party has the burden—as a defendant does on an affirmative defense—his showing must be sufficient for the court to hold that no reasonable trier of fact could find other than for the moving party. *Southern Calif. Gas Co. v. City of Santa Ana*, 336 F3d 885, 888 (9th Cir. 2003).

#### B. Background of Section 120(a)'s architectural photography exception.

Prior to 1990, the Copyright Act afforded no protection to architectural works. *Leiceste.*, *supra*, 232 F.3d at 1217. Buildings were considered "useful articles," like apparel or furniture, which are not protected by copyright. *Id*.

While the cut of a tee shirt is not protected by copyright (because it is a useful article), a graphic design on a tee shirt is straightforwardly protected. Artistic elements on or attached to a useful article can be protected by copyright if they incorporate pictorial, graphic, or sculptural features that "can be identified separately from, and are capable of existing independently of, the utilitarian aspects of the article." *Star Athletica, L.L.C. v. Varsity Brands, Inc.*, 137 S. Ct. 1002, 1008 (2017). Thus, to take a simple and seminal example, even though a lamp is a useful article, a lamp base in the form or a Balinese dancer is copyrightable because one can imagine it existing on its own. *Mazer v. Stein*, 347 U.S. 201 (1954). In the same way, a painting on a building has always been copyrightable.

On March 1, 1989, the United States joined the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works. The Berne Convention required signatory countries to provide copyright protection for "three–dimensional works relative to ... architecture." 1 Nimmer on Copyright, § 2.20, at 2–213 (quoting Berne Convention (Paris text), art. 2(1)). To comply with this treaty obligation, Congress passed the AWCPA. See H.R. Rep. 101–735, at 4–10 (attached as Exhibit O to Patterson Decl.). The AWCPA added a new category of protected work to the seven that

already existed in 17 U.S.C. 102: architectural works. The definition of "architectural work" (explained in detail below) was added to 17 U.S.C. 101 and supplemented in the Federal Register.

The legislative history of the AWCPA makes clear that its purpose was to do just enough to comply with Berne. H.R. Rep. 101-735, p. 10 ("The implementing legislation [of the Berne Convention] had one simple, but important objective: to make only those changes in U.S. law required to place the United States in compliance with our treaty obligations.")

Worried that full protection for architectural works (like that afforded to all other categories, such as PGS works) would go too far, and finding that Berne did not require such full protection, Congress also enacted a significant limitation on the copyright protection afforded architectural works by also adding 17 U.S.C. 120 to the Act (also as part of the AWCPA). Section 120(a) provides that the holder of one of these new species of copyrights is not entitled to prevent photography of the architectural work (whereas all other copyrights do allow the holder to prohibit distribution photos). Section 120 reads:

The copyright in an architectural work that has been constructed does not include the right to prevent the making, distributing, or public display of pictures, paintings, photographs, or other pictorial representations of the work, if the building in which the work is embodied is located in or ordinarily visible from a public place.

The House Report explains the reason for exempting pictorial representations of architectural works from copyright infringement:

Architecture is a public art form and is enjoyed as such. Millions of people visit our cities every year and take back home photographs, posters, and other pictorial representations of prominent works of architecture as a memory of their trip. Additionally, numerous scholarly books on architecture are based on the ability to use photographs of architectural works. [¶] These uses do not interfere with the normal exploitation of architectural works. Given the important public purpose served by these uses and the lack of harm to the copyright owner's market, the Committee chose to provide an exemption, rather than rely on the doctrine of fair use, which requires ad hoc determinations. After a careful examination of the provisions of the Berne Convention, the laws of other Berne member countries, and expert opinion, the Committee concluded that this exemption is consistent with our

obligations under the Convention. [H.R. Rep. 101–735, at 22.]

# C. As a threshold matter, GM fails to demonstrate the parking garage is an architectural work.

GM's Section 120(a) argument relies on the premise that the parking garage which houses the Mural is indeed an architectural work. But its facile analysis fails to reflect the complexity of the question of whether any given non-traditional structure so qualifies. Not only does GM fail to explain the fact-intensive analytical framework, it offers no evidence (such as images of the structure) in support of its position. Indeed, GM's entire analysis is contained in its footnote 5:

The parking structure constitutes an architectural work because it is a building. 17 U.S.C. §101 (architectural works include "building[s]"). Buildings include "structures 'that are used, but not inhabited by human beings...." *Leicester*, 232 F.3d at 1218. [Motion, at p. 8, fn. 5.]

1. The definition of "architectural work" excludes utilitarian structures, such as bridges and walkways, that humans "access" but do not "occupy."

Copyright protection is limited to "original" works. *Feist Publ'ns, Inc. v. Rural Tel. Serv. Co.*, 499 U.S. 340, 349-50. "Originality" requires independent creation and at least "a modicum of creativity." *Id.* at 346. The post-1990 Copyright Act defines an architectural work as "the design of a building as embodied in any tangible medium of expression, including a building, architectural plans, or drawings." 17 U.S.C. § 101. It includes "the overall form as well as the arrangement and composition of spaces and elements in the design, but does not include individual standard features." *Id.* 

Administrative regulations supplement Section 101's definition. They further define "buildings" (for purposes of Section 12(a) as "humanly habitable structures that are intended to be both permanent and stationary, such as houses and office buildings, and other permanent and stationary structures designed for human occupancy, including but not limited to churches, museums, gazebos, and garden pavilions." 37 C.F.R. § 202.11(b)(2). The definition excludes "[s]tructures other

than buildings, such as bridges, cloverleafs, dams, walkways, tents, recreational vehicles, mobile homes, and boats;" and "standard features, such as windows, doors, and other staple building components." *Id.* § 202.11(d)(1).

The legislative history sheds light on the outer limits of what can be considered an architectural work. Congress tweaked the definition of "architectural works" while considering the new law. In an early draft of the legislation, an "architectural work" was defined as "the design of a building *or other three-dimensional structure*, as embodied in that building or structure." Congress had intended the phrase "three-dimensional structure" to cover cases where architectural works were embodied in innovative structures that defy easy classification. [H.R. 101-735, at 19, 20.] The phrase was removed, however, out of concern that it could be interpreted as covering structures that are almost purely utilitarian—including bridges, cloverleafs, and pedestrian walkways. [Id., at 20.] The committee determined that copyright protection for such works is not necessary to stimulate creativity or prohibit unauthorized reproduction. [Id.] Further, the committee determined that protection for such non-habitable utilitarian structures was not required in order to comply with the Berne Convention—which was the sole purpose of the law in the first place.<sup>2</sup> [Id.]

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> From the Committee Report: The Subcommittee made a second amendment in the definition of architectural work: the deletion of the phrase "or three- dimensional structure." This phrase was included in H.R. 3990 to cover cases where architectural works embodied in innovative structures that defy easy classification. Unfortunately, the phrase also could be interpreted as covering interstate highway bridges, cloverleafs, canals, dams, and pedestrian walkways. The Subcommittee examined protection for these works, some of which form important elements of this nation's transportation system, and determined that copyright protection is not necessary to stimulate creativity or prohibit unauthorized reproduction. [¶]The sole purpose of legislating at this time is to place the United States unequivocally in compliance with its Berne Convention obligations. Protection for bridges and related nonhabitable three-dimensional structures is not required by the Berne Convention. Accordingly, the question of copyright protection for these works can be deferred to another day. As a consequence, the phrase "or other three-dimensional structures" was deleted from the definition of architectural work and from all other places in the bill.

In *Gaylord v. United States*, the Federal Circuit considered the issue of whether the Korean War memorial in Washington D.C. met the definition of an "architectural work" under Section 101. In that case, a sculptor had sued the US Postal Service for copyright infringement based on the sale of stamps bearing a photograph of the sculptural work he created for the Korean War memorial in Washington D.C. *Gaylord v. United States*, 595 F.3d 1364, 1371 (Fed. Cir. 2010). The memorial covers 2.2 acres on the National Mall. It is made up of a 30-foot wide pool framed by two walls—the mural wall, containing images of soldiers, equipment, and people involved in the war; and the United Nations wall, containing the names of the 22 member nations that contributed troops or medical support to the Korean War effort. Between these walls, leading up to the pool, is a series of 19 statutes representing a platoon on patrol amidst blocks of granite depicting the rugged terrain of Korea.

The Postal Service argued that the memorial was an "architectural work," and thus only afforded limited protection under Section 120. *Id.* The lower court rejected this argument because it found that the memorial (or at least the portion depicted in the photograph) was not a "building," and therefore not an architectural work subject to Section 120. *Id.*, at 1381. The court reasoned that the memorial was akin to a walkway or a bridge in that it "permits individuals to access through it, but is not intended for occupancy." *Id.* In affirming the decision, the Federal Circuit found no error in this reasoning, and quoted it with approval. *Id.* 

# 2. The definition of "architectural work" excludes non-creative design and "standard features."

As mentioned above, the definition of "architectural works" also explicitly excludes any "standard features" in a building's design, such as "common windows, doors, and other staple building components." 37 C.F.R. § 202.11(d)(2). The legislative intent behind this restriction was to avoid impeding the progress of architectural innovation by limiting the scope of copyright protection to those

elements of a building's design that reflect the architect's creativity. [H.R. 107-735, at p. 18.]

The legislative history further explains that the Act affords protection only if "the design elements are not functionally required":

A two-stop analysis is envisioned. First, an architectural work should be examined to determine whether there are original design elements present, including overall shape and interior architecture. If such design elements are present, a second step is reached to examine whether the design elements are functionally required. If the design elements are not functionally required, the work is protectable without regard to physical or conceptual separability. [H.R. Rep. No. 101-735, at pp. 20, 21.]

#### **3.** GM fails to establish that the parking garage or elevator shed are not just standard features and function-dictated design.

It is anything but clear that the AWCPA extends copyright protection to the parking garage in question, and/or its elevator shed. Relying on its oversimplified analysis, GM does not bother to describe any creative elements of the garage, or provide any legal analysis on the issue. Accordingly, GM has not established that the parking garage is a copyright-protected architectural work.

Indeed, there are theoretical reasons to doubt that a parking structure could qualify as an architectural work. Parking structures are precisely the type of structure that Congress was concerned would be unnecessarily and improperly protected under the subsequently omitted phrase "other three-dimensional structures." Unlike the "innovative structures" that Congress initially intended to (but ultimately did not) protect, parking structures are not difficult to classify—they are utilitarian structures, the design of which is often dictated almost exclusively by their function: providing convenient parking spots to as many cars as possible. Unlike a house, office building, church, museum, gazebo, or garden pavilion, a parking structure is not designed for human occupancy. Rather, a parking structure is more akin to those structures excluded from the definition of a "building" (i.e. bridges, cloverleafs, dams, walkways) that are not designed for human occupancy,

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but rather to facilitate human transportation and access. Thus, until GM presents far more evidence regarding the design of the garage, it is not established to be an architectural work.

D. Even if the parking garage is an architectural work, Section 120(a) doesn't apply here because the Mural is not an integral part of the architecture.

GM appears to believe that Section 120(a) allows anyone to distribute a photograph of a building, even if the photograph contains other PGS works that would normally be protected by copyright. GM even describes the statute as granting "immunity." [Motion, 2:19-21.] In this way, GM contends that the AWCPA significantly restricts copyrights in non-architectural works. Indeed, if GM's view prevailed, all graffiti art that exists on a building—that is, *most* graffiti art—would suddenly be unprotected by copyright.

1. The plain statutory language, as well as the legislative history, shows that Section 120(a)'s exception limits only the copyrights in architectural works.

The statute provides that "The copyright in an architectural work that has been constructed does not include the right to prevent the making, distributing, or public display of pictures, paintings, photographs, of the work." 17 U.S.C. 120(a). In other words, if someone claims the benefits of one of the newly-minted architectural copyrights, he or she must allow photography of such work. The statute does not suggest that the copyright in any other works, such as a PGS work on or attached to a building, would be limited in any way. The new law was clearly intended only as expanding the scope of protectible works to include new subject matter. There is no indication that anything previously protected by copyright is not still protected. Davidson v. United States, 2017 U.S. Claims LEXIS 841 ("the addition of Section 120 was intended to extend copyright protections, however, not truncate them."); see also Jane C. Ginsberg, Commentary on the Visual Artists Rights Act and the

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Architectural Works Copyright Protection Act of1990, 14 COLUM.- VLAJ.L. &ARTs 477,495 (1990) ("if a building contains elements separately protectable as pictorial, graphic or sculptural works (for example, a gargoyle), the unauthorized pictorial representation of that element may be an infringement of the pictorial, graphic or sculptural work (not of the work of architecture).") 2. The legislative history compels this interpretation. There is no question that the AWCPA was enacted for the sole reason that it was required for the U.S. to become a signatory to Berne Convention. H.R. Rep. 101-735, at p. 20 ("The sole purpose of legislating at this time is to place the United States unequivocally in compliance with its Berne Convention obligations.") The legislative history also leaves no question that Congress intended to do the minimum required to meet Berne's requirements: The implementing legislation [of the Berne Convention] had one simple, but important objective: to make only those changes in U.S. law required to place the United States in compliance with our treaty obligations. H.R. Rep. 101-735, p. 10. In other words, Congress did not intend to change the protectability of pictorial, graphic or sculptural works attached to buildings. This is confirmed by other express language in the legislative history of the AWCPA. Indeed, the House Report states quite directly that separately protectable PGS works may be permanently embodied in architectural works: "The Subcommittee was aware that certain works of authorship which may separately qualify for protection as pictorial, graphic, or sculptural works may be permanently embodied in architectural works. Stained glass windows are one such example." H.R. Rep. 101-735, p. 19, fn. 41. Of such works, the Report makes clear that as long as the architect and artist are different people, each can recover for copyright infringement. Id., at p. 20, fn. 41. **3.** The Ninth Circuit's *Leicester* case compels this interpretation. In Leicester v. Warner Brothers, 232 F.3d 1212 (9th Cir. 2000), an artist

"streetwall" featuring a number of towers topped with decorative designs. Leicester,

collaborated with an architect to design a courtyard, and garden, surrounded by a

232 F.3d at 1214. The Courtyard and surrounding wall were part of the design of an adjoining office building. *Id.* When elements of the streetwall appeared in the defendant's Batman motion picture, the artist sued for infringement of his purported sculptural work. *Id.* at 1213. The court rejected this claim, finding that this was not a sculptural work attached to an architectural work—but rather one unitary architectural work that included the photographed elements. *Id.*, at 1219. Accordingly, the court found unauthorized photography of the architectural work (including the streetwall claimed by the artist plaintiff) was permitted. *Id.*, at 1219-1220.

GM's heavy reliance on the *Leicester* case is misplaced. First, the fact differences in the cases demonstrate why GM's motion fails. In *Leicester*, the building's architecture and the claimed sculptural work (i.e. the streetwall, including the towers) were so intertwined as to be a single work. Perhaps aware of the fundamental and material factual differences, GM turns to abstract legal doctrine they claim can be found in *Leicester*. The problem with this approach is that GM cites largely to Judge Tashima's concurrence on key points on which the other two Judges disagreed. Where GM cites to the majority opinion, it inexplicably interprets it as echoing the concurrence.

# a. Leicester is distinguishable because the purported sculptural work was simply part and parcel of the architecture.

Mr. Leicester's claim failed because his purported sculptural work was just a part of a unitary architectural work (comprising the building and Courtyard), rather than an independent PGS work. This conclusion was based on the extraordinary degree of integration of the Courtyard into the building, including:

The building owner was required by the Los Angeles Community
 Redevelopment Agency (from which it purchased the land) to install public art,
 and to install a "streetwall" to box in the areas between the building and the

- street. *Leicester*, at 1214. The owner chose to meet these obligations by commissioning the Courtyard project. *Id*.
- The Courtyard fulfilled obviously architectural functions, including those mandated by the CRA. *Id.* For example, the CRA required the streetwall to recreate the feeling of traditional downtown streets in which buildings touch each other so as to create a continuous wall on both sides of the street. *Id.*
- The architect and artist worked together on the Courtyard, and entered into a written contract acknowledging that the Courtyard was a product of the collaborative design efforts of the artist and architect. *Id.*, at 1215. Indeed, the trial court even found that the artist and architect were joint authors of some aspects. *Id.*, at 1218.
- The CRA mandated that the Courtyard and building share common artistic and architectural elements—and indeed, the court spent considerable time detailing the ways in which the courtyard aesthetically matched the building. *Id.*, at 1217-1219. To take a one example among many, the court noted that "The streetwall matches the building and gives the impression that the building continues to the end of the property line. The streetwall towers are designed to appear as part of the building." *Id.*<sup>3</sup>

# Two of the three *Leicester* opinions find that a protectable PGS work can exist on or attached to an architectural work.

GM also badly mischaracterizes *Leicester's* three legal opinions. GM cites *Leicester* for the general proposition that Section 120(a) permission to photograph architectural works extends even to bona fide PGS works in the same image. If a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The court also noted "The streetwall towers were designed to extend the building visually, which they do along both Figueroa and Eighth. The Eighth Street smoke towers are equally integrated and serve the same purpose on Eighth as the Figueroa Street smoke towers do on Figueroa. This is powerful evidence that they (together with the additional two lantern towers on Figueroa) are part of the functional and architectural vocabulary of the building." *Leicester*, 232 F.3d, at 1218.

poem were penned on the side of a building, GM believes it would be free to distribute a photograph thereof. More specifically, GM makes the following bold (and utterly misguided) assertions:

- "This right to photograph an architectural work extends to those portions of the work containing pictorial, graphic or sculptural ("PGS") elements." [1:25-27, citing *Leicester* at 1219.]
- A pictorial, graphic or sculptural ("PGS") feature embedded or incorporated into a building is subject to the same pictorial representation exemption as the underlying architectural work That is, a member of the public may photograph a PGS work embedded in the architectural work without liability for copyright infringement. *Id.* This is true regardless of whether the PGS work is "conceptually separable" from the architectural work itself. [8: 9-15, again citing *Leicester* at 1219.]

Based on these assertions, GM finds that "Because Plaintiff's mural is painted onto an architectural work it falls "squarely within the 'pictorial representation' exemption, and his copyright infringement claim should be dismissed" [Motion, 1:28-2:2] and "is immunized from liability for infringement, regardless of whatever PGS elements may be incorporated into the building." [Id., at 12:20-21.]

But as explained below, *Leicester* says no such thing. In fact, these propositions are pulled only from Judge Tashima's concurrence. Not only was Judge Tashima alone in so reasoning, he stopped well short of endorsing the categorial proposition that GM attributes to him (and inexplicably to the majority).

To explain, some explanation of *Leicester's* confusing three-way split is in order. The question that divided the justices (and which arises here) was indeed whether a PGS work that is attached to, or on, an architectural work enjoys the same copyright protection that it did before the AWCPA. The majority opinion did not need to take a position on this abstract issue, because it found there was no PGS work to consider—rather, there was only a unitary architectural work consisting of an office building that included the Courtyard.

Judge Tashima wrote a concurrence because he disagreed with the majority (and dissent) on this point. His view was that Section 120(a)'s permission to

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photograph a building trumped and altered the copyright protections of PGS works embodied in buildings. In other words, he found that protection for architectural 3 works in 17 U.S.C. § 102(a)(8) is now the exclusive remedy for PGS works 4 embodied in an architectural work. *Id.* at 1222. Thus, he would have found for the 5 defendant whether or not a separate PGS work existed. Judge Tashima is the only 6 judge or academic to so reason. 7 Judge Fisher's lengthy dissent offered a muscular argument for precisely the opposite conclusion (which is extremely close to Plaintiff's position here): that 9 Section 120(a) limited only the new species of copyrights enacted at the same time, 10 rather than PGS copyrights as well. As mentioned, Judge Rymer's majority opinion obviously agreed with the 12 concurrence in its ultimate result (no infringement because Section 120(a) applies). 13 And while he need not have taken a position of the question that divided the other Judges, he did in fact break the tie in the dissent's favor. He plainly expressed his 15 view that a protected PGS work could exist on or attached to an architectural work by finding otherwise *only as a matter of fact*: 16 17 Leicester further maintains that the streetwall towers are a sculptural 'conceptually separate' from the building and thus 18 independently entitled to copyright protection. Again, the district court found otherwise, and we cannot say its finding lacks support." *Id*, at 19 1219. 20 Even Justice Tashima stopped well short of the categorical proposition that GM somehow ascribes to the opinions as a whole. He did this by qualifying his 22 argument as applying "at least" where the PGS work is a functionally part of the architectural work: 24 There is ample support in the legislative history of the Act that the protection for architectural works in 17 U.S.C. § 102(a)(8) is now the exclusive remedy for PGS works embodied in an architectural workleast for those PGS works that are so functionally a part of a building 26 that § 120(a)'s exemption would be rendered meaningless for such buildings, if conceptual separability were applied to them. Id., at 1222 (emphasis added).

When the dissent mocked that under Tashima view, "If an artist created even

the smallest painting on the front of a building, she would lose PGS copyright protection in that work," Justice Tashima responded by making clear that he was not announcing a doctrine of such broad and general application, but rather (echoing the majority) one limited to cases where the purported PGS is so integral to the architecture that there is just one unitary work. Justice Tashima explained:

I emphasize the narrow and unique circumstances of this case: Here, the disputed PGS work is the functional equivalent of a building wall, serving the architectural purpose of extending the building line itself, as architecturally-mandated by the CRA. This is a far cry from "the smallest painting on the front of a building," or "painting even a small work on a building," to which the dissent compares the streetwall. See op. at 1232–33, 1233–34. The case the dissent worries about is not before us.... *Id.*, at 1222, fn. 2.

Indeed, Justice Tashima goes on explicitly acknowledge that the artist could well have a PGS copyright in other aspects of the Courtyard project—just not in the streetwall that was used in Batman, which was unquestionably part of the architecture: "the free-standing elements of the [Courtyard] are not at issue in this case." It strains logic to call Judge Tashima's reasoning a bright-line rule—or even a rule at all. He merely found that an element of a unitary architectural work—as determined by a thorough factual investigation—is subject to Section 120.

Again, it is difficult to understand how GM could cite even the concurrence as supporting its categorical assertions, much less a majority. The instant case is actually far more similar to the hypothetical that Judge Tashima backed away from (a painting on a building that is small enough relative to the whole that it cannot be said to play a role in the architecture) than it is to the facts of *Leicester*.

### 4. Plaintiff's mural had nothing to do with architecture.

Under the legal principles laid out above, GM was not privileged to use photographs of Plaintiff's work. The Mural is a straightforward pictorial work, of the sort that has always been protectable. And even if there were instances where a PGS work could lose its protection because it existed on, or was attached to an architectural work, this certainly would not be such a case. Here Plaintiff's Mural

was not integrated into the architecture to any degree, he did not collaborate or even communicate with the architect, and his mural played no functional or architectural role. Furthermore, unlike the alleged infringement in *Leicester*—a wide-angle shot of a city streetscape—GM's photograph depicts no element of the parking structure.

E. At very least, whether the Mural is part of the architecture is a fact issue.

To withstand summary judgment, Plaintiff need not demonstrate that his PGS work is protected by a copyright that has nothing to do with the architectural work which houses it. Given that *Leicester* shows the relevant analysis to be fact-

work is protected by a copyright that has nothing to do with the architectural work which houses it. Given that *Leicester* shows the relevant analysis to be factintensive, it is enough that Plaintiff demonstrates that a fact issue exists as to whether his mural is a separately existing PGS work, or (as in *Leicester*) a unitary architectural work.

And indeed, courts hold that the "singleness" of a work—whether a work

And indeed, courts hold that the "singleness" of a work—whether a work should be analyzed "as a whole," or as "separate works to be considered individually"—is a "factual [finding]. See *Carter v. Helmsley-Spear, Inc.*, 71 F.3d 77, 83 (2d Cir. 1995). Treating this issue as a question of fact is consistent with the Ninth Circuit's treatment of analogous questions: for example, the nature and classification of a work is a question of fact (*Poe v. Missing Persons*, 745 F.2d 1238, 1242 (9th Cir. 1984)); whether copyrightable expression by two different authors have merged into a unitary whole is a question of fact (*S.O.S., Inc. v. Payday, Inc.*, 886 F.2d 1081, 1086 (9th Cir. 1989)); and whether episodes of a television series should be considered "separate works" or parts of "one work" for purposes of statutory damages is factual (*Columbia Pictures Television v. Krypton Broadcasting*, 106 F.3d 284, 295 (9th Cir. 1997), rev'd on other grounds, *Feltner v. Columbia Pictures Television, Inc.*, 118 S. Ct. 1279 (1998)).

## III. DEFENDANT IS NOT ENTITLED TO SUMMARY JUDGMENT ON PLAINTIFF'S SECTION 1202 CLAIM

GM admits that it posted a photograph of Plaintiff's Mural on multiple GM social media sites and did so without Plaintiff's permission. [GM Answer, Dkt 23,

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ECF p. 2, ¶3.] GM also admits the posting was part of a GM advertising campaign. Id., p. 5, ¶17; see, also, ¶¶18-21.] In moving for summary judgment, GM further acknowledges as uncontroverted facts that copyright management information ("CMI") in the form of Plaintiff's signature and pseudonym exists on the Mural but was not included in GM's unauthorized posting of the Mural. [SUF 17, 21.] Despite these admissions, GM argues that it cannot be liable for violation of Section 1202 because it did not "intentionally" or "knowingly" remove Plaintiff's signature when it posted the Mural. But GM's proffered evidence fails to conclusively establish any such defense because the only support GM provides two vague and self-serving witness declarations denying any willful conduct—are inconclusive and lack credibility. In other words, fact issues remain. GM fails to provide competent evidence of its asserted lack of intent. In seeking summary judgment based on its alleged lack of knowledge and intent in removing Plaintiff's CMI, one would expect GM to offer first-hand declarations from its decision-makers stating that they had no knowledge that the Mural included Plaintiff's signature. And indeed, GM argues in its Motion that: No one at General Motors who was responsible for the photo's being posted was aware that: i) the mural covered an additional pictured in the photograph; ii) the portion of the mural on the additional wall contained the "Smash137" signature or Plaintiff's name.... SUF 22, 23, 26 [Motion, ECF p. 12, ll. 16-23.] If the uncontroverted facts were as GM stated, GM might be onto something. But GM's declarations, inexplicably, do not support this assertion regarding **GM staff's state of mind.** Rather, GM offers only the declaration of its employee Donny Nordlicht, whose title is not provided but who explains he is "responsible for Product and Technology *communications* for Cadillac." In other words, he is a spokesman, not a decision-maker. Mr. Nordlicht purports to declare as to the state of mind of the relevant members of GM's staff (who are not named but are said to be responsible for the post in question), asserting: "at the time GM staff received the

photograph and at the time GM staff arranged for it to be posted on social media,

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GM staff had no idea that the mural covered another wall." [Nordlicht Decl., ¶7.] Mr. Nordlicht makes no claim that he was among this group of decision-makers—and he fails to explain how he knew their states of mind.

This evidence is of course objectionable as not first hand—and thus comes nowhere near establishing GM's ignorance of Plaintiff's CMI or lack of intent (especially given the high standard applicable to a party moving for summary judgment). GM may be liable under Section 1202 if even only one member of the group of unnamed GM decision-makers had reason to believe that the Mural was signed. *Agence Fr. Presse v. Morel*, 934 F. Supp. 2d 547, 578 (S.D.N.Y. 2013) (Section 1202 claim may be successful if at least one participant had knowledge of missing CMI).

B. GM's summary judgment motion also fails because it turns on GM's witnesses' credibility, a matter inappropriate for summary judgment.

Even if GM's key decision-makers had submitted declarations, it would not conclusively establish lack of intent. A party is not entitled to summary adjudication on a state of mind issue based only on self-serving declarations—especially before discovery and especially where there are good reasons to question the declarations.

1. Summary judgment is inappropriate where credibility is at issue, especially with regard to reports of a declarant's state of mind.

"[S]summary judgment is singularly inappropriate where credibility is at issue." SEC v. M & A West, Inc. (9th Cir. 2008) 538 F.3d 1043, 1054-1055 (internal quotes omitted); see also Deville v. Marcantel (5th Cir. 2009) 567 F.3d 156, 165. Thus, summary judgment is denied where an issue as to a material fact cannot be resolved without observation of the demeanor of witnesses to evaluate their credibility. Anderson v. Liberty Lobby, Inc., 477 U.S. 242, 248, (1986) (summary judgment will be denied where a reasonable fact-finder could return a verdict for the non-moving party).

This is all the more so when the issue in question is a party's state of mind.

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"[W]here motive and intent are important, proof is largely in the hands of the alleged conspirators, and relevant information is controlled by hostile witnesses," summary judgment is disfavored. International Healthcare Mgmt. v. Hawaii Coalition for Health, 332 F.3d 600, 604 (9th Cir. 2003) (internal citations omitted). See also Ferrell v. Harris Ventures, Inc., 812 F. Supp. 2d 741, 748 (E.D. Va. 2011) ("Questions of intent are hard to decide on summary judgment. They are almost always inferential, and best left to the trier of fact"); Wallace v. DTG Operations, Inc., 442 F.3d 1112, 1117–118 (8th Cir. 2006) ("although Rule 56 contains only one standard, we must exercise particular caution when examining the factual question of intent to ensure that we dutifully extend all justifiable inferences in favor of the non-moving party"). Courts have applied this doctrine Section 1202's intent requirement. In Friedman v Live Nation, a Ninth Circuit panel denied summary judgment on a Section 1202 claim, based on these principles. Friedman v. Live Nation Merch., Inc., 833 F.3d 1180 (9th Cir. 2016) ("Friedman"). The Friedman court found that an "assessment of a party's state of mind," required for a Section 1202 analysis, is usually inappropriate for summary judgment. *Id.* at 1186. The court further held that defendant need not be the party that removed the CMI to be liable under Section 1202, only that defendant knew CMI had been removed. *Id.*, at 1187. Unless a Section 1202 defendant presents conclusive and irrefutable proof that it had no knowledge CMI was removed or altered, it may not prevail on summary judgment. Id., at 1187-1189. Even GM's marquee case illustrates this point. Stevens v. Corelogic, Inc., 194 F.Supp.3d 1046, 1052-1053 (S.D. Cal. 2016), aff'd \_\_\_\_ F.3d. \_\_\_\_ (9th Cir. June 20, 2018) ("Corelogic") supports the proposition that when a plaintiff has shown that CMI exists, as GM admits here, a defendant may not obtain summary judgment based on self-serving declarations claiming it lacked intent in removing CMI. This is so because "[c]redibility determinations, the weighing of the evidence, and the

drawing of legitimate inferences from the facts are jury functions, not those of a judge, when he or she is ruling on a motion for summary judgment." *Corelogic*, 194 F.Supp.3d at 1047. See, also, *Agence Fr. Presse v. Morel*, 934 F. Supp. 2d at 577-78 (when determining summary judgment on a Section 1202 claim, a court may not consider any evidence a jury is not *required to believe* and may not make credibility judgments).

### 2. GM's declarations are flimsy and self-serving—and there is good reason to doubt them.

Here, Bernstein's and Nordlicht's unsupported assertions that unnamed decision-makers were "unaware" of Plaintiff's signature on his Mural—a signature that is, by GM's own admission, bold and easily identifiable (Declaration of Paul Margolis, ¶5 and Exhibit D)—are less than credible on their face and may not form the basis of summary judgment. Further, there are good affirmative reasons to doubt these assertions. Indeed, the flimsy declarations GM offers are called into question by GM's wide-ranging working relationship with photographer Bernstein (which Bernstein and Nordlicht fail to mention), and GM's use of other graffiti themed advertisements for the very same car, the Cadillac XT5.

With regard to Bernstein's relationship with GM, there is reason to believe it was much more extensive that GM's declarants let on. As GM tells it, Bernstein just happened to be coming to Detroit, where he happened to borrow a GM car (which GM allowed as a courtesy), and then happened to take the photograph in question in front of Plaintiff's Mural which he sent to GM. [Bernstein Decl., ¶¶ 4-10] GM further offers no explanation of why Bernstein sought a car from GM or why GM was inclined to provide the newly debuting 2017 Cadillac XT5 to Bernstein for his use free of charge during his Detroit trip. Bernstein states that he "knew about" auto companies maintaining "press fleets" of vehicles for "publicity purposes," but he provides no explanation of why GM would be inclined to loan Bernstein such a vehicle—especially a newly debuting model. [Bernstein Decl., ¶5.]

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A simple internet search reveals that Bernstein has done a good deal of work for GM. For instance, in early 2016, there are several posts on Mr. Bernstein's 3 Instagram account featuring images from a photoshoot promoting GM's Chevrolet 4 Camaro, and another featuring a photo of a Cadillac CTS-V. [Patterson Decl. ¶ 13, 5 Exh. L.] And again, in October 2016, Mr. Bernstein directed a short promotional film for the Cadillac CTS-V. [Patterson Decl. ¶ 14, Exh. M.] Most recently, Mr. 6 Bernstein was chosen to photograph GM's 2019 Corvette ZR1 for its global launch. [Patterson Decl. ¶ 15, Exh. N.] 8 9 Evidence also reveals that GM's assertion that Bernstein alone chose to use 10 the mural in his photograph is not credible. GM regularly used graffiti in advertisements for the XT5 and similar SUVs—beginning at least as early as August 12 2016. [See Patterson Decl. ¶¶ 4, 5 Exhs. C, D.] Additionally, the timing of GM's use 13 of Plaintiff's mural coincided with other graffiti-themed Cadillac promotions. Specifically, GM posted the photo of Plaintiff's mural on November 29, 2016 [CITE 15 GM's motion/decl.]. Three days later, GM posted photos and videos from an event it 16 hosted at the December 2016 Art Basel fair in Miami Beach, showing an artist creating a graffiti-style painting on a Cadillac SUV. [Patterson Decl., ¶¶ 6-8, Exhs. 18 E-G.] These images—including that of Plaintiff's mural—were re-posted to other GM social media accounts. [Id., at ¶¶ 9, 10; Exhs. H, I.] 19 20 In addition, and fatal to GM's summary judgment motion, Plaintiff has uncovered evidence that GM through the present, continues to distribute the infringing photograph without the copyright management information on GM's social media platforms. [Patterson Decl., ¶ 9, Exh. H.] This precludes summary 24 judgment for GM as a matter of law. Goldstein v. Metro. Reg'l Info. Sys., Inc., No. 15-CV-2400, 2016 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 106735, 2016 WL 4257457, at \*8 (D. Md. 25 26 Aug. 11, 2016) (finding that defendant's continued promotion of infringing content with altered CMI despite receiving cease and desist notice sufficed to sustain a

Section 1202 claim); see also Aaberg v. Francesca's Collections, Inc., No. 17-CV-

115 (AJN), 2018 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 50778, at \*25 (S.D.N.Y. Mar. 27, 2018).

## 3. GM fails to establish Bernstein was not acting as GM's agent when he took the infringing photograph.

GM posits as an uncontroverted fact that Bernstein, was not "an employee or agent" of GM. [SUF No. 6.] The only basis for this key assertion (which GM hopes will negate the possibility of vicarious liability) is again Bernstein's declaration. [Id.] The relationship between GM and Bernstein however, as suggested above, is far from established. The photographer simply declares, without any background information or explanation, that "at no time in 2016 was I ever an employee or agent of Cadillac or GM." [Bernstein Decl., ¶ 3.] These are improper conclusions, not material statements of fact. Bernstein admits that he is a "professional automotive photographer," who works on a "freelance basis." [Id. at ¶ 1.] Left unstated is what Bernstein's "freelance basis" of work entails. GM and Bernstein also fail to state whether Bernstein ever worked on a "freelance basis" for GM.

But as mentioned above, there is much more to the GM-Bernstein relationship than GM has disclosed. Whether full information would create be a basis for vicarious liability (based on an agency or employment relationship) cannot be ruled out, especially prior to discovery. The missing information is essential to understand the relationship between GM and Bernstein. Whether Bernstein was acting as an agent for GM when Bernstein took the infringing photograph and GM's resulting liability for Bernstein's actions and imputation of Bernstein's knowledge remain disputed issues that preclude GM's summary judgment.

### C. Plaintiff is entitled to discovery on GM's knowledge and intent.

Federal Rule of Civil Procedure 56(d) provides:

If a nonmovant shows by affidavit or declaration that, for specified reasons, it cannot present facts essential to justify its opposition the court may: (1) defer considering the motion or deny it; (2) allow time to obtain affidavits or declarations or to take discovery; or (3) issue any other appropriate order. [Fed. R. Civ. Pro. 56(d).]

Plaintiff has been afforded no opportunity to conduct discovery. [Patterson

Decl., ¶16.] As discussed in Section IV(C) above, Plaintiff challenges the vague and conclusory statements in the Bernstein and Nordlicht declarations and has presented evidence calling into question that testimony. Plaintiff is entitled to discover the facts and circumstances surrounding GM's infringement of Plaintiff's Mural, including the relationship between Bernstein and GM, and the infringing photograph's creation and use by GM to promote the XT5.

In his concurrently-filed declaration, Plaintiff's counsel Ryan Patterson further explains the need for discovery, and proposes specific discovery. For example, Plaintiff seeks (1) to depose Mr. Nordlicht and Mr. Bernstein on the issues described above, (2) information on the identity of the GM decisionmakers described in the Nordlicht declaration, (3) and seeks discovery of relevant communications between GM and Bernstein, including emails described but not attached to the Bernstein declaration

In contrast to GM's self-serving and limited-information declarations, the requested discovery will reveal GM's actual statements and activity at the time the infringing photograph was created and posted. Plaintiff is entitled to this discovery to explore GM's true intent and knowledge surrounding Plaintiff's copyright management information. The discovery is necessary to prevent Plaintiff from being "railroaded" by a premature motion for summary judgment. *Celotex Corp. v. Catrett* (1986) 477 US 317, 106 S.Ct. 2548, 2554; *Rivera-Torres v. Rey-Hernandez*, 502 F.3d 7, 10 (1st Cir. 2007) (Rule allowing discovery by non-movant to marshal the facts safeguards against "judges swinging the summary judgment axe too hastily.").

Accordingly, if the Court is not inclined to deny GM's summary judgment on the current record, Plaintiff requests the opportunity to take the requested discovery before a final ruling is made.

#### IV. PUNITIVE DAMAGES COULD BE AVIALABLE

Plaintiff moves for "for partial summary judgment on Plaintiff's claim for punitive damages, on the grounds that punitive damages are never available with

respect for copyright infringement. But there is no such categorical rule. Indeed, where (as here) statutory damages are not available, some courts find that precedent does not to "categorically foreclose the availability of punitive damages under the Copyright Act," at least "provided the requisite malice is indicated." TVT Records v. Island Def Jam Music Group, 262 F. Supp. 2d 185, 187 (S.D.N.Y. 2003). Because it again offers no factual analysis, GM has not conclusively established that punitive damages are unavailable. V. **CONCLUSION** For the foregoing reasons, Defendant's Motion should be denied. **DATED:** July 2, 2018 **ERIKSON LAW GROUP** By: /s/**David Erikson** Attorneys for Plaintiff