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13 UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT  
14 NORTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

16 hiQ Labs, Inc.,  
17 *Plaintiff and Counterclaim*  
18 *Defendant,*

19 vs.

20 LinkedIn Corp.,  
21 *Defendant and Counterclaim*  
22 *Plaintiff.*

Case No. 3:17-cv-03301-EMC

**PLAINTIFF AND COUNTERCLAIM  
DEFENDANT HIQ LABS, INC.'S MOTION  
TO DISMISS AND STRIKE IN PART  
DEFENDANT AND COUNTERCLAIM  
PLAINTIFF LINKEDIN CORP.'S  
COUNTERCLAIMS**

Judge: Hon. Edward M. Chen  
Hearing Date: April 8, 2021  
Hearing Time: 1:30 p.m.

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1 **NOTICE OF MOTION AND MOTION**

2 PLEASE TAKE NOTICE THAT on April 8, 2021 at 1:30 p.m., or as soon thereafter as may  
3 be heard, before the Honorable Edward M. Chen in Courtroom 5, 17th Floor, 450 Golden Gate  
4 Avenue, San Francisco, CA 94102, Plaintiff and Counterclaim Defendant hiQ Labs, Inc. (“hiQ”) will  
5 and hereby does move this Court for an order dismissing the Counterclaims filed by Defendant and  
6 Counterclaim Plaintiff LinkedIn Corp. (ECF No. 170 (LinkedIn’s Answer and Counterclaims or  
7 “ACC”)). This motion is made pursuant to Federal Rule of Civil Procedure 12(b)(6) and Federal Rule  
8 of Civil Procedure 12(f) and is based upon the following Memorandum of Points and Authorities; the  
9 argument of counsel; and any additional material as may be submitted to the Court before decision.  
10 hiQ seeks an order dismissing LinkedIn’s counterclaims with prejudice for failure to state a claim  
11 upon which relief can be granted and striking in part LinkedIn’s request for remedies for its claim of  
12 breach of contract.

13 **PRELIMINARY STATEMENT**

14 LinkedIn’s counterclaims against hiQ are a transparent attempt by LinkedIn to pose as a  
15 defender of user privacy by characterizing hiQ as a “scraper” and a “free rider.” But as the Ninth  
16 Circuit previously found, “LinkedIn’s own actions undercut its argument[s]” regarding user privacy.  
17 *hiQ Labs, Inc. v. LinkedIn Corp.*, 938 F.3d 985,994-95 (9th Cir. 2019). Far from crusading for justice,  
18 LinkedIn is campaigning for its own bottom line and improperly attempting to use its counterclaims to  
19 shut down fair competition. LinkedIn’s counterclaims fail to state a claim against hiQ and must be  
20 dismissed, and LinkedIn’s request for injunctive or continuing remedies for its claim of breach of  
21 contract should be struck.

22 *First*, LinkedIn fails to state a claim under the Computer Fraud and Abuse Act because, under  
23 the Ninth Circuit’s opinion in this case (and opinions that have followed it since), “accessing publicly  
24 available data” does not “constitute access without authorization under the CFAA.” *Id.* at 1003. As  
25 LinkedIn cannot allege that the data accessed by hiQ was not accessible to the general public,  
26 LinkedIn’s claim must be dismissed.

27 *Second*, LinkedIn fails to state a claim under the California Comprehensive Computer Data  
28 Access and Fraud Act because such claims “rise or fall” with claims under the Computer Fraud and

1 Abuse Act. *Brodsky v. Apple Inc.*, 445 F. Supp. 3d 110, 131 (N.D. Cal. 2020) (internal quotations  
2 omitted). As such, LinkedIn’s CDAFA claim must be dismissed.

3 *Third*, while LinkedIn purports to state a claim for ongoing breaches by hiQ of LinkedIn’s  
4 User Agreement that entitle LinkedIn to injunctive relief, hiQ is no longer a user of LinkedIn and thus  
5 is not bound by LinkedIn’s User Agreement. As such, LinkedIn’s claim that hiQ “continues to”  
6 breach the User Agreement should be dismissed, and any claim for injunctive relief or for relief  
7 accrued past the date of termination of the User Agreement should be struck.

8 *Fourth*, LinkedIn fails to state a claim for misappropriation of “data from the LinkedIn site,”  
9 because LinkedIn has not and cannot allege that it owned the allegedly misappropriated data. In  
10 addition, to the extent LinkedIn alleges that hiQ misappropriated data that is non-public or would not  
11 be public but for LinkedIn’s efforts, LinkedIn’s claim would be preempted by the California Uniform  
12 Trade Secret Act.

13 *Fifth and finally*, LinkedIn fails to state a claim for trespass to chattels because LinkedIn does  
14 not allege demonstrable, compensable harm.

15 For each of the foregoing reasons, LinkedIn has failed to state a counterclaim against hiQ and  
16 hiQ respectfully requests that the Court grant its motion to dismiss LinkedIn’s counterclaims and its  
17 motion to strike with prejudice.

### 18 **BACKGROUND & PROCEDURAL HISTORY**

19 hiQ was formed in July 2012 to serve previously-unmet needs among employers (particularly  
20 large employers, such as Fortune 500 companies) to assist in employee development and retention by  
21 analyzing the full scope of current and potential employees’ skills and identifying those employees  
22 that were at the highest risk of leaving the company. (ECF No. 131 at 2-3.) hiQ did so by researching  
23 and utilizing wholly public information individuals chose to share via their professional social  
24 networking on LinkedIn, a site focused on business and professional networking that currently has  
25 over 500 million users. (*Id.* at 3.) LinkedIn permits users to upload a wide variety of professional  
26 content to its service and to choose their preferred level of privacy protection for that information.  
27 LinkedIn users may choose to keep their profiles (or portions of their profiles) entirely private, or to  
28 make them viewable by: (1) their direct connections on the site; (2) a broader network of indirect

1 connections; (3) all of LinkedIn's users; or (4) the entire public. In all cases, and according to  
2 LinkedIn's User Agreement, LinkedIn *users* own the content and information that they post to  
3 LinkedIn, not LinkedIn itself. *See* User Agreement<sup>1</sup>, § 3.1.

4 hiQ does not analyze the private sections of LinkedIn, such as profile information that is only  
5 visible to signed-in users, or users' non-public data that is visible only to other users with whom they  
6 are "connected." (ECF No. 131 at 3.) Rather, hiQ uses software to access and analyze wholly public  
7 information visible to anyone on the internet without logging into the service.

8 For years, LinkedIn knew about and sanctioned hiQ's services and activities, including by  
9 attending hiQ's own conferences. (*Id.*) As hiQ grew, however, LinkedIn apparently decided that it  
10 wanted to profit from providing the same type of innovative and revolutionary analytics hiQ  
11 pioneered, and it developed its own competing version of that analytics service. In conjunction with  
12 that development, in May 2017, LinkedIn abruptly denied hiQ access to the portion of the LinkedIn  
13 website containing wholly public user profiles. (*Id.* at 4.) And on May 23, 2017, LinkedIn sent hiQ a  
14 cease-and-desist letter ordering hiQ to stop accessing LinkedIn and asserting that hiQ's continued  
15 access to the website violated the Computer Fraud and Abuse Act ("CFAA"), Digital Millennium  
16 Copyright Act ("DMCA") and California Penal Code § 502(c) (the "CDAFA") and constituted  
17 common law trespass to chattels. (*See* ECF No. 23-1 Ex. J.)

18 Deprived of access to the data that provides the foundation of its analytics, hiQ filed a  
19 complaint against LinkedIn on June 7, 2017, seeking a declaration that hiQ had not violated and  
20 would not violate federal or state law, including the CFAA, DMCA, and CDAFA, by accessing and  
21 copying wholly public information from LinkedIn's website. (ECF No. 1 at 1.) hiQ also moved for  
22

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23 <sup>1</sup> LinkedIn's User Agreement is an exhibit to, and incorporated in, hiQ's First Amended  
24 Complaint. (ECF No. 131 (hiQ's First Amended Complaint) at ¶ 20; ECF No. 131-1 (January 6, 2020  
25 LinkedIn User Agreement).) The User Agreement is also referenced numerous times in LinkedIn's  
26 counterclaims (*see* ACC at 29 (¶¶ 7, 8), 31 (¶ 13), 35-36 (¶¶ 36, 37, 38, 41, 43), 37 (¶¶ 51, 52, 53))  
27 and is cited therein via internet hyperlink (*id.* ¶ 36 n.10 (citing User Agreement available at  
28 <https://www.linkedin.com/legal/user-agreement>)). As such, the User Agreement may be considered  
by this Court on a motion to dismiss. *Beverly Oaks Physicians Surgical Center, LLC v. Blue Cross  
and Blue Shield of Illinois*, 983 F.3d 435, 439 (2020) (on a motion to dismiss, courts may "consider  
materials that are submitted with and attached to the complaint; judicial notice of matters of public  
record; and unattached evidence on which the complaint necessarily relies if: (1) the complaint refers  
to the document; (2) the document is central to the plaintiff's claim; and (3) no party questions the  
authenticity of the document.") (internal quotation omitted).

1 injunctive relief to prohibit LinkedIn from preventing hiQ’s access, copying, or use of public profiles  
2 on LinkedIn’s website. (ECF No. 3; see also ECF No. 23 (hiQ’s Renewed Motion for Temporary  
3 Restraining Order).)

4 On August 14, 2017, this Court granted hiQ’s request for preliminary injunction. This Court  
5 determined that the “key question” presented by hiQ’s motion was “whether visiting and collecting  
6 information from a publicly available website may be deemed ‘access’ to a computer ‘without  
7 authorization’ within the meaning of the CFAA where the owner of the web site has selectively  
8 revoked permission.” (ECF No. 63 at 10.) The Court held that it was not.

9 Following an extensive analysis, this Court concluded that the CFAA, which was enacted as an  
10 anti-hacking statute, “was not intended to police traffic to publicly available websites on the Internet.”  
11 (*Id.* at 10.) As such, the Court had “serious doubts whether LinkedIn’s revocation of permission to  
12 access the public portions of its site render[ed] hiQ’s access ‘without authorization’ within the  
13 meaning of the CFAA.” (*Id.* at 15.) The Court was similarly skeptical of LinkedIn’s claim that the  
14 CFAA should at least be read to limit hiQ’s automatic scraping of data, finding that “‘authorization,’  
15 as used in CFAA § 1030(a)(2), is most naturally read in reference to the *identity* of the person  
16 accessing the computer or website, not *how* access occurs.” (*Id.* (emphasis in original).) As such, a  
17 “user does not “access” a computer ‘without authorization’ by using bots, even in the face of technical  
18 countermeasures, when the data it accesses is otherwise open to the public.” (*Id.* at 16.) Therefore,  
19 the Court concluded that hiQ had raised serious questions as to the merits of its claims for declaratory  
20 relief under the CFAA.

21 The Court also concluded that hiQ had raised serious questions going to the merits of its  
22 affirmative claim under the California Unfair Competition Law, that public interest favored a  
23 preliminary injunction, that hiQ had established irreparable harm absent an injunction, and that the  
24 balance of hardships tipped “sharply in hiQ’s favor.” (*Id.* at 7, 25.) This Court ordered LinkedIn to  
25 withdraw its cease-and-desist letters, and enjoined LinkedIn from preventing or blocking hiQ’s access,  
26 copying, or use of public profiles on LinkedIn’s website. (*Id.* at 25.)

27 LinkedIn immediately appealed this Court’s preliminary injunction. (ECF No. 72.) On  
28 September 9, 2019, the Ninth Circuit issued an opinion affirming hiQ’s right to access public



1 information individuals chose to share on LinkedIn. *hiQ Labs, Inc. v. LinkedIn Corp.*, 938 F.3d 985  
2 (9th Cir. 2019).

3 In pertinent part for this Motion, the Ninth Circuit affirmed this Court’s conclusion that hiQ  
4 had raised serious questions going to the merits of LinkedIn’s defense based on the CFAA. As had  
5 this Court, the Ninth Circuit found that the “pivotal CFAA question here is whether once hiQ received  
6 LinkedIn’s cease-and-desist letter, any further scraping and use of LinkedIn’s data was ‘without  
7 authorization’ within the meaning of the CFAA and thus a violation of the statute.” *Id.* at 999. The  
8 Court found that the “wording of the statute” suggested that it applied where the “baseline [was that]  
9 access is not generally available and so permission is ordinarily required.” *Id.* at 1000. As such, the  
10 Court found that “the prohibition on unauthorized access is properly understood to apply only to  
11 private information—information delineated as private through use of a permission requirement of  
12 some sort.” *Id.* at 1001. By contrast, “[i]t is likely that when a computer network generally permits  
13 public access to its data, a user’s accessing that publicly available data will not constitute access  
14 without authorization under the CFAA.” *Id.* at 1003. As “[t]he data hiQ seeks to access is not owned  
15 by LinkedIn and has not been demarcated by LinkedIn as private using such an authorization system,”  
16 hiQ had “therefore raised serious questions about whether LinkedIn may invoke the CFAA.” *Id.* at  
17 1003-04. The Ninth Circuit also found that the balance of hardships posed by an injunction “tip[ped]  
18 decidedly” in hiQ’s favor and affirmed the issuance of the injunction. *Id.* at 995.

19 After the Ninth Circuit remanded the case to this Court, hiQ filed an amended complaint,  
20 which reasserted hiQ’s claims for declaratory judgment and asserted antitrust claims under the  
21 Sherman and Clayton Acts. (ECF No. 131.) LinkedIn moved to dismiss hiQ’s antitrust claims and all  
22 claims for damages, asserting that its conduct was protected by the *Noerr-Pennington* doctrine and  
23 California litigation privilege. (ECF No. 137.)

24 The Court denied LinkedIn’s motion to dismiss on the basis of the *Noerr-Pennington* doctrine  
25 or California litigation privilege, but granted LinkedIn’s motion to dismiss the antitrust claims on the  
26 basis that hiQ had failed to adequately allege a product market or anticompetitive conduct by  
27 LinkedIn. (ECF No. 158 at 21.) LinkedIn filed its answer and counterclaims on November 11, 2020.  
28 (ECF No. 170.)

1 LinkedIn asserts five counterclaims against hiQ: under the Computer Fraud and Abuse Act (18  
 2 U.S.C. § 1030, the “CFAA”) and the California Comprehensive Computer Data Access and Fraud Act  
 3 (Cal. Penal Code § 520 et seq. (the “CDAFA”)), and for breach of contract, misappropriation, and  
 4 trespass to chattels.<sup>2</sup> hiQ now respectfully moves this Court for an order dismissing LinkedIn’s  
 5 counterclaims.

### 6 LEGAL STANDARD

7 “To survive a motion to dismiss, a complaint must contain sufficient factual matter, accepted  
 8 as true, to ‘state a claim to relief that is plausible on its face.’” *Ashcroft v. Iqbal*, 556 U.S. 662, 678  
 9 (2009) (quoting *Bell Atl. Corp. v. Twombly*, 550 U.S. 544, 570 (2007)). “A claim has facial  
 10 plausibility when the plaintiff pleads factual content that allows the court to draw the reasonable  
 11 inference that the defendant is liable for the misconduct alleged.” *Iqbal*, 556 U.S. at 678.  
 12 “Plausibility requires pleading facts, as opposed to conclusory allegations,” *Somers v. Apple, Inc.*, 729  
 13 F.3d 953, 959 (9th Cir. 2013), and “[f]actual allegations must be enough to raise a right to relief above  
 14 the speculative level.” *Twombly*, 550 U.S. at 555. Plausibility requires “more than a sheer possibility  
 15 that a defendant has acted unlawfully,” and “[w]here a complaint pleads facts that are merely  
 16 consistent with a defendant’s liability, it stops short of the line between possibility and plausibility of  
 17 entitlement to relief.” *Iqbal*, 556 U.S. at 678 (quotation marks and citation omitted).

### 18 ARGUMENT

#### 19 **I. LINKEDIN HAS NOT PLED A CLAIM UNDER THE COMPUTER FRAUD AND** 20 **ABUSE ACT OR CALIFORNIA PENAL CODE § 502**

21 The CFAA was enacted as a prohibition on computer network hacking and creates civil and  
 22 criminal liability for any person who “intentionally accesses a computer without authorization or  
 23 exceeds authorized access, and thereby obtains . . . information from any protected computer.” 18  
 24 U.S.C. § 1030(a)(2)(C). As the Supreme Court has explained, the statute “provides two ways of  
 25 committing the crime of improperly accessing a protected computer: (1) obtaining access without

26 <sup>2</sup> In a footnote, LinkedIn states that the “question of whether the CFAA applies to unauthorized  
 27 access to webpages that are not behind a password wall is raised in the petition for a writ of certiorari  
 28 that LinkedIn filed with the Supreme Court of the United States,” and that LinkedIn “pleads this cause  
 of action to preserve it.” ACC at 44 n.15. It appears that, by this footnote, LinkedIn intends to  
 concede that, as hiQ argues, the Ninth Circuit’s Opinion in this case requires that LinkedIn’s  
 counterclaim be dismissed.

1 authorization; and (2) obtaining access with authorization but then using that access improperly.”  
2 *Musacchio v. United States*, 136 S. Ct. 709, 713 (2016).

3         LinkedIn claims that hiQ’s conduct violates the CFAA because, *first*, LinkedIn’s “website and  
4 servers are not unconditionally open to the general public” as “they require authorization or  
5 permission from LinkedIn to access,” which hiQ did not have. ACC at 44-45, ¶ 90. *Second*, LinkedIn  
6 claims that, to the extent hiQ did have authorization, “any authorization” was “revoked . . . when  
7 [LinkedIn] sent the May 23, 2017 cease-and-desist letter.” *Id.* at 45, ¶ 91.

8         LinkedIn has failed to state a claim against hiQ for violations of the CFAA because—as  
9 LinkedIn does not contest—the data that hiQ accessed was accessible to the general public.  
10 Therefore, neither the purported technical barriers nor LinkedIn’s May 23, 2017 letter change the  
11 conclusion mandated by the Ninth Circuit’s holding in this case: that “accessing publicly available  
12 data” does not “constitute access without authorization under the CFAA.” *hiQ Labs*, 938 F.3d at  
13 1003. While the Ninth Circuit’s Opinion was “in the context of a motion for injunctive relief,” courts  
14 within the Ninth Circuit have “f[ound] that its reasoning is persuasive in determining . . . [a] dismissal  
15 motion.” *Miller v. 4Internet, LLC*, 471 F. Supp. 3d 1085, 1090 (N.D. Cal. 2020); *see also Brodsky*,  
16 445 F. Supp. 3d at 110 (relying on Ninth Circuit opinion to dismiss claim under the CFAA). This  
17 Court should do the same.

18         **A. hiQ Did Not Act Without Authorization And Did Not Access Non-Public**  
19         **Information**

20         The Ninth Circuit’s reasoning in its opinion affirming this Court’s Preliminary Injunction  
21 Order requires the dismissal of LinkedIn’s counterclaim under the CFAA. The Ninth Circuit  
22 concluded that hiQ had not acted “without authorization” under the CFAA because a “user’s accessing  
23 . . . publicly available data will not constitute access without authorization under the CFAA.” *hiQ*  
24 *Labs*, 938 F.3d at 1003. This is because “where the default is free access without authorization, in  
25 ordinary parlance one would characterize selective denial of access as a ban, not as a lack of  
26 ‘authorization.’” *Id.* at 1000. In support of its conclusion, the Ninth Circuit cited the legislative  
27 history of the CFAA, a statute that had originally been “limited to a narrow range of computers—none  
28 of . . . which . . . were accessible to the general public.” *Id.* at 1001. The Court stated that this history

1 “mad[e] clear that the prohibition on unauthorized access is properly understood to apply only to  
2 private information—information delineated as private through use of a permission requirement of  
3 some sort.” *Id.* As such, the Ninth Circuit held “that hiQ has raised a serious question as to whether  
4 the reference to access ‘without authorization’ limits the scope of the statutory coverage to computer  
5 information for which authorization or access permission, such as password authentication, is  
6 generally required.” *Id.*

7 In an apparent attempt to distinguish the Ninth Circuit’s holding, LinkedIn argues that its  
8 “website and servers are not unconditionally open to the general public” because “LinkedIn has  
9 invested significant technical and human resources to detect, limit, and block data scraping.” ACC at  
10 28 (¶ 6), 45 (¶ 90). LinkedIn argues that hiQ circumvented these alleged barriers by, *inter alia*,  
11 masking its IP addresses, which is prohibited by LinkedIn’s User Agreement. *Id.* at 45, ¶ 90.

12 The purported distinction drawn by LinkedIn is immaterial. According to the Ninth Circuit,  
13 “authorization is only required [by the CFAA] for password-protected sites or sites that otherwise  
14 prevent the general public from viewing the information.” *hiQ Labs*, 938 F.3d at 1001. LinkedIn  
15 does not contend that either its User Agreement or its purported technological barriers limited the  
16 general public’s ability to view its websites. As such, under the Ninth Circuit’s reasoning, the  
17 CFAA’s “concept of ‘without authorization’ is inapt.” *Id.* at 1002.

18 Moreover, as this Court stated in its Preliminary Injunction Order, “‘authorization,’ as used in  
19 CFAA § 1030(a)(2), is most naturally read in reference to the *identity* of the person accessing the  
20 computer or website, not *how* access occurs.” (ECF No. 63 at 15); *see also Brodsky*, 445 F. 3d at 110  
21 (same). As such, “a user does not ‘access’ a computer ‘without authorization’ by using bots, even in  
22 the face of technical countermeasures, when the data it accesses is otherwise open to the public.”  
23 (ECF No. 63 at 16.) Accordingly, the simple fact that hiQ accessed LinkedIn’s publicly-accessible  
24 websites via automatic web crawler does not bring that access within the ambit of the CFAA.

25 Other courts have affirmed that accessing publicly-available data, even via efforts to evade  
26 technical restrictions, or restrictions imposed by terms of use, do not amount to a CFAA violation.  
27 For example, in *Facebook, Inc. v. Power Ventures, Inc.*, 844 F.3d 1058 (9th Cir. 2016), *cert. denied*,  
28 138 S. Ct. 313 (2017), the Ninth Circuit stated that a “violation of the terms of use of a website—

1 without more—cannot establish liability under the CFAA.” 884 F.3d at 1067; *see also United States*  
2 *v. Nosal (Nosal I)*, 676 F.3d 854, 862 (9th Cir. 2012) (“We remain unpersuaded by the decisions of  
3 our sister circuits that interpret the CFAA broadly to cover violations of corporate computer use  
4 restrictions or violations of a duty of loyalty.”).

5 In *Miller v. 4Internet*, the court dismissed a CFAA counterclaim against a service which  
6 automatically “crawled the web to search for [and scrape] photos.” 471 F. Supp. 3d 1085, 1087, 1091  
7 (D. Nev. 2020). There, counterclaim-plaintiff 4Internet operated an internet search engine. 4Internet  
8 alleged that a web crawler used by counterclaim-defendants Andrew Higbee and H&A to scrape  
9 4Internet’s site violated the CFAA because it evaded technological barriers, exceeded 4Internet’s  
10 terms of use, and imposed significant demands on 4Internet’s servers. *Id.* at 1087. The court  
11 dismissed the counterclaim with prejudice, finding that under the Ninth Circuit’s opinion in *hiQ Labs*,  
12 the CFAA did not apply because 4Internet “d[id] not allege that the information that Higbee and H&A  
13 accessed is the kind for which ‘authorization’ is required.” *Id.* at 1090; *see also Facebook*, 844 F.3d  
14 at 1067 (“[A] violation of the terms of use of a website—without more—cannot establish liability  
15 under the CFAA.”).

16 Similarly, in *Sandvig v. Barr*, academic researchers brought a pre-enforcement challenge to the  
17 imposition of criminal liability under the CFAA. The researchers intended to access and “audit test[ ]”  
18 online hiring websites by “creat[ing] profiles for fictitious job seekers,” which would violate the target  
19 websites’ terms of services. The researchers argued that application of the CFAA to that conduct  
20 would violate their constitutional rights, including under the First Amendment. The court, declining  
21 to reach that constitutional question, found that the CFAA would not apply to the researchers’  
22 proposal because “violating public websites’ terms of service, as Wilson and Mislove propose to do  
23 for their research, does not constitute a CFAA violation under the ‘exceeds authorized access’  
24 provision.” *Sandvig v. Barr*, 451 F. Supp. 3d 73, 91 (D.D.C. 2020).

25 The *Sandvig* court based its holding on the Ninth Circuit’s reasoning in *hiQ Labs*. While *hiQ*  
26 *Labs* addressed civil liability under the CFAA, the Ninth Circuit had noted that the CFAA’s “statutory  
27 prohibition on unauthorized access applies both to civil actions and to criminal prosecutions” (*hiQ*  
28 *Labs*, 938 F.3d at 1003) and that it “‘must interpret the statute consistently, whether we encounter its

1 application in a criminal or noncriminal context” (*id.*, quoting *Leocal v. Ashcroft*, 543 U.S. 1, 11 n.8  
 2 (2004)). As such, the *Sandvig* court found that the Ninth Circuit’s reasoning was applicable to  
 3 criminal liability under the CFAA. The court stated that the Ninth Circuit’s analysis “contemplates a  
 4 view of the internet as divided into at least two realms—public websites (or portions of websites)  
 5 where no authorization is required and private websites (or portions of websites) where permission  
 6 must be granted for access.” 451 F. Supp. 3d at 85 (emphasis in original). “Adopting th[is]  
 7 formulation,” the court agreed that the CFAA only applied to private websites protected by  
 8 “permission requirements.” *Id.* at 87. The court further found that a website’s “terms of service do  
 9 not constitute ‘permission requirements’ that, if violated, trigger criminal liability” because  
 10 “[c]riminalizing terms-of-service violations risks turning each website into its own criminal  
 11 jurisdiction.” *Id.* at 88; *see also Bittman v. Fox*, 107 F. Supp. 3d 896, 900-01 (N.D. Ill. 2015)  
 12 (concluding that defendants did not “exceed[ ] authorized access” by creating “a fake social media  
 13 account in violation of a social media company’s terms of service”). The same concern, regarding  
 14 what the *Sandvig* court called an “unworkable and standardless” system, 451 F. Supp. 3d at 88, would  
 15 apply if civil liability were imposed based solely on the violation of private terms of service.

16 The opinions in *4Internet and Sandvig* confirm what the Ninth Circuit’s holding in this case  
 17 requires: namely that because LinkedIn concedes that hiQ accessed only publicly available data, hiQ  
 18 did not violate the CFAA and LinkedIn’s counterclaim must be dismissed.

19 **B. hiQ Did Not Exceed Any Authorization Simply Because It Accessed Public**  
 20 **Information After Receiving LinkedIn’s May 23, 2017 Cease-and-Desist Letter**

21 LinkedIn next claims that, even to the extent hiQ had authorization to access its websites, “any  
 22 authorization” was “revoked . . . when [LinkedIn] sent the May 23, 2017 cease-and-desist letter,”  
 23 rendering future access a violation of the CFAA’s prohibition on “exceed[ing] authorized access” to a  
 24 protected computer. ACC at 44-45, ¶ 91; *see* 18 U.S.C. § 1030(a)(2)(C).

25 The CFAA defines the term “exceeds authorized access” as meaning “to access a computer  
 26 with authorization and to use such access to obtain or alter information in the computer that the  
 27 accesser is not entitled so to obtain or alter.” 18 U.S.C. § 1030(e)(6). LinkedIn’s argument fails  
 28 because the Ninth Circuit has already determined that “accessing publicly available data” does not

1 require the website operator’s authorization; therefore, that access—even after a cease-and-desist  
2 letter—also cannot “exceed” authorization. *See hiQ Labs*, 938 F.3d at 1003.

3 Moreover, the Ninth Circuit expressly considered the effect of LinkedIn’s May 23, 2017 letter,  
4 when it determined that “[t]he pivotal CFAA question here is whether once hiQ received LinkedIn’s  
5 cease-and-desist letter, any further scraping and use of LinkedIn’s data was ‘without authorization.’”  
6 The Court expressed serious doubts that hiQ’s conduct after receipt of the letter could amount to a  
7 CFAA violation, describing comparisons to the authorities cited by LinkedIn as “inapt”. *See id. at*  
8 999, 1002. Accordingly, LinkedIn’s threat to “revoke” permission in its May 23, 2017 letter is  
9 immaterial to its claim—it has no authority to grant or withdraw “authorization” to access wholly  
10 public information. Because LinkedIn concedes that hiQ accessed only publicly available data, hiQ  
11 did not violate the CFAA and LinkedIn’s counterclaim must be dismissed.

### 12 C. hiQ Has Not Violated California Penal Code § 502

13 LinkedIn also alleges that hiQ violated sections 502(c)(1) and (c)(2) of the California  
14 Comprehensive Computer Data Access and Fraud Act (“CDAFA”) by “knowingly access[ing]  
15 LinkedIn’s website and servers, and, without permission t[aking], cop[y]ing and m[aking] use of data  
16 and files from LinkedIn’s computers, computer systems, and/or computer networks, including to  
17 wrongfully control and/or obtain such data.” ACC at 46, ¶¶ 100-01.

18 “California Penal Code § 502 is the California equivalent of the federal Computer Fraud and  
19 Abuse Act.” *Nexsales Corp. v. Salebuild, Inc.*, 2012 WL 216260, at \*3 (N.D. Cal. Jan. 24, 2012)  
20 (citing *Multiven, Inc. v. Cisco Sys., Inc.*, 725 F. Supp. 2d 887, 895 (N.D.Cal.2010) (“the necessary  
21 elements of Section 502 do not differ materially from the necessary elements of the [Computer Fraud  
22 and Abuse Act]”). As such, “[c]ase law suggests that Plaintiffs’ [CDAFA] claims rise or fall with  
23 Plaintiffs’ CFAA claims because the necessary elements of Section 502 do not differ materially from  
24 the necessary elements of the CFAA, except in terms of damages.” *Brodsky*, 445 F. Supp. 3d at 131  
25 (internal quotations omitted). For the reasons cited above, LinkedIn’s CFAA claim fails because the  
26 publicly-accessible data accessed by hiQ does not require “authorization” under the CFAA.  
27 Accordingly, LinkedIn’s CDAFA allegations against hiQ also fail to state a claim and must be  
28 dismissed.

1 **II. LINKEDIN’S BREACH OF CONTRACT CLAIM SHOULD BE DISMISSED, AND**  
2 **ITS REQUEST FOR REMEDIES STRUCK, AS TO THE PERIOD AFTER THE USER**  
3 **AGREEMENT HAD BEEN TERMINATED**

4 As its third cause of action, LinkedIn claims that hiQ has breached and is currently in breach  
5 of LinkedIn’s User Agreement. ACC at 47-48, ¶¶ 106-127. LinkedIn claims that the User Agreement  
6 “is enforceable and binding on hiQ,” that “[a]ny future use of LinkedIn’s website by hiQ is subject to  
7 the terms of the User Agreement,” and that hiQ’s alleged breach “caused and continues to cause  
8 irreparable harm and injury to LinkedIn.” *Id.* at 47-48, ¶¶ 114, 125, & 126. As such, LinkedIn claims  
9 that it is entitled to “injunctive relief, declaratory relief, compensatory damages, and/or other equitable  
10 relief.” *Id.* at 48, ¶ 127.

11 hiQ disputes that its past conduct constituted a breach of the User Agreement. *See, e.g.*, ECF  
12 No. 33 at 13. However, even accepting that there had been any breach, LinkedIn’s claim that hiQ  
13 “continues to” breach the User Agreement is precluded by the findings of this Court and the Ninth  
14 Circuit and should be dismissed. Furthermore, as LinkedIn cannot state a claim for any continuing or  
15 ongoing breach of the User Agreement, LinkedIn’s claim of injunctive relief or for relief accrued past  
16 the date of hiQ’s termination should be struck.

17 *First*, even to the extent that hiQ *was* bound by and breached the User Agreement in the past  
18 (which it disputes), LinkedIn fails to state a claim insofar as it claims that the User Agreement is  
19 *currently* binding on hiQ. LinkedIn’s claim is precluded by the findings of both this Court and the  
20 Ninth Circuit. As this Court previously confirmed, while hiQ once had a company page on LinkedIn,  
21 “LinkedIn has terminated hiQ’s user status.” ECF No. 63 at 7 n. 4. The Ninth Circuit also held that  
22 “[h]iQ is no longer bound by the User Agreement, as LinkedIn has terminated hiQ’s user status.” 983  
23 F.3d at 991 n. 5 (emphasis added). As such, even to the extent that LinkedIn could state a claim for  
24 *past* breaches of its User Agreement, hiQ is no longer bound by that Agreement. LinkedIn’s breach of  
25 contract claim therefore fails insofar as it purports to claim any breach after the date of LinkedIn’s  
26 own termination of hiQ’s user status.

27 *Second*, because LinkedIn cannot state a claim for breach of the User Agreement beyond the  
28 date of LinkedIn’s termination of hiQ, LinkedIn’s claim for injunctive and declaratory relief for  
alleged breach of contract, and its claim for compensatory damages which accrued beyond the date of



1 termination, must be struck. LinkedIn’s clam for injunctive relief for breach of the User Agreement is  
 2 based on the allegation that hiQ “continues to cause irreparable harm and injury to LinkedIn.” ACC at  
 3 48, ¶¶ 125-26. However, because hiQ is “no longer bound by the User Agreement,” 983 F.3d at 991  
 4 n. 5, LinkedIn cannot establish irreparable harm. In the Ninth Circuit, “[m]otions to strike requests for  
 5 particular remedies will be granted pursuant to Rule 12(f) if such relief cannot be recovered under the  
 6 applicable law.” *Roger v. First Health Corp.*, 2009 WL 10672289, at \*4 (C.D. Cal. Nov. 19, 2009)  
 7 (citing *Torrance Redevelopment Agency v. Solvent Coating Co.*, 763 F. Supp. 1060, 1057-78 (C.D.  
 8 Cal. 1991)). As such, insofar as LinkedIn states that it is entitled to injunctive relief because hiQ  
 9 “continues to cause irreparable harm” by its alleged breach of the User Agreement, or that LinkedIn is  
 10 entitled to compensatory damages alleged accrued beyond the date of LinkedIn’s termination of hiQ,  
 11 LinkedIn’s request for those remedies should be struck under Federal Rule of Civil Procedure Rule  
 12 12(f).

### 13 **III. LINKEDIN’S MISAPPROPRIATION CLAIM SHOULD BE DISMISSED**

14 As its fourth cause of action, LinkedIn alleges that hiQ misappropriated “data from the  
 15 LinkedIn site,” thereby “reap[ing] what it did not sow.” ACC at 48-49, ¶¶ 129-32. LinkedIn fails to  
 16 state a claim for misappropriation because, *first*, LinkedIn has not and cannot allege that it owned the  
 17 allegedly-misappropriated data, and *second*, because any such claim would be preempted by the  
 18 California’s California Uniform Trade Secret Act (“CUTSA”).

#### 19 **A. LinkedIn Cannot State a Claim for Misappropriation of Data Owned By** 20 **LinkedIn’s Users**

21 “The elements of a claim for misappropriation under California law consist of the following:  
 22 (a) the plaintiff invested substantial time, skill or money in developing its property; (b) the defendant  
 23 appropriated and used plaintiff’s property at little or no cost to defendant; (c) the defendant’s  
 24 appropriation and use of the plaintiff’s property was without the authorization or consent of the  
 25 plaintiff; and (d) the plaintiff can establish that it has been injured by the defendant’s conduct.”  
 26 *United States Golf Assn. v. Arroyo Software Corp.*, 69 Cal. App. 4th 607, 618 (1999). “[I]n order to  
 27 state a claim based on the taking of information, a plaintiff must show that he has some property right  
 28 in such information (*i.e.* that the information is proprietary).” *SunPower Corp. v. SolarCity Corp.*,

1 2012 WL 6160472, at \*5 (N.D. Cal. Dec. 11, 2012). LinkedIn’s claim therefore fails because it  
2 cannot establish the first element of misappropriation: that hiQ appropriated any of *LinkedIn’s*  
3 property.

4 While LinkedIn alleges that hiQ appropriated data from LinkedIn’s website (ACC at 48, ¶  
5 130), that data is owned, if at all, by LinkedIn’s users, not LinkedIn. *hiQ Labs*, 938 F.3d at 1003  
6 (“The data hiQ seeks to access is not owned by LinkedIn”). LinkedIn’s User Agreement states that  
7 “as between [users] and LinkedIn, [users] own the content and information that you submit or post to  
8 the Services.” See ECF No. 131-1 (LinkedIn User Agreement) at § 3.1; see also *id.* at § 1.1 (defining  
9 Services as “LinkedIn.com, LinkedIn-branded apps, LinkedIn Learning and other LinkedIn-related  
10 sites, apps, communications and other services that state that they are offered under this Contract”).

11 Because LinkedIn does not have a property or ownership right in the data that hiQ allegedly  
12 misappropriated, LinkedIn cannot state a claim for misappropriation. See *Hollywood Screentest of*  
13 *Am., Inc. v. NBC Universal, Inc.*, 151 Cal. App. 4th 631, 650, 660 Cal. Rptr. 3d 279, 294 (2007)  
14 (affirming summary judgment in favor of defendant on misappropriation claim where the interest in  
15 dispute was not created by defendant, but by unrelated entities such that “appellants cannot show that  
16 NBC appropriated any ideas from appellants.”); see also *SunPower Corp.*, 2012 WL 6160472, at \*5.  
17 As such, LinkedIn’s fourth cause of action must be dismissed.

18 **B. Any Misappropriation Claim Is Preempted By CUTSA**

19 *Second*, even if LinkedIn could establish the elements of a claim for common law  
20 misappropriation (which it cannot), LinkedIn’s claim—to the extent LinkedIn alleges that hiQ  
21 misappropriated data that is non-public or would not be public but for LinkedIn’s efforts—would be  
22 preempted by CUTSA, which preempts “claims based on the same nucleus of facts as trade secret  
23 misappropriation.” *K.C. Multimedia, Inc. v. Bank of Am. Tech. & Operations, Inc.*, 171 Cal. App. 4th  
24 939, 962 (2009); see also *Acculmage Diagnostics Corp v. Terarecon, Inc.*, 260 F. Supp. 2d 941, 954  
25 (N.D. Cal. 2003) (“[CUTSA] occupies the field in California. Plaintiff’s common law  
26 misappropriation of trade secrets claim is therefore deemed superseded . . .”).

27 A plaintiff cannot avoid CUTSA preemption simply by electing not to plead a CUTSA claim.  
28 *NetApp, Inc. v. Nimble Storage, Inc.*, 41 F. Supp. 3d 816, 840 (N.D. Cal. 2014) (CUTSA preemption

1 applies even where plaintiff has not pled a CUTSA claim); *see also SunPower Corp.*, 2012 WL  
 2 6160472, at \*5 (to find that misappropriation claim was not precluded “would allow plaintiffs to avoid  
 3 the preclusive effect of CUTSA . . . by simply failing to allege one of the elements necessary for  
 4 information to qualify as a trade secret.”). CUTSA preemption applies even for “claims based on the  
 5 misappropriation of information that does not satisfy the definition of trade secret under CUTSA,” if  
 6 “the basis of the alleged property right is in essence that the information is not . . . generally known to  
 7 the public,” because then “the claim is sufficiently close to a trade secret claim that it should be  
 8 superseded.” *Lifeline Food Co. v. Gilman Cheese Corp.*, 2015 WL 2357246, at \*1 (N.D. Cal. May 15,  
 9 2015).

10 LinkedIn’s claim is based on the alleged “substantial investment in time, labor, skill, and  
 11 financial resources made by LinkedIn” in order to create the data at issue. ACC at 48-49, ¶ 131.  
 12 LinkedIn alleges that the data “that hiQ took included time-sensitive updates to member profiles,” and  
 13 that hiQ “circumvent[ed] . . . various technical barriers” to “wrongfully access[] LinkedIn’s website,  
 14 computer systems, and servers.” ACC at 48, ¶ 130. As such, to the extent LinkedIn alleges that hiQ  
 15 misappropriated data that is “not . . . generally known to the public,” or that would not be generally  
 16 known but for LinkedIn’s efforts, LinkedIn’s claim is preempted by CUSTA and must be dismissed.

#### 17 **IV. LINKEDIN HAS NOT PLED A CLAIM FOR TRESPASS TO CHATTELS**

18 While LinkedIn cannot state a claim for violations of the CFAA because the data accessed by  
 19 hiQ “has not been demarcated by LinkedIn as private,” the Ninth Circuit acknowledged that “state law  
 20 trespass to chattels claims may still be available” to LinkedIn “at least when it causes demonstrable  
 21 harm.” *hiQ Labs*, 938 F.3d at 1003, 1004, 1004 at n.15. In this instance, however, LinkedIn cannot  
 22 state a claim for trespass to chattels because LinkedIn does not allege demonstrable, compensable  
 23 harm.

24 “[I]n the context of trespass to a computer system or other similar devices, injury is adequately  
 25 alleged where the plaintiff pleads ‘that the purported trespass: (1) caused physical damage to the  
 26 personal property, (2) impaired the condition, quality, or value of the personal property, or (3)  
 27 deprived plaintiff of the use of personal property for a substantial time.’” *Grace v. Apple Inc.*, No. 17-  
 28 CV-00551, 2017 WL 3232464, at \*11 (N.D. Cal. July 28, 2017).

