Article

Google Book Search and the Future of Books in Cyberspace

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INTRODUCTION

One of the most significant developments in the history of books, as well perhaps in the history of copyright, is the massive digitization project that Google has undertaken in partnership with more than forty major research libraries and thirty thousand publishers. Google has already scanned and digitized the contents of more than ten million books. Approximately two million are books that are both in-print and in-copyright, the publishers of which may have agreed to participate in the Google Book Search (GBS) Partner Program. Two million oth-

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2. See Hearing, supra note 1, at 5. Only a few weeks later, Dan Clancy, Chief Engineer of the GBS project, announced that the GBS corpus had grown to twelve million books. See Dan Clancy, Remarks at the I is for Industry Session at New York Law School’s D is for Digitize Conference (Oct. 9, 2009), available at http://nyls.mediasite.com/mediasite/SilverlightPlayer/Default.aspx?peid=7a7124d630ed400ab71aa7e27d930130. This does not, however, mean that there are twelve million unique books in the GBS corpus. Google has sometimes scanned more than one copy of a particular book. See id.

3. The Google Partner Program enables copyright owners of books to contract with Google for the inclusion of their books in the GBS corpus and the display that Google can (or cannot) make of these books. See Google Books, In-
ers are books that Google believes to be in the public domain.\textsuperscript{4} At least six million are books that are in-copyright, but out-of-print.\textsuperscript{5} Google has not indicated the upper bounds of the GBS corpus of books, but expectations are that it will grow much larger.\textsuperscript{6}

Google currently allows users of its search engine to download the full texts of individual public domain books.\textsuperscript{7} It also provides a few short snippets of the texts of in-copyright books responsive to user queries.\textsuperscript{8} But unless the books’ rights holders enroll in the Google Partner Program and agree to allow more extensive access to the books’ contents, the public currently can only get access to snippets from most books.

The Authors Guild and five publishers charged Google with copyright infringement for scanning in-copyright books in
A settlement of this lawsuit was announced in October 2008, and is currently awaiting judicial review.\textsuperscript{10} Access to books in the GBS corpus will be dramatically affected if the judge in the Authors Guild v. Google case decides to approve the proposed settlement agreement. The biggest change will be far broader access to out-of-print books.\textsuperscript{11} Open Internet searches will no longer yield only snippets of such books, but now up to twenty percent of their contents.\textsuperscript{12} Public libraries and nonprofit higher education institutions will be eligible for some free public access terminals, although most are expected to acquire institutional subscriptions for full access to out-of-print books (unless the books’ rights holders have directed Google not to display the contents of these books).\textsuperscript{13}

The GBS initiative has certainly heightened public awareness of the social desirability of creating a digital corpus of millions of books from major research libraries.\textsuperscript{14} But it has also proven to be quite controversial. Harvard Librarian Robert Darnton has aptly observed that a project as ambitious as Google Book Search is bound to elicit two kinds of reactions, “[O]n the one hand, utopian enthusiasm; on the other, jere-miads about the danger of concentrating power to control access to information.”\textsuperscript{15} This Article will consider the future of books in cyberspace with a particular focus on how this future may be affected by the approval or disapproval of a settlement of the GBS litigation.

Part I discusses impediments to mass-digitization projects, such as GBS, and how Google overcame them. It explains the

\begin{enumerate}
  \item See infra notes 33–34 and accompanying text.
  \item See infra notes 36–38 and accompanying text.
  \item See infra notes 40–41 and accompanying text.
  \item See infra note 42, at 5.
  \item See infra notes 44–58 and accompanying text.
\end{enumerate}
litigation that challenged Google’s mass-digitization project, the proposed settlement agreement, and some reasons why the settlement has become controversial. Part II contrasts some glowingly positive predictions about the future of books if the GBS deal is approved with predictions of far more negative futures for books that some critics foresee. Part III considers what may happen to GBS and the future of books in cyberspace if the settlement is not approved. It recommends that major research libraries collaborate in the creation of a digital library of books from their collections as an alternative to GBS, regardless of whether the proposed settlement is approved. This digital library could greatly expand access to books, while avoiding certain risks to the public interest that the GBS settlement poses.

I. MASS DIGITIZATION OF BOOKS AND THE CONTROVERSIES GENERATED BY GBS

Librarians and academic researchers recognize that it is highly desirable to digitize the codified and generally well-curated knowledge embodied in the tens of millions of books in the collections of major research libraries for purposes of making a database of these books that is searchable and widely accessible to the public. Although some book digitization projects have been undertaken, there have been at least three significant impediments to mass digitization projects.

One impediment is cost. High quality book scans cost approximately thirty dollars per book, which means that a large-scale project like the twenty-million-book goal of the GBS project would cost about $600 million. This may not be a lot of

16. See, e.g., Courant Letter, supra note 6, at 2 ("Today, we realize that access to works of knowledge is fuel for the engine that promotes progress in society; indeed, we preserve works because we want as many people as possible to have access them [sic].").

17. See, e.g., Brief of Questia Media, Inc. as Amicus Curiae in Opposition to the Settlement Agreement at 3, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 2980756 (noting Questia, Inc.’s digital archive of “74,000 books, 181,000 journal articles, 213,000 magazine articles, and 2.1 million newspaper articles”); Memorandum of The Internet Archive as Amicus Curiae in Opposition to Settlement Agreement at 3–4, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 298075 [hereinafter Internet Archive Memorandum] (discussing the Internet Archive’s collection of over one million digitized books).

18. See Interview with Brewster Kahle, Founder of the Internet Archive, in N.Y., N.Y. (Sept. 17, 2009) (estimating the per-book cost of scans). This estimate does not include the costs of labor required to remove books from library shelves, make records about books being shipped, deliver them to a mass
money for a commercial entity with resources as substantial as Google’s, but the cost of digitization is a major inhibitor of large-scale projects for university libraries and nonprofit organizations such as the Internet Archive.

A second impediment is access to millions of books. The richest sources of books for mass-digitization projects are the libraries of major research institutions, such as the University of Michigan, Stanford University, and University of California. The collections of these book-rich institutions overlap far less than one might expect. It would thus be desirable for a mass-digitization project to include books from multiple research libraries. Books from these collections are dense with knowledge that could be invaluable if made part of one large corpus of books. It is, however, disruptive for libraries to make books available to be scanned, and libraries have legitimate concerns that books could be damaged in the digitization process.

A third, and most daunting, impediment is copyright. A substantial majority of the books in the collections of major re-

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19. Even Microsoft, a firm with the financial resources to engage in mass-digitization, decided not to proceed with a digitization project because of high costs. See Posting of Satya Nadella to Microsoft Bing Community, http://www.bing.com/community/blogs/search/archive/2008/05/23/book-search-winding-down.aspx (May 23, 2008, 02:45 EST) (explaining why Microsoft was shutting down its digitization project after scanning 750,000 books and eighty million journal articles).

20. See AULETTA, supra note 18, at 258.


22. See id. (estimating that eighteen million unique books are in the collections of the five libraries with which Google initially partnered in the GBS project, for an average collection of 3.6 million books each); see also Courant Letter, supra note 6, at 1 (estimating that Michigan’s partnership with Google in GBS will enable Michigan to preserve eight million books).

23. See Lavoie et al., supra note 21 (noting that only thirty-nine percent of the books in the collections of the five libraries with which Google partnered in GBS are in more than one of the five institutions’ libraries).

24. See, e.g., DARNTON, supra note 15, at 114–17 (noting earlier preservation projects that resulted in damage and destruction to materials).

25. See id. at 36 (“Although it is to be hoped that the publishers, authors, and Google will settle their dispute, it is difficult to see how copyright will cease to pose a problem.”). Jonathan Band has estimated the average transac-
search libraries are in-copyright and likely to remain so for several decades. Many of these books should be in the public domain, as they were published before 1978, an era in which copyrights lasted twenty-eight years. Had copyright terms not been repeatedly extended by Congress, all books published before 1953 would now be in the public domain, as would most of the books published before 1978 insofar as their rights holders did not renew the copyright. Because of copyright term extensions, books first published in 1960 are, however, unlikely to be out of copyright until 2055. However regrettable and ill-advised these copyright term extensions may have been, they are a reality with which librarians and other would-be digitizers of books must contend when contemplating mass-digitization projects.


27. See 17 U.S.C. § 24 (1976) (repealed 1978). Copyrights under the pre-1978 law were renewable for another twenty-eight years if authors registered for a new term with the U.S. Copyright Office (which most rights holders failed to do). See id. The Copyright Act of 1976, which became effective in 1978, eliminated the renewal period and extended the terms of new copyrights to the life of the author plus fifty years, which made it more difficult to predict, just by looking at a copy of the work, when the copyright had expired. See Copyright Act, Pub. L. No. 94-553, § 302, 90 Stat. 2541 (1976). This same Act extended the terms of existing copyrights in pre-1978 works to approximate the new copyright term. See id. § 304. The 1976 Act also lightened burdens on copyright owners to give notice of their copyright claims and to register their works. See id. §§ 401–412. In 1989, these burdens were almost completely eliminated. See Act of Oct. 31, 1988, Pub. L. No. 100-568, §§ 7–9, 102 Stat. 2853. The implications for the public domain of the U.S. decision to drop formalities requirements, such as notice and renewals of copyrights, are explored generally in Christopher Springman, Reform(alizing) Copyright Law, 57 STAN. L. REV. 485 (2004).


Google had the vision, technology, and financial resources to undertake a mass digitization effort in 2004. It also had a plan for wooing libraries to make their books available for GBS corpus building, and a fair-use defense for scanning books to index their contents that it decided was strong enough to overcome the copyright constraint.

The Google scanning project initially met with mixed reactions. Some commentators welcomed it and championed Google’s fair-use defense. Some author and publisher groups,

31. This includes a willingness on Google’s part to indemnify library partners for any copyright liability they might incur for contributing to the Google digitization project. See Cooperative Agreement, Google Inc.-University of Michigan, § 10.1 (June 15, 2005) [hereinafter Michigan Agreement], available at http://www.lib.umich.edu/files/services/mdplum-google-cooperative-agreement.pdf. The liability risk is higher for private universities, such as Stanford, than for public universities, such as the University of Michigan, because of Eleventh Amendment case law suggesting that state universities cannot be held liable in damages for copyright infringement. See, e.g., Chavez v. Arte Publico Press, 204 F.3d 601, 607 (5th Cir. 2000) (holding that Congress could not abrogate the University of Houston’s Eleventh Amendment immunity from liability for copyright infringement).

32. See, e.g., Eric Schmidt, Books of Revelation, WALL ST. J., Oct. 18, 2005, at A18, (“Copyright law . . . is all about which uses require permission and which don’t; and we believe . . . that the use we make of books we scan through the Library Project is consistent with the Copyright Act . . . without [the need for] copyright-holder permission.”). Google did not at that time publicly discuss its plans for making what are now called “nondisplay uses” of books in the corpus. See infra notes 217–18 and accompanying text. Neither lawsuit mentioned nondisplay uses of GBS books as possible bases for infringement. However, these uses were probably a strong driving force for undertaking the GBS project, as they will allow Google to do many useful things, such as refine its search technologies and automated translation tools. See generally Jeffrey Toobin, Google’s Moon Shot, NEW YORKER, Feb. 5, 2007, at 34 (discussing the development of the GBS project).

33. See, e.g., Posting of Jack Balkin to Balkinization, http://balkin.blogspot.com/2005/09/search-me-please.html (Sept. 28, 2005, 11:39 EST) (“As an author who is always trying to get people interested in my books . . . the Author’s Guild suit against Google is counterproductive and just plain silly.”). In February 2006, I hosted a workshop of about fifteen copyright professors to discuss Google’s fair use defense in the Authors Guild case. The general consensus at that meeting was that this fair use defense was likely to succeed. Scholarly commentary has generally been supportive of Google’s fair use defense. See Hannibal Travis, Google Book Search and Fair Use: iTunes for Authors, or Napster for Books?, 61 U. MIAMI L. REV. 87, 91–94 (2006) (arguing that scanning books to index them is fair use); see also Band, supra note 25, at 237–60 (discussing the merits of Google’s fair use defense in the Authors Guild case); Frank Pasquale, Copyright in an Era of Information Overload: Toward the Privileging of Categorizers, 60 VAND. L. REV. 135 (2007) (discussing the need for broad fair use for search engines to help people find information, and suggesting that fair use law consider the effect of information overload as a negative externality that search engines can remedy); Matthew Sag, The
however, were highly critical of Google’s scanning of in-copyright books.34

The Authors Guild responded to Google’s book scanning project in September 2005 by bringing a class action lawsuit to challenge the scanning as copyright infringement.35 A month later, five major publishers—all of whom, interestingly enough, were members of the Google partner program—brought a similar lawsuit against Google.36

In the spring of 2006, the publisher plaintiffs sat down with Google and representatives of the Authors Guild to explore how the parties might achieve a settlement of the lawsuits.37 Negotiations continued for more than two years. Google brought its library partners into some of these negotiations in part because the litigants envisioned a settlement under which Google would provide institutional subscriptions to libraries,


34. See, e.g., Patricia Schroeder, Google Cannot Rewrite U.S. Copyright Laws, WALL ST. J., Oct. 20, 2005, at A15 (accusing Google of “rewrit[ing] our Constitution” which the framers intended to “protect the new nation’s creators”). Schroeder’s position is consistent with a recent decision by a French court, which held Google liable for copyright infringement arising from scanning of books owned by French rights holders. See Matthew Saltmarsh, Google Loses in French Copyright Case, N.Y. TIMES, Dec. 19, 2009, at B3 (noting that the French publishers successfully argued that “scanning books was an act of reproduction that Google should pay for”).


36. See Complaint, McGraw-Hill Co. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8881 (DC) (S.D.N.Y. Oct. 19, 2005), available at http://thepublicindex.org/docs/complaint/publishers.pdf; Toobin, supra note 32, at 30 (noting that the publisher plaintiffs were in Google’s Partner Program when the lawsuit was filed).

37. Although it has been pending for more than four years, the Authors Guild case is in the relatively early stages of litigation. See, e.g., Objection of Scott E. Gant to Proposed Settlement and to Certification of the Proposed Settlement Class and Sub-Classes at 2–3, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC) (S.D.N.Y. Aug. 19, 2009) available at http://www.publicindex.org/docs/objections/gant.pdf [hereinafter Gant Objection] (pointing out how little discovery and motion practice have been done in the case); Transcript of Status Conference at 9, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC) (S.D.N.Y. Oct. 7, 2009), available at http://thepublicindex.org/docs/case_order/Status%20Conference%20Transcript.pdf (quoting Michael Boni, lawyer for the author subclass, as saying that the parties had taken no depositions at that point in time). During the two and a half years before the GBS settlement was announced, Google knew that it could scan books with impunity because it had already reached a settlement agreement with these plaintiffs.
and the settlement agreement needed to include some provisions for this, including a price-setting mechanism.\textsuperscript{38}

In late October 2008, Google announced it had reached a $125 million agreement to settle the lawsuits.\textsuperscript{39} The proposed settlement agreement provided for the consolidation of the two lawsuits into one class action, whose plaintiffs now consisted of an Author Subclass and a Publisher Subclass to represent all persons or entities having a U.S. copyright interest in one or more books as of January 5, 2009.\textsuperscript{40} In light of U.S. treaty commitments, this settlement would have given Google a license to virtually every in-copyright book in the world.\textsuperscript{41}

This GBS settlement, if approved, would vastly increase availability of out-of-print books. The deal would authorize Google to make up to twenty percent of the contents of out-of-print books available in response to search queries.\textsuperscript{42} In addi-

\textsuperscript{38} See Settlement Agreement, \textit{supra} note 3, arts. IV, VII, & VIII.

\textsuperscript{39} See Press Release, Google Inc., Authors, Publishers, and Google Reach Landmark Settlement (Oct. 28, 2008), available at http://www.google.com/intl/en/press/pressrel/20081027_booksearchagreement.html. Google will pay a minimum of $45 million to rights holders whose books Google has already scanned—$60 for each book, $15 for each insert, and $5 for each partial insert. See \textit{Amended Settlement Agreement}, § 5.1, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), available at http://thepublicindex.org/docs/amended_settlement/amended_settlement.pdf [hereinafter Amended GBS Agreement] (describing the benefits to the settlement class). The lawyers for the author subclass will get up to $30 million if the settlement is approved. See \textit{id.} § 5.5. The rest of the settlement funds are being used to create the new collecting society, the Book Rights Registry, upon approval of the settlement. See \textit{id.} § 5.2. Twelve million dollars has been allocated for administrative matters, such as notifying members of the class about the settlement. See \textit{id.} § 5.3(g). It is not surprising that the litigants would have wanted to settle the GBS lawsuits. See \textit{Toobin, supra} note 32, at 34 (predicting that the GBS lawsuits would settle and indicating that publishers wanted to make a deal). One factor that enhanced Google’s interest in a settlement was its potential exposure to statutory damage awards which has been estimated at $3.6 trillion. See \textit{Band}, \textit{supra} note 25, at 229. The proposed settlement was, however, surprising because of its sweeping scope. See \textit{id.} at 260 ("[T]he settlement, if approved, would allow Google to deliver to users the full text of millions of books.").

\textsuperscript{40} See Settlement Agreement, \textit{supra} note 3, §§ 1.14 & 1.120 (defining the author and publisher subclasses).

\textsuperscript{41} See \textit{SAM RICKETSON \\& JANE C. GINSBURG, INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT AND NEIGHBOURING RIGHTS: BERNE CONVENTION AND BEYOND} § 6.89 (2d ed. 2006) (noting that members of international copyright treaties agree to recognize copyrights in their countries of all works of foreign nationals whose countries are members of that treaty). The license would be broader for out-of-print than in-print books, but Google would be able to make nondisplay uses of all books in the corpus. See Settlement Agreement, \textit{supra} note 3, § 3.4(a).

\textsuperscript{42} See Settlement Agreement, \textit{supra} note 3, § 4.3(b)(1) (discussing the “Standard Preview” use authorized by the Agreement).
tion, the entire text of out-of-print books would, by default, become accessible through consumer purchases, institutional subscriptions, and public library access terminals (unless the rights holder of a particular out-of-print book specifically requests that the contents not be displayed).43

Two weeks after the GBS settlement was announced, the judge then presiding over the Authors Guild case provisionally approved the proposed settlement, and he provisionally certified the class for the purpose of notifying class members about the settlement and allowing them to opt out, object, or otherwise comment on the terms of the settlement.44 The initial schedule called for opt-outs, objections, and comments to be filed with the court by May 5, 2009, and a fairness hearing to be held on June 11, 2009.45 In late April, Judge Denny Chin extended the comment and opt-out period to September 4, 2009, and reset the fairness hearing to October 7, 2009.46

By September 2009, interested parties filed approximately four hundred documents commenting on the proposed GBS settlement, the overwhelming majority of which were critical of the settlement.47 The most important submission was a U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ) Statement of Interest that recommended against approval of the proposed settlement.48 The

43. See id. §§ 1.1, 1.48, 3.2(b).
44. See Order at 2, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC) 2009 WL 5576331 (S.D.N.Y. Nov. 14, 2008).
45. See Order at 1, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), available at http://thepublicindex.org/docs/motions/approval/order_allowing_extension.pdf.
46. See id. at 2.
47. See BRANDON BUTLER, THE GOOGLE BOOKS SETTLEMENT: WHO IS FILING AND WHAT ARE THEY SAYING? 3 (2009), available at http://www.arl.org/bm~doc/googlefilingcharts.pdf. Butler characterizes the objections as falling into one of three categories: that the GBS settlement would be harmful to competition, to rights holders, or to users (e.g., inadequate privacy protections). See id. Many submissions raised concerns about the monopoly that the settlement would give Google over “orphan works,” that is, books whose rights holders cannot readily be located. See, e.g., Brief of Consumer Watchdog as Amicus Curiae in Opposition to the Proposed Settlement Agreement at 11–14, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 2980757; Brief of Public Knowledge as Amicus Curiae in Opposition to the Proposed Settlement at 5–10, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 3169951 (S.D.N.Y. Sept. 8, 2009). The “orphan work” issue is discussed infra note 74 and accompanying text, as well as in Part II.B.6.
48. See Statement of Interest of the United States Regarding the Proposed Class Settlement at 31, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC) [hereinafter DOJ Statement], 2009 WL 3045979. The DOJ did not reach firm conclusions about the antitrust or other legal issues addressed in this Statement, but it did indicate that its preliminary analysis gave rise to serious enough concerns
DOJ perceived several antitrust problems with the settlement. The DOJ was also troubled by interclass conflicts, adequacy of notice, and other problems with the settlement as a matter of class action law.

Shortly after the DOJ recommended against approval of the settlement, lawyers for the Author and Publisher Subclasses asked Judge Chin to postpone the fairness hearing to give the parties time to negotiate new terms that would respond to the DOJ's and other concerns. The lawyers filed an amended settlement agreement with the court on November 13, 2009. Judge Chin granted the motion for preliminary approval of the amended settlement and set the date for a hearing on the issue of whether to approve the deal for February 18, 2010.

The most significant changes in the amended GBS settlement agreement pertain to the composition of the settling class and to control over the disposition of funds from books whose

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49. See DOJ Statement, supra note 48, at 17–22 (raising concerns about various pricing provisions of the settlement that might run afoul of the per se rule against price fixing). The Statement also expressed concern about the potential foreclosure of competition that might result if Google got a license from the settlement class to commercialize all out-of-print books that no other firm could get. See id. at 23–25.

50. See id. at 8–11 (raising concerns about provisions that would divert funds owed to orphan-book rights holders to provide payouts to registered rights holders, creating a conflict of interest between registered and unregistered rights holders); id. at 12–13 (questioning whether class members received adequate notice of the settlement); id. at 15–16 (questioning whether the settlement is fair to foreign rights holders).

51. See Order at 1, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), available at http://thepublicindex.org/docs/case_order/20090924.pdf.

52. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39.

53. See Order at 2, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 5576331.
rights holders do not come forward to claim funds derived from Google’s commercialization of their books. Foreign rights holders are now excluded from the settling class, except owners of books published in the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia.\(^{54}\) The amended agreement calls for the appointment of a fiduciary to represent the interests of owners of rights in unclaimed books and to control the revenues owed to these rights holders.\(^{55}\) The settling parties also made several changes to GBS pricing provisions in response to DOJ concerns.\(^{56}\) Because the DOJ also objected to open-ended provisions that allow Google to adopt unspecified new revenue models,\(^{57}\) the amended settlement specifies three new revenue models through which Google may commercialize out-of-print books in the future.\(^{58}\)

II. THE FUTURE OF BOOKS IF THE GBS SETTLEMENT IS APPROVED

A. THE OPTIMISTIC PREDICTIONS

Google’s general counsel, David Drummond, painted a glowingly optimistic picture of the future of public access to books and to the knowledge embodied in them in his September 2009 testimony to Congress about the GBS settlement.\(^{59}\) He began by asserting that approval of the settlement would allow young students in rural areas or inner cities to go to public libraries and have access to millions of books at the free public access terminal Google promises to provide to these libraries.\(^{60}\) Google

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54. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 1.13 (defining the “amended settlement class”); id. § 1.19 (defining “book”).
55. See id. § 6.2.
56. See id. § 4.2(b) (using algorithmic pricing of books for consumer purchases to simulate prices of books in the competitive market); id. § 4.5(b) (authorizing Google to discount prices).
57. See DOJ Statement, supra note 48, at 11–12 (noting that the rights conferred to Google were “amorphous and malleable”); see also Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.7 (allowing Google and the Book Rights Registry to agree on new revenue models).
58. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.7 (limiting the new revenue models to print-on-demand, file downloads, and consumer subscriptions).
59. See Hearing, supra note 1, at 10 (noting that the settlement would provide greater access to books for “readers, researchers, and students,” especially those who have historically had limited access to educational materials).
60. See id. at 4 (“Imagine if a student living in a rural area or inner-city could go to a public library and read from millions of books in the combined collections of some of our Nation’s greatest universities and libraries . . . .”); see
has also promised that GBS will provide easier access for print-disabled persons.\textsuperscript{61} Approval of the settlement would, Drummond predicted, “create an educational, cultural and commercial platform to expand access to millions of books for anyone in the United States, enriching our country’s cultural heritage and intellectual strength in the global economy.”\textsuperscript{62}

Drummond also asserts that the GBS settlement would be a boon to authors because their out-of-print books would be able to attract new readers.\textsuperscript{63}

GBS may breathe new commercial life into these works in at least three ways. First, Google will serve ads to users whose queries yield GBS results, and authors or other rights holders will share in the fruits of the ad revenues.\textsuperscript{64} Second, Google will sell institutional subscriptions to universities and other entities.\textsuperscript{65} Third, Google anticipates “revolutioniz[ing] the way some people read books” by providing “an open cloud-based platform where users buy and store digital books in online personal li-

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also Lateef Mtima, Remarks at the P is for Public Session at New York Law School’s D Is for Digitize Conference (Oct. 9, 2009), available at http://nyls.mediasite.com/mediasite/SilverlightPlayer/Default.aspx?peid=929efa888e64c7f965dc304cea450e3 (emphasizing the benefits of GBS for enhanced public access to books for disadvantaged communities); \textit{but see} Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.8(a)(iii) (“The Registry and Google may agree that Google may make available the Public Access Service to one or more Public Libraries . . . either for free or for an annual fee, in addition to the Public Access Service provided under Section 4.8(a)(i).”) (emphasis added). Neither public nor private school libraries will get GBS public access terminals. Users of Internet-enabled computers at these schools can, however, see up to twenty percent of the contents of out-of-print books whose rights holders have not turned off preview uses.

\textsuperscript{61} \textit{See} Hearing, supra note 1, at 10–11 (noting that Google plans to enable vision-impaired persons, for example, to read GBS books in Braille or have access to audio tape versions); \textit{see also} id. at 22–25 (testimony of Marc Maurer, President, National Federation of the Blind) (“Now the opponents of this settlement would like to close the market for us that Google is planning to make available. We regard this as reprehensible.”).

\textsuperscript{62} \textit{Id.} at 7. Although Drummond emphasized the benefits of the settlement for authors, some objectors believe that publishers will obtain more benefits from the settlement than authors will. \textit{See, e.g.}, Objections to Class Action Settlement and Notice of Intent to Appear on Behalf of Class Members Harold Bloom et al. at 26, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 2980738 (S.D.N.Y. Sept. 8, 2009) [hereinafter Bloom Objection] (“And the disturbing likelihood exists that the claiming procedures will unduly favor publishers because of their greater resources and organization.”).

\textsuperscript{63} \textit{See} Hearing, supra note 1, at 11.

\textsuperscript{64} \textit{See} Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, §§ 3.14, 4.4.

\textsuperscript{65} \textit{Id.} § 4.1.
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libraries accessible from any Internet-connected device.\textsuperscript{66} Revenues from consumer purchases, institutional subscriptions, and ads will be split, thirty-seven percent to Google and sixty-three percent to the Book Rights Registry (BRR), whose principal task is to sign up rights holders so it can pay them their share of the monies received from Google.\textsuperscript{67}

Drummond noted that Google is “partnering with bookstores, publishers, and device manufactures to develop an open platform,” so that “readers can find and purchase digital books from any bookstore and read them on any device, including laptops, mobile phones, and e-readers from multiple vendors.”\textsuperscript{68} This would overcome the dissatisfaction that some consumers feel about only being able to read their e-books only on a Kindle, Nook, or other proprietary device.

Another settlement benefit, according to Drummond, would be an equalization of higher education institutions.\textsuperscript{69} GBS public access terminals and institutional subscriptions will enable small, medium, and even large size but resource-challenged colleges and universities to, in effect, expand their collections to include millions of books from major research university collections. This would put students and faculty from these institutions on a more even par with the students and faculty of schools such as Stanford and Michigan. According to Paul Aiken of the Authors Guild, “[t]he settlement would turn every library into a world-class research facility.”\textsuperscript{70}

A further benefit of the GBS settlement, in the view of the Authors Guild, is the creation of a new collecting society, the BRR, through which authors and publishers can be paid for uses of their books not only by Google, but also by licenses granted to other firms.\textsuperscript{71} To attract rights holders to sign up

\textsuperscript{66} Hearing, supra note 1, at 8 (testimony of David Drummond, Senior Vice President of Corporate Development and Chief Legal Officer, Google, Inc.). A fourth, although less touted, source of revenue envisioned in the settlement is a fee that libraries will be charged for each page patrons print out from GBS books at public access terminals. See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.8(a)(ii).

\textsuperscript{67} See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 6.1(c)–(d).

\textsuperscript{68} Hearing, supra note 1, at 8 (testimony of David Drummond, Senior Vice President of Corporate Development and Chief Legal Officer, Google Inc.).

\textsuperscript{69} Id. at 10.

\textsuperscript{70} Id. at 34 (statement of Paul Aiken, Executive Director, Authors Guild).

\textsuperscript{71} See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 2.4 (recognizing the right of copyright owners to license others to commercialize their books through the
with the BRR, Google plans to pay class members who register $60 for past scanning of their books and to share this information with BRR so that it can encourage them to register for further benefits. BRR will likely prioritize its search for rights holders by searching first for those whose books are generating the most revenue.

In his testimony to Congress, Drummond expressed optimism that the GBS settlement would help to solve the “orphan works” problem for books. In-copyright books are sometimes described as “orphans” if their rights holders are difficult or impossible to find. One of the unfortunate consequences of copyright term extensions in recent decades is that many works are now in-copyright for decades beyond the life of the author; the older the work is, the more difficult it generally is to track down the appropriate rights holder to get permission to use the work. As it would be socially desirable to make orphan works more widely available for educational, research, and other purposes, there seems little reason to restrict uses of in-copyright works if there is no rights holder that is available for getting a rights clearance. To address the orphan works problem, the U.S. Copyright Office has proposed legislation, which remains on the Congressional agenda, to allow unauthorized uses of orphan works as long as efforts were made to track down rights holders.

Drummond has predicted that relatively few—under twenty percent—of the books in the GBS corpus will ultimately turn
out to be orphans.\textsuperscript{76} The basis for his optimism is that BRR is charged with tracking down rights holders and signing them up for the benefits that will come with participation in the GBS initiative.\textsuperscript{77} Once rights holders realize their books are generating income, Drummond expects they will come forward to participate in the revenue-sharing program GBS envisions.\textsuperscript{78} He denied that Google would have a monopoly over orphan books, for any firm could do what Google did.\textsuperscript{79} Drummond reaffirmed Google’s strong support for orphan works legislation.\textsuperscript{80} Such legislation could allow others to digitize orphan books. Drummond believes that Google’s competitors will be able to get a license from the BRR to commercialize all of the valuable out-of-print books, except the orphaned ones.\textsuperscript{81} In the absence of the settlement, moreover, no one has a license to make orphan books available, so the Google deal should be welcomed for opening up a new market that otherwise would not exist.\textsuperscript{82}

Drummond’s Congressional testimony did not mention two other significant benefits—one accruing to Google and the other accruing to nonprofit researchers—that would attend approval of a GBS settlement agreement. Google has a right under the

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{76} Hearing, supra note 1, at 12 (testimony of David Drummond, Senior Vice President of Corporate Development and Chief Legal Officer, Google Inc.). But see Band, supra note 25, at 294 (estimating that “as much as 75\% of out-of-print books will remain unclaimed”).
  \item \textsuperscript{77} Hearing, supra note 1, at 13 (testimony of David Drummond, Senior Vice President of Corporate Development and Chief Legal Officer, Google Inc.); see also Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 6.1(c).
  \item \textsuperscript{78} Hearing, supra note 1, at 12–13 (testimony of David Drummond, Senior Vice President of Corporate Development and Chief Legal Officer, Google Inc.).
  \item \textsuperscript{79} Id. at 11. There is reason to doubt this statement, for Google’s settlement of the Authors Guild lawsuit puts at risk the next person’s fair use defense, even for scanning to index books. See Posting of Pamela Samuelson to Huffington Post, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/pamela-samuelson/google-books-is-not-a-lib_b_31758.html (Oct. 13, 2009, 12:38). Google’s willingness to settle the lawsuit may be viewed as a concession that it needed a license to engage in this scanning. See id. Far riskier would be scanning for the purpose of developing a competing database of books to GBS. See id.
  \item \textsuperscript{80} Hearing, supra note 1, at 13 (testimony of David Drummond, Senior Vice President of Corporate Development and Chief Legal Officer, Google Inc.). Drummond also suggested that many orphan books will turn out to be commercially insignificant, and thus Google will not have a competitive advantage over others, even if it is the only firm to have a license to them. Id.
  \item \textsuperscript{81} Id. at 12.
  \item \textsuperscript{82} See id.; see also Elhauge, supra note 48, at 52 (“[H]aving one firm offer a desired product is preferable to having no firm offer it.”).
\end{itemize}
settlement to make “nondisplay” uses of books in the corpus. These nondisplay uses of books in the corpus will allow Google to refine its search technologies, develop improved translation tools, and create other new services that will make GBS a more useful and valuable resource. Google also plans to make access to the GBS corpus available at two university host sites, which can then make the corpus available to nonprofit researchers to engage in “nonconsumptive” research on it.

The availability of a corpus of millions of digitized books is not only, and possibly not mainly, of value to scholars because it would enable access obscure volumes on arcane subjects (e.g., medieval watermills or Lithuanian tapestries), but rather because a digitized and searchable corpus of books would allow scholars to learn a great deal through computational analysis of the contents of books in the corpus. This would make it possible, for instance, to trace the spread of the influence of a particular thinker by running searches across many books that might mention him. Linguists could discover the origins of words, concepts, and principles, or learn new things about usage patterns over time. Before GBS, only the deepest of scholars with prodigious memories of their decades of expe-

83. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, §§ 3.3(a), 3.4(a); see also id. § 1.94 (defining nondisplay uses as “uses that do not display Expression from Digital Copies of Books or Inserts to the public”).

84. See, e.g., Objection of Yahoo! Inc. to Final Approval of the Proposed Class Action Settlement at 25, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 2980749 (S.D.N.Y. Sept. 8, 2009) [hereinafter Yahoo! Objection] (pointing out the need for larger quanta of data to improve search technologies because “the very worst [search] algorithm at 10 million words is better than the very best algorithm at 1 million words” (quoting Peter Norvig, Theorizing From Data: Avoiding the Capital Mistake, May 31, 2007, available at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nU8DeBF-qo4)).

85. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 7.2(d)(ii)–(iii) (setting forth the terms under which nonconsumptive research can be performed); see also id. § 1.93 (defining “[n]on-[c]onsumptive [r]esearch” as “research in which computational analysis is performed on one or more books,” which includes image analysis or text extraction, textual analysis or information extraction, linguistic analysis, automated translation, and indexing and search).


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tatives could appreciate the deep intertextuality of books. With GBS, this intertextuality could become accessible to all. A digital corpus such as GBS thus opens up opportunities to explore knowledge embodied in books in ways that today can only be imagined.88

Several Stanford computer scientists, who wrote to Judge Chin in support of the GBS settlement, waxed even more eloquently about GBS, predicting that it would bring society to the verge of two major orders-of-magnitude changes in access to knowledge.89 First, information that once was available from research libraries in hours, weeks, or months—or possibly not at all unless one could get to the Library of Congress—would become available through GBS to users in minutes, if not seconds.90 This would be a breakthrough not only in speed of access, but also in the breadth and location of access, for any one could read these books from any Internet-connected place.91 These supporters of GBS further predict a fundamental “change in the quality of understanding and insight by the new generation of students,” which would represent another order-of-magnitude change resulting from GBS.92

Although patrons of institutional GBS subscriptions will generally not be able to get access to in-print books, lively competition can be expected among multiple sellers of these books which should ensure that in-print books will also be broadly accessible, whether in traditional print book form, in e-book form, or through print-on-demand services. For the foreseeable future, libraries will continue to purchase individual copies of in-print books that can then be lent to patrons.93

88. See Crane Letter, supra note 86, at 3 (describing GBS as “the emergence of a radically new, but deeply traditional form of intellectual activity, as emerging technologies allow us to more fully realize our most basic goals of advancing intellectual life”).


90. See id.

91. See id. This eloquent statement may be true for university researchers whose institutions subscribe to GBS, but only those users who are physically present at public libraries will have access to GBS terminals. See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.8(a)(1)–(3).


93. See, e.g., Motoko Rich, Off the Shelf, Onto the Laptop, Libraries Turn to Digital Books, N.Y. TIMES, Oct. 15, 2009, at A1 (noting that some public librarians object to being charged more for e-books than individual customers are charged, considering they typically pay the same price for hard-back books as individual customers). See infra notes 286–90 and accompanying text for a discussion of lending e-books.
If the GBS institutional subscription base expands dramatically and network effects kick in, publishers of in-print books may decide that it would be beneficial to allow more display uses of them in the GBS corpus. GBS could thus become an essential resource for anyone interested in acquiring the knowledge that is embodied in books. To facilitate this, Google is integrating GBS with other information resources, such as its new browser, email, and social networking tools. With this suite of resources, Google will be a few steps closer to achieving its founders’ aspiration to “organize the world’s information.”

B. More Pessimistic Predictions for the Future of Books in Cyberspace

Although Google and other proponents of the GBS settlement have been uniformly upbeat in public about the future of books in cyberspace if the GBS settlement agreement is approved, many commentators are quite critical of the settlement and pessimistic about its implications for the future of books. Among the pessimists are some publishers, librarians, academic authors and researchers, professional writers, and persons with concerns that audacious class action settlements, such as GBS, are fundamentally corrosive of democratic processes.

Most of the pessimistic assessments of GBS and the future of books can be found in the briefs and letters filed with the court objecting, opposing, or expressing concerns about the GBS settlement. Yet, even some publishers who support the GBS settlement are profoundly worried about the future of books in cyberspace, with or without the settlement. Although most of this section will discuss views of those who have been critical of the settlement, it may be instructive to consider first the rather ominous situation in which traditional book publishers presently find themselves.

94. In fact, Google’s competitors worry that by the time Congress does pass orphan works legislation to allow those entities to compete with Google, Google’s position may be so dominant that another entity will be unable to establish itself. See Internet Archive Memorandum, supra note 17, at 22.

1. Publisher Nightmares

Book publishing was a $40.3 billion business in 2008.\textsuperscript{96} This is substantial, of course, but as Michael Healy, the incoming Executive Director of the BRR, has pointed out, the book business in the United States is about the same size as the razor blade industry.\textsuperscript{97} Revenues from sales of print books went up slightly in 2008 as compared with 2007, but unit sales went down.\textsuperscript{98} The industry thus only did somewhat better than the year before, and only because it raised prices. E-book revenues constituted only $53.5 million of the 2008 book industry revenues, although this segment is growing.\textsuperscript{99} There was, however, a thirteen percent decline in sales of hard-cover books in 2008 and a further 15.5% decline in the first half of 2009.\textsuperscript{100} There was also negative growth in 2008 in sales of adult and juvenile trade books, as well as in sales of religious books.\textsuperscript{101} The trends for print books are not promising.

The most frightening scenario of immediate concern to major trade publishers is the “Napsterization” of commercially valuable books.\textsuperscript{102} Although new e-books, such as Dan Brown’s \textit{The Lost Symbol}, are available from Amazon.com for $9.99, it is also possible to obtain such books for free through file storage sites, such as Rapid-Share and Megaupload.\textsuperscript{103} The \textit{New York

\textsuperscript{96} See MICHAEL HEALY, BOOK INDUS. STUDY GROUP, BOOKS AND E-BOOKS: SOME INDUSTRY NUMBERS 3–4 (Oct. 2009), http://www.nyls.edu/user_files/1/3/4/30/58/Healy_Slides.pdf; see also id. at 2 (reporting that there were 130,477 active publishers in 2008, that approximately 275,000 new titles were published that year, and that there are approximately six million books that are commercially available in the United States.).


\textsuperscript{98} Healy, supra note 96, at 7.

\textsuperscript{99} See id. at 16.

\textsuperscript{100} See, e.g., Randall Stross, \textit{Will Books Be Napsterized?}, N.Y. TIMES, Oct. 4, 2009, at B1. The recession of 2008–09 may have more explanatory power for this decline than copyright infringement.

\textsuperscript{101} Healy, supra note 96, at 4.

\textsuperscript{102} See Stross, supra note 100, at B1.

\textsuperscript{103} See id. The presence of unauthorized copies of newly released titles on Internet sites or through peer-to-peer file-sharing technologies is not, however, a new phenomenon. See David A. Bell, \textit{The Bookless Future}, THE NEW REPUBLIC, May 2, 2005, at 31 (“The \textit{New York Times} estimated recently that as many as 25,000 titles can be downloaded [for free] . . . but sales of the print versions have not been hurt enough to make the publishing industry worry. Most book editors . . . are not even aware of the files’ existence.”).
Times recently reported that 166 illegal copies of Brown’s new book are available on eleven different websites.\footnote{104} Expensive textbooks for college courses are, moreover, being shared via peer-to-peer file-sharing networks.\footnote{105}

Napsterization is a phenomenon that mainly affects in-print books,\footnote{106} so the GBS settlement may not have much direct impact on this problematic future for digital books. Yet, because GBS will allow consumers to get lawful access to millions of books, it may alleviate somewhat the risk that users will go to file storage sites or engage in peer-to-peer file-sharing when they want access to books.

Although GBS will bring them new revenues, publishers worry that GBS could be “hacked” and all of the books therein, including the in-print books which are not available for display uses could be “liberated” by the hackers. The GBS settlement agreement contains an extensive set of provisions specifying very strict security requirements for Google and host sites of the GBS corpus to avert this potential disaster.\footnote{107}

Another troublesome aspect of the future of books in cyberspace from the standpoint of publishers is that consumers are

\footnote{104. See Stross, \textit{supra} note 100; see also Mike Harvey, \textit{Pirates Find Easy New Pickings in Open Waters of E-Book Publishing}, Times (London), Nov. 21, 2009, http://technology.timesonline.co.uk/tol/news/tech_and_web/article6925926.ece (reporting that \textit{The Lost Symbol} had been downloaded by illegal filesharers over 100,000 times within the first few days of its release).


106. Only a small percentage of in-print books are actually “Napsterized.” See Stross, \textit{supra} note 100, at B1 (“Until now, few readers have preferred e-books to printed or audible versions, so the public availability of free-for-the-taking copies did not matter much.”).

107. See Amended GBS Agreement, \textit{supra} note 39, § 8. There may be good reason to be worried about this, as evidenced by the existence of applications to circumvent Google’s security from preventing users from downloading full copies of books that are already available. See Posting of Bonnie Shucha to WisBlawg, Google Book Downloader, http://www.law.wisc.edu/blogs/wisblawg/2009/09/google_book_downloader.html (Sept. 10, 2009, 10:21 EST).}
not willing to pay premium prices for digital books. The same book—The Lost Symbol, for instance—whose hard-back list price is $29.95 is available for the Kindle for $9.99. While the lower digital price is understandable in part because digital publishers do not have to pay printing, binding, and distribution costs, there is a sense within the traditional book publishing industry that prices of digital books need to be higher if their industry is to thrive, or possibly even to survive. Lower digital prices have also put pressure on the prices of hard-cover books. A price war broke out in 2009 between Amazon.com and Wal-Mart that will lower prices even more—to $8.99—for best-selling books. This is not good news for book publishers.

The new economics of digital publishing may help to explain why the five trade publishers who initially sued Google for infringement may have come to perceive the lawsuit as presenting an unusual opportunity to reshape the marketplace for books in cyberspace and generate new revenues through “the magic trick” of a class action settlement. The lion’s share of these new revenues will go to book rights holders who, more often than not, may be publishers.

108. See Memorandum of Open Book Alliance as Amicus Curiae in Opposition to the Proposed Settlement Between the Authors Guild, Inc., Association of American Publishers, Inc., et al. and Google Inc., at 6, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 2980747 (S.D.N.Y. Sept. 8, 2009) [hereinafter OBA Memo] (noting the “customer perception that e-books should cost less”). Consumers may be less willing to pay higher prices for digital books because most e-books come with technical restrictions and are not freely shareable with friends or resalable in the same way that print books are. See id. at 5.

109. See id. at 5–6.

110. For example, the list price for a hardback copy of Dan Brown’s new book is $29.95, but this book is also available from Amazon.com either for $12.00 or used from $7.55. See Amazon.com, http://www.amazon.com/Lost-Symbol-Dan-Brown/dp/0385504255 (last visited Apr. 12, 2010).


113. See id. Publishers often get contractual assignments of copyright in books they have published which they are likely to register either through the Google Partner Program or with the BRR. There is, however, case law suggesting that authors, not publishers, have retained the right to authorize the commercialization of electronic versions of their books. See Random House, Inc. v. Rosetta Books LLC, 283 F.3d 490, 491 (2d Cir. 2002) (treating authors as having retained rights to authorize the making and selling of e-books). Some publishers, however, insist that the copyright assignments they got from
Google will set prices for institutional subscriptions to out-of-print books in the corpus in consultation with the BRR.114 Google plans to set prices for consumer purchases of books in the cloud through an algorithm designed to optimize the market returns for each book, although rights holders remain free to set their own prices for each book.115

The pricing provisions of the GBS deal are an important part of the benefit that the publisher-negotiators hope to realize. However, the DOJ raised serious questions about provisions in the first iteration of the GBS settlement agreement. The algorithmic pricing regime proposed by Google, for instance, looked to the DOJ like an illegal price-fixing agreement.116 The amended settlement made some adjustments to the pricing algorithm and now provides that Google’s goal is to simulate the price of the book in a competitive market.117 It remains to be seen whether the DOJ will find the amended pricing provisions to be acceptable.

Just when publishers thought the GBS deal was going to breathe new commercial life into their backlists, the DOJ has let them know the deal may be challenged for violating the antitrust laws (e.g., conspiring to fix prices and monopolize markets for digital books). This could put publishers through years of costly litigation defending the GBS deal.

While the DOJ would likely seek a resolution that did not include sending the negotiating publishers to jail, it could conceivably stop the deal altogether or force the publishers and Google to make such dramatic changes to the GBS deal that it would no longer seem as desirable to publishers as the first version was. If, for example, the DOJ insisted that rights holders of unclaimed books (i.e., orphan books) should be excluded from the settlement class because they cannot be given adequate notice of the settlement, the GBS deal would be far less

See, e.g., Motoko Rich, In Familiar Books, A Plot Twist: A Battle Over Electronic Rights, N.Y. TIMES, Dec. 13, 2009, at A1. One of the most important aspects of the GBS settlement is Appendix A, which sets forth a revenue-sharing arrangement between authors and publishers as to BRR-registered books. See Sag, supra note 33, at 50–61 (discussing the Author-Publisher Procedures of the proposed GBS settlement).

114. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.1(vi)–(viii).
115. Id. § 4.2(b), (c)(ii).
117. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.2(b)(i)(2), (c)(ii)(2).
attractive to Google and the publishers. Insistence on limiting the scope of the settlement to payouts for scanning books to make indexes and providing snippets would likewise change the deal so substantially that the parties might no longer want to pursue it.

The GBS settlement could, of course, be disapproved for other reasons. The judge might, for instance, not be persuaded that the GBS settlement satisfies Rule 23, which sets forth the legal requirements for settling class action lawsuits. Disapproval could result because the proposed settlement class had too diverse a set of interests to be certified, notice to class members was inadequate, the named plaintiffs did not fairly and adequately represent the interests of the class as a whole, or the settlement was too broad in scope and too future-oriented to be approved. Some publishers whose interests diverge substantially from those of the major trade publishers who negotiated the GBS deal have, for example, objected to the deal as unfair to them. Support for the settlement among publishers is, in general, more mixed than Judge Chin might infer from the relative paucity of U.S. publisher objections to the settlement.

Disapproval of the settlement could well bring about another publisher nightmare. McGraw-Hill and its fellow plaintiffs cannot relish the prospect of either renewing litiga-

118. The Internet Archive, for example, argued that orphan book rights holders should be excluded from the settlement class. See Internet Archive Memorandum, supra note 17, at 2 (“It is impossible to know if the ostensible class representatives are typical of the entire class, because it is impossible to know what orphan rights owners would want or what they would perceive to be in their interests.”).

119. See DOJ Statement, supra note 48, at 15 (suggesting that a settlement involving indexing and snippets could conceivably satisfy class action requirements).

120. See FED. R. CIV. P. 23.

121. See, e.g., Gant Objection, supra note 37 (raising numerous Rule 23 objections to the GBS settlement).


123. See Andrew Richard Albanese, Unsettled: A PW Readership Survey Examines the Google Book Settlement, PUBLISHERS WKLY., Aug. 24, 2009, at 25 (finding that just over half of its readership supported the settlement, as of mid-July 2009).
tion against Google over whether scanning books for purposes of indexing their contents is infringement, or dropping the litigation altogether because it would be too expensive to carry on, too uncertain in outcome, and too demoralizing because of widespread public support for Google, in general, and for GBS, in particular.

Most publishers today are probably too busy coping with the challenges of the present to reflect very deeply on the future of their role in the book industry in the digital era. This future may be far dimmer than many realize. In the past, publishers have offered many important services. They selected manuscripts that could be targeted to audiences that the publishers knew how to reach; they provided authors with advances to help them complete books; they provided editing, typesetting, book cover design, printing, and advertising services. They also arranged for shipping books to distribution outlets for book tours, for book reviews, and for other promotional materials for authors’ books. Because of their control over most of the value chain, publishers, wholesalers and retail outlets have generally enjoyed much larger shares of the revenues that books have generated than their authors have. But things are changing rapidly. Publishers are both providing fewer services to authors and performing others (e.g., online promotion of books) less well than in the print era.

In the digital era, authors are in a better position than in the past to grow their own audiences, cultivate reputations that attract readers, and provide their works to readers through alternative distribution channels, such as the Kindle or GBS. Authors are already being asked to perform the bulk of the copyediting, formatting, and other tasks of book preparation. Services, such as customer book ratings on Amazon.com, are helping to sell books and depend less on publisher intermediation. Authors may well think they deserve a better royalty stream than they have traditionally gotten from trade publishers.

124. See id. (noting that at least one respondent to the Publishers Weekly survey opined that the GBS deal “will destroy the book industry”).


With the rise of Kindle, GBS, and other new digital service providers, authors may find it attractive to cut out the traditional middleman. The title of Ken Auletta’s new book on Google is apt. Traditional book publishers have been Googled, which, for them, may be The End of the World as We Know It. Traditional book publishing firms, such as McGraw-Hill, will not necessarily disappear, but they may be on life-support from the revenues they receive from Google for books they make available through GBS. Traditional book publishers cannot possibly be looking forward to this future scenario for books in cyberspace.

2. Library and Academic Researcher Nightmares

Although library associations and academic authors and researchers unquestionably welcome the far greater access to books that would come about if and when the GBS settlement is approved, many have expressed serious concerns about the risks that approval of the settlement will, over time, lead to price gouging for institutional subscriptions. This would limit the ability of libraries to acquire new materials, especially from independent publishers, and to serve well their core constituents.

Two main factors underlie the concerns about price gouging. One is that there are no meaningful constraints on price

from sales of print books, but most often a fifty percent share of revenues from licensing subsidiary rights, which should include licensing of e-book rights); see also Objection to Proposed Class Action Settlement on Behalf of Author’s Rights Class Member Ian Franckenstein at 5, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 2566936 (S.D.N.Y. Aug. 13, 2009) (noting that one e-publisher recently paid its rights holders eighty percent of e-sales).
129. AULETTA, supra note 18.
130. It is conceivable that these revenues will enable firms like McGraw Hill to become bankers to authors—that is, entities that lend authors money to enable them to finish their books.
hikes in the proposed GBS settlement. The GBS settlement agreement sets forth four criteria for the pricing of institutional subscriptions: the number of books available, the quality of the scans, features offered as part of the subscription, and prices of similar products and services available from third parties. The more books Google scans and the more features it adds to the subscription database, the more justification it will have to raise prices. There are, moreover, no comparable products or services to the GBS institutional subscriptions, so this too will fail to serve as a check on price hikes.

132. See Letter of Pamela Samuelson to Judge Denny Chin on Behalf of Academic Authors at 3–4, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC) [hereinafter Samuelson Letter], available at http://docs.justia.com/cases/federal/district-courts/new-york/nysdce/1:2005cv08136/273913/336/0.pdf (suggesting several ways that prices for institutional subscriptions might be constrained). Proponents of the GBS settlement regard the “dual objective” of the agreement as a constraint on price-gouging. See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.1(a)(ii) (setting forth the dual objectives of the settlement in respect of institutional subscriptions as, first, realization of market returns for books being licensed through GBS, and second, the realization of broad public access to books in the GBS corpus).

133. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.1(a)(ii). The agreement also contemplates pricing bands for different kinds of institutions. Id. § 4.1(a)(iv). The core institutional subscription database (ISD) for licensing to higher educational institutions will consist of all books eligible for such subscriptions (that is, all out-of-print books whose rights holders have not opted to exclude their books from the ISD, plus any in-print books whose rights holders have opted into the ISD). Id. § 4.1(a)(v). The expectations of those who negotiated the settlement is that approximately ninety-five percent of the books in the ISD will be out-of-print books. Constantine, supra note 73. Google also expects to develop some discipline-specific subsets of books in the GBS corpus that might be licensed to corporations, governments, and the like. See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.1(a)(v).

134. Google’s license from the settlement class allows it to scan not only many books for GBS that may be wholly lacking in scholarly or research significance (e.g., say, Harlequin romance novels), but also duplicates of books already in the corpus. See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 3.1(a). The settlement agreement seems to contemplate that price hikes for institutional subscriptions can be based on the sheer number of books in the corpus. See id. § 4.1(a)(ii). Prices for GBS institutional subscriptions may thus rise based on the number of books as well as the number of services available. Many such services may be developed by nonprofit researchers who engaged in nonconsumptive research using the GBS corpus. These researchers are forbidden from commercializing these services without Google’s and BRR’s permission. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 7.2(d)(ii). Yet, Google may well be able to include these services in the GBS institutional subscription corpus, which would justify charging higher prices.

135. Samuelson Letter, supra note 132, at 3 n.6. The GBS settlement agreement contemplates that prices for individual out-of-print books in the cloud will be between $1.99 and $29.99. See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.2(c)(6). Given this, it would be logical for institutional subscription prices
A second factor is that Google will have a de facto exclusive license to commercialize all out-of-print books through the class action settlement; no one else can realistically expect to obtain a comparably broad license to make out-of-print books available in the current legal environment (e.g., in the absence of orphan works legislation that would allow others to scan such books). 136 This means that no other firm besides Google will be able to offer institutional subscriptions of comparable breadth to be competitive with the GBS subscriptions. 137 The de facto monopoly that the settlement would confer on Google is the source of its power to charge supracompetitive prices for institutional subscriptions. The DOJ has expressed concern about the GBS settlement because of the potential foreclosure of competition arising from this de facto exclusive license to Google. 138

Although institutional subscriptions may initially be priced quite modestly to attract customers, 139 academic authors are concerned that:

[T]en, twenty, thirty or more years from now, when institutions have become ever more dependent on GBS subscriptions and have consequently shed books from their physical collections, and indeed when electronic publishing begins to supplant traditional methods of publication for some texts, the temptation to raise prices to excessive levels will be very high. 140

Another reason to fear substantial price hikes is that Google cannot set institutional subscription prices unilaterally.

136. The GBS settlement agreement states that it is nonexclusive. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 2.4. However, no one else can get a comparably broad license to out-of-print books. DOJ Statement, supra note 48, at 23. The DOJ urged the settling parties to find a way to grant a similar license to third parties. See id. at 25–26. Orphan works legislation is another way a comparable license could potentially be obtained.


138. See DOJ Statement, supra note 48, at 21 (listing three ways in which the settlement restricts price competition between authors and publishers).

139. See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.1(a)(vi)(2) (“The initial Pricing Strategy will also include a discount from the List Prices that will be offered for a limited time to subscribers. This discount . . . is designed to encourage potential customers to subscribe.”).

140. Samuelson Letter, supra note 132, at 4.
It must do so in consultation with the BRR, whose mission is to represent rights holders who will almost certainly press for higher prices.

The very future that may seem like nirvana to publishers—new opportunities to obtain monopoly rents from out-of-print books through revenue-maximizing pricing in collaboration with Google—may be a nightmare scenario for libraries and academic researchers. The risks of price gouging for institutional subscriptions are of particular urgency to university and other major research libraries because they have experienced outrageously large price hikes in the pricing and bundling of journals and other scholarly periodicals, especially those provided by for-profit publishers. Some university libraries now pay more than four million dollars a year to license online access to scholarly journals for their research communities. They have reason to fear that institutional subscriptions to millions of books in the GBS corpus will, in time, prove even more expensive.

Another reason that librarians are fearful about GBS subscriptions is that book-rich institutions may succumb to the temptation to give away or sell off (“deaccession” is the term of art for this practice) copies of physical books from their collections after years of becoming comfortable with GBS subscriptions. Physical books may no longer seem needed. If GBS subscriptions work as well as some hope, books may only be taking up valuable real estate on college campuses and gathering dust.

141. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.1(a)(iv)(3)–(6) (requiring Registry approval for remote access with K–12 schools, the government, the public, and additional potential categories).
142. See, e.g., UC Academic Council Letter, supra note 131, at 2–3 (stating their concern that access to materials will be restricted because of the revenue motives).
143. See, e.g., Aaron S. Edlin & Daniel L. Rubinfeld, Exclusion or Efficient Pricing? The "Big Deal" Bundling of Academic Journals, 72 ANTITRUST L.J. 119, 122–23 (2004) (noting, for example, that between 1984 and 2002, science journal prices increased almost six hundred percent); Mark J. McCabe, A Portfolio Model of Journal Pricing: Print v. Digital 7 (June 2003) (unpublished manuscript), available at http://mccabe.people.si.umich.edu/PS.pdf (writing that libraries have been forced to postpone or cancel subscriptions because of their price inflations).
144. Library Ass'n Comments on the Proposed Settlement at 9, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (S.D.N.Y. May 12, 2009).
As understandable as book deaccession might be, it would put libraries at the mercy of Google in the pricing of institutional subscriptions, for they would no longer have the institutional resources to enable patrons to shift back to reliance on local book collections and those of institutions with which they have interlibrary loan arrangements.¹⁴⁶

Deaccession would also make it impossible for these institutions to scan their collections to create an alternative corpus to GBS. Without books to scan, institutions would be stuck with whatever prices Google and BRR had agreed to charge for GBS institutional subscriptions.

Those who downplay the risk of price gouging suggest that Google’s focus on advertising revenues will avert this problem.¹⁴⁷ This theory posits that Google will have incentives to keep prices of subscriptions low so that ever larger numbers of people can see the ads, which would presumably enhance ad revenues.¹⁴⁸ Yet, those who negotiated the GBS deal on behalf of authors and publishers do not expect that GBS will generate substantial ad revenues; in their view, “the big money” is going

¹⁴⁶. Once researchers get used to having access to digital books, they may, moreover, be unwilling to switch back to print books. Habit, convenience, and market ecology may make this regression quite unlikely.

¹⁴⁷. See, e.g., Elhauge, supra note 48, at 44 (stating that Google makes “97% of its revenue from advertising” and any decrease in site traffic because of supercompetitive pricing would hurt Google’s profitability); see also Paul N. Courant, What’s at Stake in the Google Book Search Settlement?, ECON. VOICE 5, Oct. 2009, http://www.bepress.com/ev/vol6/iss9/art7/ (“[I]t seems likely that Google is more interested in attracting people to its site than it is in profiting directly from sales of books, and hence would prefer prices to be low.”). Yet, Courant, who is the head librarian of the University of Michigan, was apparently concerned enough about the risk of price gouging that he negotiated for an arbitration procedure to be established in an agreement between the University of Michigan and Google that allows challenges of excessive institutional subscription prices. See Amendment to Cooperative Agreement, (May 19, 2009), attachment A, § 3, available at http://www.lib.umich.edu/files/services/mdp/Amendment-to-Cooperative-Agreement.pdf. Professor Elhauge argues that the arbitration procedure will serve as a meaningful check on excessive pricing. Elhauge, supra note 48, at 49–50. My letter to Judge Chin takes issue with this argument. See Samuelson Letter, supra note 132, at 5 (“The procedure set forth for the pricing review is truly byzantine, even Kafkaesque, and is fraught with complications and limitations. Even leaving aside the complexity and opacity of the proposed arbitration procedure, the fundamental problem is that the Settlement Agreement has inadequate criteria for meaningful limitations on price hikes. Because of this, we believe it is highly unlikely that the arbitration procedure contemplated in the Michigan side agreement will prove to be more than a symbolic gesture.”).

¹⁴⁸. See Courant, supra note 147, at 5.
to come from institutional subscriptions. Additionally, Google’s senior management has actively been trying to expand the firm’s revenue models; institutional subscriptions would seem a promising source of such revenues. It is, moreover, far from clear that the contents of out-of-print scholarly books will provide promising materials for serving ads to readers.

Google spokesmen have also sometimes suggested that if institutional subscription prices become too high for some to bear, those who want access to particular books can always buy those books through the GBS consumer purchase model or get access to preview uses that GBS will provide for open Internet searches. This may be a feasible solution for some individual patrons, but purchases of books in the cloud are not a realistic alternative at an institutional level to a subscription that would enable patrons to access millions of books; nor will access up to twenty percent of GBS book contents suffice for scholarly work. College and university libraries will likely need an insti-

149. Telephone Conversation with Michael Boni, lead lawyer for the Author Subclass (Aug. 12, 2009); Telephone Conversation with John Sargent, a publisher-negotiator for Macmillan (Aug. 11, 2009).

150. AULETTA, supra note 18, at 254 (“Google wants to grow.”).

151. Books on the history of Paris or Berlin may be promising materials for serving ads about hotels or restaurants in those cities. However, many scholarly books from major research libraries may be too arcane or esoteric in subject matter to generate ad revenues. Targeted advertising in higher education settings may be viewed as unwelcome distractions from reading and research experiences. See Samuelson, supra note 79 (“That Google will serve ads alongside search results that yield GBS results is not surprising for the open Internet searches that users will do. But Google is now pressing university partners to accept ads even for the institutional subscriptions. Anyone aspiring to create a modern equivalent of the Alexandrian library would not have designed it to transform research libraries into shopping malls, but that is just what Google will be doing if the GBS deal is approved as is.”).

152. A Tale of Two Cities, Google Books, http://books.google.com/books?id=VSEVAAAAAYAAJ&printsec=frontcover&q=charles+dickens+a+tale+of+two+cities&ei=OoNwS5KNAoKOMoKteQJ&cd=1#v=onepage&q=&f=false (last visited Apr. 12, 2010) (providing links to purchase the book on the left side of the webpage). Dan Clancy, Google’s chief spokesman for the GBS project, made this assertion at a meeting with UC Berkeley faculty members and librarians on June 22, 2009. Proponents of the settlement also argue that the free library access terminal will be a check on excessive pricing. Elhauge, supra note 48, at 50–51. However, demand for free terminal access is unlikely to suffice to fulfill demand for access to GBS either at higher education institutions or at public libraries. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.8 (stating that qualifying places will typically only get one free terminal). Besides, print-out fees from these public access terminals are an alternative way in which price gouging could occur. See id. § 4.8(a)(ii) (indicating that the Registry uses its discretion to set the printing fee).
tutional subscription to GBS to be competitive with other institutions.

The vision that GBS will be an equalizer among higher education institutions may be inspiring, but the reality may be quite different. Small, rural, and resource-challenged colleges from states such as Indiana, West Virginia, or Mississippi will not be eligible for as favorable a deal on institutional subscriptions to GBS as resource-rich University of Michigan, which will get its subscription for free for twenty-five years. Michigan was able to get this deal because it provided Google with millions of books for GBS scanning and because it was an early enthusiastic supporter of GBS.

Colleges and universities with much smaller book collections (most of which Google may already have scanned from research libraries) that become Google library partners much later than Michigan will have less to offer Google to qualify for deep discounts. If Michigan and other book-rich, early GBS library partners are getting free or heavily discounted prices for their subscriptions to GBS, book-poor and late-to-partner institutions will likely pay a premium for their subscriptions to GBS. Ironically enough, small and resource-poor schools would likely end up subsidizing resource-rich schools like Michigan, turning Drummond’s promise of equalization on its head.

That does not mean that small and resource-challenged institutions will have no access to GBS. Nonprofit institutions of higher education, as well as public libraries, will be eligible for one or a small number of public access terminals through which the GBS institutional subscription database can be accessed.156

153. See supra note 70 and accompanying text.
155. Norman Oder, University of Michigan, Library Partners Can Challenge Google Book Search Pricing in Amended Agreement, LIBR. JOURNAL, May 20, 2009, available at http://www.libraryjournal.com/article/CA6659681.html (“Google for 25 years will subsidize the cost of UM’s subscription based on the number of books scanned from Michigan, which in practice means it will be free. That’s not necessarily the case for all partners. The clause is contingent on the library making its content available to Google and that it has fewer than 60,000 FTE users.”).
156. Higher education institutions will be eligible for one public access terminal per so many enrolled students, depending on which kind of institution it is. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.8(a)(1)–(2). Public libraries will be eligible for one public access terminal per public library. Id. § 4.8(a)(5). The amended agreement provides BRR with authority to approve
Access to dedicated GBS public access terminals will be free; however, users of the public access terminals at higher education and public libraries will be charged a fee for every page of every GBS book that patrons print out, and seventy percent of the fee will go to BRR.\footnote{See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, §§ 4.5(a)(i), 4.8(a)(ii). For a discussion of the fair use implications of this provision, see infra notes 199–213 and accompanying text.} At an August 28, 2009, conference about the Google Book Search settlement, Dan Clancy, Google’s chief spokesman for GBS, said that the settling parties’ expectation was that providing public access terminals would fuel demand for purchases of institutional subscriptions.\footnote{See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.3(b)(i). Public and private K–12 schools and their libraries are expected to be interested in institutional subscriptions as well, although perhaps to a subset of the GBS corpus. There will be no free public access terminals at these schools, although Internet-connected computers would be able to provide access to preview uses of GBS books. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.3(a). Rights holders in these books can restrict the scope of preview uses to less than twenty percent of the book and restrict access to specific parts. See id.} Buy-one-get-one-free is a tried-and-true marketing strategy; Google is planning to use a variant (get one free first, and then buy the same thing to fulfill patron demand) to induce these libraries to purchase institutional subscriptions.\footnote{See, e.g., Kevin Poulsen, Google’s Abandoned Library of 700 Million Titles, WIRED, Oct. 7, 2009, http://www.wired.com/epicenter/2009/10/usenet/ (“[A] few geeks with long memories remember the last time Google assembled a giant library that promised to rescue orphaned content for future generations. And the tattered remnants of that online archive are a cautionary tale in what happens when Google simply loses interest.”); see also Remarks of Paul Duguid at the C is for Culture Session at New York Law School’s D is for Digitize Conference (Oct. 9, 2009), available at http://nyls.mediasite.com/}

Another way that price gouging might come about is if Google decides to sell the GBS institutional subscription database business to another firm. It might do this for one of several reasons; it might, for example, decide to shift its corporate priorities in a different direction or possibly become bored with GBS after the engineering challenges it poses are surmounted. Institutional subscriptions would seem to require investments in cultural stewardship and particularized customer support, which have thus far not been Google’s strong suit.\footnote{Video Recording: The Google Books Settlement and the Future of Information Access, (UC Berkeley School of Information, Aug. 28, 2009), available at http://www.ischool.berkeley.edu/newsandevents/events/20090828googlebooksconference.}
The settlement agreement gives Google the unqualified right to sell the corpus to anyone without getting consent from BRR or anyone else.\textsuperscript{161} Google would presumably sell the institutional subscription part of GBS to the highest bidder (or risk a shareholder lawsuit challenging it with neglecting responsibilities to its shareholders). One reason a firm might bid on this asset is to maximize revenues, which could mean raising the prices of institutional subscriptions.

Beyond price gouging, libraries and academic authors are and should be nervous about the possibility that GBS institutional licenses and public access to GBS contents could cease to be available. There are several ways in which this could occur. First, the October 28, 2008, settlement agreement makes reference to a termination agreement, which the settling parties are intending to keep secret, even from the court.\textsuperscript{162} The negotiating parties have thus acknowledged the possibility that GBS could be discontinued.

Second, technological glitches could cause GBS to go down, either temporarily or permanently. Temporary outages have happened several times with Google's Gmail servers, causing considerable disruption.\textsuperscript{163} Similar outages can be expected for GBS, which would be highly disruptive to core activities of research communities. Hackers or electronic terrorists may, moreover, consider GBS to be a challenging target for attacks.

Third, Google could also decide to stop providing institutional subscriptions, even without terminating the agreement as a whole. While the Registry and Google's library partners are entitled under the agreement to seek an alternate provider of institutional subscriptions who would have the same obligations to BRR as Google had,\textsuperscript{164} they might not be able to find another vendor willing to provide those services. There is no backup plan if no third party comes forward. It would be desirable for participating libraries to band together and pool their

\textsuperscript{161} See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 17.30.
\textsuperscript{162} Id. at art. XVI. The amended settlement agreement no longer makes any reference to the termination agreement. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, at art. XVI.
\textsuperscript{164} Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 7.2 (e)(ii).
library digital copies to restore their ability to facilitate access to books from the GBS corpus. The settlement agreement does not, however, specifically provide for this plan.\textsuperscript{165} Shutting down GBS might cause Google to breach its contractual obligations to its library partners, but Google has limited this liability through liquidated damages clauses.\textsuperscript{166}

A fourth way in which GBS could cease to be available is if the Authors Guild, Inc. \textit{v.} Google Inc. litigation goes forward, and Google ultimately loses the lawsuit. Many librarians have invested hundreds of hours of work in negotiating deals with Google, arranging for books to be sent off for scanning, and then reintegrating the books into the library upon their return. If the GBS deal is not approved, not only will all the time, money, and energy spent on cooperating with Google be wasted, but libraries, particularly private institutions, have reason to worry that if litigation over GBS resumes, they could be at risk of being held liable for contributory copyright infringement for materially aiding Google by providing the books scanned for the GBS corpus. Although Google has promised to indemnify them for liability to third parties, the risks of litigation weigh heavily on libraries, especially those affiliated with private universities.\textsuperscript{167}

The database of publicly accessible GBS books could also substantially shrink in size and scope as a result of decisions by rights holders to exclude out-of-print books from display uses, to insist that Google not scan their out-of-print books, or to demand removal of books already scanned. Many publishers and some author groups have reportedly asked Google not to scan their books for the GBS corpus or to exclude their books from display uses; others have opted out of the GBS settlement.\textsuperscript{168}

\textsuperscript{165} See \textit{id.}

\textsuperscript{166} See \textit{e.g.,} Amendment to Cooperative Agreement, \textit{supra} note 147, at 21 (limiting Google’s liability to Michigan to three million dollars).

\textsuperscript{167} See \textit{e.g.,} Andrew Richard Albanese, \textit{Deal or No Deal: What if the Google Settlement Fails?}, PUBLISHERS WKLY., May 25, 2009, http://www.publishersweekly.com/article/CA6660295.html (“Should this deal fail, libraries could face legal exposure for their own digital library initiatives, and possibly for their contributory role in Google’s book-scanning efforts.”); \textit{see supra} note 31 (discussing the Eleventh Amendment immunity that public universities would likely have from damage awards in a copyright case).

\textsuperscript{168} See \textit{e.g.,} Posting of Motoko Rich to Media Decoder, http://media decoder.blogs.nytimes.com/2009/08/07/william-morris-advises-clients-to-say-no -to-google-settlement/ (Aug. 7, 2009, 16:55). The DOJ Statement of Interest indicates that the parties believed that the largest publishers would opt out of
The more numerous are the requests to exclude, the less likely it is that the public benefit that Google and proponents of GBS have promised will materialize. The corpus of books eligible for GBS institutional subscriptions and public access has already shrunk by about half because the amended GBS settlement no longer includes most books of foreign origin scanned from major research library collections.169 Some librarians mourn this loss.170

Poor quality scans and metadata may also significantly limit the utility of the GBS for research communities. An article by linguist Geoff Nunberg characterized GBS, in its current form, as a “disaster for scholars” because of pervasive errors in metadata (which are basic data about the books, such as the name of the book, the name of the author, the year and place of publication).171 GBS, for instance, yields 182 citations to Charles Dickens, to books GBS says were published years before he was born.172 A search for references to “Internet” before 1950 yields 527 GBS hits.173 Walt Whitman’s *Leaves of Grass* is “variously classified [in GBS] as Poetry, Juvenile Nonfiction, Fiction, Literary Criticism, Biography & Autobiography, and, mystifyingly, Counterfeits and Counterfeiting.”174

This problem arises because Google uses Book Industry Standards and Communication (BISAC) codes to classify GBS books by type; publishers developed BISAC codes to instruct booksellers about which section of the store should house their books.175

the GBS settlement and negotiate separate deals with Google. See DOJ Statement, supra note 48, at 10.

169. See, e.g., Brian Lavoie et al., supra note 21 (estimating that half of the books in major research libraries are foreign-language books); see also Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 17.7(b).

170. See, e.g., KENNETH CREWS, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES/INFORMATION SERVICES, GBS 2.0: THE NEW GOOGLE BOOKS (PROPOSED) SETTLEMENT (2001), http://copyright.columbia.edu/copyright/2009/11/17/gbs-20-the-new-google-books-proposed-settlement/ (“Because the settlement is now tightly limited [by the exclusion of most foreign books], so will be the ISD [Institutional Subscription Database]. The big and (probably) expensive database is no longer so exciting.”).


172. Id.

173. Id.

174. Id.

175. Id.
One reason Google may be using BISAC codes to classify books is to aid it in determining what kinds of ads to serve to users of those books (e.g., airline promotions against books classified as travel). While Google expects to serve ads for open Internet searches that yield GBS book results, it is also contemplating serving ads to users of books in the institutional subscription database to which college and university libraries will be subscribing. This worries some academic researchers who consider ads to be serious distractions from the scholarly enterprise, for they pose the risk of transforming research libraries into shopping malls.176

3. Professional Author Nightmares

Academic authors are likely to continue to write scholarly books, regardless of what happens with GBS, as copyright incentives are not the main motivations for their creative output. However, professional writers have distinctly mixed feelings about GBS. Some are pleased at the prospect that their books, even if out-of-print for decades, may once again attract readers as well as generate some revenues. Authors Guild spokesmen have heralded the settlement as a tremendous benefit for authors.177 Yet, other professional writers fear the consequences of their loss of control over uses Google will make of their books. An author who has written a critique of stereotypes of women as sex objects may, for example, be quite unhappy if Google runs ads next to her text that promote the sale of sex toys or breast enhancement surgery.178

Some professional authors are upset about the low amounts—sixty dollars per book, fifteen dollars per insert—that the settlement will provide to rights holders whose books

176. See Samuelson, supra note 79.
177. See, e.g., Hearing, supra note 1, at 5 (testimony of Paul Aiken, Executive Director, Authors Guild, Inc.).
178. See Nunberg, supra note 171 ("The 2003 edition of Susan Bordo’s Unbearable Weight: Feminism, Western Culture, and the Body (misdated 1899) is assigned to Health & Fitness—not a labeling you could imagine coming from its publisher, the University of California Press, but one a classifier might come up with on the basis of the title, like the Religion tag that Google assigns to a 2001 biography of Mae West that’s subtitled An Icon in Black and White or the Health & Fitness label on a 1962 number of the medievalist journal Speculum."); see also Objections of Arlo Guthrie et al., to Proposed Class Action Settlement Agreement at 21, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136, 2009 WL 488800 (S.D.N.Y. Sept. 2, 2009) [hereinafter Guthrie Objection] (expressing concern that advertising next to GBS books may be offensive to authors and damaging to their reputations).
have already been scanned.\textsuperscript{179} Insofar as Google keeps prices of GBS institutional subscriptions low, as some commentators predict, some authors worry that they will not be adequately compensated for Google’s commercial uses of their books.\textsuperscript{180} One set of objectors to the settlement assert that rights holders should be paid for nondisplay uses made of their books in the GBS corpus, particularly for the sale of AdWords from which Google derives substantial revenues.\textsuperscript{181} They also complained about the unfairness of the five hundred dollar cap on payments to rights holders of inserts (e.g., short stories or essays in an edited volume).\textsuperscript{182} The amended settlement agreement also seems to deprive U.S. authors of inserts, such as book chapters, from any compensation for Google’s commercialization of their works unless the insert was separately registered with the U.S. Copyright Office.\textsuperscript{183}

Some also worry that BRR will spend most of the revenues it gets from Google on its own operations, leaving precious little for paying authors for commercial use of their works.\textsuperscript{184} Some have expressed concern about the deal that the Authors Guild cut with publishers over revenue splits for books published before 1987.\textsuperscript{185} A good argument can be made that authors who

\textsuperscript{179} See, e.g., Bloom Objection, supra note 62, at 11. The settlement payments contrast sharply with the $750 per infringed work minimum statutory damage that could be awarded if the matter went to trial. 17 U.S.C. § 504(c) (2006).


\textsuperscript{181} See Guthrie Objection, supra note 178, at 19 ("[T]he fact that AdWords generated some substantial portion of $5.5 billion in total revenue for Google in the first quarter of 2009 alone . . . is plainly to authors' substantial financial detriment.").

\textsuperscript{182} Id. at 12.

\textsuperscript{183} See KENNETH CREWS, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY LIBRARY/INFORMATION SERVICES, GOOGLE BOOKS: “DUDE, WHERE'RE MY INSERTS?” (2009), http://copyright.columbia.edu/copyright/2009/12/17/google-books-duke-wherere-my -inserts/ (explaining why it was plausible for insert authors to believe their inserts were in the settlement as long as the books in which their works appeared were registered and how the amended agreement limited the insert author subclass).

\textsuperscript{184} See, e.g., Lynn Chu, Google’s Book Settlement Is a Ripoff for Authors, WALL ST. J., Mar. 28, 2009, at A9.

\textsuperscript{185} See, e.g., Bloom Objection, supra note 62, at 9, 26 ("[T]hey developed a complicated set of procedures by which authors and publishers must sort out their rights to claim compensation for the same work."); see also Amended
assigned their copyrights to publishers before that year only assigned rights to print publications of their works, not to e-books. Yet, the GBS settlement agreement would give publishers thirty-five percent of the revenues generated from pre-1987 books. Some authors also mourn the loss of access to federal courts for disputes over books in the GBS corpus, for the settlement agreement provides for compulsory arbitration of all GBS-related disputes.

4. Nightmares for Readers

Although members of the reading public will benefit from the greater access to books that approval of the GBS settlement would bring, there are some reasons to be concerned about the settlement’s implications for readers. These include inadequate guarantees of privacy protections, potential erosion of fair use and first sale rights, some likelihood that books purchased through GBS will be priced at excessive levels, and risks of censorship because the settlement authorizes Google to exclude books from GBS for editorial reasons.

The proposed GBS settlement calls for extensive monitoring of uses of individual books, yet it says almost nothing about user privacy. One group of authors, including Michael Chabon, Lawrence Ferlinghetti, and Jonathem Lethem, objected to the GBS settlement because they feared that “the lack of priva-

GBS Agreement, supra note 39, attachment A, § 6.2 (c)(i) (laying out the revenue split between authors and publishers for out-of-print books published before 1987 as well as discussing the procedure governing authors and publishers).

186. See Random House, Inc. v. Rosetta Books L.L.C., 283 F.3d 490, 492 (2d Cir. 2002) (authors had the right to authorize e-book versions of their works because contracts to publish books only covered print books). But see Rich, supra note 113 (reporting that publishers contest that authors own e-book rights).

187. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, attachment A, § 6.2(c)(i).

188. See, e.g., Bloom Objection, supra note 62, at 9 (“[T]he Proposed Settlement broadly precludes Rightsholders from bringing suit for future infringement in federal courts.”).

189. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, at art. IX.

190. See, e.g., UC Academic Council Letter, supra note 131, at 6–7 (expressing concerns about lack of privacy guarantees); Brief of the Center for Democracy & Technology as Amicus Curiae in Support of Approval of the Settlement and Protection of Reader Privacy, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136, 2009 WL 2980758 (S.D.N.Y. Sept. 9, 2009) (“[T]he New Services also create very significant privacy risks, and could potentially transform a historic haven for reader privacy—the library—into a sweeping new source of data collection and tracking.”).
cy protections in the current settlement will deter readers” which would “harm their expressive and financial interests in sustaining and building a readership that browses, reviews, and purchases their works,” owing to their sensitive and controversial nature.

Although Google has announced that its general privacy policy will apply to GBS, that policy currently allows Google to “track a reader’s past and present online actions and locations through some unstated combination of cookies, IP addresses, referrer logs, and numerous distinguishing characteristics of a reader’s hardware and software.” Tracking this data in respect of GBS would allow Google to know “what books are searched for, which are browsed (even if not purchased), what pages are viewed of both browsed and purchased books, and how much time is spent on each page.” Google can then use this information for purposes for which it has no user consent; it can also provide sensitive reader information to government agents and third parties with interest in this sensitive data without a court order. This may have a chilling effect on the willingness of users to read controversial materials, and consequently, may diminish the ability of authors of controversial books to earn money from them.

Fair use rights of readers may also diminish if the GBS settlement is approved. The settlement calls for readers to

191. Privacy Authors and Publishers’ Objection to Proposed Settlement at 1, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136, 2009 WL 2980746 [hereinafter Privacy Authors Objection]. They expressed concern that the audience for their works “will be severely diminished if people must wonder and worry if information about their reading habits” could be subpoenaed by government or private actors. Id.

192. Id. at 3–4 (explaining the sensitive or controversial nature of the objecting authors’ books).


194. Privacy Authors Objection, supra note 191, at 8.

195. Id.

196. Id.

197. Id. at 13.

198. Id. at 15.

199. 17 U.S.C. § 107 (2006). Four factors are typically used to decide whether an unauthorized reproduction of some or all of a copyrighted work is fair and hence noninfringing: the purpose of the challenged use, the nature of the copyrighted work, the amount and substantiality of the taking, and the harm the taking would cause to the markets for the work. Id.
pay a fee for every page they print out from books accessed via a GBS public access terminal. Photocopying the same pages from a book taken off a library bookshelf would almost certainly be fair use. The GBS per-page-print fee would thus override reader fair use rights. While this erosion of fair use is troubling in its own right, it may be additionally troubling insofar as publishers treat it as a “precedent” for charging libraries per-page-copying fees more generally. Publishers have been trying to control private study copying for several decades. The GBS settlement may give them new ammunition for achieving this objective.

First sale rights may also erode as a result of the GBS settlement. Although Google characterizes its plan to commercialize individual e-books as a “[c]onsumer [p]urchase model,” this description is somewhat misleading. Purchasers of print books have many first-sale-related freedoms with respect to their books that purchasers of GBS e-books will not have. The former can lend their books to friends; the latter cannot. The former can resell their books or give them away; GBS e-book purchasers can do neither. Purchasers of print books can freely annotate their books and share their annotations with friends or colleagues, unlike purchasers of GBS e-books. GBS e-book purchasers cannot, in fact, even take possession of their books. The money they pay to Google will only give them the

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Judge Denny Chin on behalf of academic authors expresses concern on this point. See Samuelson Letter, supra note 132, at 7 (“The Settlement Agreement restrictions are inconsistent with these fair use principles.”).

200. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.8(a)(i). Google will collect this fee from the libraries and share these revenues with the BRR. Id.

201. See generally Pamela Samuelson, Unbundling Fair Uses, 77 FORDHAM L. REV. 2537, 2580–87 (2009) (suggesting that photocopying of texts for educational purposes is likely often to be fair use).

202. See, e.g., Am. Geophysical Union v. Texaco Inc., 60 F.3d 913, 931–32 (2d Cir. 1994) (ruling that photocopying of technical articles for research purposes at a for-profit firm was unfair use); Williams & Wilkins Co. v. United States, 487 F.2d 1345, 1362 (Ct. Cl. 1973), aff’d by an equally divided court, 420 U.S. 376 (1975) (ruling that photocopying of scientific articles by libraries for researchers was fair use).

203. Copyright owners are entitled to control the first sale of their works to the public, but the purchaser of a copy of the work is generally free to lend, rent, sell, or otherwise transfer ownership of their copy of the work. 17 U.S.C. § 109(a).

204. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.2.

205. Purchasers of GBS e-books can, however, digitally copy and paste up to four pages and print up to twenty pages at a time from their e-books. Id. § 4.2(a). The pages will be watermarked and encrypted session information
right to access the books “in the cloud,” that is, on Google servers. The more apt description of the relationship between readers and GBS e-books they pay for is a single-user access license model.

Avid readers will, of course, have a number of choices when purchasing in-print books. Those who want to possess their books can buy hard copies or acquire e-books for their Kindles; those that want to share their books with friends can buy hard copies or e-books for Nooks. However, those who want e-books of out-of-print works may only get them through the GBS consumer purchase model.\footnote{\textsuperscript{206}}

Purchasers of GBS e-books also run the risk of paying prices substantially above what would prevail in a competitive market. Although proponents of the GBS settlement sometimes characterize out-of-print books as an insignificant part of the book market or as having little value,\footnote{\textsuperscript{207}} the proposed settlement agreement contemplates that Google will use an algorithm to set prices for out-of-print books ranging from $1.99 to $29.99.\footnote{\textsuperscript{208}} The agreement sets forth fixed percentages of books that will be assigned to each of twelve pricing bins (e.g., five percent of the books will be sold for $1.99 and another five percent at $29.99).\footnote{\textsuperscript{209}} The average price at which Google intends to sell these e-books to consumers is, however, $8.65.\footnote{\textsuperscript{210}}

would enable Google to determine what and who was copying or printing material from the books. \textit{Id}.\footnote{\textsuperscript{206}} The GBS settlement agreement does, however, contemplate that Google and the BRR might agree in the future to make out-of-print books available through PDF downloads or print-on-demand services. \textit{Id.} § 4.7.

\textsuperscript{207} See, e.g., Hearing, supra note 1, at 7, 12–13 (testimony of David Drummond, Senior Vice President of Corporate Development and Chief Legal Officer, Google, Inc.) (“[T]he vast majority of books sold in the United States are in print . . . out-of-print representing only two to three percent.”).

\textsuperscript{208} Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.2(c)(i)(1). The agreement states that the goal of Google’s algorithmic pricing system is to approximate prices for books in a competitive market and to maximize revenues for each book. \textit{Id.} § 4.2(c)(i). It is difficult to square the goal of approximating market pricing with a fixed percentage of books in each of the twelve pricing bins, and with twelve fixed bins, some of which are ten dollars apart. \textit{Id.} § 4.2(c)(ii)(1). James Grimmelmann has questioned the consistency of the goal of competitive pricing and fixed price bins. \textit{See} Posting of James Grimmelmann to The Laboratory, \url{http://laboratorium.net/archive/2009/12/16/gbs_a_question_on_pricing_bins} (Dec. 16, 2009, 11:10 EST). The settlement agreement does contemplate adjustment of the pricing algorithm over time, as data about book sales becomes available. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.2(a)(ii)(2).

\textsuperscript{209} Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 4.2(c)(ii). The DOJ raised concerns about the algorithmic pricing provisions of the GBS settlement in its September 2009 submission to Judge Denny Chin, suggesting that it would
Given that in-print e-books are currently selling for $9.99 (and sometimes less), this average price is higher than one might expect for out-of-print books. It remains to be seen whether the DOJ will object to the pricing bins and percentages as a form of illegal price-fixing. Although Google apparently considers its proposed consumer purchase model to be superior to other e-book systems because GBS books would be readable on multiple devices,211 it is unclear that this justifies pricing so close to in-print e-book prices, especially given some disadvantages of the GBS consumer purchase model (e.g., its dependence on Internet access and server availability).

The risk of censorship as to GBS books is an additional concern.212 The most immediate source of this risk comes from rights holders who can ask for their books to be removed from the GBS corpus or not to be scanned at all.213 GBS searches cannot be conducted on removed books, even for purposes of letting a prospective reader know at which library the removed book can be found. Google is not planning to make the list of removed books available for public inspection.214

facilitate collusive pricing. See DOJ Statement, supra note 48, at 21. The parties have made some changes to the algorithmic pricing provisions to respond to this concern. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.2(c)(i), (c)(ii)(2). However, the bins and percentages per bin remain unchanged. Id. § 4.2(c)(i).

210. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.2(c)(ii)(1).

211. See Hearing, supra note 1, at 8 (listing devices such as laptops, phones, and Kindles). Publisher John Sargent and author-subclass lawyer Michael Boni who participated in negotiations that produced the GBS settlement agreement have expressed skepticism about how viable the consumer purchase market for out-of-print books would be. Boni, supra note 149; Sargent, supra note 149.


213. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 3.5 (a); see also von Lohmann, supra note 212 (pointing out that authors, publishers, and other rights holders have sometimes sought to suppress protected works).

214. Von Lohmann, supra note 212.
Google also has the right to exclude from GBS any book it chooses on either editorial or noneditorial grounds. Google could, for example, decide to omit from GBS books on controversial subjects under pressure from conservative groups or foreign governments. If Google decides to exclude a book from GBS for editorial reasons, it must notify BRR about its decision; BRR is authorized to seek a third-party provider through which to offer the book. BRR is not, however, obliged to do so. There is also no guarantee an alternate provider would step forward. Google has the further power under the settlement agreement to exclude up to fifteen percent of eligible books from the institutional subscription database, consumer purchases, and preview uses. It need not say which books were left out.

Even if most readers today have confidence that Google would not engage in censorship, they should recognize that Google has bowed to foreign pressure before and the firm might sell GBS to another firm in the future. That purchaser may be less interested in wide-ranging freedom of expression values than Google and less reluctant to use the censorship powers that the settlement agreement confers on Google.

5. Competition, Innovation, and Cultural Ecology Risks

Approval of the GBS settlement will have important implications for competition and innovation in markets beyond the institutional subscription and consumer purchase markets dis-

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215. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 3.7(e).
216. Jonathan Band has predicted that Google, like public libraries all over the United States, will likely “find itself under pressure from state and local governments or interest groups to censor books that discuss topics such as alternative lifestyles or evolution.” Band, supra note 25, at 312. This is especially likely because children will have access to GBS books at public libraries as well as in their homes. Id. Unfortunately, “if Google bends to political pressure to remove a book, it will suppress access to the book throughout the entire country.” Id. Band also pointed to examples of China, Thailand, and Turkey putting pressure on Google to censor controversial materials. Id.
217. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 3.7(e)(i). Google can also alter the texts of books in GBS if it has authorization to do so from the rights holder. Id. § 3.10(c)(1). This raises the specter of revisionist histories akin to those that George Orwell imagined in 1984. Von Lohmann, supra note 212.
218. See Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 3.7(e)(i).
219. Id.
220. See id., id. § 7.2(e).
221. Id.
222. Id. § 17.30.
Several companies believe that approval of the GBS settlement would give Google an unfair competitive advantage over rivals in existing markets and would stifle competition and innovation in other markets. Concerns have also been expressed about the impacts of the settlement on the cultural ecology of the information economy.

Yahoo! has opposed the GBS settlement because of the "tremendous advantage" it would unfairly give Google "in its core business area: Google Search." Engineers who develop and refine search algorithms are constantly striving to develop techniques to improve the speed and quality of search results. One strategy for improving search quality involves increasing the quantity of data the search engine can process. As Peter Norvig, a Google engineer, has observed, "the very worst [search] algorithm at 10 million words is better than the very best algorithm at 1 million words;" he has also suggested that "rather than arguing about which [algorithm] is better or trying to discover a better one, why not just go out and gather more data[?]" The GBS database is just that: a vast resource of additional data that Google can use to refine its search technologies and further entrench its market dominance in the search market. Yahoo! regards Google’s data advantage from GBS to be unfair because Google would be obtaining its de facto exclusive license to GBS books through a misuse of the class action procedure.

The proposed settlement explicitly gives Google a license to make a wide range of nondisplay uses of books in the GBS cor-

223. George Dyson reported in the blog, Edge, that he was told by his host for a 2005 talk at Google: “We are not scanning all those books to be read by people . . . We are scanning them to be read by an AI [Artificial Intelligence].” Posting of George Dyson to Edge: The Third Culture, www.edge.org/3rd_culture/dyson05/dyson05_index.html (Oct. 24, 2005).

224. Yahoo! Objection, supra note 84, at 25.

225. Bell, supra note 103, at 28.

226. Yahoo! Objection, supra note 84, at 25.


228. Yahoo! Objection, supra note 84, at 25. The tremendous advantage that GBS will give Google in search is partly of concern because the long-term prospects for competition in search are, in the view of some, not all that positive. See, e.g., Posting of Frank Pasquale to Madisonian.net, http://madisonian.net/2009/03/18/seven-reasons-to-doubt-competition-in-the-general-search-engine-market/ (Mar. 18, 2009).
pus, a term which includes, but is not restricted to, development and refinement of search technologies. Google expects to develop a host of new products and services from its nondisplay uses of GBS books, including automated translation tools. The GBS corpus contains many books that have been translated from their native languages into one or more other languages; by comparing the texts of the English and French versions of the same books, for instance, Google can improve its ability to translate texts in these languages. No other profit-making firm will have access to GBS or a comparable database of books to make nondisplay uses that would enable them to make competing translation tools.

Although the settlement agreement would allow “qualified users” to engage in nonconsumptive research on the GBS research corpus at university host sites, this term is defined so that only nonprofit researchers are eligible to engage in this activity. Qualified users can publish results of their work; they can also develop noncommercial services (e.g., an index of books focused on certain geographical references) derived from their nonconsumptive research. However, they are forbidden from developing commercial services with data derived from GBS without the express permission from Google and the Registry. Qualified users are also prohibited from using data extracted from GBS books to provide services that would compete with Google or the books’ rights holders.

The most creative of the nonconsumptive researchers may well have opportunities to financially benefit from their innovations by going to work for Google, but the settlement will preclude them from becoming next-generation entrepreneurs capable of developing radically new information services arising from their nonconsumptive uses of the GBS corpus.

229. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, §§ 1.91, 3.3(a), 3.4(a).
230. One commentator has suggested that nondisplay uses of books in the GBS corpus “will end up being far more important than anything else in the agreement. Imagine the kinds of things that data mining all the world’s books might let Google’s engineers build.” Posting of Fred von Lohmann to Deeplinks Blog, http://www.eff.org/deeplinks/2008/10/google-books-settlement-readers-guide (Oct. 31, 2008).
231. Settlement Agreement, supra note 3, § 7.2(d)(xi).
232. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 1.123 (defining “qualified user”); id. § 7.2(d)(xi) (stating only qualified users can engage in nonconsumptive research).
233. Id. § 7.2(d)(vi), (vii).
234. Id. § 7.2(d)(viii).
235. Id. § 7.2(d)(ix).
It would be logical for Google to incorporate information services developed by nonconsumptive research into Google products or services.\(^{236}\) Insofar as this occurs, the nonconsumptive research provisions of the GBS deal may be valuable to Google by allowing it to reap the commercial value of the research and development efforts of leading university researchers.\(^{237}\)

Google will likely integrate GBS with other Google products and services, such as its new Wave technology.\(^{238}\) Wave has been described as “a real-time communication and collaboration platform that incorporates several types of web technologies, including email, instant messaging (IM), wiki, online documents, and gadgets.”\(^{239}\) Integration of GBS into this platform could make Google’s platform much more “sticky” with users. This could make it difficult for other firms to compete effectively with Google and raise entry barriers insofar as other firms would have to offer comparable array of integrated products and services.

In this and other respects, GBS may contribute to what some deem an unfortunate trend in the Web ecosystem—namely, “efforts by Google, Microsoft, Amazon, Apple, and other tech vendors . . . to create closed communities around their products and services . . . [thus] jeopardizing the freedom, and the spirit, of the Web.”\(^{240}\) To this end, one prominent technology pundit recently observed: “It’s no longer about the Internet as a platform . . . . It’s Google as a platform, it’s Amazon as a platform, it’s Microsoft as a platform.”\(^{241}\)

The architecture of the Internet has thus far been an open ecosystem that has been highly generative of a wide range of

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\(^{236}\) The inclusion of nonconsumptive research services into GBS institutional subscriptions could justify increasing the prices of these subscriptions. See supra notes 133–35 and accompanying text.

\(^{237}\) See supra notes 133–35 and accompanying text.

\(^{238}\) See Google, About Google Wave, http://wave.google.com/about.html (last visited Apr. 12, 2010) (“Google Wave is an online tool for real-time communication and collaboration. A wave can be both a conversation and a document where people can discuss and work together using richly formatted text, photos, videos, maps, and more.”).


\(^{241}\) Id. (quoting prominent technology pundit Tim O’Reilly).
unanticipated innovations from diverse sources. Google is one of thousands of companies who have built applications and features on top of this open architecture; its initial success has depended on the openness of this environment. Yet, Google’s commitment seems now to be moving toward the walled garden model, and GBS seems to be a component of this new strategy. While this may be rankling in its own right, it also annoys because of the taint of unfairness through which Google is getting its advantage with its unprecedented use of the class action settlement process. A more open and competitive ecosystem for digital books is possible, but it may not be achieved if the GBS settlement is approved.

6. Abuse of Class Action Risks

Several firms oppose the GBS settlement on the ground that it represents an improper use of the class action procedure to achieve what is quintessentially a legislative restructuring of copyright owner rights and remedies. Microsoft made this point vividly:

Following closed-door negotiations that excluded millions of copyright owners and the very public that copyright serves, Google and the plaintiffs seek to arrogate public policymaking to themselves, bypass Congress and the free market, and force a sweeping “joint venture”—built on copyrights owned by a largely absent class—via this Court’s order. The proposed settlement would usurp the role that Article I, Sec. 8 of the Constitution vests in Congress alone to alter the copyright laws in the face of new technologies . . . .


243. See, e.g., Lawrence Lessig, Speech at Harvard Law School (July 30, 2009), available at http://cyber.law.harvard.edu/interactive/events/2009/07/googlelessig (arguing that Google, via the GBS settlement, is building an “obsessive permission culture” around books that contrasts with the traditional culture of “free access” to books as exemplified by public libraries).

244. See infra Part II.B.6 (explaining the ways in which the GBS settlement constitutes both an unprecedented and potentially abusive use of the “class action” as a legal tool).

245. See, e.g., Internet Archive Memorandum, supra note 17, at 6–9; Objection of Amazon.com, Inc., to Proposed Settlement at 7–15, Authors Guild, Inc. v. Google Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 4888799 (S.D.N.Y. Nov. 19, 2009), [hereinafter Amazon.com Objection]; Objections of Microsoft Corp. to Proposed Settlement and Certification of Proposed Settlement Class and Subclasses at 6–16, Authors Guild, Inc., No. 05 CV 8136 (DC), 2009 WL 2980742 [hereinafter Microsoft Objection].

246. Microsoft Objection, supra note 245, at 3–4. Only Congress has “the constitutional authority and institutional ability” to reorder copyright owner
Amazon.com also argues that courts are ill-equipped as part of a fairness hearing on a class action settlement "to balance and make adjustments necessary to accommodate the many public interests at stake when a new technology emerges that offers both the promise of public benefit and the danger of abuse of both copyright holders and consumers."247

Congress is the proper branch of government to change copyright entitlements to address new technology issues, which it has often done, sometimes as to issues that first arose in class action litigations.248 Because Congress has been actively considering legislation to make orphan works more widely available—a key objective of the GBS settlement—Amazon.com asserts that the proposed GBS settlement should be disapproved because it "tilts the playing field by liberating Google (and Google alone)" from constraints in the orphan works legislation that Congress is most likely to enact.249 Yet, some proponents of the GBS deal insist that the orphan works problem can only be solved through a class action settlement.250

Diversity of interests among class members, the impossibility of discerning the interests of orphan work rights holders or of notifying them of the settlement’s terms, inter-class conflicts, and the atypicality of the class representatives are among the specific reasons to doubt whether the GBS class could or should be certified.251 Questions also exist about whether this settlement should be approved given the stark contrast between the narrow issue in litigation in the Authors Guild case—whether scanning books in order to make short excerpts available in response to search queries is copyright infringement—and the rights. Id. at 7 (quoting Sony Corp. of Am. v. Universal City Studios, Inc., 464 U.S. 417, 431 (1984)).

248. Id. at 9–12; Microsoft Objection, supra note 245, at 8–10.
251. See, e.g., Internet Archive Memorandum, supra note 17, at 1–2, 11, 15–18. Microsoft pointed out that all the major plaintiff publishers had negotiated separate deals with Google to make their books available through GBS and “they all reportedly plan to exclude their books from the settlement terms that most class members who lack the plaintiff publishers’ knowledge, relationships, and sophistication will have to live with in perpetuity,” thus calling into question the adequacy of their representation of subclass interests. Microsoft Objection, supra note 245, at 18.
expansive and complex business arrangement that approval of the settlement would establish. The settlement would, moreover, release Google from liability for acts of infringement in which it has not yet engaged (e.g., selling institutional subscriptions to out-of-print books) which are different in kind from the infringement claim being settled.

Approval of the GBS settlement could thus create a dangerous precedent that would encourage class action lawyers to address important public policy questions by bringing lawsuits that begin with a legitimate dispute over a specific issue, but are later enlarged to transform the structure of affected industries and their markets. Imagine, for example, that A&M Records brought a class action lawsuit against Napster for inducing copyright infringement of sound recordings of music, and then negotiated a settlement with Napster that would make the latter the only licensed distributor of digital music, with authorization to use an algorithm to set prices at which Napster would sell the songs and determine revenue splits. Approval of such a settlement would have, among other things, precluded Apple from introducing iTunes.

Approval of the settlement may also enable Google to have a substantial and arguably unfair advantage in negotiating with owners of rights in copyrighted materials other than books. Google could start scanning these works and claim to

252. Microsoft Objection, supra note 245, at 22–23 (arguing that use of a class action settlement “to launch a joint venture” would abridge the substantive rights of millions of proposed class members in violation of the Rules Enabling Act, 28 U.S.C. § 2072(b) (2006)).

253. Amazon.com Objection, supra note 245, at 35–38 (“A settlement can release claims that were not specifically asserted in an action, but can only release claims that are based on the ‘same identical factual predicate’ or the ‘same set of operative facts’ as the underlying action. Thus, it follows that a release is overly broad if it releases claims based on a set of operative facts that will occur in the future.” (citing UniSuper Ltd. v. News Corp., 898 A.2d 344, 347 (Del. Ch. 2006))).

254. Google’s founders want to organize all of the world’s information. Google, Corporate Information—Company Overview, http://www.google.com/corporate/ (last visited Apr. 12, 2010) (“Founders Larry Page and Sergey Brin named the search engine they built ‘Google,’ a play on the word ‘googol,’ the mathematical term for a 1 followed by 100 zeros. The name reflects the immense volume of information that exists, and the scope of Google’s mission: to organize the world’s information and make it universally accessible and useful.”). Not all such information can be found in books, so it is logical to wonder which copyright industry will be Google’s next target for its scanning projects. One logical possibility are the texts of academic journals, which have much the same character as books. There are probably more revenues to be made, however, if Google scans sound recordings so that it can offer a music service to its
be interested only in making snippets available; when challenged by rights holders, Google could say to them: “We could obviously litigate whether our scanning is copyright infringement, and you could bring a class action lawsuit to challenge this, but why don’t we make a deal instead and save ourselves a lot of litigation costs and anguish?”

Use of a class action settlement to restructure markets and to reallocate intellectual property rights, particularly when it would give one firm a de facto monopoly to commercialize millions of books, is arguably corrosive of fundamental tenets of our democratic society.255

C. SUMMING UP

Proponents of the GBS settlement have painted a very rosy picture about the many positive things that would happen if the GBS settlement was approved by the federal courts.256 It is unquestionably true that the public would have more access to books than ever before, and rights holders would have new opportunities to make money from Google’s commercialization of their books.257 Google’s nondisplay uses of books in the GBS corpus, as well as the nonconsumptive research that university scholars and other nonprofit users would be able to undertake if the settlement is approved, would advance knowledge and lead to development of new technologies, such as automated translation tools, that will facilitate further advances.258 The GBS goal of expanding access to books for print-disabled persons is laudable as well.259 There is, moreover, a pragmatic argument that can be made in favor of the settlement, for it would “cut ‘the Gordian knot of the huge’ transaction costs” that otherwise would inhibit clearing the rights necessary to


255. See, e.g., Amazon.com Objection, supra note 245, at 7, 13–15 (arguing that it is for Congress, not the courts, to revise copyright law to respond to new technology issues).

256. See supra Part II.A.

257. See supra text accompanying notes 64–67.

258. See supra text accompanying notes 83–92.

259. See supra text accompanying note 61.
digitize millions of out-of-print books, thus making them available for institutional subscriptions and consumer purchases.\footnote{260}

Notwithstanding these benefits, however, there are both substantive and procedural reasons to question whether the GBS settlement will fulfill the lofty goals its proponents have articulated, especially over the long run.\footnote{261} Proponents of the settlement have sometimes exaggerated its benefits and ignored or been dismissive of legitimate issues raised by critics of the settlement.\footnote{262} There is more substantive merit in these criticisms than GBS proponents have acknowledged. Of particular concern are risks of excessive pricing, the lack of a backup plan if Google decides to discontinue GBS, and inadequate privacy protections. It is, of course, too early to know whether any of the “nightmares” that some envision will come to pass. There are presently too few checks and balances in the settlement agreement, however, to protect the public’s strong interests in this corpus of books. Also of concern are the possible diminishing of competition in the book market, the broad restructuring of rights and remedies available to copyright owners, and the audacious effort to use class action procedures to accomplish a quintessentially legislative objective. These concerns cannot be dismissed simply because some of them have been articulated by Google’s rivals like Amazon.com, Microsoft, and Yahoo!


\footnote{261. See supra Part II.B.}

\footnote{262. In his congressional testimony, Authors Guild Executive Director Paul Aiken, for example, gave the impression that approval of the GBS settlement would make “at least 10 million” books available to the public. See\textit{ Hearing}, \textsuperscript{supra} note 1, at 37 n.3 (statement of Paul Aiken, Executive Director, Authors Guild) (“Here’s the math: we expect the [GBS] settlement to make at least 10 million out-of-print books available . . . .”). This is an exaggeration. See Jessica E. Vascellaro \& Jeffrey A. Trachtenberg, \textit{New Google Book Pact Unlikely To End Flap}, WALL ST. J., Nov. 16, 2009, http://online.wsj.com/article/SB100014240527023044574538123489790080.html (observing that the GBS settlement agreement “would allow Google to distribute millions of digital books online, but would cut the number of works covered by the settlement by at least half by removing millions of foreign works”) (emphasis added). Aiken was also very dismissive of criticisms of the settlement. See\textit{ Hearing}, \textsuperscript{supra} note 1, at 39–43 (statement of Paul Aiken, Executive Director, Authors Guild) (rejecting objections to the GBS settlement that cast the settlement as violative of fundamental copyright principles and the legal status of unclaimed or “orphan” works).}
GBS is, in short, a mixed bag. Some have called for measures to limit the risks posed to the public and other interests. Library associations, for instance, have urged close judicial supervision of compliance with the settlement agreement provisions to guard against abuses, particularly as to excessive pricing. Others have called for a court order requiring Google to grant a compulsory license to the GBS corpus so that other firms could make use of it. At the same time, it is far from clear that federal courts can or should approve of the deal on antitrust or class action grounds in the first place. The next section considers what might happen to the future of books in cyberspace if the GBS settlement is not approved, and why it would be desirable to create an alternative research corpus of books that could serve as competition for GBS as well as preserving our cultural heritage better than Google is likely to do.

III. OTHER POSSIBLE FUTURES FOR BOOKS IN CYBERSPACE

Regardless of whether the GBS settlement is or is not approved, several things are clear: first, the market for digital books is growing, and its trajectory is strong. Amazon.com’s Kindle, Sony’s e-book reader, and Barnes & Noble’s Nook are fueling the market for digital books. These information appliances offer some useful features unavailable in print books.

263. ALA Letter, supra note 260, at 2 (“[T]he most effective way to prevent the [Book Rights] Registry and Google from abusing the control they will have over the essential research facility enabled by the settlement would be for the court to . . . review the pricing of the institutional subscription to ensure that it meets the economic objectives set forth in the settlement . . . .”).

264. OBA Memo, supra note 108, at 29 (arguing that Google should be ordered to license the [GBS] database with all attendant rights to a number of competitors, under the supervision of the Department of Justice).


(e.g., search functionality) and they make books much more readily transportable than print books. These technologies will continue to improve, and competition among the platforms will yield benefits to the public.

Second, the economics of digital publishing now make it commercially viable to sell books that have been out of print for some time because the web can “match geographically dispersed buyers to a product of their choice efficiently, in contrast to the old distribution model based on storefronts.” Individual out-of-print books may not be all that valuable in isolation, but there is a growing recognition that bundles of them might be quite valuable.

Third, digitization of books has made it possible to serve ads that can be targeted either to the individual user or to the book. This could create a lucrative new revenue stream for rights holders as well as for intermediaries, such as Amazon.com or Google, that stand between the publisher and book


268. The Barnes & Noble Nook, for example, allows readers some ability to “lend” their books to others. Jeffrey A. Trachtenberg & Geoffrey A. Fowler, B&N Reader Out Tuesday, WALL ST. J., Oct. 20, 2009, at B7 (“[T]he [B&N] Nook will enable its owners to ‘lend eBooks to friends.’”).

269. OBA Memo supra note 108, at 4. Google, for instance, will have to make relatively few sales of out-of-print books to recoup its costs of scanning and storing them on its servers as part of the GBS corpus. At an average sales price of $6 per copy, with the BRR/Google revenue split, one commentator has estimated that Google would need to sell only forty-one copies of an out-of-print book to recoup its investment in digital publishing, whereas print publishers require orders of magnitude more sales to make physical books available. Long Term Memory, http://ltmem.blogspot.com (Feb. 28, 2009, 21:44 EST). Even if Google’s costs may be somewhat higher than this commentator suggests, the main point that digital publishing changes the economics of publishing stands.

270. OBA Memo, supra note 108, at 5 (“On one hand, the consumer transition from paper-and-ink books to electronic books presents an opportunity for the publishers to reap an enormous windfall from older, out-of-print books that are still under copyright. Of course, the opportunity lies in aggregation; the returns on each individual title may not be large.”).

271. See, e.g., Randal C. Picker, The Mediated Book 13 (Univ. of Chicago John M. Olin Program in Law & Econ., Working Paper No. 463, 2009), available at http://ssrn.com/abstract=1399613 (“An advertising-supported e-book could be produced at the time of download or could be updated periodically with new ads each time the book was read. That is, new ads could easily be inserted into an e-book each time it was downloaded. . . . And of course these ads could be personalized for individual readers.”).
readers. Targeted ads may be a particularly useful model for books stored “in the cloud” (e.g., stored on servers) because new ads can be generated every time the reader accesses the book.\textsuperscript{272}

Fourth, digitized versions of public domain books are now widely available not only from Google, but also from other sources, such as the Internet Archive.\textsuperscript{273} Fifth, libraries and other nonprofit educational institutions are likely to digitize more works in their collections that they have reason to believe are or are likely to be in the public domain or to be orphans. Sixth, amateurs will digitize too, sometimes for their own personal uses, sometimes to share with friends, and sometimes to share with lots of people, as through peer-to-peer file-sharing.\textsuperscript{274} The darknet is alive for books, as for other types of content.\textsuperscript{275}

There is, moreover, a growing recognition that a digital corpus of millions of searchable books from major research libraries is both desirable and achievable.\textsuperscript{276} GBS has whetted the public’s, as well as the scholarly communities’, appetites for this kind of information resource.\textsuperscript{277} Although approval of the GBS settlement will bring about greater access to books sooner, I believe it is inevitable that a digital corpus of books from ma-

\textsuperscript{272} See id. Advertising is one of the three revenue models that the GBS settlement anticipates will be implemented in GBS. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.4 ("Revenues generated from Advertising Uses of books in the GBS corpus will be allocated between Google and the Rightsholders of the books . . . .").


\textsuperscript{274} See sources cited supra note 105 (addressing the online availability of information about amateur book scanning technology).

\textsuperscript{275} See Harvey, supra note 104.

\textsuperscript{276} See, e.g., GARY HALL, DIGITIZE THIS BOOK!: THE POLITICS OF NEW MEDIA, OR WHY WE NEED OPEN ACCESS NOW 9 (2008) (describing the vocal advocacy of “open-access” proponent Stevan Harnad, who argues that “the digitization and self-archiving of refereed research literature” will serve to advance the “free and fair distribution and exchange of knowledge and information on a worldwide scale”).

\textsuperscript{277} See, e.g., Janet M. Baker et al., Research Developments and Directions in Speech Recognition and Understanding, Part 1, IEEE SIGNAL PROCESSING MAG., May 2009, at 75, 79 (discussing how the digitization of libraries could advance the “state of the art in the automation of world language speech understanding and proficiency”).
ajor research libraries will be developed and made widely available to research communities and to the public.

A. WHAT WOULD HAPPEN TO GBS IF THE SETTLEMENT IS REJECTED?

Disapproval of the GBS settlement is unlikely to cause Google to stop scanning in-copyright books from the major research libraries with which it has contracted, and growing the GBS corpus accordingly. The company has made too much of an investment in the project to drop it, even if the settlement is not approved. If the settlement is rejected, Google will likely continue to provide snippets of texts from GBS in-copyright books as well as links to places from which it is possible to acquire the books and to provide free downloadable copies of public domain books. Google would also likely continue to make nondisplay uses of books in the corpus to improve its search technologies, for which it would have a plausible fair use defense.

Google will almost certainly continue to work with publishers of in-print books to make these books available under terms mutually acceptable to Google and the publishers under its

278. See Sag, supra note 33, at 7–8 (arguing that little difference is to be found between the terms of the GBS settlement and the most likely outcome of the litigation under traditional “fair use” doctrine since Google’s “digitization of books . . . [was] likely to constitute fair use and [this is] also allowed under the terms of the Amended Settlement”).


280. Nondisplay uses of the GBS corpus would likely result in advancing knowledge and/or in the creation of new noninfringing works of authorship, such as new tools to aid in the translation of texts from one language to another. See, e.g., Baker et al., supra note 277, at 79. They would be “transformative” in the sense that courts have endorsed under “fair use” doctrine in recent years. See Campbell v. Acuff-Rose Music, Inc., 510 U.S. 569, 579 (1994) (establishing that “fair use” of a copyrighted material by a new work depends in large part on whether the new work “adds something new, with a further purpose or different character, altering the [copyrighted material] with new expression, meaning, or message . . . in other words, whether and to what extent the new work is ‘transformative’”). Nondisplay uses, by definition, do not display any expression from works whose texts might be analyzed. Baker et al., supra note 277, at 79. Accordingly, they are unlikely to bring about any harm or potential harm to the market for the underlying works.

GBS has fueled interest in institutional subscriptions to a corpus of digitized books. Many authors and publishers of out-of-print books may well want to take part in a subscription service. Google may well offer such a service, but others might be willing to do the same if the settlement is not approved.

Google has announced that it plans to work with Creative Commons so that rights holders of books with open access preferences can be accommodated. Google is also willing to work

281. See Google, Books Partner Program—Program Overview, http://books.google.com/support/partner/bin/answer.py?answer=106167 (last visited Apr. 12, 2010) (explaining how the Google Books Partner Program works as “a free marketing program that enables publishers and authors to promote their books online”).

282. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 3.5 (affirming the rights of authors and publishers to have their books removed or excluded from the GBS corpus).

283. No matter what happens, Google will have a five-year lead over any other book digitization project, as well as a set of contractual arrangements in place with libraries and publishers that will be difficult for other digitizers to match. See Nunberg, supra note 171 (“Google’s five-year head start [with GBS] and its relationships with libraries and publishers give it an effective monopoly: No competitor will be able to come after it on the same scale. Nor is technology going to lower the cost of entry. Scanning will always be an expensive, labor-intensive project.”) Second-comers will also have the challenge of figuring out exactly which books are orphans, a problem that Google has sought to surmount through settlement terms that give it a broad license to commercialize all out-of-print books. See Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, §§ 6–7 (establishing the terms under which GBS may commercialize the usage of out-of-print books in its corpus).

284. Posting of Xian Ke to Inside Google Books, http://booksearch.blogspot.com/ (Aug. 13, 2009, 10:16 EST) (announcing a new initiative by GBS “to help authors and publishers discover new audiences for books they’ve made available for free under Creative Commons (CC) licenses”); see also Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 4.2(a)(i) (enabling rights holders of books in the
with rights holders of out-of-print books who want to dedicate their books to the public domain. These initiatives should ensure that more books will be available to the public, both through GBS and through other sites and services that foster open access. Disapproval of the settlement would give Google incentives to partner with libraries and other organizations to develop websites through which it would be possible to share information about which books published between 1923 and 1964 are actually in the public domain for failure to renew copyrights and which ones are actually orphans.

Disapproval of the GBS deal would likely precipitate renewed interest in orphan works legislation. Google would certainly have stronger incentives to support such legislation if the GBS settlement was rejected than if it was approved. It might also be more likely to support free uses of true orphan works instead of paid uses of such books, with funds escrowed for some years, as the Authors Guild and the Association of
American Publishers (AAP) seem to prefer. Congress is the more appropriate venue, as opposed to the courts for addressing how to rescue orphan works or under what conditions mass digitization of books should take place. A societal benefit of Congressional action would be that Google would no longer be the only firm that could make orphan books available.

As for the Authors Guild v. Google litigation, there are at least three options absent the proposed settlement. One is that the Guild and AAP could decide to drop their lawsuits against Google because of the expense, the time it would take, and considerable uncertainty about the outcome. The uncertainty exists not only as to Google’s fair use defense, but also to the certifiability of the class. Dozens of objections filed with the court in connection with the proposed GBS settlement suggest that authors, publishers, and other rights holders have extremely diverse interests and legal opinions; there is probably no one class of all rights holders that can, in fact, be certified.

A second option is for the plaintiffs to press on with the litigation. Google could ultimately win its fair use defense for scanning-to-index. This is a win that many librarians and other researchers would cheer. Alternatively, the plaintiffs could press on with the litigation and win on the merits, albeit on behalf of a far smaller class. Even so, the court would likely recognize the public benefit of the GBS corpus and order that damages, rather than injunctive relief, should be awarded. It

288. The Amended GBS Settlement reflects an expectation that the Unclaimed Works Fiduciary might eventually license orphan books to third parties. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 6.2(b)(i) (stating that under the terms of the GBS settlement “in the case of unclaimed Books and Inserts, the Unclaimed Works Fiduciary may license to third parties the Copyright Interests of Rightsholders of unclaimed Books and Inserts to the extent permitted by law”).

289. See Samuelson Letter, supra note 132, at 2–3 (suggesting that class certification in the Authors Guild case is untenable given that academic authors would generally consider scanning books for indexing purposes to be fair use in contrast to counsel for the Authors Guild who assert that such acts are not fair use).

290. Any success by Google with its fair use defense in the Authors Guild case likely would have emboldened libraries to scan other materials in their collections that are not commercially available, at least for preservation and other nondisplay purposes.

is unimaginable that a court would order the GBS corpus to be destroyed, but it might well rule that Google has to get the permission of rights holders before commercializing any books in the corpus.

A third option, assuming disapproval of the GBS settlement, would be for the parties to take the matter to Congress to resolve. Some critics of the GBS settlement have argued that Congress, not the courts, is the most appropriate forum for addressing the orphan works issue for books.292

B. BUILDING AN ALTERNATIVE RESEARCH CORPUS OF BOOKS

It would be socially desirable for there to be a digital corpus of twenty or so million books from major research libraries that would be available through institutional subscriptions at reasonable prices, which would be run by a consortium of non-profit educational institutions, not by Google or any other for-profit firm. This proposal would be desirable regardless of whether the GBS settlement is approved or disapproved.

Development of this corpus should be publicly funded—a kind of Human Genome Project-like initiative—and implemented by the major research libraries themselves working in cooperation with one another.293 The knowledge embedded in the books of these research libraries are part of the cultural heritage of the humankind and should be widely available and preserved for future generations. Research librarians would be more likely than Google to care about the quality of the scans and about the accuracy of the metadata which are essential if a research corpus is actually going to serve well the research and educational communities for which it should principally be designed.294 This digital library should be built on open architec-

access to second-generation creations may justify denial of injunctive relief in close fair use cases that involve parodies and other critical works).


293. Harvard librarian Robert Darnton has suggested nationalizing the GBS corpus and making it into “a truly public library.” Robert Darnton, Google and the New Digital Future, N.Y. REV. BOOKS, Dec. 17, 2009, at 82, 84. Or, if that proves too ambitious, he proposes a mass digitization project funded by nonprofit foundations and government economic stimulus funds that would cost approximately $750 million “spread out over ten to twenty years.” Id.

294. Darnton suggests that if libraries and nonprofit organizations scanned books for a national digital library “the job would be done right, with none of the missing pages, botched images, faulty editions, omitted artwork, censoring, and misconceived cataloging that mar Google’s enterprise.” Id. Library control over the corpus would also ensure preservation of the books involved “because Google is not committed to maintaining its corpus.” Id.
ture principles, so that improvements could be added from multiple sources over time.

The research corpus should be maintained on more than one institution’s servers. Redundancy is important to ensure that if servers at one host site go down, the corpus will still be available from other host sites. In keeping with its historical role as a great library of books, the Library of Congress would seem an appropriate site for one of the repositories. Security measures to protect the corpus should be strong, as there is a risk that it may be an attractive target for hackers.295

The biggest hurdle to building such a digital repository of books, of course, is copyright. Taking inspiration from GBS, I recommend that Congress allow mass digitization of books from major research libraries. Participating libraries should be able to use the corpus for preservation and other legitimate library purposes, although no more than snippets of the books’ contents should be displayed unless the appropriate rights holders have consented. Owners of copyrights in out-of-print books could be strongly encouraged to make their books available in the research corpus for noncommercial purposes. Congress should offer a tax credit for rights holders who dedicate their books to the public domain or at least to noncommercial uses of the research corpus. Print-on-demand or e-book purchases could remain within the rights holders’ control. Inclusion of a book in the research corpus might well attract readers who would often become paying customers.296

Because most of the books in major research libraries were written by scholars for scholars, and because open access has become a strong value within academic communities, it should

295. See Harvey, supra note 104.

296. It is reasonably common for research scholars to borrow books from libraries, and as they prove useful, to buy a copy for longer term use. Many presses are recognizing that allowing the full text of their books to be available online is compatible with selling copies of the books to people who prize them enough to want to own them. The National Academies Press, for instance, typically publishes online the entire text of books that the Press also sells in print form. See The National Academies Press, About Us, http://www.nap.edu/about.html (last visited Apr. 12, 2010) (explaining that the National Academies Press offers “many titles in electronic Adobe PDF format. Hundreds of these books can be downloaded for free by the chapter or the entire book, while others are available for purchase.”). Moreover, some authors and publishers have come to recognize that online access can promote sales of books. See David Pogue, Should e-Books Be Copy Protected?, N.Y. TIMES, Dec. 17, 2009, http://www.nytimes.com/2009/12/17/technology/personaltech/17pogue-email.html (reporting that sales of technology columnist David Pogue’s books increased when he made the books available for purchase without copy-protection).
be possible for the research communities themselves to organize in support of an open access corpus of books. Even those who have assigned copyrights in books to their publishers should generally be able to make their books available on an open access basis. Courts have held that assignments to publish works “in book form” cover only the right to print physical books, not to control publication of electronic versions.\footnote{See sources cited supra note 113.} Even those authors who have explicitly assigned electronic rights to publishers will be entitled, after a period of years, to terminate those transfers.\footnote{See 17 U.S.C. § 203(a)(3) (2006) (establishing that any grant of a right of publication under a copyright may be terminated by the author “at the end of thirty-five years from the date of publication of the work under the grant or at the end of forty years from the date of execution of the grant, whichever term ends earlier”); id. § 304(c)(3) (establishing that any grant of a right under a renewal copyright may be terminated by the author “at any time during a period of five years beginning at the end of fifty-six years from the date copyright was originally secured, or beginning on January 1, 1978, whichever is later”).} They too could be encouraged or incentivized to make their scholarly books available on an open access basis. Finally, many authors of scholarly books have contracts with publishers under which copyrights revert to them if and when the book goes out-of-print.\footnote{See Alison Flood & Katherine Rushton, Is ‘Out of Print’ Outdated?, BOOKSELLER.COM, Oct. 10, 2007, http://www.thebookseller.com/in-depth/feature/46542-is-out-of-print-outdated.html (“Traditionally, an author can ask for rights to revert to them if a book is out of print, and is therefore no longer selling.”).} They too could make their books available for open access use in the research corpus.

It would be desirable for all researchers, whether from profit or nonprofit institutions, to be eligible to make nondisplay uses of the research corpus and to develop innovative new products and services that would interoperate with the research corpus.\footnote{By contrast, the GBS settlement agreement forbids researchers from commercializing products or services that they might create from nonconsumptive uses of the GBS corpus. Amended GBS Agreement, supra note 39, § 7.2(d)(viii) (“Except with the express permission of the Registry and Google, direct, for profit, commercial use of information extracted from Books in the Research Corpus is prohibited.”).} This would help to create a more open and competitive ecosystem for digital books. The existence of this corpus and the ability to build on it may provide meaningful competition to GBS.
Of course, there is more than the legacy of books already in research library collections for which plans should be made. New books will obviously continue to be published. The research corpus should accordingly grow to encompass new books of interest to research communities. Copyright law currently requires rights holders to deposit a copy of new works with the Library of Congress. One of the two copies of print books that rights holders must submit to the Copyright Office goes to the Congressional library. Once the proper infrastructure was in place, it would be a simple thing to allow digital copies to be deposited with the Library of Congress, perhaps as an alternative to deposit of print books.

A committee formed by the coalition of research libraries responsible for maintaining the digital research corpus could decide which books should be added to this corpus, perhaps by purchasing a copy for the corpus. Some books not selected for the research corpus might still be included in the collections of particular research libraries for which the books might nonetheless be attractive because of special interests of their institutions’ researchers or the contributions the books would make to their specialized collections.

Accommodation will also need to be made for new kinds of books, the creation of which digital technologies will enable.

301. The GBS settlement is backward-looking in that it only affects books published on or before January 5, 2009. See id. § 1.13.
302. 17 U.S.C. § 407(a) (establishing generally that "the owner of copyright . . . in a work published in the United States shall deposit, within three months after the date of such publication . . . two complete copies of the best edition [of the work]" with the Copyright Office). The Register of Copyrights has the authority to exempt certain categories of works from the deposit requirement. Id. § 407(c).
303. Id. § 407(b) ("The required copies or phonorecords shall be deposited in the Copyright Office for the use or disposition of the Library of Congress.").
304. See, e.g., Peter S. Menell, Knowledge Accessibility and Preservation Policy for the Digital Age, 44 Hous. L. Rev. 1013, 1066–67 (2007) ("Congress should update the deposit system [for copyrighted works] to require that publishers and authors deposit both tangible and digital copies of their works with the Library of Congress. The Library of Congress could establish, through ongoing rulemaking, the procedures and standards for digital deposit of copyrighted works."); Posting of Frank Pasquale to Balkinization, http://balkin.blogspot.com/ (Feb. 4, 2009, 20:04 EST) ("A rational copyright policy would have required digital deposit of all books granted copyright since digitization became widespread. It would have put government in the position of providing a service like Google book search, at least with respect to more current books. Just as Medicare provides a benchmark for private insurers’ actions, that Public Book Search could be both an alternative and a model for Google—and could learn from Google, too.").
Some are likely to be books of significance for researchers. Harvard Librarian Robert Darnton has conceived the desirability of multilayered historical works in digital form.\textsuperscript{305} The top layer might consist of a high level narrative synopsis of the key findings or points to be made in the book, with deeper layers of argumentation or analysis available to researchers who want to know more.\textsuperscript{306} Another deeper layer might provide access to data or other sources that provide documentation for points made in higher levels of the book.\textsuperscript{307} Digital convergence will enable books to become multimedia works, in which video and audio files are embedded in texts, to attract younger readers who live in an image-rich world.\textsuperscript{308} Also in need of curation and possible inclusion in a research corpus are scholarly books that are “born digital.”\textsuperscript{309} Multivalent documents, which can be richly layered, are another digitally enabled information resource that a digital library might include.\textsuperscript{310}

Lending is a practice that has long been associated with libraries; indeed, it is an emblematic activity as to libraries and books. Books have not only been available to read inside the walls of the library; they are also available for patrons of libraries to check out, take home, and later return. The freedom that libraries have to lend books they purchase comes from the U.S. copyright rule that allows rights holders to control only the first sale of a copy to the public.\textsuperscript{311} The first sale rule has

\textsuperscript{305} See DARNTON, supra note 15, at 79–102 (describing the Gutenberg-e Project, which aimed to revolutionize historical scholarship through the use of electronic publications that integrated conventional plain text with audio, video, images, and Internet hyperlinks).

\textsuperscript{306} See id.

\textsuperscript{307} See id.


\textsuperscript{309} DARNTON, supra note 15, at 52.

\textsuperscript{310} See Thomas A. Phelps & Robert Wilensky, Multivalent Documents, COMM. OF THE ACM, June 2000, at 82, 83–84 (defining “multivalent documents” as a “digital document model” that enables authors to build layers into digital content that consequently provide viewers with a variety of features like “near-universal document functionality” or “novel search method[s]”).

\textsuperscript{311} Lending books is explicitly permitted as a matter of copyright law under the “first sale” rule of copyright. See 17 U.S.C. § 109(a) (2006). In some countries, however, public lending libraries must pay a fee based on the library materials that have been lent. See, e.g., Council Directive 92/100/EEC, On Rental Right and Lending Right and on Certain Rights Related to Copyright in the Field of Intellectual Property, art. 5, para. 1, 1992 O.J. (L 346) 61,
also insulated libraries to some degree from higher prices that publishers might otherwise want to charge them for books that may be lent to many people.312

Librarians believe that digital books should be as lendable as print books have been.313 However, publishers have thus far been reluctant to accept that the first sale rule applies to digital books.314 Someone who owns a Kindle that has been loaded with its owner’s favorite books can, of course, lend the Kindle itself to a friend. The friend can then read one or more of the owner’s books on that Kindle, but one cannot lend just one book from a Kindle. Barnes & Noble has publicized the new lending feature of its new e-book reader, the Nook, but looking at the fine print, one learns that lending a book on a Nook can only be done one time and even then only if the publisher has allowed it.315

63 (establishing that public lending of copyrighted works may be undertaken by European Community member states so long as the authors of such works “obtain a remuneration for such lending”); see also JULIE E. COHEN ET AL., COPYRIGHT IN A GLOBAL INFORMATION ECONOMY 375–76 (2d ed. 2006) (discussing the “public lending right” adopted by the European Union which allows the authors of copyrighted works to receive “a small royalty each time a member of the public borrows the work, or alternatively, based on a census of titles in stock and available for public borrowing or usage”).

312. See Ann Bartow, Electrifying Copyright Norms and Making Cyberspace More Like a Book, 48 VILL. L. REV. 13, 111–12 (2003) (“Among its other advantages for libraries, the first sale doctrine helps prevent price discrimination, because it allows those who buy a work at a low price to resell it to an entity that otherwise may have been targeted for a high price. In other words, publishers cannot effectively tack surcharges onto books they sell to libraries, even though those copies are likely to be read by more people than copies sold to individuals, because libraries can ‘arbitrage’ books from those who are able to purchase them at lower prices. When the first sale doctrine is circumvented through contract provisions governing licensing, reselling can be prevented (since there was never a ’first sale’ to engage the eponymous doctrine) and libraries become vulnerable to price discrimination.”).


314. See Alicia Ryan, Contract, Copyright, and the Future of Digital Preservation, 10 B.U. J. SCI. & TECH. L. 152, 158 (2004) (describing the kinds of license restrictions that publishers are likely to place on the distribution of e-books, such as usage limits that “eliminate the ability to print pages, to copy and paste, or to lend a copy of the work”).

The Internet Archive has introduced a new book lending server system, which aims to promote a digital lending system modeled on first sale-related concepts. Whether lending will become part of the GBS or an alternative research corpus remains to be seen. The GBS institutional license envisioned may serve some of the same purposes in terms of lending when it comes to out-of-print books in the GBS corpus, allowing patrons to access and read them, but in-print books will generally not be available through institutional licenses. Library patrons who want access to in-print books should have some alternative—hopefully, through library lending—to the otherwise stark choice of paying for the whole book or not being able to access it at all.

CONCLUSION

Google has made two bold moves with GBS. The first was to scan millions of books in order to index their contents, serve up snippets in response to user queries, and make nondisplay uses to refine its search technologies. The second was to reach an agreement with the Guild and the AAP to settle the lawsuit charging the firm with copyright infringement so that Google could commercialize most of the books it had scanned. At first blush, this seems like a win-win-win: a win for Google, which would now be able to develop revenue models from which to recoup its investment in GBS; a win for authors and publishers, who would enjoy a substantial share of the revenue stream generated from GBS books; and a win for the public, which would have increased free access to books, as well as opportunities to have even greater access through subscriptions and purchases.


317. See R. Anthony Reese, The First Sale Doctrine in the Era of Digital Networks, 44 B.C. L. REV. 577, 616 (2003) (“To some extent, new [digital] dissemination patterns may enhance affordability or availability, producing similar, or perhaps greater, effects than the first sale doctrine has. In many other ways, however, digital dissemination may reduce the doctrine’s affordability and availability effects, forcing policymakers and academics to consider whether the copyright system can find other mechanisms to promote affordability and availability.”).
This second bold move has, however, proven to be far more controversial than the first. Even those who follow developments in the publishing industry closely have expressed reservations about it:

[W]as it ever reasonable to think that such a revolutionary, unprecedented pact, negotiated in secret over three years by people with loose claims of representation, concerning a wide range of stakeholders, both foreign and domestic, involving murky issues of copyright and the rapidly unfolding digital future, could be pushed through as a class action settlement within a period of months, in the teeth of a historic media industry transition?318

This Article has shown that although there are some reasons to be optimistic about the future of books in cyberspace if the GBS settlement is approved, there are even more reasons to be worried about the settlement and its consequences for competition and innovation down the line, as well as for sustained public access to knowledge, thus bringing into doubt the bright promise that proponents of the GBS settlement proclaim is likely to be achieved.

The future of public access to the cultural heritage of humankind embodied in books is too important to leave in the hands of one company and one registry that will have a de facto monopoly over a huge corpus of digital books and rights in them.

Google has yet to accept that its creation of this substantial public good brings with it public trust responsibilities that go well beyond its corporate slogan about not being evil.